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Scheduling Bodyguards

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ABSTRACT

Security agencies around the world use bodyguards to protect government officials and public figures. In this paper, we consider a two-person zero-sum game between a defender who allocates such bodyguards to protect several targets and an attacker who chooses one target to attack. Because the number of feasible bodyguard allocations grows quickly as either the number of targets or the number of bodyguards increases, solving the game by brute force with a linear program becomes computationally intractable for problems of practical size. By assuming that the marginal benefit of each additional bodyguard assigned to a target is nonincreasing, we show that we can solve the game with a different linear program whose size is linear in the number of targets and the number of bodyguards, respectively. Next, we extend the allocation game to a scheduling game, which allows a bodyguard to report to multiple targets if their schedules allow. We develop an algorithm to compute a bound on the value of this bodyguard scheduling game and present a mixed strategy that achieves this bound in all numerical experiments. Through a case study, we demonstrate how our bodyguard games can be deployed in the Netherlands.

1 | Introduction

Security agencies around the world—such as the U.S. Secret Service, the U.K.'s Protected Persons Service, or the Dutch Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging—are responsible for protecting government officials (e.g., cabinet ministers, lawyers, and judges) as well as public figures (e.g., television hosts, crime journalists, and prominent scientists) from acts such as terrorist attacks or politically motivated violence. These security agencies typically do so by assigning bodyguards to individuals with the mission of protecting them from any potential threat.

In the Netherlands, the number of protected individuals has increased tenfold over the past twenty years (Start and Janssen 2023) and it appears that this number is only continuing to rise, while the capacity to protect these individuals lags behind (Nachtegael 2024). As stated in an official report by the Dutch Safety Board, commissioned by the Dutch Ministry of Justice and Security (Dutch Safety Board 2023), this shortage in protection capacity might already have led to the assassination of a prominent Dutch crime journalist, a Dutch lawyer representing a key witness, and a family member of that key witness. Based on this report, the Dutch cabinet decided to increase the total budget for the Dutch Protection and Security program by 112 million euros annually, to hire and train new personnel, as well as to fund scientific research to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the program (Dutch Ministry of Finance 2023).

In this article, we develop a game-theoretical model that can assist the Dutch Protection and Security program assigning bodyguards to targets (i.e., individuals under threat). This game is zero-sum and played between an *attacker* and a *defender*. The defender allocates a number of bodyguards among several targets to protect them, and the attacker chooses—simultaneously—one target to attack. By assigning more bodyguards to a target, the defender reduces the damage caused by an attack, where damage is broadly construed as any consequence undesirable for the defender, such as people getting hurt, property damage, or chaos, among other things. We assume that the defender wants to minimize the expected damage from an attack while the attacker wants to maximize it.

The reason for studying a *two*-person *zero*-sum game—as opposed to a *multi*-player *non-zero* sum game between a security agency and several adversaries, each interested in one subject—is that it is difficult for security agencies to identify all these adversaries, let alone accurately assess their views or the potential damage associated with different targets. For instance, in the Netherlands, thousands of (digital) reports of threats were made against Dutch politicians in 2022, many of which were received via social media in anonymous form (Dutch Public Prosecution Service 2023). It is therefore most practical to model the adversaries as a *single* strategic opponent whose interests are opposed to those of the security agency.

The reason for studying a *simultaneous-move* game—as opposed to a *sequential-move* game—is to capture the fact that the security agency can randomize their security plan each morning and an attack typically requires days or weeks to plan. Moreover, a sequential-move game would make the adversaries unrealistically strong by allowing them to steal the defender's security plan, choose the least protected target, and plan an attack in just a few hours.

In the first part of the paper, we study a *bodyguard allocation game*. In this game, the defender allocates a number of bodyguards among several targets such that each bodyguard is assigned to one target. We assume that the damage incurred when a target is attacked is convex and nonincreasing in the number of bodyguards assigned to the target. In other words, assigning more bodyguards to a target reduces the damage caused by an attack, but the marginal damage reduction of each additional bodyguard is decreasing. Because each player has a finite number of pure strategies, linear programming can be used to compute the value of the game and an optimal mixed strategy for each player. Solving the game by linear programming, however, requires us to first enumerate all pure strategies of both players. Whereas the number of pure strategies for the attacker is just the number of targets, the number of pure strategies for the defender grows quickly with the number of targets and bodyguards. For instance, if there are 10 targets and 30 bodyguards, the number of pure strategies for the defender is $\binom{30+10-1}{10-1}$, which is more than 211 million. A direct implementation of the linear program can present computational challenges for problems of practical sizes.

For the bodyguard allocation game, we demonstrate that it is possible to solve the game without enumerating all pure strategies for the defender, which is the first main contribution of the paper. To do so, we first show that the best way to implement a defender's mixed strategy—with an expected number $x \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ of bodyguards allocated to a target—is to allocate either $\lfloor x \rfloor$ bodyguards or $\lceil x \rceil$ bodyguards with appropriate probabilities. By taking advantage of this property, we are able to solve the bodyguard allocation game by formulating a different linear program, whose size grows linearly in the number of targets and in the number of bodyguards. This approach allows us to solve a bodyguard allocation game with 10 targets and 30 bodyguards within a few seconds.

In the second part of the paper, we study a *bodyguard scheduling game*. Each target is associated with a location, and a start time, and an end time. If the locations of two targets are nearby, and the end time of one target is sufficiently earlier than the start time of the other target, then a bodyguard can be assigned to protect both targets. For example, a bodyguard can report to a courthouse at 9:00–12:00, and then report to a press conference in the same city at 14:00–15:00. If we represent each target by a node, then we can draw a directed arc from node 1 to node 2, if a bodyguard assigned to target 1 can be assigned next to target 2. A feasible bodyguard schedule is then analogous to a feasible flow in the network consisting of these nodes and arcs that satisfies all constraints.

In the bodyguard scheduling game, each player has a finite number of pure strategies, so, in theory, one can again compute the entire payoff matrix and solve the game by a linear program. For example, if there are 10 targets and 30 bodyguards, then the attacker has 10 pure strategies—one for attacking each target—and the number of the defender's pure strategies is the number of different feasible, integer-valued, flows in the network described above. In the worst case, we may need to screen up to $(30+1)^{10} \approx 8.19 \times 10^{14}$ potential assignments to determine which ones are feasible, because, in theory, each target can have any number of bodyguards between 0 and 30. Our second main contribution of the paper is that we develop a much more efficient way—by leveraging our findings from the bodyguard allocation game—to approach the bodyguard scheduling game. Specifically, we develop an algorithm to compute a bound for the value of this bodyguard scheduling game and present a mixed strategy that achieves this bound in all numerical experiments.

Our final main contribution is a case study for the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging. Specifically, we demonstrate how both bodyguard games can be deployed in practice, relying on publicly available information. We show that real-life instances can be solved within minutes.

The rest of the paper proceeds as follows: Section 2 provides an overview of the major advancements in the research disciplines related to this paper. Section 3 concerns the bodyguard allocation game, and Section 4 concerns the bodyguard scheduling game. Section 5 presents a case study for the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging. Section 6 concludes the article.

2 | Overview of Related Literature

Our work belongs to the literature that uses quantitative modeling to assist police departments and security agencies in making better decisions about resource allocation. Pioneers in this stream of literature are Kolesar et al. (1975) and Chaiken and Dormont (1978). These authors were asked by the

New York Police Department to develop patrol car schedules that met specified service standards. Variations of these models can be found in Green and Kolesar (1984), Green (1984), Schaack and Larson (1989), and Kolesar and Green (1998). It is worth noting that some of these models are currently in use by police departments in the US (Green and Kolesar 2004). Other decisions that have been investigated include the dispatching of police cars (Dunnett et al. 2019), the joint decision of dispatching and locating police cars (Adler et al. 2014), the partitioning of a city center into police patrol sectors (Curtin et al. 2010; Camacho-Collados and Liberatore 2015), and the allocation of police officers and cameras to combat pickpocketing (Schlicher and Lurkin 2024).

The aforementioned papers do not explicitly model the strategic behavior of opponents (e.g., criminals anticipating police decisions). This is in sharp contrast to the defender-attacker models that expanded significantly after 9/11 (see, e.g., the reviews by Gupta et al. 2020; Hausken 2024; and Hunt and Zhuang 2024). A central question in these works is how a limited budget should be allocated across a number of potential attack locations, while taking into account the strategic behavior of attackers (see, e.g., Azaiez and Bier 2007; Bier et al. 2007; Bier et al. 2008; Zhuang and Bier 2007; Hausken 2008; Shan and Zhuang 2013; Guan et al. 2017; Baron et al. 2018; and Musegaas et al. 2022). Similar to these works, we also model our setting as a defender-attacker game, but we assume the resources to be *countable objects* (cf. Dahan et al. 2022), which is in contrast to the other papers that view the resources as a financial budget. To the best of our knowledge, papers that (i) are inspired by police operations, (ii) apply game theory, and (iii) consider resources to be countable objects are limited. Below, we list some exceptions.

A recent example is the work of Wu et al. (2020). The authors investigate how to assign a limited number of police teams to a set of regions in the city center of San Francisco, with the aim of minimizing the number of criminal targets. Because criminals can behave strategically, the authors model the interaction between the police department and criminals in each region as a 2×2 zero-sum game, where the police department must decide whether to allocate a single police team or not in each region, while the criminals in that region make the decision to commit crime(s) or not. Using data from the San Francisco Police in 2016, the authors demonstrated the potential of their model.

Another example stems from the work of Pita et al. (2009). This work is inspired by a resource allocation problem faced by the police at the Los Angeles International Airport (LAX). The police at LAX use several security barriers to prevent terrorist attacks, consisting of road checkpoints, police units patrolling the roads to the terminals, as well as security screening and bag checks for passengers. Because resources (i.e., police officers) are scarce, the police need to make choices about the locations where they allocate resources, while taking into account that adversaries can learn over time (i.e., can learn resource allocation schedules). For that reason, the authors developed a non-zero sum game that randomizes how to allocate resources (i.e., randomizes police units between roadways entering the airport and canine patrol routes within the airport terminals). The authors formulated a mixed-integer linear program that is able to identify an optimal randomized allocation strategy for real-life instances. Notably, the authors also developed a support system (based on the non-zero sum game) that has already been in use at LAX for more than a decade.

As a final example, we discuss the work of Jain et al. (2012), which is a variation of the work of Pita et al. (2009), applied to the allocation of air marshals to flights. This air marshal application comes close to our bodyguard allocation/scheduling game, because similar to bodyguards, air marshals are also subject to travel constraints. For instance, if an air marshal is assigned to a flight from Los Angeles to San Francisco, then their next flight should have San Francisco as its departure airport. Likewise, if a bodyguard is assigned to a certain target, it is not possible to reassign them to another target at a different location immediately, because bodyguards need to travel first. Dealing with such travel constraints substantially complicates the analysis of a game and this holds for the air marshal game as well. Instead of solving this game naively via brute force, Jain et al. (2012) propose a mixed integer linear program, where decision variables reflect the percentage of time air marshals are allocated to schedules—a feasible combination of consecutive flights. Because these schedules consist of 2 to 3 flights per day only, their mixed integer linear program is able to solve real-life instances daily (i.e., instances with hundreds of air marshals and thousands of flights).

Despite the apparent overlap with our work, we do not believe that Jain et al. (2012)'s results can be easily applied to our setting, mainly for two reasons. First, in contrast to the work of Jain et al. (2012) where at most *one* air marshal is allocated to a single flight, we allow for the assignment of *multiple* bodyguards to a single target. Second, it seems that the solution method of Jain et al. (2012) is tailor-made—and thus leveraged—for a setting where (i) the number of air marshals is much smaller than the number of flights and (ii) the defender and the attacker have different utility functions. This is in sharp contrast to our setting, where many bodyguards can be assigned to protect the same target and the defender and the attacker have opposing interests.

3 | The Bodyguard Allocation Game

Consider a two-person zero-sum game $\mathcal{G}$ between an attacker and a defender. The defender has a total of $k \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ bodyguards to allocate among a set $N = \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$ of $n \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ targets. If $z \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ bodyguards are assigned to target $i \in N$, then the attacker can cause damage $g_i(z)$ by attacking target i, with $g_i : \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. We assume that each additional bodyguard assigned to target i reduces the damage the attacker can cause by attacking target i, but the marginal reduction is diminishing, that is, g_i is convex and nonincreasing. In addition, there exists a $b_i \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ such that the marginal benefit for additional bodyguards beyond b_i is zero. In other words, $g_i(z) = g_i(b_i)$ for all $z \geq b_i$, for $i \in N$. This assumption is not restrictive because we can set $b_i = k$ for all $i \in N$.

A pure strategy for the defender can be delineated by $(z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n)$, where $\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i = k$, with the interpretation that $z_i \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ is the number of bodyguards assigned to target $i \in N$. The number of defender's pure strategies is *at most* $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$, which equals the number of nonnegative integer solutions to $\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i = k$. A pure strategy for the attacker is an integer in N, which corresponds to the target they choose to attack. The number of the attacker's pure strategies is n. The attacker chooses which target to attack in order to maximize the expected damage, while the defender chooses how to allocate the bodyguards to minimize it.

Because the number of pure strategies in $\mathscr{G}$ for each player is finite, the two-person zero-sum game $\mathscr{G}$ has a finite payoff matrix. Linear programming can be used to compute the value of the game and an optimal mixed strategy for each player. We next demonstrate the game $\mathscr{G}$ with an example involving $n = 2$ targets and $k = 2$ bodyguards.

Example 1. Consider a setting with $n = 2$ targets, $k = 2$ bodyguards, $b_1 = b_2 = 2$, and $g_1(0) = 0.8, g_1(1) = 0.6, g_1(2) = 0.5, g_2(0) = 0.6, g_2(1) = 0.4$ and $g_2(2) = 0.3$. The payoff matrix is given below, where the rows correspond to the attacker's pure strategies and the columns correspond to the defender's pure strategies. The attacker wants to maximize the expected damage, while the defender wants to minimize it.

	(2, 0)	(1, 1)	(0, 2)
1	0.5	0.6	0.8
2	0.6	0.4	0.3

It is straightforward to verify that it is optimal for the attacker to attack target 1 with probability 2/3 and attack target 2 with probability 1/3. It is optimal for the defender to use $(2, 0)$ with probability 2/3 and $(1, 1)$ with probability 1/3. The value of the game is 8/15.

While, in theory, it is possible to solve $\mathscr{G}$ by first laying out the entire payoff matrix and then solving a linear program, as demonstrated in Example 1, this approach quickly becomes computationally intractable as n and k increase. For example, if there are $n = 10$ targets and $k = 20$ bodyguards, then the defender has more than 10 million pure strategies.

The rest of this section presents a method to solve $\mathscr{G}$ with computational effort that is orders of magnitude smaller than what is required to solve it via the entire payoff matrix.

3.1 | Analysis of the Bodyguard Allocation Game

In this section, we analyze the bodyguard allocation game. We identify an attacker's and defender's optimal strategy and develop a method to compute the value of the game without having to compute the entire payoff matrix.

To do so, we first introduce some new concepts and definitions. For any defender's mixed strategy, we can compute a corresponding vector $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ represents the expected number of bodyguards assigned to target $i \in N$.[1] We call a defender's mixed strategy *consistent* if

- it always assigns x_i bodyguards to target i if x_i is an integer, and otherwise
- (so if x_i is not integer) it assigns $\lfloor x_i \rfloor$ bodyguards to target i with probability $\lceil x_i \rceil - x_i$ and assigns $\lceil x_i \rceil$ bodyguards to target i with probability $x_i - \lfloor x_i \rfloor$.

For any given vector $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ with $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i = k$, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ is the expected number of bodyguards assigned to target $i \in N$, it is always possible to construct a consistent mixed strategy. One way to do it is to first divide $[0, k]$ into n subintervals with lengths $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$ as follows:

$$[0, x_1), [x_1, x_1 + x_2), \ldots, \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-2} x_i, \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i\right), \left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i, k\right]$$

with subinterval i corresponding to target $i \in N$. Next, draw a number u from the uniform distribution over the interval $(0, 1)$. Find the points $u, u + 1, u + 2, \ldots, u + k - 1$, and identify the subintervals each of these points belongs to. Finally, assign the k bodyguards to the targets corresponding to these subintervals. It is straightforward to verify that this mixed strategy is consistent.

Example 2. Reconsider the setting of Example 1 and let vector $x = \left(1\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$. As illustrated in Figure 1, if $u \in \left(0, \frac{2}{3}\right)$, we assign two bodyguards to target 1. On the other hand, if $u \in \left(\frac{2}{3}, 1\right)$, we assign one bodyguard to target 1 and one bodyguard to target 2.

We now show that to find an optimal defender's strategy, it is sufficient for the defender to consider only consistent mixed strategies. We give a lemma before proving this result.

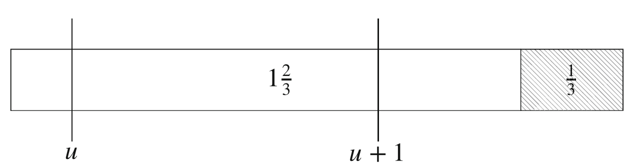
Lemma 1. *Let W be a non-negative integer-valued random variable with $\mathbb{E}[W] = c \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$. If c is integer and $\mathbb{P}\{W = c\} = 1$ or if c is non-integer and*

$$\mathbb{P}\{W = \lfloor c \rfloor\} = \lceil c \rceil - c$$
$$\mathbb{P}\{W = \lceil c \rceil\} = c - \lfloor c \rfloor$$

then for any convex and non-increasing function $g(\cdot)$, $\mathbb{E}[g(W)] \leq \mathbb{E}[g(W')]$ for all non-negative integer-valued random variables W' with $\mathbb{E}[W'] = c$.

Proof. Define $d_z = g(z - 1) - g(z)$, for $z \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$. Because g is convex and nonincreasing, we have

$$d_1 \geq d_2 \geq \cdots \geq 0$$



target 1   target 2

FIGURE 1 | Visualization of setting with $n = 2$, $k = 2$ and $x = \left(1\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$.

Moreover, the objective function $\mathbb{E}[g(W')]$ can be computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[g(W')] &= \sum_{z=0}^{\infty} g(z)\mathbb{P}\{W' = z\} \\ &= \sum_{z=0}^{\infty}\left(g(0) - \sum_{j=1}^{z} d_j\right)\mathbb{P}\{W' = z\} \\ &= g(0) - \sum_{z=0}^{\infty}\sum_{j=1}^{z} d_j \mathbb{P}\{W' = z\}\end{aligned}$$

To minimize the preceding, it is equivalent to maximize

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{z=0}^{\infty}\sum_{j=1}^{z} d_j \mathbb{P}\{W' = z\} &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\sum_{z=j}^{\infty} d_j \mathbb{P}\{W' = z\} \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} d_j \mathbb{P}\{W' \geq j\} \qquad (1)\end{aligned}$$

Recall that the expected value of a non-negative integer-valued random variable can be computed by $\mathbb{E}[W'] = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\mathbb{P}\{W' \geq j\}$. Writing $y_j = \mathbb{P}\{W' \geq j\}$ as decision variables with $j \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$, we can formulate the following linear programming model to maximize (1)

$$\begin{aligned}\max \quad & \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} d_j y_j \\ \text{subject to} \quad & \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} y_j = c \\ & 1 \geq y_1 \geq y_2 \geq \cdots \geq 0\end{aligned}$$

Because d_j is nonincreasing in j, to maximize the preceding an optimal solution is to let

$$y_j = \begin{cases} 1, & j = 1, \ldots, \lfloor c \rfloor \\ c - \lfloor c \rfloor, & j = \lfloor c \rfloor + 1 \\ 0, & j \geq \lfloor c \rfloor + 2 \end{cases}$$

Because $\mathbb{P}\{W' \geq 1\} = \mathbb{P}\{W' \geq 2\} = \cdots = \mathbb{P}\{W' \geq c\} = 1, \mathbb{P}\{W' = n'\} = 0$ for $n' < c$. Moreover, because $\mathbb{P}\{W' \geq c + 2\} = 0$, we have $\mathbb{P}\{W = n'\} = 0$ for all $n' \geq c + 2$. Thus, $\mathbb{P}\{W = c\} = 1$ or $\mathbb{P}\{W = c\} = 1 - c + \lfloor c \rfloor$ and $\mathbb{P}\{W = c + 1\} = c - \lfloor c \rfloor$ maximizes the objective of (1) and thus $\mathbb{E}[g(W)] \leq \mathbb{E}[g(W')]$ for all nonnegative integer-valued random variables W' with $\mathbb{E}[W'] = c$. □

A special case of Lemma 1 in which $g(z) = a^z$ with $z \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ for some $a \in (0, 1)$ is proved in Lin (2022), but Lemma 1 extends this result to all convex and nonincreasing functions $g(\cdot)$.

Theorem 1. *There is always an optimal strategy that is a consistent mixed strategy.*

Proof. Consider an arbitrary mixed strategy for the defender and let X_i be a non-negative integer-valued random variable, denoting the number of bodyguards assigned to target $i \in N$ with $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = x_i$. Because g_i is a non-negative integer-valued function that is nonincreasing and convex for all $i \in N$, applying Lemma 1, it follows that the expected damage if target i is attacked—namely, $E[g_i(X_i)]$—is minimized if X_i takes on the two integers surrounding x_i, or just x_i if it happens to be an integer, for $i \in N$. Consequently, any of the defender's mixed strategies that is not consistent is dominated by a consistent mixed strategy, which completes the proof. □

3.2 | The Defender's Optimal Strategy

According to Theorem 1, to find an optimal defender strategy, it suffices to consider only consistent mixed strategies. Recall that $g_i(z)$ is the damage from an attack of target $i \in N$ if it is protected by z bodyguards. Without loss of generality, we assume that the targets are labeled in such a way that $g_1(0) \geq g_2(0) \geq \cdots \geq g_n(0)$. In other words, without any bodyguards, target 1 has the highest value and target n the lowest value. We define $h_i(x_i)$ as the expected damage if the attacker attacks target $i \in N$ when the defender uses a consistent mixed strategy (with induced vector x) that assigns an expected number of x_i bodyguards to target i, for $x_i \in [0, b_i]$. In other words, the function $h_i : \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ for all $i \in N$ is defined by

$$h_i(x_i) = \begin{cases} g_i(x_i), & \text{if } x_i \text{ is integer} \\ (\lceil x_i \rceil - x_i) g_i(\lfloor x_i \rfloor) \\ \quad +(x_i - \lfloor x_i \rfloor) g_i(\lceil x_i \rceil), & \text{if } x_i \text{ is not integer} \end{cases}$$

Consequently, the defender's game can be formulated as

$$\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \left\{ \max_{i \in N} h_i(x_i) \right\} \qquad (2)$$

with $\mathcal{X} = \{(x_i)_{i \in N} | x_i \geq 0 \text{ for all } i \in N, \sum_{i \in N} x_i = k\}$. The game in (2) can be solved by a greedy algorithm: keep allocating *fractional* bodyguards to targets having the highest present expected damage until the defender runs out of bodyguards, or until target i has received b_i bodyguards for some $i \in N$ so the objective function cannot be reduced further.[2] Consequently, an optimal solution, which we denote by x^*, has the property that for some $t \in N$, we have $h_1(x_1^*) = h_2(x_2^*) = \cdots = h_t(x_t^*)$ and $h_j(x_j^*) = h_j(0)$ for $j \geq t + 1$. We denote the optimal value by r^*.

Example 3. Reconsider the setting of Example 1. The defender wants to solve

$$\min_{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathcal{X}} \left\{ \max \left\{ \max\{0.8 - 0.2x_1, 0.7 - 0.1x_1, 0.5\}, \max\{0.6 - 0.2x_2, 0.5 - 0.1x_2, 0.3\} \right\} \right\}$$

The optimal solution is $x^* = \left(1\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$ with $r^* = \frac{8}{15}$. If, however, the defender has only $k = 1$ bodyguard, we would end up with optimal solution $x^* = (1, 0)$ and $r^* = 0.6$. In Figure 2, we also visualize the progression of the greedy algorithm with 0, 1, and 2 bodyguards.

Because the defender has a mixed strategy that guarantees the expected damage to be at most r^* regardless of which target the attacker chooses to attack, r^* is an upper bound for the value of the game. We now give an expression for this upper bound r^*. Recall that in an optimal solution to (2), there exists $t \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ such

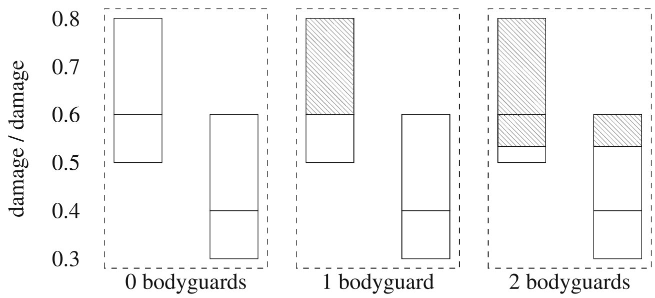


FIGURE 2 | Allocation for 0, 1 and 2 bodyguards.

that the first t targets receive some bodyguards, while all other targets do not receive any bodyguard. We write $T = \{1, 2, \ldots, t\}$ for convenience. Because $x_i^* = 0$ for $i \notin T$, it follows that

$$k = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^* = \sum_{i \in T} x_i^*$$

For $i \in T$, we write $x_i^* = m_i + y_i$, where $m_i = \lfloor x_i^* \rfloor$ is the integral part and $y_i = x_i^* - m_i \in [0, 1)$ is the fractional part. We next develop a formula to compute the optimal value of (2), r^*, as a function of T and m_i, $i \in T$, so that we can compute r^* directly once we identify T and m_i, $i \in T$.

Since $h_i(x_i^*) = r^*$ for $i \in T$, by the definition of h_i we must have

$$r^* = h_i(x_i^*) = (1 - y_i) g_i(m_i) + y_i g_i(m_i + 1)$$

for $i \in T$. Solving for y_i yields

$$y_i = \begin{cases} \dfrac{g_i(m_i) - r^*}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)}, & m_i \le b_i - 1 \\ 0, & m_i \ge b_i \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

for $i \in T$. Note that $y_i = 0$ follows from the fact that $g_i(m_i) = r^*$ if $m_i = b_i$.

Define $s \equiv \sum_{i \in T} y_i$, which is the sum of all the fractional parts of the bodyguard allocations, so

$$k = \sum_{i \in T} x_i^* = \sum_{i \in T} m_i + \sum_{i \in T} y_i = \sum_{i \in T} m_i + s$$

Note that $s < t$, because $y_i < 1$ for $i \in T$. Using (3), we have that

$$\begin{aligned} s \equiv \sum_{i \in T} y_i &= \sum_{i \in T} \frac{g_i(m_i)}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)} - r^* \sum_{i \in T} \frac{1}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)} \\ &= \sum_{i \in T} \frac{g_i(m_i)}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)} - \frac{r^*}{\lambda} \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

where we have defined

$$\lambda_T = \left(\sum_{i \in T} \frac{1}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)} \right)^{-1} \tag{5}$$

Solving r^* from (4) gives

$$r^* = \left(\sum_{i \in T} \frac{g_i(m_i)}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)} - s \right) \lambda_T \tag{6}$$

The next subsection shows that r^* in (6) is also a lower bound for the value of the game $\mathscr{G}$ so that r^* is the value of the game.

3.3 | The Attacker's Optimal Strategy

We now present an attacker's strategy that guarantees an expected damage of at least r^* for the attacker regardless of what the defender does, which proves that r^* is also a lower bound for the value of the game.

A mixed strategy for the attacker can be delineated by $(p_1, \ldots, p_n)$ with $\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i = 1$, where $p_i \in \mathbb{R}_{\ge 0}$ is the probability of attacking target $i \in N$. Consider the attacker's strategy with

$$p_i = \begin{cases} \dfrac{\lambda_T}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)}, & i \in T \\ 0, & i \notin T \end{cases} \tag{7}$$

where λ is defined in (5). We will show that this attacker's strategy guarantees expected damage at least r^* regardless of what the defender does. Given the attacker's strategy in (7), what can the defender do to minimize the expected damage? The defender chooses $(z_i)_{i \in N} \in \mathbb{N}_{\ge 0}^{N}$ in order to minimize

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i g_i(z_i) = \sum_{i \in T} p_i g_i(z_i) \tag{8}$$

with the constraint $\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i = k$. The equality in the preceding is due to $p_i = 0$ for $i \notin T$. Because $p_i g_i(\cdot)$ are convex functions for $i \in T$, it follows that the preceding optimization problem can be solved by a greedy algorithm (see, e.g., Lemma 1 in Subelman 1981 or Appendix in Ross and Lin 2001). That is, to achieve optimality, the defender can allocate the bodyguards one at a time to the target that provides the most reduction in the objective function in (8) at the moment.

Because $g_i(\cdot)$ is a convex nonincreasing function for $i \in T$ we can see that each of the first m_i bodyguards allocated to target i will reduce the objective function in (8) for at least

$$\begin{aligned} & p_i g_i(m_i - 1) - p_i g_i(m_i) \\ &= \frac{\lambda_T}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i + 1)} (g_i(m_i - 1) - g_i(m_i)) > \lambda_T \end{aligned}$$

In addition, after allocating m_i bodyguards to target i, with $i \in T$, the $(m_i + 1)$st bodyguard allocated to target i would reduce the objective function by exactly λ_T. Since $\sum_{i \in T} m_i \le k$, it follows that with the greedy algorithm, after the first $\sum_{i \in T} m_i$ iterations, exactly m_i bodyguards will go to target i, for $i \in T$.

After the first $\sum_{i \in T} m_i$ bodyguards allocated in the greedy algorithm, with m_i bodyguards going to target i, for $i \in T$, the defender still has $k - \sum_{i \in T} m_i = s$ bodyguards to allocate. Because of the choice of p_i in (7), allocating one additional bodyguard to any target $i \in T$ will reduce the objective function by exactly λ_T. Since $s < t$, to minimize the objective function in (8), it is optimal for the defender to choose a subset of s targets from

T and allocate one additional bodyguard to each target in this subset. The minimized expected damage achieved in (8) is

$$\sum_{i\in T} p_i g_i(z_i) = \sum_{i\in T} p_i g_i(m_i) - s\lambda_T$$
$$= \sum_{i\in T} \frac{\lambda_T g_i(m_i)}{g_i(m_i) - g_i(m_i+1)} - s\lambda_T = r^*$$

where the last equality is due to (6). In other words, the best the defender can do against the attacker's strategy in (7) is to reduce the expected damage to r^*. In other words, the attacker's mixed strategy in (7) guarantees expected damage for at least r^* regardless of what the defender does. Consequently, r^* is a lower bound for the value of our game.

3.4 | Solving the Game With a Linear Program

We have shown that r^* in (6) is an upper bound for the value of the game $\mathcal{G}$ in Section 3.2 and also a lower bound in Section 3.3. Consequently, we have proven that r^* is the value of the game $\mathcal{G}$. To compute r^*, one could solve the optimization problem in (2). Another way to compute r^* is to recognize that $h_i(\cdot)$ is a piecewise-linear nonincreasing function in x_i, for $i \in N$. Therefore, the optimization problem in (2) can be transformed into a linear program as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
\min_{x_1,\dots,x_n,v}\ & v \\
\text{s.t. } & v \geq \big(g_i(j+1) - g_i(j)\big)\cdot(x_i - j) \\
& \quad + g_i(j) \quad \text{for all } j = 0,1,\dots,b_i - 1 \text{ and for all } i \in N \\
& v \geq g_i(b_i) \quad \text{for all } i \in N \\
& \sum_{i\in N} x_i = k \\
& v \geq 0 \\
& x_i \geq 0 \quad \text{for all } i \in N
\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

The optimal value from the preceding linear program is equal to r^* and an optimal solution $(x_i^*)_{i\in N}$ describes an induced vector of an optimal mixed consistent strategy. This consistent mixed strategy can be obtained by following the procedure at the beginning of Section 3.1. For the attacker, it is optimal to use the mixed strategy in (7). We demonstrate this result via an example.

Example 4. Consider a setting with $n = 4$ targets, $k = 3$ bodyguards, $b_1 = b_2 = 2$, $b_3 = b_4 = 3$ and functions g_i for all $i \in N$ as depicted in Table 1. Solving optimization problem (9) leads to optimal value $r^* = \frac{5}{8}$ with $x = \left(1\frac{3}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \frac{3}{8}, 0\right)$. Hence, we have $T = \{1,2,3\}$, $m_1 = 1$, $m_2 = m_3 = m_4 = 0$, $y_1 = \frac{3}{4}$, $y_2 = \frac{7}{8}$, $y_3 = \frac{3}{8}$, and $y_4 = 0$. For the defender, it is optimal to always allocate one bodyguard (out of the three) to target 1. The remaining two bodyguards could be mixed as follows: defend target 1 and target 2 with probability 5/8, defend target 1 and target 3 with probability 1/8 and defend target 2 and target 3 with probability 1/4 (see also Figure 3). For the attacker, we can use (7) to compute $p_1 = 1/2$, $p_2 = p_3 = 1/4$, and $p_4 = 0$. In other words, it is optimal for the attacker to attack target 1 with probability 1/2, and target 2 and target 3 each with probability 1/4, and attack target 4 not at all.

TABLE 1 | Damage functions.

z	0	1	2	3
$g_1(z)$	0.9	0.7	0.6	0.6
$g_2(z)$	0.8	0.6	0.5	0.5
$g_3(z)$	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.3
$g_4(z)$	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.2

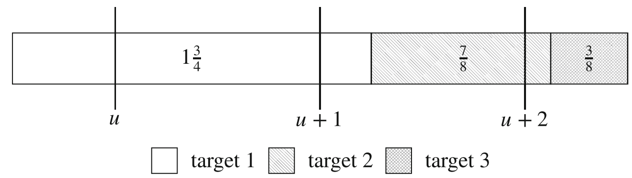


FIGURE 3 | Visualization of setting with $n = 4$, $k = 3$ and $x = \left(1\frac{3}{4}, \frac{7}{8}, \frac{3}{8}, 0\right)$.

Recall that in $\mathcal{G}$, the attacker has n pure strategies and the defender has up to $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$ pure strategies. To compute an optimal mixed strategy for the attacker via the payoff matrix, the linear program requires $n+1$ variables and up to $\binom{k+n-1}{n-1}$ constraints. For example, if there are $n = 10$ targets and $k = 20$ bodyguards, then that linear program has 11 variables and more than 10 million constraints. By comparison, the linear program in (9) has $n+1$ variables and up to $nk + n + 1$ constraints, so its size is linear in both n and k. If $n = 10$ and $k = 20$, then the linear program in (9) has 11 variables and only 211 constraints.

3.5 | Some Special Cases

As discussed in the previous section, we can identify r^*, as well as the associated optimal strategies of both the attacker and defender by solving optimization problem (9). In some special cases, however, it is not necessary to solve problem (9). In this section, we discuss three of them.

3.5.1 | At Most One Bodyguard for Each Target

In this section, we discuss the special case $b_i = 1$ for all $i \in N$. This setting could, for instance, represent a setting where a security agency believes that the probability of an attack is already low per target (e.g., $g_i(0) \ll 1$ for all $i \in N$) and so at most one bodyguard per target suffices. It could also represent a setting where the security agency wants to limit the amount of input required. That is, if $b_i = 1$ for all $i \in N$ only two data points ($g_i(0)$ and $g_i(1)$) must be estimated per target.

It turns out that for this special case, we need to compare $n+2$ values to identify r^*. If $x_i^* \geq 1$ for some $i \in N$ then $i \in \operatorname{argmax}\{g_i(1)\}$ due to the structure of an optimal solution. Consequently, $r^* = \max_{i\in N}\{g_i(1)\}$. Hence, the first value that we need in our comparison is $\max_{i\in N}\{g_i(1)\}$.

Now, suppose that $x_i^* < 1$ for all $i \in N$ and thus $m_i = 0$ for all $i \in N$ and $s = k$. For this setting, we focus on $n+1$ candidate optimal solutions of optimization problem (9), namely those $(x_i)_{i \in N}$ for which $h_i(x_i) = h_j(x_j)$ for all $i, j \in T'$ with $T' \in \{\{1\}, \{1,2\}, \ldots, \{1,2,\ldots,n\}\}$. Using the derivations of (3–6), we know that for each $T' \in \{\{1\}, \{1,2\}, \ldots, \{1,2,\ldots,n\}\}$ we have

$$h_i(x_i) = h_j(x_j) = \left(\sum_{i' \in T'} \frac{g_{i'}(0)}{g_{i'}(0) - g_{i'}(1)} - k \right) \lambda_{T'} \text{ for all } i, j \in T' \tag{10}$$

Suppose that $T^* = \{1, 2, \ldots, t^*\}$ corresponds to an optimal solution. Then,

$$\left(\sum_{i' \in T'} \frac{g_{i'}(0)}{g_{i'}(0) - g_{i'}(1)} - k \right) \lambda_{T'} \leq \left(\sum_{i' \in T^*} \frac{g_{i'}(0)}{g_{i'}(0) - g_{i'}(1)} - k \right) \lambda_{T^*} \tag{11}$$

for all $T' \in \{\{1\}, \{1,2\}, \ldots, \{1,2,\ldots,n\}\}$. This holds for the following reason. If $T' = \{1, 2, \ldots, t'\}$ with $t' < t^*$ then (11) holds, because the bodyguards allocated to target t^* can be allocated over the first $t^* - 1$ targets. Note, this is only possible because $x_{t^*} > 0$. If $t' > t^*$ then (11) holds, because $x_j < 0$ for all $j = t^* + 1, t^* + 2, \ldots, t'$, implying that fictitious bodyguards are introduced and allocated over the first t^* targets. Hence, from Equation (11) we learn that

$$\max_{T' \in \{\{1\},\{1,2\},\ldots,\{1,2,\ldots,n\}\}} \left\{ \left(\sum_{i \in T'} \frac{g_i(0)}{g_i(0) - g_i(1)} - k \right) \lambda_{T'} \right\} = \sum_{i \in T^*} \left(\frac{g_i(0)}{g_i(0) - g_i(1)} - k \right) \lambda_{T^*}$$

In conclusion, to identity r^*, we need to compare the n candidate optimal solutions of optimization problem (9) with $\max_{i \in N} \{g_i(1)\}$. The maximum of these values coincides with r^*, that is,

$$r^* = \max \left\{ \max_{i \in N} g_i(1), \max_{T' \in \{\{1\},\{1,2\},\ldots,\{1,2,\ldots,n\}\}} \left\{ \left(\sum_{i \in T'} \frac{g_i(0)}{g_i(0) - g_i(1)} - k \right) \lambda_{T'} \right\} \right\}$$

Lidbetter and Lin (2020) study a booby trap game in which one player can booby trap k out of a total of $n > k$ boxes and the other player opens 1 box to either get the reward in the box if the box is not booby trapped, or get nothing if it is booby trapped. This booby trap game is a special case of our bodyguard allocation game $\mathcal{G}$ if $g_i(1) = 0$ for all $i \in N$.

3.5.2 | Exponential Damage Function

Suppose function g_i has an exponential form, that is, $g_i(z) = \gamma_i \cdot \alpha_i^z$ with $z \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$, $\gamma_i, \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, and $\alpha_i \in (0, 1)$ for all $i \in N$. One way to interpret this damage function is that each additional bodyguard adds a defense layer for the target. The attacker penetrates each defense layer of target $i \in N$ with probability α_i, independently of everything else, and succeeds in the attack only if the attacker penetrates all defense layers. Moreover, γ_i could be interpreted as the importance/societal value of a target (e.g., this value could be extremely high for the prime minister). In the special case that all targets are equally important, so that $g_i(z) = \alpha_i^z$ for all $z \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ and all $i \in N$, the game $\mathcal{G}$ is mathematically equivalent to a hide-search game studied in Subelman (1981) between a hider and a searcher. In the hide-search game studied in Subelman (1981), the hider chooses to hide in one of n locations, while the searcher decides how to allocate k searches among these n locations. The searcher wants to maximize the probability of finding the target within these k searchers, while the hider wants to minimize it. Each search in location i will independently find the target—if the target is hidden there—with probability $1 - \alpha_i$, for all $i \in N$. Therefore, if the searcher searches location i for z times, then the probability of not finding the target is α_i^z, for $i \in N$. The searcher decides how to distribute the k searches among the n locations in this hide-search game, just as in our game $\mathcal{G}$ the defender decides how to allocate k bodyguards among the n targets. Subelman (1981) develops an algorithm for this special case, which involves maximizing a characteristic function and using its solution to compute the optimal strategy for each player. The algorithm developed in this section is more powerful because it works as long as the damage functions are nonincreasing and convex in the number of bodyguards assigned.

3.5.3 | Homogeneous Targets

Suppose that all targets have the same damage function, so $g_i = g$ for all $i \in N$. For this case, it follows immediately from optimization problem (9) that it is optimal to allocate bodyguards evenly—probabilistically if needed—among the targets. In other words, first allocate $\lfloor k/n \rfloor$ bodyguards to each target, and then choose $k - n\lfloor k/n \rfloor$ targets uniformly randomly and allocate one additional bodyguard to each of these targets. The value of the game subsequently reads

$$r^* = g\left(\left\lfloor \frac{k}{n} \right\rfloor\right) - \left(\frac{k}{n} - \left\lfloor \frac{k}{n} \right\rfloor\right)\left(g\left(\left\lfloor \frac{k}{n} \right\rfloor\right) - g\left(\left\lfloor \frac{k}{n} \right\rfloor + 1\right)\right) \tag{12}$$

It is worth noting that, although all targets are assigned some bodyguards in this case, it is not true in general that, for each bodyguard allocation game, all targets get some bodyguards assigned. See Example 4 for an example where the last target was not assigned a bodyguard.

4 | The Bodyguard Scheduling Game

The bodyguard allocation game $\mathcal{G}$ assumes that each bodyguard can be assigned to exactly one target. In this section, we study a bodyguard *scheduling* game, denoted by $\mathcal{G}_S$, which extends $\mathcal{G}$ by allowing a bodyguard to be assigned to more targets subject to appropriate schedule constraints.

In the bodyguard scheduling game $\mathcal{G}_S$, we associated to each target $i \in N$ a start time $t_i^s \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ and an end time $t_i^e \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$.[3] Moreover, for each target $i \in N$, we draw a node and use a directional arc between each pair of nodes $i, j \in N$ for which the start time of target j is later than the end time of i, that is, $t_i^e \leq t_j^s$. For each directional arc, we also add a flow capacity $q_{ij} \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ to indicate that at most q_{ij} bodyguards can be assigned to protect target j after they have completed their assignment for target i.[4] Such a restriction could, for instance, represent a specific travel regulation set by a security agency. Similar to the bodyguard allocation game, we write $z_i \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ for the number of bodyguards assigned to target $i \in N$. We use $w_{ij} \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ to indicate the number of bodyguards who report to target $j \in N$ directly after their assignment at target $i \in N$. In addition, we write $w_{0j} \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ for the number of bodyguards whose first assignment is to protect target j, where node 0 can be interpreted as the source node (e.g., a security headquarters). We denote a pure strategy for the defender as a *feasible flow* in the network. Formally, a pure strategy for the defender $(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n)$ is feasible if there exists flows $(w_{0j})_{j\in N}$ and $(w_{ij})_{i,j\in N}$ that satisfy the following flow/schedule constraints:

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\sum_{j\in N} w_{0j} = k \\
&w_{0j} + \sum_{i\in N} w_{ij} = z_j \qquad \text{for all } j \in N \\
&\sum_{j\in N} w_{ij} \leq z_i \qquad \text{for all } i \in N \\
&w_{ij} \in \{0, 1, \dots, q_{ij}\} \qquad \text{for all } i, j \in N
\end{aligned} \tag{13}
$$

The first constraint ensures that we use exactly k bodyguards. The next constraint equates the number of bodyguards reporting to each target (left-hand side) to the number of bodyguards assigned to the target (right-hand side). The next inequality ensures that the number of bodyguards leaving a target (left-hand side) cannot exceed the number of bodyguards assigned to it (right-hand side). Finally, the variables $(w_{ij})_{i,j\in N}$ must be non-negative integers and should not exceed their respective upper bounds. We would like to mention that the constraint matrix, resulting from constraints (13), is totally unimodular. Hence, there is no need to enforce w_{ij} to be an integer: one can relax it and use linear programming to check pure strategy $(z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n)$ on feasibility.

A pure strategy for the attacker in $\mathcal{G}_S$ is an integer in N, which corresponds to the target the attacker chooses to attack. We now present a simple example to illustrate $\mathcal{G}_S$.

Example 5. Consider a setting with $n = 3$ targets and $t_1^s = 9, t_1^e = 12$, $t_2^s = 14, t_2^e = 18$ and $t_3^s = 8, t_3^e = 15$. Suppose there is $k = 1$ bodyguard, $b_1 = b_2 = b_3 = 1$ and $g_1(0) = 0.8, g_1(1) = 0.4$, $g_2(0) = 0.6, g_2(1) = 0.3$, $g_3(0) = 0.5$ and $g_3(1) = 0.3$. Moreover, $q_{12} = 1$ and $q_{ij} = 0$ for all other combinations of $i, j \in N$. A visual representation is depicted in Figure 4.

All feasible pure strategies of the defender are given by $(1,0,0), (0,1,0), (0,0,1), (1,1,0)$. Note that strategy $(1,1,0)$ is the only "new" strategy, compared to a setting without travel possibilities, and it dominates two strategies, namely $(1,0,0)$ and $(0,1,0)$. The associated damage for each relevant combination of strategies is presented below, with the rows representing the pure attacker strategies and the columns representing the relevant pure defender strategies.

$$
\begin{array}{c} \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{array}
\begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{cc} (0,0,1) & (1,1,0) \end{array} \\ \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.4 \\ 0.6 & 0.3 \\ 0.3 & 0.5 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}
$$

By inspection, we learn that strategy 2 of the attacker is dominated by strategy 1 (i.e., $0.8 > 0.6$ and $0.4 > 0.3$). For the 2×2 matrix, it is optimal for the defender to mix strategies and protect target 3 with one bodyguard with probability $1/6$ and protect target 1 and target 2—with the same bodyguard—with probability $5/6$. For the attacker, it is optimal to attack target 1 with probability $1/3$ and attack target 3 with probability $2/3$. Consequently, the value of the game is $7/15$.

One way to solve $\mathcal{G}_S$ is to enumerate all pure strategies for each player and compute each player's optimal mixed strategy by linear programming. To enumerate all pure strategies for the defender, one needs to consider $(z_1, \dots, z_n) \in \Pi_{i=1}^n \{0, \dots, b_i\}$ and determine whether it is a feasible pure strategy that meet all constraints in (13). This algorithm, however, quickly becomes computationally intractable as n and k increase. We therefore present an alternative algorithm in the next section.

4.1 | Analysis of the Bodyguard Scheduling Game

The first step of the algorithm is to solve the linear program of (9) by including the schedule constraints of (13) but relax the integrality constraints. Formally, we solve a linear program:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\min\ & v \\
\text{s.t. } & v \geq \left(g_i(j+1) - g_i(j)\right) \cdot (x_i - j) \\
& \quad + g_i(j) \text{ for all } j = 0, 1, \dots, b_i - 1, \qquad \text{for all } i \in N \\
& v \geq g_i(b_i) \qquad \text{for all } i \in N \\
& \sum_{j\in N} w_{0j} = k \\
& w_{0j} + \sum_{i\in N} w_{ij} = x_j \qquad \text{for all } j \in N \\
& \sum_{j\in N} w_{ij} \leq x_i \qquad \text{for all } i \in N \\
& w_{ij} \leq q_{ij} \qquad \text{for all } i, j \in N \\
& v \geq 0 \\
& x_i \geq 0 \qquad \text{for all } i \in N
\end{aligned} \tag{14}
$$

An optimal solution to the linear program of (14) corresponds to the optimal expected number of bodyguards assigned to each target, assuming that the solution can be achieved by a consistent mixed strategy. In other words, if we can find a consistent mixed strategy that produces the expected number of bodyguards assigned to each target indicated by the solution to the linear program in (14), then that consistent mixed strategy is optimal for $\mathcal{G}_S$.

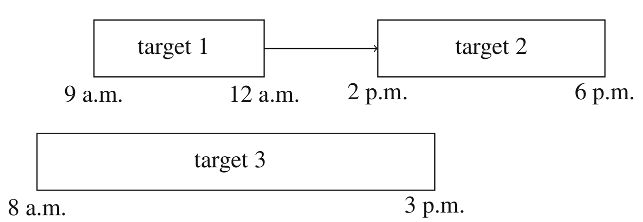


FIGURE 4 | Visualization of the setting with $n = 3$ targets and schedule constraints. The arc indicates that the bodyguard assigned to target 1 can travel to target 2 afterwards.

To search for such a consistent mixed strategy, we first identify candidate pure strategies. Based on the solution $(x_i)_{i\in N}$ to the linear program (14), we restrict our attention to those pure strategies that assign either $\lfloor x_i \rfloor$ or $\lceil x_i \rceil$ bodyguards to target $i \in N$. Consequently, the number of candidate pure strategies equals 2^n. The next step is to eliminate those pure strategies that do not meet the schedule/flow constraints in (13). The final step is to use linear programming again to solve the two-person zero-sum game $\mathcal{G}_S^*$, in which the attacker can choose any of the n targets to attack but the defender can use only the feasible pure strategies just identified that assigns either $\lfloor x_i \rfloor$ or $\lceil x_i \rceil$ bodyguards to target $i \in N$. Because in $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ the defender's pure strategy set is a subset of that in $\mathcal{G}_S$, the value of $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ is an upper bound for the value of $\mathcal{G}_S$. In addition, the optimal value of the linear program in (14) is a lower bound for the value of $\mathcal{G}_S$, because the expected number of bodyguards assigned to each target may not be achieved by any defender's mixed strategy. Consequently, if the value of $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ coincides with the optimal value of the linear program in (14), then that common value is also the value of the game $\mathcal{G}_S$, and the defender's optimal mixed strategy for $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ is also optimal for $\mathcal{G}_S$. If the value of $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ is strictly higher than the value of the linear program in (14), then we find an upper bound for the value of $\mathcal{G}_S$ and the defender can achieve this upper bound by playing an optimal mixed strategy in $\mathcal{G}_S^*$. In order to assess this algorithm, we randomly generated 50 000 instances of $\mathcal{G}_S$ (see Appendix A: Experiment for the Upper Bound for Bodyguard Scheduling Games for details). It turns out that among these 50 000 instances, the value of $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ is equal to the value of $\mathcal{G}_S$. Therefore, we make the following conjecture:

Conjecture 1. *The value of $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ is equal to the value of $\mathcal{G}_S$.*

We now demonstrate how the algorithm can be applied to the game of Example 5.

Example 6. Reconsider the setting of Example 5. For step 1, we solve the standard linear programming problem in (14), leading to $x_1 = \frac{5}{6}, x_2 = \frac{5}{6}, x_3 = \frac{1}{6}$, $w_{12} = \frac{5}{6}, w_{01} = \frac{5}{6}, w_{02} = 0, w_{03} = \frac{1}{6}$, $w_{12} = w_{13} = w_{21} = w_{23} = w_{31} = w_{32} = 0$ with objective value $v = \frac{7}{15}$. Because the number of targets equals $n = 3$, we need to generate 2^3 pure strategies. That is, we consider strategies (0, 0, 0), (1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1), (1, 1, 0), (1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 1) and (1, 1, 1). For step 3, we check each of them on feasibility. This leads to leaving out strategies (1, 0, 1), (0, 1, 1), and (1, 1, 1). For the remaining 5 strategies, we execute step 4 and solve a new two-person zero-sum game, in which the defender's pure strategy set consists of (0, 0, 0), (1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 0), (0, 0, 1), and (1, 1, 0). This leads to the same solution as we found in Example 5 already.

We now demonstrate how the algorithm can be applied to the game of Example 6. In Figure 5, we summarize the steps of the algorithm to generate an upper bound of the game.

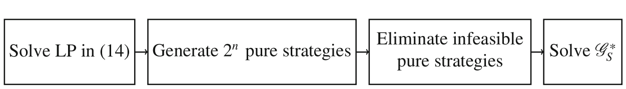


FIGURE 5 | Steps of algorithm to generate an upper bound of the game.

The significance of the first step of the algorithm is that it removes a huge number of pure strategies that the defender does not need to consider. For example, if there are $n = 10$ targets and $k = 30$ bodyguards, then we need to screen only $2^{10} = 1024$ pure strategies on feasibility. Without this step, we need to screen up to $(30 + 1)^{10} \approx 8.19 \times 10^{14}$ pure strategies on feasibility.

We next discuss an example illustrating how the algorithm can be used to a larger instance.

Example 7. Consider a setting with $n = 7$ targets, $k = 10$ bodyguards, $q_{12} = q_{15} = q_{23} = q_{45} = q_{65} = q_{67} = 10$ and $q_{ij} = 0$ otherwise. Moreover, we have $g_i(z) = \gamma_i \cdot \exp\{-\alpha_i \cdot z_i\}$ for all $z \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ and all $i \in N$ with $(\gamma_i)_{i\in N} = (0.95, 0.90, 0.85, 0.80, 0.75, 0.70, 0.65)$ and $(\alpha)_{i\in N} = (0.5, 0.2, 0.3, 0.6, 0.4, 0.1, 0.2)$. Next, $b_i = 10$ for all $i \in N$. A visual representation of the setting is presented in Figure 6.

The solution of the linear programming problem of (14) is presented in Tables 2 and 3.

Because the number of targets is equal to $n = 7$ targets, we need to generate $2^7 = 128$ pure strategies with $z_1 \in \{3, 4\}$, $z_2 \in \{3, 4\}$, $z_3 \in \{2, 3\}$, $z_4 \in \{1, 2\}$, $z_5 \in \{1, 2\}$, $z_6 \in \{5, 6\}$, and $z_7 \in \{2, 3\}$. Forty of these pure strategies turn out to violate the schedule/flow constraints. Subsequently, we formulate the matrix game $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ by allowing the defender to use the remaining $128 - 40 = 88$ pure strategies. Solving $\mathcal{G}_S^*$—a matrix game of size 7×88—via linear programming, we obtain an optimal mixed strategy for the defender, as shown in Table 4.

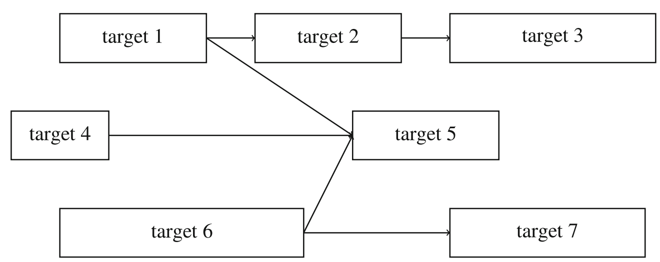


FIGURE 6 | Visualization of the setting with $n = 7$ targets.

TABLE 2 | Solution $(x_i)_{i\in N}$ and v of LP.

x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4	x_5	x_6	x_7	v
3.8162	3.8162	2.3774	1.0918	1.4940	5.0920	2.1881	0.4209

TABLE 3 | Solution $(w_{0j})_{j\in N}$ and $(w_{ij})_{i,j\in N}$ of LP.

w_{ij}	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
0	3.816	0	0	1.092	0	5.092	0
1	0	3.816	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	2.377	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	1.494	0	2.188
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

TABLE 4 | The defender's optimal mixed strategy for $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ in Example 7.

Probability	z_1	z_2	z_3	z_4	z_5	z_6	z_7
0.09198	3	3	2	1	2	6	3
0.09185	3	3	3	2	1	5	3
0.41411	3	4	3	1	1	5	2
0.40206	3	4	3	1	2	5	3

The value of $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ equals 0.4209, which matches the optimal value of the linear program of (14). Therefore, the defender's optimal mixed strategy for $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ in Table 4 is also optimal for $\mathcal{G}_S$.

One strength of the algorithm is that it is scalable in the number of bodyguards k, because its runtime is more or less constant in the number of bodyguards. The algorithm, however, is not scalable in the number of targets n, because we need to check 2^n strategies on feasibility. Instead of naively checking all 2^n strategies, one could also gradually generate pure strategies, test each for feasibility, and determine whether they can solve the game. On way to do so is as follows:

First, check pure strategy $(\lceil x_1 \rceil, \lceil x_2 \rceil, \ldots, \lceil x_n \rceil)$ on feasibility. If it is feasible, add it to $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ to see if the defender can achieve the optimal value of the linear program in (14). If not, generate all pure strategies such that $n-1$ targets get $\lceil x_i \rceil$ and one gets $\lfloor x_i \rfloor$. Add all feasible strategies to $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ to see if the defender can achieve the optimal value of the linear program in (14). If not, go down another layer (i.e., try all pure strategies such that $n-2$ targets get $\lceil x_i \rceil$ and two get $\lfloor x_i \rfloor$), and so on, until either we achieve the value of the game or we exhaust all pure strategies.

Numerical experiments in Section 5 suggest that the performance of the alternative algorithm is sensitive in the number of bodyguards, with cases ranging from situations where only 10% of all strategies need to be checked to cases requiring up to 90%.

In the next section, we discuss specific structures of the schedule constraints that can help reduce n, implying that we can solve $\mathcal{G}_S$ faster.

4.2 | Special Structures

In this section, we discuss three specific structures of the schedule constraints that can reduce the runtime to solve $\mathcal{G}_S$. For each of the three structures, we assume that $q_{ij} \in \{0, k\}$ for all $i, j \in N$.

4.2.1 | Horizontal Clusters

A *horizontal cluster* is a group of targets close in locations with no overlaps in time—but away from the other targets not in the cluster—such that a bodyguard assigned to the first target in the cluster can only be reassigned to the other targets in the same cluster. An example of two horizontal clusters is represented in Figure 7.

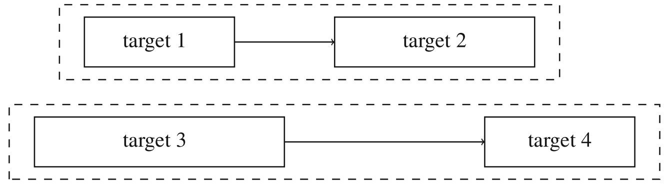


FIGURE 7 | Visualization of the setting with $n = 4$ targets and two clusters ($\{1, 2\}$ and $\{3, 4\}$).

The upper cluster could, for example, represent a candidate who is running for an election and is holding two political rallies in a remote town, one in the morning and one in the afternoon. For this setting, it is natural to assign the same team of bodyguards to both of these political rallies.

If all the targets can be partitioned into several horizontal clusters in a bodyguard scheduling game, then the bodyguard *scheduling* game reduces to a bodyguard *allocation* game, because we can merge all targets in a cluster into one single target whose damage function corresponds to the maximum of the damage functions of all targets within the cluster. If only a subset of targets can be put into horizontal clusters, then we can still use one damage function to represent each horizontal cluster, which effectively reduces the number of targets in a bodyguard scheduling game.

4.2.2 | Vertical Clusters

A *vertical cluster* is a group of targets that take place around the same time, with all the other targets taking place either before or after them, so that all k bodyguards are available and shared by the targets in the vertical cluster. Figure 8 displays a bodyguard scheduling game with two vertical clusters.

The first vertical cluster could, for instance, represent two members of the Royal family each visiting one city in the early morning, while the second cluster could represent two cabinet ministers, each visiting a university in the late afternoon. Because there is plenty of time between the morning and afternoon activities, there is also enough time for bodyguards to travel between them.

If all the targets can be partitioned into several vertical clusters in a bodyguard scheduling game, then solving the bodyguard scheduling game reduces to solving a bodyguard allocation game for every vertical cluster. If only a subset of targets can be put into vertical clusters, then we can still solve each of these vertical clusters via a bodyguard allocation game separately, which effectively reduces the number of targets of the original bodyguard scheduling game.

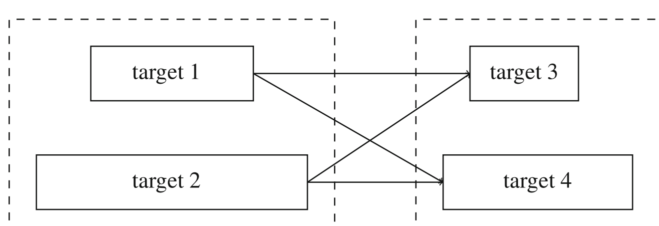


FIGURE 8 | Visualization of the setting with $n = 4$ targets and two groups ($\{1, 2\}$ and $\{3, 4\}$).

4.2.3 | Diverging Cluster

A *diverging cluster* is a group of targets that form a tree in the schedule network. Figure 9 displays an example of a diverging cluster that consists of targets 3, 4 and 5.

The diverging cluster as shown in Figure 9 could, for instance, represent three cabinet members each having meetings close in location, but at different times. One of the cabinet members has a meeting shortly after lunch, followed by two meetings—in parallel—for the other two members.

If a group of targets can be identified as a diverging cluster in a bodyguard scheduling game, then there is no need to execute steps 2, 3 and 4 of the algorithm of the bodyguard scheduling game for all targets. We demonstrate this by the example in Figure 9. First, according to step 1 of the algorithm, we solve the linear program in (14) for all targets.

Thereafter, we execute the remaining steps for only target 1, 2, and 3. Instead of checking 2^5 strategies on feasibility, we thus only check 2^3 of them. We ignore targets 4 and 5 in the remaining steps, because we can construct a consistent mixed strategy for target 4 and 5, based on the solution of the linear program in (14).

To illustrate this idea, suppose that the LP generates solution $x_3 = 4.2$, $x_4 = 2.5$, and $x_5 = 1.7$. For any consistent mixed strategy, we know that in 80% of the time we assign 4 bodyguards to target 3 and in 20% of the time we assign 5 bodyguards to target 3. If we assign 4 bodyguards to target 3, we assign 2 of them with probability 62.5% to target 4 and we assign 3 of them with probability 37.5% to target 4. If we assign 5 bodyguards to target 3, we always assign 3 bodyguards to target 4. In summary, we assign in $62.5\% \cdot 80\% = 50\%$ of the time 2 bodyguards and in $37.5\% \cdot 80\% + 20\% = 50\%$ of the time 3 bodyguards, which matches with x_4. Consequently, we also know that in $62.5\% \cdot 80\% = 50\%$ of the time we assign $(4-2) = 2$ bodyguards to target 4 and in $37.5\% \cdot 80\% = 30\%$ of the time, we assign $(4-3) = 1$ bodyguard to target 4. Finally, in 20% of the time, we assign $(5-3) = 2$ bodyguards to target 4. In summary, we assign in $62.5\% \cdot 80\% + 20\% = 70\%$ of the time 2 bodyguards to target 4 and in $37.5\% \cdot 80\% = 30\%$ of the time 1 bodyguard to target 5, which matches with x_5. Hence, we have constructed a consistent mixed strategy for target 4, and 5. We also visualized this procedure in Figure 10.

If target 4 would have two additional children, in the form of target 6 and 7 (see Figure 11), then we construct a consistent mixed strategy by first considering target 4, 6 and 7 as one consolidated node—and follow the procedure described above, with target 3 as the parent node and target 5 and the consolidated node as the children nodes. Subsequently, we repeat our procedure, but this time for the tree with target 4 as parent node and target 6 and target 7 as children nodes.

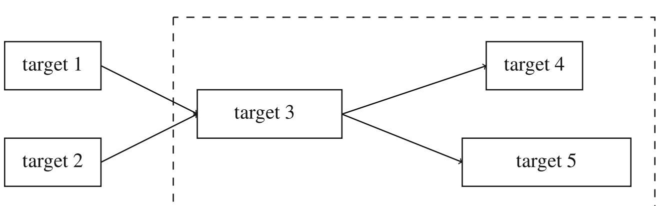


FIGURE 9 | Visualization of the setting with $n = 5$ targets and one tree ($\{3, 4, 5\}$).

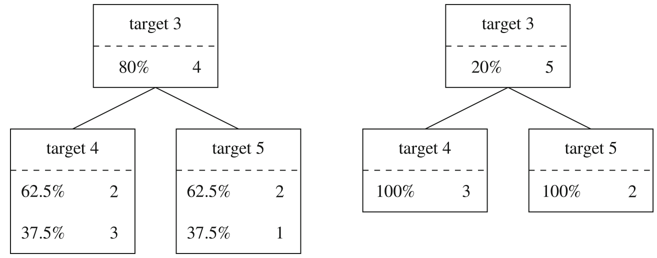


FIGURE 10 | Visualization of how to assign bodyguards to target 4 and 5.

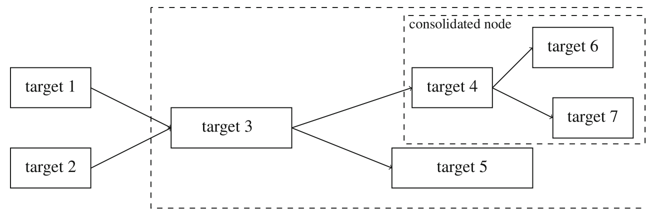


FIGURE 11 | Visualization of the setting with $n = 7$ targets and a tree ($\{3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}$).

5 | Case Study Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging

In this section, we demonstrate, using a case study at the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging, how bodyguard games can be deployed in practice. All the information used in the case study was obtained from publicly accessible sources.

The primary task of the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging is to provide personal protection to individuals who are subject to actual or potential threats (Dutch Inspectorate of Justice and Security 2022). This responsibility is carried out through two specialized branches, namely the *Royal unit* and the *diplomatic unit*. The Royal unit focuses on the protection of members of the Royal House and their guests, while the diplomatic unit safeguards a wider group, including heads of government, diplomats, politicians, lawyers, journalists, and key witnesses. The diplomatic unit is expanding rapidly due to growing tensions and divisions within Dutch society.

The Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging rarely discloses information about the Royal unit, while some public information is available about the diplomatic unit. As such, our case study focuses on the diplomatic unit. We begin by deploying the bodyguard allocation game, and subsequently turn to the bodyguard scheduling game. For both bodyguard games, we first provide a step-by-step explanation of how the relevant parameters are identified, drawing on publicly accessible and reliable sources, and discuss relevant operational aspects.[5]

5.1 | Case Study for the Bodyguard Allocation Game

5.1.1 | Relevant Parameters for the Bodyguard Allocation Game

The first step is to determine the number of individuals for whom the diplomatic unit is responsible for providing security. In a news article (see Dongen 2022), the director of the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging shared a rough estimate of about 400 individuals receiving some form of protection in the Netherlands. This number includes individuals who only have a camera installed at their residence or where a police team regularly drives by. Another (radio) interview with a spokesman of the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging (see NPORadio 2022) states that only 10% to 20% of these individuals are assigned bodyguards. In other words, the number of individuals with bodyguards assigned is typically in the order of 40 to 80. Similar numbers can also be found in Belgium (Romans 2025). The protection of some of these 40 to 80 individuals are provided by the Royal unit—such as all members of the King's family and first-degree relatives, roughly 20 in total (Frankenhuis 2024). Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that the diplomatic unit is responsible to provide bodyguard protection to at most 60 individuals.

The second step is to gather information on how bodyguards are actually assigned to individuals and how their work schedules look like. There is, however, almost no public information available about this, which is most likely due to confidentiality reasons. What is available online (see, e.g., Nachtegael 2024) is that bodyguards are likely to be assigned to individuals on a *work shift* basis. That is, for the entire duration of the work shift (e.g., 7:00 a.m.–2:00 p.m.), bodyguards are assigned to the *same* individual. Nachtegael (2024), who conducted a study at the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging, discusses a setting with two work shifts per day, and we will do so as well. For simplicity, we refer to them as the morning shift and the afternoon shift. Nachtegael (2024) also explains that in order to assign bodyguards per work shift, the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging identifies the most critical activity per individual per work shift and assigns bodyguards accordingly. Hence, it is possible that an individual ends up with multiple bodyguards because of one *risky* activity in the morning shift, while for the remainder of that shift no bodyguards are really needed. The bodyguard allocation game would fit naturally to this setup, where each *target* in the bodyguard allocation game represents the most risky activity of an *individual* during a work shift.

The third step is to gather information about the type and number of activities per individual. In the Netherlands, it is standard for the Dutch government to share agenda appointment of ministers of the cabinet online (Dutch Central Government 2025). For example, Figure 12 represents a snapshot of part of the agenda of the current prime minister of the Netherlands.

Typically, these online agendas of ministers also include information about the location, content, and participants of the meeting. Our review of the agendas of all ministers from January to April 2025 has revealed that the number of public appointments during a day typically ranges between 0, 1, and 2. Since we have no information regarding the agendas of other individuals with close protection, such as lawyers and journalists, we use the same frequency of 0, 1, or 2 activities per day for those individuals too. Consistent with the data from the online agendas, we set 30 individuals with no activity, 20 with one activity, and 10 with two activities each day. As a consequence, each work shift contains at most 40 activities, which we will consider as *targets* in our bodyguard allocation game. We will use this number of 40 as an upper bound for our case study.[6]

The fourth step is to obtain an indication of the number of bodyguards in the diplomatic unit. There are, however, no documents available online about these numbers, which is again due to confidentiality reasons. However, we found online a snapshot of a prominent political figure, Geert Wilders, who has been known to be under threat for years and receives close protection (Flymen 2022). This snapshot (see Figure 13), shows Wilders walking around the vicinity of the Binnenhof (i.e., the Dutch


14 Apr

Agenda minister-president Schoof week 16

Agenda | Dick Schoof

14 april 2025 - 20 april 2025

diverse locaties

17 april

- **Gesprek:** regulier overleg minister-president en viceminister-presidenten (Den Haag)
- Ministerraad (Den Haag)

18 april

- **Evenement:** de minister-president woont de Matthaüs Passion bij (Delft)
- **Gesprek:** wekelijks gesprek met de Koning (Den Haag)

FIGURE 12 | Overview of some meetings of the prime minister of The Netherlands. These meetings typically provide information about the location, content, and participants of the meeting. For example, the first meeting on April 18th, refers to the prime minister attending a public concert in Delft.

FIGURE 13 | The image depicts Geert Wilders (3rd from the left), a prominent political figure, who is protected by four bodyguards, indicated by a white arrow. Wilders is recognized as one of the most highly secured targets in the Netherlands. The photograph was taken by Roel Wijnants.

parliamentary complex), accompanied by four bodyguards (indicated with white arrows).

It is well known that Geert Wilders is one of the most protected politicians in the Netherlands, and as such it is reasonable to use four bodyguards per individual per activity as an upper bound for the average number of bodyguards per individual in many settings. So, we use $4 \times 40 = 160$ bodyguards in our bodyguard allocation game and study variations with 120, 80 and 40.

The fifth and final step is to gather information about the potential damage function g. This damage could, for instance, be interpreted as the probability of an attack on an individual, given the type of activity and the number of bodyguards allocated. As indicated in the work of Nachtegael (2024), one could make use of discrete choice modeling to determine these probabilities, where attributes such as the type of location (e.g., whether the activity is indoors or outdoors), the type of activity (e.g., whether it is a speech to 1000 people or a meeting with 10 attendees), the public disclosure of the activity (e.g., whether the activity is announced to the public), and the number of bodyguards can be considered. Because there is no information available about the potential assessment of such functions—if they are already used in practice—we adopt $g(z) = \gamma \cdot \exp\{-\alpha \cdot z\}$ with $z \in \mathbb{N}_{\geq 0}$ and $\gamma, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ to align with the convex, nonincreasing nature of the functions. In order to distinguish between the levels of risk associated with different individuals and associated activities, we consider six at highest risk ($\gamma = 0.005$), followed by ten at medium risk ($\gamma = 0.004$) and twenty four at lowest risk ($\gamma = 0.003$). For each type of risk, we divide them into two categories of equal size: one with higher sensitivity to the presence of bodyguards ($\alpha = 1$) and one with lower sensitivity ($\alpha = 0.8$). In our bodyguard allocation game, we will thus consider 40 targets, of which 3 with high risk and high sensitivity, 3 with high risk and low sensitivity, 5 with medium risk and high sensitivity, 5 with medium risk and low sensitivity, 12 with low risk and high sensitivity, and 12 with low risk and low sensitivity.

5.1.2 | Results of the Bodyguard Allocation Game

In this section, we present the results of the bodyguard allocation game for the morning work shift for varying number of bodyguards. The afternoon work shift is similar, and thus not presented. Each run ($k = 40, 80, 120, 160$) took less than one second to solve. These solution times suggests that our bodyguard allocation model would be suitable for practical implementation.

Table 5 illustrates the relationship between initial risk levels, sensitivity to bodyguards, and the corresponding number of bodyguards assigned to targets. The results indicate that targets with the highest initial risk and low sensitivity to bodyguards are assigned the highest number of bodyguards in all cases. For example, for $k = 160$, these targets always get at least 4 bodyguards allocated and in 85.9% of the time, they get one extra bodyguard allocated.

Another important observation from Table 5 is that the number of bodyguards assigned decreases as the initial risk level decreases. For example, for $k = 160$ and $\alpha = 1$, we see that the average number of bodyguards goes from 3.899 ($\gamma = 0.005$) through 3.729 ($\gamma = 0.004$) to 3.444 ($\gamma = 0.003$). This behavior holds for all combinations of the initial risk and the sensitivity for bodyguards. Intuitively, in order to minimize the maximal expected damage among all targets, we need to assign more bodyguards to those whose initial risk are higher. Finally, we observe that for targets with the same initial risk level, a greater number of bodyguards should be allocated to those whose damage functions are less sensitive to protection, in order to reduce their expected damage to the same level as that of targets whose damage functions respond more strongly to bodyguard deployment.

TABLE 5 | Expected number of bodyguards assigned for various combinations of initial risk (γ), sensitivity toward bodyguards presence (α), and the total number of bodyguards available (k).

	$\gamma = 0.005$		$\gamma = 0.004$		$\gamma = 0.003$	
k	$\alpha = 1$	$\alpha = 0.8$	$\alpha = 1$	$\alpha = 0.8$	$\alpha = 1$	$\alpha = 0.8$
160	3.899	4.859	3.729	4.620	3.444	4.221
120	2.978	3.781	2.826	3.522	2.575	3.091
80	2.122	2.693	1.911	2.412	1.687	1.975
40	1.275	1.587	0.981	1.280	0.780	0.896

5.2 | Case Study for Bodyguard Scheduling Game

5.2.1 | Relevant Parameters for the Bodyguard Scheduling Game

As mentioned earlier, it is plausible that the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging currently assigns bodyguards to individuals on a work shift basis. This is in contrast to our bodyguard scheduling games where bodyguards can be assigned to multiple targets (via transferring) during the same work shift. Consequently, there is less data available from public sources to feed into our bodyguard scheduling game, and a few assumptions in this section are our educated guesses.

To proceed, we start with the same parameters as in Section 5.1.2. This time, each of the 40 targets is associated with a location, and a start time and an end time. If locations of two targets are nearby, and the end time of one target is sufficient earlier than the start time of the other target, then a bodyguard can be assigned to protect both targets. Similar to Section 5.1.2, we focus on the morning shift, which we assume to run from 7:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m. According to practice, targets have a start time of 8:00 a.m., 9:00 a.m., 10:00 a.m., and 11:00 a.m., and may take one or two hours. Bodyguards can transfer between targets if the end time of one does not overlap with the start time of the other, and if there is sufficient time to travel between the locations without causing delays.

In the Netherlands, there are three *reporting locations* (Eindhovens Dagblad 2009). Based on the locations of their residence, the bodyguards report to one of these locations at the start of their shifts, where they change into uniform and receive operational briefings. These reporting locations are geographically spread out across the country, covering different regions of the Netherlands. It is reasonable to assume that each of these regions serves a similar proportion of targets per work shift, which implies that each of them serves around 40/3, or 13 to 14 targets. Due to the similarities of these regions, we focus on one of them, set an upper bound of 14 targets, and fix the number of bodyguards to 30% of the total, deviating slightly from an exact one-third allocation to ensure integer numbers of bodyguards. That is, we will use 48 bodyguards per work shift and, similar to the previous section, also study variations with 36, 24, and 12 bodyguards.

Table 6 provides, for each target, its associated risk level, sensitivity to bodyguard presence, start and end times, location, and the set of other targets to which a bodyguard can be transferred to.

We use locations (i.e., cities) that frequently appear in the online agendas of ministers and are relatively close to each other, to better represent the setting of a single region. Those cities are: Amsterdam, The Hague, Rotterdam, Utrecht, and Delft. We assume that any transfer within the same city takes one hour. Any transfer between two cities is also one hour, except that it takes two hours for a transfer between Amsterdam and one of the following three cities: Rotterdam, The Hague, and Delft. In order to distinguish between the levels of risk associated with different targets, we consider two of them at highest risk, followed by four at medium risk and eight at lowest risk. For each risk type, we evenly divide them into two categories based on their sensitivity to the presence of bodyguards (high and low sensitivity), as also illustrated in Table 6.

5.2.2 | Results of the Bodyguard Scheduling Game

In this section, we present the results of the bodyguard scheduling game for the morning work shift for varying number of bodyguards. The afternoon work shift is similar, and thus not presented. Keep in mind that, for each run of the algorithm ($k = 12, 28, 36, 48$), we need to check $2^{14} = 16,384$ pure strategies on feasibility. In Figure 14, we demonstrate the proportion of these strategies that we need to evaluate when applying the alternative algorithm for $k \in \{12, 13, \ldots, 48\}$.

TABLE 6 | Target schedule with risk levels, locations, time intervals, and transfer options.

Target	Risk level	Sensitivity level	Location	Duration	Transfer options
1	Low	Low	The Hague	8:00–10:00	7, 11, 13
2	Medium	High	Rotterdam	8:00–9:00	5, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13
3	Low	High	Amsterdam	9:00–10:00	8
4	Low	Low	The Hague	9:00–11:00	—
5	High	High	Delft	10:00–11:00	—
6	High	Low	Amsterdam	10:00–12:00	—
7	Low	High	The Hague	11:00–13:00	—
8	Low	High	Amsterdam	11:00–12:00	—
9	Medium	High	Utrecht	8:00–9:00	5, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13
10	Medium	Low	Rotterdam	9:00–10:00	7, 11, 13
11	Low	Low	Rotterdam	11:00–12:00	—
12	Medium	Low	Delft	10:00–12:00	—
13	Low	High	The Hague	11:00–12:00	—
14	Low	Low	Amsterdam	8:00–9:00	8

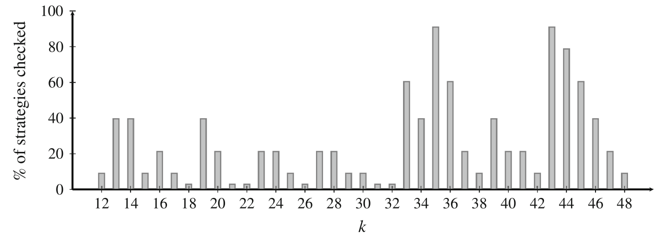


FIGURE 14 | % of strategies that the alternative algorithm needs to check for our case study with $k \in \{12, 13, \ldots, 48\}$.

The results illustrate substantial variability: in certain cases, as few as 10% of all strategies are assessed, whereas in others up to 90% must be considered. On average, 26.7% of the strategies are evaluated across the 37 instances. For each run $k \in \{12, 24, 36, 48\}$, the alternative algorithm takes at most two minutes to solve, compared to at most 4 min for the original algorithm. These solution times suggest that our bodyguard scheduling game would be suitable for practical implementation.

Table 7 illustrates the corresponding bodyguard assignment for $k \in \{12, 24, 36, 48\}$. Similar to the previous case study, we learn that more bodyguards need to be assigned to those who have a higher initial risk or are less sensitive to the presence of bodyguards. The last two rows of Table 7 report the values of the bodyguard scheduling game, as well as the value of the bodyguard allocation game. The reduction of the risk ranges between 39% and 80% when we allow the bodyguards to transfer from one target to another target, indicating the added value of allowing bodyguard transfers.

Table 8 shows the optimal mixed strategy for the bodyguard scheduling game if the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging solves it for $k = 12$ bodyguards. The optimal mixed strategy involves 11 pure strategies with their corresponding

TABLE 7 | Target schedule structure with values filled for $k = 12, 24, 36, 48$.

	Number of bodyguards			
Target	48	36	24	12
1	5.672	4.167	2.748	1.289
2	4.834	3.700	2.541	1.364
3	4.585	3.406	2.194	0.984
4	5.672	4.167	2.748	1.289
5	4.984	3.876	2.749	1.607
6	6.288	4.827	3.390	1.900
7	4.585	3.406	2.194	0.984
8	4.585	3.406	2.194	0.984
9	4.834	3.700	2.541	1.364
10	5.958	4.579	3.034	1.671
11	5.672	4.167	2.748	1.289
12	5.958	4.579	3.034	1.671
13	4.585	3.406	2.194	0.984
14	5.672	4.167	2.748	1.289
Value of the scheduling game (10^{-4})	0.35	1.11	3.56	11.00
Value of the allocation game (10^{-4})	1.77	3.79	8.23	18.00

TABLE 8 | Summary of optimal mixed strategy with 11 pure strategies and associated probabilities.

Pure strategy	Number of bodyguards assigned														Probability
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	
A	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	0	2	0.015568
B	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	2	0.071368
C	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	0.016256
D	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	1	0.607400
E	2	1	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	0.015568
F	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	0.099969
G	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	0.015568
H	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	0.031824
I	2	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	2	0.039545
J	2	2	1	2	1	2	0	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	0.015568
K	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	0.071368

TABLE 9 | Direct and transfer assignment of bodyguards to activities for pure strategy K of Table 8.

Target	Direct	Transfer	Target	Direct	Transfer
1	2	Send one to 11; Send one to 13	8	0	Receive one from 14
2	2	Send one to 5; Send one to 12	9	2	Send two to 6
3	1	—	10	2	Send one to 7; Send one to 11
4	2	—	11	0	Receive one from 10; Receive one from 1
5	0	Receive one from 2	12	0	Receive one from 2
6	0	Receive two from 9	13	0	Receive one from 1
7	0	Receive one from 10	14	1	Send one to 8

probabilities. In practice, we can generate a random number uniformly between 0 and 1 to decide which of the 11 pure strategies to use. Once a pure strategy is selected, we need to describe how bodyguards are assigned and transferred. Table 9 shows the assignment and transfer schedule for pure strategy K.

6 | Conclusion

We have investigated a resource allocation problem where a limited supply of bodyguards is to be allocated to protect individuals under threat. We model the problem as a two-person zero-sum game between a defender who allocates the bodyguards and an attacker who chooses one target to attack. Because the number of feasible bodyguard allocations grows quickly as either the number of protected targets or the number of bodyguards increases, solving the game by brute force with a linear program becomes computationally intractable for problems of practical size. By assuming that the marginal effectiveness of each additional bodyguard assigned to a target is nonincreasing, we show that we can solve the game with a different linear program whose size is linear in the numbers of both targets and bodyguards. In doing so, we exploited the fact that the best way to implement a defender's mixed strategy—with an expected number $x \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ of bodyguards allocated to a target—is to allocate either $\lfloor x \rfloor$ bodyguards or $\lceil x \rceil$ bodyguards with appropriate probabilities. Next, we extended the allocation game to a scheduling game, which allows a bodyguard to report to multiple targets if their schedules allow. We developed an algorithm to compute a bound for the value of this game and presented a mixed strategy that achieved this bound in all numerical experiments we have conducted. Next, we discussed several special structures of our bodyguard game that can be solved efficiently. These special structures may arise in large bodyguard scheduling problems in practice. Finally, we demonstrated, using a case study, how our bodyguard games can be applied in practice. The case study illustrates that instances of realistic size can be solved within a few minutes.

The results in this paper are established under some assumptions. First, we assume that the damage function is convex and nonincreasing in the number of bodyguards assigned per target. This assumption appears reasonable in many situations and is supported by the study of Nachtegael (2024) who conducted interviews with various Dutch bodyguards. However, there may be other situations where this assumption does not apply, and determining how to leverage the specific properties of the damage function to solve such a game efficiently would be a practical research problem.

In our article, we also made the assumption that bodyguards are interchangeable. That is, every bodyguard is equally effective when assigned to protect different targets. In reality, however, there are situations where the protection effectiveness depends on which bodyguards are assigned to protect a certain target—not just how many bodyguards are assigned to the task. Addressing such a variation requires an entirely different formulation, which takes into account variability among bodyguards' qualifications and targets' vulnerabilities.

Another research direction is to develop alternative solution techniques that scale better when the number of targets increases in the bodyguard scheduling game. This might be particularly relevant for countries—such as Germany or the United Kingdom—where the number of high-risk targets may be significantly larger than in the Netherlands. One approach could be to solve $\mathscr{G}_S$ using column generation, where the restricted master problem takes the form of a matrix game over a subset of defender pure strategies, and the pricing problem involves computing the best response of the defender to the attacker's current mixed strategy.

A final research direction is to either prove Conjecture 1 or find a counterexample.

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Data Availability Statement

The authors have nothing to report.

Endnotes

[1] Note that $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = k$.

[2] For instance, this might happen if $b_i = 1$ for all $i \in N$, $k = 2$ and $g_1(1) \geq g_i(0)$ for all $i \in N$. For this setting, there is no need to allocate more than one bodyguard, which is assigned to target 1.

[3] For instance, we use 7.5 to represent 7:30 a.m.

[4] In the remainder of this paper, we will only show those directional arcs for which $q_{ij} > 0$.

[5] Because an individual under treat may undertake several risky activities during a day in reality, which constitutes separate *targets* in our bodyguard allocation/scheduling games, we will use the term *target* only when referring to our bodyguard allocation/scheduling games.

[6] Recall that the Dienst Koninklijke en Diplomatieke Beveiliging focuses on the most risky activity per individual per work shift. So, if all activities are scheduling in one work shift, there are $20 \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 10 \cdot 2 = 35$ relevant targets only. Nevertheless, we decided to use 40 as an upper bound to demonstrate that we can also handle larger problem instances.

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Appendix A

Experiment for the Upper Bound for Bodyguard Scheduling Games

In this experiment, we generated 50 000 random bodyguard scheduling games. For each of them, we calculated the value of $\mathcal{G}_S$ and $\mathcal{G}_S^*$. It turns out that $\mathcal{G}_S$ and $\mathcal{G}_S^*$ coincide for all instances.

The 50 000 random bodyguard scheduling games are generated as follows. For each number of targets $n \in \{5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$ and each number of bodyguards $k \in \{10, 11, \ldots, 19\}$, we generated 1000 random bodyguard games. In doing so, we generated/set:

- $t_i^s \sim \text{Uniform}[0, 10]$ and $t_i^e \sim t_i^s + \text{Uniform}[0, 10]$ for all $i \in N$.
- travel times $t_{ij} \sim \text{Uniform}[0, 2]$ for all $i, j \in N$. Note, these travel times are not part of our bodyguard scheduling game, but we used them to identify q_{ij} for all $i, j \in N$.
- $q_{ij} = k$ if $t_i^e + t_{ij} \leq t_j^s$ and $q_{ij} = 0$ otherwise.
- $g_i(z) = \gamma_i \cdot \alpha_i^z$ with $\gamma_i \sim \text{Uniform}[0, 1]$, $\alpha_i \in \text{Uniform}[0, 1]$ and $b_i = k$ for all $i \in N$.

Function g is commonly used in the homeland security literature to model diminishing returns (see, e.g., Bier et al. 2007) and also has an operational interpretation as already discussed in Section 3.5.2. For instance, one way to interpret this damage function is that each additional bodyguard adds a defense layer for the target. The attacker penetrates each defense layer of target $i \in N$ with probability α_i, independently of everything else, and succeeds in the attack only if the attacker penetrates all defense layers. In that regard, α_i could be interpreted as the effectiveness of each additional bodyguard for a given target $i \in N$. Moreover, value γ_i could be interpreted as the importance/societal value of target $i \in N$.