# On unique minimum dominating sets in some repeated Cartesian products 

Jason Hedetniemi<br>Department of Mathematical Sciences<br>Clemson University<br>Clemson, South Carolina 29634<br>U.S.A.<br>jhedetn@clemson.edu


#### Abstract

Unique minimum dominating sets in the Cartesian product of a graph and a Hamming graph are considered. A characterization of such sets is given, when they exist. A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a unique minimum dominating set is given in the special case of the Cartesian product of a tree and multiple copies of the same complete graph.


## 1 Introduction

Unique minimum vertex dominating sets have been studied in many classes of graphs, including trees [4], block graphs [2], and cactus graphs [3]. In [6], the author considered unique minimum dominating sets in the Cartesian product of a graph and a complete graph. In particular, a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a unique minimum dominating set was given for the product of a tree and a complete graph.

In the present work, we continue this study by considering unique minimum dominating sets in graphs $G \square K_{n_{1}} \square K_{n_{2}} \square \cdots \square K_{n_{m}}$, where
$K_{n_{1}}, K_{n_{2}}, \ldots, K_{n_{m}}$ denote the complete graphs on $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{m}$ vertices respectively. In Section 3, we first develop a characterization of the unique minimum dominating sets in such graphs when they exist. We then consider changing the cardinalities of the complete graphs, and show that the property of having a unique minimum dominating set is preserved when the cardinalities are decreased. In Section 4, we specialize to the case of $n_{i}=n_{j}$ for $i \neq j$, and prove a necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a unique minimum dominating set in $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ where $T$ is a tree. We conclude by noting that unique minimum dominating sets in the Cartesian product of a tree and a hypercube can be considered by setting $n_{i}=2$ for $1 \leq i \leq m$.

## 2 Notation

In our work to follow, $G$ denotes a finite, simple graph with vertex set $V(G)$ and edge set $E(G)$. If $v \in V(G)$, then the open neighborhood of $v$ is defined by $N(v)=\{u \mid u v \in$ $E(G)\}$ while the closed neighborhood of $v$ is defined by $N[v]=N(v) \cup\{v\}$. A vertex $x$ of $G$ dominates every vertex in $N[x]$. Given $S \subseteq V(G)$, the open neighborhood of $S$, denoted $N(S)$, is the set $\cup_{v \in S} N(v)$, while the closed neighborhood, denoted $N[S]$, is the set $S \cup N(S)$. If $S \subseteq V(G)$ satisfies $N[S]=V(G)$, then $S$ is called a dominating set. The cardinality of a minimum dominating set is referred to as the domination number of $G$ and is denoted by $\gamma(G)$, while a dominating set of minimum cardinality is referred to as a $\gamma$-set. If $D$ is a dominating set of $G$ and $x \in D$, then a private neighbor of $x$ with respect to $D$ is any vertex $u$ that is dominated by $x$ and by no other vertex of $D$, and if $u \neq x$, then $u$ is called an external private neighbor of $x$ with respect to $D$. For notational purposes, we let epn $(x, D)$ denote the set of external private neighbors of $x$ with respect to $D$. We note that $\operatorname{epn}(x, D)$ may be empty.

Given two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, their Cartesian product, denoted $G_{1} \square G_{2}$, is the graph whose vertex set is the Cartesian product of the sets $V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $V\left(G_{2}\right)$ with two vertices $\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)$ and $\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ in $G_{1} \square G_{2}$ adjacent if either $u_{1}=v_{1}$ and $u_{2} v_{2} \in E\left(G_{2}\right)$, or $u_{2}=v_{2}$ and $u_{1} v_{1} \in E\left(G_{1}\right)$. The projections
$\pi_{G_{i}}: V\left(G_{1} \square G_{2}\right) \rightarrow V\left(G_{i}\right)$, for $i=1$ and $i=2$, defined by $\pi_{G_{i}}\left(\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)\right)=u_{i}$ will be extensively used. Finally, for $\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right) \in V\left(G_{1} \square G_{2}\right)$, the $G_{i}$-layer through $\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)$ is defined to be the induced subgraph

$$
G_{i}^{\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)}=\left\langle\left\{\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right): \pi_{G_{3-i}}\left(\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)\right)=\pi_{G_{3-i}}\left(\left(u_{1}, u_{2}\right)\right)\right\}\right\rangle
$$

We follow [5] for any other graph product terminology.
We consider graphs $G \square K_{n_{1}} \square K_{n_{2}} \square \cdots \square K_{n_{m}}$ where $G$ is a connected, finite, simple graph, and where $K_{n_{1}}, K_{n_{2}}, \ldots, K_{n_{m}}$ are nontrivial complete graphs on $n_{1}, n_{2}$, $\ldots, n_{m}$ vertices respectively. We note, in passing, that a Cartesian product of complete graphs is called a Hamming graph. Thus, we are considering the Cartesian product of a graph with a Hamming graph. If a Cartesian product with $G$ and $m$ $K_{n}$-factors is performed, we simplify our notation to $G \square K_{n}^{m}$. In particular, note that $K_{2}^{m}$ is the $m$-dimensional hypercube, denoted $Q_{m}$. We assume that the vertex set of $K_{n}$ is $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ which we denote by $[n]$. We denote by $\mathcal{U}$ the class of graphs $G$ which have a unique minimum dominating set. Furthermore, if $G \in \mathcal{U}$, we let $U D(G)$ denote the unique $\gamma$-set of $G$.

## 3 Repeated Products

To begin our work with repeated products, we first recall three results: one from [4] and two from [6]. We note that the proof of Proposition 1 below is as it appears in [6]. We have included the proof here for completeness.

Lemma 1 ([4]). Let $G$ be a graph with a unique $\gamma$-set $D$. Let $[u, v]$ be any edge in $G$ other than an edge connecting a vertex in $D$ to one of its private neighbors. Let $G^{-}$be the graph obtained from $G$ by deleting the edge $[u, v]$. Then $G^{-}$has $D$ as the unique $\gamma$-set.
Lemma 2 ([6]). If $G \square K_{n} \in \mathcal{U}$, then there exists $S \subseteq V(G)$ such that $U D\left(G \square K_{n}\right)$ $=S \times[n]$.

Proposition 1 ([6]). If $G \square K_{n} \in \mathcal{U}$, then $G \in \mathcal{U}$. Moreover, $G \square K_{m} \in \mathcal{U}$ for $1 \leq m \leq n$.

Proof. Denote $U D\left(G \square K_{n}\right)$ by $D$. By Lemma 2, there exists $S \subseteq V(G)$ such that $D=S \times[n]$. Thus, for any $(x, i) \in D$, the external private neighbors of $(x, i)$ with respect to $D$ all belong to $G^{(x, i)}$. Define $H$ to be the graph

$$
G \square K_{n}-\{(v, n)(v, j): v \in V(G), 1 \leq j \leq n-1\} .
$$

We see that $H$ is isomorphic to $\left(G \square K_{n-1}\right) \cup G$. By Lemma $1, D$ is still the unique $\gamma$-set for $H$. The proposition follows by induction.

Taken together, Lemma 2 and the proof of Proposition 1 imply that if $G \square K_{n} \in$ $\mathcal{U}$, then $\pi_{G}\left(U D\left(G \square K_{n}\right)\right)=U D(G)$. When considering repeated products, a similar statement holds.

Lemma 3. If $G \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$, then $U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m}\right)=U D(G) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$.
Proof. As noted above, if $G \square K_{n} \in \mathcal{U}$, then $U D\left(G \square K_{n}\right)=U D(G) \times[n]$. Thus, we see that

$$
U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m}\right)=U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m-1} \square K_{n}\right)=U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m-1}\right) \times[n]
$$

By induction, we see that $U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m}\right)=U D(G) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$.
Since the Cartesian product is both commutative and associative, Proposition 1 gives us the following result.

Proposition 2. If $G \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$, then $G \square K_{n_{1}} \square K_{n_{2}} \square \cdots \square K_{n_{r}} \in \mathcal{U}$ for $1 \leq n_{i} \leq$ $n$ and $1 \leq i \leq r \leq m$.

Proof. Suppose that $G \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$. By associativity, $\left(G \square K_{n}^{m-1}\right) \square K_{n} \in \mathcal{U}$. By Proposition 1, we then have that $\left(G \square K_{n}^{m-1}\right) \square K_{n_{1}} \in \mathcal{U}$ so long as $1 \leq n_{1} \leq n$. By commutativity, we have that $\left(G \square K_{n_{1}}\right) \square K_{n}^{m-1} \in \mathcal{U}$. By induction, our result follows.

As a result of Proposition 2, in order to determine whether

$$
G \square K_{n_{1}} \square K_{n_{2}} \square \cdots \square K_{n_{r}} \in \mathcal{U},
$$

it may suffice to consider whether $G \square K_{n}^{r} \in \mathcal{U}$ where $n=\max \left\{n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{r}\right\}$. Thus, we are motivated to define the following parameter.

Definition 1. Let $G \in \mathcal{U}$ and let $U_{n}^{\square}(G)$ denote the integer $m$ such that $G \square K_{n}^{m} \in$ $\mathcal{U}$, but $G \square K_{n}^{m+1} \notin \mathcal{U}$. If $G \square K_{n}^{m} \notin \mathcal{U}$ for any $m \geq 1$, define $U_{n}^{\square}(G)=0$, while if $G \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$ for all $m \geq 1$, define $U_{n}^{\square}(G)=\infty$.

As an illustration of this definition, consider the following examples. The graph $K_{1,2} \in \mathcal{U}$ but $K_{1,2} \square K_{2} \notin \mathcal{U}$ (see Figure 1). Thus, $U_{2}^{\square}\left(K_{1,2}\right)=0$. When we consider the graph $K_{1,3}$, we see that $K_{1,3} \square K_{2} \in \mathcal{U}$ but $K_{1,3} \square K_{2}^{2} \notin \mathcal{U}$. Hence, $U_{2}^{\square}\left(K_{1,3}\right)=1$. Finally, when considering the graph $K_{1,4}$, we see that $K_{1,4} \square K_{2}^{2} \in \mathcal{U}$, but $K_{1,4} \square K_{2}^{3} \notin \mathcal{U}$. Thus, $U_{2}^{\square}\left(K_{1,4}\right)=2$.


Figure 1: $K_{1,2} \in \mathcal{U}$ but $K_{1,2} \square K_{2} \notin \mathcal{U}$

We now determine $U_{n}^{\square}\left(K_{1, p}\right)$ for $n \geq 2$. For notational purposes, let $V\left(K_{1, p}\right)=$ $\{0,1, \ldots, p\}$ with 0 denoting the support vertex. Additionally, denote the vertices of $K_{n}^{m}$ as strings of length $m$ over the alphabet $[n]$. By the $j$ th cube of $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m}$, we mean the subgraph of $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m}$ induced by $\{j\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. The zeroth cube will be referred to as the central cube, while all other cubes will be referred to as the outer cubes.

Proposition 3. If $2 \leq p \leq n$, then $U_{n}^{\square}\left(K_{1, p}\right)=0$. If $p>n \geq 2$, then $U_{n}^{\square}\left(K_{1, p}\right)=$ $\left\lfloor\frac{p-2}{n-1}\right\rfloor$.

Proof. First, suppose that $2 \leq p \leq n$, and consider the graph $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}$. If $p<n$, then $V\left(K_{1, p}\right) \times\{1\}$ and $V\left(K_{1, p}\right) \times\{2\}$ are two distinct minimum dominating sets for $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}$. If $p=n$, then we see that the sets $\{0\} \times[n]$ and $\{(1,1),(2,2), \ldots,(p, p)\}$ are two distinct minimum dominating sets for $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}$. Thus, we see that $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}$ does not have a unique $\gamma$-set when $2 \leq p \leq n$, giving us the first part of our result.

Suppose then that $p>n$. Let $m=\left\lfloor\frac{p-2}{n-1}\right\rfloor$, and consider $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m}$. Let $D$ be the set $\{0\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$, and note that $D$ is certainly a dominating set for $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m}$. Suppose that $D^{\prime}$ is a $\gamma$-set for $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m}$ and that for some $k>0,\left|D-D^{\prime}\right|=k$. In $K_{n}^{m}$, every vertex is of degree $(n-1) m$. Thus, $D^{\prime}$ contains at least $\left\lceil\frac{k}{(n-1) m+1}\right\rceil$ vertices from each of the $p$ outer cubes of $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m}$. Hence, we see that

$$
\left|D^{\prime}\right| \geq n^{m}-k+(p)\left\lceil\frac{k}{(n-1) m+1}\right\rceil
$$

Since $m<\frac{p-1}{n-1}$, we see that $(n-1) m+1<p$ in which case $(p)\left\lceil\frac{k}{(n-1) m+1}\right\rceil>k$. Hence $\left|D^{\prime}\right|>n^{m}$, a contradiction. Thus, $D$ is the unique $\gamma$-set for $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m}$.

Now consider $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m+1}$. Once again, $D=\{0\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m+1}\right)$ is a dominating set for $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m+1}$. Construct a new set $D^{\prime}$ from $D$ by deleting $(0,11 \cdots 1)$ and all of its neighbors in the central cube from $D$. Since $(m+1) \geq 2,\left|D^{\prime}\right|>0$. Thus, the only vertex of the central cube not dominated by $D^{\prime}$ is $(0,11 \cdots 1)$. Let $D^{\prime \prime}=D^{\prime} \cup\{(i, 11 \cdots 1) \mid 1 \leq i \leq p\} . \quad D^{\prime \prime}$ is a dominating set for $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m+1}$. Additionally, we see that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|D^{\prime \prime}\right| & =|D|-[1+(n-1)(m+1)]+p \\
& \leq|D|-\left[1+(n-1) \frac{p-1}{n-1}\right]+p \\
& =|D|-p+p \\
& =|D|
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, we have constructed a dominating set $D^{\prime \prime}$ distinct from $D$ of cardinality at most $|D|$. Thus, $K_{1, p} \square K_{n}^{m+1}$ cannot have a unique $\gamma$-set by Lemma 3. Our result now follows.

Proposition 3 will be used in the section to follow. However, before we proceed, we note that Proposition 3 can be used to find a lower bound for $\gamma\left(Q_{m}\right)$. While the lower bound produced is not of practical value, it is nevertheless interesting that analysis of unique $\gamma$-sets could potentially be used to produce lower bounds for domination numbers that are otherwise difficult to obtain.
Corollary 1. For $p \geq 2, \gamma\left(Q_{p-2}\right) \geq \frac{2^{p-2}}{p+1}$.
Proof. Taking $n=2$, Proposition 3 implies that $U_{2}^{\square}\left(K_{1, p}\right)=p-2$. That is, $K_{1, p} \square Q_{p-2} \in \mathcal{U}$. Moreover, $\left|U D\left(K_{1, p} \square Q_{p-2}\right)\right|=2^{p-2}$. Hence, if $\gamma\left(Q_{p-2}\right)<\frac{2^{p-2}}{p+1}$, then taking a $\gamma$-set of $Q_{p-2}$ in each of the $p+1$ cubes of $K_{1, p} \square Q_{p-2}$ would yield a dominating set of cardinality smaller than $2^{p-2}$. Thus, our result follows.

## 4 Trees

Proposition 3 provides us with the following result.
Lemma 4. If $G \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$, then for all $v \in U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m}\right)$, $\left|e p n\left(v, U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m}\right)\right)\right| \geq m(n-1)+2$.

Proof. For notational convenience, let $D$ denote the set $U D\left(G \square K_{n}^{m}\right)$ and let $D^{\prime}$ denote the set $U D(G)$. Recall that by Lemma 3, $D=D^{\prime} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. This implies that if $v \in D^{\prime}$ with $\operatorname{epn}\left(v, D^{\prime}\right)=\left\{p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{k}\right\}$, then for all $x \in V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right),(v, x) \in D$ with $\operatorname{epn}((v, x), D)=\left\{\left(p_{1}, x\right),\left(p_{2}, x\right), \ldots,\left(p_{k}, x\right)\right\}$. For the sake of contradiction, suppose that $(u, w) \in D$ has $\operatorname{epn}((u, w), D)=\left\{\left(p_{1}, w\right),\left(p_{2}, w\right), \ldots,\left(p_{j}, w\right)\right\}$ for some $j<$ $m(n-1)+2$. Since $U_{n}^{\square}\left(K_{1, j}\right)<m$, this implies that the subgraph of $G \square K_{n}^{m}$ induced by $\left\{u, p_{1}, p_{2}, \ldots, p_{j}\right\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$ has a $\gamma$-set, call it $B$, distinct from $\{u\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. In that case, $\left(D-\left(\{u\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)\right)\right) \cup B$ is a $\gamma$-set for $G \square K_{n}^{m}$ distinct from $D$, a contradiction.

Before proceeding to our main result, we recall one more theorem from [6].
Theorem 1 ([6]). Let $n$ be a positive integer and let $T$ be a tree. The graph $T \square K_{n} \in \mathcal{U}$ if and only if $T$ has a minimum dominating set $D$ such that for all $v \in D,|e p n(v, D)| \geq n+1$.

We are now able to classify the trees $T$ for which $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ has a unique $\gamma$-set. For notational purposes, if $v \in V(T)$, then we let the $v$ th cube of $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ denote the subgraph of $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ induced by $\{v\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$.
Theorem 2. Let $n \geq 2, m \geq 1$, and let $T$ be a tree. The Cartesian product $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ has a unique $\gamma$-set if and only if $T \square K_{m(n-1)+1}$ has a unique $\gamma$-set.

Proof. First, suppose that $T \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$. By Lemma 3, $U D\left(T \square K_{n}^{m}\right)=U D(T) \times$ $V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. By Lemma 4, we know that for each $v \in U D\left(T \square K_{n}^{m}\right)$, $\left|e p n\left(v, U D\left(T \square K_{n}^{m}\right)\right)\right| \geq m(n-1)+2$. This implies that for each $w \in U D(T)$, $|e p n(w, U D(T))| \geq m(n-1)+2$. By Theorem 1, it follows that $T \square K_{m(n-1)+1}$ has a unique $\gamma$-set.

Now suppose that $T \square K_{m(n-1)+1} \in \mathcal{U}$. By Proposition 1 and Theorem 1, we see that $T$ has a unique $\gamma$-set $S$ so that every element in $S$ has at least $m(n-1)+2$ external private neighbors with respect to $S$. Consider then $T \square K_{n}^{m}$. Note that the set $S \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$ is a dominating set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$. We must show that it is a $\gamma$-set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$, and that it is the unique $\gamma$-set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$.

We proceed by induction on $\gamma(T)$. If $\gamma(T)=1$, then $T$ is a star $K_{1, p}$ with $p \geq m(n-1)+2$. By Proposition 3, we see that $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ has $U D(T) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$ as its unique $\gamma$-set. Thus, suppose the result has been proven whenever $\gamma(T)<q$. Let $T$ be a tree such that $\gamma(T)=q$ and such that $T \square K_{m(n-1)+1}$ has a unique $\gamma$-set. Let $S$ be the unique $\gamma$-set for $T$. We know that for all $x \in S$, $\mid$ epn $(x, S) \mid \geq m(n-1)+2$. Consider a diametral path $x_{1} x_{2} \ldots x_{t-1} x_{t} x_{t+1}$ in $T$. Note that $x_{t} \in S$ and that $t \geq 3$.

## Case One

First, suppose that $x_{t-1} \notin \operatorname{epn}\left(x_{t}, S\right)$. In this case, since $\left|e p n\left(x_{t}, S\right)\right| \geq m(n-1)+2$, we see that $x_{t}$ is adjacent to at least $m(n-1)+2$ leaves. Thus, by the proof of Proposition 3, every vertex of the $x_{t}$ th cube in $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ is selected for inclusion in every $\gamma$-set of $T \square K_{n}^{m}$. Let $T^{\prime}$ denote the tree obtained by removing $x_{t}$ and all of its private neighbors with respect to $S$ from $T$. Note that by Lemma 1, $T^{\prime} \in \mathcal{U}$ with $U D\left(T^{\prime}\right)=S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}$. Additionally, observe that if $x \in S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}$, then $e p n\left(x, S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \supseteq \operatorname{epn}(x, S)$. Thus, by Theorem 1, we also see that $T^{\prime} \square K_{m(n-1)+1} \in$ $\mathcal{U}$. Since $\gamma\left(T^{\prime}\right)<\gamma(T)$, our induction hypothesis implies that $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$ and that $U D\left(T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}\right)=\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$.

Suppose then that $D$ is a $\gamma$-set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ and that $D \neq S \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. By our observations above, we know that $\left\{x_{t}\right\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right) \subseteq D$. Let $B=D-\left(\left\{x_{t}\right\} \times\right.$ $\left.V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)\right)$ and note that $B \subseteq V\left(T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}\right)$. If $B$ dominates $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$, then since $U D\left(T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}\right)=\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$ and since $B \neq\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$, this implies that $|B|>\left|\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)\right|$. This, however, implies that $S \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$ is a smaller cardinality dominating set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$, a contradiction.

Thus, assume that $B$ does not dominate $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$. Since $D$ is a dominating set of $T \square K_{n}^{m}$, this implies that $B$ fails to dominate some subset of the $x_{t-1}$-cube in $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$. In particular, this implies that some subset of the $x_{t-1}$-cube is not contained in $B$. We consider two subcases.

## Subcase One

Suppose that $x_{t-1} \notin S$.

- First, suppose that $N\left(x_{t-1}\right)=\left\{x_{t-2}, x_{t}\right\}$. Since $x_{t-1} \notin e p n\left(x_{t}, S\right)$, this implies that $x_{t-2} \in S$. Apply Lemma 1 to $T$, and remove the edge $x_{t-2} x_{t-1}$. It follows that $T^{\prime}-x_{t-1} \in \mathcal{U}$ and that $U D\left(T^{\prime}-x_{t-1}\right)=S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}$. This further implies, by the same logic as above, that $\left(T^{\prime}-x_{t-1}\right) \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$ with unique $\gamma$-set given by $\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. Note that since $B$ does not dominate all of the $x_{t-1}$-cube in $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$, this implies that $B$ does not contain all of the $x_{t-2}$-cube.
If $B$ contains no vertices from the $x_{t-1}$-cube, then $B$ is a dominating set for $\left(T^{\prime}-x_{t-1}\right) \square K_{n}^{m}$ distinct from $\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. This contradicts our assumption that $D$ was a $\gamma$-set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$.
Hence, we see that $B$ contains some subset of the $x_{t-1}$-cube. Let $\left\{\left(x_{t-1}, p_{1}\right),\left(x_{t-1}, p_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{t-1}, p_{j}\right)\right\} \subseteq B$. This implies that

$$
B \cap\left\{\left(x_{t-2}, p_{1}\right),\left(x_{t-2}, p_{2}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{t-2}, p_{j}\right)\right\}=\emptyset
$$

since otherwise $D$ would not be a $\gamma-$ set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$. Thus, consider the set

$$
\left(B-\left\{\left(x_{t-1}, p_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{t-1}, p_{j}\right)\right\}\right) \cup\left\{\left(x_{t-2}, p_{1}\right), \ldots,\left(x_{t-2}, p_{j}\right)\right\}
$$

This is a dominating set for $\left(T^{\prime}-x_{t-1}\right) \square K_{n}^{m}$ distinct from $\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$, a contradiction.

- Now suppose that $x_{t-1}$ is adjacent to a vertex, call it $y$, not on the diametral path. First, note that $y \in S$. If $y \notin S$, then since $x_{t-1} \notin S, y$ would have a neighbor in $S$ which, with its external private neighbors, could be used to create a longer path in $T$. In particular, any neighbors of $x_{t-1}$ in $T$ not on the diametral path are in $S$ and have only leaf neighbors. Since our initial assumption was that each element of $S$ has at least $m(n-1)+2$ external private neighbors, this implies that $y$ has $m(n-1)+2$ leaf-neighbors in $T$. Hence, by the same logic as applied to $x_{t}$ above, every vertex of the $y$-cube is contained in every $\gamma$-set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$. However, this implies that $\{y\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right) \subseteq D$ which further implies that $B$ dominates $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$, a contradiction.

Thus, in both cases, $x_{t-1} \notin S$ leads to a contradiction.

## Subcase Two

Suppose now that $x_{t-1} \in S$. This implies that $\left|\operatorname{epn}\left(x_{t-1}, S\right)\right| \geq m(n-1)+2$ by our earlier assumption. If $x_{t-1}$ has an external private neighbor other than $x_{t-2}$ that is not a leaf, then a longer path in $T$ can be found. Hence, we see that $x_{t-1}$ has at least
$m(n-1)+1$ leaf-neighbors in $T$, call them $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{r}$. Note that if $r \geq m(n-1)+2$, then every vertex of the $x_{t-1}$-cube is contained in every $\gamma$-set of $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ implying that $B$ is a dominating set for $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$, a contradiction.

Thus, we see that $x_{t-1}$ has exactly $m(n-1)+1$ leaf-neighbors and $x_{t-2} \in$ $\operatorname{epn}\left(x_{t-1}, S\right)$. Recall that some subset of the $x_{t-1}$-cube in $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ is not contained in $B$. To be specific, assume $k$ vertices of the $x_{t-1}$-cube are not contained in $B$. This implies that at least $\left\lceil\frac{k}{m(n-1)+1}\right\rceil$ vertices from each of the $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{r}$-cubes are contained in $B$. Additionally, the vertices in the $x_{t-2}$-cube that are adjacent to vertices in $\left(\left\{x_{t-1}\right\} \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)\right)-B$ are dominated by vertices outside of the $x_{t-1}$-cube. Since

$$
[m(n-1)+1] \cdot\left\lceil\frac{k}{m(n-1)+1}\right\rceil \geq k
$$

we see that $B$ contains exactly $k$ vertices from the $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{r}$-cubes in total, since otherwise a smaller dominating set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ could be constructed. Consider the set obtained from $B$ by removing the $k$ vertices from the $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{r}$-cubes and including the $k$ missing vertices from the $x_{t-1}$-cube. This set is a dominating set for $T^{\prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$ distinct from $\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$, a contradiction.

## Case Two

Finally, suppose that $x_{t-1} \in \operatorname{epn}\left(x_{t}, S\right)$. In this case, $x_{t}$ is adjacent to at least $m(n-1)+1$ leaves, call them $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{p}$. Note that the only neighbors of $x_{t-1}$ are $x_{t}$ and $x_{t-2}$. If $x_{t-1}$ had any other neighbors, either a longer path in $T$ could be found, or $x_{t-1}$ would not be an external private neighbor of $x_{t}$ with respect to $S$.

Suppose that $D$ is a $\gamma$-set of $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ which does not contain $k$ vertices of the $x_{t}$ th cube. This implies that $D$ contains at least $\left\lceil\frac{k}{(n-1) m+1}\right\rceil$ vertices from each of the $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{p}$-cubes. In fact, if $(m(n-1)+1)\left\lceil\frac{k}{(n-1) m+1}\right\rceil>k$, then we have reached a contradiction since a smaller dominating set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$ could be found simply by including every vertex of the $x_{t}$ th cube. In particular, this implies that ( $m(n-1$ ) + 1) $\left\lceil\frac{k}{m(n-1)+1}\right\rceil=k$.

We now claim that $D$ contains at least one vertex from the $x_{t-1}$-cube. To see this, first note that the tree $T^{\prime \prime}$ defined by $T^{\prime \prime}=T-\left\{x_{t}, x_{t-1}, l_{1}, \ldots, l_{p}\right\}$ belongs to $\mathcal{U}$ with $U D\left(T^{\prime \prime}\right)=S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}$. Additionally, since $\operatorname{epn}\left(x, S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right)=e p n(x, S)$ for all $x \in S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}$, Theorem 1 implies that $T^{\prime \prime} \square K_{m(n-1)+1} \in \mathcal{U}$. Thus, our induction hypothesis implies that $T^{\prime \prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$ has a unique $\gamma$-set given by $\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$. If no vertices from the $x_{t-1}$-cube are included in $D$, then

$$
D \cap V\left(T^{\prime \prime} \square K_{n}^{m}\right)=\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)
$$

This, however, results in at least $k$ vertices of the $x_{t-1}$-cube being undominated by $D$ since $x_{t-2} \notin S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}$. This is a contradiction.

Thus, $D$ contains at least one vertex from the $x_{t-1}$-cube. If we "shift" these vertices to their corresponding positions in the $x_{t-2}$-cube, remove the vertices from $D$ in the $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{p}$-cubes, and add in the missing vertices from the $x_{t}$-cube, we create a $\gamma$-set $D^{\prime}$ distinct from $D$ which induces a $\gamma$-set distinct from $\left(S-\left\{x_{t}\right\}\right) \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$ on the subgraph $T^{\prime \prime} \square K_{n}^{m}$, a contradiction.

Hence, if $D$ is a $\gamma$-set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$, then every vertex of the $x_{t}$-cube is included in $D$. By the logic applied above, this implies that $S \times V\left(K_{n}^{m}\right)$ is the unique $\gamma$-set for $T \square K_{n}^{m}$.

Thus, we see that if $T \square K_{m(n-1)+1} \in \mathcal{U}$, then $T \square K_{n}^{m} \in \mathcal{U}$.
Before we conclude, we note that Theorem 2, together with Theorem 1 above, imply the following corollary concerning hypercubes.
Corollary 2. Let $T$ be a tree on at least four vertices, and let $m \geq 1$. The following conditions are equivalent.

- $T \square Q_{m} \in \mathcal{U}$.
- $T \square K_{m+1} \in \mathcal{U}$.
- $T$ has a $\gamma$-set $D$ such that for all $v \in D,|e p n(v, D)| \geq m+2$.

We note that a $\gamma$-set in a tree can be found in linear time (see [1]). Hence, the problem of determining for which $m, T \square Q_{m} \in \mathcal{U}$ can be solved in polynomial time.

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