# DISTANCE SPECTRAL RADIUS OF TREES WITH FIXED MAXIMUM DEGREE* 

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#### Abstract

Distance energy is a newly introduced molecular graph-based analog of the total $\pi$-electron energy, and it is defined as the sum of the absolute eigenvalues of the molecular distance matrix. For trees and unicyclic graphs, distance energy is equal to the doubled value of the distance spectral radius. In this paper, we introduce a general transformation that increases the distance spectral radius and provide an alternative proof that the path $P_{n}$ has the maximal distance spectral radius among trees on $n$ vertices. Among the trees with a fixed maximum degree $\Delta$, we prove that the broom $B_{n, \Delta}$ (consisting of a star $S_{\Delta+1}$ and a path of length $n-\Delta-1$ attached to an arbitrary pendent vertex of the star) is the unique tree that maximizes the distance spectral radius, and conjecture the structure of a tree which minimizes the distance spectral radius. As a first step towards this conjecture, we characterize the starlike trees with the minimum distance spectral radius.


Key words. Distance matrix, Distance spectral radius, Broom graph, Maximum degree.

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1. Introduction. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected simple graph with $n=|V|$ vertices. For vertices $u, v \in V$, the distance $d_{u v}$ is defined as the length of the shortest path between $u$ and $v$ in $G$. The distance matrix $D=\left(d_{u v}\right)_{u, v \in V}$ is a symmetric real matrix, with real eigenvalues [7]. The distance spectral radius $\varrho(G)=\varrho_{G}$ of $G$ is the largest eigenvalue of the distance matrix $D$ of a graph $G$.

Distance energy $D E(G)$ is a newly introduced molecular graph-based analog of the total $\pi$-electron energy, and it is defined as the sum of the absolute eigenvalues of the molecular distance matrix. For trees and unicyclic graphs, distance energy is equal to the doubled value of the distance spectral radius. For more details on distance matrices and distance energy, see $[6,11,15,16,19,23]$.

Let $T$ be a tree with $n>2$ vertices, and let $\Lambda_{1} \geq \Lambda_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \Lambda_{n}$ be the eigenvalues of $D=D(T)$ arranged in a non-increasing order. Merris in [18] obtained

[^0]an interlacing inequality involving the distance and Laplacian eigenvalues of $T$,
$$
0>-\frac{2}{\mu_{1}} \geq \Lambda_{2} \geq-\frac{2}{\mu_{2}} \geq \Lambda_{3} \geq \cdots \geq-\frac{2}{\mu_{n-1}} \geq \Lambda_{n}
$$
where $\mu_{1} \geq \mu_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \mu_{n}=0$ are the Laplacian eigenvalues of $T$.
Let $e=(u, v)$ be an edge of $G$ such that $G^{\prime}=G-e$ is also connected, and let $D^{\prime}$ be the distance matrix of $G-e$. The removal of $e$ may not create shorter paths than the ones in $G$, and therefore, $D_{i j} \leq D_{i j}^{\prime}$ for all $i, j \in V$. Moreover, $1=D_{u v}<D_{u v}^{\prime}$ and by the Perron-Frobenius theorem, we conclude that
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{G}<\varrho_{G-e} . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

In particular, for any spanning tree $T$ of $G$, we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{G} \leq \varrho_{T} . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, adding a new edge $f=(s, t)$ to $G$ does not increase distances, while it does decrease at least one distance; the distance between $s$ and $t$ is one in $G+f$ and at least two in $G$. Again by the Perron-Frobenius theorem,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{G+f}<\varrho_{G} . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The inequality (1.3) tells us immediately that the complete graph $K_{n}$ has the minimum distance spectral radius among the connected graphs on $n$ vertices, while the inequality (1.2) shows that the maximum distance spectral radius will be attained for a particular tree. Therefore, we focus our attention to trees in the rest of this paper.

Balaban et al. [1] proposed the use of $\varrho_{G}$ as a molecular descriptor, while in [13], it was successfully used to infer the extent of branching and model boiling points of alkanes. Recently, in [25, 26], the authors provided the upper and lower bounds for $\varrho(G)$ in terms of the number of vertices, Wiener index and Zagreb index. Balasubramanian in $[2,3]$ pointed out that the spectra of the distance matrices of many graphs such as the polyacenes, honeycomb and square lattice have exactly one positive eigenvalue, and he computed the spectrum of fullerenes $C_{60}$ and $C_{70}$. Bapat in $[4,5]$ showed various connections between the distance matrix $D(G)$ and Laplacian matrix $L(G)$ of a graph, and calculated the determinant and inverses of weighted trees and unicyclic graphs.

If the maximal degree of a graph is less than or equal to 4 , graph $G$ is called a chemical graph. The broom $B_{n, \Delta}$ is a tree consisting of a star $S_{\Delta+1}$ and a path of length $n-\Delta-1$ attached to an arbitrary pendent vertex of the star. It is proven in [17] that among trees with the maximum vertex degree equal to $\Delta$, the broom $B_{n, \Delta}$


Fig. 1.1. The broom tree $B_{n, \Delta}$ for $n=11$ and $\Delta=6$.
uniquely minimizes the largest eigenvalue of the adjacency matrix. Further, within the same class of trees, the broom has the minimum Wiener index and Laplacianenergy like invariant [21]. In [24], it was demonstrated that the broom has minimum energy among trees with the fixed diameter.

Subhi and Powers in [22] proved that for $n \geq 3$, the path $P_{n}$ has the maximum distance spectral radius among trees on $n$ vertices. Here, we extend the result by introducing a transformation that strictly increases the distance spectral radius of a tree and present an alternative proof of this fact. In addition, we prove that among trees with a fixed maximum degree $\Delta$, the broom graph $B_{n, \Delta}$ has the maximal distance spectral radius. As a corollary, we determine the unique tree with the second maximal distance spectral radius. We conclude the paper by posing a conjecture on the structure of the extremal tree that minimizes the distance spectral radius.
2. The star $S_{n}$ has minimum distance spectral radius. The distance matrix of $S_{n}$ has the form

$$
D_{S_{n}}=\left[\begin{array}{cccccc}
0 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 \\
1 & 0 & 2 & \cdots & 2 & 2 \\
1 & 2 & 0 & \cdots & 2 & 2 \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\
1 & 2 & 2 & \cdots & 0 & 2 \\
1 & 2 & 2 & \cdots & 2 & 0
\end{array}\right]
$$

Let $x$ be an eigenvector of $D_{S_{n}}$ corresponding to the spectral radius $\varrho_{S_{n}}$. Let $a$ be the component of $x$ at the center of $S_{n}$. Since $\varrho_{S_{n}}$ is a simple eigenvalue of $D_{S_{n}}$ by the Perron-Frobenius theorem, and all leaves are similar to each other, we may denote by $b$ the component of $x$ at each leaf of $S_{n}$. The eigenvalue equation $D_{S_{n}} x=\varrho_{S_{n}} x$ gives the system

$$
\begin{aligned}
(n-1) b & =\varrho_{S_{n}} a, \\
a+2(n-2) b & =\varrho_{S_{n}} b,
\end{aligned}
$$

which, after eliminating $a$ and $b$, yields a quadratic equation in $\varrho_{S_{n}}$, whose positive solution is

$$
\varrho_{S_{n}}=n-2+\sqrt{(n-2)^{2}+(n-1)} .
$$

The Wiener index of $G$ is the sum of distances between all pairs of vertices,

$$
W(G)=\sum_{u, v \in V} d(u, v)
$$

The Wiener index is considered as one of the most useful topological indices having a high correlation with many physical and chemical properties of molecular compounds. The huge majority of chemical applications of the Wiener index deal with acyclic organic molecules. For recent results and applications of the Wiener index, see [8].

Theorem 2.1 ([14]). Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n>2$ vertices. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{G} \geq \frac{2 W(G)}{n} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if the row sums of $D$ are all equal.
For trees on $n \geq 3$ vertices, the strict inequality in (2.1) holds. Now, let $T \not \approx S_{n}$ be an arbitrary tree on $n$ vertices, with the distance matrix $D$.

According to [9], among the trees on $n \geq 4$ vertices, the star $S_{n}$ has the smallest Wiener index, equal to $(n-1)^{2}$, and the next smallest Wiener index, equal to $n^{2}-n-2$, is attained by the star $S_{n-1}$ with a pendent edge attached to one of its leaves. Thus,

$$
\varrho_{T} \geq \frac{2}{n}\left(n^{2}-n-2\right)>n-2+\sqrt{(n-2)^{2}+(n-1)}=\varrho_{S_{n}}
$$

for $n \geq 4$.
3. The path $P_{n}$ has the maximum distance spectral radius. Let $G$ be a simple graph and $v$ one of its vertices. For $k, l \geq 0$, we denote by $G(v, k)$ the graph obtained from $G \cup P_{k}$ by adding an edge between $v$ and the end vertex of $P_{k}$ (see Figure 3.1), and by $G(v, k, l)$ the graph obtained from $G \cup P_{k} \cup P_{l}$ by adding edges between $v$ and one of the end vertices in both $P_{k}$ and $P_{l}$ (see Figure 3.2). The main ingredient of our proof will be the lemma that for $k \geq l \geq 1$,

$$
\varrho_{G(v, k+1, l-1)}>\varrho_{G(v, k, l)}
$$

In order to prove this lemma, we first need an auxiliary result on the components of the principal eigenvector along $P_{k}$ in $G(v, k)$.

Lemma 3.1. Let $x$ be a positive eigenvector of $G(v, k), k \geq 1$, corresponding to $\varrho=\varrho_{G(v, k)}$. Denote by $x_{0}$ the component of $x$ at $v$, and by $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}$ the


Fig. 3.1. Principal eigenvector components in $G(v, k)$.
components of $x$ along $P_{k}$, starting with the vertex of $P_{k}$ adjacent to $v$ (see Figure 3.1). If $s$ denotes the sum of components of $x$, then there exist constants $a_{k}=a\left(\varrho, s, x_{0}, k\right)$ and $b_{k}=b\left(\varrho, s, x_{0}, k\right)$ such that

$$
x_{i}=a_{k} t_{1}^{i}+b_{k} t_{2}^{i}, \quad 0 \leq i \leq k
$$

where $t_{1,2}=1+\frac{1}{\varrho} \pm \frac{\sqrt{2 \varrho+1}}{\varrho}$.
Proof. Let $D$ be the distance matrix of $G(v, k)$. From the eigenvalue equation $\varrho x=D x$, written for components $x_{j-1}, x_{j}$ and $x_{j+1}$, for $1 \leq j \leq k-1$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varrho x_{j-1} & =x_{j}+2 x_{j+1}+\sum_{u \in G}\left(d_{u v}+j-1\right) x_{u}+\sum_{i=0}^{j-2}(j-1-i) x_{i}+\sum_{i=j+2}^{k}(i-j+1) x_{i}, \\
\varrho x_{j} & =x_{j-1}+x_{j+1}+\sum_{u \in G}\left(d_{u v}+j\right) x_{u}+\sum_{i=0}^{j-2}(j-i) x_{i}+\sum_{i=j+2}^{k}(i-j) x_{i}, \\
\varrho x_{j+1} & =2 x_{j-1}+x_{j}+\sum_{u \in G}\left(d_{u v}+j+1\right) x_{u}+\sum_{i=0}^{j-2}(j+1-i) x_{i}+\sum_{i=j+2}^{k}(i-j-1) x_{i},
\end{aligned}
$$

we obtain the recurrence equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \varrho x_{j}+2 x_{j}=\varrho x_{j-1}+\varrho x_{j+1} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

whose characteristic equation has roots

$$
t_{1,2}=1+\frac{1}{\varrho} \pm \frac{\sqrt{2 \varrho+1}}{\varrho}, \quad 0<t_{2}<1<t_{1}
$$

On the other hand, the eigenvalue equation $\varrho x=D x$ written for components $x_{k-1}$ and $x_{k}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varrho x_{k-1} & =x_{k}+\sum_{u \in G}\left(d_{u v}+k-1\right) x_{u}+\sum_{i=0}^{k-2}(k-1-i) x_{i} \\
\varrho x_{k} & =x_{k-1}+\sum_{u \in G}\left(d_{u v}+k\right) x_{u}+\sum_{i=0}^{k-2}(k-i) x_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho x_{k}-\varrho x_{k-1}=s-2 x_{k} . \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We may use the recurrence equation (3.1) to formally extend the sequence $x_{0}, x_{1}$, $\ldots, x_{k}$ with new terms $x_{k+1}, x_{k+2}, \ldots$, so that it represents a particular solution of (3.1). In such case, the equation in (3.2) may be rewritten as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho x_{k+1}=s+\varrho x_{k} . \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the theory of linear recurrence equations, there exist constants $a_{k}$ and $b_{k}$ such that for $i \geq 0$ it holds

$$
x_{i}=a_{k} t_{1}^{i}+b_{k} t_{2}^{i} .
$$

The values of $a_{k}$ and $b_{k}$ may be obtained from the boundary conditions, i.e., the value of $x_{0}$ and the equation (3.3),

$$
\begin{align*}
x_{0} & =a_{k}+b_{k}  \tag{3.4}\\
s / \varrho & =a_{k} t_{1}^{k}\left(t_{1}-1\right)+b_{k} t_{2}^{k}\left(t_{2}-1\right) \tag{3.5}
\end{align*}
$$

Having in mind that $t_{2}=\frac{1}{t_{1}}$, the equation (3.5) is further equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{k}-\frac{b_{k}}{t_{1}^{2 k+1}}=\frac{s / \varrho}{\left(t_{1}-1\right) t_{1}^{k}} . \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (3.4) and (3.6) we finally get:

$$
\begin{align*}
a_{k} & =\frac{1}{1+t_{1}^{2 k+1}}\left(x_{0}+\frac{s}{\varrho} \frac{t_{1}^{k+1}}{t_{1}-1}\right)  \tag{3.7}\\
b_{k} & =\frac{1}{1+t_{1}^{2 k+1}}\left(x_{0} t_{1}^{2 k+1}-\frac{s}{\varrho} \frac{t_{1}^{k+1}}{t_{1}-1}\right) \tag{3.8}
\end{align*}
$$

The previous lemma allows us to compare the sum of components of the principal eigenvector along two pendent paths attached to the same vertex.


Fig. 3.2. Principal eigenvector components in $G(v, k, l)$.

Lemma 3.2. Let $x$ be a positive eigenvector of $G(v, k, l), k, l \geq 1$, corresponding to $\varrho=\varrho_{G(v, k, l)}$. Denote by $x_{0}$ the component of $x$ at $v$, by $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ the components of $x$ along $P_{k}$, starting with the vertex of $P_{k}$ adjacent to $v$, and by $y_{1}, \ldots, y_{l}$ the components of $x$ along $P_{l}$, starting with the vertex of $P_{l}$ adjacent to $v$ (see Figure 3.2). If $k \geq l$, then

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{k} x_{i} \geq \sum_{j=0}^{l} y_{j}
$$

Proof. Let $s$ denote the sum of components of $x$, and let $t=1+\frac{1}{\varrho}+\frac{\sqrt{2 \varrho+1}}{\varrho}$. From Lemma 3.1 we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
x_{i}=a_{k} t^{i}+b_{k} / t^{i}, & 1 \leq i \leq k, \\
y_{j}=a_{l} t^{i}+b_{l} / t^{i}, & 1 \leq j \leq l,
\end{aligned}
$$

where $a_{k}, b_{k}, a_{l}$ and $b_{l}$ are given by (3.7) and (3.8). Now, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{k} & =\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{k} t^{i}+b_{k} / t^{i} \\
& =a_{k} \frac{t\left(t^{k}-1\right)}{t-1}+b_{k} \frac{t^{k}-1}{t^{k}(t-1)} \\
& =\frac{1}{1+t^{2 k+1}}\left(x_{0} \frac{t\left(t^{2 k}-1\right)}{t-1}+\frac{s}{\varrho} \frac{t\left(t^{k}-1\right)\left(t^{k+1}-1\right)}{(t-1)^{2}}\right) \\
& =x_{0} f(k)+\frac{s}{\varrho} g(k)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
f(x)=\frac{t\left(t^{2 x}-1\right)}{\left(1+t^{2 x+1}\right)(t-1)} \quad \text { and } \quad g(x)=\frac{t\left(t^{x}-1\right)\left(t^{x+1}-1\right)}{\left(1+t^{2 x+1}\right)(t-1)^{2}}
$$

Similarly,

$$
\sum_{j=1}^{l} y_{l}=x_{0} f(l)+\frac{s}{\varrho} g(l)
$$

Since $t>1$, the functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ have positive first derivatives,

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{2 t^{2 x+1}(t+1) \ln t}{(t-1)\left(t^{2 x+1}+1\right)^{2}} \quad \text { and } \quad g^{\prime}(x)=\frac{t^{x+1}(t+1)\left(t^{2 x+1}-1\right) \ln t}{(t-1)^{2}\left(t^{2 x+1}+1\right)^{2}}
$$

Therefore, the function $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are monotonically increasing in $x$, and from $k \geq l$, we get $f(k) \geq f(l)$ and $g(k) \geq g(l)$. Since $x_{0}, s$ and $\varrho$ are positive, we conclude
that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i}=x_{0} f(k)+\frac{s}{\varrho} g(k) \geq x_{0} f(l)+\frac{s}{\varrho} g(l)=\sum_{j=1}^{l} y_{j} .
$$

We are now in a position to prove the main lemma in this section.
Lemma 3.3. Let $G$ be a simple graph and $v$ one of its vertices. If $k \geq l \geq 1$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{G(v, k, l)}<\varrho_{G(v, k+1, l-1)} \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Let $D$ be the distance matrix of $G(v, k, l)$ and $D^{*}$ the distance matrix of $G(v, k+1, l-1)$. Let $x$ be a positive eigenvector of $D$ corresponding to $\varrho_{G(v, k, l)}$, let $x_{0}$ be the component of $x$ at $v, x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$ the components of $x$ along $P_{k}$, and $x_{-1}, x_{-2}, \ldots, x_{-l}$ the components of $x$ along $P_{l}$, as illustrated in Figure 3.3.


Fig. 3.3. Graphs $G(v, k, l)$ and $G(v, k+1, l-1)$.
We may suppose that the graph $G(v, k+1, l-1)$ is obtained from $G(v, k, l)$ by "shifting" the paths $P_{k}$ and $P_{l}$ for one position each over $v$. Suppose further that each vertex "carries" its own $x$-component during this transformation, and let $x^{*}$ be the vector obtained in this way, as illustrated in Figure 3.3. It follows that $x^{* T} x^{*}=x^{T} x$. On the other hand, the product $x^{T} D x$ can be partitioned into three sums

$$
x^{T} D x=\sum_{u, w \in G-v} d_{u w} x_{u} x_{w}+\sum_{i=-l}^{k} \sum_{j=-l}^{i-1}|i-j| x_{i} x_{j}+\sum_{u \in G-v} \sum_{i=-l}^{k}\left(d_{u v}+|i|\right) x_{u} x_{i},
$$

while the product $x^{* T} D^{*} x^{*}$ can be partitioned into four sums (the first two sums correspond to the first two sums in the product $x^{T} D x$ )

$$
x^{* T} D^{*} x^{*}=\sum_{u, w \in G-v} d_{u w} x_{u} x_{w}+\sum_{i=-l}^{k} \sum_{j=-l}^{i-1}|i-j| x_{i} x_{j}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\sum_{u \in G-v} \sum_{i=0}^{k}\left(d_{u v}+|i|+1\right) x_{u} x_{i}+\sum_{u \in G-v} \sum_{i=-l}^{-1}\left(d_{u v}+|i|-1\right) x_{u} x_{i} \\
= & x^{T} D x+\left(x_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i}-\sum_{i=-l}^{-1} x_{i}\right) \sum_{u \in G-v} x_{u}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $k \geq l \geq 1$, it follows from Lemma 3.2 that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{k} x_{i} \geq \sum_{i=-l}^{-1} x_{i}
$$

so that

$$
x^{* T} D^{*} x^{*} \geq x^{T} D x+x_{0} \sum_{u \in G-v} x_{u}>x^{T} D x .
$$

Since $x$ is an eigenvector of $D$ corresponding to $\varrho_{G(v, k, l)}$, from the Rayleigh quotient we get

$$
\varrho_{G(v, k+1, l-1)}=\sup _{z \neq 0} \frac{z^{T} D^{*} z}{z^{T} z} \geq \frac{x^{* T} D^{*} x^{*}}{x^{* T} x^{*}}>\frac{x^{T} D x}{x^{T} x}=\varrho_{G(v, k, l)}
$$

Therefore, we showed that for $k \geq l \geq 1$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varrho_{G(v, k, l)}<\varrho_{G(v, k+1, l-1)}<\varrho_{G(v, k+2, l-2)}<\cdots<\varrho_{G(v, k+l, 0)} . \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $T$ be a tree with the maximum distance spectral radius among trees on $n$ vertices. Suppose that the maximum vertex degree in $T$ is at least three. Let $v$ be at the largest distance from the center of $T$ among the vertices of $T$ having degree at least three. Then $T$ can be represented as $G(v, k, l)$ for some subgraph $G, k$ and $l$, with $k \geq l \geq 1$. For the tree $T^{\prime}=G(v, k+l, 0)$, we have $\varrho_{T}<\varrho_{T^{\prime}}$ by (3.10), which is a contradiction with the choice of $T$.

Thus, $T$ has maximum vertex degree two, i.e., the tree with the maximum distance spectral radius is a path $P_{n}$.
4. Trees with the fixed maximum degree. The path is a unique tree with $\Delta=2$, while the star $S_{n}$ is the unique tree with $\Delta=n-1$. Therefore, we can assume that $3 \leq \Delta \leq n-2$.

Theorem 4.1. Let $T \not \approx B_{n, \Delta}$ be an arbitrary tree on $n$ vertices with the maximum vertex degree $\Delta$. Then

$$
\varrho\left(B_{n, \Delta}\right)<\varrho(T)
$$

Proof. Fix a vertex $v$ of degree $\Delta$ as a root. Let $T_{1}, T_{2}, \ldots, T_{\Delta}$ be maximal disjoint trees attached at $v$. We can repeatedly apply the transformation from Lemma 3.3 at any vertex of degree at least three with the largest eccentricity from the root in every tree $T_{i}$, as long as $T_{i}$ does not become a path. By Lemma 3.3, it follows that each application of this transformation strictly decreases its distance spectral radius.

When all trees $T_{1}, T_{2}, \ldots, T_{\Delta}$ turn into paths, we can again apply the inequalities (3.10) at the vertex $v$ as long as there exist at least two paths of length at least two, further decreasing the distance spectral radius. At the end of this process, we arrive at the broom $B_{n, \Delta}$. $\square$

Next, for $\Delta>2$, we can apply the transformation of Lemma 3.3 at the vertex of degree $\Delta$ in $B_{n, \Delta}$ and obtain $B_{n, \Delta-1}$. Thus, $\varrho\left(B_{n, \Delta}\right)<\varrho\left(B_{n, \Delta-1}\right)$ for $\Delta>2$, which shows the chain of inequalities

$$
\varrho\left(S_{n}\right)=\varrho\left(B_{n, n-1}\right)<\varrho\left(B_{n, n-2}\right)<\cdots<\varrho\left(B_{n, 3}\right)<\varrho\left(B_{n, 2}\right)=\varrho\left(P_{n}\right)
$$

From the proof of Theorem 4.1, it follows that $B_{n, 3}$ has the second maximum distance spectral radius among trees on $n$ vertices.

A complete $\Delta$-ary tree is defined as follows. Start with the root having $\Delta$ children. Every vertex different from the root, which is not in one of the last two levels, has exactly $\Delta-1$ children. While in the last level all nodes need not exist, those that do fill the level consecutively (see Figure 4.1). Thus, at most one vertex on the level before the last has its degree different from $\Delta$ and 1 .


Fig. 4.1. The complete 3-ary tree of order 19.
These trees are also called Volkmann trees, as they represent alkanes with the minimal Wiener index [10]. Volkmann trees also have the maximal greatest eigenvalue among trees with maximum degree $\Delta$, as shown in [20]. For more details, see [12] and references therein.

A computer search among trees with up to 24 vertices revealed that complete $\Delta$ ary trees attain the minimum values of the distance spectral radius among the trees with the minimum vertex degree $\Delta$. Based on this argument and the above-mentioned empirical observations, we pose the following.

Conjecture 4.2. A complete $\Delta$-ary tree has the minimum distance spectral radius $\varrho(T)$ among trees on $n$ vertices with maximum degree $\Delta$.

While we do not have the proof of the above conjecture at the moment, we make a humble step forward by characterizing starlike trees which minimize the distance spectral radius. A $\Delta$-starlike tree $T\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{\Delta}\right)$ is a tree composed of the root vertex $v$, and the paths $P_{1}, P_{2}, \ldots, P_{\Delta}$ of lengths $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{\Delta}$ attached at $v$. Therefore, the number of vertices of $T\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{\Delta}\right)$ equals $n=n_{1}+n_{2}+\ldots+n_{\Delta}+1$. The $\Delta$-starlike tree is balanced if all paths have almost equal lengths, i.e., $\left|n_{i}-n_{j}\right| \leq 1$ for every $1 \leq i \leq j \leq \Delta$. Notice that the broom $B_{n, \Delta}=T(1,1, \ldots, 1, n-\Delta-1)$ is a $\Delta$-starlike tree.

Theorem 4.3. The balanced $\Delta$-starlike tree has minimum distance spectral radius among $\Delta$-starlike trees of order $n$.

Proof. Let $T=T\left(n_{1}, \ldots, n_{\Delta}\right)$ be an arbitrary $\Delta$-starlike tree. If there exists $i$ and $j, 1 \leq i, j \leq \Delta$, such that $\left|n_{i}-n_{j}\right|>1$, then we can strictly increase its even spectral moments by applying Lemma 3.3 repeatedly until we obtain $\Delta$-starlike trees with paths of lengths $\left\lfloor\frac{n_{i}+n_{j}}{2}\right\rfloor$ and $\left\lceil\frac{n_{i}+n_{j}}{2}\right\rceil$ instead of $n_{i}$ and $n_{j}$. The minimality of the distance spectral radius in such trees is shown analogously using Theorem 4.1.

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