## Contents

Preface ..... 1-1
K. C. Das: On energy, Laplacian energy and signless Laplacian energy of graphs ..... 3-21
E. O. D. Andriantiana: Bounds of the Estrada index and the Laplacian Estrada index ..... 23-52
D. Dimitrov: Extremal trees with respect to the atom-bond connectivity index ..... 53-67
B. Horoldagva: Relations between the first and second Zagreb indices of graphs ..... 69-81
I. Gutman, Z. You, M. Huang: Inequalities between Kirchhoff index and Laplacian- energy-like invariant ..... 83-92
I. Ž. Milovanović, E. I. Milovanović: Bounds for the Kirchhoff and degree Kirchhoff indices ..... 93-119
C. Elphick, P. Wocjan: Bounds and power means for the general Randić and sum- connectivity indices ..... 121-133
G. Su: The reciprocal sum-degree distance and reciprocal product-degree distance ..... 135-188
K. $X u$ : Some bounds on the eccentricity-based topological indices of graphs ..... 189-205
S. Li: Sharp bounds on the eccentric distance sum of graphs ..... 207-237
J. Rada: Extremal properties of hexagonal systems ..... 239-286
S. Hossein-Zadeh, A. Iranmanesh, M. A. Hosseinzadeh: On degree-based indices of dendrimers ..... 287-299

## Preface

In the recent years, the mathematical-chemistry literature is flooded by countless graph-based topological indices, proposed to serve as molecular structure descriptors.

Topological indices have attracted much attention of chemical and mathematical researchers, especially those focussing on graph theory, from all over the world. Nowadays many interesting results and lot of open problems on it have been reported in literature. In most cases, the mathematical investigation of these indices consist of finding lower and upper bounds for them, and characterizing the graphs for which these inequalities become equalities. Again, the number of results obtained along these lines, and the number of respective publications, is so large that no human can satisfactorily follow them and recognize what is significant and what is not.

In order to help colleagues to find their way through the data jungle, we decided to devote one book in our "Mathematical Chemistry Monographs" series to bounds on topological indices and the related extremal graphs. To this end, in the Summer of 2016 we invited a number of colleagues to contribute chapters to our book. The scholars invited were among those who are currently active and who publish in this field of chemical graph theory. Their response was beyond anything what we could have expected.

Thus, instead of a single "Mathematical Chemistry Monograph", we had to produce three volumes, that is:

- Mathematical Chemistry Monograph No. 19:


## Bounds in Chemical Graph Theory - Basics

Faculty of Science \& University, Kragujevac, 2017

- Mathematical Chemistry Monograph No. 20:


## Bounds in Chemical Graph Theory - Mainstreams

Faculty of Science \& University, Kragujevac, 2017

- Mathematical Chemistry Monograph No. 21:


## Bounds in Chemical Graph Theory - Advances

Faculty of Science \& University, Kragujevac, 2017
The present book is the "Mathematical Chemistry Monograph" No. 20, completed in January 2017.

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# On Energy, Laplacian Energy and Signless Laplacian Energy of Graphs 

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## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 3
2 On energy of graphs ..... 4
3 On Laplacian energy of graphs ..... 9
4 Relation between different graph energies ..... 13

## 1. Introduction

In this paper we are concerned with simple, undirected, and unweighted graphs. Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph on vertex set $V=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ and edge set $E=E(G)$, where $|E(G)|=m$. Also let $d_{i}$ be the degree of vertex $v_{i}$ for $i=1,2, \ldots, n$. The minimum vertex degree is denoted by $\delta=\delta(G)$ and the maximum by $\Delta=\Delta(G)$. Let $N_{i}$ be the neighbor set of the vertex $v_{i} \in V(G), i=1,2, \ldots, n$. The complement of $G$, denoted by $\bar{G}$, is a simple graph on the same set of vertices $V(G)$ in which two vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ are adjacent if and only if they are not adjacent in $G$. If vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ are adjacent in $G$, we denote that by $v_{i} v_{j} \in E(G)$.

The adjacency matrix $A(G)$ of $G$ is defined by its entries $a_{i j}=1$ if $v_{i} v_{j} \in E(G)$ and 0 otherwise. Let $\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n-1} \geq \lambda_{n}$ denote the eigenvalues of $A(G)$. When more than one graph is under consideration, then we write $\lambda_{i}(G)$ instead of $\lambda_{i}$. The energy of the graph $G$ is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}=\mathcal{E}(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\lambda_{i}\right|, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$ are the eigenvalues of graph $G$. For its basic properties, applications including various lower and upper bounds, see [10, 13, 15-17,26,28], book [30] and the references cited therein.

The $L(G)=D(G)-A(G)$ and $Q(G)=D(G)+A(G)$ be, respectively, the Laplacian matrix and the signless Laplacian matrix of the graph $G$, where $D(G)$ is the diagonal matrix of vertex degrees. The
eigenvalues of $L(G)$ and $Q(G)$ will be denoted by $\mu_{1} \geq \mu_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \mu_{n}=0$ and $q_{1} \geq q_{2} \geq \cdots \geq$ $q_{n-1} \geq q_{n}$, respectively. Then the Laplacian energy and the signless Laplacian energy of $G$ are defined as

$$
L E=L E(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\mu_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right| \text { and } L E^{+}=L E^{+}(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|q_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right|
$$

respectively. Details on the properties of Laplacian energy, including various lower and upper bounds, see $[9,11,13,16,18,38,42]$. The Laplacian energy $L E$ found applications not only in theoretical organic chemistry (see, [21,36]), but also in image processing [40] and information theory [29]. The signless Laplacian energy was until now studied only to a limited extent [1, 12, 15]. We denote by $K_{n}, K_{p, q}$ $(p+q=n)$ and $S_{n}\left(\cong K_{1, n-1}\right)$, the complete graph, the complete bipartite graph and the star on $n$ vertices, respectively, throughout this paper.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we give several lower and upper bounds on energy of graphs. In Section 3, we discuss lower and upper bounds on the Laplacian energy of graphs. In Section 4, we present several relations between different graph energies of graphs.

## 2. On energy of graphs

Recall that $\nu^{+}$and $\nu^{-}$are the number of positive and negative eigenvalues of the adjacency matrix $A(G)$ of graph $G$, respectively. Then from the definition of the energy of a graph and the trace of the matrix $A(G)$, one can get the following result [14]:

Lemma 2.1. [14] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G)=2 \sum_{i=1}^{\nu^{+}} \lambda_{i}=-2 \sum_{i=1}^{\nu^{-}} \lambda_{n-i+1}=2 \max _{1 \leq k \leq n}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i}\right)=2 \max _{1 \leq k \leq n}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k}-\lambda_{n-i+1}\right),
$$

where $\nu^{+}$and $\nu^{-}$are the number of positive and negative eigenvalues of $A(G)$, respectively.

Li et. al [30] gave the following lower bound in terms of $m$ :
Theorem 2.2. [30] For a graph $G$ with $m$ edges,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \geq 2 \sqrt{m} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G$ consists of a complete bipartite graph $K_{a, b}$ such that $a \cdot b=m$ and arbitrarily many isolated vertices.

It is well known that

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}=\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A}
$$

where $\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A}$ is the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$. McClelland [34] obtained the following lower bound in terms of $n, m$ and the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$ :

Theorem 2.3. [34] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \geq \sqrt{2 m+n(n-1)|\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A}|^{2 / n}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where det A is the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$.

A graph $G$ is said to be singular if at least one of its adjacency eigenvalues is equal to zero. For singular graphs, evidently, det $\mathbf{A}=0$. A graph is nonsingular if all its eigenvalues are different from zero. Then, $|\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A}|>0$. In [17], the authors presented the following lower bound on $\mathcal{E}(G)$ :

Theorem 2.4. [17] Let $G$ be a connected nonsingular graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \geq \frac{2 m}{n}+n-1+\ln |\operatorname{det}(A)|-\ln \frac{2 m}{n} . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality holds in (4) if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to the complete graph $K_{n}$.
Remark 2.5. In [17], the authors mentioned that the lower bound in (4) is better than the lower bounds in (2) and (3) for different class of graphs.

The following three lower bounds on $\mathcal{E}(G)$ of graph $G$ is obtained in [13].
Theorem 2.6. [13] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \geq \min \left\{\frac{2 m}{n}+\sqrt{2 m-\frac{4 m^{2}}{n^{2}}+Z}, \sqrt{2 m-n+1}+\sqrt{n-1+Z}\right\} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
Z=(n-1)(n-2)\left(\frac{(\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A})^{2}}{2 m-n+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}}
$$

and $\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A}$ is the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$. Moreover, the equality holds in (5) if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

Corollary 2.1. [13] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \geq \frac{2 m}{n}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left[1+(n-2)\left(\frac{(\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A})^{2}}{2 m-n+1}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}}\right]} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where det $\mathbf{A}$ is the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$. Moreover, the equality holds in (6) if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

Corollary 2.2. [13] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and maximum degree $\Delta$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \geq \frac{2 m}{n}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left[1+(n-2)\left(\frac{\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A}}{\Delta}\right)^{\frac{2}{n-1}}\right]} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where det $\mathbf{A}$ is the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$. Moreover, the equality holds in (7) if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

A $d$-regular graph $G$ on $n$ vertices is strongly $d$-regular (denote by $\operatorname{srg}(n, d, \lambda, \mu)$ ) if there exist positive integers $d, \lambda$ and $\mu$ such that every vertex has $d$ neighbors, every adjacent pair of vertices has $\lambda$ common neighbors, and every nonadjacent pair has $\mu$ common neighbors. For example, the complete graph and Petersen graph are strongly regular graphs. Strongly regular graphs were introduced by Bose in 1963 [5]. The complement of an $\operatorname{srg}(n, d, \lambda, \mu)$ ) is also strongly regular. It is an $\operatorname{srg}(n, n-d-1, n-$ $2-2 d+\mu, n-2 d+\lambda)$. The adjacency matrix of $\operatorname{srg}(n, d, \lambda, \mu)$ has exactly three distinct eigenvalues: (i) $d$ of multiplicity 1 ,
(ii) $\frac{\lambda-\mu+\sqrt{(\lambda-\mu)^{2}+4(d-\mu)}}{2}$ of multiplicity $\frac{1}{2}\left[n-1-\frac{2 d+(n-1)(\lambda-\mu)}{\sqrt{(\lambda-\mu)^{2}+4(d-\mu)}}\right]$,
(iii) $\frac{\lambda-\mu-\sqrt{(\lambda-\mu)^{2}+4(d-\mu)}}{2}$ of multiplicity $\frac{1}{2}\left[n-1+\frac{2 d+(n-1)(\lambda-\mu)}{\sqrt{(\lambda-\mu)^{2}+4(d-\mu)}}\right]$.

Koolen and Moulton [26] gave the following upper bound in terms on $n$ and $m$ :
Theorem 2.7. [26] If $2 m \geq n$ and $G$ is a graph on $n$ vertices with $m$ edges, then the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \frac{2 m}{n}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left(2 m-\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}\right)} \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds. Moreover, equality holds in (8) if and only if $G$ is either $\frac{n}{2} K_{2}, K_{n}$, or a non-complete connected strongly regular graph with two non-trivial eigenvalues both with absolute value

$$
\sqrt{\left(2 m-\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}\right) /(n-1)}
$$

The first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$ is the oldest and popular degree based topological index, both from theoretical point of view and applications. The first Zagreb index has been introduced more than forty years ago by Gutman and Trinajstić [23] and is defined as

$$
M_{1}(G)=\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} d_{i}^{2}
$$

Some recent results on the first Zagreb index were reported in [7] and review [4], where also references to the previous mathematical research in this area can be found. This index reflect the extent of branching of the molecular carbon-atom skeleton, and can thus be viewed as molecular structure-descriptors [2]. Zhou [44] obtained the following upper bound on $n, m$ and the first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$ :

Theorem 2.8. [44] If $G$ is a graph with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges and degree sequence $d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \sqrt{\frac{M_{1}(G)}{n}}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left(2 m-\left(\sqrt{\frac{M_{1}(G)}{n}}\right)^{2}\right)} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, equality in (9) holds if and only if $G$ is either $\frac{n}{2} K_{2}(n=2 m), K_{n}(m=n(n-1) / 2)$, a non-complete connected strongly regular graph with two non-trivial eigenvalues both with absolute value $\sqrt{\left(2 m-\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}\right) /(n-1)}$, or $n K_{1}(m=0)$.

In [10], the authors found the upper bound on energy $\mathcal{E}(G)$ of graphs $G$ in terms of $n, m$ and $\delta$.
Theorem 2.9. [10] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n(n \geq 6)$, $m$ edges with minimum degree $\delta$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \frac{2(m-\delta)}{n-1}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left[2 m-\frac{4(m-\delta)^{2}}{(n-1)^{2}}\right]} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary 2.3. [10] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n(n \geq 6)$, $m$ edges with at least a pendent vertex. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \frac{2(m-1)}{n-1}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left[2 m-\frac{4(m-1)^{2}}{(n-1)^{2}}\right]} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Remark 2.10. In [10], the authors mentioned that (10) is better than (8) for $m \geq n \delta$ and (9) for $4 n(m-\delta)^{2} \geq M_{1}(G)(n-1)^{2}$.

The rank of a matrix is defined as the maximum number of linearly independent row (or column) vectors in the matrix. The rank $r$ of an undirected graph is defined as the rank of its adjacency matrix, that is, the number of non-zero eigenvalues are called the rank of graph. Analogously, the nullity of the graph of order $n$ is the nullity of its adjacency matrix, which equals $n-r$. Let $G(n, m)$ be a set of graphs of order $n$ and $m$ edges. Now we define

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\Gamma_{1} & =\left\{G: G \in G(n, m) \text { and } \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mu_{i}(G) \leq m+\frac{k^{2}+k}{2}, 1 \leq k \leq n\right\} \\
\text { and } \quad \Gamma_{2} & =\left\{G: G \in G(n, m) \text { and } \sum_{i=1}^{k} q_{i}(G) \leq m+\frac{k^{2}+k}{2}, 1 \leq k \leq n\right\} .
\end{array}
$$

One can easily see that tree, unicyclic, bicyclic and regular graphs are belong to $\Gamma_{1} \cap \Gamma_{2}$. The following upper bound on energy $\mathcal{E}(G)$ was obtained in [12].

Theorem 2.11. [12] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m>0$ edges. If $G \in \Gamma_{1} \cap \Gamma_{2}$, then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq m+\frac{r^{2}+r}{4}-1
$$

where $r=\operatorname{rank}(A)$.

The following four upper bounds were obtained in [13]:

Theorem 2.12. [13] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$, $m$ edges, $\Delta$ maximum degree and the first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \Delta+\sqrt{\frac{2 m\left(n^{2}-2 m\right)}{n^{2}}+P}
$$

where

$$
P=\sqrt{\binom{r-1}{2}\left[\frac{8 m^{2}\left(n^{2}-2 m\right)^{2}}{n^{4}}-2 M_{1}(G)-\frac{2\left(M_{1}(G)-2 m\right)^{2}}{n(n-1)}+2 \Delta^{4}\right]}
$$

and $r$ is the rank of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$. Moreover, the equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{n / 2, n / 2}$ or $G \cong \operatorname{srg}\left(n, d, \frac{d(d-1)}{n-1}, \frac{d(d-1)}{n-1}\right)$.
Corollary 2.4. [13] Let $G$ be a d-regular connected graph of order $n$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq d+\sqrt{(n-1) d(n-d)}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong \operatorname{srg}\left(n, d, \frac{d(d-1)}{n-1}, \frac{d(d-1)}{n-1}\right)$.
Corollary 2.5. [34] Let $G$ be a d-regular connected graph of order $n$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \frac{n(\sqrt{n}+1)}{2}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong \operatorname{srg}\left(n, \frac{n+\sqrt{n}}{2}, \frac{n+2 \sqrt{n}}{4}, \frac{n+2 \sqrt{n}}{4}\right)$.
Corollary 2.6. [13] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$, $m$ edges, maximum degree $\Delta$ and the first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \Delta+\sqrt{\frac{2 m\left(n^{2}-2 m\right)}{n^{2}}+P}
$$

where

$$
P=\sqrt{\binom{n-1}{2}\left[\frac{8 m^{2}\left(n^{2}-2 m\right)^{2}}{n^{4}}-2 M_{1}(G)-\frac{2\left(M_{1}(G)-2 m\right)^{2}}{n(n-1)}+2 \Delta^{4}\right]} .
$$

Moreover, the equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong \operatorname{srg}\left(n, d, \frac{d(d-1)}{n-1}, \frac{d(d-1)}{n-1}\right)$.
A bipartite graph is a graph whose vertices can be divided into two disjoint sets $U$ and $V$ (that is, $U$ and $V$ are each independent sets) such that every edge connects a vertex in $U$ to one in $V$. Vertex sets $U$ and $V$ are usually called the parts of the graph. In 1974, Gutman [20] presented the following lower bound on energy of bipartite graph $G$ :

Theorem 2.13. [20] Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \geq \sqrt{4 m+n(n-2)(\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A})^{\frac{2}{n}}} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where det $\mathbf{A}$ is the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$.

The authors in [16] characterized the extremal graphs for the above lower bound in the following theorem:

Theorem 2.14. [16] Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then inequality (12) holds with equality holding if and only if $G \cong n K_{1}$ or $G \cong K_{p, q} \cup(n-p-q) K_{1}, p \leq q, p+q \leq n, 1 \leq p \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. In the same paper [20], Gutman presented the following upper bound on energy $\mathcal{E}(G)$ :

Theorem 2.15. [20] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \sqrt{2 m n-4 m+2 n(\operatorname{det} \mathbf{A})^{\frac{2}{n}}} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where det $\mathbf{A}$ is the determinant of the adjacency matrix of graph $G$.

This upper bound is true for bipartite graphs with even $n$, but in the general case, it is not true for bipartite graphs with odd $n$. Simple examples for the failure of (13) are $P_{3}$ and $P_{5}$, the paths of order 3 and 5 . The correct upper bound for bipartite graphs with odd number of vertices is $\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \sqrt{2 m n-2 m}$. In the following theorem, the authors in [16] characterized the extremal graphs for the above upper bound (13), of course for the case of even $n$.

Theorem 2.16. [16] Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of even order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then inequality (13) holds with equality holding if and only if $G \cong n K_{1}$ or $G \cong \frac{n}{2} K_{2}$.

## 3. On Laplacian energy of graphs

In 2006, Gutman and Zhou [24] defined the Laplacian energy of a graph as the sum of the absolute deviations (i.e., distance from the mean) of the eigenvalues of its Laplacian matrix, that is,

$$
L E=L E(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\mu_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right| .
$$

Let $\sigma(1 \leq \sigma \leq n)$ be the largest positive integer such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{\sigma} \geq \frac{2 m}{n} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then from [11], we have

$$
L E(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|\mu_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right|=2 S_{\sigma}(G)-\frac{4 m \sigma}{n}
$$

where

$$
S_{\sigma}(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{\sigma} \mu_{i}
$$

In the following, we present another equality for Laplacian energy $L E(G)$ of graph $G$.

Lemma 3.1. [11] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
L E(G)=2 S_{\sigma}(G)-\frac{4 m \sigma}{n}=\max _{1 \leq i \leq n-1}\left\{2 S_{i}(G)-\frac{4 m i}{n}\right\}
$$

First we deal with the lower bounds on the Laplacian energy of graphs. In [46], Zhou gave the following lower bound:

Theorem 3.2. [46] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E(G) \geq \frac{4 m}{n} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to a regular complete $k$-partite graph $(1 \leq k \leq n)$.

In [24], Gutman and Zhou obtained the following lower bound:
Theorem 3.3. [24] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and degree sequence $(d)=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}\right.$, $\left.\ldots, d_{n}\right)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E(G) \geq 2 \sqrt{m+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(d_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to a complete bipartite graph $K_{\frac{n}{2}}, \frac{n}{2}$.
In [11], the authors found the following lower bound in terms of $n, m$ and $\Delta$.
Theorem 3.4. [11] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and maximum degree $\Delta$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E(G) \geq 2\left(\Delta+1-\frac{2 m}{n}\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding in (17) if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
Remark 3.5. In [11], it was mentioned that the result in (17) is better than the result in (15) for any tree except path $P_{n}$. Moreover, the result in (17) is better than the result in (16) for any tree $T$ of order $n$ with $\Delta(T) \geq \frac{n}{\sqrt{2}}+1$.
So et al. [39] obtained a lower bound for bipartite graph as follows:
Theorem 3.6. [39] Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and degree sequence $(d)=$ $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E(G) \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|d_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right| \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

In [13], the authors presented a lower bound on $L E$ of connected graph $G$ that always is better than the lower bound in (18). Moreover, this lower bound is true for any connected graphs.

Theorem 3.7. [13] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
L E(G) \geq 2+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|d_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right|
$$

We now deal with the upper bounds on the Laplacian energy of graphs. In [24], Gutman and Zhou obtained the following three upper bounds:

Theorem 3.8. [24] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and the first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$. Then
(i) $\quad L E(G) \leq 2 m+M_{1}(G)-\frac{4 m^{2}}{n}$.
(ii) $L E(G) \leq \sqrt{n\left(2 m+M_{1}(G)-\frac{4 m^{2}}{n}\right)}$.
(iii) $\quad L E(G) \leq \frac{2 m}{n}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left(2 m+M_{1}(G)-\frac{4 m^{2}}{n}-\frac{4 m^{2}}{n^{2}}\right)}$.

Remark 3.9. In [11], the authors mentioned that the upper bound on $L E$ in (20) is better than the upper bound in (19). Moreover, they showed that the upper bound on LE in (21) is better than the upper bound in (20).

The following upper bound is obtained in [11].
Theorem 3.10. [11] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m \geq \frac{n}{2}$ edges and maximum degree $\Delta$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E(G) \leq 4 m-2 \Delta-\frac{4 m}{n}+2 \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding in (22) if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$ or $G \cong K_{1, \Delta} \cup \bar{K}_{n-\Delta-1}\left(\frac{n}{2} \leq \Delta \leq n-2\right)$.
Corollary 3.1. [37] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m>0$ edges. Then

$$
L E(G) \leq 4 m\left(1-\frac{1}{n}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{2} \cup \bar{K}_{n-2}$.
Remark 3.11. Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$ with maximum degree $\Delta \geq \frac{n}{2}$ ( $n \geq 37$ ). In [11], the authors showed that the upper bound in (22) is better than the upper bound in (21) for any tree $T$.

We begin by recalling that a $2-(\nu, k, \lambda)$-design is a collection of $k$-subsets or blocks of a set of $\nu$ points, such that each 2 -set of points lies in exactly $k$ blocks. The design is called symmetric (or square) in case the number of blocks $b$ equals $\nu$. The incidence matrix $B$ of a $2-(\nu, k, \lambda)$-design is the $\nu \times b$ matrix defined by setting, for each $x$ a point and $S$ a block, $B_{x, s}:=0$ if $x \notin S$ and $B_{x, S}:=1$ otherwise. The incidence graph of a design is defined to be the graph with adjacency matrix

$$
\left(\begin{array}{cc}
0 & B \\
B^{t} & 0
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Note that the incidence graph of a symmetric 2-( $\nu, k, \lambda)$-design with $v>k>\lambda>0$ has eigenvalues $k$, $\sqrt{k-\lambda}$ (with multiplicity $\nu-1$ ), $-\sqrt{k-\lambda}$ (with multiplicity $\nu-1$ ), and $-k$. The following two upper bounds have been presented in [16].

Theorem 3.12. [16] Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
L E(G) \leq \frac{4 m}{n}+\sqrt{(n-2)\left(2 M-\frac{8 m^{2}}{n^{2}}\right)}
$$

where

$$
M=m+\frac{M_{1}(G)}{2}-\frac{2 m^{2}}{n} .
$$

Moreover, the equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{1} \cup K_{2}$ or $G \cong n K_{1}$ or $G \cong m K_{2}(n=2 m)$ or $G \cong K_{\nu, \nu}(n=2 \nu)$, or $G$ is the incidence graph of a symmetric 2- $(\nu, k, \lambda)$-design with $k=\frac{2 m}{n}$ and $\lambda=\frac{k(k-1)}{\nu-1}$.

Theorem 3.13. [16] Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and $p$ connected components. Then

$$
L E(G) \leq \max \left\{\frac{4 m}{n} p, \frac{2 m}{n}(p+1)+\sqrt{(n-p-1)\left[2 M-\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}(p+1)\right]}\right\}
$$

Moreover,

$$
L E(G)=\frac{2 m}{n}(p+1)+\sqrt{(n-p-1)\left[2 M-\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}(p+1)\right]}
$$

if and only if $G \cong K_{1} \cup K_{2}$ or $G \cong n K_{1}$ or $G \cong m K_{2}(n=2 m)$ or $G \cong K_{p, p}(n=2 p)$ or $n=2 \nu$, and $G$ is the incidence graph of a symmetric 2- $(\nu, k, \lambda)$-design with $k=\frac{2 m}{n}$ and $\lambda=\frac{k(k-1)}{\nu-1}$.

Remark 3.14. In [24], the following result was obtained for a graph $G$ with $p$ connected components:

$$
L E(G) \leq \frac{2 m}{n} p+\sqrt{(n-p)\left[2 M-p\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}\right]}
$$

where

$$
M=m+\frac{M_{1}(G)}{2}-\frac{2 m^{2}}{n}
$$

In [16], the authors mentioned that the result in Theorem 3.13 is always better than the above result for bipartite graphs.

Nordhaus and Gaddum [35] gave bounds for the sum of the chromatic numbers of a graph and its complement. Eventually, numerous Nordhaus-Gaddum-type results for other graph invariants were obtained in the literature. With regard to Laplacian energy, Zhou and Gutman [47] gave the following result:

Theorem 3.15. [47] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
2(n-1) \leq L E(G)+L E(\bar{G})<n \sqrt{n^{2}-1} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong \bar{K}_{n}$.

In [11], the authors obtained the following bounds on $L E(G)+L E(\bar{G})$ :
Theorem 3.16. [11] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n>1$ with $m$ edges and maximum degree $\Delta$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
2(n-1+\Delta-\delta) \leq L E(G)+L E(\bar{G}) \leq 8 m-4 \Delta+2 n-\frac{12 m}{n} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong \bar{K}_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1,2}$ or $G \cong\left(K_{2} \cup K_{1}\right) \vee K_{1}$. Moreover, the right equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.

Remark 3.17. Let $\Gamma$ be the class of graphs of order $n$ with $m$ edges such that $m \leq \frac{n(n-2)}{8}$. The authors in [11] mentioned that the upper bound in (24) is better that the upper bound in (23) for any graph in $\Gamma$.

## 4. Relation between different graph energies

Gutman et al. [21] to believe that energy of a graph $G$ is always less than or equal to the corresponding Laplacian energy and so, they made the following conjecture.

Conjecture 4.1. For any graph $G$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq L E(G) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $K K_{n}$ be the graph obtained from two copies of the complete graph $K_{n}$ by joining a vertex from one copy of $K_{n}$ to two vertices from the other copy of $K_{n}$. Stevanović et al. [41] disproved the conjecture by giving an infinite family of graphs $G$, namely $G \cong K K_{n}$, for which the reverse inequality holds for all $n \geq 8$. By direct calculation, it can be seen that the inequality (25) is true for all graphs of order $n \leq 6$. For $n=7$, there is only one graph (see graph $H_{1}$ in Fig. 1) for which the reverse inequality holds. Using this graph, Liu and Liu [33] constructed an infinite family of disconnected graphs for which the reverse inequality holds. Although from [33,41], it was clear that conjecture is not true in general, it is of interest to characterize the graphs for which the conjecture holds. Clearly characterizing all the graphs for which (25) holds or does not hold is not an easy task and is still an open problem [19].


Figure 1. Graph $H_{1}$.

Using Ky Fan Theorem, So et al. [39] presented the following relation between energy and Laplacian energy of graph.

Theorem 4.1. [39] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and vertex degrees $d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E(G) \leq \mathcal{E}(G)+\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|d_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right| \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

In [13], the authors obtained the following relation between energy and Laplacian energy of graphs.
Theorem 4.2. [13] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and vertex degrees $d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E(G) \leq \mathcal{E}(G)+2 \sum_{i=1}^{\sigma}\left(d_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right) \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\sigma$ is the largest positive integer satisfying (14).
Remark 4.3. In the paper [13], it was mentioned that the result in (27) is always better than the result in (26).

We denote a graph $H$ obtained from an isolated vertex joining by two edges to the centers of two stars $S_{3}$ and $S_{4}$, respectively. For $n \geq 3$, let $S_{n}^{+}$be an unicyclic graph of order $n$ obtained by adding an edge to $S_{n}$. Recently, Abreu et al. [1] obtained the following relation between $\mathcal{E}(G), L E(G)$ and $L E^{+}(G)$ of graph $G$ :

Theorem 4.4. [1] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E^{+}(G)+L E(G) \geq \max \left\{2 \mathcal{E}(G), 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left|d_{i}-\frac{2 m}{n}\right|\right\} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

The following result is the relation between $L E^{+}(G), L E(G)$ and $\mathcal{E}(G)$.
Theorem 4.5. [12] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and rank $r$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
L E^{+}(G)+L E(G) \geq 4 \mathcal{E}(G)-\frac{4 m r}{n} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong n K_{1}$ or $G \cong K_{2} \cup(n-2) K_{1}$ or $G \cong K_{n / 2, n / 2}$.

Remark 4.6. In [12], the authors mentioned that two results (28) and (29) are incomparable. Sometimes the result in (29) is better than the result in (28), but not always. The result in (29) is better than the result in (28) for graphs $H$ and $K_{3,5}$, on the other hand the result in (28) is better than the result in (29) for graphs $S_{8}$ and $S_{8}^{+}$.

In 2008, Liu and Liu [32] considered a new Laplacian-spectrum-based graph invariant

$$
L E L=L E L(G)=\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \sqrt{\mu_{k}}
$$

and named it Laplacian-energy-like invariant. The motivation for introducing $L E L$ was in its analogy to the earlier much studied graph energy [30] and Laplacian energy [24]. For details on $L E L$ see the review [31], the recent papers [8], and the references cited therein. Since both $L E$ and $L E L$ are depend on the Laplacian eigenvalues of graph $G$, recently, a nice relation between $L E$ and $L E L$ has been obtained in [11]:

Theorem 4.7. [11] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and maximum degree $\Delta$. Then

$$
n^{2}(L E(G)-n)^{2}+8 m n(L E L(G)-\sqrt{n})^{2} \leq(4 m n-4 m-n(\Delta+1))^{2}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
A line graph $L_{G}$ of a simple graph $G$ is obtained by associating a vertex with each edge of the graph $G$ and connecting two vertices with an edge if and only if the corresponding edges of $G$ have a vertex in common. For example, the line graph of star $K_{1, n-1}$ is the complete graph $K_{n-1}$. The line graph $L_{G}$ of graph $G$ has $m$ vertices and $\frac{1}{2} M_{1}(G)-m$ edges. The relation between $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)$ and $L E^{+}(G)$ of graph $G$ in the following result:

Theorem 4.8. [14] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m \geq 1$ edges.
(a) For $m<n$,

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \leq L E^{+}(G)+\frac{4 m}{n}-4
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{2} \cup(n-2) K_{1}(n \geq 2)$ or $G \cong K_{3} \cup(n-3) K_{1}(4 \leq n \leq 6)$ or $G \cong K_{1, i-1} \cup(n-i) K_{1}\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil+1 \leq i \leq n\right)$.
(b) For $m>n$,

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \geq L E^{+}(G)+\frac{4 m}{n}-4
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{4}$ or $G \cong K_{4} \backslash\{e\}$ or $G \cong K_{4} \cup K_{1}$ or $G \cong K_{4} \cup K_{2}$.
(c) Moreover, $L E^{+}(G)=\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)$ if and only if $m=n$.

From Theorem 4.8, the following three results have been obtained in [14]:
Corollary 4.1. [14] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m \geq 1$ edges. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)=L E^{+}(G)+\frac{4 m}{n}-4
$$

if and only if $m=n$ or $G \cong K_{2} \cup(n-2) K_{1}(n \geq 2)$ or $G \cong K_{3} \cup(n-3) K_{1}(4 \leq n \leq 6)$ or $G \cong K_{1, i-1} \cup(n-i) K_{1}\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil+1 \leq i \leq n\right)$ or $G \cong K_{4}$ or $G \cong K_{4} \backslash\{e\}$ or $G \cong K_{4} \cup K_{1}$ or $G \cong K_{4} \cup K_{2}$.

Corollary 4.2. [22] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m \geq 1$ edges.
(a) If $m<n$, then $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)<L E^{+}(G)$.
(b) If $m>n$, then $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)>L E^{+}(G)$.
(c) If $m=n$, then $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)=L E^{+}(G)$.

Corollary 4.3. [14] Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$ with $p$ pendant vertices. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{T}\right) \leq L E^{+}(T)-2\left(1-\frac{p}{n}\right)
$$

In [14], the authors obtained the lower and upper bounds on $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)$ in the following three results:
Theorem 4.9. [14] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m \geq 1$ edges. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G)-2 p-4 s \leq \mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \leq \mathcal{E}(G)+4 m-4 n+2 p+4 s
$$

where $p$ and $s$ are the number of pendant and isolated vertices in $G$, respectively.
Corollary 4.4. [14] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and minimum degree $\delta \geq 1$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G)-2 p \leq \mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \leq \mathcal{E}(G)+4 m-4 n+2 p
$$

where $p$ is the number of pendant vertices in $G$.
Corollary 4.5. [14] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with minimum degree $\delta \geq 2$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}(G) \leq \mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \leq \mathcal{E}(G)+4 m-4 n
$$

From Theorems 4.8 (a) and 4.9, the relation between signless Laplacian energy and energy of graphs has been obtained in [14].

Theorem 4.10. [14] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges $(m<n)$ and $p$ pendant vertices. Then

$$
L E^{+}(G)>\mathcal{E}(G)-\frac{4 m}{n}-2 p-4 s+4
$$

We now give two upper bounds on $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)$ in terms of $n, m$ and $M_{1}(G)$.
Theorem 4.11. [1] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m \geq 1$ edges and the first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \leq \frac{M_{1}(G)}{m}-2+\sqrt{(m-1)\left(\left(1+\frac{4}{m}\right) M_{1}(G)-\frac{M_{1}(G)^{2}}{m^{2}}-2 m-4\right)} . \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 4.12. [14] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m \geq 1$ edges and the first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \leq 2 m-2 n-2+\frac{M_{1}(G)}{m}+\sqrt{(n-1)\left(\left(1+\frac{4}{m}\right) M_{1}(G)-\frac{M_{1}(G)^{2}}{m^{2}}-6 m+4 n-4\right)} \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding in (31) if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{4,4}$.
Remark 4.13. For connected graph $G$ with $m \geq n$, the upper bound in (31) is always better than the upper bound in (30).

The positive (resp. negative) inertia of the graph $G$, denoted by $\nu^{+}$(resp. $\nu^{-}$), is the number of the positive (resp. negative) eigenvalues of $A(G)$. The rank of a graph $G$ is the rank of its adjacency matrix $A(G)$, equal to $\nu^{+}+\nu^{-}$. Recall that $\nu^{+} \geq 1$ holds if and only if the underlying graph has at least one edge. The relation between $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)$ and $\mathcal{E}(G)$ is the following:

Theorem 4.14. [15] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with positive inertia $\nu^{+} \geq 1$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \geq 2\left(\mathcal{E}(G)-2 \nu^{+}\right) \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong C_{4}$ or $G \cong K_{i}, i=2,3,4$.
The same result (32) holds for any graph:
Theorem 4.15. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with positive inertia $\nu^{+} \geq 1$. Then inequality (32) holds with equality if and only if $G \cong a K_{2} \cup b K_{3} \cup c K_{4} \cup f C_{4} \cup(n-2 a-3 b-4 c-4 f) K_{1}, a, b, c, f \geq 0$.

The size of a maximal matching of $G$, that is, the maximum number of independent edges in $G$, is called the matching number of $G$, and will be denoted by $\beta(G)$. It is well known that $\nu^{+}(T)=\beta(T)$ for any tree $T$. The independence number of a graph $G$, denoted by $\alpha=\alpha(G)$, is the largest number of pairwise non-adjacent vertices in $G$. A forest is an acyclic graph, that is, a graph without any graph cycles. In [15], the authors mentioned the following three results:

Corollary 4.6. [15] Let $F$ be a forest of order $n$ with matching number $\beta \geq 1$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{F}\right) \geq 2(\mathcal{E}(F)-2 \beta)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong a K_{2} \cup(n-2 a) K_{1}, a \geq 1$.
Corollary 4.7. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with at least one edge and independence number $\alpha$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \geq 2(\mathcal{E}(G)-2 n+2 \alpha)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong a K_{2} \cup(n-2 a) K_{1}$.
Corollary 4.8. [15] Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of order $n$ with $m \geq 1$ edges and rank $r$. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \geq 2(\mathcal{E}(G)-r)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong a K_{2} \cup f C_{4} \cup(n-2 a-4 f) K_{1}, a, f \geq 0$.
Remark 4.16. In [15], it was mentioned that

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \geq \max \left\{\mathcal{E}(G)+\frac{4 m}{n}-4,2(\mathcal{E}(G)-r)\right\}
$$

for bipartite graph $G$.
In [15], the authors obtained some bounds on $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right)$ in terms of $n, m, p$, and $\mathcal{E}(G)$.

Theorem 4.17. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m>1$ edges. Then $\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \leq 4 m-2 n$.
Theorem 4.18. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m \geq n$ edges. Then

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \geq 4 m-4 n+2 p+4 s
$$

where $p$ and s are the number of pendent and isolated vertices.
The energy of the $n$-vertex complete graph $K_{n}$ is equal to $2(n-1)$. A graph $G$ on $n$ vertices is said to be hyperenergetic if $\mathcal{E}(G)>2 n-2$. The first systematic construction of hyperenergetic graphs was proposed by Walikar et al. [43], who showed that the line graphs of $K_{n}(n \geq 5)$ and of $K_{n / 2, n / 2}(n \geq 8)$ are hyperenergetic. Hou et al. [25] showed that the line graph of any $(n, m)$-graph $(n \geq 5, m \geq 2 n)$ is hyperenergetic. Here we mention another necessary condition for hyperenergetic graph.

Corollary 4.9. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and $p$ pendent vertices. If $m>2 n-p-1$, then $L_{G}$ is hyperenergetic.

Remark 4.19. The result in Corollary 4.9 was more stronger than the previous result (for $m \geq 2 n, L_{G}$ is hyperenergetic).

Two nonisomorphic graphs are said to be equienergetic if they have the same energy. There exist numerous pairs of graphs with identical spectra, so-called cospectral graphs. In a trivial manner, such graphs are equienergetic. So it is interesting only in noncospectral equienergetic graphs. The concept of equienergetic graphs was put forward independently and almost simultaneously by Brankov et al. [6] and Balakrishnan [3]. Characterize a large class of equienergetic graphs in the following result:

Theorem 4.20. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n>2$ with $m$ edges and minimum degree $\delta$. If $\delta \geq \frac{n}{2}+1$, then the energy of $L_{G}$ is $4(m-n)$. Thus, the line graphs of all ( $n, m$ )-graphs with property $\delta \geq \frac{n}{2}+1$ are mutually equienergetic.

Corollary 4.10. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of order $n$ and minimum degree $\delta$. If $\delta \geq \frac{n}{2}+1$, then

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{G}\right) \geq \begin{cases}n^{2}-2 n, & \text { if } n \text { is even } \\ n^{2}-n, & \text { if } n \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

In both cases, equality holds if and only if $L_{G}$ is an $\left(\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil+1\right)$-regular graph.
In Corollary 4.9, the result related to a class of graphs are hyperenergetic. We now mention another result of this kind.

Theorem 4.21. [15] Let $T$ be a tree. Then $L_{T}$ is non-hyperenergetic, i.e.,

$$
\mathcal{E}\left(L_{T}\right) \leq 2\left(\left|V\left(L_{T}\right)\right|-1\right)
$$

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# Bounds of the Estrada Index and the Laplacian Estrada Index 

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## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 23
2 ( $n, m$ )-type bounds ..... 25
3 Trees ..... 28
3.1 Trees with degree sequence conditions ..... 29
3.2 Trees with perfect matching ..... 33
3.3 Trees with fixed diameter ..... 34
3.4 Trees with segment sequence conditions ..... 34
$3.5 k$-trees ..... 35
4 Unicyclic, bicyclic and tricyclic graphs ..... 36
5 Graphs with bounded degree ..... 38
6 Random graphs ..... 39
7 Graphs with given number of cut vertices or number of cut edges ..... 40
8 Generalisations and variations of the Estrada index ..... 41
8.1 ( $n, m$ )-graphs ..... 42
8.2 Trees and unicyclic graphs ..... 44
8.3 Miscellaneous ..... 46

## 1. Introduction

Given an $n$-vertex graph $G=\left(\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}, E(G)\right)$, the $n \times n$ matrix $A=A(G)$, whose entry in the $i$-th row and $j$-th column is

$$
A_{i, j}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if }\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E(G) \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

for any $i, j \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$, is known as the adjacency matrix of $G$. The eigenvalues of $A(G)$ are also called eigenvalues of $G$. Throughout this chapter, unless otherwise mentioned, $G$ will be considered to have $n$ vertices, $m$ edges and eigenvalues $\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n}$. We will use popular notation such as $S_{n}$, $P_{n}$ and $K_{n}$ for the $n$-vertex star, path and complete graph, respectively.

The $k$-th spectral moment of $G$ is defined by

$$
\mathrm{M}_{k}(G)=\lambda_{1}^{k}+\lambda_{2}^{k}+\cdots+\lambda_{n}^{k}
$$

which coincides with the trace of $A^{k}$, and thus it is equal to the number of closed walks of length $k$ in $G$.
In 2000, Estrada considered [1-3] the adjacency matrices of iterated line graphs of molecular graphs, he replaced the diagonal entries with the cosine of the dihedral angles in the corresponding molecules, then he studied the sum of the $k$-th spectral moment normalized by $k$ ! of the resulting matrices. The parameter is then used to measure the 3D folding of molecules. If $B$ is the matrix with eigenvalues $\beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \ldots, \beta_{n}$, Estrada define the parameter

$$
\mathrm{I}(B)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{M_{k}(B)}{k!}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{\beta_{1}^{k}+\beta_{2}^{k} \cdots+\beta_{n}^{k}}{k!}=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{\beta_{i}} .
$$

Later the Estrada index $\operatorname{EE}(G)$ of any graph $G$ with eigenvalues $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}$, is defined to be

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G)=e^{\lambda_{1}}+e^{\lambda_{2}}+\cdots+e^{\lambda_{n}}
$$

Still in the 2000s, more applications of EE has been attempted. It has been used to measure bipartivity [4] and subgraph centrality [5] of complex structures such as communication, social and metabolic networks. Estrada, Rodríguez-Velázquez and Randić also used [6] EE to measure atomic branching in molecules. See also [7] for more structure-dependence of EE.

It is well known [8] that the $k$-th spectral moment of $A$ coincides with the number closed walks of length $k$ in $G$. This immediately implies that the Estrada index increases if a new edge is added to a graph. Therefore, for any $n$-vertex graph $G$ which is not the edgeless graph $E_{n}$ nor the complete graph $K_{n}$,

$$
0=\mathrm{M}_{k}\left(E_{n}\right)<M_{k}(G)<M_{k}\left(K_{n}\right)=(n-1)^{k}+(n-1)(-1)^{k}
$$

for any $k \geq 2$, and thus

$$
\mathrm{EE}\left(E_{n}\right)<\mathrm{EE}(G)<\mathrm{EE}\left(K_{n}\right)
$$

Given a class of graph $\mathbb{G}$, determining a lower and/or an upper of $\operatorname{EE}(G)$ for $G \in \mathbb{G}$, and finding extremal graphs who achieve the bounds is a common problem that has been treated in the study of EE. This chapter aims at bringing together reported results on such problems. An effort was made to include key lemmas or descriptions of the techniques used that lead to the main results.

The next six sections are devoted to discussing bounds of the Estrada index in various classes of graphs. In the last section, after a list of definitions of other types of the Estrada index, details on the known bounds of the Laplacian Estrada index are provided.

## 2. ( $n, m$ )-type bounds

We call an ( $n, m$ )-graph, a graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges.
If $G$ is a bipartite $(n, m)$-graphs, and eigenvalues $\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n}$, then $\lambda_{1} \geq \lambda_{2} \geq \cdots \geq$ $\lambda_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor} \geq 0$ and $0 \geq \lambda_{\lceil n / 2\rceil}=-\lambda_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor} \geq \lambda_{\lceil n / 2\rceil+1}=-\lambda_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor-1} \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{n}=-\lambda_{1}$. Since $\cosh (x)=$ $\left(e^{x}+e^{-x}\right) / 2$, we can write [4]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{EE}(G)=n_{0}(G)+2 \sum_{+} \cosh \lambda_{i} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $n_{0}(G)$ is the nullity of $G$ and $\sum_{+}$is a summation over all positive eigenvalues of $G$. In view of the analogy between (1) and the formula of the energy $\mathrm{E}(G)=2 \sum_{+} \lambda_{i}$, Gutman and Radenković used the Lagrange multiplier technique and deduced a McClelland-type bound [9]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{EE}(G) \geq n_{0}(G)+\left(n-n_{0}(G)\right) \cosh \sqrt{\frac{2 m}{n-n_{0}(G)}} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any bipartite graphs $G$.
Introducing auxiliary quantities

$$
\mathrm{EE}^{-}(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{-\lambda_{i}} \quad \text { and } \quad \mathrm{ee}(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \cosh \lambda_{i}
$$

which satisfy

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G)-\mathrm{EE}^{-}(G)=2 \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{M_{2 k+1}}{(2 k+1)!} \geq 0
$$

(with equality if and only if $G$ is bipartite), and thus

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G) \geq \frac{\mathrm{EE}(G)+\mathrm{EE}^{-}(G)}{2}=\mathrm{ee}(G)
$$

Gutman used again the Lagrange-multiplier technique and study

$$
\mathrm{ee}(G)-\frac{\alpha}{2}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_{i}^{2}-2 m\right)
$$

to obtain the following theorem:
Theorem 1 ( [10]).

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G) \geq q+(n-q) \cosh \sqrt{\frac{2 m}{n-q}}
$$

for any ( $n, m$ )-graph $G$ with exactly $q(<n)$ isolated vertices, where the equality holds if and only if each of the connected components of $G$ is a $K_{i}$ for some $i \in\{1,2\}$.

Theorem 2 (cf. [11, 12]). Let $G$ be an $(n, m)$-graph $G$ with $m \neq 0$, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sqrt{n^{2}+2 n m+2 n t} \leq \mathrm{EE}(G)<n-1+e^{\sqrt{2 m-1}} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $t$ is the number of triangles in $G$. The lower bound is reached if and only if $G$ has no edge.

The first inequality is obtained using the first four terms of the Maclaurin series of $e^{x}$. The second inequality improves the upper bounds [13]

$$
\begin{align*}
\sqrt{n^{2}+4 m+8 t} & \leq \mathrm{EE}(G)=\sum_{n=1}^{n} \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{k}}{k!} \leq n+\sum_{n=1}^{n} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{\left|\lambda_{i}\right|^{k}}{k!}  \tag{4}\\
& \leq n+\sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k!}\left(\sum_{n=1}^{n} \lambda_{i}^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}=n-1+\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{(\sqrt{2 m})^{k}}{k!}=n-1+e^{\sqrt{2 m}}
\end{align*}
$$

See [14] for a more general version of the upper bound in (3), provided for weighted graphs.
If furthermore $G$ is bipartite, then $\lambda_{1}^{2 k+1}+\lambda_{2}^{2 k+1}+\cdots+\lambda_{n}^{2 k+1}=0$ for any non-negative integer $k$ and one can use (1) to obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
\operatorname{EE}(G) & =n_{0}(G)+2 \sum_{+} \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{2 k}}{(2 k)!}=n+2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{(2 k)!} \sum_{+}\left(\lambda_{i}^{2}\right)^{k} \leq n+2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{(2 k)!}\left(\sum_{+} \lambda_{i}^{2}\right)^{k} \\
& =n+2 \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{m^{k}}{(2 k)!}=n-2+2 \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{(\sqrt{m})^{2 k}}{(2 k)!}=n-2+2 \cosh (\sqrt{m}) . \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Combined with (2), this leads to the following:
Theorem 3 (cf. [13, 15]). If $G$ is a bipartite ( $n, m$ )-graph whose zero eigenvalue has multiplicity $n_{0}(G)$, then

$$
n_{0}(G)+\left(n-n_{0}(G)\right) \cosh \sqrt{\frac{2 m}{n-n_{0}(G)}} \leq \mathrm{EE}(G) \leq n-2+2 \cosh (\sqrt{m})
$$

Equality on the upper bound holds for graphs obtained by adding c isolated vertex to the complete bipartite graph $K_{a, b}$, where $a+b+c=n$ and $a b=m$

In Theorem 2 of [13] the upper bound reads $n-2+2 \cosh (\sqrt{2 m})$, but in the proof it is actually $n-2+2 \cosh (\sqrt{m})$.

Zhao and Jia [16] used similar argument to obtain upper and lower bounds in terms of $n, m$ and $\lambda_{1}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
n_{0}(G)+\cosh \sqrt{m-\lambda_{1}^{2}} & +\left(n-n_{0}(G)-2\right) \cosh \sqrt{\frac{2 m}{n-n_{0}(G)-2}} \\
\leq & \mathrm{EE}(G) \leq n-4+\cosh \lambda_{1}+\cosh \sqrt{m-\lambda_{1}^{2}} \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

for any bipartite $(n, m)$-graph $G$.
Arithmetic-Geometric Mean Inequality gives [17]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{EE}(G) \geq e^{\lambda_{1}}+(n-1)\left(\prod_{i=2}^{n} e^{\lambda_{i}}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-1}}=e^{\lambda_{1}}+(n-1) e^{-\frac{\lambda_{1}}{n-1}} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for any $(n, m)$-graph $G$. Let $\chi$ be the chromatic number of $G$. From the observation that [18] $\lambda_{1} \geq \chi-1$ and that $f(x)=e^{x}+(n-1) e^{-\frac{x}{n-1}}$ is an increasing function of $x$, Das and Lee deduce that [17]

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G) \geq e^{\chi-1}+(n-1) e^{-\frac{\chi-1}{n-1}}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is a complete graph or it has no edge.
Using [8] $\lambda_{1} \geq \frac{2 m}{n}$, essentially similar idea as above but slightly more technical leads to [17]

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G) \geq e^{\frac{2 m}{n}}+e^{-\frac{2 m}{n}}+n-2 \geq n+\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{2}+\frac{1}{12}\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{4}
$$

It is worth to be pointed out that since (see Theorem 3)

$$
\mathrm{EE}\left(K_{n_{1}, n_{2}}\right)=n_{1}+n_{2}-2+2 \cosh \sqrt{n_{1} n_{2}},
$$

it follows that [19]

$$
\operatorname{EE}\left(K_{1, n-1}\right)<\operatorname{EE}\left(K_{2, n-2}\right)<\cdots<\operatorname{EE}\left(K_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil}\right)
$$

$K_{p, n-p}$ is the unique bipartite graph with $n$ vertices $p$ matching number and have maximum Estrada index, for any given $1 \leq p \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$; it is also the unique bipartite $n$-vertex graph with connectivity or edge connectivity $p$ and maximum $E E$ if $\frac{n-2}{2} \leq p \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. See [19] for detailed proofs.

The next few bounds establish some relations between EE and other well studies graph invariants. Let $n_{-}$(resp. $n_{+}$) be the numbers of positive (resp. negative) eigenvalues of $G$, then [12]

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathrm{EE}(G) & \leq n-n_{+}+\sum_{i=1}^{n_{+}} e^{\lambda_{i}}=n-n_{+}+\sum_{i=1}^{n_{+}} \sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{\lambda_{i}^{k}}{k!}=n-n_{+}+\sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k!} \sum_{i=1}^{n_{+}} \lambda_{i}^{k} \\
& \leq n-n_{+}+\sum_{k \geq 1} \frac{1}{k!}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n_{+}} \lambda_{i}\right)^{k}=n-1+e^{\frac{\mathrm{E}(G)}{2}} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

One can also get the lower bound [20]

$$
\begin{align*}
& \mathrm{EE}(G)=n_{0}(G)+\sum_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq n \\
\lambda_{i}>0}} e^{\lambda_{i}}+\sum_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq n \\
\lambda_{i}<0}} e^{\lambda_{i}} \geq n_{0}(G)+n_{+}\left(\prod_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq n \\
\lambda_{i}>0}} e^{\lambda_{i}}\right)^{1 / n_{+}}+n_{-}\left(\prod_{\substack{1 \leq i \leq n \\
\lambda_{i}<0}} e^{\lambda_{i}}\right)^{1 / n_{-}} \\
& =n_{0}(G)+n_{+}\left(e^{\mathrm{E}(G) / 2}\right)^{1 / n_{+}}+n_{-}\left(e^{-\mathrm{E}(G) / 2}\right)^{1 / n_{-}}=n_{0}(G)+n_{+} e^{\frac{\mathrm{E}(G)}{2 n_{+}}}+n_{-} e^{-\frac{\mathrm{E}(G)}{2 n_{-}}} \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

and [12]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{EE}(G) \geq \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{E}(G)(e-1)+n-n_{+} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

The bound in (9) is proven [21] sharp, it can be improved involving $\lambda_{1}$ as follows [11]

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G) \geq e^{\lambda_{1}}+n_{0}(G)+\left(n_{+}-1\right) e^{\frac{\mathrm{E}(G) / 2-\lambda_{1}}{n_{+}-1}}+n_{-} e^{-\frac{\mathrm{E}(G)}{2 n_{-}}}
$$

Improved version of the bounds in (8) and (10) for strongly quotient graphs can be found in [22].
Theorem 4 ( [12]). For any $r$-regular $n$-vertex graph $G$ with $r \neq 0$,

$$
e^{r}+(n-1) e^{\frac{-r}{n-1}} \leq \operatorname{EE}(G)<n-2+e^{r}+e^{\sqrt{r(n-r)-1}}
$$

If, additionally, $G$ is bipartite then

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 \cosh (r)+n-2 \leq \mathrm{EE}(G) \leq n-3+2 \cosh (r)+2 \cosh \sqrt{n r / 2-r^{2}} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equalities in both sides of (11) hold if $r=\frac{n}{2}$.

Using the Arithmetic-Geometric Means Inequality and well known formulas such as $\lambda_{1}+\lambda_{2}+\cdots+$ $\lambda_{n}=0$ and $\lambda_{1}^{2}+\lambda_{2}^{2}+\cdots+\lambda_{n}^{2}=2 m$, Zhou [23] derived bounds of EE in terms of weighted sums of spectral moments:
Theorem 5 ([23]). For any ( $n, m$ )-graph $G$ and $k_{0} \geq 2$,

$$
\sqrt{n^{2}+\sum_{k=2}^{k_{0}} \frac{2^{k} \mathrm{M}_{k}(G)}{k!}} \leq \mathrm{EE}(G) \leq n-1-\sqrt{2 m}+\sum_{k=2}^{k_{0}} \frac{\mathrm{M}_{k}(G)-(\sqrt{2 m})^{k}}{k!}+e^{\sqrt{2 m}}
$$

where equality holds (in both sides) if and only if $m=0$.
Given the fact that

$$
\lambda_{1} \geq \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{v \in V(G)}(\operatorname{deg}(v))^{2}}{n}} \quad \text { and } \quad \lambda_{1} \geq \frac{2 m}{n}
$$

the bound in (7) can be improved by replacing $\lambda_{1}$ by $\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{v \in V(G)}(\operatorname{deg}(v))^{2}}{n}}$ or $2 m / n$. The first case also provides a relation between $\operatorname{EE}(G)$ and the first Zagreb index $\mathrm{Zg}(G)=\sum_{v \in V(G)}(\operatorname{deg}(v))^{2}$. For a bipartite $(n, m)$-graph $G$, the upper bound

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G) \leq \frac{24 n+22 m+\mathrm{Zg}(G)+8 q}{24}+\frac{8 m^{3}}{90\left(n-n_{0}(G)\right)^{2}} e^{\sqrt{\frac{2 m}{n-n_{0}(G)}}}
$$

was determined recently [24], where $q$ is the number of quadrangles in $G$. An upper bound depending on $\lambda_{1}$ is also known:

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G) \leq n-2-\lambda_{1}-\sqrt{2 m-\lambda_{1}^{2}}+e^{\lambda_{1}}+e^{\sqrt{2 m-\lambda_{1}^{2}}}
$$

see [23] for more variations of this bound.
Applied to $G$ and its complement $\bar{G}$, (7) leads to the Nordhaus-Gaddum type bound [23]

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{EE}(G)+\operatorname{EE}(\bar{G}) & \geq e^{\lambda_{1}}+e^{\overline{\lambda_{1}}}+(n-1)\left(e^{-\frac{\lambda_{1}}{n-1}}+e^{-\frac{\overline{\lambda_{1}}}{n-1}}\right) \geq 2 e^{\frac{\lambda_{1}+\overline{\lambda_{1}}}{2}}+2(n-1) e^{\frac{\lambda_{1}+\overline{\lambda_{1}}}{2(n-1)}} \\
& \geq e^{\frac{n-1}{2}}+2(n-1) e^{-\frac{1}{2}} \quad \text { since } \lambda_{1}+\overline{\lambda_{1}} \geq n-1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

## 3. Trees

We denote by $\mathbb{T}_{n}$ the set of all trees with $n$ vertices. Many characterisations of extremal trees with respect to EE corresponding to various subsets of $\mathbb{T}_{n}$ are obtained by first determining if a pertinently chosen graph transformation increases or decreases EE. Then apply the transformation iteratively.


Figure 1. Transformation from $G$ to $G^{\prime}$ of Lemma 1.

Lemma 1 ( [25]). Let $v$ and $w$ be vertices of a graph $G$ that consists of two connected graphs $G_{v}$ and $G_{w}$ and a path $P_{v, w}$ joining two vertices $v$ and $w$ in $G_{v}$ and $G_{w}$ respectively. Let $w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{l}$ be the neighbours of $w$ that are not on the path $P_{v, w}$, and define

$$
G^{\prime}=G-w w_{1}-w w_{2}-\cdots-w w_{l}+v w_{1}+v w_{2}+\cdots+v w_{l},
$$

as in Figure 1. Then

$$
\mathrm{M}_{2 k}(G) \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(G^{\prime}\right)
$$

for every integer $k \geq 0$. The inequality is strict if $k \geq 2$ and both $G_{v}$ and $G_{w}$ consist of more than one vertex.

Iterative application of the transformation in Figure 1, by always choosing $P_{u, v}$ to be a $P_{2}$, one obtains a star. Repetitive application of the reverse transformation leads to a path. This observation was pointed out in [26], confirming a conjecture [13] that the path $P_{n}$ and the star $S_{n}$ are respectively the $n$-vertex tree with minimum and maximum Estrada index. Furthermore, Deng also proved in the same paper [26] that $P_{n}$ has the minimum Estrada index among all connected graph with order $n$.

### 3.1 Trees with degree sequence conditions

We start with the case of trees with prescribed degree sequence.
Definition 1. With given vertex degrees, the greedy tree is achieved through the following "greedy algorithm":
i) Label the vertex with the largest degree as $v$ (the root);
ii) Label the neighbours of $v$ as $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots$, assign the largest degrees available to them such that $\operatorname{deg}\left(v_{1}\right) \geq \operatorname{deg}\left(v_{2}\right) \geq \ldots ;$
iii) Label the neighbours of $v_{1}$ (except $v$ ) as $v_{11}, v_{12}, \ldots$ such that they take all the largest degrees available and that $\operatorname{deg}\left(v_{11}\right) \geq \operatorname{deg}\left(v_{12}\right) \geq \ldots$, then do the same for $v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots$;
iv) Repeat (iii) for all the newly labelled vertices, always start with the neighbours of the labelled vertex with largest degree whose neighbours are not labelled yet.


Figure 2. An example of a greedy tree.

We denote by $\mathbb{T}_{D}$ the set of all trees with degree sequence $D$, and $G_{D}$ the greedy tree with degree sequence $D$.

Theorem 6 ( [27]). Let $D$ be a degree sequence of a tree. For any non-negative integer $k$ and all $T \in \mathbb{T}_{D}$, we have

$$
\mathrm{M}_{k}(T) \leq \mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G_{D}\right)
$$

For sufficiently large even $k$, the inequality is strict unless $T$ and $G_{D}$ are isomorphic. Hence, we also have

$$
\mathrm{EE}(T) \leq \operatorname{EE}\left(G_{D}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $T=G_{D}$.
A sequence $S=\left(s_{1}, s_{2}, \ldots, s_{n}\right)$ majorizes $R=\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n}\right)$, and we write $S \preccurlyeq R$, if $s_{1}+s_{2}+$ $\cdots+s_{k} \leq r_{1}+r_{2}+\cdots+r_{k}$ for any $k \in\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$.

Theorem 7 ([27]). Let $D=\left(d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ and $B=\left(b_{1}, \ldots, b_{n}\right)$ be degree sequences of trees of the same order such that $B \preccurlyeq D$. Then for any integer $k \geq 0$ we have

$$
\mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G_{B}\right) \leq \mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G_{D}\right)
$$

If $B \neq D$ and $k$ is even and $\geq 4$, then the inequality is strict. Consequently, we also have

$$
\mathrm{EE}\left(G_{B}\right)<\mathrm{EE}\left(G_{D}\right)
$$

if $B \neq D$.
Let $\mathbb{S} \subseteq \mathbb{T}_{n}$ such that there exists a degree sequence $D$ of an $n$-vertex tree which majorizes any degree sequence of an element in $\mathbb{S}$. Then for any $T \in \mathbb{S}$, we obtain

$$
\mathrm{M}_{k}(T) \leq \mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G_{D}\right) \text { for all } k \geq 0, \text { and thus } \mathrm{EE}(T) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{D}\right)
$$

For example, if we take $\mathbb{S}=\mathbb{T}_{n}$, then we can choose $D=(n-1,1, \ldots, 1)$ so that $G_{D}=K_{1, n-1}=S_{n}$ is the $n$-vertex star, and one can obtain [26]:

Corollary 1. For any $n$-vertex tree $T \neq S_{n}$, we have $\mathrm{M}_{k}(T) \leq \mathrm{M}_{k}\left(S_{n}\right)$ for all $k \geq 0$ and $\mathrm{EE}(T)<$ $\mathrm{EE}\left(S_{n}\right)$.

Note that Corollary 1 can also be deduced easily from Theorem 3, since all trees are bipartite. The six trees with $n \geq 6$ vertices and largest Estrada index are known [16,28], five of which are greedy trees: They are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{EE}\left(G_{(n-1,1, \ldots, 1)}\right)>\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{(n-2,2,1, \ldots, 1)}\right)>\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{(n-3,3,1, \ldots, 1)}\right)>\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{(n-4,2,2,1, \ldots, 1)}\right) \\
& >\operatorname{EE}(\bullet \bullet \cdot \\
&
\end{aligned}
$$

Corollary 2. Among trees $T$ of order $n$ with s leaves, $\mathrm{M}_{k}(T)$ is maximized by the greedy tree $G(s, 2,2$, $\ldots, 2,1,1, \ldots, 1$ ) (the number of $2 s$ is $n-s-1$, the number of 1 s is s) for any $k \geq 0$.

Corollary 3. Among trees $T$ of order $n$ with independence number $\alpha \geq n / 2$ and among all trees $T$ with matching number $n-\alpha \leq n / 2, \mathrm{M}_{k}(T)$ is maximized by the greedy tree $G(\alpha, 2,2, \ldots, 2,1,1, \ldots, 1)$ (the number of $2 s$ is $n-\alpha-1$, the number of $1 s$ is $\alpha$ ) for any $k \geq 0$.

The tree $G(\alpha, 2,2, \ldots, 2,1,1, \ldots, 1)$ in Corollary 3 also has the maximum Estrada index among all trees with domination number $n-\alpha$, see [29].

Corollary 4. Among trees $T$ of order $n$ and maximum degree $\Delta, \mathrm{M}_{k}(T)$ is maximized by the the Volkmann tree $G_{D}$ for $D=(\Delta, \ldots, \Delta, r, 1, \ldots, 1)$ for some $1 \leq r<\Delta$ for any $k \geq 0$.

In each of the Corollaries $2,3,4, \mathrm{M}_{k}$ can be replaced by EE. They are obtained in [30] using different approach. Corollary 4 was conjectured [31] by Ilić and Stevanović in 2009. In [32], Gutman et al. approximated the Estrada index of chemical trees (with maximum degree 4) by an expression that increases with the Zagreb index and the spectral radius. This finding is in favour of the conjecture of Ilić and Stevanović, because the Volkmann tree with maximum degree 4 clearly have maximum Zagreb index among fixed order chemical trees.

For a given vertex $v$ of a graph $G$, we denote by $\mathrm{M}_{k}(G, v)$ the number of closed walks of length $k$ starting from $v$ in $G$. The following lemma appears to help to find trees with minimum Estrada index.

Lemma 2 ([31]). Let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}$ be the vertices from one end to the other end of a path $P$. Let $v$ be a vertex of a connected graph $G$ with $|V(G)| \geq 2$, and $G_{i}^{n}$ is obtained by merging $v$ with the vertex $v_{i}$ of $P$. Then

$$
\mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(P, v_{1}\right) \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(P, v_{2}\right) \leq \cdots \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(P, v_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}\right)
$$

and

$$
\mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(G_{1}^{n}\right) \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(G_{2}^{n}\right) \leq \cdots \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(G_{\lfloor n / 2\rfloor}^{n}\right),
$$

for any integer $k \geq 0$. The inequalities are strict for large enough $k$.
See [33] for a slightly stronger version of Lemma 2, considering the case where the graph $G$ is allowed to be in contact with two consecutive vertices in the path $P$. Let $G_{u, v}(a, b)$ be the graph obtained by attaching pendent path $P_{a}$ and $P_{b}$ at the two vertices $u$ and $v$ of a graph $G$, respectively. Zhibin Du established the following edge grafting theorem.

Theorem 8 ( [34]). Suppose that $x$ is a pendent vertex in $G_{u, v}(1,0)$ attached at $u$,

$$
\mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G_{u, v}(1,0), x\right) \leq \mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G_{u, v}(1,0), v\right) \quad \text { for all integers } k \geq 0
$$

and there exists $k$ for which the inequality is strict. Then for any integers $s \geq t+2 \geq 2$,

$$
\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{u, v}(s, t)\right)<\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{u, v}(t+1, s-1)\right)
$$

Let $3 \leq d \in \mathbb{N}$. A $d$-starlike (or simply starlike) tree is a tree which has only one vertex of degree greater than 2 , and it has degree $d$. A starlike tree with branching vertex $v$ is called a balanced starlike tree if the difference between the lengths of any two branches of $v$ is at most 1 .

Theorem 9 ( [31]). The balanced $\Delta$-starlike tree has maximum even spectral moments and maximum EE among $\Delta$-starlike trees of order $n$.

The fact that the path has minimum Estrada index among trees of given order follows immediately from Lemma 2. Ilić and Stevanović used it for more classes of trees. Let $T$ be a tree and $v$ is one of its vertex with largest degree. By moving a part of $T$ along a path one step toward the closest leaf without modifying the degree of $v$, as long as this is possible, one will end with a starlike graph with branches of length 1 except possibly one. Let $B(n, i)$ be the tree which has exactly $i$ leaves, one branching vertex $v$, such that each branch of $v$ has length 1 except possibly one. Such trees are usually called a broom or a comet. For $n \geq i+2$, define $B^{\prime}(n, i)$ to be the graph obtained from $B(n, i)$ by moving the branching vertex one step closer to the center of the longest path.

Theorem 10 ([31]). For any tree $T \neq B(n, \Delta), B^{\prime}(n, \Delta)$ with maximum degree $\Delta \geq 3$ and $n \geq \Delta+3$ vertices,

$$
\mathrm{EE}(B(n, \Delta))<\mathrm{EE}\left(B^{\prime}(n, \Delta)\right)<\mathrm{EE}(T)
$$

Theorem 11 ([31]). Among all trees $T$ with $n \geq 2 \Delta$ vertices, which have a perfect matching and $a$ maximum degree $\Delta$, the minimum Estrada index is reached by the $\Delta$-starlike tree obtained by merging one end vertex from each of $P_{n-2 \Delta+3}, P_{2}$ and $\Delta-2 P_{3}$.

Li et al. continued this line of research. They studied the trees which have exactly two vertices with maximum degree. The following lemma describes the key graph transformation used.

Lemma 3. [35] Let $u_{0}, u_{1}, \ldots, u_{s+1}$ be the vertices of a path $P=P_{s+2}$, from one end to the other. Let $v$ and $w$ be vertices from two connected graphs $A$ and $B$, respectively. Define $G_{1}$ to be the graph obtained by merging $v$ and $u_{0}, w$ and $u_{s+1}$, and $u_{i}$ with an end vertex of a path $P_{\ell_{i}}$ for any $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, s\}$; and
 isomorphic, then

$$
\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{2}\right)<\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{1}\right)
$$

The two Lemmas 2 and 3 imply that if we replace a branch or a part between two vertices of a tree by a path, then we obtain a tree with Estrada index smaller or equal to that of the original tree. By iteratively performing such a transformation, while avoiding to change the two largest degrees, we necessarily end with one of the following three types of trees:

$\angle \vdots \quad \ldots$.

Furthers comparison of the EE of these trees leads to Theorem 12.
For any $n, d, d^{\prime} \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq d+d^{\prime}$, we denote by $B B\left(n, d, d^{\prime}\right)$ the tree obtained by merging the centres of the stars $S_{d+1}$ and $S_{d^{\prime}+1}$ with the ends of $P_{n-d-d^{\prime}+2}$, respectively. See Figure 3.


Figure 3. $B\left(n, d, d^{\prime}\right)$.

Theorem 12 ([35]). If $T$ is an $n$-vertex tree, $u, v \in V(T)$ and $\operatorname{deg}(u)=d \geq d^{\prime}=\operatorname{deg}(v)>\operatorname{deg}(w)$ for all $w \in V(T) \backslash\{u, v\}$, then

$$
\mathrm{EE}(T) \geq \mathrm{EE}\left(B B\left(n, d, d^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

$B B\left(d+d^{\prime}, d, d^{\prime}\right)$ is also proven [36] to have maximum $k$-th spectral moment for any $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and thus maximum EE, among all trees with $\left(d, d^{\prime}\right)$-bipartition.

Let $S B(n, \Delta)$ be the tree obtained by merging a leaf of $B B(2 \Delta, \Delta, \Delta)$ and an end of a $P_{n-2 \Delta+1}$ path. Left as a conjecture in [35], the following result was soon confirmed:

Theorem 13 ([29]). Let $n \geq 2 \Delta+1 \geq 7$ be integers, and $T$ a tree which has two adjacent vertices with maximum degree $\Delta$, then $\operatorname{EE}(T) \geq \mathrm{EE}(S B(n, \Delta))$, with equality only if $G$ and $S B(n, \Delta)$ are isomorphic.

### 3.2 Trees with perfect matching

Let $\mathbb{P}_{2 n}$ be the set of all $2 n$-vertex tree with perfect matching. Since for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ the path $P_{2 n}$ has a perfect matching, it is the element of $\mathbb{P}_{2 n}$ which has minimum Estrada index. Using the notation of Lemma 2, for any vertex $v$ in a connected graph $G$ and integer $n \geq 2$, if $G_{i}^{n}$ has a perfect matching for some $i$ then so is $G_{1}^{n}$. Therefore, the element of $\mathbb{P}_{2 n} \backslash\left\{P_{2 n}\right\}$ with minimum Estrada index has to be a 3 -starlike tree. After further comparison, Zhai and Wang obtained the appropriate lengths of the branches:

Theorem 14 ([37]). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $T \in \mathbb{P}_{2 n} \backslash\left\{P_{2 n},{ }^{2} T_{1}^{2 n-4}\right\}$, where ${ }^{2} T_{1}^{2 n-4}$ is the tree obtained by merging one end vertex from each of $P_{2}, P_{3}$ and $P_{2 n-3}$. Then

$$
\mathrm{EE}(T)>\mathrm{EE}\left({ }^{2} T_{1}^{2 n-4}\right)
$$

In addition to other popular lemmas, the following lemma plays key role to obtain characterisation of trees with perfect matching and large Estrada index.

Lemma 4 ([38]). Let $G$ and $H$ be two vertex-disjoint connected graphs with $|V(G)| \geq 4$ and $|V(H)| \geq$ 2. Let $z \in V(H)$ and $v, v_{1}, v_{2} \in V(G)$, where $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(v)=1, \operatorname{deg}_{G}\left(v_{1}\right)=2$, and $\operatorname{deg}_{G}\left(v_{2}\right) \geq 2$, and $v_{1}$ is adjacent to $v$ and $v_{2}$. We have $\mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G ; v_{2}\right) \geq \mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G ; v_{1}\right)$ for all positive $k$. Furthermore, if there exists at least one $k$ such that $\mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G ; v_{2}\right)>\mathrm{M}_{k}\left(G ; v_{1}\right)$, then $\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{1}\right)>E E\left(G_{2}\right)$, where $G_{i}$ is obtained from $G$ and $H$ by identifying $v_{i}$ to $z$, for any given $i \in\{1,2\}$.

Define $F_{2 n}$ to be the tree obtained by attaching a pendent vertex to each vertex of the star $S_{n}$, and $B_{2 n}$ is the tree obtained by merging one end vertex of a $P_{3}$ path with a vertex of degree 2 in $F_{2 n-2}$.

Theorem 15 ([38]). Let $T \in \mathbb{P}_{2 n} \backslash\left\{F_{2 n}, B_{2 n}\right\}$ with $n \geq 5$, then

$$
\operatorname{EE}\left(F_{2 n}\right)>\operatorname{EE}\left(B_{2 n}\right)>\operatorname{EE}(T)
$$

For $n \geq 4$ and $n=2$ the unicyclic graph which has $2 n$ vertices, a perfect matching and maximum Estrada index is [39] obtained by merging a vertex of $C_{3}$ with the branching vertex of $F_{2(n-1)}$.

### 3.3 Trees with fixed diameter

Let $P=P_{d+1}$ be a path with maximum length in a tree $T$ with diameter $d$. It is clear from Lemma 1 that if we replace each branch attached to a vertex in $P$, by a start of the same number of vertices, to get $T^{\prime}$, then we have

$$
\mathrm{M}_{k}(T) \leq \mathrm{M}_{k}\left(T^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { for all } k \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } \mathrm{EE}(T)<\mathrm{EE}\left(T^{\prime}\right) \quad \text { unless } T=T^{\prime}
$$

Zhang et al. [30] further observed that, in the caterpillar $T^{\prime}$, if the star branch furthest from the center of $P$ and has no edges from $P$ is moved to the next branching vertex closer to the center, then each spectral moment will not decrease and the Estrada index increases. After finite steps of such transformation, one will obtain a tree $T^{\prime \prime}$ with only one branching vertex. Combined with Lemma 5 in Section 4, this leads to the following theorem:

Theorem 16. [30] Let $T$ be a $n$-vertex tree with diameter $d$. Define $D(n, d)$ to be the tree obtained by attaching $n-d-1$ pendent leaves to a center vertex of a path with length $d$. Then

$$
\mathrm{M}_{k}(T) \leq \mathrm{M}_{k}(D(n, d)) \quad \text { for all } k \in \mathbb{N} \text { and } \mathrm{EE}(T)<\mathrm{EE}(D(n, d))
$$

unless $T$ is isomorphic to $D(n, d)$.

### 3.4 Trees with segment sequence conditions

A segment of a tree $T$ is a path whose end vertices have degree 1 or at least 3 , and all its internal vertices have degree 2 . In analogy to the degree sequence, the segment sequence of $T$ is the non-increasing sequence of the lengths of its segments. We denote by $S\left(l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{m}\right)$ the $m$-starlike graph where the lengths of the $m$ branches are $l_{1}, l_{2}, \ldots, l_{m}$, respectively. The balanced $m$-starlike with $n$ vertices is denoted by $S T(n, m)$.

The characterisation of the tree with given segment sequence and has maximum EE, can be obtained easily from Lemma 1.

Theorem 17. [25] If $T$ is a tree with segment sequence $\left(l_{1}, \ldots, l_{m}\right)$, then

$$
\mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(S\left(l_{1}, \ldots, l_{m}\right)\right) \geq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}(T)
$$

for any integer $k \geq 0$.
Furthermore, the inequality is strict if $T \neq S\left(l_{1}, \ldots, l_{m}\right)$ and $k \geq 2$. Thus, in this case

$$
\operatorname{EE}\left(S\left(l_{1}, \ldots, l_{m}\right)\right)>\operatorname{EE}(T)
$$

The following majorisation theorem follows from Lemma 2.
Theorem 18. [25] Given two segment sequences $\tau$ and $\tau^{\prime}$ such that $\tau^{\prime} \preccurlyeq \tau$, we have

$$
\mathrm{M}_{2 k}(S(\tau)) \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}\left(S\left(\tau^{\prime}\right)\right)
$$

for every integer $k \geq 0$.
Combining Theorem 17 and Theorem 18, it follows that the balanced starlike $S T(n, m)$ maximizes all even spectral moments and thus the Estrada index among tree with at most $m$ segments.

Corollary 5 (cf. [25,29]). If $T$ is a tree with at most $m$ segments and $n$ vertices or at most $m$ leaves, then

$$
\mathrm{M}_{2 k}(T) \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}(S T(n, m))
$$

for every integer $k \geq 0$, and hence

$$
E E(T) \leq E E(S T(n, m))
$$

The broom is again maximal among trees with bounded length of segments.
Corollary 6 ( [25]). If $T$ is a tree of order $n$ whose longest segment consists of $L$ edges, then

$$
\mathrm{M}_{2 k}(T) \leq \mathrm{M}_{2 k}(B(n, n-L))
$$

for every integer $k \geq 0$, and hence

$$
E E(T) \leq E E(B(n, n-L))
$$

## $3.5 k$-trees

For a given $k \in \mathbb{N}$, a graph is called a $k$-tree if it is the complete graph $K_{k}$ or it can be obtained from a smaller $k$-tree $G$ by adding a new vertex and $k$ edges to join it to a $k$-clique in $G$. A $k$-tree is only a tree if $k=1$. A vertex $v$ of degree $k$ in a $k$-tree $G$, whose neighbours form a $k$-cliques is called a simplicial vertex $G$. The $k$-tree $K_{k}$ has no simplicial vertex. The $k$-tree of order $k+1$ is usually considered to have one simplicial vertex, although each of its $k+1$ vertices satisfies the condition to be a simplicial vertex. Let $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{k}$ be the set of all $k$-tree of order $n$. The $(k ; n)$-star $S_{k, n-k}$ is the only one element of $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{k}$ which has $n-k$ simplicial vertices. Let $u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{n-k}$ be the simplicial vertices of $S_{k, n-k}$, and $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{k}$ the other remaining vertices. Define

$$
S_{k, n-k}^{\prime}=S_{k, n-k}-u_{1} v_{1}+u_{1} u_{2} .
$$

It easy to check that $S_{k, n-k}^{\prime} \in \mathbb{T}_{n}^{k}$. Huang and Wang observed [40] that whenever $T \in \mathbb{T}_{n}^{k}$ has fewer than $n-k$ simplicial vertices, there exists $T^{\prime} \in \mathbb{T}_{n}^{k}$ with more simplicial vertices and larger Estrada index. This helped to find the two elements of $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{k}$ with largest EE.

Theorem 19 ([40]). For any integers $n>k \geq 1$ and $T \in \mathbb{T}_{n}^{k} \backslash\left\{S_{k, n-k}, S_{k, n-k}^{\prime}\right\}$, one has

$$
\operatorname{EE}(T)<\operatorname{EE}\left(S_{k, n-k}^{\prime}\right)<\operatorname{EE}\left(S_{k, n-k}\right)
$$

## 4. Unicyclic, bicyclic and tricyclic graphs

A connected graph $G$ is a $c$-cyclic if $|E(G)|=|V(G)|-1+c$. For $c=1,2,3, G$ is a unicyclic, bicyclic and tricyclic respectively. This section contains bounds of the Estrada index in those classes of graphs, and related results.

In Lemma 1, the graphs $G_{v}$ and $G_{w}$ do not have to be a tree. We can use the lemma for unicyclic graph. Hence, an $n$-vertex unicyclic graph with maximum Estrada index must be a graph obtained by attaching pendent vertices to vertices of a cycle. Let $\mathbb{U}_{n, m}$ be the set of such unicyclic graphs which have $n$ vertices and a cycle of length $m$.

The following exchange lemma by Wang and Xu is useful to the study of graphs which have cycles. In particular, it suggests that there is always a way to transform a graph which has more than one cut vertices to a graph with fewer cut vertices and larger Estrada index.

Lemma 5 ([41]). Let $G, G^{\prime}$ and $G^{\prime \prime}$ be three disjoint connected graphs, $u, v \in V(G), u^{\prime} \in V\left(G^{\prime}\right)$, and $u^{\prime \prime} \in V\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$. Let $G_{1}, G_{2}$ and $G_{3}$ be three graphs constructed from $G, G^{\prime}$ and $G^{\prime \prime}$, where $G_{1}$ is obtained by identifying $u$ with $u^{\prime}$ and $v$ with $u^{\prime \prime}, G_{2}$ by identifying $u$, $u^{\prime}$ with $u^{\prime \prime}$, and $G_{3}$ by identifying $v, u^{\prime}$ with $u^{\prime \prime}$ . Then $\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{2}\right) \geq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{1}\right)$ or $\mathrm{EE}\left(G_{3}\right) \geq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{1}\right)$. Furthermore, suppose that $\min \left\{\left|V\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right|,\left|V\left(G^{\prime}\right)\right|\right\} \geq$ 2, then $\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{2}\right)>\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{1}\right)$ if $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(u) \geq \operatorname{deg}_{G}(v)$ or $\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{3}\right)>\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{1}\right)$ if $\operatorname{deg}_{G}(v) \geq \operatorname{deg}_{G}(u)$.

It is clear from Lemma 5 that an element of $\mathbb{U}_{n, m}$ with maximum EE must have all its pendent vertices attached to one vertex.

A special case of the following theorem appears in [42], it compares unicyclic graphs with different cycle length.

Lemma 6 ([41]). Let $l \geq 5$ be an integer, $u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{l}$ be the consecutive vertices of a cycle $C_{l}$ in a graph $G$. If there exists one vertex (denoted by $u_{l}$ ) in $C_{l}$ of degree 2 and $u_{l-2}$ is not adjacent to $u_{1}$, then there exists another graph $G=G-u_{1} u_{l}+u_{1} u_{l-2}$ with a cycle $C_{l-2}$ such that $\mathrm{EE}(G)>\mathrm{EE}(G)$.

The lemma implies that the $n$-vertex unicyclic graph with maximum EE has to be an element of $\mathbb{U}_{n, 3}$. Bipartite unicyclic graph must have even girth, the corresponding maximal graph must have a cycle of length 4. Theorem 20 is obtained after comparison of the elements of $\mathbb{U}_{n, 3} \cup \mathbb{U}_{n, 4}$.

Let $C_{m}(k)$ be the graph obtained by attaching $k$ pendent vertices to one vertex of $C_{m}$.
Theorem 20 (cf. [42,43]). i) Let $G$ be a bipartite unicyclic graph on $n \geq 6$ vertices which is not $C_{4}(n-4)$ and $C_{4}(n-5,1)$, where $C_{4}(n-5,1)$ is obtained by attaching a pendent vertex to a degree 2 neighbour of the branching vertex of $C_{4}(n-5)$. Then $\mathrm{EE}(G)<\mathrm{EE}\left(C_{4}(n-5,1)\right)<$ $\operatorname{EE}\left(C_{4}(n-4)\right)$.
ii) Let $G$ be an unicyclic graph on $n \geq 3$ vertices. Then

$$
\min \left\{\operatorname{EE}\left(C_{n}\right), \operatorname{EE}\left(C_{n-1}(1)\right)\right\} \leq \operatorname{EE}(G) \leq \operatorname{EE}\left(C_{3}(n-3)\right),
$$

where the first inequality is strict if $G \notin\left\{\operatorname{EE}\left(C_{n}\right), \mathrm{EE}\left(C_{n-1}(1)\right)\right\}$ and equality in the second inequality only occurs if $G=C_{3}(n-3)$.

The first four $n$-vertex bipartite unicyclic with largest EE , for $n \geq 28$, have girth 4 , although some are not in $\mathbb{U}_{n, 4}$, see [44]. The maximality of $C_{4}(n-4)$ and $C_{3}(n-3)$ are also proven in [41], where bicyclic graphs with maximum Estrada index are described. In [43], it is shown that the complements of the two bipartite unicyclic graphs of order $n \geq 6$ with maximum Estrada index have maximum Kirchhoff index among all complements of $n$-vertex bipartite unicyclic graphs. Similar work has been done in [45] for bipartite bicyclic graph of fixed order $n$; for this case the two graphs with maximum EE are

for $n \geq 23$.
Let $B_{4}$ be the only bicyclic graph of order 4 , it is obtained by adding one more edge to $C_{4}$. $E_{n}^{3,3}$ is defined as the graph obtained by attaching $n-4$ pendent vertices to one vertex of degree 3 in $B_{4}$.

Theorem 21 ( [41,46]). Let B be an n-vertex bicyclic graphs. Then

$$
\mathrm{EE}(B) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(E_{n}^{3,3}\right),
$$

where the equality only occurs if the two graphs compared are isomorphic.
The authors of [41] noted that in a graph which does not have an even cycle, no two odd cycles share an edge. This leads to the finding that, for $n \leq m \leq 3(n-1) / 2$, a connected graph of such type, with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges and maximum EE is obtained by merging one vertex from $m-n+1$ triangles and $3 n-3-2 m 2$-vertex paths.

A cactus is a connected graph where no two cycles have a common edge, i.e any two of its cycles have at most one vertex in common. Shan et al. proved weaker versions of Lemmas 5 and 6 and used them to show [47] that the graph obtained by merging one vertex from each of $k$ disjoint triangles and then attaching $n-2 k-1$ pendent vertices to the resulting vertex has maximum Estrada index among all cacti with $n$ vertices and $k$ cycles. The case of cacti graphs with fixed number of cut edges is also discussed in the paper. See also [48] for further use of Lemma 5 to obtain that the 3-uniform linear star $S_{m}^{3}$ with $m$ hyperedges has maximum EE among all 3-uniform linear hypergraphs with $m$ edges, and

$$
\operatorname{EE}\left(S_{m}^{3}\right)=\frac{m}{e}+(m-1) e+e^{(1+\sqrt{8 m+1}) / 2}+e^{(1-\sqrt{8 m+1}) / 2}
$$

Define $T_{n}$, for $4 \leq n \in \mathbb{N}$, to be the graph obtained by attaching $n-4$ pendent vertices to one vertex of the complete graph $K_{4}$, and for $5 \leq n \in \mathbb{N} T_{n}^{\prime}$ is the graph obtained from the star $S_{n}$ by adding three more edges to join one leaf to three other leaves.

Theorem 22 ( [49]). Let $G$ be a tricyclic graph with $n$ vertices.
i) If $4 \leq n \leq 9$, then $\mathrm{EE}(G) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(T_{n}\right)$, with equality only if $G$ and $T_{n}$ are isomorphic.
ii) If $n \geq 10$, then $\mathrm{EE}(G) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(T_{n}^{\prime}\right)$, with equality only if $G$ and $T_{n}^{\prime}$ are isomorphic.

Studies of the case of 3 -cactus graphs, where all cycles are triangles and there is no cut edges, are reported in [50]. Let $\mathbb{H}_{t}$ be the set of all 3 -cactus graphs which have exactly $t$ triangles. $P_{t}^{3}$ is the only element of $\mathbb{H}_{t}$ where no vertex has degree greater than 4 , it is just a string of $t$ triangles. $S_{t}^{3}$ is the only element of $\mathbb{H}_{t}$ where there is a central vertex shared by all $t$ triangles. For $t \geq 3, F_{t}^{3}$ is the element of $\mathbb{H}_{t}$ obtained by attaching a triangle to a vertex of degree 2 in $S_{t-1}^{3}$.

Theorem 23 ( [50]). For any $G \in \mathbb{H}_{t} \backslash\left\{P_{t}^{3}, S_{t}^{3}, F_{t}^{3}\right\}$, one has

$$
4.28757879466(2 t+1)-4.80813993325 \approx \mathrm{EE}\left(P_{t}^{3}\right)<\mathrm{EE}(G) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(F_{t}^{3}\right)<\mathrm{EE}\left(S_{t}^{3}\right)
$$

Moreover, theorems on 3-cactus graphs with similar type as edge grafting can be found in [50], where the branches exchange a triangle instead of just an edge. As an application, the 3-cactus graph with $t$ triangles, maximum degree $\Delta$ and minimum EE is characterised in the same paper.

## 5. Graphs with bounded degree

It is not difficult to deduce

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G)=\mathrm{M}_{0}(G)+\mathrm{M}_{1}(G)+\frac{\mathrm{M}_{2}(G)}{2}+\frac{\mathrm{M}_{3}(G)}{3!}+\sum_{k \geq 4} \frac{\mathrm{M}_{2}(G)}{k!}=n+m+t+\sum_{k \geq 4} \frac{\mathrm{M}_{2}(G)}{k!}
$$

where $t$ is the number of triangles in $G$, and [51]

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{M}_{k}(G) \leq n \Delta^{k-1} \\
& \mathrm{M}_{k}(G) \leq 2 m \Delta^{k-2} \\
& \mathrm{M}_{k}(G) \leq \Delta^{k-3} \sum_{v \in V(G)} \operatorname{deg}^{2}(v) \\
& \mathrm{M}_{k}(G) \leq \Delta^{k-4} 2 \sum_{u v \in E(G)} \operatorname{deg}(u) \operatorname{deg}(v), \\
& \mathrm{M}_{k}(G) \leq \sum_{v \in V(G)} \operatorname{deg}^{k-1}(v)
\end{aligned}
$$

for any integer $k \geq 3$, where $\Delta=\max \{\operatorname{deg}(v): v \in V(G)\}$. These in turn imply bounds for Estrada index:

Theorem 24. [51] If $G$ is an ( $n, m$ )-graph, with exactly $t$ triangles and $\Delta$ maximum degree, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<\frac{n}{\Delta}\left(e^{\Delta}-1\right), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+\frac{2 m}{\Delta^{2}}\left(e^{\Delta}-1-\Delta\right), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+m+\frac{\sum_{v \in V(G)} \operatorname{deg}^{2}(v)}{\Delta^{3}}\left(e^{\Delta}-1-\Delta-\frac{\Delta^{2}}{2}\right), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+m+t+\frac{2 \sum_{u v \in E(G)} \operatorname{deg}(u) \operatorname{deg}(v)}{\Delta^{4}}\left(e^{\Delta}-1-\Delta-\frac{\Delta^{2}}{2}-\frac{\Delta^{3}}{6}\right), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<\sum_{v \in V(G)} \frac{e^{\operatorname{deg}(v)}-1}{\operatorname{deg}(v)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $G$ is bipartite, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+\frac{n}{\Delta}(\cosh (\Delta)-1), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+\frac{2 m}{\Delta^{2}}(\cosh (\Delta)-1), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+m+\frac{\sum_{v \in V(G)} \operatorname{deg}^{2}(v)}{\Delta^{3}}\left(\cosh (\Delta)-1-\frac{\Delta^{2}}{2}\right), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+m+\frac{2 \sum_{u v \in E(G)} \operatorname{deg}(u) \operatorname{deg}(v)}{\Delta^{4}}\left(\cosh (\Delta)-1-\frac{\Delta^{2}}{2}\right), \\
& \mathrm{EE}(G)<n+\sum_{v \in V(G)} \frac{\cosh (\operatorname{deg}(v))-1}{\operatorname{deg}(v)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Bounds for directed graph are also provided in the same paper.

## 6. Random graphs

Let $G_{n}(p)$ denote a random graph obtained from the Erdös-Reényi model, that is to start from $n$ vertices and independently add an edge at probability $p \in(0,1)$ between each pair of vertices. The asymptotic estimate [52]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{EE}\left(G_{n}(p)\right)=e^{n p}\left(e^{O(\sqrt{n})+o(1)}\right) \quad \text { a.s. } \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

is better than the $(n, m)$-type lower bound $\sqrt{n^{2}+4 m}$ and the upper bound $n-1+e^{\mathrm{E}(G) / 2}$ in (8). (12) can be deduced from the asymptotic bounds [53]

$$
\begin{align*}
e^{-(2+o(1)) \sqrt{n p}}\left(e^{(n-1) p}+(n-1) e^{-p}\right) & \leq \operatorname{EE}\left(G_{n}(p)\right) \\
& \leq e^{(2+o(1)) \sqrt{n p}}\left(e^{(n-1) p}+(n-1) e^{-p}\right) \quad \text { a.s. }, \tag{13}
\end{align*}
$$

later found by Shan. (13) is in turn a special case of the bounds [53]

$$
e^{-2(2+o(1)) \sqrt{\Delta}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} e^{\nu_{k}} \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{n}(P(n))\right) \leq e^{-2(2+o(1)) \sqrt{\Delta}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} e^{\nu_{k}} \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

which holds for $\Delta \gg \ln ^{4} n$; where $\Delta$ is the maximum degree in $G_{n}(P(n)), P(n)$ is an $n \times n$ matrix with entries in $[0,1]$ and $G_{n}(P(n))$ is the edge-independent random graph with vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}$ such that the probability to have an edge between $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ is $(P(n))_{i, j}$ for any $1 \leq i, j \leq n$.

Define the $n$-vertex random $m$-partite graph $G=G_{n, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots, \nu_{m}}(p)$ to be such that $V(G)=V_{1} \cup V_{2} \cup$ $\cdots \cup V_{m}$ is a partition of its set of vertices, $\left|V_{i}\right|=n \nu_{i}$ for all $i$, and the probability to have an edge between any $u \in V_{i}$ and $v \in V_{j}$ for any $i \neq j$ is $p$. Applications of the Weyl inequality [8] to adjacency matrices of random graphs leads to asymptotic lower and upper of the Estrada index of $G_{n, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots, \nu_{m}}(p)$.

Theorem 25 ( [52]).

$$
e^{n p\left(1-\max \left\{\nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots, \nu_{m}\right\}\right)}\left(e^{O(\sqrt{n})}+o(1)\right) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{n, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots, \nu_{m}}(p)\right) \leq e^{n p}\left(e^{O(\sqrt{n})}+o(1)\right) \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

A better upper bound than what is in Theorem 25 is known for the case of bipartite graphs.
Theorem 26 ( [54]).

$$
e^{n \nu_{2} p}\left(e^{O(\sqrt{n})}+o(1)\right) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{n, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}}\right) \leq e^{n \nu_{1} p}\left(e^{O(\sqrt{n})}+O(1)\right) \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

provided that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \nu_{2} / \nu_{1} \in(0,1]$.
Theorem 26 is a considerable step toward the proof of the conjecture [52]

$$
\operatorname{EE}\left(G_{n, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}}\right)=e^{\frac{n}{2} p}\left(e^{O(\sqrt{n})}+O(1)\right) \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

Let $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{\Delta}$ be the set of all tree with $n$ vertices each of which has degree at most equal to $\Delta$. We say that almost every tree in $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{\Delta}$ satisfies some given property $Q$ if, assuming that every element of $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{\Delta}$ has the same probability to be picked up, the probability to get an element of $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{\Delta}$ with the property $Q$ tends to 1 as $n$ tend to infinity.

Theorem 27. [55] There exists a constant $\mu_{\Delta}$ such that for any given $\epsilon>0$ almost every element $T$ of $\mathbb{T}_{n}^{\Delta}$ satisfies

$$
\left(\mu_{\Delta}-\epsilon\right) n<\operatorname{EE}(T)<\left(\mu_{\Delta}+\epsilon\right) n
$$

## 7. Graphs with given number of cut vertices or number of cut edges

Say we have a graph $M$ with $n$ vertices $r$ cut edges and maximum EE. Then $M$ must be edge saturated, in the sense that after removing the cut edges from $M$ one obtain a graph whose components are complete graphs. By Lemma 1, all the cut edges have to be pendent. In view of Lemma 5, we know that one can group the pendent vertices to one vertex without reducing the Estrada index.

Theorem 28 ([56]). Let $G$ be a graph with $n$ vertices and $r$ cut edges. Let $G_{n, r}$ be the graph obtained by attaching $r$ pendent vertices to $a$ vertex of the complete graph $K_{n-r}$. Then $\mathrm{EE}(G) \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{n, r}\right)$, with equality only if $G$ and $G_{n, r}$ are isomorphic.

Du, Zhou and Xing continued this research by studying the case of graphs with given number of cut vertices. Let $G$ be an $n$-vertex graph, which has exactly $r$ cut vertices, and maximum Estrada index. Then $G$ has to be edge saturated, in the sense that no more edge can be added to $G$ without reducing its number of cut vertices. Thus $G$ has to be connected, otherwise one can add an edge between two cut vertices from different components or join a cut vertex in one component to all vertices of a component which has no cut vertex; this would increase the Estrada index and keep the number of cut vertices unchanged. Each cut vertex in $G$ is contained in exactly two blocks. Further investigation of the structure of $G$ leads to Theorem 29.

For $0 \leq r \leq n-2$, denote by $G_{n, r}$ the graph which contain a complete graph $K=K_{n-r}$, such that if all the edges of $K$ are removed from $G$ then one obtain $n-r$ path $P_{t_{1}}, P_{t_{2}}, \ldots, P_{t_{n-r}}$, where $\left|t_{i}-t_{j}\right| \leq 1$ for any $i, j$.

Theorem 29 ([57]). Among n-vertex graphs with $r$ cut vertices with $0 \leq r \leq n-2, G_{n, r}$ is the unique graph with maximum Estrada index.

Let $H_{n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}}$ be the graph obtained by adding all possible edges between $K_{n_{1}} \cup K_{n_{2}}$ and $K_{n_{3}}$. By similar reason as above, the graph with $n$ vertex and connectivity $\kappa$ (resp. edge connectivity $\kappa^{\prime}$ ) has to be of the form $H_{n_{1}, n_{2}, \kappa}$ (resp. $H_{n_{1}, n_{2}, \kappa^{\prime}}$ ) for some $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$.

Theorem 30 ([57]). Among $n$-vertex graphs with connectivity $\kappa \leq n-2$ (resp. edge connectivity $\left.\kappa^{\prime} \leq n-2\right), H_{n-\kappa-1,1, \kappa}\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.H_{n-\kappa^{\prime}-1,1, \kappa^{\prime}}\right)$ is the unique tree with maximum Estrada index.

## 8. Generalisations and variations of the Estrada index

As part of the growing literature on the Estrada index, generalisations and variations were attempted.
Recall that if $A=A(G)$ is the adjacency matrix of an $n$-vertex graph

$$
G=\left(\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{n}\right\}, E(G)\right),
$$

and $D=D(G)$ the $n \times n$ diagonal matrix with $D_{i, i}=\operatorname{deg}\left(v_{i}\right)$ for all $i$, then the Laplacian matrix of $G$ is $L=L(G)=D-A$, its signless Laplacian matrix is $L^{+}=L^{+}(G)=D+A$, and its normalized Laplacian matrix $N=N(G)$ is defined by

$$
N_{i, j}= \begin{cases}1 & \text { if } i=j \text { and } \operatorname{deg}\left(v_{i}\right) \neq 0 \\ \frac{-1}{\sqrt{\operatorname{deg}\left(v_{i}\right) \operatorname{deg}\left(v_{j}\right)}} & \text { if }\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \in E(G) \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

For any pair $v_{i}, v_{j} \in V(G), d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ is the length of the shortest path in $G$ which joins $v_{i}$ to $v_{j}$, it is set to be $\infty$ if there is no such path. $d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ is called the distance between $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ in $G$. The distance matrix $M=M(G)$ of $G$ and its Harary matrix $H=H(G)$ are the $n \times n$ matrices defined by $M_{i, j}=d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ and $H_{i, j}=1 / d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ for any $1 \leq i, j \leq n . A, L, L^{+}, N$ and $M$ are all real symmetric matrices, thus their eigenvalues are all real numbers. Throughout this section, $\mu_{1} \geq \mu_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \mu_{n}$ denote
the eigenvalues of $L, \nu_{1} \geq \nu_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \nu_{n}$ those of $L^{+}, \delta_{1} \geq \delta_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \delta_{n}$ are those of $M$ and $\tau_{1} \geq \tau_{2} \geq \ldots \tau \geq \tau_{n}$ those of $N$.

The Laplacian Estrada index of $G$ is defined as [58] LEE $(G)=e^{\mu_{1}}+e^{\mu_{2}}+\cdots+e^{\mu_{n}}$. Analogously, the signless Laplacian Estrada index is [59] $\operatorname{SLEE}(G)=e^{\nu_{1}}+e^{\nu_{2}}+\cdots+e^{\nu_{n}}$ and the distance Estrada index is [60] $\operatorname{LEE}(G)=e^{\delta_{1}}+e^{\delta_{2}}+\cdots+e^{\delta_{n}}$. The Seidel-Estrada index [61], Harary Estrada index [62] and the Randić Estrada index [63] are defined in a similar manner, using the Seidel matrix $S(G)=J_{n}-2 A-I_{n}$, Harary matrix and the Randić matrix respectively, where $J_{n}$ is the $n \times n$ matrix with $\left(J_{n}\right)_{i, j}=1$ for all $i$ and $j$. The resolvent Estrada index is defined [64-66] in terms of the eigenvalues of the resolvent $\left(I_{n}-\frac{1}{n-1} A\right)^{-1}$ and is given by

$$
\mathrm{EE}_{r}(G)=\operatorname{tr}\left(I_{n}-\frac{1}{n-1} A\right)^{-1}=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(1-\frac{\lambda_{i}}{n-1}\right)^{-1}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{M}_{k}(G)}{(n-1)^{k}}
$$

This is one special case of the generalisation of the Estrada index [66] as

$$
\mathrm{EE}(G, c)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_{k} \mathrm{M}_{k}(G)
$$

The normalized Laplacian Estrada index is [67] $\operatorname{NLEE}(G)=e^{\tau_{1}-1}+e^{\tau_{2}-1}+\cdots+e^{\tau_{n}-1}$. See also [68] for the Laplacian Estrada index like, and [69] for a generalisation of the Estrada index to be defined for Hermite matrices.

This section focuses in the Laplacian Estrada index. SLEE and NLEE are treated in another chapter of this book. The reader is referred to [60,70-73] for the distance Estrada index, $[63,74]$ for the Randić Estrada index, $[65,75]$ for the resolvent Estrada index, [61] for the Seidel-Estrada index, and [62,76] for the Harary Estrada index.

## 8.1 ( $n, m$ )-graphs

Arithmetic-Geometric Mean Inequality, estimates of $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i}^{k} /(k!)$ and the relation $\mu_{1} \geq 1+$ $\max \{\operatorname{deg}(v): v \in V(G)\}$ lead to the following ( $n, m$ )-type bounds:

Theorem 31 (cf. [21, 58, 77-79]). For any ( $n, m$ )-graph $G$ one has
i) $\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq n e^{2 m / n}$ with equality if and only if $G$ has no edge,
ii) $\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq 1+(n-1) e^{2 m /(n-1)}$ with equality if and only if $m=0$,
iii) $\sqrt{n(n-1) e^{4 m / n}+n+8 m+2 \mathrm{Zg}(G)} \leq \operatorname{LEE}(G) \leq n-1+e^{2 m}+m-2 m^{2}+\frac{\mathrm{Zg}(G)}{2}$ with equality on both sides if and only if $G$ has no edge,
iv) If $G$ has no isolated vertex, then

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{2 m}{n}\right\rfloor e^{n}+n-\left\lfloor\frac{2 m}{n}\right\rfloor-1+e^{2 m-n\lfloor 2 m / n\rfloor}
$$

with equality if and only if $m \in\left\{\left(n^{2}-n\right) / 2,\left(n^{2}-n\right) / 2-1\right\}$.
v) if $G$ is $r$-regular then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \max \left\{1+\sqrt{n-2+2 n r+4 r-4 r^{2}+e^{-2 r}+(n-1)(n-2) e^{2 r /(n-1)}}\right. \\
& \left.\quad 1+(n-1) e^{n r /(n-1)}\right\} \leq e^{-r} \operatorname{LEE}(G) \leq n-1-r^{2}+\frac{n r}{2}+e^{r}
\end{aligned}
$$

vi) If $\Delta$ is the maximum degree in $G$, then

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq e^{\Delta+1-2 m / n}+(n-2)\left(e^{4 m / n-\Delta-1}\right)^{1 /(n-2)}+e^{-2 m / n}
$$

and

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq e^{-2 m / n}\left(e^{\Delta+1}+e^{4 m /(n-1)-\Delta-1}+(n-3) e^{2 m /(n-1)}+1\right) .
$$

The two lower bounds are sharp, they are reached when $G=K_{n}$ for example.
Note that for an $r$-regular bipartite graph $G$, the relation $e^{-r} \operatorname{LEE}(G)=\operatorname{EE}(G)$ holds. In this case, bounds for LEE can be derived easily from known bounds of EE.

The Nordhaus-Gaddum inequality

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G)+\operatorname{LEE}(\bar{G}) \geq 2+2(n-1) e^{n / 2}
$$

follows directly from Theorem 31 ii). If the number of connected components of $G$ is $c$, then $G$ has $c$ zero eigenvalues, and in the same way as how to obtain Theorem 31 ii ) one also get [21] $\mathrm{LEE}(G) \geq$ $c+(n-c) e^{2 m /(n-c)}$. If furthermore the maximum degree $\Delta$ of $G$ is known, then the bound can be improved [80] to have

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq c+e^{\Delta+1}+(n-c-1) e^{\frac{2 m-\Delta-1}{n-c-1}}
$$

Further useful inequalities are $\mu_{1} \geq 2 m /(n-1)$, and [81]

$$
\left(\frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} a_{i}^{\ell}\right)^{1 / \ell} \leq\left(\frac{1}{p} \sum_{i=1}^{p} a_{i}^{h}\right)^{1 / h}
$$

for non-negative numbers $a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{p}$ and $\ell \leq h$ with $\ell, h \neq 0$. For example, they were used to obtain the next theorem.

Theorem 32 ( [79]). For any ( $n, m$ )-graph $G$ with $n \geq 2$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \max \left\{2+\sqrt{n(n-1) e^{4 m / n}+4-3 n-4 m},\right. \\
& \left.\quad 1+2 m-\sqrt{(n-1)(\operatorname{Zg}(G)+2 m)}+(n-1) e^{\sqrt{(\operatorname{Zg}(G)+2 m) /(n-1)}}\right\} \\
& \leq \operatorname{LEE}(G) \leq e^{\frac{2 m}{n}}\left(n-1-\mathrm{LE}(G)-\frac{\mathrm{LE}^{2}(G)}{2}+\frac{\mathrm{Zg}(G)}{2}+m-\frac{2 m^{2}}{n}+e^{\mathrm{LE}(G)}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\operatorname{LE}(G)=\sum_{i=1} n\left|\mu_{i}-2 m / n\right|$ is the Laplacian energy. Both upper and lower bounds are sharp, they are reached when $m=0$.

Another straightforward lower bound in terms of LE [82]

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq\left(\ell+\ell_{+} e^{\operatorname{LE}(G) /\left(2 \ell_{+}\right)}+\ell_{-} e^{-\operatorname{LE}(G) /\left(2 \ell_{-}\right)}\right) e^{2 m / n}
$$

where $\ell_{+}$(resp. $\ell_{-}$) is the number of positive (resp. negative) eigenvalues of $L(G)$ and $\ell$ its nullity.
Zhou studied [83] the Laplacian spectral moment $t_{k}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \mu^{k}$, and observed that for a graph $G$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$,

$$
t_{k}(G) \geq\left(d_{1}+1\right)^{k}+\left(d_{n}-1\right)^{k}+\sum_{i=2}^{n-1} d_{i}^{k}
$$

for any integer $k \geq 0$, with equality for $k=0,1$ (in which cases $t_{1}(G)=n, t_{2}(G)=d_{1}+d_{2}+\cdots+d_{n}$ ), and the equality occurs for $k \geq 2$ if and only if $G$ is the start $S_{n}$. This leads to the sharp upper bound [83]

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{LEE}(G) & =\sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{t_{k}(G)}{k!} \geq \sum_{k \geq 0} \frac{\left(d_{1}+1\right)^{k}+\left(d_{n}-1\right)^{k}+\sum_{i=2}^{n-1} d_{i}^{k}}{k!} \\
& =e^{d_{1}+1}+e^{d_{n}-1}+\sum_{i=2}^{n-1} e^{d_{i}}
\end{aligned}
$$

for a graph $G$ with at least two vertices. Below are more lower bounds deduced from previously known lower bounds of the Laplacian spectral moments: If $G$ has $n \geq 2$ vertices then [83]

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq n+\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{d_{i}}{1+d_{i}}\left(e^{1+d_{i}}-1\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is a vertex-disjoint union of complete graphs, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq 1+e^{1+d_{1}}+(n-2) e^{\frac{2 m-1-d_{1}}{n-2}} \\
& \operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq 1+e^{1+d_{1}}+(n-2) e^{\left(\frac{s(G) n}{1+d_{1}}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-2}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is $S_{n}$ or $K_{n}$, where $s(G)$ is the number of spanning trees of $G$.

### 8.2 Trees and unicyclic graphs

Recall that the line graph of a graph $G$ is defined by

$$
\mathcal{L}(G)=\left(E(G),\left\{\left\{e, e^{\prime}\right\} \subseteq E(G): e \neq e^{\prime} \text { and } e \cap e^{\prime} \neq \emptyset\right\}\right) .
$$

For any bipartite graph (and thus for any tree) $G$, the following relation holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{LEE}(G)=n-m+e^{2} \cdot \operatorname{EE}(\mathcal{L}(G)) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\mathcal{L}\left(P_{n}\right)=p_{n-1}$ and $\mathcal{L}\left(S_{n}\right)=K_{n-1}$, and for any $n$-vertex tree $T$ the line graph $\mathcal{L}(T)$ is some graph with $n-1$ vertices, the following theorem follows from the fact that $P_{n}$ (resp. $K_{n}$ ) is the connected graph with $n$ vertices and minimum (resp. maximum) EE.

Theorem 33 ( [84]). For any tree $T \in \mathbb{T}_{n} \backslash\left\{P_{n}, S_{n}\right\}$ we have

$$
\operatorname{LEE}\left(P_{n}\right)<\operatorname{LEE}(T)<\operatorname{LEE}\left(S_{n}\right)
$$

Lemma 7 ([84]). Let $v$ be a vertex of degree $d \geq 2$ in a graph $G$. Let $u, v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{d-1}$ be the neighbours of $v$ in $G$. Assume that $\operatorname{deg}\left(v_{i}\right)=1$ for all $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, d-1\}$. Then

$$
\operatorname{LEE}\left(G-v v_{1}-v v_{2}-\cdots-v v_{d-1}+u v_{1}+u v_{2}+\cdots+u v_{d-1}\right) \geq \operatorname{LEE}(G),
$$

where the equality only occurs if $G$ is a star, in which case the two graphs are isomorphic.
It is clear from Lemma 7 that the $n$-vertex tree with second maximum LEE should be a double $S(a, n-a)$ where the only two vertices of degree greater than 1 have degree $a$ and $n-a$, respectively. Further investigation of the Laplacian Estrada index of $S(a, n-a)$ leads to the conclusion [84] that $S(2, n-2)$ is the element of $\mathbb{T}_{n}$ with second maximum Laplacian Estrada index for $n \geq 4$. Du continued the work and obtained Theorem 34. Let $v_{0}, v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}, v_{4}$ be the vertices of $P_{5}$ from one end to the other. Define $P\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, n_{3}\right)$ the tree obtained $P_{5}$ by attaching $n_{i}$ pendent vertices to $v_{i}$ for $i=1,2,3$.

Theorem 34 ( [82]). For any

$$
T \in \mathbb{T}_{n} \backslash\left(\{S(i, n-i): 2 \leq i \leq 4\} \cup\left\{S_{n}, P(0, n-5,0), P(n-5,0,0)\right\}\right)
$$

with $n \geq 8$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\operatorname{LEE}\left(S_{n}\right)>\operatorname{LEE}(S(2, n-2)) & >\operatorname{LEE}(S(3, n-3))>\operatorname{LEE}(P(0, n-5,0)) \\
& >\operatorname{LEE}(P(n-5,0,0))>\operatorname{LEE}(S(4, n-4))>\operatorname{LEE}(T)
\end{aligned}
$$

The double star $S(a, n-a)$ is also proven [82] to be the tree with ( $a, n-a$ )-bipartition with maximum LEE.

LEE obeys an edge grafting theorem (see Theorem 5.1 in [33]), hence the following natural consequences:

Theorem 35 ([33]). i) For any tree $T \in \mathbb{T}_{n}$ with maximum degree $\Delta$, if $T$ is not isomorphic to the broom $B(n, \Delta)$ then $\operatorname{LEE}(T)>\operatorname{LEE}(B(n, \Delta))$.
ii) Let $T \in \mathbb{T}_{n} \backslash\left\{P_{n}, B(n, 3)\right\}$, then $\operatorname{LEE}(T)>\operatorname{LEE}(B(n, 3))$.

In analogy to Theorem 16 and Corollary 5 respectively, $D(n, d)$ is also proven the unique element of $\mathbb{T}_{n}$ with diameter $d$ and maximum LEE, and the balanced starlike tree $S T(n, m)$ is the unique $n$-vertex tree with $m$ leaves and maximum EE. See [33, 85] for more Corollaries related to these, such as the maximal trees with given matching number, independence number or domination number.

The maximal unicyclic graphs with $n \geq 9$ vertices with respect to EE and LEE also coincide:
Theorem 36 ( [86]). For any $n \geq 9$, and any $n$-vertex unicyclic graph $G \neq C_{3}(n-3)$

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G)<\operatorname{LEE}\left(C_{3}(n-3)\right)=e^{n}+e^{3}+(n-3) e+1
$$

See Theorem 2 in [78] and Theorem 2 in [87] for a natural continuation of Theorem36, considering the case of graphs $G$ with $n+1 \leq|E(G)| \leq 2 n-4$.

### 8.3 Miscellaneous

The connected $n$-vertex (not necessary a tree) with matching number $\beta$ and maximum LEE is determined in [88]: it is the complete graph $K_{n}$ if $\beta=\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$, and the $(\beta ; n)$-star $S_{\beta, n-\beta}$ if $1 \leq \beta<\lfloor n / 2\rfloor$, where $\operatorname{LEE}\left(K_{n}\right)=(n-1) e^{n}+1$ and $\operatorname{LEE}\left(S_{\beta, n-\beta}\right)=1+\beta e^{n}+(n-\beta-1) e^{\beta} . S_{\beta, n-\beta}$ is also the unique $n$-vertex graph with independence number $n-\beta$ and maximum LEE, see [85].

If $G$ is not a complete graph, and $G+e$ is obtained by adding one more edge $e$ to $G$, then [89]

$$
\left.\mu_{1}(G+e) \geq \mu_{1} \geq \mu_{( } G+e\right) \geq \mu_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \mu_{n}(G+e) \geq \mu_{n}=0
$$

where the $\mu_{i}(G+e)$ are the Laplacian eigenvalues of $G+e$, and

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i}(G+e)-\sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_{i}=2
$$

These imply the following useful inequality [88]

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G+e)>\operatorname{LEE}(G)
$$

It for instance imply that a graph with given order and connectivity $\kappa$ (or edge connectivity $\kappa^{\prime}$ ) must be edge saturated. Using the notation of Theorem 30, we have [88]

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G)<\operatorname{LEE}\left(H_{n-\kappa-1,1, \kappa}\right)=k e^{n}+(n-k-2) e^{n-1}+e^{k}+1
$$

for any $n$-vertex graph $G \neq H_{n-\kappa-1,1, \kappa}$ with connectivity $\kappa$ or edge connectivity $\kappa$.
For graphs with fixed chromatic numbers, the maximal graphs are complete multipartite. Recall that the Turan graph $T_{n, \chi}$ is the complete multipartite graph $K_{n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{\chi}}$, where $\left|n_{i}-n_{j}\right| \leq 1$ for any $i$ and $j$.

Theorem 37 ([78]). Suppose that $G$ is a graph with $n \geq 8$ vertices and chromatic number $\chi \geq 2$. Then

$$
\begin{gather*}
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \leq(\chi-1) e^{n}+(n-\chi) e^{n-2}+(2 \chi-2) e^{n-1}+1 \quad \text { if } \chi \leq n<2 \chi,  \tag{15}\\
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \leq(\chi-1) e^{n}+2(n-2 \chi) e^{n-3}+(3 \chi-n) e^{n-2}+1 \quad \text { if } 2 \chi \leq n<2 \chi+3, \tag{16}
\end{gather*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \leq(\chi-1)\left(e^{n}+e^{n-2}\right)+(n-2 \chi+1) e^{2 \chi-2}+1 \quad \text { if } n \geq 2 \chi+4 \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Bounds in all three cases are sharp: Equalities in (15) and (16) hold if and only if $G=T_{n, \chi}$, and the equality in (17) holds if and only if $G=K_{n-2 \chi+2,2,2, \ldots, 2}$.

Further results for the case of $2 \leq \chi \leq n$ are reported in [85], where the series of lower bounds below are also obtained. Recall that $G_{1} \vee G_{2}$ is the graph obtained by adding all possible edges between $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$.

Theorem 38. [85] Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n \geq 3$ vertices and $m$ edges.
i) If $G \neq K_{n}$ then

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq 1+e^{\Delta+1}+e^{\delta}+(n-3) e^{\frac{2 m-\Delta-\delta-1}{n-3}}
$$

where $\Delta$ and $\delta$ are respectively the maximum and minimum degree in $G$. The equality holds if and only if $G=2 K_{1} \vee K_{n-2}$ or $G=S_{n}$ or $G=\left(K_{1} \cup K_{n-2}\right) \vee K_{1}$.
If, furthermore, the complement $\bar{G}$ of $G$ is also connected, then the following Nordhaus-Gaddum inequality holds

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G)+\operatorname{LEE}(\bar{G})>e^{\Delta+1}+e^{n-1-\Delta}+e^{\delta}+e^{n-\delta}+2(n-3) e^{n / 2}+2
$$

ii) If $\omega \geq 2$ is the clique number of $G$ and $\Delta$ is the maximum degree, then

$$
\operatorname{LEE}(G) \geq 1+e^{\Delta+1}+(\omega-2) e^{\omega}+(\Delta-\omega+1) e
$$

where the equality holds if $G$ is the graph $K_{\omega}^{n-\omega}$ obtained by attaching $n-\omega$ pendent vertices to one vertex of $K_{\omega}$.
$K_{\omega}^{n-\omega}$ is also proven [87] to be the $n$-vertex graph with exactly $n-\omega$ pendent vertices and maximum LEE.

Theorem 39 ( [90]). Let $G_{n, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots, \nu_{k}}(p)$ be the random multipartite graph as defined in Theorem 25, such that $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \beta_{i} / \beta_{j}=1,1 \leq i, j \leq k$. Then almost surely

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(\frac{2 \sqrt{2 p(1-p)}}{3}-\sqrt{\frac{2 p-p^{2}}{k}}+o(1)\right) n^{3 / 2} & \leq \mathrm{EE}\left(G_{n, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}, \ldots, \nu_{m}}(p)\right) \\
& \leq\left(\sqrt{2 p-p^{2}}\left(1+\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right)+o(1)\right) n^{3 / 2}
\end{aligned}
$$

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# Extremal Trees With Respect to the Atom-Bond Connectivity Index 

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#### Abstract

One of the most current and demanding problems in chemical graph theory is the problem of characterizing trees with minimal atom-bond connectivity index (minimal- $A B C$ trees). Although this problem is still open, there was significant progress in the last several years heading towards its final solution. Here, we give an overview of the related theoretical results as well as an overview of some computational approaches that help us to better understand the structure of the minimal- $A B C$ trees.


## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 53
2 Known structural properties of the minimal-ABC trees ..... 55
3 Computation of the minimal-ABC trees ..... 57
3.1 Brute-force approach ..... 57
3.2 Approach by enumerating degree sequences of trees ..... 58
3.2.1 Enumerating degree sequences of trees based on the Havel-Hakim recursive characterization ..... 58
3.2.2 Enumerating degree sequences of trees based on integer partitioning ..... 60
4 Concluding comments ..... 63

## 1. Introduction

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a simple undirected graph of order $n=|V|$ and size $m=|E|$. For $v \in V(G)$, the degree of $v$, denoted by $d(v)$, is the number of edges incident to $v$. The atom-bond connectivity (ABC) index of $G$ is defined as

$$
\operatorname{ABC}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)} \sqrt{\frac{(d(u)+d(v)-2)}{d(u) d(v)}} .
$$

The ABC index was introduced in 1998 by Estrada, Torres, Rodríguez and Gutman [23], who showed that it can be a valuable predictive tool in the study of the heat of formation in alikeness. Ten years later Estrada [22] elaborated a novel quantum-theory-like justification for this topological index. After that revelation, the interest of ABC -index has grown rapidly. Accordingly, the physico-chemical applicability of the ABC index was confirmed and extended in several studies [4, 10, 15, 32, 36, 42,55].

As a new and well-motivated graph invariant, the ABC index has attracted a lot of interest in the last several years both in the mathematical and chemical research communities. Due to this interest, numerous results, structural properties and few variants of ABC index were established [6-9, 11-14, 17, $21,24-26,28-31,33,35,37,44,45,47,50,52-54,56]$.

In the sequel, we present some additional results and notation that will be used in the rest of the chapter. A vertex of degree one is a pendant vertex. A vertex is big, if its degree is at least 3 and it is not adjacent to a vertex of degree 2 . As in [35], a sequence of vertices of a graph $G, S_{k}=v_{0} v_{1} \ldots v_{k}$, will be called a pendant path if each two consecutive vertices in $S_{k}$ are adjacent in $G, d\left(v_{0}\right)>2, d\left(v_{i}\right)=2$, for $i=1, \ldots k-1$, and $d\left(v_{k}\right)=1$. The length of the pendant path $S_{k}$ is $k$. If $d\left(v_{k}\right)>2$, then $S_{k}$ is an internal path of length $k-1$.

A $B_{1}$-branch is a path of length 2 . A $B_{k}$-branch, $k \geq 2$ is a (sub)graph comprised of vertex $v$ of degree $k+1$ and of $k$ pendant paths of length 2 that all have $v$ as a common vertex. Illustrations of $B_{k}$-branches, $k \geq 1$, as well as of $B_{2}^{*}, B_{3}^{*}, B_{3}^{* *}$-branches are given in Figure 1.


Figure 1. $B_{k}$ and $B_{k}^{*}$-branches, $k \geq 1$.

A $k$-terminal vertex of a rooted tree is a vertex that has at least two children and all its (direct and indirect) children induce $B_{\geq 1}$-branches and maybe one $B_{1}^{*}$-branch. The (sub)tree induced by a $k$ terminal vertex and all its (direct and indirect) children vertices, we denote as a $k$-terminal branch. If the $k$-terminal vertex has at least one child with degree at least 3 , then we say that the $k$-terminal branch is proper. Notice that $B_{k}$-branches are $T_{k}$-branches, but not proper $T_{k}$-branches, and the only proper $T_{k}$-branch in Figure 1 is the $B_{3}^{* *}$-branch.

A sequence $D=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ is graphical if there is a graph whose vertex degrees are $d_{i}, i=$ $1, \ldots, n$. If in addition $d_{1} \geq d_{2} \geq \cdots \geq d_{n}$, then $D$ is a degree sequence.

In [51] Wang defined a greedy tree as follows.
Definition 1.1 ( [51]). Suppose the degrees of the non-leaf vertices are given, the greedy tree is achieved by the following 'greedy algorithm':

1. Label the vertex with the largest degree as $v$ (the root).
2. Label the neighbors of $v$ as $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots$, assign the largest degree available to them such that $d\left(v_{1}\right) \geq d\left(v_{2}\right) \geq \ldots$
3. Label the neighbors of $v_{1}$ (except $v$ ) as $v_{11}, v_{12}, \ldots$ such that they take all the largest degrees available and that $d\left(v_{11}\right) \geq d\left(v_{12}\right) \geq \ldots$ then do the same for $v_{2}, v_{3}, \ldots$
4. Repeat 3. for all newly labeled vertices, always starting with the neighbors of the labeled vertex with largest whose neighbors are not labeled yet.

The rest of the chapter is structured as follows. In Section 2 we give an overview of the theoretical and in Section 3 an overview of the computational results related to the minimal-ABC trees. Concluding remarks are presented in Section 4.

## 2. Known structural properties of the minimal-ABC trees

The fact that adding an edge in a graph strictly increases its ABC index [12] (or equivalently that deleting an edge in a graph strictly decreases its ABC index [7]) has the following two immediate consequences.

Corollary 2.1. Among all connected graphs with $n$ vertices, the complete graph $K_{n}$ has maximal value of $A B C$ index.

Corollary 2.2. Among all connected graphs with $n$ vertices, the graph with minimal ABC index is a tree.
Although it is fairly easy to show that the star graph $S_{n}$ is a tree with maximal ABC index [26], the characterization of trees with minimal ABC index (also refereed as minimal-ABC trees) still remains an open problem, despite the numerous attempts in the last years to come to a conclusion. A thorough overview of some initial known structural properties of the minimal-ABC trees was given in [34].

To determine the minimal-ABC tress of order less than 10 is a trivial task, and those trees are depicted in Figure 2. To simplify the exposition in the rest of the paper, we assume that the trees of interest are of order at least 10 .


Figure 2. Minimal-ABC trees of order $n, 4 \leq n \leq 9$.

In [35], Gutman, Furtula and Ivanović obtained the following results.

Theorem 2.1. The $n$-vertex tree with minimal ABC-index does not contain internal paths of any length $k \geq 1$.

Theorem 2.2. The $n$-vertex tree with minimal $A B C$-index does not contain pendant paths of length $k \geq 4$.

An immediate, but important, consequence of Theorem 2.1 is the next corollary.
Corollary 2.3. Let $T$ be a tree with minimal ABC index. Then the subgraph induced by the vertices of $T$ whose degrees are greater than two is also a tree.

The following result by Gan, Liu and You [29] characterizes the trees with minimal ABC index with prescribed degree sequences. The same result, using slightly different notation and approach, was obtained by Xing and Zhou [52].

Theorem 2.3. Given the degree sequence, the greedy tree minimizes the $A B C$ index.
The next result was obtained in [34]. Alternatively, it can be obtained as a corollary of Theorem 2.3.
Theorem 2.4. If a minimal-ABC tree possesses three mutually adjacent vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, v_{3}$, such that

$$
d\left(v_{1}\right) \geq d\left(v_{2}\right) \geq d\left(v_{3}\right)
$$

then $v_{3}$ must not be adjacent to both $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$.
The following four results give us more precise description of the structure of minimal-ABC trees by excluding some configuration as well as giving us some bounds on the number of $T_{k^{-}}$and $B_{4}$-branches.

Theorem 2.5 ( [17]). A minimal-ABC tree does not contain a $B_{k}$-branch, $k \geq 5$.
Lemma 2.1 ( [17]). A minimal-ABC tree does not contain
(a) a $B_{1}$-branch and a $B_{4}$-branch,
(b) a $B_{2}$-branch and a $B_{4}$-branch,
that have a common parent vertex.
Theorem 2.6 ( [17]). A minimal-ABC tree does not contain more than four $B_{4}$-branches.
Proposition 2.1 ( [18]). A minimal-ABC tree can contain at most one proper $T_{k}$-branch, $k \geq 2$.
Next result is an improvement of Theorem 2.5.
Lemma 2.2 ( [20]). A minimal-ABC tree does not contain $B_{k}$ or $B_{k}^{*}$-branches, $k \geq 4$.
An improvement of Theorem 2.2 is the following result by Lin, Lin, Gao and Wu [45].

Theorem 2.7. Each pendant vertex of an $n$-vertex tree with minimal ABC index belongs to a pendant path of length $k, 2 \leq k \leq 3$.

A further improvement was obtained by the next theorem.
Theorem 2.8 ( [35]). The n-vertex tree with minimal ABC-index contains at most one pendant path of length 3.

The following five results consider the configurations of the minimal- ABC trees that contain a pendent path of length 3 .

Theorem 2.9 ( [20]). Suppose that $T$ is a minimal-ABC tree of order $n>18$. If $T$ contains a pendent path of length 3, then two $B_{2}$-branches cannot be attached to the same vertex in $T$.

Corollary 2.4 ( [20]). Suppose that $T$ is a minimal-ABC tree of order $n>18$. If $T$ contains a pendent path of length 3 , then there are at most two $B_{2}$-branches in $T$.

Theorem 2.8 says that there is at most one pendent path of length 3 in the tree with minimal ABC-index. It was already observed in [40] that the position of the path of length $k \geq 3$ does not have an influence on the value of the ABC index. The following result was strengthened with Theorem 2.12.

Theorem 2.10 ([20]). A minimal-ABC tree of order $n>18$ with a pendent path of length 3 does not contain more than one $B_{2}$-branch.

Theorem 2.11 ( [19]). A minimal-ABC tree of order $n>18$ with a pendent path of length 3 does not contain $B_{1}$-branch ( $B_{1}^{*}$-branch).

Theorem 2.12 ([19]). A minimal-ABC tree of order $n>18$ with a pendent path of length 3 may contain a $B_{2}$-branch if and only if it is of order 161 or 168. Moreover, in this case a minimal-ABC tree is comprised of a single central vertex, $B_{3}$-branches and one $B_{2}$, including a pendent path of length 3 that may belong to a $B_{3}^{*}$-branch or $B_{2}^{*}$-branch.

To the best of our knowledge, the above-mentioned results seem to be the only proven and published properties of the minimal-ABC trees. For complete characterization of the minimal-ABC trees, besides the theoretically proven properties, computer supported search can be of enormous help. Therefore, in the next section we present the existing computational approaches.

## 3. Computation of the minimal-ABC trees

### 3.1 Brute-force approach

A first significant example of using computer search was done by Furtula, Gutman, Ivanović and Vukičević [27], where the trees with minimal ABC index of up to the size of 31 were computed, and an initial conjecture of the general structure of the minimal-ABC trees was set. There, a brute-force approach of
generating all trees of a given order, accelerated by using a distributed computing platform, was applied. The plausible structural computational model and its refined version presented there was based on the main assumption that the minimal ABC tree posseses a single central vertex, or said with other words, it is based on the assumption that the vertices of a minimal ABC tree of degree $\geq 3$ induce a star graph. This assumption was shattered by counterexamples presented in $[1-3,16]$. In this context, it is worth to mention that for a special class of trees, so-called Kragujevac trees, that are comprised of a central vertex and $B_{k}$-branches, $k \geq 1$, the minimal-ABC tress were fully characterized by Hosseini, Ahmadi and Gutman [40].

### 3.2 Approach by enumerating degree sequences of trees

There exist several algorithms for enumerating degree sequences of graphs. A comprehensive source of references of such algorithms can be found in [41]. Clearly, each of those algorithms can be used for enumerating degree sequences of trees just by considering only the degree sequences with sum of degrees equals to $2 n-2$, where $n$ is the length of the degree sequences. However, this is not an efficient approach, because most of the generated degree sequences are not degree sequences of trees. For an illustration, the number of all degree sequences of length 29 is 2022337118015338 [49], while the number of degree sequences that correspond to trees of order 29 is 3010 . Thus, it is not a surprise that the largest reported enumerated degree sequences of graphs was only of length 29 , with running time of 6733 days, distributed to 200 PCs containing about 700 cores [41].

### 3.2.1 Enumerating degree sequences of trees based on the Havel-Hakim recursive characterization

In [16] by considering only the degree sequences of trees and some known structural properties of the trees with minimal ABC index all trees with minimal ABC index of up to size of 300 , within 15 days, were computed. The enumeration of the degree sequences of trees in [16] is related to the enumeration of the degree sequences of graphs by Ruskey et al. [48]. It is based on the Havel-Hakimi's recursive characterization of the degree sequences of grpahs [38,39], and exploits the so called "reverse search", a term originated by Avis and Fukuda [5]. The main result, on which our algorithm is based, is the following characterization of a degree sequence of a tree.

Theorem 3.1. A sequence of integers $D=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \cdots, d_{n}\right)$, with $n-1 \geq d_{1} \geq d_{2} \geq \cdots \geq d_{n-m}>$ $d_{n-m+1}=\cdots=d_{n}=1$, is the degree sequence of a tree if and only if $C=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \cdots, c_{n-d_{n-m}+1}\right)$ is the degree sequence of a tree, where

$$
c_{i}= \begin{cases}d_{i} & i \leq n-m-1 ;  \tag{1}\\ 1 & \text { otherwise } .\end{cases}
$$

Proof. Let $T_{C}$ be a tree with degree sequence $C=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \cdots, c_{n-d_{n-m}+1}\right)$, with $c_{1} \geq c_{2} \geq \cdots \geq$ $c_{n-m-1}>c_{n-m}=\cdots=c_{n-d_{n-m}+1}=1$ and $c_{n-m-1} \geq d_{n-m} \geq 2$, satisfying (1).

To prove the easier direction of the equivalence, just add $d_{n-m}-1$ pendant vertices to a pendant vertex of $T_{C}$, obtaining a tree $T_{D}$. The degree sequence that corresponds to $T_{D}$ is $D=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \cdots, d_{n}\right)$, with $n-1 \geq d_{1} \geq d_{2} \geq \cdots \geq d_{n-m}>d_{n-m+1}=\cdots=d_{n}=1$.

The other direction of the equivalence, we prove as follows. Let $D=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \cdots, d_{n}\right)$, with $n-1 \geq$ $d_{1} \geq d_{2} \geq \cdots \geq d_{n-m}>d_{n-m+1}=\cdots=d_{n}=1$, be a degree sequence of a tree $T_{D}$. Let $v_{n-m}$ be the vertex with degree $d_{n-m}$. If $v_{n-m}$ has $d_{n-m}-1$ pendant vertices, then delete them obtaining the tree $T_{C}$. If this is not a case, i.e., $v_{n-m}$ has $d>1$ adjacent vertices of a degree bigger than one that comprised a set $U=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{d}\right\}$. Let $U_{1}$ be a set of adjacent vertices to $u_{1}$. First, delete all edges between $u_{1}$ and vertices in $U_{1} \backslash\left\{v_{n-m}\right\}$ and add edges between vertices in $U_{1} \backslash\left\{v_{n-m}\right\}$ and a pendant vertex whose distance to $u_{1}$ is bigger than its distance to any other vertex in $U$. Notice that $T_{D}$ has more than $d_{n-m}$ pendant vertices, therefore such pendant vertex must exists. Repeat the same as for $u_{1}$, for the rest of the vertices $u_{2}, u_{3}, \ldots, u_{d}$, considering one vertex per step until $v_{n-m}$ has $d_{n-m}-1$ pendant vertices, obtaining a tree $T_{D}^{\prime}$. Observe that $T_{D}^{\prime}$ has the same degree sequence as $T_{D}$. Finally, in $T_{D}^{\prime}$ delete all $d_{n-m}-1$ pendant vertices adjacent to $v_{n-m}$, obtaining the tree $T_{C}$.

Let $\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{i}}$ be the set of all sequences $D_{i}=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \cdots, d_{i}\right)$, with fixed length $i$, where $1<i \leq n$ and $n-1 \geq d_{1} \geq d_{2} \geq \cdots \geq d_{h_{i}}>d_{h_{i}+1}=\cdots=d_{i}=1$. Notice that, $d_{h_{i}}$ denotes the smallest degree in $D_{i}$ larger than one. Define a function $f_{i}: \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{i}} \times d_{h_{i}} \rightarrow \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{i}-\mathbf{d}_{\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{i}}+\mathbf{1}}} \times d_{h_{i}-1}$ such that for a given $D_{i} \in \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{i}}$, and $C=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \cdots, c_{i-c_{h_{i}}+1}\right)$, it holds that $\left(C, c_{h_{i}-1}\right)=f_{i}\left(D_{i}, d_{h_{i}}\right)$ if

$$
c_{k}= \begin{cases}d_{k} & k \leq h_{i}-1 \\ 1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

By Theorem 3.1 and definition od the function $f_{i}$, we have the following two corollaries.
Corollary 3.1. For $i>0$ and $D_{i} \in \mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{i}}$, the sequence $D_{i} \in \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{i}}$ if and only if $f_{i}\left(D_{i}, d_{h_{i}}\right)=$ $\left(D_{i-d_{h_{i}}+1}, d_{h_{i}-1}\right) \in \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{i}-\mathbf{d}_{\mathbf{h}_{\mathbf{i}}}+\mathbf{1}}$.

Corollary 3.2. Let $C=\left(c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{h_{i}} \ldots, c_{i-z}, c_{i-z+1}\right) \in \mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{i - \mathbf { z } + \mathbf { 1 }}}$, with $c_{h_{i}}$ the smallest degree bigger than 1, and $2 \leq z \leq c_{h_{i}}$. The sequence $D_{i}=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{i}\right) \in f_{i}^{-1}\left(C, c_{h_{i}}\right)$ if and only if

$$
d_{k}= \begin{cases}c_{k} & k \leq h_{i} \\ z & k=h_{i}+1 \\ 1 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

The following example illustrates Corollary 3.2:

$$
f^{-1}(65111111111) \supseteq\{655111111111111,65411111111111,6531111111111,652111111111\}
$$

One may straightforwardly implement Corollary 3.2 using recursion to enumerate degree sequences of trees.

Having all degree sequences of a particular length, it is easy to determine the trees with minimal ABC index. An algorithm of identifying trees with minimal ABC index of order $n$, comprised of three consecutive steps is presented below.
$\qquad$
Algorithm 1 MinABCTrees( $n$ ). Algorithm based on the degree sequences that identifies the minimal-ABC trees.

Input: An order $n$ of a tree
Output: A tree with the minimal ABC index

1. Enumerate the degree sequences based on the Havel-Hakim recursive characterization, satisfying in addition some known properties of the minimal-ABC trees.
2. Find corresponding 'greedy trees' for each generated degree sequence applying Theorem 2.3.
3. Calculate the ABC index of each 'greedy tree' and select the tree with minimal value.

### 3.2.2 Enumerating degree sequences of trees based on integer partitioning

Due to the nature of the recursive relation used in the first step of Algorithm 1, the same degree sequences were generated several times. That disadvantage was improved in [43], where the appropriate degree sequences were enumerated by applying an integer partitioning argument. Together with combing the known properties of the minimal-ABC, the number and the length of the candidate degree sequences was reduced. Thus, in [43], using a similar single computer platform as in [16], all minimal-ABC tree of up to size of 350 within 8 days were identified.

Another advantage of applying integer partitioning for enumeration of the degree sequences is that such enumeration can be easily parallelized. In [46], the above variant of the degree sequences' based algorithm, was implemented with MPI + OpenMP, and minimal-ABC trees of up to size of 400 within 23 hours, on a workstation group with 36 CPU cores, were identified.

Trees of order $n, 7 \leq n \leq 400$, with minimal ABC index obtained by computer search are presented in Figures 3 and 4.

| Case $n \equiv 0$ | $(\bmod 7)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $n=7$ | $n=14$ |

$$
n=21
$$

$$
n=28
$$

$n=161,168$

for $175 \leq n \leq 399$
see the configuration $T_{0}$ in Figure 3

## Case $n \equiv 1 \quad(\bmod 7)$


for $64 \leq n \leq 400$
see the configuration $T_{1}$ in Figure 3

$$
\text { Case } n \equiv 2 \quad(\bmod 7)
$$



Figure 3. Trees of order $n, 7 \leq n \leq 400$, with minimal ABC index obtained by computer search cases $n \equiv 0,1,2(\bmod 7)$.

Case $n \equiv 3 \quad(\bmod 7)$
$n=10$
$n=17$
$n=24$
$n=31$
$38 \leq n \leq 73$

for $80 \leq n \leq 395$ see the configuration $T_{3}$ in Figure 3

$\left\lceil\frac{n}{7}\right\rceil-5$

Case $n \equiv 4 \quad(\bmod 7)$
$n=11 \quad n=18,25,32,39$

$53 \leq n \leq 396$


Case $n \equiv 5 \quad(\bmod 7)$


Case $n \equiv 6 \quad(\bmod 7)$
$n=13$
$n=20$

$n=27,34$
$n=41$
$n=48$

$n=55$

for $62 \leq n \leq 398$ see the configuration $T_{6}$ in Figure 3

Figure 4. Trees of order $n, 7 \leq n \leq 400$, with minimal ABC index obtained by computer search cases $n \equiv 3,4,5,6(\bmod 7)$.


Figure 5. Types of trees with minimal ABC index based on the existing theoretical and computational results.

## 4. Concluding comments

As a consequence of the theoretically proven and computational results, one could modify the conjecture by Gutman and Furtula [33] about the trees with minimal ABC index, with hope that it is a correct one. The newly conjectured structure is depicted in Figure 5. However, note that this structure is computationally supported in the cases when the order of a tree is up to 400 and indeed, it was shown that it does not hold for a larger $n$. In [1] several counterexamples were shown and one of them is given in Figure 6. So, the exciting journey of complete characterization of the minimal-ABC trees continues and we hope that the newly emerging theoretical and computational results will help us to reach the final destination.


Figure 6. Graph $H_{i}, i=0,1, \ldots, 6$ that for enough large $n$ has smaller ABC-index than its corresponding graph $T_{i}$ from Figure 5 , for $i=0,2,3,4,5,6, k=(i+6) \bmod 7$, and $k=7$, for $i=1$.

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# Relations Between the First and Second Zagreb Indices of Graphs 

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#### Abstract

For a graph $G=(V, E)$, the first Zagreb index $M_{1}$ and the second Zagreb index $M_{2}$ are defined as: $M_{1}(G)=\sum_{u \in V(G)}\left(d_{G}(u)\right)^{2}$ and $M_{2}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)} d_{G}(u) d_{G}(v)$, where $d_{G}(u)$ is the degree of vertex $u$ in $G$. In 2007, it was conjectured that for each simple graph $G$ with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges, the inequality $M_{2}(G) / m \geq M_{1}(G) / n$ holds. Although this conjecture does not hold in general, it was the beginning of a long series of studies in which the validity or non-validity of this inequality for various classes of graphs. This chapter concentrates on the above inequality and its generalization. Moreover, the difference between Zagreb indices is discussed.


## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 69
2 Zagreb indices inequality ..... 70
3 Difference of Zagreb indices ..... 74
4 Comparing variable Zagreb indices ..... 77

## 1. Introduction

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected graph with vertex set $|V(G)|=n$ and edge set $|E(G)|=m$. Denote by $d_{G}(u)$, the degree of the vertex $u$ of $G$. A pendant vertex is a vertex of degree one. An edge of a graph is said to be pendant if one of its end vertices is a pendant vertex. For $v \in V(G), N_{G}(v)$ denotes the neighbors of $v$. The maximum and minimum degree of $G$ are denoted by $\Delta$ and $\delta$. The average of the degrees of the vertices adjacent to a vertex $u$ is denoted by $\mu_{G}(u)$. The path, star, cycle, complete graph of order $n$ are denoted by $P_{n}, S_{n}, C_{n}$ and $K_{n}$, respectively. A regular graph is a graph where each vertex has the same degree. A regular graph with vertices of degree $k$ is called a k-regular graph. A cut edge in a graph $G$ is an edge whose removal increases the number of connected components of $G$. The cyclomatic number of a connected graph is equal to $\nu=m-n+1$, i. e., its number of independent
cycles. If $\nu>1$ for a graph $G$ then it is called cyclic graph. If a graph $G$ has $\nu=0, \nu=1$ and $\nu=2$, then it is called tree, unicyclic and bicyclic, respectively.

The classical first Zagreb index $M_{1}$ and second Zagreb index $M_{2}$ of graph $G$ are among the oldest and the most famous topological indices and they are defined as

$$
M_{1}(G)=\sum_{u \in V(G)}\left(d_{G}(u)\right)^{2} \quad \text { and } \quad M_{2}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)} d_{G}(u) d_{G}(v) .
$$

In 1972, the quantities the Zagreb indices were found to occur within certain approximate expressions for the total $\pi$-electron energy [26]. In 1975, these graph invariants were proposed to be measures of branching of the carbonatom skeleton [25]. For details of the mathematical theory and chemical applications of the Zagreb indices, see $[9,16,18,19,23,24,37,39,43,46,55]$ and the references cited therein. The Zagreb indices were independently studied in the mathematical literature under other names [7, $8,10,14,21,22,44,45]$. Zagreb indices have been generalized to variable first and second Zagreb indices in [41], where they defined as

$$
{ }^{\lambda} M_{1}(G)=\sum_{u \in V(G)}\left(d_{G}(u)\right)^{2 \lambda} \quad \text { and } \quad{ }^{\lambda} M_{2}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)}\left(d_{G}(u)\right)^{\lambda}\left(d_{G}(v)\right)^{\lambda}
$$

A natural issue is to compare the values of the Zagreb indices on the same graph. Observe that, for general graphs, the order of magnitude of $M_{1}$ is $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ while the order of magnitude of $M_{2}$ is $O\left(m n^{2}\right)$. This suggests comparing $M_{1}(G) / n$ and $M_{2}(G) / m$ instead of $M_{1}(G)$ and $M_{2}(G)$. Using the AutoGraphiX system, Caporossi and Hansen [11,12] proposed the following conjecture:

Conjecture 1.1. For all simple connected graphs $G$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{M_{2}(G)}{m} \geq \frac{M_{1}(G)}{n} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the bound is tight for complete graphs.
Although this conjecture is disproved for general graphs [27], it was just the beginning of a long series of studies in which the validity or non-validity of (1) was considered for various classes of graphs. This chapter outlines previously established results on the inequality (1) and generalization of Conjecture 1.1 for the variable Zagreb indices.

## 2. Zagreb indices inequality

In 2007, Hansen and Vukičević [27] showed that the Conjecture 1 does not hold in general and it is true for chemical graphs, i.e. for graphs with maximum degree at most four.

Theorem 2.1. [27] Inequality (1) holds for all chemical graphs. Moreover, the bound is tight if and only if all edges $u v$ have the same pair $(d(u), d(v))$ of degrees or if the graph is composed of disjoint stars $S_{5}$ and cycles $C_{p}, C_{q}, \ldots$ of any length.

Although Conjecture 1 is disproved for general graphs, Vukičević and Graovac showed that it is true for all trees.

Theorem 2.2. [52] Let $T$ be a tree with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges. Inequality (1) holds with equality if and only if $T$ is isomorphic to $K_{1, n-1}$.

In [38], Liu proved that Inequality (1) holds for all unicyclic graphs.
Theorem 2.3. [38] Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges. Then Inequality (1) holds with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $C_{n}$.

Sun and Wei [49] showed that Inequality (1) holds for bicyclic graphs except one class and characterized the extremal graph. Moreover, counter-examples of connected bicyclic graphs are constructed from the excluded class. A hook is the unique neighbor of a pendant vertex. Denote the set of hooks of $G$ by $H(G)$. For any vertex $u \in H(G), N_{G}(u)=v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}(k \geq 2)$. Let $\mathbb{A}=\left\{G: d_{G}\left(v_{1}\right)=2, d_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)=\right.$ $1, i=2,3, \ldots, k\}$.

Theorem 2.4. [49] If $G \notin \mathbb{A}$ is a connected bicyclic graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges, then Inequality (1) is obtained with equality holding if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{2,3}$.

Denote by $\mathcal{G}_{\nu}$, the class of connected graphs with cyclomatic number $\nu$. If $\nu \leq 1$, then Conjecture 1 is true all graphs $G$ in $\mathcal{G}_{\nu}$ by Theorem 2.2 and Theorem 2.3. Horoldagva and Lee gave the following result when $\nu \geq 2$.

Theorem 2.5. [34] If $\nu \geq 2$ then there exists a graph $G$ in $\mathcal{G}_{\nu}$ for which Conjecture 1 does not hold.
Alternative and simple proofs of Theorem 2.2-2.4 were given in [4] and [34]. See [2,3,13,27,34, $49,52]$ for various examples of graphs dissatisfying Conjecture 1 . Of course, it is a very natural aim to characterizing the class of graphs for satisfying or dissatisfying inequality (1). Many researchers are still working on this problem and we introduce known results. In the current mathematico-chemical literature, the relation (1) is usually referred to as the Zagreb indices inequality. The subdivision graph of a graph $G$ is obtained by inserting new vertices of degree two on each edge of $G$. If a graph $G$ has $n$ vertices and $m$ edges then clearly the subdivision of $G$ has $n+m$ vertices and $2 m$ edges.

Theorem 2.6. [35] Let $S(G)$ be the subdivision graph of $G$. Then Zagreb indices inequality holds for $S(G)$ with equality if and only if $G$ is a regular graph.

The join, $G_{1} \vee G_{2}$, of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is the graph obtained from $G_{1}+G_{2}$ by adding new edges from each vertex of $G_{1}$ to every vertex of $G_{2}$. Then we have $\left|V\left(G_{1} \vee G_{2}\right)\right|=\left|V\left(G_{1}\right)\right|+\left|V\left(G_{2}\right)\right|$ and $\left|E\left(G_{1} \vee G_{2}\right)\right|=\left|E\left(G_{1}\right)\right|+\left|E\left(G_{2}\right)\right|+\mid V\left(G_{1}| | V\left(G_{2}\right) \mid\right.$.

Theorem 2.7. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of $n$ vertices with $m$ edges. If the Zagreb indices inequality holds for $G$, then it also holds for $G \vee G$.

Theorem 2.8. [15] Let $G$ be a graph of $n$ vertices with $m$ edges. If the Zagreb indices inequality does not hold for $G$, then it holds for $\bar{G}$.

Let $G=(V, E)$ be a simple graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. If we put two similar graphs $G$ side by side, and any vertex of the first graph $G$ is connected by edges with the corresponding vertices of the second graph $G$ and the resultant graph is $\hat{G}$. Then $|V(\hat{G})|=2 n$ and $|E(\hat{G})|=2 m+n$.

Theorem 2.9. [15] If the Zagreb indices inequality holds for $G$, then it also holds for $\hat{G}$.
Let $G=(V, E)$ be a graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. If we take two copies of $G$, and any vertex of the first copy is connected by edges to the vertices that are adjacent to the corresponding vertex of the second copy, the resultant graph is $\tilde{G}$. Then we have $|V(\tilde{G})|=2 n$ and $|E(\tilde{G})|=4 m$

Theorem 2.10. [15] If the Zagreb indices inequality holds for $G$, then it also holds for $\tilde{G}$.
The cartesian product $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ of graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ has the vertex set $V\left(G_{1} \times G_{2}\right)=V\left(G_{1}\right) \times V\left(G_{2}\right)$ and $(u, x)(v, y)$ is an edge of $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ if $u=v$ and $x y \in E\left(G_{2}\right)$, or $u v \in E\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $x=y$.

Theorem 2.11. [31] Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be two graphs with $n_{i}=\left|V\left(G_{i}\right)\right|$ and $m_{i}=\left|E\left(G_{i}\right)\right|, i=1$, 2. If the Zagreb indices inequality holds for $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, then it also holds for $G_{1} \times G_{2}$.

Let $G$ be a graph with vertex set $V$ and edge set $E$. Let $\bar{V}$ be a copy of $V, \bar{V}=\{\bar{x}: x \in V\}$. Then denoted by $G^{\prime}$, is the graph with vertex set $V \cup \bar{V}$ and edge set $E^{\prime}=E \cup\{x \bar{y}: x y \notin E\}$.

Theorem 2.12. [31] Let $G$ be a simple graph of $n$ vertices with $m$ edges. Then the Zagreb indices inequality must hold for $G^{\prime}$.

Let $G_{1}=\left(V_{1}, E_{1}\right)$ and $G_{2}=\left(V_{2}, E_{2}\right)$ be two simple graphs with $n_{i}=\left|V\left(G_{i}\right)\right|$ and $m_{i}=\left|E\left(G_{i}\right)\right|$, $i=1,2$. Then the tensor product $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$ of graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is a graph such that the vertex set of $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$ is the Cartesian product $V\left(G_{1}\right) \times V\left(G_{2}\right)$, and any two vertices $\left(v_{i}^{\prime}, v_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and $\left(v_{p}^{\prime}, v_{q}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ are adjacent in $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$ if and only if $v_{j}^{\prime \prime}$ is adjacent with $v_{q}^{\prime \prime}$ and $v_{i}^{\prime}$ is adjacent with $v_{p}^{\prime}$. Then we have $\left|V\left(G_{1} \otimes G_{2}\right)\right|=n_{1} n_{2}$. Denote by $d_{i, j}, 1 \leq i \leq n_{1}, 1 \leq j \leq n_{2}$, is the degree of the $\left(v_{i}^{\prime}, v_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ vertex of $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$. Then $d_{i, j}=d_{i}^{\prime} \cdot d_{j}^{\prime \prime}$, where $d_{i}^{\prime}$ is the degree of the $v_{i}^{\prime}$ vertex of $G_{1}$ and $d_{j}^{\prime \prime}$ is the degree of the $v_{j}^{\prime \prime}$ vertex of $G_{2}$. Then we have

$$
2\left|E\left(G_{1} \otimes G_{2}\right)\right|=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n_{1}, 1 \leq j \leq n_{2}} d_{i, j}=\sum_{i=1}^{n_{1}} d_{i}^{\prime} \sum_{j=1}^{n_{2}} d_{j}^{\prime \prime}=4 m_{1} m_{2},
$$

that is,

$$
\left|E\left(G_{1} \otimes G_{2}\right)\right|=2 m_{1} m_{2}
$$

Theorem 2.13. [31] If the Zagreb indices inequality holds for $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, then it also holds for $G_{1} \otimes G_{2}$.
Threshold graph is a graph that can be constructed from a one-vertex graph by repeated applications of the following two operations: (i) Addition of a single isolated vertex to the graph. (ii) Addition of a single dominating vertex to the graph, i.e., a single vertex that is connected to all other vertices.

Theorem 2.14. [31] The Zagreb indices inequlaity holds for all threshold graphs.
It was proved in [28] that, if $T$ is not a star, then $n M_{2}(T)-m M_{1}(T) \geq 2(n-3)$. Stevanović and Milanič [48] improved this inequality. A Broom is a graph of order $n$, which have a path $P_{d}$ and $n-d$ pendant vertices, all of these being adjacent to either the origin or the terminus of the path $P_{d}$

Theorem 2.15. [48] Let $T$ be a tree with $n$ vertices, $m=n-1$ edges and maximum degree $\Delta$. If $T$ is not a star, then

$$
n M_{2}(T)-m M_{1}(T) \geq 2(n-3)+(\Delta-1)(\Delta-2)
$$

with equality if and only if $T$ is a broom.
Sun and Chen [50] showed that any graph $G$ with $\Delta(G)-\delta(G) \leq 2$ satisfies Zagreb indices inequality.

Theorem 2.16. [50] If $G$ is a graph with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges and $\Delta(G)-\delta(G) \leq 2$, then the Zagreb indices inequality holds with the equality if and only if all edges $u v$ have the same pair $\left(d_{u}, d_{v}\right)$ of degrees.

Let $D(G)$ be the set of the vertex degrees of $G$. A set $S$ of integers is good if for every graph $G$ with $D(G) \subseteq S$, the Zagreb indices inequality holds. Otherwise, $S$ is a bad set. Thus, any interval of length three is good by Theorem 2.16. One can generalize this result in the following.

Theorem 2.17. [3] Let $s, x \in N$. For every graph $G$ with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges, and $D(G) \subseteq\{x-$ $s, x, x+s\}$, the Zagreb indices inequality holds. i.e., $D \subseteq\{x-s, x, x+s\}$ is good.

Andova at. al. [3] show that there are arbitrarily long intervals [ $a, b$ ] such that a graph with minimal degree at least $a$ and maximum degree at most $b$ satisfies the Zagreb indices inequality.

Theorem 2.18. [3] For every integer $c$, the interval $[c, c+\lceil\sqrt{c}\rceil]$ is good.
Andova at. al. [2] determined when a graph with vertices degrees in the interval $[a, a+n]$, satisfies the Zagreb indices inequality. On the other hand there are graphs that do not satisfy the inequality, even more, there is an infinite family of graphs of maximum degree at least 5 such that the inequality does not hold.

Theorem 2.19. [2] For every positive integer $n$, the interval $[a, a+n]$ is good if and only if $a \geq$ $n(n-1) / 2$ or $[a, a+n]=[1,4]$.

Consider the function

$$
f(i, j, k, l)=(i j-k l)\left(\frac{1}{k}+\frac{1}{l}-\frac{1}{i}-\frac{1}{j}\right) .
$$

Theorem 2.20. [2] If $f(i, j, k, l)<0$ for some positive integers $i, j, k, l \in[a, b]$, then $[a, b]$ is a bad interval.

Easy verification shows that the Zagreb indices equality holds for regular graphs and stars. In [54] it was shown that the Zagreb indices equality holds for the subdivision graph $S(G)$ of $r$-regular graph, union of complete graphs that have same cardinality, union of $p$-complete graph and $q$-cycle graph for $p=3, q \geq 3$, union of $p$-path graph and $q$-path graph for $p=q=2$, and $p=q=3$, union of $p$-cycle graph and complete bipartite graph $K_{a, b}, a \leq b$ only for $p \geq 3, a=b=2$ and $p \geq 3, a=1, b=4$. The graph $G$ is biregular if its vertex degrees assume exactly two distinct values. Distinguish between two types of biregular graphs: biregular graphs of class 1 have the property that no two vertices of the same degree are adjacent. In biregular graphs of class 2 at least one edge connects vertices of equal degree. Abdo, Dimitrov and Gutman [1] studied some class of graphs satisfying the Zagreb indices equality.

Theorem 2.21. [1] There exist infinitely many connected graphs $G$ of maximum degree $\Delta \geq 5$ that are neither regular nor biregular of class 1 that satisfy the Zagreb indices equality.

Theorem 2.22. [1] Let $G$ be a graph with $D(G) \subseteq[a, a+p], a \geq p(p-1) / 2$ or $D(G) \subseteq[1,4]$. Then, $G$ satisfies the Zagreb indices equality if
(a) $G$ is regular graph,
(b) $G$ is biregular graph of class 1 ,
(c) $G$ is disjoint union of $(p-1)(p+1) / 2$-regular graphs and biregular graph of class

1 with degree of vertices $(p-1) p / 2$ and $p(p+1) / 2$, where $p$ is odd, or
(d) $G$ is disjoint union of stars $S_{5}$ and cycles of arbitrary length.

Conjecture 2.1. [1] Let $I$ be an interval such that $I=[a, a+p], a \geq p(p-1) / 2$, or $I=[1,4]$. Then, for any other interval $I_{n} \nsubseteq I$ there exist infinitely many graphs $G$ with $D(G) \subseteq I_{n}$ such that $G$ satisfies the Zagreb indices equality.

## 3. Difference of Zagreb indices

In the previous section we discussed the Zagreb indices inequality, but direct comparisons have been studied only to a limited extent, namely for trees [17, 48] and cyclic graphs [13]. Furtula, Gutman and Ediz [20] studied the difference of the classical first and second Zagreb indices of a graph $G$ and determined a few basic properties of it. In [20], the authors mentioned that an obvious reason why the difference of the two Zagreb indices was not considered is that for structurally similar graphs it may assume negative, zero, or positive values and they gave a characteristic example. For a star $S_{n}$, we have $M_{2}\left(S_{n}\right)-M_{1}\left(S_{n}\right)=1-n$. The following lower bounds on the difference of Zagreb indices were given in [42].

Proposition 3.1. [42] If a connected graph $G$ is not a star, then $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G) \geq-2$.
Proposition 3.2. [42] If $G$ is a connected graph that is neither a tree nor a cycle, then $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G) \geq$ 1.

Furtula et al. [20] showed that the difference of the Zagreb indices is closely related to the vertex-degree-based graph invariant

$$
M R_{2}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)}\left(d_{G}(u)-1\right)\left(d_{G}(v)-1\right)
$$

and determined a few basic properties of $M R_{2}$. They proposed that $R M_{2}$ be called the reduced second Zagreb index. Let $D$ be a positive integer, $D \geq 2$. Let $S_{D+1}$ be the star on $D+1$ vertices, and let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{D}$ be its pendant vertices. For $i=1,2, \ldots, D$, let $r_{i}$ be non-negative integers, labeled so that $r_{1} \geq r_{2} \geq \cdots \geq r_{D}$. Construct the tree $T\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{D}\right)$ by attaching $r_{i}$ pendant vertices to the vertex $v_{i}$ of $S_{D+1}$, and by doing this for $i=1,2, \ldots, D$. The tree $T\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{D}\right)$ has thus $n=1+D+\sum_{i=1}^{D} r_{i}$ vertices. For given values of $D \geq 2$ and $n \geq D+1$, the set of all trees $T\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{D}\right)$ constructed in the above described manner is denoted by $T(n, D)$. Furtula et al. [20] characterized the $n$-vertex trees with maximal $R M_{2}$-values.

Theorem 3.3. [20] Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$.
(i) If $n$ is even, then $R M_{2}(T) \leq \frac{1}{4}(n-2)^{2}$ with equality if and only if $T \in \mathcal{T}(n, n / 2)$.
(ii) If $n$ is odd, then $R M_{2}(T) \leq \frac{1}{4}(n-1)(n-3)$ with equality if and only if $T \in \mathcal{T}(n,\lceil n / 2\rceil) \cup$ $\mathcal{T}(n,\lfloor n / 2\rfloor)$.

Wang and Yuan [56] studied the maximum $M_{2}-M_{1}$ for trees of given order and also considered the maximum $M_{1}-M_{2}$. From Proposition 3.1 and Theorem 3.3, the following result follows.

Theorem 3.4. $[20,28,56]$ If $T$ is a tree of order $n$, then

$$
1-n \leq M_{2}(T)-M_{1}(T) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n-2}{2}\right\rfloor\left\lceil\frac{n-2}{2}\right\rceil+1-n .
$$

Equality on the left-hand side holds if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$. Equality on the right-hand side holds if and only if $T \in \mathcal{T}(n, n / 2)$ for even $n$ and $T \in \mathcal{T}(n,\lceil n / 2\rceil) \cup \mathcal{T}(n,\lfloor n / 2\rfloor)$ for odd $n$.

Theorem 3.5. [56] Among all trees with diameter at least 3 , the path achieves the maximum $M_{1}-M_{2}=$ 2.

Theorem 3.6. [56] If there is an edge $u v$ with $d_{T}(u), d_{T}(v) \geq 3$ in a tree $T$, and neither $u$ or $v$ is adjacent to a pendant vertex, then $M_{1}(T)-M_{2}(T)<0$.

If $G$ is a unicyclic graph different from $C_{n}$ then $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G) \geq 1$ by Proposition 3.1. Lower bounds on $M_{2}-M_{1}$ for unicyclic graphs in terms of cycle length and maximum degree were established in [32]. Denote $\mathcal{S}=\left\{S\left(m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{k}\right) \mid m_{i-1}=m_{i+1}=0\right.$ for $m_{i} \neq 0,2 \leq i \leq k$, where $m_{k+1}=$ $\left.m_{1}\right\}$.

Theorem 3.7. [32] Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph with cycle length $k$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G) \geq \sum_{u \in V(C(G))} d_{G}(u)-2 k \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \in \mathcal{S}$.

Let $B_{n}^{k}(k \leq n)$ be the unicyclic graph with $n-k$ pendant vertices and its each pendant vertex is adjacent to one vertex of $C_{k}$. In particular, $B_{n}^{n}=C_{n}$, a cycle of order $n$. Denote by $C_{n, \Delta}^{k}(\Delta \geq 4)$, a unicyclic graph obtained by identifying two pendant vertices of the path $P_{n-\Delta-k+2}$ with the center of star $K_{1, \Delta-1}$ and one vertex of cycle $C_{k}$, respectively. Denote $\mathcal{C}_{\Delta}=\left\{C_{n, \Delta}^{k} \mid 3 \leq k \leq n-\Delta-1\right\}$.

Theorem 3.8. [32] Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n$ with maximum degree $\Delta$. Then

$$
M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G) \geq \begin{cases}\Delta-2 & \text { if } d=0  \tag{3}\\ \Delta & \text { if } d=1 \\ 2 & \text { if } d>1\end{cases}
$$

where $d$ is the length of the shortest path from the maximum degree vertex $u$ to the cycle $C(G)$. The equalities hold in (3) if and only if $G \cong B_{n}^{k}, G \cong C_{n, \Delta}^{k}, \Delta+k=n$, and $G \in \mathcal{C}_{\Delta}$, respectively.

Let $N$ be positive integer, $N \geq 2 . K_{N}$ be a complete graph of order $N$, and let $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{N}$ be its vertices. For $i=1,2, \ldots, N$, let $r_{i}$ be non-negative integers, labeled so that $r_{1} \geq r_{2} \geq \cdots \geq r_{N}$. Construct the graph $G\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{N}\right)$ by attaching $r_{i}$ pendant vertices to the vertex $v_{i}$ of $K_{N}$. The graph $G\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{N}\right)$ has thus $n=N+\sum_{i=1}^{N} r_{i}$ vertices. For nonnegative integers $n$ and $k$ with $0 \leq k<n-1$, denote by $\mathcal{G}_{n}^{k}$ the set of connected cyclic graphs of order $n$ with $k$ cut edges. The graphs having maximum and minimum reduced second Zagreb index in $\mathcal{G}_{n}^{k}$ were studied in [29].

Theorem 3.9. [29] Let $G$ be a graph in $\mathcal{G}_{n}^{k}$. If $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G)$ or $R M_{2}(G)$ is maximum then $G \cong$ $G\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, \ldots, r_{n-k}\right)$, where $\left|r_{p}-r_{q}\right| \leq 1$ for $1 \leq p, q \leq n-k$.

We denote by $\mathcal{A}_{n}^{2}$, a class of unicyclic graphs of order $n$ obtained by attaching two pendant edges to the two non-adjacent vertices of the cycle $C_{n-2}$.

Theorem 3.10. [29] Let $G$ be a graph in $\mathcal{G}_{n}^{k}$. Also let $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G)$ or $R M_{2}(G)$ be minimum.
(i) If $k=0$, then $G \cong C_{n}$.
(ii) If $k=1$, then $G \cong B_{n}^{n-1}$.
(iii) If $k=2$, then $G \cong C_{n, 2}^{n-1}, G \cong B_{n}^{n-2}$, or $G \in \mathcal{A}_{n}^{2}$
(iv) If $k \geq 3$, then $G \in \mathcal{U}_{n}^{n-k}$.

Corollary 3.1. [29] Let $G$ be a cyclic graph. Then
(i) $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G)=0$ if and only if $G \cong C_{n}$.
(ii) $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G)=1$ if and only if $G \cong B_{n}^{n-1}$.
(iii) $M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G)=2$ if and only if $G \cong C_{n, 2}^{n-1}, G \cong B_{n}^{n-2}, G \in \mathcal{A}_{n}^{2}$ or $G \in \mathcal{U}_{n}^{n-k}$.

Theorem 3.11. [13] Let $G$ be a simple connected graph with $\nu$ independent cycles, $n \geq 5(\nu-1)$ vertices, $m=n+\nu-1$ edges, Zagreb indices $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$. Then,

$$
M_{2}-M_{1} \geq 6(\nu-1)=6(m-n) .
$$

Moreover, the bound is tight and is attained if and only if $G$ is a graph with vertices of degree 2 and 3 only and the vertices of degree 3 form an independent set.

Theorem 3.12. [13] Let $G$ be a simple and connected graph with $n$ vertices, $m(\geq n)$ edges and Zagreb indices $M_{1}$ and $M_{2}$. Then,

$$
M_{2}-M_{1} \geq 11(\nu-1)-n=11 m-12 n .
$$

Moreover, the bound is tight and is attained if $G$ is a graph with vertices of degree 2 and 3 only and, when $n \leq 5(\nu-1)$, no pair of vertices of degree 2 are adjacent.

Given $n$ and $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{d}(d \geq 2)$ are positive integers such that $1+\sum_{i=1}^{d} n_{i} \leq n$ and $1 \leq$ $n_{1} \leq n_{2} \leq \cdots \leq n_{d}$. Denote by $\mathbb{T}_{n}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{d}\right)$, the set of trees $T$ of order $n$ with a vertex $v$ and adjacent vertices of $v$ have degrees $n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{d}$, and each connected component of $T-v$ is star or broom with origin $w, v w \in E(T)$. Let $\Gamma$ be a class of graphs $H=(V, E)$ of order $n$ such that $H \not \equiv$ $\left\{C_{n}, P_{n}, K_{1, n-1}, T(1,1,3), T(1,1,1,3)\right\}$ and $H \notin\left\{B_{n}, \mathbb{T}_{n}(1,2,2), \mathbb{T}_{n}(2,2,2), \mathbb{T}_{n}(1,2,3)\right.$, $\left.\mathbb{T}_{n}(1,1,2,2), \mathbb{T}_{n}^{*}\right\}$. Furtula, Gutman and Ediz [20] mentioned a problem to characterize the graphs for which $M_{1}(G)>M_{2}(G)$ or $M_{1}(G)<M_{2}(G)$ or $M_{1}(G)=M_{2}(G)$. Horoldagva, Das and Selenge [33] completely solved this problem.

Theorem 3.13. [33] Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 3$. Then
(i) $M_{1}(G)=M_{2}(G)$ if and only if $G \cong C_{n}$ or $G \cong T(1,1,1,3)$ or $G \in\left\{\mathbb{T}_{n}(2,2,2), \mathbb{T}_{n}(1,2,3)\right.$, $\left.\mathbb{T}_{n}(1,1,2,2), \mathbb{T}_{n}^{*}\right\}$.
(ii) $M_{1}(G)>M_{2}(G)$ if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$ or $G \cong P_{n}$ or $G \cong T(1,1,3)$ or $G \in B_{n}$ or $G \in \mathbb{T}_{n}(1,2,2)$.
(iii) $M_{1}(G)<M_{2}(G)$ if and only if $G \in \Gamma$.

## 4. Comparing variable Zagreb indices

Vukičević and Graovac pointed out that inequality (1) can be generalized to the variable Zagreb indices, namely for which $\lambda$ it holds that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{{ }^{\lambda} M_{1}(G)}{n} \leq \frac{{ }^{\lambda} M_{2}(G)}{m} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda$ is any real number. Inequality (4) is known as generalized Zagreb indices inequality.
Vukičević [51] proved that inequality (4) holds for all graphs $G$ and $\lambda \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$. Later, Andova and Petruevski [5] gave a complete proof using Karamata's inequality.

Theorem 4.1. [5,51] Inequality (4) holds for all graphs and for all $\lambda \in\left[0, \frac{1}{2}\right]$.
We know from the previous section that the Zagreb indices inequality holds for chemical graphs, trees, unicyclic graphs and graphs with small difference between the maximum and minimum vertex degrees. The generalized Zagreb indices inequality also holds for these mentioned class of graphs when $\lambda \in[0,1]$.

Theorem 4.2. [51] Inequality (4) holds for all chemical graphs and all $\lambda \in[0,1]$.

Theorem 4.3. [53] Inequality (4) holds for all trees and all $\lambda \in[0,1]$.
Theorem 4.4. [30] Inequality (4) holds for all unicyclic graphs and for all $\lambda \in[0,1]$.
Theorem 4.5. [40] Inequality (4) holds for all graphs with $\Delta-\delta \leq 2$ and for all $\lambda \in[0,1]$.
Theorem 4.6. [40] Inequality (4) holds for all graphs with $\Delta-\delta \leq 3(\delta \neq 2)$ and for all $\lambda \in[0,1]$.
If $\lambda>1$, then two examples where given in [57] for unicyclic graphs such that ${ }^{\lambda} M_{1}(G) / n>^{\lambda}$ $M_{2}(G) / m$ and ${ }^{\lambda} M_{1}(G) / n<^{\lambda} M_{2}(G) / m$. Huang at. al. [36] proved that opposite inequality of (4) holds for all $\lambda \in(-\infty, 0)$ and all graphs $G$.

Theorem 4.7. [36] Let $G$ be a graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges. Then ${ }^{\lambda} M_{1}(G) / n \geq^{\lambda} M_{2}(G) / m$ holds for all $\lambda \in(-\infty, 0)$. Moreover, equality holds if and only if $G$ is a regular graph.

Vukičević [51] characterized some class of graphs and intervals in which inequality (4) does not hold and proposed an open problem: Identify $\lambda \in(1 / 2, \sqrt{2} / 2]$ such that ${ }^{\lambda} M_{1}(G) / n>^{\lambda} M_{2}(G) / m$ for all graphs $G$.

Theorem 4.8. [51] If $\lambda \in R \backslash[0,1)$ then inequality (4) does not hold for all complete unbalanced bipartite graphs.

Theorem 4.9. [51] Let $\lambda \in(\sqrt{2} / 2,1)$. Then there is a graph such that inequality (4) does not hold.
Bogoev [6] gave a complete answer to Vukičević's open problem.
Theorem 4.10. [6] For all graphs $G$ and $\lambda \in(1 / 2, \sqrt{2} / 2]$, inequality (4) holds.
The difference of the variable Zagreb indices for cyclic graphs were studied in [47]. Let $\Gamma$ be a class of graphs $H=(V, E)$ in $\mathcal{G}_{\nu}$ such that $2 \leq d_{i} \leq 3$ (there exists a vertex $v_{k}$ in $H$ such that $d_{k}=3$ ) for all $v_{i} \in V(H)$ and the set of vertices of degree three is an independent set in $H$.

Theorem 4.11. [47] Let $G$ be a graph in $\mathcal{G}_{\nu}$ and $\lambda \in(0,1]$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
{ }^{\lambda} M_{2}(G)-{ }^{\lambda} M_{1}(G) \geq(\nu-1)\left(3^{\lambda+1} 2^{\lambda+1}-2 \cdot 3^{2 \lambda}-3 \cdot 2^{2 \lambda}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong C_{n}$ or $G \in \Gamma$.

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# Inequalities between Kirchhoff Index and Laplacian-Energy-Like Invariant 

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## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 83
2 Graphs with $K f$ larger than $L E L$ ..... 84
3 Graphs with $K f$ smaller than $L E L$ ..... 85
4 Graph operations on $K f$ and $L E L$ ..... 87
5 Comparison of $K f$ and $L E L$ of special graphs ..... 89

## 1. Introduction

Let $G$ be a simple graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges. The cyclomatic number of $G$ is $c=m-n+1$. For example, if $c=0$ then a connected graph $G$ is called a tree. If $c=1,2,3,4$, then $G$ is said to be a unicyclic, bicyclic, tricyclic, and tetracyclic graph, respectively. Let $d_{i}$ be the degree of a vertex $v_{i}$ in $G$. The maximum and minimum vertex degrees in $G$ are denoted by $\Delta$ and $\delta$, respectively. A chemical graph is a connected graph with the maximum vertex degree at most 4. The Laplacian matrix of $G$ is defined as $L=D-A$, where $A$ is the adjacency matrix of $G$ and $D=\operatorname{diag}\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ is the diagonal matrix of vertex degrees. The Laplacian spectrum of $G$ is the spectrum of its Laplacian matrix, and consists of the values $\mu_{1} \geq \mu_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \mu_{n}$.

In 1993, Klein and Randić [7] introduced the resistance distance, based on the electrical network theory. The Kirchhoff index [3] is defined as $K f(G)=\sum_{i<j} r_{i j}$, where $r_{i j}$ is the resistance distance between vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$. For a connected graph $G$ with $n \geq 2$ vertices, it has been proven [5,14] that

$$
K f(G)=n \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\mu_{i}}
$$

For results on the Kirchhoff index, we only cite recent works [2, 8, 11, 13].
The Laplacian-energy-like invariant [10] of $G$, denoted by $L E L(G)$, has recently been defined as

$$
L E L(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sqrt{\mu_{i}} .
$$

There are several works about this graph invariant (see [9] and the references therein).
Motivated by [4], in which two sufficient conditions are established for $K f(G)<L E L(G)$ and nine graphs with $K f(G)<L E L(G)$ are detected, there are some works on this topic.

This survey outlines results on the comparison between Kirchhoff index and Laplacian-energy-like invariant of graphs. This chapter consists of five sections, followed by detailed list of references on the comparison of Kirchhoff index and Laplacian-energy-like invariant. Section 2 is devoted to some graphs with $K f$ larger than $L E L$. The results on $K f$ smaller than $L E L$ are presented in Section 3. In Section 4, we consider some graph operations on $K f$ and $L E L$. In the last section, comparisons between the two invariants of some special graphs are given.

## 2. Graphs with $K f$ larger than $L E L$

Theorem 2.1 [4]. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges and minimum degree $\delta$. If $2 m \leq(n-1) n^{2 / 3}+\delta$, then $K f(G)>L E L(G)$.
Corollary 2.2 [4]. Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$. Then $K f(T)>L E L(T)$ for $n>2$.
Corollary 2.3 [4]. Let $U$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n$. Then $K f(U)>L E L(U)$ for $n \geq 4$.
Corollary 2.4 [4]. Let $B$ be a bicyclic graph of order $n$. Then $\operatorname{Kf}(B)>L E L(B)$ for $n \geq 5$.
Theorem 2.5 [4]. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with $m$ edges. If $2 m \leq(n-1) n^{2 / 3}$, then $K f(G)>L E L(G)$.

The kite $K i_{n, \omega}$ is the graph of order $n$, obtained by attaching a pendent path on $n-\omega$ vertices to a vertex of the complete graph of order $\omega$. Let $\Gamma_{n, k}$ be the class of graphs of order $n$ obtained by attaching a pendent path on $n-k$ vertices to a vertex of a connected graph of order $k$. Obviously, $K i_{n, k} \in \Gamma_{n, k}$.
Theorem 2.6 [4]. Let $G \in \Gamma_{n, k}$ with $k \geq 4$ and $n-k \geq 1$. If $k^{3}<\left(\frac{3 n}{8}-2\right)^{2}(n-k)^{2}$, then $K f(G)>L E L(G)$.
Corollary 2.7 [4]. Let $G \in \Gamma_{n, k}$ with $k \geq 4$ and $n-k \geq 2$. If $k<\frac{n}{2}$ and $n \geq 12$, then $K f(G)>$ $L E L(G)$.
Corollary 2.8 [4]. Let $G \in \Gamma_{n, k}$ with $k \geq 4$ and $n-k \geq 2$. If $k<\frac{2 n}{3}$ and $n \geq 20$, then $K f(G)>$ $L E L(G)$.

## 3. Graphs with $K f$ smaller than $L E L$

In [4], an open problem is proposed:
Problem 3.1 [4]. Is it possible to find a constant $c$ (which may depend on the number of vertices and maximum vertex degree $\Delta$ ), such that for any connected graph $G$ with $m \geq c$ edges,
$K f(G)<L E L(G)$ ?
Theorems 2.1 and 2.5 immediately imply:
Corollary 3.2 [1]. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$. Let $\delta$ be the smallest degree of a vertex of $G$. If $K f(G)<L E L(G)$, then $G$ must have more than $\frac{1}{2}\left[(n-2) n^{2 / 3}+\delta\right]$ edges.
Corollary 3.3 [1]. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order n. If $K f(G)<L E L(G)$, then $G$ must have more than $\frac{1}{2}(n-1) n^{2 / 3}$ edges.

In [1], a weakened variant of Corollary 3.2 was obtained:
Corollary 3.4 [1]. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order n. If $K f(G)<L E L(G)$, then $G$ must have more than $\frac{1}{2}\left[(n-2) n^{2 / 3}+1\right]$ edges.
Remark 3.5 [1]. By combining Corollaries 3.3 and 3.4, if the relation $K f(G)<L E L(G)$ is obeyed, then the graph $G$ must possess more than $\frac{1}{2} \min \left\{(n-1) n^{2 / 3},(n-2) n^{2 / 3}+1\right\}$ edges. It is easy to show that $(n-2) n^{2 / 3}+1<(n-1) n^{2 / 3}$ holds for $n \geq 3$.

By using Remark 3.5, the following theorem is attained:
Theorem 3.6[1]. Let $\mathcal{G}(\dagger)$ be the set of connected graphs with cyclomatic number c. For any fixed value of $c$, the number of elements of $\mathcal{G}(\dagger)$ for which $K f<L E L$ holds is finite.
Remark 3.7 [1]. For $c=0,1,2,3,4$, connected graphs for which the Kirchhoff index is smaller than the Laplacian-energy-like invariant can possess at most 3, 5, 5, 6, and 7 vertices, respectively.
Remark 3.8 [4]. For $G \cong K_{n}, K f(G)=n-1<(n-1) \sqrt{n}=L E L(G)$.
Corollary 3.9 [4]. The only tree for which $K f(T)<L E L(T)$ holds is $K_{2}$.
Corollary 3.10 [4]. The only unicyclic graph for which $K F(G)<L E L(G)$ holds is $K_{3}$.
Corollary 3.11 [4]. The only bicyclic graph for which $\operatorname{Kf}(G)<L E L(G)$ holds is $K_{4}-e$.
Corollary 3.12 [1]. The only tricyclic graphs for which $\operatorname{Kf}(G)<L E L(G)$ holds are $G \cong H_{1}-H_{4}$, depicted in Fig. 1.
Corollary 3.13 [1]. The only tetracyclic graphs for which $K f(G)<L E L(G)$ holds are $G \cong H_{5}-H_{8}$, depicted in Fig. 1.
Remark 3.14 [1]. There are 2, 20, and 132 connected tetracyclic graphs with 5, 6, and 7 vertices, respectively. Among the 7 -vertex species, no one satisfies the inequality $K f<L E L$.

The union of simple graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is the graph $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ with vertex set $V\left(G_{1}\right) \cup V\left(G_{2}\right)$ and edge set $E\left(G_{1}\right) \cup E\left(G_{2}\right)$. Let $G_{1} \vee G_{2}$ be the graph obtained from $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ by connecting all vertices of $G_{1}$ to all vertices of $G_{2}$.


Figure 1. The tricyclic and tetracyclic graphs with $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.

Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
G_{1}(n) & =K_{n-2} \vee\left(2 K_{1}\right) \\
G_{2}(n) & =K_{n-4} \vee C_{4} \\
G_{3}(n) & =K_{n-3} \vee\left(K_{1} \cup K_{2}\right) \\
G_{4}(n) & =K_{n-6} \vee\left(C_{4} \vee 2 K_{1}\right) \\
G_{5}(n) & =K_{n-5} \vee\left(\left(K_{2} \cup K_{1}\right) \vee 2 K_{1}\right) \\
G_{6}(n) & =K_{n-4} \vee P_{4} \\
G_{7}(n) & =K_{n-3} \vee\left(3 K_{1}\right) \\
G_{8}(n) & =K_{n-4} \vee\left(K_{1} \cup K_{3}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \overline{G_{1}(n)} \\
& \overline{G_{2}(n)}
\end{aligned}=K_{2} \cup(n-2) K_{2} \cup(n-4) K_{1} .
$$

Theorem 3.15 [4]. For any graph $G \in\left\{K_{n}, G_{1}(n), \ldots, G_{8}(n)\right\}$, the inequality $K f(G)<L E L(G)$ holds.

Denote by $\bar{G}$ the complement of $G$. Let $\overline{G^{*}(n)}$ be the graph depicted in Fig. 2.


Figure 2. The graph $\overline{G^{*}(n)}$.

Theorem 3.16 [6]. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n \geq 7$ vertices. If $\bar{G}$ is a spanning subgraph of $\overline{G^{*}(n)}$, then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.
Theorem 3.17 [12]. Let $G$ be a connected graph with algebraic connectivity $\mu_{n-1} \geq k$ and let $m$ be the number of edges and $\Delta$ the maximum degree of $G$. If

$$
2 m>\frac{k(\sqrt{n}+\sqrt{k})}{k+\sqrt{n}+\sqrt{k}}\left(\frac{(n+k)(n-1)}{k}-\frac{(n-1) \sqrt{k(\Delta+1)}}{\sqrt{n}+\sqrt{k}}\right)
$$

then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.
The following corollary provides a partial answer to Problem 3.1:
Corollary 3.18 [12]. Let $G$ be a connected graph $G$ with algebraic connectivity $\mu_{n-1} \geq 1$. Let $m$ be the number of edges and $\Delta$ the maximum degree of $G$. If

$$
2 m>\frac{\sqrt{n}+1}{\sqrt{n}+2}\left(n^{2}-1-\frac{(n-1) \sqrt{\Delta+1}}{\sqrt{n}+1}\right)
$$

then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.
Corollary 3.19 [12]. Let $T$ be a tree and $\bar{T}$ its complement. If the order of $T$ is $n \geq 7$ and $\Delta(T) \leq n-2$, then $K(\bar{T})<L E L(\bar{T})$.
Corollary 3.20 [12]. Let $U$ be a unicyclic graph and $\bar{U}$ its complement. If the order of $U$ is $n \geq 14$ and $\Delta(U) \leq n-2$, then $K f(\bar{U})<L E L(\bar{U})$.
Corollary 3.21 [12]. Let $B$ be a bicyclic graph and $\bar{B}$ its complement. If the order of $B$ is $n \geq 15$ and $\Delta(B) \leq n-2$, then $K f(\bar{B})<L E L(\bar{B})$.
Corollary 3.22 [12]. Let TC be a tricyclic graph and $\overline{T C}$ its complement. If the order of TC is $n \geq 16$ and $\Delta(T C) \leq n-2$, then $K f(\overline{T C})<L E L(\overline{T C})$.
Corollary 3.23 [12]. Let $Q C$ be tetracyclic graph and $\overline{Q C}$ its complement. If the order of $Q C$ is $n \geq 17$ and $\Delta(Q C) \leq n-2$, then $K f(\overline{Q C})<L E L(\overline{Q C})$.

## 4. Graph operations on $K f$ and $L E L$

Theorem 4.1 [1]. Let $G$ be a connected graph and $e$ its edge, such that $G-e$ is also connected. If $K f(G)>L E L(G)$, then $K f(G-e)>L E L(G-e)$ holds.
Corollary 4.2 [1]. If $K f(G)>L E L(G)$ and if $e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{t}$ are edges of $G$, such that $G-e_{1}-e_{2}-$ $\cdots-e_{t}$ is connected, then $K f\left(G-e_{1}-e_{2}-\cdots-e_{t}\right)>\operatorname{LEL}\left(G-e_{1}-e_{2}-\cdots-e_{t}\right)$.

Similar to Theorem 4.1, in [1] it was obtained:
Theorem 4.3 [1]. Let $G+e$ be the graph obtained by adding a new edge to the connected graph $G$. If $K f(G)<L E L(G)$, then $K f(G+e)<L E L(G+e)$ holds.

Corollary 4.4 [1]. If $G$ is a connected graph of order $n$ with cyclomatic number $c \geq 0$, such that $K f(G)<L E L(G)$, then we can construct a connected graph $G^{\dagger}$ of order $n$, with cyclomatic number $c^{\dagger}, c<c^{\dagger} \leq \frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{2}$, such that $K f\left(G^{\dagger}\right)<L E L\left(G^{\dagger}\right)$.
Corollary 4.5 [1]. If $n \geq 4$, then $K f\left(K_{n}-e\right)<L E L\left(K_{n}-e\right)$.
The product of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is the graph $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ whose vertex set is the Cartesian product $V\left(G_{1}\right) \times$ $V\left(G_{2}\right)$. Suppose that $v_{1}, v_{2} \in V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $u_{1}, u_{2} \in V\left(G_{2}\right)$. Then $\left(v_{1}, u_{1}\right)$ and $\left(v_{2}, u_{2}\right)$ are adjacent in $G_{1} \times G_{2}$ if and only if one of the following conditions is satisfied: (i) $v_{1}=v_{2}$ and $\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}\right\} \in E\left(G_{2}\right)$, or (ii) $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}\right\} \in E\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $u_{1}=u_{2}$.

Let $H_{n}=K_{p} \times K_{2}$. Then $n=2 p$.
Theorem 4.6 [1]. Let $G$ be a graph of order $n \geq 8$ ( $n$ is even ) and let $H_{n}$ be a subgraph of $G$. Then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.
Remark 4.7 [1]. In particular, $H_{4}=C_{4}, K f\left(C_{4}\right)>L E L\left(C_{4}\right)$, and $K f\left(H_{6}\right)>L E L\left(H_{6}\right)$.
Let $H_{n}^{\prime}$ be the graph of order $n(n=2 p+1)$ obtained from $H_{n}$ in such a way that $H_{n}^{\prime}=\overline{\overline{H_{n}} \cup K_{1}}$, where $H_{n}=K_{p} \times K_{2}$.
Theorem 4.8 [1]. Let $G$ be a graph of order $n \geq 5$ ( $n$ is odd $)$ and let $H_{n}^{\prime}$ be a subgraph of $G$. Then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.

Next results are related to the complement of a graph.
Theorem 4.9 [12]. If $G$ is a graph for which $\mu_{1}<n-n^{2 / 3}$, then $K f(\bar{G})<L E L(\bar{G})$.
The line graph of $G$, denoted by $\ell(G)$, is the graph whose vertices correspond to the edges of $G$, with two vertices of $\ell(G)$ being adjacent if and only if the corresponding edges of $G$ share a common vertex.
Remark 4.10 [12]. Let $t_{1}$ be the maximum vertex degree of the line graph $\mathcal{L}(G)$. By the proof the Theorem 4.9, if $t_{1}<n-n^{2 / 3}-2$, then $K f(\bar{G})<L E L(\bar{G})$.
Corollary 4.11 [12]. If $G \in \Gamma_{n, k}$ with $k \geq 4$ and $n-k \geq n^{2 / 3}+2$. Then $K f(\bar{G})<L E L(\bar{G})$.
Corollary 4.12 [12]. Let $G \nsubseteq K_{n}$ be an r-regular graph with $n$ vertices. If $r<\frac{\left(n-n^{2 / 3}\right)}{2}$, then $K f(\bar{G})<$ $L E L(\bar{G})$. If $r>\frac{n+n^{2 / 3}-2}{2}$, then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.

Let $K K_{n}^{j}$ be the graph obtained from two copies of complete graphs $K_{n}$, by joining a vertex of one copy with $j, 1 \leq j \leq n$, vertices of the other copy [12].
Theorem 4.13 [12]. For $j \geq \frac{n}{4}$, let $K K_{n}^{j}$ be a spanning subgraph of the graph of $G$. Then $K f(G)<$ $L E L(G)$ for $n \geq 22$.
Remark $4.14[12]$. If $G$ is a graph of order $n,(n \equiv 0(\bmod 8))$ having two cliques of order $\frac{n}{2}$ each, such that there are at least $\frac{n}{8}$ edges between a vertex in one of the cliques and $\frac{n}{8}$ vertices of the other clique, then for $n \geq 44, K f(G)<L E L(G)$.
Theorem 4.15 [12]. If $\overline{K K_{n}^{j}}$ is a spanning subgraph of a graph $G$ with $2 n$ vertices, then $K f(G)<$ $L E L(G)$ for $n \geq 7$.
Theorem 4.16 [12]. For $p \geq 4$, let $K_{p} \vee \overline{K_{r}}, 1 \leq r \leq p$, be a spanning subgraph of a graph $G$ of order $n=p+r$. Then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$.
Theorem 4.17 [12]. If $K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ is a spanning subgraph of a graph $G$ of order $n$, then $K f(G)<L E L(G)$ for all $n \geq 5$.

Similar to Theorem 3.15, the following is an analogous condition on the graph complement.

Theorem 4.18 [12]. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n$ vertices, with largest Laplacian eigenvalue $\mu_{1} \leq \frac{n}{2}$ and algebraic connectivity $\mu_{n-1} \geq k$. If

$$
2 m<\frac{(\Delta+1)(n-\Delta-1)(n(n-1)+(n-1) \sqrt{k(n-k)})}{n(\sqrt{n-k}+\sqrt{k})+(\Delta+1)(n-\Delta-1)}
$$

then $K f(\bar{G})<L E L(\bar{G})$.
Corollary 4.19 [12]. Let $T$ be a tree on $n \geq 41$ vertices with largest Laplacian eigenvalue $\mu_{1} \leq \frac{n}{2}$ and algebraic connectivity $\mu_{n-1} \geq 0.1$. Then $K f(\bar{T})<L E L(\bar{T})$.

## 5. Comparison of $K f$ and $L E L$ of special graphs

Theorem 5.1 [6]. Let $G$ be a chemical graph with $n$ vertices. Then $K f(G)>L E L(G)$ except the graphs $H_{i}(i=1, \ldots, 41)$ in Figs. 3-7.


Figure 3. Chemical graphs with $n=8$ vertices, $\delta=\Delta=4$ and $K f<L E L$.


Figure 4. Chemical graphs with degree sequences $(4,4,4,3,3,3,3)$ and $(4,4,4,4,4,3,3)$.

$H_{16}$

$H_{17}$

$H_{18}$

Figure 5. Chemical graphs with degree sequence ( $4,4,4,4,4,4,2$ ).


Figure 6. Chemical graphs with $n=6$ vertices and $K f<L E L$.


Figure 7. Chemical graphs with $n \leq 5$ vertices and $K f<L E L$.

Theorem 5.2 [6]. Let $G$ be a connected $r$-regular graph with $n$ vertices. If $r \leq\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right) n^{2 / 3}$, then $L E L(G)<K f(G)$.
Remark 5.3 [6]. For an $r$-regular graph with $r=n^{2 / 3}$, let $r=4=8^{2 / 3}=n^{2 / 3}$. It is easy to see that there exist graphs with $L E L(G)>K f(G)$.

Theorem 5.4 [6]. Let $G$ be an $r$-regular graph with $r \leq\left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right) n^{2 / 3}$. Then $L E L(\ell(G))<K f(\ell(G))$, where $\ell(G)$ is the line graph of $G$.

The independence number of a graphs $G$, denoted by $\alpha$, is the number of vertices in the largest independent set of $G$.

Let $\overline{C S}(n, n-\alpha):=K_{\alpha} \cup(n-\alpha) K_{1}$.
Theorem 5.5 [6]. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n$ vertices and independence number $\alpha$. If $\alpha>$ $n-\sqrt{n}$, then $L E L(G)<K f(G)$ holds except for the graphs in Fig. 8.


Figure 8. Graphs with independence number $\alpha \geq n-\sqrt{n}$ and $K f<L E L$.

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# Bounds for the Kirchhoff and degree Kirchhoff indices 

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## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 93
2 Lower bounds for the Kirchhoff index ..... 95
3 Upper bounds for the Kirchhoff index ..... 106
4 Lower bounds for the degree Kirchhoff index ..... 109
5 Upper bounds for the degree Kirchhoff index ..... 113

## 1. Introduction

Let $G=(V, E), V=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}, E=\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \ldots, e_{m}\right\}$, be a simple connected graph of order $n \geq 2$ and size $m$. If vertices $i$ and $j$ are adjacent, we denote it by $i \sim j$. Further, let $d_{1} \geq d_{2} \geq \cdots \geq d_{n}>0$, $\Delta=d_{1}, \Delta_{2}=d_{2}, \delta=d_{n}$, be a sequence of vertex degrees, A the adjacency matrix of $G$, and $\mathbf{D}=$ $\operatorname{diag}\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ the diagonal matrix of vertex degrees. Matrix $\mathbf{L}=\mathbf{D}-\mathbf{A}$ is the Laplacian matrix of $G$. Eigenvalues of $\mathbf{L}, \mu_{1} \geq \mu_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \mu_{n-1}>\mu_{n}=0$, are the Laplacian eigenvalues of graph $G$. Some well known properties of the Laplacian eigenvalues of graph are (see for example [5] and [13]):

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mu_{i}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}=2 m \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \mu_{i}^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2}+\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}=M_{1}+2 m
$$

where

$$
M_{1}=\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{2}=\sum_{i \sim j}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{m}\left(d\left(e_{i}\right)+2\right),
$$

is the first Zagreb index [30]. In the same paper (see also [24, 25, 34, 35]) the second Zagreb index, $M_{2}$, and so called forgotten Zagreb index, F, were defined as follows

$$
M_{2}=M_{2}(G)=\sum_{i \sim j} d_{i} d_{j} \quad \text { and } \quad F=F(G)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}^{3}
$$

Matrix $\mathbf{L}^{*}=\mathbf{D}^{-1 / 2} \mathbf{L} \mathbf{D}^{-1 / 2}=\mathbf{I}-\mathbf{D}^{-1 / 2} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{D}^{-1 / 2}$ is the normalized Laplacian matrix of $G$. Its eigenvalues, $\rho_{1} \geq \rho_{2} \geq \cdots \geq \rho_{n-1}>\rho_{n}=0$, represent normalized Laplacian eigenvalues of $G$. The following is valid for $\rho_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$, (see [13]):

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \rho_{i}=n \quad \text { and } \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \rho_{i}^{2}=n+2 R_{-1}
$$

where

$$
R_{-1}=\sum_{i \sim j} \frac{1}{d_{i} d_{j}}
$$

is the general Randić index (also called branching index) introduced in [71].
In 1993 [41] a new distance function, named resistance distance, based on the theory of electrical networks was introduced. A graph $G$ was viewed as an electrical network $N$ obtained by replacing each edge of $G$ with a unit resistor. The resistance distance between the vertices $i$ and $j$ of the graph $G$, denoted by $r_{i j}$, is then defined to be the effective resistance between the nodes $i$ and $j$ in $N$. Similar to the long recognized shortest-path distance, the resistance distance is also intrinsic to the graph, not only with some nice purely mathematical properties, but also with a substantial potential for chemical applications.

The Wiener index is the sum of ordinary distances between all pairs of vertices of a (connected) graph; for details and further references see [76]. The Kirchhoff index is defined in analogy to the Wiener index as $[6,41]$ :

$$
K f(G)=\sum_{i<j} r_{i j}
$$

A long time known result for the Kirchhoff index is [29]:

$$
K f(G)=n \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\mu_{i}}
$$

In 2007, a closely related graph invariant, named degree Kirchhoff index, was put forward in [12]. It is defined as

$$
K f^{*}(G)=\sum_{i<j} d_{i} d_{j} r_{i j}
$$

In analogy with the Kirchhoff index, the degree Kirchhoff index can also be represented as [12]

$$
K f^{*}(G)=2 m \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{\rho_{i}}
$$

The graph invariants $K f$ and $K f^{*}$ are currently much studied in the mathematical and mathematicochemical literature. In this chapter we give a survey on the bounds for the Kirchhoff and degree Kirchhoff indices. We say that a bound, either of Kirchhoff or degree Kirchhoff index, belongs to a class $I(\alpha)$ if it depends on parameters from the set $\alpha$. We consider bounds involving either of the following parameters: a number of vertices, $n$, a number of edges, $m$, vertex degrees, $d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}$, the first Zagreb index, $M_{1}$, general Randić index, $R_{-1}$, number of spanning trees of a graph, $t=\frac{1}{n} \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \mu_{i}=\frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}}{2 m} \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \rho_{i}$.

We will give mutual comparison of the bounds only if they belong to the same class. Before we proceed with the survey, we give exact values of the Kirchhoff and degree Kirchhoff indices for some special classes of graphs.

For the complete graph $K_{n}$, complete bipartite graph $K_{r, n-r}, 1 \leq r \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, and cycle $C_{n}$, the following equalities are, respectively, valid:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
K f\left(K_{n}\right)=n-1, & K f^{*}\left(K_{n}\right)=(n-1)^{3}, \\
K f\left(K_{r, n-r}\right)=(n-1)\left(\frac{r}{n-r}+\frac{n-r}{r}\right)-1, & K f^{*}\left(K_{r, n-r}\right)=r(n-r)(2 n-3), \\
K f\left(C_{n}\right)=\frac{n^{3}-n}{12}, & K f^{*}\left(C_{n}\right)=\frac{n^{3}-n}{3} .
\end{array}
$$

In a special case when $r=1$ a star graph $K_{1, n-1}$ is obtained, and

$$
K f\left(K_{1, n-1}\right)=(n-1)^{2}, \quad K f^{*}\left(K_{1, n-1}\right)=(n-1)(2 n-3) .
$$

For the complete bipartite graphs where $r=\frac{n}{2}, n$ is even, we have

$$
K f\left(K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}\right)=2 n-3, \quad K f^{*}\left(K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}\right)=\frac{n^{2}}{4}(2 n-3)
$$

For the path $P_{n}$, holds

$$
K f\left(P_{n}\right)=\frac{n^{3}-n}{6}
$$

Let $G=K_{n}-e$ be a graph obtained after removing an edge from the complete graph $K_{n}$, and $G=K_{n-1}+e$ a graph obtained after adding a vertex to the complete graph $K_{n-1}$ and edge that connects that vertex to an arbitrary vertex from $K_{n-1}$. The values of Kirchhoff index for these graphs are [17,42]:

$$
K f\left(K_{n}-e\right)=n-2+\frac{n}{n-2} \quad \text { and } \quad K f\left(K_{n-1}+e\right)=2 n-1-\frac{2}{n-1}
$$

In [60] (see also [64]) a class of $d$-regular graphs $\Gamma_{d}, 1 \leq d \leq n-1$, was defined as follows. Let $N(i)$ be a set of all neighborhoods of the vertex $i$, i.e. $N(i)=\{k \mid k \in V, k \sim i\}$, and $d(i, j)$ the distance between vertices $i$ and $j$. Denote by $\Gamma_{d}$ a set of all $d$-regular graphs, $1 \leq d \leq n-1$, with the properties that diameter is $D=2$ and $|N(i) \cap N(j)|=d$. For any $G_{d} \in \Gamma_{d}$ holds

$$
K f\left(G_{d}\right)=\frac{n(n-1)-d}{d} \quad \text { and } \quad K f^{*}\left(G_{d}\right)=d(n(n-1)-d)
$$

The rest of the chapter is organized as follows. In Sections 2 and 3 we provide an overview of lower and upper bounds of the Kirchhoff index, respectively. Sections 4 and 5 are devoted to lower and upper bounds of the degree Kirchhoff index. Open problems are pointed out at various places.

## 2. Lower bounds for the Kirchhoff index

The following Chebyshev-type inequality [58,59] plays an important role in determining lower bounds of the Kirchhoff index:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=k_{1}}^{n-k_{2}} p_{i} \sum_{i=k_{1}}^{n-k_{2}} p_{i} a_{i} b_{i} \geq \sum_{i=k_{1}}^{n-k_{2}} p_{i} a_{i} \sum_{i=k_{1}}^{n-k_{2}} p_{i} b_{i} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $1 \leq k_{1} \leq n-k_{2}, 0 \leq k_{2} \leq n-1, a=\left(a_{i}\right)$ and $b=\left(b_{i}\right)$ are non-negative real sequences of the same monotonicity, and $p=\left(p_{i}\right)$ are positive real numbers. Equality holds if and only if either of the sequences $a=\left(a_{i}\right)$ or $b=\left(b_{i}\right)$ is constant.

Now we list lower bounds for $K f(G)$ in various classes obtained using (1).

- For $k_{1}=1, k_{2}=1, p_{i}=\mu_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{\mu_{i}}, i=1,2, \ldots, n-1$, from (1) we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{2 m} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This inequality, proved in [78] (see also [57]), sets up a lower bound for the $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m)$.

Since $2 m \leq n \Delta$, from (2) follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{(n-1)^{2}}{\Delta} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This bound, reported in [86] (see also [64]), belongs to the class $I(n, \Delta)$. In the special case, for $d$-regular graphs, $1 \leq d \leq n-1$, from (3) follows [66]

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{(n-1)^{2}}{d} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
In [79] the following lower bound for $K f(G)$ that belongs to the class $I(n, \delta)$ was obtained

$$
K f(G) \geq n-1+\frac{n}{\delta}-\frac{\delta+1}{n-1}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
The lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n)$ obtained in [49], (see also [60,81]) has the following form

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq K f\left(K_{n}\right)=n-1 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

This is the best possible bound for the $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n)$. Let us note that inequality (5) can be easily obtained from (2) and inequalities $2 m \leq n(n-1)$, or (3) and $\Delta \leq n-1$.

Since for the planar graphs hold $m \leq 3(n-2)$, from (2) follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{6(n-2)} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{3}$ or $G \cong K_{4}$ (see [78]). This represents a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n)$ for planar graphs.
The graphs $G_{p}, 2 \leq p \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, obtained by removing $p$ edges from a complete graph $K_{n}$, were considered in [75]. It was proved that

$$
K f\left(G_{p}\right) \geq n-1+\frac{2 p}{n-2}
$$

with equality if and only if $G_{p} \cong K_{n}-p K_{2}$.
In [41] it was proved that for every tree $T$ holds

$$
W(T) \geq W\left(K_{1, n-1}\right)
$$

where $W=W(G)$ is a Wiener index. Since for any tree $W(T)=K f(T)$, it means that the lower bound for $K f(T)$ in the class $I(n)$ is obtained as well, i.e. that

$$
K f(T) \geq(n-1)^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $T \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
Since the inequality $2 m \leq n(n-1)$ holds if and only if

$$
n \geq \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{8 m+1}+1)
$$

from (5) we get

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{1}{2}(\sqrt{8 m+1}-1)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This is the best possible lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(m)$.

- For $k_{1}=2, k_{2}=1, p_{i}=\mu_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{\mu_{i}}, i=2,3, \ldots, n-1$, from (1) the following inequality is obtained

$$
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{\mu_{1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\mu_{1}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $\mu_{2}=\mu_{3}=\cdots=\mu_{n-1}$, i.e. if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$ (see $[47,84,85]$ ).

- For $k_{1}=1, k_{2}=2, p_{i}=\mu_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{\mu_{i}}, i=1,2, \ldots, n-2$, from (1) follows

$$
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{\mu_{n-1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\mu_{n-1}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $\mu_{1}=\mu_{2}=\cdots=\mu_{n-2}$, i.e. if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{n}-e$. Accordingly, we have that

$$
K f(G) \geq n \max \left\{\frac{1}{\mu_{1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\mu_{1}}, \frac{1}{\mu_{n-1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\mu_{n-1}}\right\}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$, or $G \cong K_{n}-e$.
Consider the function (see [18])

$$
f(x)=\frac{1}{x}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-x} .
$$

It is monotone increasing when $x \geq \frac{2 m}{n-1}$, monotone decreasing when $\frac{2 m}{n-1} \geq x$, and has a minimum for $x=\frac{2 m}{n-1}$. This means that for any $k, \mu_{1} \geq k \geq \frac{2 m}{n-1}$ holds

$$
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{\mu_{1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\mu_{1}}\right) \geq\left(\frac{1}{k}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-k}\right) \geq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{2 m}
$$

and for any $k, \frac{2 m}{n-1} \geq k \geq \mu_{n-1}$,

$$
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{\mu_{n-1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\mu_{n-1}}\right) \geq\left(\frac{1}{k}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-k}\right) \geq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{2 m}
$$

Consequently, for any $k, \mu_{1} \geq k \geq \mu_{n-1}$, holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{k}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-k}\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=n$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or $k=n$ and $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $k=n$ and $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$, or $k=n-2$ and $G \cong K_{n}-e$.
The inequality (7) determines a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, k), \mu_{1} \geq k \geq \mu_{n-1}$. The obtained bound is very good since the inequality (7) is strong and is reached for various types of graphs.

Having in mind that for connected graphs hold $\mu_{1} \geq 1+\Delta$ (see [36]), it is easy to show that

$$
\mu_{1} \geq 1+\Delta \geq \frac{M_{1}}{2 m}+1 \geq \frac{2 m}{n}+1 \geq \frac{2 m}{n-1} \geq \mu_{n-1}
$$

For $k=\frac{2 m}{n-1}$, from (7) the inequality (2) is obtained.
For $k=\frac{2 m}{n}+1$, from (7) follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n^{2}\left(\frac{1}{2 m+n}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m(n-1)-n}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This inequality establishes a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m)$. It is better than the one given by (2).

For $k=\frac{M_{1}}{2 m}+1$, from (7) the following is obtained

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq 2 m n\left(\frac{1}{M_{1}+2 m}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{4 m^{2}-M_{1}-2 m}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. On the other hand, in [16] it was proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{2 m n(n-1)(n-2)}{4 m^{2}-M_{1}-2 m} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. Both (9) and (10) set up a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, M_{1}\right)$. However, bound (10) is better than (9).
Since $M_{1} \geq \frac{4 m^{2}}{n}$ (see [20]), from (10) follows

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n^{2}(n-1)(n-2)}{2 m(n-1)-n}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This inequality is stronger than (2).

For $k=1+\Delta$ from (7) the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{1+\Delta}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-1}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

is obtained [84] (see also [85]). Equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$. In [60] (see also [83, 84]) the following lower bound for $K f(G)$ was determined

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n-1+\frac{n(n-1)-2 m}{\Delta} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, for even $n$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.
Lower bounds (11) and (12) belong to the same class $I(n, m, \Delta)$, but are not comparable and, hence, none of them is the best possible in the class.
From (11) it follows that for regular graphs of degree $d, 1 \leq d \leq n-1$, hold

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{1+d}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n d-d-1}\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ (see [2] and [66]).
In [11] (see also [17]) the following lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, \Delta, \delta)$ was derived

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{1+\Delta}+\frac{1}{\delta}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-\delta-1}\right) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $G \neq K_{n}$. Equality holds if and only if either $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{n}-e$, or $G \cong K_{n-1}+e$. Since $1+\Delta \leq n$ from (14), follows (see [17])

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{n}+\frac{1}{\delta}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-\delta-1}\right) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if either $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{n}-e$, or $G \cong K_{n-1}+e$. When $G \neq K_{n}$, the inequality (14) is stronger than (15). In [16] the following lower bound for the Kirchhoff index in the class $I\left(n, m, \Delta, \Delta_{2}, \delta\right)$ was determined

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n}{1+\Delta}+\frac{n}{2 m-\Delta-1}\left((n-2)^{2}+\frac{\left(\Delta_{2}-\delta\right)^{2}}{\Delta_{2} \delta}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
In [54] the following inequality was proved

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n-1-\Delta}{\Delta}+\frac{(n-1)}{2 m-\Delta}\left((n-1)^{2}+\left(\sqrt{\frac{\Delta_{2}}{\delta}}-\sqrt{\frac{\delta}{\Delta_{2}}}\right)^{2}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$. Although the previous two inequalities belong to the same class, they are not comparable.

In [46] (see also [1]) a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, \Delta, \Delta_{2}\right)$ was obtained as a special case of one more general result. It was proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{1+\Delta}+\frac{1}{\Delta_{2}}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-\Delta_{2}-1}\right) \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

when $d_{n-2} \geq d_{n-1}+\delta-1$. Equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$. Interestingly, in [1] for the above inequality the condition $2 m \leq 1+\Delta+(n-2) \Delta_{2}$ was put on.

In $[46,83,84]$ lower bounds for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, d_{1}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ were determined. In [83] (see also [46]) the following bound was established

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{1+\Delta}+\sum_{i=2}^{n-2} \frac{1}{d_{i}}+\frac{1}{d_{n-1}+\delta-1}\right) \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$ or $G \cong K_{3}$. In [84] it was proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq-1+(n-1) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{d_{i}}=-1+(n-1) I D \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $I D=I D(G)$ is the inverse degree of a graph (see for example [44, 45]). Equality in (18) holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{r, n-r}, 1 \leq r \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.
Let us note that the invariant $I D$ is also met in the literature under names general first Zagreb index and zeroth order general Randić index.

In [83] it was reported that inequalities (17) and (18) are not comparable. However, we couldn't find out an example when the lower bound (17) is better than (18).

At first glance, the inequalities (17) and (18) seem to be quite demanding, since they require knowing degrees of all vertices of a graph to compute the invariant $I D$. However, the invariant $I D$ is well studied in the literature and its available lower bounds can be used to determine lower bounds for $K f(G)$ that are even better than already mentioned in this section. Here we list some examples.

- For $k_{1}=1, k_{2}=0, p_{i}=d_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{d_{i}}, i=1,2, \ldots, n$, from (1) the inequality

$$
I D=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{d_{i}} \geq \frac{n^{2}}{2 m}
$$

is obtained. From the above and (18) follows (see [54])

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n^{2}(n-1)-2 m}{2 m} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.
Since

$$
\frac{n^{2}(n-1)-2 m}{2 m} \geq \frac{n^{2}(n-1)-n(n-1)}{2 m}=\frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{2 m}
$$

the inequality (19) is stronger than (2). This means that the lower bound (19) is better than the one determined by (2).
Since $2 m \leq n \Delta$, from (19) follows [60]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n(n-1)-\Delta}{\Delta} \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, for even $n$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.
From the inequality

$$
\frac{n(n-1)-\Delta}{\Delta} \geq \frac{(n-1)^{2}}{\Delta}
$$

it can be concluded that the inequality (20) is stronger than (3). Hence, lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, \Delta)$ obtained $\operatorname{in}(20)$ is better than the one determined by (3).
It is well known that for connected planar graphs hold $m \leq 3(n-2)$. Thus, from (19) we have that for connected planar graphs

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n^{2}(n-1)}{6(n-2)}-1
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{3}$ or $G \cong K_{4}$. This inequality is stronger than (6).
Similarly, if $G$ is a connected planar bipartite graph, then

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n^{2}(n-1)}{4(n-2)}-1
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{2,2}$.

- For $k_{1}=2, k_{2}=0, p_{i}=d_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{d_{i}}, i=2,3, \ldots, n$, from (1) the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
I D \geq \frac{1}{\Delta}+\frac{(n-1)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

is obtained.
Based on (18) and (21) the following lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, \Delta)$ has been derived in [54]

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n-1-\Delta}{\Delta}+\frac{(n-1)^{3}}{2 m-\Delta} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, for even $n$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$. Since

$$
\frac{n-1-\Delta}{\Delta}+\frac{(n-1)^{3}}{2 m-\Delta} \geq n-1+\frac{n(n-1)-2 m}{\Delta}
$$

the bound (22) is better than the one obtained by (12) in the same class $I(n, m, \Delta)$.
Inequalities (22) and (11) are exact when $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$. The inequality (22) is stronger than (11) when $G \cong P_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$, or when sequence of vertex degrees of a connected graph is of the form $D=\left(n-1, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$. We have performed testing on a set of
connected (regular) graphs with $n \geq 4$ vertices to find out the case, if any, when the inequality (11) is stronger than (22), but we didn't find it. However, it is still an open question whether the lower bound given by (22) is the best possible in the class $I(n, m, \Delta)$.

From the inequality (22) follows that for regular graph of degree $d, 1 \leq d \leq n-1$, holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n(n-1)-d}{d} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, where $n$ is even, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.
The inequality (23) was proved in [60]. It is stronger than (4). Note that in the case of $d$-regular graphs, $1 \leq d \leq n-1$, the inequalities (12), (18), (19) and (22) reduce to (23). An open question is whether the bound (23) is the best possible in the class $I(n, d)$.

Since $I D \geq 2 R_{-1}$ (see [48]) according to (18) the following inequality is obtained

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq-1+2(n-1) R_{-1} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}}, \frac{n}{2}$ for even $n$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$. The inequality (24) determines lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, R_{-1}\right)$. When the invariant $R_{-1}$ is replaced with its (known) lower bounds, from (24) a variety of bounds, known and new ones, for $K f(G)$ in various classes can be obtained. Thus, for example, based on the inequality [43]

$$
2 R_{-1} \geq \frac{n}{n-1}
$$

and (24), the inequality (5) is obtained. From the inequality [10,72]

$$
2 R_{-1} \geq \frac{n}{\Delta}
$$

and (24), the inequality (20) is obtained. From the inequality (see [53])

$$
R_{-1} \geq \frac{n-1}{2(n-2)}\left(k-\frac{n}{n-1}\right)^{2}+\frac{n}{2(n-1)}
$$

where $k$ is an arbitrary real number with the property $\rho_{1} \geq k \geq \rho_{n-1}$, and (24) the following is obtained

$$
K f(G) \geq n-1+\frac{(n-1)^{2}}{n-2}\left(k-\frac{n}{n-1}\right)^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=\frac{n}{n-1}$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or $k=2$ and $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$. In the above inequality the lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, k)$ is acquired. In the special case we have

$$
K f(G) \geq n-1+\frac{(n-1)^{2}}{n-2} \max \left\{\left(\rho_{1}-\frac{n}{n-1}\right)^{2},\left(\rho_{n-1}-\frac{n}{n-1}\right)^{2}\right\}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, where $n$ is even.

Let us point out on some lower bounds that can be obtained according to (24) and depend on invariants $M_{2}, F$ and $M_{1}$.

From (1) follows

$$
\sum_{i \sim j} d_{i} d_{j} \sum_{i \sim j} \frac{1}{d_{i} d_{j}} \geq m^{2}
$$

Accordingly we have that

$$
R_{-1} \geq \frac{m^{2}}{M_{2}} .
$$

From the above and (24) follows

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{2(n-1) m^{2}}{M_{2}}-1
$$

with equality if and only if $L(G)$ is regular. Thus, we obtained a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, M_{2}\right)$.

On the other hand, since

$$
2 M_{2} \leq F
$$

we have that

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{4(n-1) m^{2}}{F}-1
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$. This represents a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, F)$.

Based on the inequality (see [39])

$$
F \leq(\Delta+\delta) M_{1}-2 m \Delta \delta
$$

the following lower bound in the class $I\left(n, m, \Delta, \delta, M_{1}\right)$ can be obtained

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{4(n-1) m^{2}}{(\Delta+\delta) M_{1}-2 m \Delta \delta}-1
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.

- For $k_{1}=3, k_{2}=0, p_{i}=d_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{d_{i}}, i=3,4, \ldots, n$, from (1) the inequality

$$
I D \geq \frac{1}{\Delta}+\frac{1}{\Delta_{2}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-\Delta_{2}}
$$

is obtained. From the above and (18) the following is obtained (see [54])

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n-1-\Delta}{\Delta}+\frac{n-1}{\Delta_{2}}+\frac{(n-1)(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-\Delta_{2}} \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.
The inequality (25) is stronger than (16) when $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}, G \cong P_{n}$ and $G \in \Gamma_{d}$. However, it is an open question whether (25) is always better than (16).

- For $k_{1}=2, k_{2}=1, p_{i}=d_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{d_{i}}, i=2,3, \ldots, n-1$, from (1) the inequality

$$
I D \geq \frac{1}{\Delta}+\frac{1}{\delta}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-\delta}
$$

is obtained. From the above and (18) the inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n-1-\Delta}{\Delta}+\frac{n-1}{\delta}+\frac{(n-1)(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-\Delta-\delta} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

is obtained (see [54]). Equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ when $n$ is even, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$.
Inequalities (26) and (15) are not comparable. Thus, for example, for $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ the inequality (26) is stronger than (15), but when $G \cong K_{n}-e$, inequality (15) is stronger than (26).

The following lower bound for $K f(G)$ can be obtained as a special case of one more general result reported in [85]

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n}{1+\Delta}+(n-2) n^{\frac{n-3}{n-2}}\left(\frac{t}{1+\Delta}\right)^{-\frac{1}{n-2}}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
Similarly, the following can be obtained from the one more general inequality proved in [18]

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n}{1+\Delta}+(n-2) n^{\frac{n-3}{n-2}}(1+\Delta)^{\frac{1}{n-2}} t^{-\frac{1}{n-2}}+\left(\Delta_{2}^{1 / 2}-\delta^{1 / 2}\right)^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This sets up a lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, \Delta, \Delta_{2}, \delta, t\right)$. This inequality is stronger than the previous one.

The following double inequality which gives relationship between Kirchhoff, $\operatorname{Kf}(G)$, and degreeKirchhoff index, $K f^{*}(G)$, was proved in [86] (see also [66])

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{n}{2 m \Delta} K f^{*}(G) \leq K f(G) \leq \frac{n}{2 m \delta} K f^{*}(G) \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equalities hold if and only if $G$ is regular.
Inequalities (27) can be used to determine lower and upper bounds for Kirchhoff index, $K f(G)$, according to the bounds for degree Kirchhoff index, and vice versa. Note that obtained bounds may not be the best possible in the corresponding class. Here is one example.

Let

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=1+\sqrt{\frac{2 R_{-1}}{n(n-1)}} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

In [7] (see also [2]) the following inequality for the degree Kirchhoff index was proved

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{P}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-P}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. Based on this and left part of inequality (27), it follows that

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n}{\Delta}\left(\frac{1}{P}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-P}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This inequality, proved in [2], sets up lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, \Delta, R_{-1}\right)$. It is not known whether this inequality is the best possible in its class. Therefore, we suggest to use (27) only for regular graphs, or when there is no other way to estimate $K f(G)$, i.e. $K f^{*}(G)$.

In the sequel we provide an overview of the lower bounds for $K f(G)$ of connected bipartite graphs.
Let $G=(V, E)$ be a connected bipartite graph $V=V_{1} \cup V_{2}, V_{1} \cap V_{2}=\emptyset,\left|V_{1}\right|=p,\left|V_{2}\right|=q$, $p+q=n$. In [77] the authors determined the lower bound of $K f(G)$ in the class $I(p, q)$. They proved that

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{(p+q-1)\left(p^{2}+q^{2}\right)-p q}{p q}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, where $n$ is even.
In the case of connected bipartite graphs the following inequalities are valid (see for example [47] and [20])

$$
\mu_{1} \geq \frac{M_{1}}{m} \geq 2 \sqrt{\frac{M_{1}}{n}} \geq \frac{4 m}{n} \geq \frac{2 m}{n-1} .
$$

Now, according to (7) the following inequalities are valid:

- For $k=\frac{4 m}{n}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n^{2}(2 n-3)}{4 m} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, for even $n$. This inequality establishes lower bound for $K f(G)$ for connected bipartite graphs in the class $I(n, m)$.
Since $2 m \leq n \Delta$, from (29) follows

$$
K f(G) \geq \frac{n(2 n-3)}{2 \Delta}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, for even $n$. This inequality was proved in [86] (see also [64]).

- For $k=2 \sqrt{\frac{M_{1}}{n}}$ we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \geq \frac{n}{2}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{M_{1}}{n}}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{m-\sqrt{\frac{M_{1}}{n}}}\right) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, where $n$ is even. This was proved in [85] (see also [8,47]).

- For $k=\frac{M_{1}}{m}$ the following is obtained

$$
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{m}{M_{1}}+\frac{m(n-2)^{2}}{2 m^{2}-M_{1}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, where $n$ is even, or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$. This inequality, proved in [87] (see also [8, 47, 88]), sets up lower bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, M_{1}\right)$ that is stronger than the bound given by (30).

Let

$$
T=\frac{1}{2}\left(\Delta+\delta+\sqrt{(\Delta-\delta)^{2}+4 \Delta}\right)
$$

From one more general result, obtained in [8] for bipartite graphs, the following inequality can be obtained

$$
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{1}{T}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-T}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
In [87] (see also [8,88]) the following lower bound for $K f(G)$ in $I\left(n, m, t, M_{1}\right)$ class for connected bipartite graphs was determined

$$
K f(G) \geq n\left(\frac{m}{M_{1}}+(n-2)\left(\frac{M_{1}}{t n m}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-2}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ where $n$ is even.

## 3. Upper bounds for the Kirchhoff index

Among the papers considering the bounds of Kirchhoff index there are far much more those dealing with lower than upper bounds. In this section we give a review of the papers considering upper bounds for the Kirchhoff index.

The following inequality that establishes upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n)$ was derived in [49] (see also [62])

$$
K f(G) \leq K f\left(P_{n}\right)=\frac{n^{3}-n}{6}
$$

This is the best possible upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n)$.
For the graphs $G_{p}, 2 \leq p \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, obtained by removing $p$ edges from a complete graph $K_{n}$, in [75] the following was proved

$$
K f\left(G_{p}\right) \leq n-1-p+\frac{n}{n-1-p}+\frac{n(p-1) \delta}{(n-1)(n-1-p)},
$$

with equality if and only if $G_{p}=K_{n}-K_{1, p}$.
Let $k$ be an arbitrary real number so that $\mu_{n-1} \geq k$. In [68] the upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, k)$ was determined. It reads

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \leq \frac{(n+k)(n-1)-2 m}{k}, \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=n$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or $k=1$ and $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $k=\frac{n}{2}$ and $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, or $k=n-2$ and $G \cong K_{n}-e$.

As can be seen, the inequality (31) is very strong since it reaches equality in many cases. Therefore, we recommend to use (31) to evaluate upper bound for $K f(G)$ whenever there is a good assessment of the lower bound for $\mu_{n-1}$.

In [69] an upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, \Delta, k)$ was reported. The authors proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \leq n \frac{\Delta+1+k(n-1)+n(n-2)-2 m}{k(\Delta+1)} \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=n$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or when $k=1$ and $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $k=n-2$ and $G \cong K_{n}-e$.

In [79] the following inequality was proved

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \leq\binom{ n-\Delta+3}{3}+(\Delta-1)\binom{n-\Delta+2}{2}+(\Delta-1)(\Delta-2) \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong P_{n}$. This inequality posts an upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, \Delta)$.

In [16] the following upper bound in the class $I\left(n, m, t, M_{1}\right)$ was determined

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n-1}{t}\left(\frac{4 m^{2}-M_{1}-2 m}{(n-1)(n-2)}\right)^{\frac{n-2}{n}} .
$$

Equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
Based on the previous and inequality $M_{1} \geq \frac{4 m^{2}}{n}$ (see [20]), the following one that determines an upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, t)$ is obtained

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n-1}{t}\left(\frac{2 m(2 m(n-1)-1)}{n(n-1)(n-2)}\right)^{\frac{n-2}{n}}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
Denote with $D(n, a, b)$ a class of bipartite graphs with $n=p+q$ vertices consisting of a path $P_{n-a-b}$ together with $a$ independent vertices adjacent to one pendent vertex of $P_{n-a-b}$ and b independent vertices adjacent to the other pendent vertex of $P_{n-a-b}$. For $(p, q)$-bipartite graphs $(p<q)$ in [77] the following upper bound for $K f(G)$ was determined

$$
K f(G) \leq \begin{cases}\frac{1}{6}\left(-2 p+3 p^{2}-p^{3}-6 p q+6 p^{2} q+3 q^{2}+3 p q^{2}\right), & (q-p) \equiv 0(\quad \bmod 2) \\ \frac{1}{6}\left(-3+p+3 p^{2}-p^{3}-6 p q+6 p^{2} q+3 q^{2}+3 p q^{2}\right), & (q-p) \equiv 1(\bmod 2)\end{cases}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \in D\left(p+q,\left\lfloor\frac{p+q+1}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lfloor\frac{p-q+1}{2}\right\rfloor\right)$.
In the sequel we list some inequalities that can be used to obtain upper bounds for $K f(G)$ in various classes.

In [51] the following inequalities were proved

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \leq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{2 m}\left(1+\frac{\left(\mu_{1}-\mu_{n-1}\right)^{2}}{\mu_{1} \mu_{n-1}} \alpha(n-1)\right) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\alpha(n-1)=\frac{1}{n-1}\left\lfloor\frac{n-1}{2}\right\rfloor\left(1-\frac{1}{n-1}\left\lfloor\frac{n-1}{2}\right\rfloor\right)=\frac{1}{4}\left(1-\frac{(-1)^{n}+1}{2(n-1)^{2}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
We will illustrate how (34) can be used to obtain upper bounds for $K f(G)$ in, for example, classes $I\left(n, m, k, M_{1}\right)$ and $I(n, m, k)$, where $k$ is real number with the property $\mu_{n-1} \geq k>0$.

In [55] the following was proved

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\mu_{1}-\mu_{n-1}\right)^{2} \leq \frac{2}{n-1}\left((n-1)\left(M_{1}+2 m\right)-4 m^{2}\right) \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. Let $k$ be an arbitrary real number so that $\mu_{n-1} \geq k$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{1} \mu_{n-1} \geq k \frac{2 m}{n-1} \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

According to (34), (35) and (36) we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \leq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{2 m}\left(1+\frac{(n-1)\left(M_{1}+2 m\right)-4 m^{2}}{m k} \alpha(n-1)\right) \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. Thus, an upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, k, M_{1}\right)$ is obtained. Further, since (see [9])

$$
M_{1} \leq m\left(\frac{2 m}{n-1}+n-2\right)
$$

from (37) we have that

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{2 m}\left(1+\frac{n(n-1)-2 m}{k} \alpha(n-1)\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. Thus an upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, k)$ is obtained.
In [51] it was proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f(G) \leq n \frac{\left(\mu_{1}+\mu_{n-1}\right)(n-1)-2 m}{\mu_{1} \mu_{n-1}} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is a complete split graph or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$, for even $n$.
Interestingly, it is easy to obtain (31) from (38). Also, since

$$
\mu_{1}+\mu_{n-1} \leq n+\frac{2 m}{n-1}=\frac{n(n-1)+2 m}{n-1},
$$

from (36) and (38) follows

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n^{2}(n-1)^{2}}{2 m k}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=n$ and $G \cong K_{n}$.
Further, since

$$
\mu_{1} \mu_{n-1} \geq k(1+\Delta)
$$

from (38) follows

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n^{2}(n-1)}{k(1+\Delta)}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=n$ and $G \cong K_{n}$.
The next three inequalities may also be interesting for determining upper bounds for $K f(G)$.
In afore mentioned paper [51] the following inequalities were also proved

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n}{1+\Delta}+\frac{n(n-2)^{2}}{2 m-n}\left(1+\frac{\left(\mu_{2}-\mu_{n-1}\right)^{2}}{\mu_{2} \mu_{n-1}} \alpha(n-2)\right)
$$

with equalities if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, and

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n}{1+\Delta}+n \frac{\left(\mu_{2}+\mu_{n-1}\right)(n-2)-(2 m-n)}{\mu_{2} \mu_{n-1}}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, and

$$
K f(G) \leq \frac{n(n-1)^{2}}{8 m}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\mu_{1}}{\mu_{n-1}}}+\sqrt{\frac{\mu_{n-1}}{\mu_{1}}}\right)^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. These inequalities can be used to determine lower bounds for $K f(G)$ in various classes (see [21] and [52]).

## 4. Lower bounds for the degree Kirchhoff index

In this section we present lower bounds of various classes for the degree Kirchhoff index.
Lower bound for degree Kirchhoff index $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I(n)$ was established in [65] by the following inequality

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq K f^{*}\left(K_{n}\right)=(n-1)^{3}
$$

From the above, it is easy to determine lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I(m)$, i.e. the following is valid

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq \frac{1}{8}(\sqrt{8 m+1}-1)^{3}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
For $k_{1}=2, k_{2}=1, p_{i}=\rho_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{\rho_{i}}, i=2,3, \ldots, n-1$, from (1) follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{\rho_{1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-\rho_{1}}\right) \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $\rho_{2}=\rho_{3}=\cdots=\rho_{n-1}$.
Similarly, for $k_{1}=1, k_{2}=2, p_{i}=\rho_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{\rho_{i}}, i=1,2, \ldots, n-2$, from (1) follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{\rho_{n-1}}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-\rho_{n-1}}\right) \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $\rho_{1}=\rho_{2}=\cdots=\rho_{n-2}$.
Now consider the function

$$
f(x)=\frac{1}{x}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-x} .
$$

This function is monotone increasing for any real $x$ with the property $x \geq \frac{n}{n-1}$, monotone decreasing for $x \leq \frac{n}{n-1}$ and has a minimum for $x=\frac{n}{n-1}$. Thus, according to (39) and (40), we have that for any real $k$ with the property $\rho_{1} \geq k \geq \rho_{n-1}$ holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{k}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-k}\right) \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=\frac{n}{n-1}$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or $k=2$ and $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $k=2$ and $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ where $n$ is even.

Since (see for example [7])

$$
\rho_{1} \geq P \geq \frac{\Delta+1}{\Delta} \geq \frac{n}{n-1} \geq \rho_{n-1}
$$

where $P=1+\sqrt{\frac{2 R-1}{n(n-1)}}$, the followings are valid:
For $k=\frac{n}{n-1}$ from (41) we get [22] (see also [2, 38, 57, 64])

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq \frac{2 m(n-1)^{2}}{n} \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This inequality establishes lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I(m, n)$.

Let us note that inequality (42) can be easily obtained in following manner

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq(n-1)^{3}=(n-1)(n-1)^{2} \geq \frac{2 m(n-1)^{2}}{n}
$$

This implies that the lower bound (42) is not the best possible in the class $I(n, m)$. And, really, in [61] it was proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq n-1+2 m(n-2) \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
The inequality (43) is stronger than (42). Hence, the lower bound (43) is better than (42) in the class $I(n, m)$.

For $k=\frac{\Delta+1}{\Delta}$ from (41) we get [22]

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{\Delta}{\Delta+1}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-1-\frac{1}{\Delta}}\right) \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equation if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
In [65] the following was proved

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(n-2+\frac{1}{\Delta+1}\right) \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
The inequality (45) is stronger than (44). Thus, bound (45) is better than (44) in the class $I(n, m, \Delta)$. However, the inequality (43) is stronger than (45). This follows from the inequalities (see [61])

$$
2 m \leq n \Delta \leq(\Delta+1)(n-1)
$$

Accordingly, it is questionable whether the lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ determined by (45) is the best possible in the class $I(n, m, \Delta)$.

Since $n \geq \Delta+1$, from (43) follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq \Delta+2 m(n-2) \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ or $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.
Lower bounds (45) and (46) belongs to the (same) class $I(n, m, \Delta)$. Since (45) and (46) are not comparable, the open question is what is the best lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, \Delta)$.

Consider, now, $d$-regular graphs, $1 \leq d \leq n-1$. For these graphs hold (see Eq. (27))

$$
K f^{*}(G)=d^{2} K f(G)
$$

From the above and inequality (23) the following is obtained

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq d(n(n-1)-d)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, or $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ when $n$ is even, or $G \in \Gamma_{d}$. The question is whether the lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ established by this inequality is the best possible for $d$-regular graphs in the class $I(n, d)$. Performed testings suggest that it is, but there is no explicit proof.

In [37] the following lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I(n, d, t)$ was obtained

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq n(n-1) d^{2}(t \cdot n)^{-\frac{1}{n-1}}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
Interestingly, from the above inequality directly follows

$$
K f(G) \geq n(n-1)(t \cdot n)^{-\frac{1}{n-1}}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
For $k=P$, from (41) we obtain [7] (see also [2-4, 65])

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{P}+\frac{(n-2)^{2}}{n-P}\right) \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. This inequality determines the lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, R_{-1}\right)$.

Let $G$ be a simple connected graph different from a complete one, i.e. $G \not \not K_{n}$, and let $\beta$ be an arbitrary real number with the property $\rho_{2} \geq \beta, \beta \leq P, P+(n-2) \beta \geq n$. In [4] the following was proved as a part of one more general result

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{P}+\frac{1}{\beta}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{n-P-\beta}\right) \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

For $k_{1}=3, k_{2}=1, p_{i}=\rho_{i}, a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{\rho_{i}}, i=3, \ldots, n-1$, and $k_{1}=2, k_{2}=2, p_{i}=\rho_{i}$, $a_{i}=b_{i}=\frac{1}{\rho_{i}}, i=2,3, \ldots, n-2$, from (1) the following is obtained respectively

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{\rho_{1}}+\frac{1}{\rho_{2}}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{n-\rho_{1}-\rho_{2}}\right) \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{\rho_{1}}+\frac{1}{\rho_{n-1}}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{n-\rho_{1}-\rho_{n-1}}\right) \tag{50}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality in (49) holds if and only if $\rho_{3}=\rho_{4}=\cdots=\rho_{n-1}$, and in (50) if and only if $\rho_{2}=\rho_{3}=\cdots=$ $\rho_{n-2}$.

From (49), for any two real numbers $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ with the properties $\rho_{1} \geq r_{1} \geq \frac{n-\rho_{2}}{n-2}$ and $\rho_{2} \geq r_{2} \geq$ $\frac{n-r_{1}}{n-2}$, holds

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{r_{1}}+\frac{1}{r_{2}}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{n-r_{1}-r_{2}}\right) . \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
$$

Also, from (50), for any two real numbers $r_{3}$ and $r_{4}$ with the properties $\rho_{1} \geq r_{3} \geq \frac{n-\rho_{n-1}}{n-2}$ and $\rho_{n-1} \geq$ $r_{4} \geq \frac{n-r_{3}}{n-2}$, hold

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{r_{3}}+\frac{1}{r_{4}}+\frac{(n-3)^{2}}{n-r_{3}-r_{4}}\right) \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality in (51) holds if and only if $r_{1}=r_{2}=\frac{n}{n-1}$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or $r_{1}=2, r_{2}=1$ and $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $r_{1}=2, r_{2}=1$ and $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$. Similarly, equality in (52) holds if and only if $r_{3}=r_{4}=\frac{n}{n-1}$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or $r_{3}=2, r_{4}=1$ and $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$, or $r_{3}=2, r_{4}=1$ and $G \cong K_{\frac{n}{2}, \frac{n}{2}}$ for even $n$.

By substituting parameters $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ in (51), i.e. $r_{3}$ and $r_{4}$ in (52), by the specific values, a lot of known as well as some new inequalities for $K f^{*}(G)$ can be obtained. Thus, for example, for $r_{1}=P$, $r_{2}=\frac{n-P}{n-2}$ from (51), the inequality (47) is obtained. For $r_{1}=P$ and $r_{2}=\beta$ from (51) the inequality (48) is obtained. For $r_{3}=P$ and $r_{4}=\beta$ from (52) the inequality (48) is obtained as well.

In [7] (see also [50]) a lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, \prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}, R_{-1}, t\right)$ was established with the following inequality

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{P}+(n-2)\left(\frac{P \prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}}{2 m t}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-2}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
Similarly, in [22] a lower bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I\left(n, m, \Delta, \prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}, t\right)$ was determined. The authors proved that

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{\Delta}{\Delta+1}+(n-2)\left(\frac{(\Delta+1) \prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}}{2 m \Delta t}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-2}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
In the sequel we list some results concerning the lower bounds of $K f^{*}(G)$ for bipartite graphs.
Since for bipartite graphs hold $\rho_{1}=2$, then according to (39), i.e. for $k=2$, and (41) we have [86] (see also [7,64])

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \geq m(2 n-3) \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{r, n-r}, 1 \leq r \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$.
Since $G$ is connected, $m \geq n-1$ is valid. Then, from (53) follows that for any bipartite graph holds [65]:

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq K f^{*}\left(K_{1, n-1}\right)=(n-1)(2 n-3)
$$

In [7] (see also [50]) the following lower bound in the class $I\left(n, m, \prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}, t\right)$ for bipartite graphs was obtained

$$
K f^{*}(G) \geq 2 m\left(\frac{1}{2}+(n-2)\left(\frac{\prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{i}}{m t}\right)^{\frac{1}{n-2}}\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{r, n-r}, 1 \leq r \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$.

## 5. Upper bounds for the degree Kirchhoff index

The best upper bound for $K f(G)$ in the class $I(n)$ is reached when $G$ is a path $P_{n}$. From (27) we have that (see [64])

$$
K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{2 m \Delta}{n} K f(G) \leq(n-1)^{2} K f\left(P_{n}\right)=\frac{1}{6}\left(n(n+1)(n-1)^{3}\right) .
$$

Since graph $P_{n}$ is not a regular one, upper bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I(n)$, obtained in the above inequality, obviously is not best possible.

In [3] (see also [67]) the upper bound in the class $I(n)$ for $K f^{*}(G)$ was determined. It was proved that for $n \leq 48$

$$
K f^{*}(G) \leq(n-1)^{4},
$$

and for $n \geq 49$

$$
K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{1}{54}\left(n^{5}+50 n^{3}-16 n^{2}+165 n-52\right)
$$

It was not given whether and when these bounds are achieved.
In the sequel we outline some inequalities for $K f^{*}(G)$ which depend on eigenvalues $\rho_{1}, \rho_{2}$ and $\rho_{n}$. From the application point, these are not convenient. However, by replacing these eigenvalues with appropriate boundaries that depend on other parameters, different upper bounds for $K f^{*}(G)$ in various classes can be obtained. An example follows.

In [51] following inequality was proved

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{2 m(n-1)^{2}}{n}\left(1+\frac{\left(\rho_{1}-\rho_{n-1}\right)^{2}}{\rho_{1} \rho_{n-1}} \alpha(n-1)\right) . \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

Equality in (54) holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
Also, it was proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \leq 2 m \frac{(n-1)\left(\rho_{1}+\rho_{n-1}\right)-n}{\rho_{1} \rho_{n-1}} \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if there is $k, 1 \leq k \leq n-1$, so that $\rho_{1}=\rho_{2}=\cdots=\rho_{k}$ and $\rho_{k+1}=\rho_{k+2}=$ $\cdots=\rho_{n-1}$.

Now, consider some consequences of the (55).
Consider the function

$$
f(x)=\frac{(n-1)\left(x+\rho_{n-1}\right)-n}{x} .
$$

This function is monotone increasing for every $x \neq 0$. Since $\rho_{1} \leq 2$, then $f\left(\rho_{1}\right) \leq f(2)$, and according to (55) we have

$$
K f^{*}(G) \leq m \frac{(n-1)\left(2+\rho_{n-1}\right)-n}{\rho_{n-1}} .
$$

A function

$$
g(x)=\frac{(n-1)(2+x)-n}{x}
$$

is monotone decreasing for every $x \neq 0$. Let $k$ be an arbitrary real number with the property $\rho_{n-1} \geq$ $k>0$. Then $g\left(\rho_{n-1}\right) \leq g(k)$, and therefore

$$
\begin{equation*}
K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{m(n-2+k(n-1))}{k} \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=\frac{n}{n-1}$ and $G \cong K_{n}$, or $k=1$ and $G \cong K_{r, n-r}, 1 \leq r \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. Thus, an upper bound for $K f^{*}(G)$ in the class $I(n, m, k)$ is obtained. The inequality (56) is analogous to (31) for upper bound of $K f(G)$.

In a special case when $G$ is a connected planar graph, according to (56)

$$
K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{3(n-2)(n-2+k(n-1))}{k}
$$

with equality if and only if $k=\frac{3}{2}$ and $G \cong K_{3}$, or $k=\frac{4}{3}$ and $G \cong K_{4}$.
Now, we will give an example how (54) can be used to determine upper bounds $K f^{*}(G)$.
In [56] it was proved that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\rho_{1}-\rho_{n-1}\right)^{2} \leq \frac{2}{n-1}\left(2(n-1) R_{-1}-n\right) \tag{57}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since, for example,

$$
\rho_{1} \rho_{n-1} \geq k \frac{n}{n-1}, \quad \rho_{1} \rho_{n-1} \geq k \frac{\Delta+1}{\Delta}, \quad \rho_{1} \rho_{n-1} \geq k P
$$

from (54) and (57) following inequalities are obtained

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{2 m(n-1)^{2}}{n}\left(1+\frac{2\left(2(n-1) R_{-1}-n\right)}{k n} \alpha(n-1)\right) \\
& K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{2 m(n-1)^{2}}{n}\left(1+\frac{2(1+\Delta)\left(2(n-1) R_{-1}-n\right)}{k \Delta(n-1)}\right) \\
& K f^{*}(G) \leq \frac{2 m(n-1)^{2}}{n}\left(1+\frac{2\left(2(n-1) R_{-1}-n\right)}{(n-1) k P} \alpha(n-1)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

with equalities if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
Now, we can obtain some other upper bounds for $K f^{*}(G)$ that do not depend on $R_{-1}$ by using upper bounds for $R_{-1}$, such as $R_{-1} \leq\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil$ (see [43]), or $R_{-1} \leq \frac{n}{2 \delta}$ (see [10,72]).

On other bounds for the Kirchhoffian indices the interested reader can refer to $[14,15,19,23,26-28$, $31-33,40,70,73,74,80,82]$ and the references cited therein.

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# Bounds and Power Means for the General Randić and Sum-Connectivity Indices 

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#### Abstract

We review bounds for the general Randić index, $R_{\alpha}=\sum_{i j \in E}\left(d_{i} d_{j}\right)^{\alpha}$, and use the power mean inequality to prove, for example, that $R_{\alpha} \geq m \lambda^{2 \alpha}$ for $\alpha<0$, where $\lambda$ is the spectral radius of a graph. This enables us to strengthen various known lower and upper bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ and to generalise a nonspectral bound due to Bollobás et al. We also use the power mean inequality to strengthen bounds for the general sum-connectivity index, $X_{\alpha}=\sum_{i j \in E}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)^{\alpha}$, and generalise a relationship between $X_{\alpha}$ and $R_{\alpha}$.


## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 121
2 Power mean inequality ..... 122
3 Bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ using eigenvalues ..... 124
4 Bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ using degrees ..... 127
5 Implications for $\boldsymbol{R}_{-1}$ ..... 129
6 Implications for $R_{-0.5}$ ..... 130
7 Relationships between $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ ..... 131
8 Summary ..... 131

## 1. Introduction

Let $G$ be a graph with no isolated vertices with vertex set $V(G)$ where $n=|V|$, edge set $E(G)$ where $m=|E|$, degrees $\Delta=d_{1} \geq \ldots \geq d_{n}=\delta \geq 1$ and average degree $d$. Let $A$ denote the adjacency matrix of $G, D$ denote the diagonal matrix of vertex degrees and $Q=A+D$ denote the signless Laplacian of $G$. Let $\lambda$ denote the largest eigenvalue of $A$ and $\rho$ (often called the $Q$-index of $G$ ) denote the largest
eigenvalue of $Q$. Let $\omega(G)$ denote the clique number of $G$ and $\chi(G)$ denote the chromatic number of $G$. Define the general Randić index, $R_{\alpha}$, and the general sum-connectivity index, $X_{\alpha}$, as usual as:

$$
R_{\alpha}=\sum_{i j \in E}\left(d_{i} d_{j}\right)^{\alpha} \text { and } X_{\alpha}=\sum_{i j \in E}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)^{\alpha}
$$

$R_{-0.5}$ is the best known and most studied topological index used by mathematical chemists. $X_{-0.5}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ were first defined and studied by Zhou and Trinajstić [24] to [26]. Gutman [10] published a recent survey of degree-based topological indices, in which he compares the performance of numerous indices in chemical applications. He notes, for example, that $R_{-1}$ performs significantly better than $R_{-0.5}$.

Note that $R_{\alpha}=M_{2}^{\alpha}$ (the variable second Zagreb index), and in particular $R_{1}=M_{2}$ and that $X_{1}=$ $M_{1}$ (the first Zagreb index). We will not refer to Zagreb indices again in this paper, and from here onwards $M_{p}$ will refer to a generalized $p$-mean rather than a Zagreb index. Note also that $2 X_{-1}=H(G)$, which is often called the Harmonic index.

In section 2 we introduce the power mean inequality and prove the Lemma which is the novel feature of this paper. In sections 3 and 4 we use this Lemma to derive bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ using eigenvalues and degrees respectively. We then review implications of these general bounds for $R_{-1}$ and $R_{-0.5}$ in sections 5 and 6 . We conclude with a discussion of the relationships between $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ and summarise the power means for these indices.

## 2. Power mean inequality

It is convenient to introduce the terminology of power means (also known as generalized means). Let $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}$ be $n$ positive real numbers and let $p$ be a real number. Define the sum of the $p$-powers as:

$$
S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)=S_{p}\left(w_{i}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}^{p}
$$

and the generalized $p$-mean, for $p \neq 0$ as:

$$
M_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)=M_{p}\left(w_{i}\right)=\left(\frac{1}{n} S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)\right)^{1 / p}
$$

Throughout this paper we will refer to $M_{p}\left(w_{i}\right)$ as a $p$-power mean. Note that $p=1$ corresponds to the arithmetic mean and $p=-1$ corresponds to the harmonic mean. We define $M_{0}$ to be the geometric mean as follows:

$$
M_{0}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)=M_{0}\left(w_{i}\right)=\left(\prod_{i=1}^{n} w_{i}\right)^{1 / n} .
$$

It is important that the above definition is consistent with the following limit process:

$$
M_{0}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)=\lim _{p \rightarrow 0} M_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)
$$

For all real $p<q$ the well known power mean inequality states that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right) \leq M_{q}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $w_{1}=\ldots=w_{n}$. There are several rigorous proofs of this inequality, including for $p=0$, for example by Hardy et al [12]. Also $M_{\infty}\left(w_{i}\right)=\max \left(w_{i}\right)$ and $M_{-\infty}=\min \left(w_{i}\right)$.

We use the fact that

$$
\begin{equation*}
n \cdot\left[M_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)\right]^{p}=S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}>0$ and for all $p$, including the case $p=0$.
The following lemma is used to prove many of the new bounds in this paper.
Lemma 1. Let $q$ be arbitrary. Assume that for the generalized $q$-mean

$$
L \leq M_{q}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right) \leq U
$$

where $L$ and $U$ are lower and upper bounds. Then, we have the following inequalities:

- for $p \leq q$ and
- for $p \geq 0$

$$
S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right) \leq n U^{p}
$$

- for $p<0$

$$
S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right) \geq n U^{p}
$$

- for $p \geq q$ and
- for $p \geq 0$

$$
n L^{p} \leq S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)
$$

- for $p<0$

$$
n L^{p} \geq S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)
$$

Also $\min \left(w_{i}\right) \leq M_{q}\left(w_{i}\right) \leq \max \left(w_{i}\right)$, for all $q$.
Proof. The power mean inequality (1) implies that $M_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right) \leq U$ for $p<q$ and $L \leq M_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.w_{n}\right)$ for $p>q$.

We apply the function $x \mapsto n x^{p}$ to go from $M_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)$ to $S_{p}\left(w_{1}, \ldots, w_{n}\right)$ as in (2). We have to reverse the direction of the above inequalities when applying this function for $p<0$.

As an illustration of the use of the power mean inequality, Zhou and Trinajstić [24] proved (their Proposition 2) that:

$$
X_{-0.5} \geq \frac{m \sqrt{m}}{\sqrt{X_{1}}}
$$

Squaring both sides and re-arranging, we see that:

$$
M_{1}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)=\frac{X_{1}}{m} \geq\left(\frac{m}{X_{-0.5}}\right)^{2}=\left(\frac{X_{-0.5}}{m}\right)^{-2}=M_{-0.5}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)
$$

In other words, Proposition 2 in [24] is a special case of the power mean inequality with $w_{i}=\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)$ when $p=-0.5$ and $q=1$.

## 3. Bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ using eigenvalues

Favaron et al [9] proved that $R_{-0.5} \geq m / \lambda$ and Runge [22] and Hofmeister [13] proved that $R_{-1} \geq$ $m / \lambda^{2}$. We can generalise these results as follows.

Theorem 1. We have the following lower and upper bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ :

- For $\alpha<0$,

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq m \lambda^{2 \alpha},
$$

- For $0<\alpha \leq 0.5$,

$$
R_{\alpha} \leq m \lambda^{2 \alpha},
$$

Proof. Favaron et al [9] proved that:

$$
\left(\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i j \in E} \sqrt{d_{i} \cdot d_{j}}\right)^{2} \leq \lambda^{2}
$$

In other words, $\lambda^{2}$ is an upper bound on the 0.5 -power mean of the $m$ values of $d_{i} \cdot d_{j}$ for $(i, j) \in E$. Therefore using Lemma 1 we obtain:

- For $\alpha<0$,

$$
R_{\alpha}=S_{\alpha}\left(d_{i} \cdot d_{j}\right) \geq m U^{\alpha}=m \lambda^{2 \alpha} .
$$

- For $0<\alpha \leq 0.5$,

$$
R_{\alpha}=S_{\alpha}\left(d_{i} \cdot d_{j}\right) \leq m U^{\alpha}=m \lambda^{2 \alpha} .
$$

There is equality in these bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ when $d_{i} \cdot d_{j}$ is equal for all edges in $E$. This is the case for regular graphs and semiregular bipartite graphs.

We can derive the following corollaries from Theorem 1 which strengthen known bounds.
Bollobás and Erdos [2] proved that for $-1 \leq \alpha<0$ :

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq m\left(\frac{\sqrt{8 m+1}-1}{2}\right)^{2 \alpha} .
$$

We can generalise and strengthen this bound as follows.
Corollary 1. For $\alpha<0, R_{\alpha}$ is bounded from below by

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq m(2 m-n+1)^{\alpha} .
$$

Proof. Hong [14] proved that for graphs with no isolated vertices $\lambda^{2} \leq(2 m-n+1)$. Therefore using Theorem 1 and that $\alpha<0$ and that $2 m \leq n(n-1)$ :

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq m \lambda^{2 \alpha} \geq m(2 m-n+1)^{\alpha} \geq m\left(\frac{\sqrt{8 m+1}-1}{2}\right)^{2 \alpha}
$$

Li and Yang [17] proved that for $\alpha \leq-1$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{\alpha} \geq \frac{n(n-1)^{1+2 \alpha}}{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

We can strengthen this bound as follows.
Corollary 2. For $\alpha \leq-1, R_{\alpha}$ is bounded from below by

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{\alpha} \geq \frac{n^{2 \alpha+2}(\omega-1)^{2 \alpha+1}}{2 \omega^{2 \alpha+1}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Nikiforov [21] proved that $\lambda^{2} \leq 2 m(\omega-1) / \omega$. Noting that $\alpha \leq-1$ we have:

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq m \lambda^{2 \alpha} \geq \frac{m(2 m(\omega-1))^{\alpha}}{\omega^{\alpha}}=\frac{m^{\alpha+1} 2^{\alpha}(\omega-1)^{\alpha}}{\omega^{\alpha}}
$$

Turan's theorem states that $m \leq n^{2}(\omega-1) / 2 \omega$. Therefore since $\alpha \leq-1$ :

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq \frac{n^{2(\alpha+1)}(\omega-1)^{\alpha+1} 2^{\alpha}(\omega-1)^{\alpha}}{2^{\alpha+1} \omega^{\alpha+1} \omega^{\alpha}}=\frac{n^{2 \alpha+2}(\omega-1)^{2 \alpha+1}}{2 \omega^{2 \alpha+1}}
$$

We can demonstrate that (4) strengthens bound (3) as follows. We wish to show that for $\alpha \leq-1$ :

$$
\frac{n^{2 \alpha+2}(\omega-1)^{2 \alpha+1}}{2 \omega^{2 \alpha+1}} \geq \frac{n(n-1)^{1+2 \alpha}}{2} .
$$

This simplifies to:

$$
(n(\omega-1))^{1+2 \alpha} \geq((n-1) \omega)^{1+2 \alpha}
$$

Take the $(1+2 \alpha)$ root of both sides and note that $1+2 \alpha \leq-1$. Therefore:

$$
n(\omega-1) \leq(n-1) \omega
$$

which is true for all graphs.
Lu, Liu and Tian [20] proved that for $-1 \leq \alpha<0$ :

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq 2^{-\alpha} n^{\alpha} m^{1-\alpha} \lambda^{3 \alpha}
$$

We can generalise this bound as follows.
Corollary 3. For $\alpha<0, R_{\alpha}$ is bounded from below by

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq 2^{-\alpha} n^{\alpha} m^{1-\alpha} \lambda^{3 \alpha}
$$

Proof. Since $\alpha<0$ and $\lambda \geq 2 m / n$ we have that:

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq m \lambda^{2 \alpha}=m \lambda^{3 \alpha} \lambda^{-\alpha} \geq m \lambda^{3 \alpha}(2 m / n)^{-\alpha}=2^{-\alpha} n^{\alpha} m^{1-\alpha} \lambda^{3 \alpha} .
$$

Theorem 2. We have the following lower and upper bounds for $X_{\alpha}$ :

- For $\alpha<0$,

$$
X_{\alpha} \geq m \rho^{\alpha},
$$

- For $0<\alpha \leq 1$,

$$
X_{\alpha} \leq m \rho^{\alpha} .
$$

Proof. Liu and Liu [19] and Elphick and Liu [8] proved that for any graph:

$$
\frac{\sum_{i \in V} d_{i}^{2}}{m}=\frac{\sum_{i j \in E} d_{i}+d_{j}}{m} \leq \rho .
$$

In other words, $\rho$ is an upper bound on the 1-power mean of the $m$ values of $d_{i}+d_{j}$ for $(i, j) \in E$. Therefore using Lemma 1 we obtain:

- For $\alpha<0$,

$$
X_{\alpha}=S_{\alpha}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right) \geq m U^{\alpha}=m \rho^{\alpha} .
$$

- For $0<\alpha \leq 1$,

$$
X_{\alpha}=S_{\alpha}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right) \leq m U^{\alpha}=m \rho^{\alpha} .
$$

There is equality in these bounds for $X_{\alpha}$ when $d_{i}+d_{j}$ is constant for all edges in $E$. This is the case, for example, for regular graphs and semiregular bipartite graphs.

Zhou and Trinajstić [26] proved (their Proposition 4) that for $\alpha<0, X_{\alpha} \geq m n^{\alpha}$ for triangle-free graphs. We generalise this result for any clique number in the following corollary.

Corollary 4. For $\alpha<0$ :

$$
X_{\alpha} \geq m\left(\frac{2 n(\omega-1)}{\omega}\right)^{\alpha}
$$

In particular, $H(G)=2 X_{-1} \geq \omega m /(\omega-1) n$.
Proof. Abreu and Nikiforov [1] proved that $\rho \leq 2 n(\omega-1) / \omega$. Therefore for $\alpha<0$ :

$$
X_{\alpha} \geq m \rho^{\alpha} \geq m\left(\frac{2 n(\omega-1)}{\omega}\right)^{\alpha}=m n^{\alpha} \text { when } \omega(G)=2
$$

## 4. Bounds for $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ using degrees

Ilić and Stevanović [15] proved that $R_{\alpha} \geq m d^{2 \alpha}$ for $\alpha \geq 0$. We reproduce and extend these inequalities in the following Theorem, using Lemma 1.

Theorem 3. We have the following lower bound on $R_{\alpha}$ :

- For $\alpha \geq 0$,

$$
R_{\alpha} \geq m d^{2 \alpha}
$$

Proof. Ilić and Stevanović [15] proved that:

$$
\frac{R_{1}}{m}=\frac{\sum_{i j \in E} d_{i} \cdot d_{j}}{m} \geq\left(\prod_{i j \in E} d_{i} \cdot d_{j}\right)^{1 / m}=M_{0}\left(d_{i} \cdot d_{j}\right) \geq d^{2}
$$

Therefore $d^{2}$ is a lower bound for the 0-power mean of $R_{\alpha}$. Hence using Lemma $1, R_{\alpha} \geq m d^{2 \alpha}$ for $\alpha \geq 0$.

Bollobás and Erdös [2] proved that for $0<\alpha \leq 1$ :

$$
R_{\alpha} \leq m\left(\frac{\sqrt{8 m+1}-1}{2}\right)^{2 \alpha}
$$

We strengthen this bound in the following theorem.
Theorem 4. For $0<\alpha \leq 1, R_{\alpha}$ is bounded from above by

$$
R_{\alpha} \leq m(2 m-n+1)^{\alpha} .
$$

Proof. Das and Gutman [7] proved the following bound:

$$
R_{1} \leq 2 m^{2}-(n-1) m \delta+\frac{1}{2}(\delta-1) m\left(\frac{2 m}{n-1}+n-2\right)
$$

If $\delta=1$ then clearly $R_{1} \leq m(2 m-n+1)$. If $\delta>1$ then it is straightforward to show that $R_{1} \leq m(2 m-n+1)$. Therefore $R_{1} / m \leq 2 m-n+1$, so $(2 m-n+1)$ is an upper bound for the 1-power mean of $R_{\alpha}$.

Hence using Lemma 1, $R_{\alpha} \leq m(2 m-n+1)^{\alpha}$ for $0<\alpha \leq 1$.

Zhou and Trinajstić [25] proved that $X_{-0.5} \leq \sqrt{n m} / 2$ and also proved [26] that for $\alpha>1, X_{\alpha} \geq$ $4^{\alpha} n^{-\alpha} m^{1+\alpha}$. We can reproduce and generalise these results as follows.

Theorem 5. We have the following lower and upper bounds on $X_{\alpha}$ :

- For $\alpha \geq 1$,

$$
X_{\alpha} \geq m(2 d)^{\alpha}
$$

- For $-1 \leq \alpha<0$,

$$
X_{\alpha} \leq m(2 d)^{\alpha}
$$

Proof. Using the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality we have that $\sum_{i \in V} d_{i}^{2} \geq 4 m^{2} / n$. Therefore:

$$
\frac{X_{1}}{m}=\frac{\sum_{i j \in E} d_{i}+d_{j}}{m}=\frac{\sum_{i \in V} d_{i}^{2}}{m} \geq \frac{4 m^{2}}{m n}=2 d .
$$

It is well known that $H(G) \leq n / 2$ and consequently $X_{-1}=H(G) / 2 \leq n / 4$. Therefore:

$$
\left(\frac{X_{-1}}{m}\right)^{-1}=\frac{m}{X_{-1}} \geq \frac{4 m}{n}=2 d
$$

Therefore $2 d$ is a lower bound for the 1-power mean of $X_{\alpha}$ and a lower bound for the -1-power mean of $X_{\alpha}$. Hence using Lemma 1, $X_{\alpha} \geq m(2 d)^{\alpha}$ for $\alpha \geq 1$ and $X_{\alpha} \leq m(2 d)^{\alpha}$ for $-1 \leq \alpha<0$.

Zhou and Trinajstić [24] proved (their Proposition 7) that $X_{-0.5} \leq n \sqrt{\Delta} / 2 \sqrt{2}$. We generalise and strengthen this result in the following corollary.

Corollary 5. For $-1 \leq \alpha<0, X_{\alpha} \leq n 2^{\alpha-1} d^{\alpha+1}$.
Proof. For $-1 \leq \alpha<0$ :

$$
X_{\alpha} \leq m(2 d)^{\alpha}=\frac{n d}{2}(2 d)^{\alpha}=n 2^{\alpha-1} d^{\alpha+1} \leq n 2^{\alpha-1} \Delta^{\alpha+1}
$$

## Theorem 6.

$$
\text { For } \alpha<0, X_{\alpha} \geq m\left(\frac{m(\Delta+\delta)^{2}}{n \Delta \delta}\right)^{\alpha} \text { and for } 0<\alpha \leq 1, X_{\alpha} \leq m\left(\frac{m(\Delta+\delta)^{2}}{n \Delta \delta}\right)^{\alpha}
$$

Proof. Ilić, Ilić and Liu [16] proved that:

$$
\frac{X_{1}}{m} \leq \frac{m(\Delta+\delta)^{2}}{n \Delta \delta}
$$

Therefore $m(\Delta+\delta)^{2} / n \Delta \delta$ is an upper bound for the 1 -power mean of $X_{\alpha}$. Using Lemma 1 therefore completes the proof.

## 5. Implications for $\boldsymbol{R}_{-1}$

Cavers et al [4] reviewed upper and lower bounds for $R_{-1}$ in the context of bounds for Randić energy. In particular, Shi [23] proved that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{-1} \geq \frac{n}{2 \Delta} \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is regular and Li and Yang [17] proved that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{-1} \geq \frac{n}{2(n-1)} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is a complete graph. Liu and Gutman [18] proved that for graphs with no isolated vertex:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{-1} \geq \frac{n-1}{m} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality only for Star graphs. Clark and Moon [5] proved that for trees, $R_{-1} \geq 1$.
Below, in Corollary 6, we prove that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{-1} \geq \frac{\omega}{2(\omega-1)} \text { or equivalently } \frac{2 R_{-1}}{2 R_{-1}-1} \leq \omega(G) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality for semiregular bipartite and regular complete $\omega$-partite graphs. (A semiregular bipartite graph is a bipartite graph for which all vertices on the same side of the bipartition have the same degree.)

Bound (8) clearly strengthens bound (6). It also demonstrates that $R_{-1} \geq 1$ not only for trees but for all triangle-free graphs. Bound (8) never outperforms bound (5) for regular graphs but it does outperform bound (5) for some irregular graphs, such as irregular complete bipartite graphs.

Corollary 6. $R_{-1}$ is bounded from below by

$$
R_{-1} \geq \frac{\omega}{2(\omega-1)}
$$

This is exact for semiregular bipartite and regular complete $\omega$-partite graphs.
Proof. Letting $\alpha=-1$ we have $R_{-1} \geq m / \lambda^{2}$. Nikiforov [21] proved that:

$$
\lambda^{2} \leq \frac{2 m(\omega-1)}{\omega} .
$$

Therefore:

$$
R_{-1} \geq \frac{m}{\lambda^{2}} \geq \frac{m \omega}{2 m(\omega-1)}=\frac{\omega}{2(\omega-1)} .
$$

Corollary 7. For chemical graphs, other than $K_{5}, R_{-1} \geq 2 / 3$.

Proof. For a chemical graph $\Delta \leq 4$. It follows from Brooks' famous theorem [3] that, excluding $K_{5}$, $\omega(G) \leq \Delta \leq 4$. Therefore:

$$
R_{-1} \geq \frac{\omega}{2(\omega-1)} \geq \frac{4}{6}=\frac{2}{3}
$$

This is exact for $K_{4}$.

## 6. Implications for $\boldsymbol{R}_{-0.5}$

$R_{-0.5}$ is the original topological index devised by Milan Randić in 1975 and has consequently been investigated more than any other general Randić index.

Bollobás and Erdös [2] proved that for graphs with no isolated vertex:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{n}{2} \geq R_{-0.5} \geq \sqrt{n-1} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

with equality in the lower bound only for Star graphs. In Corollary 9 we prove that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{-0.5} \geq \frac{m}{\sqrt{2 m-n+1}} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since connected graphs have $m \geq n-1$, it is straightforward to show that bound (10) is never worse than the well known bound (9) for connected graphs.

Hansen and Vukicević [11] proved that $\chi(G) \leq 2 R_{-0.5}$. In Corollary 8 we provide a simple alternative proof of this result using Theorem 1.

Corollary 8. Hansen and Vukicević [11] proved that $\chi(G) \leq 2 R_{-0.5}$. We can use Theorem 1 to strengthen their bound as follows.

$$
2 R_{-0.5} \geq \lambda+1 \geq \chi(G)
$$

Proof. As noted above $\lambda^{2} \leq 2 m(\omega-1) / \omega$ and it is well known that $(\omega-1) \omega \leq(\chi-1) \chi \leq 2 m$ and that $\chi(G) \leq 1+\lambda$. Therefore $\lambda \leq 2 m / \omega$, so:

$$
\lambda(\lambda+1) \leq \frac{2 m(\omega-1)}{\omega}+\frac{2 m}{\omega}=2 m .
$$

Hence:

$$
2 R_{-0.5} \geq \frac{2 m}{\lambda} \geq \lambda+1 \geq \chi(G)
$$

Corollary 9. Hong [14] proved that for graphs with no isolated vertices, $\lambda^{2} \leq(2 m-n+1)$. Therefore with $\alpha=-0.5$ :

$$
R_{-0.5} \geq \frac{m}{\lambda} \geq \frac{m}{\sqrt{2 m-n+1}} \geq \sqrt{n-1} \text { for connected graphs }
$$

Proof. Let $m=n-1+a$ where $a \geq 0$ because $m \geq n-1$ for connected graphs. We are therefore seeking to prove that:

$$
m^{2}=(n-1+a)^{2} \geq(n-1)(2 n-2+2 a-n+1)
$$

which simplifies to $a^{2} \geq 0$

## 7. Relationships between $\boldsymbol{R}_{\alpha}$ and $\boldsymbol{X}_{\alpha}$

Zhou and Trinajstic [25] proved that $X_{-0.5} \leq \sqrt{m R_{-0.5} / 2}$, with equality if and only if $G$ is regular. We can generalise this relationship as follows.

Theorem 7. For $\alpha<0, X_{\alpha} \leq 2^{\alpha} \sqrt{m R_{\alpha}}$, with equality if and only if $G$ is regular.
Proof. For all edges in $G$ :

$$
0 \leq\left(d_{i}-d_{j}\right)^{2}=d_{i}^{2}+d_{j}^{2}-2 d_{i} d_{j}=\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)^{2}-4 d_{i} d_{j}
$$

Therefore, raising to the power of $\alpha$ with $\alpha<0$ and summing over edges:

$$
\sum_{i j \in E}\left(4 d_{i} d_{j}\right)^{\alpha} \geq \sum_{i j \in E}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)^{2 \alpha} .
$$

Then using Cauchy-Schwartz:

$$
X_{\alpha}=\sum_{i j \in E}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)^{\alpha} \leq \sqrt{m \sum_{i j \in E}\left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)^{2 \alpha}} \leq \sqrt{m \sum_{i j \in E}\left(4 d_{i} d_{j}\right)^{\alpha}}=2^{\alpha} \sqrt{m R_{\alpha}} .
$$

## 8. Summary

The following tables summarise the power means we have used in this paper.
Table 1. Power means for $R_{\alpha}$

| Power mean | Lower bound | Upper bound |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0.5 |  | $\lambda^{2}$ |
| 0 | $d^{2}$ |  |
| 1 |  | $2 m-n+1$ |
| $\pm \infty$ | $\min \left(d_{i} \cdot d_{j}\right)$ | $\max \left(d_{i} \cdot d_{j}\right)$ |

Table 2. Power means for $X_{\alpha}$

| Power mean | Lower bound | Upper bound |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 |  | $\rho$ |
| 1 | $\sum d_{i}^{2} / m$ | $\sum d_{i}^{2} / m$ |
| 1 | $2 d$ | $m(\Delta+\delta)^{2} / n \Delta \delta$ |
| -1 | $2 d$ |  |
| $\pm \infty$ | $\min \left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)$ | $\max \left(d_{i}+d_{j}\right)$ |

There are, we expect, further useful power means for $R_{\alpha}$ and $X_{\alpha}$ to be found.

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# The Reciprocal Sum-Degree Distance and Reciprocal Product-Degree Distance 

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## Contents

1 Introduction and Notation ..... 135
2 The reciprocal sum-degree distance ..... 138
2.1 Graphs with maximum and minimum $\boldsymbol{R D} \boldsymbol{D}_{+}$ ..... 138
2.2 Graphs with given property ..... 143
2.2.1 Graphs with given independent and matching number ..... 143
2.2.2 Graphs with given chromatic number ..... 147
2.2.3 Graphs with given vertex-connectivity and edge-connectivity ..... 148
2.2.4 Graphs with given pendent vertex ..... 151
3 The reciprocal product-degree distance ..... 153
3.1 General graphs with maximum and minimum $\boldsymbol{R D} \boldsymbol{D}_{\times}$ ..... 153
3.2 Unicyclic graphs with maximum $\boldsymbol{R D} \boldsymbol{D}_{\times}$ ..... 160
4 Relation between $R D D_{+}$and $R D D_{\times}$ ..... 163
5 The reformulated reciprocal sum-degree distance ..... 168
5.1 Graphs with given $\boldsymbol{k}$ leaves ..... 168
5.2 Graphs with given matching number ..... 178
5.3 Graphs with given dominating number ..... 179
5.4 Graphs with given bipartition ..... 180
6 Conclusion ..... 184

## 1. Introduction and Notation

Unless otherwise specified, all graphs considered in this chapter are simple, i.e., they are finite, undirected and without multiple edges or loops. Let $G=(V(G), E(G))$ denote a graph with vertex set $V$ and edge set $E$. The order $n=|V(G)|$ of $G$ is the number of its vertices, while the size $m=|E(G)|$ of $G$ is the number of its edges.

The degree (valency) of a vertex $v \in V(G)$ is the number $\delta_{G}(v)$ (or $\delta(v)$ when no confusion can arise) of edges incident to $v$, and we use $\Delta(G)$ and $\underline{\Delta}(G)$ to denote the maximum and minimum degree in a graph $G$. The open neighborhood $N(v)=N_{G}(v)$ of a vertex in $G$ is the set of vertices adjacent to $v$. Note that $\delta(v)=|N(v)|$. The closed neighborhood of a vertex $v$ is defined by $N[v]=N_{G}[v]=N_{G}(v) \cup\{v\}$.

The distance $d(u, v)=d_{G}(u, v)$ between two vertices $u$ and $v$ in a connected graph $G$ is the number of edges in a shortest path joining $u$ and $v$. The eccentricity $e(v)$ of a vertex $v$ of a connected graph $G$ is the maximum distance from it to any other other vertex. The diameter $D=D(G)$ of $G$ is the maximum eccentricity in $G$, or equivalently, $D=D(G)$ is the maximum distance between two vertices of $G$. The minimum eccentricity in $G$ is said to be the radius of $G$ and denoted by $r=r(G)$. For standard graph-theoretic notation and terminology the reader is referred to [7,9].

A single number that can be used to characterize some property of the graph of a molecule is called a topological index, or graph invariant. Topological indices and graph invariants based on the distances between the vertices of a graph are widely used in theoretical to establish relations between the structure and the properties of molecules. They provide correlations with physical, chemical and thermodynamic parameters of chemical compounds [10]. For quite some time there has been rising interest in the field of computational chemical in topological indices. The interest in topological indices is mainly related to their use in nonempirical quantitative structure-property relationship (QSPR) and quantitative structureactivity relationships (QSAR). One of the oldest and well-studied distance-based topological index is the Wiener number $W(G)$, also termed as Wiener index in chemical or mathematical chemical literature, which is defined as the sum of distances over all unordered vertex pairs in $G$, namely,

$$
\begin{equation*}
W=W(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G)} d_{G}(u, v) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

This index was first time introduced by Wiener more than 60 years ago [59]. Initially, the Wiener index was considered as a molecular-structure descriptor used in chemical applications, but soon it attracted the interest of "pure" mathematicians [21, 22]; for details and additional references see the reviews $[11,60]$ and the recent papers $[42,43,61]$.

To overcome the inconsistency caused by the contributions of distant pairs of vertices when compared with the contributions from close pairs to the topological indices, the sum of reciprocal values of distances between pairs of different vertices was introduced in [34,52]. For a connected graph $G$, the Harary index is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=H(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(u, v)} . \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recently, Das et. al. [17] considered the generalized version of Harary index, namely the $t$-Harary index, which is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
H_{t}=H_{t}(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(u, v)+t}, t \geq 0 . \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

For more results on Harary index, one may be referred to [18, 45, 46, 52, 64].

In 1994, Dobrynin and Kochetova [12] and Gutman [26] independently proposed a vertex-degreeweighted version of Wiener index called sum-degree distance or Schultz molecular topological index, which is defined for a connected graph $G$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D D_{+}=D D_{+}(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G)}\left(\delta_{G}(u)+\delta_{G}(v)\right) d_{G}(u, v) . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

This graph invariant may be regarded as weighted degree-sum version of Wiener index. One may be referred to $[5,13,14,35,37,57]$ and the references cited therein.

The multiplicative variant of the degree distance is put forward in [26] and called there the Schultz index of the second, but for which the name Gutman index has also sometimes been used [58] (we call it product-degree distance). It is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
D D_{\times}=D D_{\times}(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G)}\left(\delta_{G}(u) \delta_{G}(v)\right) d_{G}(u, v) . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

This graph invariant can be viewed as weighted degree-product version of Wiener index. The interested readers may consult $[1,24,39,50,51,62]$ and the references quoted therein for more details.

Noting that the sum-degree distance is a degree-weight version of the Wiener index and bearing in mind that the relation between Wiener index and Harary index, Hua et al. [30] and Alizadeh et al. [2] introduced the reciprocal sum-degree distance or additively weighted Harary index of $G$, which is defined is

$$
\begin{equation*}
R D D_{+}=R D D_{+}(G)=\sum_{\substack{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G) \\ u \neq v}} \frac{\delta_{G}(u)+\delta_{G}(v)}{d_{G}(u, v)} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Some basic mathematical properties of this index were established and its behavior under several standard graph products were investigated there. Let $\widehat{D}_{G}(u)=\sum_{v \in V(G) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{G}(u, v)}$, then we can rewrite Eq.(6) as

$$
R D D_{+}(G)=\sum_{u \in V(G)} \delta_{G}(u) \widehat{D}_{G}(u)
$$

which is frequently used throughout the chapter. For the research development of this graph invariant, one may be referred to $[47,53]$.

It is known that the intuitive idea of pairs of close atoms contributing more than the distant ones has been difficult to capture in topological indices. A possibly useful approach could be to replace the additive weighting of pairs by the multiplicative one, thus giving rise to the concept of reciprocal product-degree distance [2,27]:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R D D_{\times}=R D D_{\times}(G)=\sum_{\substack{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G) \\ u \neq v}} \frac{\delta_{G}(u) \delta_{G}(v)}{d_{G}(u, v)} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Recently, Li et al. [48] introduced a new graph invariant named the reformulated reciprocal sumdegree distance, which is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
R D D_{+}^{t}=R D D_{+}^{t}(G)=\sum_{\substack{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G) \\ u \neq v}} \frac{\delta_{G}(u)+\delta_{G}(v)}{d_{G}(u, v)+t}, t \geq 0 . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

| $W$ | $D D_{+}$ | $D D_{\times}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $H$ | $R D D_{+}$ | $R D D_{\times}$ |
| $H_{t}$ | $R D D_{+}^{t}$ | $R D D_{\times}^{t} ?$ |

In view of Eq.(3), $R D D_{+}^{t}$ is just the additively weighted $t$-Harary index; while in view of Eq.(6), it is also the generalized version of the reciprocal sum-degree distance of a connected graph. In this paper, several mathematical properties of this novel graph index were studied. Let $\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; u)=$ $\sum_{v \in V(G) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{G}(u, v)+t}$, then we can rewrite Eq.(8) as

$$
R D D_{+}^{t}(G)=\sum_{u \in V(G)} \delta_{G}(u) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; u)
$$

The graph invariants, defined via Eqs. (1)-(8), can be arranged as in the Table above. From this Table it is immediately seen that one more such invariants is missing. This is the reformulated reciprocal product-degree distance, defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
R D D_{\times}^{t}=R D D_{\times}^{t}(G)=\sum_{\substack{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G) \\ u \neq v}} \frac{\delta_{G}(u) \delta_{G}(v)}{d_{G}(u, v)+t}, t \geq 0 \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of Eq.(3), $R D D_{\times}^{t}$ is just the multiplicatively weighted $t$-Harary index; while in view of Eq.(7), it is also the generalized version of the reciprocal product-degree distance of a connected graph.

## 2. The reciprocal sum-degree distance

This section is divided into several subsections, each dealing with a class of graphs.

### 2.1 Graphs with maximum and minimum $R D D_{+}$

Hua et al. [30] seems to be the first to prove that the maximum and minimum $R D D_{+}$of a connected graph of order $n$ goes to infinity with $n$. In fact, they proved in 2012 that for a graph $G$ with non-isolated vertices the complete graph $K_{n}$ and the path $P_{n}$ respectively attains its maximum and minimum $R D D_{+}$. A little later Alizadeh et al. also showed the minimum value for this graph invariant [2]. The proof of this result is based on following two lemmas.

Lemma 2.1. Let $G$ be a connected graph with at least three vertices.
(a) If $G$ is not isomorphic to $K_{n}$, then $R D D_{+}(G)<R D D_{+}(G+e)$, where $e \in E(\bar{G})$.
(b) If $G$ has an edge $e^{\prime}$ not being a cut edge, then $R D D_{+}\left(G-e^{\prime}\right)<R D D_{+}(G)$.

Proof. We first prove (a) holds. Suppose that $G$ is not a complete graph. Then there exists a pair of vertices $u$ and $v$ in $G$ such that $u v \in E(\bar{G})$. It is obvious that $d_{G}(x, y) \geq d_{G-u v}(x, y)$ for any pair of vertices $x$ and $y$ in $G$. Also we have $d_{G}(u, v)>1=d_{G+u v}(u, v)$. In addition, $\delta_{G+u v}(w) \geq \delta_{G}(w)$ for any $w$ in $G$. It follows from Eq.(6) that $R D D_{+}(G)<R D D_{+}(G+e)$, as desired.

Now, we consider (b). Since the edge $e^{\prime}$ is not a cut edge, we have $G-e^{\prime}$ is connected and not isomorphic to the complete graph of the same order. Thus, by (a), we have $R D D_{+}\left(G-e^{\prime}\right)<$ $R D D_{+}\left(\left(G-e^{\prime}\right)+e^{\prime}\right)=R D D_{+}(G)$, as claimed.


Figure 1. $\alpha_{1}$-transformation $G_{1} \Rightarrow G_{2}$.

Transformation 2.2. Suppose that $H$ is a nontrivial connected graph and $u$ is a vertex in $H$. Let $G_{1}$ (resp. $G_{2}$ ) be a graph obtained by identifying the vertex $u$ of $H$ with a non-pendent vertex (resp. a pendent vertex) of the path $P_{l}(l \geq 3)$. We call $G_{1} \Rightarrow G_{2}$ the $\alpha_{1}$-transformation, see Fig. 1.

Lemma 2.3. ( [30]) Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be two graphs illustrated in Transformation 2.2. Then $R D D_{+}\left(G_{2}\right)<$ $R D D_{+}\left(G_{1}\right)$.

Proof. For each vertex $x$ in $V(H) \backslash\{u\}$, we clearly have $\delta_{G_{1}}(x)=\delta_{H}(x)=\delta_{G_{2}}(x)$. Also, $\delta_{G_{1}}(u)=$ $\delta_{H}(u)+2$ and $\delta_{G_{2}}(u)=\delta_{H}(u)+1$.

Without loss of generality, we label all vertices of path $P_{l}(l \geq 3)$ as $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{l}$ and assume in $G_{1}$ that $u=v_{i}$ for some $2 \leq i \leq l-1$. It follows that $u=v_{1}$ or $v_{l}$ in $G_{2}$.

For $1 \leq j \leq l$, we let $d_{i j}=d_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$. Rearranging these $d_{i j}$ 's and relabeling them as $d_{i j}^{\prime}$ 's such that $d_{i 1}^{\prime} \leq d_{i 2}^{\prime} \leq \cdots \leq d_{i l}^{\prime}$. Then $d_{i j}^{\prime} \leq j-1$ for $j=1,2, \cdots, l$. In particular, $d_{i 1}^{\prime}=0$. We complete the proof by considering two cases.

- For each vertex $x$ in $V(H) \backslash\{u\}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{G_{1}}(x) & =\sum_{y \in V(H) \backslash\{u, x\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, y)}+\sum_{y \in V\left(P_{l}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(x, y)} \\
& =\sum_{y \in V(H) \backslash\{u, x\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, y)}+\sum_{1 \leq j \leq l} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, u)+d_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)} \\
& =\sum_{y \in V(H) \backslash\{u, x\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, y)}+\frac{1}{d_{H}(x, u)}+\sum_{\substack{1 \leq \leq \leq l \\
j \neq i}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, u)+d_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)} \\
& =\sum_{y \in V(H) \backslash\{u, x\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, y)}+\frac{1}{d_{H}(x, u)}+\sum_{2 \leq j \leq l} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, u)+d_{i j}^{\prime}} \\
& \geq \sum_{y \in V(H) \backslash\{u, x\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, y)}+\frac{1}{d_{H}(x, u)}+\sum_{2 \leq j \leq l} \frac{1}{d_{H}(x, u)+j-1} \\
& =\widehat{D}_{G_{2}}(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Recall that $\delta_{G_{1}}(x)=\delta_{H}(x)=\delta_{G_{2}}(x)$ holds for all vertex $x$ in $V(H) \backslash\{u\}$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \delta_{G_{1}}(x) \widehat{D}_{G_{1}}(x) \geq \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \delta_{G_{2}}(x) \widehat{D}_{G_{2}}(x) . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For each vertex $v_{j}$ in $P_{l}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{D}_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right)=\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right)+\sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)+d_{H}(u, x)} . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{D}_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right)=\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right)+\sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}, v_{j}\right)+d_{H}(u, x)} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

For convenience, let $\delta_{i j}^{\prime}$ be the degree of vertex corresponding to $d_{i j}^{\prime}$ for each $1 \leq j \leq l$. Then we have, $\delta_{i 1}^{\prime}=\delta_{H}(u)+2$ and $\delta_{i l}^{\prime}=1$. It is obvious that there must exist a positive integer $j_{0}$ in the interval $[2, l-1]$ such that $\delta_{i j_{0}}^{\prime}=1$.

For $1 \leq j \leq l$, we let $d_{1 j}=d_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}, v_{j}\right)$. It immediately follows that $d_{11} \leq d_{12} \leq \cdots \leq d_{11}$. Clearly, $\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right)=\delta_{H}(u)+1$ and $\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{l}\right)=1$. For the above chosen $j_{0}$, we have $\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j_{0}}\right)=2$.

For $2 \leq j \leq l-1$ and $j \neq j_{0}$, we have $\delta_{i j}^{\prime}=\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right)=2$.
From the definition above it follows that $d_{i j}^{\prime} \leq d_{1 j}$ for any $j=1,2, \cdots, l$.
For simplicity, we let $f_{x}(j)=d_{i j}^{\prime}+d_{H}(u, x)$ and $g_{x}(j)=d_{1 j}+d_{H}(u, x)$ for each given vertex $x$ in $V(H) \backslash\{u\}$. It follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{x}(j) \leq g_{x}(j) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

for each $x$ and $j=1,2, \cdots, l$.
Note that for each $2 \leq j \leq l$ and $j \neq i, \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right)=\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right)=\delta_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right)$. By means of Eqs.(11) and (12), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) & =\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{i j}^{\prime} \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{f_{x}(j)} \\
& =\left(\delta_{H}(u)+2\right) \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)+1 \cdot \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)+\sum_{\substack{j=2 \\
j \neq i}} \delta_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right) \\
& +\sum_{\substack{j=2 \\
j \neq j_{0}}} \delta_{i j}^{\prime} \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{f_{x}(j)}+\delta_{i j_{0}}^{\prime} \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{f_{x}\left(j_{0}\right)} \\
& +\delta_{i 1}^{\prime} \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(u, x)}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) & =\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{g_{x}(j)} \\
& =\left(\delta_{H}(u)+1\right) \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)+2 \cdot \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)+\sum_{\substack{j=2 \\
j \neq i}} \delta_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{j}\right) \\
& +\sum_{\substack{j=2 \\
j \neq j_{0}}} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{g_{x}(j)}+\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j_{0}}\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{g_{x}\left(j_{0}\right)} \\
& +\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(u, x)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

By above analysis and Eq.(13), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{\substack{j=2 \\ j \neq j_{0}}} \delta_{i j}^{\prime} \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{f_{x}(j)} \geq \sum_{\substack{j=2 \\ j \neq j_{0}}} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{g_{x}(j)} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

By means of Eqs.(12) and (13), we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right)-\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \\
& \geq \delta_{H}(u)\left(\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)-\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)\right)+\delta_{i j_{0}}^{\prime} \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{f_{x}\left(j_{0}\right)} \\
& -\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j_{0}}\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{g_{x}\left(j_{0}\right)} \\
& \quad+\left(\delta_{H}(u)+2\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(u, x)}-\left(\delta_{H}(u)+1\right) \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(u, x)} \\
& =\delta_{H}(u)\left(\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)-\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)\right)+\sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{f_{x}\left(j_{0}\right)} \\
& -2 \sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{\sum_{x}\left(j_{0}\right)}+\sum_{x \in V(H) \backslash\{u\}} \frac{1}{d_{H}(u, x)} \\
& \geq \delta_{H}(u)\left(\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)-\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is sufficient to prove that $\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)>\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)$ for each given $2 \leq i \leq l-1$. Clearly, $\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)=$ $\sum_{k=1}^{l-1} \frac{1}{k}$. Let $d_{i j}^{\prime}$ be defined as previous. Since $0=d_{i 1}^{\prime} \leq d_{i 2}^{\prime} \leq \cdots \leq d_{i l}^{\prime}$ and $d_{i j}^{\prime} \leq j-1$, we have $\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)=\sum_{j=2}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{i j}^{\prime}} \geq \sum_{j=2}^{l} \frac{1}{j-1}=\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)$ for each $2 \leq i \leq l-1$. Also, we have $\frac{1}{d_{i 3}^{\prime}}=1>\frac{1}{2}$. Hence, $\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{i}\right)>\widehat{D}_{P_{l}}\left(v_{1}\right)$ for each given $2 \leq i \leq l-1$.

By discussion above, we have arrived at

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right)>\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Form the combination of Eqs.(10) and (15) it follows readily that $R D D_{+}\left(G_{2}\right)<$ $R D D_{+}\left(G_{1}\right)$.

By means of Lemmas 2.1 and 2.3, we are able to characterize connected graphs with the maximum and minimum $R D D_{+}$, respectively. More precisely, we have

Theorem 2.4. ( [30]) Among all nontrivial connected graphs of order $n$, the graphs with maximum and minimum $R D D_{+}$are $K_{n}$ and $P_{n}$, respectively.

Proof. The case of $n=2$ is trivial. So in what follows we suppose that $n \geq 3$.
We first prove that $K_{n}$ is maximal with respect to $R D D_{+}$. If $G$ is not a complete graph, then we can repeatedly add edges into $G$ until we obtain $G \cong K_{n}$. It follows from Lemma 2.1 that $R D D_{+}(G) \leq$ $R D D_{+}\left(K_{n}\right)$, with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

Now, let us show that $P_{n}$ is minimal with respect to $R D D_{+}$. Suppose first that $G$ is not isomorphic to a tree. Let $T(G)$ be a spanning tree of $G$. It follows from Lemma 2.1 that $R D D_{+}(T(G))<R D D_{+}(G)$. It is sufficient to consider the case of $G$ is a tree. If $G$ is not isomorphic to $P_{n}$, then we can repeatedly employ $\alpha$-transformation on $G$ and we must obtain the path $P_{n}$ in the end. By Lemma 2.3, each step of $\alpha_{1}$-transformation will result in a new tree with a strictly smaller $R D D_{+}$than that of the previous one. Hence, $R D D_{+}(G)>R D D_{+}\left(P_{n}\right)$, as desired.

Following the approach of Ref. [28], Alizadeh et al. gave another proof of the above theorem, we encourage the interested reader to consult [2] for details.

The $n$-th harmonic number $H_{n}$ is defined as the $n$-th partial sum of the harmonic series, $H_{n}=$ $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}$. By using the asymptotic formula $H_{n} \approx \ln n+\gamma$ for harmonic numbers, one can obtain the asymptotic behavior of the type $(n+1) \ln n$ for the lower bound of $R D D_{+}$.

In [2], the authors gave an upper bound on $R D D_{+}$among trees with the same number of vertices and then characterize the corresponding extremal graph.

Theorem 2.5. ([2]) Among all nontrivial trees of order $n$, the graph with maximum $R D D_{+}$is the star $S_{n}$.


Figure 2. $\alpha_{2}$-transformation $T \Rightarrow T^{\prime}$.

Proof. Let $x$ be a vertex of $T$ with neighbors $x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{k}, y$ such that $\delta\left(x_{i}\right)=1$ for each $i=$ $1,2, \cdots, k$. Let $T^{\prime}$ be the tree obtained from $T$ by $\alpha_{2}$-transformation shown in Fig. 2.

For simplicity, suppose $S_{0}=\left\{y, x, x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{k}\right\}$ and $S_{1}=V(T) \backslash S_{0}$. The vertices of $S_{0}$ are not affected by $\alpha_{2}$-transformation. Hence, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(T^{\prime}\right)-R D D_{+}(T) & =\sum_{v_{i}, v_{j} \in S_{0}}\left(\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d_{T^{\prime}}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}-\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d_{T}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}\right) \\
& +\sum_{v_{i} \in S_{0}, v_{j} \in S_{1}}\left(\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d_{T^{\prime}}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}-\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d_{T}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}\right) \\
& =k\left[\sum_{v_{j} \in S_{1}}\left(\frac{1}{d\left(y, v_{j}\right)}-\frac{1}{d\left(x, v_{j}\right)}\right)+\frac{1+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(y, v_{j}\right)+1}-\frac{1+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(y, v_{j}\right)+2}\right] \\
& +k\left(\frac{\delta(y)+1}{2}+k-\delta(x)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since, for each vertex $v_{j}$ of $S_{1}, d\left(y, v_{j}\right)<d\left(x, v_{j}\right), R D D_{+}\left(T^{\prime}\right)-R D D_{+}(T) \geq k\left(\frac{\delta(y)-1}{2}\right)$, and the equality holds if and only if $\delta(y)=1$. Applying $\alpha_{2}$-transformation for any pair of vertices such as $x$ and $y$ for a finite number of times, we must get the $S_{n}$ in the end. This completes the proof.

### 2.2 Graphs with given property

Recently, finding bounds for the topological indices of graphs, as well as the related problem of finding the graphs with maximum and minimum value of the respective graph invariant, attracted the attention of many researchers and many results were obtained. Indeed, over a significant class of graph, the bounds for the reciprocal sum-degree distance were obtained. In this section, we consider this problem which will be divided into several classes in the sequel.

### 2.2.1 Graphs with given independent and matching number

The independent sets is an important notion in graph theory. The problem of finding independent sets started more than two centuries ago with the eight queens puzzle, i.e., the problem of placing eight chess queens on an $8 \times 8$ chessboard such that none of them are able to capture any other using the standard chess queen's moves. However, the formal definition of independent sets was posed during the fifties. Since then, several variants of independent sets were defined and a graph invariant was associated to each variant.

Let $G$ and $H$ be two vertex-disjoint graphs. The join of graphs $G$ and $H$, denoted by $G \vee H$, is defined as a graph whose vertex set is $V(G) \cup V(H)$ and edge set is $E(G) \cup E(H) \cup\{x y \mid x \in V(G), y \in V(H)\}$.

A vertex subset $S$ of a graph $G$ is called an independent set of $G$, if the subgraph induced by $S$ is an empty graph. Then $\alpha=\max \{|S|: S$ is an independent set of $\}$ is said to be the independent number of $G$.

Theorem 2.6. ([30]) Let $G$ be an n-vertex connected graph with independent number $\alpha$. Then

$$
R D D_{+}(G) \leq n^{3}-(\alpha+1) n^{2}-\left(\frac{3}{2} \alpha^{2}-\frac{3}{2} \alpha-1\right) n+\frac{3}{2} \alpha^{3}+\frac{3}{2} \alpha^{2}-\alpha
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $\alpha K_{1} \vee K_{n-\alpha}$.
Proof. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a graph chosen among all $n$-vertex connected graphs with independent number $\alpha$ such that $G^{\prime}$ has the largest $R D D_{+}$. Let $S$ be a maximal independent set in $G^{\prime}$ with $|S|=\alpha$. Since adding edges into a graph will increase its $R D D_{+}$by Lemma 2.1, each vertex $x$ in $S$ is adjacent to every vertex $y$ in $G^{\prime}-S$. Moreover, the subgraph induced by vertices in $G^{\prime}-S$ is a clique in $G^{\prime}$. Consequently, it follows that $G^{\prime} \cong \alpha K_{1} \vee K_{n-\alpha}$. An elementary calculation gives $R D D_{+}\left(\alpha K_{1} \vee K_{n-\alpha}\right)=(n-\alpha)(n-$ $1)^{2}+\alpha(n-\alpha)\left[(n-\alpha)+\frac{1}{2}(\alpha-1)\right]=n^{3}-(\alpha+1) n^{2}-\left(\frac{3}{2} \alpha^{2}-\frac{3}{2} \alpha-1\right) n+\frac{3}{2} \alpha^{3}+\frac{3}{2} \alpha^{2}-\alpha$, as desired.

The matching number, also called edge-independent number, $\beta(G)$ of a graph $G$ is the maximum number of disjoint edges in $G$. Let $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{\beta}$ denote the class of connected graphs of order $n$ with matching number $\beta$.

A component of a graph is said to be odd (resp. even) if it has odd (resp. even) number of vertices. Indicate the number of odd components by $o(G)$.

The following is an immediate consequence of the Tutte-Berge formula proved by Lovász and Plummer in [44].

Lemma 2.7. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$. Then

$$
n-2 \beta=\max \{o(G-X)-|X|: X \subset V\}
$$

Theorem 2.8. ([53]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 4$ with matching number $\beta \in\left[2,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right]$. Let

$$
\sigma=\frac{23-4 n+\sqrt{37 n^{2}-121 n+109}}{21} .
$$

Each of the following holds:
(a) if $\beta=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, then $R D D_{+}(G) \leq n(n-1)^{2}$, with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$;
(b) if $\sigma<\beta \leq\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1$, then $R D D_{+}(G) \leq 4 \beta^{3}+(2 n-12) \beta^{2}+(11-3 n) \beta+\frac{n^{2}-n-4}{2}$, with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{1}+\left(K_{2 \beta-1} \cup \overline{K_{n-2 \beta}}\right)$;
(c) if $\beta=\sigma$, then $R D D_{+}(G) \leq 4 \sigma^{3}+(2 n-12) \sigma^{2}+(11-3 n) \sigma+\frac{n^{2}-n-4}{2}=\frac{1}{2} \sigma^{3}-\frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2}+\frac{n^{2}-3 n+2}{2} \sigma$, with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\beta}+\overline{K_{n-\beta}}$ or $G \cong K_{1}+\left(K_{2 \beta-1} \cup \overline{K_{n-2 \beta}}\right)$;
(d) if $2 \leq \beta<\sigma$, then $R D D_{+}(G) \leq \frac{1}{2} \beta^{3}-\frac{1}{2} \beta^{2}+\frac{n^{2}-3 n+2}{2} \beta$, with equality if and only if $G \cong$ $K_{\beta}+\overline{K_{n-\beta}}$.

Proof. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a connected graph with maximum $R D D_{+}$-value in $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{\beta}$. In view of Lemma 2.7, there exists a vertex subset $X^{\prime} \subset V\left(G^{\prime}\right)$ such that

$$
n-2 \beta=\max \left\{o\left(G^{\prime}-X\right)-|X|: X \subset V\right\}=o\left(G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}\right)-\left|X^{\prime}\right|
$$

For simplicity, let $\left|X^{\prime}\right|=s$ and $o\left(G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}\right)=t$. Then $n-2 \beta=t-s$.

Suppose that $s=0$. It follows that $G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}=G^{\prime}$, and $n-2 \beta=t \leq 1$. By our choice of $G$ and Lemma 2.1, we obtain that $G^{\prime}=K_{n}$, then we have $R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right)=n(n-1)^{2}$.

Assume in the following that $s \geq 1$, and consequently $t \geq 1$. Let $G_{1}^{+}, G_{2}^{+}, \cdots, G_{t}^{+}$be all odd components of $G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}$. If $G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}$ has an even component, then by adding an edge in $G^{\prime}$ between a vertex of the even component and a vertex of an odd component of $G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}$, we obtain a graph $G^{\prime \prime}$, for which $n-2 \beta\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right) \geq o\left(G^{\prime \prime}-X^{\prime}\right)-\left|X^{\prime}\right|=o\left(G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}\right)-\left|X^{\prime}\right|$. It follows that $\beta\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)=\beta$, and by Lemma 2.1 $G^{\prime \prime}$ has lager $R D D_{+}$than that of $G^{\prime}$, a contradiction. Thus, $G^{\prime}-X^{\prime}$ does not have even components. Similarly, $G_{1}^{+}, G_{2}^{+}, \cdots, G_{t}^{+}$and the subgraph induced by $X^{\prime}$ are all complete, and any vertex of $G_{1}^{+}, G_{2}^{+}, \cdots, G_{t}^{+}$is adjacent to every vertex in $X^{\prime}$. Let $n_{i}=\left|V\left(G_{i}^{+}\right)\right|$for $i=1,2, \cdots, t$. Then

$$
G^{\prime}=K_{s}+\left(K_{n_{1}} \cup K_{n_{2}} \cup \cdots \cup K_{n_{t}}\right) .
$$

Let $\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(G_{1}, G_{2}\right)$ denote the contribution to the $R D D_{+}$-value between vertices of $G_{1}$ and those of $G_{2}$, then we have

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{n_{i}}, K_{n_{i}}\right)=2\binom{n_{i}}{2}\left(n_{i}+s-1\right) \\
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{n_{i}}, K_{n_{j}}\right)=n_{i} n_{j}\left(n_{i}+s-1+n_{j}+s-1\right) \\
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{n_{i}}, K_{s}\right)=s n_{i}\left(n-1+n_{i}+s-1\right) \\
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{s}, K_{s}\right)=2\binom{s}{2}(n-1)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Hence, the reciprocal sum-degree distance of $G^{\prime}$ can be represented as

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & =\sum_{i=1}^{t} \widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{n_{i}}, K_{n_{i}}\right)+\sum_{i<j} \widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{n_{i}}, K_{n_{j}}\right) \\
& +\sum_{i=1}^{t} \widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{n_{i}}, K_{s}\right)+\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{s}, K_{s}\right) \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{t} n_{i}^{3}+(2 s-2) \sum_{i=1}^{t} n_{i}^{2}+\left(s^{2}+(n-3) s+1\right) \sum_{i=1}^{t} n_{i} \\
& +\sum_{i<j} n_{i} n_{j}\left(n_{i}+n_{j}+2 s-2\right)+2\binom{s}{2}(n-1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By Lagrange multiplier, we can show each of the following function

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
f_{1}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right)=n_{1}^{3}+n_{2}^{3}+\cdots+n_{t}^{3} \\
f_{2}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right)=n_{1}^{2}+n_{2}^{2}+\cdots+n_{t}^{2} \\
f_{3}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right)=n_{1}+n_{2}+\cdots+n_{t} \\
f_{4}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right)=\sum_{i<j} n_{i} n_{j}\left(n_{i}+n_{j}+2 s-2\right),
\end{array}\right.
$$

attains its maximum under the conditions $n_{1}+n_{2}+\cdots+n_{t}=n-s$ and $1 \leq n_{1} \leq n_{2} \leq \cdots \leq n_{t}$ if and only if $n_{1}=n_{2}=\cdots=n_{t-1}=1$ and $n_{t}=2 \beta-2 s+1$.

Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & =f_{1}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right)+2(s-1) f_{2}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right) \\
& +\left(s^{2}+(n-3)+1\right) f_{3}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right)+\frac{1}{2} f_{4}\left(n_{1}, n_{2}, \cdots, n_{t}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

which attains maximum if and only if $n_{1}=n_{2}=\cdots=n_{t-1}=1$ and $n_{t}=n-s-t+1=2 \beta-2 s+1$. It follows that

$$
G^{\prime}=K_{s}+\left(K_{2 \beta-2 s+1} \cup \overline{K_{n+s-2 \beta-1}}\right)
$$

Simply calculation shows that

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{2 \beta-2 s+1}, K_{2 \beta-2 s+1}\right)=2\binom{2 \beta-2 s+1}{2}(2 \beta-s), \\
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(\overline{K_{n+s-2 \beta-1}}, \overline{K_{n+s-2 \beta-1}}\right)=\binom{n+s-2 \beta-1}{2} s \\
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{2 \beta-2 s+1}, \overline{K_{n+s-2 \beta-1}}\right)=(2 \beta-2 s+1)(n+s-2 \beta-1) \beta \\
\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{s}, K_{s}\right)=2\binom{s}{2}(n-1) .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Taking into account the contributions to $R D D_{+}$-value above, it yiels

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & =\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{2 \beta-2 s+1}, K_{2 \beta-2 s+1}\right)+\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(\overline{K_{n+s-2 \beta-1}}, \overline{K_{n+s-2 \beta-1}}\right) \\
& +\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{2 \beta-2 s+1}, \overline{K_{n+s-2 \beta-1}}\right)+\widehat{R D D_{+}}\left(K_{s}, K_{s}\right) \\
& =-\frac{7}{2} s^{3}+\frac{4 n+24 \beta-1}{2} s^{2}+\frac{n^{2}-5 n-24 \beta^{2}-8 n \beta+4}{2} s \\
& +4 \beta^{3}+2 n \beta^{2}+(n-1) \beta .
\end{aligned}
$$

Analyzing the function $\Phi$ on $s$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi(s) & =-\frac{7}{2} s^{3}+\frac{4 n+24 \beta-1}{2} s^{2}+\frac{n^{2}-5 n-24 \beta^{2}-8 n \beta+4}{2} s+4 \beta^{3} \\
& +2 n \beta^{2}+(n-1) \beta .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $s \leq \beta$, since $t-s=n-2 \beta \geq t+s-2 \beta$. By taking derivatives, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi^{\prime}(s)=-\frac{21}{2} s^{2}+(4 n+24 \beta-1) s+\frac{n^{2}-5 n-24 \beta^{2}-8 n \beta+4}{2} \\
& \Phi^{\prime \prime}(s)=-21 s+4 n+24 \beta-1=21(\beta-s)+4 n+3 \beta-1 \geq 4 n+3 \beta-1>0
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies that $\Phi(s)$ is a strictly convex function for $s \leq \beta$, and the maximum value of $\Phi(s)$ is attained when $s=1$ or $s=\beta$. Let

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \Phi(1)=4 \beta^{3}+(2 n-12) \beta^{2}-(3 n-11) \beta+\frac{n^{2}-n-4}{2} \\
& \Phi(\beta)=\frac{1}{2} \beta^{3}-\frac{1}{2} \beta^{2}+\frac{n^{2}-3 n+2}{2} \beta
\end{aligned}
$$

After subtraction, we obtain

$$
\Phi(1)-\Phi(\beta)=\frac{7}{2} \beta^{3}+\frac{4 n-23}{2} \beta^{2}-\frac{n^{2}+3 n-20}{2} \beta+\frac{n^{2}-n-4}{2} .
$$

Now, let us consider the function $\Psi$ on $\beta$

$$
\Psi(\beta)=\frac{7}{2} \beta^{3}+\frac{4 n-23}{2} \beta^{2}-\frac{n^{2}+3 n-20}{2} \beta+\frac{n^{2}-n-4}{2} .
$$

It follows that

$$
\Psi^{\prime}(\beta)=\frac{21}{2} \beta^{2}+(4 n-23) \beta-\frac{n^{2}+3 n-20}{2} .
$$

The quadratic equation $\Psi^{\prime}(\beta)=0$ has two distinct roots, since $37 n^{2}-121 n+109>0$. Let $\sigma$ be its positive root, namely

$$
\sigma=\frac{23-4 n+\sqrt{37 n^{2}-121 n+109}}{21}
$$

If $\beta>\sigma$, and $\Psi^{\prime}(\beta)>0$, then $\Psi(\beta)$ is an increasing function, and $\Psi(\beta)>\Psi(1)=0$ follows. This implies that $\Phi(1)>\Phi(\beta)$. If $\beta<\sigma$, then $\Phi(1)<\Phi(\beta)$. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.8.

### 2.2.2 Graphs with given chromatic number

A coloring of a graph $G$ is an assignment of colors to the vertices of $G$ such that two adjacent vertices have different colors. The minimum number of colors in a coloring of $G$ is the chromatic number of $G$ and is denoted by $\chi(G)$. The chromatic number is a very widely studied graph invariants, whose history started with the famous four color problem, posed by Guthrie in 1852, we encourage the interested readers to consult [8,54,55] and the work of Kempe [38] and Heawood [32] for details.

Denote by $T_{n, t}$ the Turán graph, a complete $t$-partite graph of order $n$ with $\left|n_{i}-n_{j}\right| \leq 1$, where $n_{i}=1,2, \cdots, t$, is the number of vertices in the $i$-th partite set of $T_{n, t}$.

Theorem 2.9. ( [30]) Let $G$ be an $n$-vertex connected graph with chromatic number $\chi$ such that $n=$ $q \chi+p, 0 \leq p \leq \chi$. Then

$$
R D D_{+}(G) \leq n^{3}-(3 q+2) n^{2}-\left(\frac{3}{2} q^{2} \chi+\frac{3}{2} q \chi+\frac{3}{2} q^{2}+\frac{5}{2} q+1\right) n-q(q+1)^{2} \chi
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $T_{n, t}$.

Proof. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a graph chosen among all $n$-vertex connected graphs with chromatic number $\chi$ such that $G^{\prime}$ has the largest $R D D_{+}$. Because the addition of edges into a graph will increase its $R D D_{+}$, we must have $G^{\prime} \cong \overline{K_{n_{1}}} \vee \overline{K_{n_{2}}} \vee \cdots \vee \overline{K_{n_{\chi}}}$, where $n_{i}$ is the number of vertices in the $i$-th partite set.

By the definition of $R D D_{+}$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & =\sum_{i=1}^{\chi} n_{i}\left(n-n_{i}\right)\left[\left(n-n_{i}\right)+\left(n_{i}-1\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right] \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{\chi} n_{i}\left(n-n_{i}\right)\left(n-\frac{n_{i}}{2}-\frac{1}{2}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{\chi} n_{i}^{3}+\frac{1}{2}(1-3 n) \sum_{i=1}^{\chi} n_{i}^{2}+\frac{1}{2}\left(2 n^{3}-n^{2}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Suppose that $G^{\prime}$ is not isomorphic to $T_{n, \chi}$. Then there must exist $n_{j} \geq n_{i}+2$ for some $1 \leq i, j \leq \chi$.

Let $G^{\prime \prime} \cong \overline{K_{n_{1}}} \vee \overline{K_{n_{2}}} \vee \cdots \vee \overline{K_{n_{i}+1}} \vee \cdots \vee \overline{K_{n_{j}-1}} \vee \cdots \vee \overline{K_{n_{\chi}}}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)-R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & =\frac{1}{2}\left[\left(n_{j}-1\right)^{3}+\left(n_{i}+1\right)^{3}-n_{j}^{3}-n_{i}^{3}\right] \\
& +\frac{1-3 n}{2}\left[\left(n_{j}-1\right)^{2}+\left(n_{i}+1\right)^{2}-n_{j}^{2}-n_{i}^{2}\right] \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left(-3 n_{j}^{2}+3 n_{i}^{2}+3 n_{j}+3 n_{i}\right)+\frac{1-3 n}{2}\left(2 n_{i}+2-2 n_{j}\right) \\
& =\frac{n_{i}+1-n_{j}}{2}\left(3 n_{j}+3 n_{i}+2-6 n\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $G^{\prime}$ is connected, we have $\chi \geq 2$, and then $n_{i}<n_{j} \leq n-1$. Thus, $3 n_{j}+3 n_{i}+2-6 n<0$. Note that $n_{i}+1-n_{j}<0$, it follows that $R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)>R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$, a contradiction to our choice of $G^{\prime}$. Hence, $G^{\prime} \cong T_{n, \chi}$. Moreover, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(T_{n, \chi}\right) & =p(q+1)(n-q-1)\left[(n-q-1)+q \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right] \\
& +(\chi-p) q(n-q)\left[(n-q)+(q-1) \cdot \frac{1}{2}\right] \\
& =\sum_{i=1}^{\chi} n_{i}\left(n-n_{i}\right)\left(n-\frac{n_{i}}{2}-\frac{1}{2}\right) \\
& =n^{3}-(3 q+2) n^{2}+\left(\frac{3}{2} q^{2} \chi+\frac{3}{2} q \chi+\frac{3}{2} q^{2}+\frac{5}{2} q+1\right) n-q(q+1)^{2} \chi .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof.

### 2.2.3 Graphs with given vertex-connectivity and edge-connectivity

The concept of connectivities are among the first notations studied in graph theory, which play an important and fundamental role in the exploration of graph properties. The connectivities also play an significant and fundamental role in graphs, especially in the notation of graph vulnerability.

We begin this section by bounding the reciprocal sum-degree distance in terms of connectivities: vertex-connectivity and edge-connectivity. The vertex-connectivity or simply connectivity is the minimum number of vertices whose deletion from a connected graph disconnects it, and the edge-connectivity is the minimum number of edges whose deletion from a connected graph disconnects it.

Theorem 2.10. ( [30]) Let $G$ be an n-vertex connected graph with vertex-connectivity $\kappa$. Then

$$
R D D_{+}(G) \leq n^{3}-\frac{9}{2} n^{2}+\left(2 \kappa+\frac{13}{2}\right) n+\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-3
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$.
Proof. Let $G^{\prime}$ be a graph chosen among all $n$-vertex connected graphs with vertex-connectivity $\kappa$ such that $G^{\prime}$ has the largest $R D D_{+}$. Let $C$ be a vertex-cut in $G^{\prime}$ such that $|C|=\kappa$ and $G^{\prime}-C=G_{1} \cup G_{2} \cup$ $\cdots \cup G_{t}(t \geq 2)$. It follows from Lemma 2.1 that $t=2$, otherwise we can obtain a new graph $G^{\prime \prime}$ with
vertex-connectivity $\kappa$ by adding edges between any two components, which has a strictly larger $R D D_{+}$ than that of $G^{\prime}$, a contradiction to our choice of $G^{\prime}$.

The same reason leads us to that both $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are cliques of $G^{\prime}$, that the subgraph of $G^{\prime}$ induced by $C$ is a clique, and that any vertex in $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$ is adjacent to each vertex in $C$. Let $n_{i}$ denote the order of $G_{i}$. Thus, we have $G^{\prime} \cong K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{n_{1}}+K_{n_{2}}\right)$.

Without loss of generality, we assume that $n_{2} \geq n_{1}$. If $n_{1}=1$, then the result follows readily. Suppose now that $n_{2} \geq n_{1} \geq 2$. It follows from the definition

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & =\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{1}\right)} \delta_{G^{\prime}}(x) \widehat{D}_{G^{\prime}}(x)+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{2}\right)} \delta_{G^{\prime}}(x) \widehat{D}_{G^{\prime}}(x) \\
& +\sum_{x \in V(C)} \delta_{G^{\prime}}(x) \widehat{D}_{G^{\prime}}(x) \\
& =n_{1}\left(n-n_{2}-1\right)\left[\left(n-n_{2}-1\right)+\frac{1}{2} n_{2}\right]+k(n-1)^{2} \\
& +n_{2}\left(n-n_{1}-1\right)\left[\left(n-n_{1}-1\right)+\frac{1}{2} n_{1}\right] \\
& =\left(n^{3}-2 n^{2}+n\right)+\left(3-\frac{5}{2} n-\frac{1}{2} k\right) n_{1} n_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $G^{\prime \prime}=K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{n_{1}-1}+K_{n_{2}+1}\right)$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)-R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & =\left(3-\frac{5}{2} n-\frac{1}{2} k\right)\left[\left(n_{1}-1\right)\left(n_{2}+1\right)-n_{1} n_{2}\right] \\
& =\left(3-\frac{5}{2} n-\frac{1}{2} k\right)\left(n_{1}-n_{2}-1\right)>0
\end{aligned}
$$

a contradiction to our choice of $G^{\prime}$.
Thus, $G^{\prime} \cong K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$. An elementary calculation gives $R D D_{+}\left(K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)\right)=$ $n^{3}-\frac{9}{2} n^{2}+\left(2 \kappa+\frac{13}{2}\right) n+\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-3$, as desired.

In the same paper, Hua et al. also showed that $K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$ maximizes $R D D_{+}$among all $n$-vertex connected graphs with edge-connectivity $\kappa$.

Theorem 2.11. ([30]) Let $G$ be an n-vertex connected graph with edge-connectivity $\kappa$. Then

$$
R D D_{+}(G) \leq n^{3}-\frac{9}{2} n^{2}+\left(2 \kappa+\frac{13}{2}\right) n+\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-3,
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$.
Proof. Suppose that $G^{\prime}$ is a graph chosen among all $n$-vertex connected graphs with edge-connectivity $\kappa$ such that $G^{\prime}$ has the maximum $R D D_{+}$. In what follows we intend to prove that $G^{\prime} \cong K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+\right.$ $\left.K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$.

Let $\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \cdots, e_{\kappa}\right\}$ be a $\kappa$-edge cut in $G^{\prime}$, and let $G^{\prime}-\left\{e_{1}, e_{2}, \cdots, e_{\kappa}\right\}:=G_{1} \cup G_{2}$. Since adding edges into a graph will increase its $R D D_{+}$by Lemma 2.1, both $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ must be complete graphs. Denote by $n_{i}$ the order of $G_{i}$ for $i=1,2$.

We claim that $n_{i}=1$ or $n_{i} \geq \kappa \geq 2$. Suppose that $n_{i} \geq 2$. On one hand, $G_{i}$ has $\binom{n_{i}}{2}$ edges, as $G_{i}$ is a complete graph. On the other hand, the sum of degrees of all vertices in $G_{i}$ is at least $n_{i} \kappa$, and thus $G_{i}$ has at least $\frac{n_{i} \kappa-\kappa}{2}$ edges. Hence,

$$
\frac{n_{i}\left(n_{i}-1\right)}{2} \geq \frac{n_{i} \kappa-\kappa}{2}
$$

this is, $n_{i}^{2}-(\kappa+1) n_{i}+\kappa \geq 0$, implying that $n_{i} \geq \kappa$, as claimed.
Suppose without loss of generality that $n_{2} \geq n_{1}$. If $n_{1}=1, G_{\max }$ is just the graph $K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+\right.$ $\left.K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$, as claimed.

Assume now that $n_{2} \geq n_{1} \geq \kappa$. In the following, we first confirm that each vertex in $G^{\prime}$ has degree at most $\kappa+1$.

Let $v$ be a vertex with neighbors $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{\kappa}$. Write $A=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{\kappa}\right\}$ and $B=V\left(G^{\prime}\right) \backslash$ $\left\{v, v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{\kappa}\right\}$. If $G[A \cup B]$, the subgraph of $G^{\prime}$ induced by $A \cup B$, is the complete graph $K_{n-1}$, then $G^{\prime} \cong K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$, as desired.

If $G[A \cup B]$ is not complete, then we can add an edge, say $u v$, between a vertex $u$ in $A$ and a vertex $v$ in $B$ and the resulting graph is denoted by $G^{\prime \prime}$. Clearly, the edge-connectivity of $G^{\prime \prime}$ is $\kappa$. But then, we have $R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right)<R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$ by Lemma 2.1, a contradiction to the choice of $G^{\prime}$.

So we may suppose that $\delta_{G^{\prime}}(v) \geq \kappa+1$ for any vertex $v$ in $G^{\prime}$. It follows that $n_{2} \geq n_{1} \geq \kappa+1$. In fact, if $n_{1}=\kappa$, then each vertex in $G_{1}$ is adjacent to at least two vertices in $G_{2}$, since each vertex in $G^{\prime}$ is of degree at most $\kappa+1$. But then the number of edges between $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is at least $2 \kappa$, a contradiction.

From [31], we know that if $G$ is an $n$-vertex connected graph with edge-connectivity $\kappa$, then

$$
M_{1}(G) \leq n^{3}-5 n^{2}+(2 \kappa+8) n+\kappa^{2}-3 \kappa-4,
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$.
In 2012, Hua and Zhang [30] proved that for any connected graph $G$ of order $n \geq 2$ and size $m \geq 1$, we have

$$
R D D_{+}(G) \leq(n-1) m+\frac{M_{1}(G)}{2}
$$

with either equality if and only if the diameter of $G$ is at most two. Note that $G^{\prime}$ has $\binom{n_{1}}{2}+\binom{n_{2}}{2}+\kappa$ edges. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & \leq(n-1)\left[\binom{n_{1}}{2}+\binom{n_{2}}{2}+\kappa\right]+\frac{M_{1}\left(G^{\prime}\right)}{2} \\
& \leq(n-1)\left[\binom{n_{1}}{2}+\binom{n_{2}}{2}+\kappa\right]+\frac{n^{3}-5 n^{2}+(2 \kappa+8) n+\kappa^{2}-3 \kappa-4}{2} \\
& =n^{3}-\frac{7}{2} n^{2}+\left(2 \kappa+\frac{9}{2}\right) n+\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-2-(n-1) n_{1} n_{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $n_{2} \geq n_{1} \geq \kappa$ and $n_{1}+n_{2}=n$, we have $n_{1} n_{2}>\kappa(n-\kappa)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & <n^{3}-\frac{7}{2} n^{2}+\left(2 \kappa+\frac{9}{2}\right) n+\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-2-(n-1) \kappa(n-\kappa) \\
& =n^{3}-\left(\kappa+\frac{7}{2}\right) n^{2}+\left(\kappa^{2}+3 \kappa+\frac{9}{2}\right) n-\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-2 .
\end{aligned}
$$

But then

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)\right) & -R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) \\
& >\left[n^{3}-\frac{9}{2} n^{2}+\left(2 \kappa+\frac{13}{2}\right) n+\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-3\right] \\
& -\left[n^{3}-\left(\kappa+\frac{7}{2}\right) n^{2}+\left(\kappa^{2}+3 \kappa+\frac{9}{2}\right) n-\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-2\right] \\
& =(\kappa-1) n^{2}-\left(\kappa^{2}+\kappa-2\right) n+\kappa^{2}-1 \\
& \geq(\kappa-1) n \cdot[2(\kappa+1)]-\left(\kappa^{2}+\kappa-2\right) n+\kappa^{2}-1 \\
& =\kappa^{2} n-\kappa n+\kappa^{2}-1>0,
\end{aligned}
$$

again a contradiction to our choice of $G^{\prime}$.
From discussion above, we have completed the proof.
Let $f(\kappa)=n^{3}-\frac{9}{2} n^{2}+\left(2 \kappa+\frac{13}{2}\right) n+\frac{1}{2} \kappa^{2}-\frac{5}{2} \kappa-3$. It is not difficult to see that $f(\kappa)$ is a strictly increasing function. It then follows that immediately from Theorem 2.10 and 2.11 the following sequence: for any $n$-vertex connected graph with vertex-connectivity (or edge-connectivity) at most $\kappa$, $f(\kappa)$ attains its maximum $R D D_{+}$and the corresponding extremal graph is $K_{\kappa} \vee\left(K_{1}+K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$.

### 2.2.4 Graphs with given pendent vertex

The results outlined in this subsection apply to arbitrary graphs with $n$ vertices and $p$ pendent vertices. Let $K_{n}^{p}$ denote the graph obtained by attaching $p$ pendent edges to a vertex of $K_{n-p}$.

The Zagreb indices have been introduced more than thirty years ago by Gutman and Trinajestić. They were originally defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& M_{1}(G)=\sum_{u \in V(G)}\left(\delta_{G}(u)\right)^{2}, \\
& M_{2}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)} \delta_{G}(u) \delta_{G}(v) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Here $M_{1}(G)$ and $M_{2}(G)$ denote the first and the second Zagreb indices. These graph invariants have rich history, the interested readers for more information on Zagreb indices can be referred to $[3,4,31,63,65$, 66] and therein.

We first demonstrate the validity of the following lemma.
Lemma 2.12. ([30]) Let $G$ be an $n$-vertex connected graph with $p$ pendent vertices. Then

$$
M_{1}(G) \leq n^{3}-(3 p-1) n^{2}+\left(3 p^{2}+6 p+1\right) n-p^{3}-3 p^{2}-2 p-1,
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{n}^{p}$.
Proof. Suppose that $G^{\prime}$ is a graph chosen among all connected graphs with $n$ vertices and $p$ pendent vertices such that it has the maximum first Zagreb index. Let $D\left(G^{\prime}\right)=\left\{d_{1}, d_{2}, \cdots, d_{n}\right\}$ denote the degree sequence of $G^{\prime}$. If we label all pendent vertices of $G_{\max }$ as $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{p}$, then $G\left[V\left(G^{\prime}\right) \backslash\right.$ $\left.\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{p}\right\}\right]$ must be a clique in $G^{\prime}$, for otherwise, we can obtain a new graph with a strictly larger first Zagreb index than that of $G^{\prime}$ by adding edges into $G^{\prime}$.

Note that the degree sequence $D\left(K_{n}^{p}\right)=\{n-1, \underbrace{n-p-1, \cdots, n-p-1}_{n-p-1}, \underbrace{1, \cdots, 1}_{p}\}$ If $G^{\prime} \neq K_{n}^{p}$, then there must exist a pair $\left(d_{i}, d_{j}\right)$ in $G^{\prime}$ with $n-p \leq d_{i} \leq d_{j} \leq n-2$. We can construct a new $n$-vertex and $p$-pendent vertex connected graph $G^{\prime \prime}$ by replacing the pair $\left(d_{i}, d_{j}\right)$ in $G^{\prime}$ by the pair $\left(d_{i}-1, d_{j}+1\right)$. It is not difficult to check that $M_{1}\left(G^{\prime}\right)<M_{1}\left(G^{\prime \prime}\right)$, a contradiction to our choice of $G^{\prime}$. Hence, $G^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $K_{n}^{p}$. Simple calculation shows that $M_{1}\left(K_{n}^{p}\right)=n^{3}-(3 p-1) n^{2}+\left(3 p^{2}+6 p+1\right) n-p^{3}-$ $3 p^{2}-2 p-1$, as desired.

We now give an upper bound for the reciprocal sum-degree distance of graphs with given order and number of pendent vertices.

Theorem 2.13. Let $G$ be an $n$-vertex connected graph with $p$ pendent vertices. Then

$$
R D D_{+}(G) \leq \frac{2 n^{3}-(5 p+1) n^{2}+\left(4 p^{2}+11 p+2\right) n-p^{3}-4 p^{2}-5 p-1}{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{n}^{p}$.
Proof. Suppose that $G^{\prime}$ is a connected graph with $n$ vertices and $p$ pendent vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots$, $v_{p}$ satisfying that the induced graph by $V\left(G^{\prime}\right)-\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{p}\right\}$ is a clique in $G^{\prime}$. It is sufficient to consider the upper bound for $R D D_{+}$of $G^{\prime}$ by Lemma 2.1.

It was proved by Hua et al. [30] that for any connected graph $H$ with order $n$ and size $m, R D D_{+}(H)$ $\leq(n-1) m+\frac{M_{1}(H)}{2}$, and with either equality if and only if the diameter of $G$ is at most two. Note that $G^{\prime}$ has $p+\binom{n-p}{2}=p+\frac{(n-p)(n-p-1)}{2}$ edges. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}\left(G^{\prime}\right) & \leq(n-1) m+\frac{M_{1}\left(G^{\prime}\right)}{2} \\
& =(n-1)\left[\frac{(n-p)^{2}+3 p-n}{2}\right]+\frac{M_{1}\left(G^{\prime}\right)}{2} \\
& \leq(n-1)\left[\frac{(n-p)^{2}+3 p-n}{2}\right]+\frac{M_{1}\left(K_{n}^{p}\right)}{2} \\
& =\frac{2 n^{3}-(5 p+1) n^{2}+\left(4 p^{2}+11 p+2\right) n-p^{3}-4 p^{2}-5 p-1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

The first equality holds if and only if the diameter of $G^{\prime}$ is at most two and the second equality holds if and only if $G^{\prime}$ is isomorphic to $K_{n}^{p}$. Since $K_{n}^{p}$ has diameter two, and therefore $R D D_{+}(G) \leq$ $\frac{2 n^{3}-(5 p+1) n^{2}+\left(4 p^{2}+11 p+2\right) n-p^{3}-4 p^{2}-5 p-1}{2}$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}^{p}$. This completes the proof.

## 3. The reciprocal product-degree distance

From the fact that adding an edge to $G$ will increase the degrees of its vertices and decrease the distances between some vertices, it follows that adding of an edge will increase the value of $R D D_{\times}$. This immediately implies that the complete graph has the largest $R D D_{\times}$among all graphs with the same number of vertices. Hence, for any graph $G$ on $n$ vertices, we have $R D D_{\times}(G) \leq \frac{1}{2} n(n-1)^{3}$. By the analogous argument, any graph on $n$ vertices having the smallest $R D D_{\times}$must be tree.

### 3.1 General graphs with maximum and minimum $R D D_{\times}$

Deng, Krishnakumari, Venkatakrishnan and Balachandran [15] determined the minimum and maximum value of the reciprocal product-degree distance for trees. Their first lemma is based on the following transformation.

Transformation 3.1. Let $G_{0}$ be a graph with $n_{0} \geq 2$ vertices, and $P=v_{1} v_{2} v_{3} \cdots v_{r}$ a path of length $r-1 \geq 2$. If $G$ (resp. $G^{1}$ ) is the graph obtained by identifying a vertex $v_{0}$ in $G_{0}$ to $v_{k}\left(r e s p . v_{k-1}\right)$ in $P$, $2 \leq k \leq \frac{r}{2}$, then $G \Rightarrow G^{1}$ is called the $\rho_{1}$-transformation, see Fig. 3

Lemma 3.2. ([15]) Let $G^{1}$ be the graph obtained from $G$ by $\rho_{1}$-transformation. Then $R D D_{\times}\left(G^{1}\right)<R D D_{\times}(G)$.

Proof. Let $T=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{r}\right\}$ and let $G_{0}$ denote the subgraph of $G$ induced by the vertex set $V(G) \backslash T$. From the definition of $R D D_{\times}(G)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}(G) & \leq\left[\sum_{x, y \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}}+\sum_{x, y \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}}+\sum_{\substack{\left.x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\} \\
y \in T \backslash v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}}}\right] \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
& +\delta\left(v_{k}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, x_{0}\right)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k-1}\right)}\right] \\
& +\delta\left(v_{k-1}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, x_{0}\right)+1}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k-1}\right)}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

After using $\rho_{1}$-transformation, the degree of $v_{k-1}$ increases by $\delta_{G_{0}}\left(v_{0}\right)$, while the degree of the vertex $v_{k}$ decreases by $\delta_{G_{0}}\left(v_{0}\right)$. During the transformation, for pairs $x, y \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ or $x, y \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}$, the contribution $\frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}$ does not change. Let $\alpha=\alpha(x)=\delta_{G_{0}}\left(x, v_{0}\right)$ for $x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}$ and $H_{n}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}$ be the $n$-th harmonic number.


Figure 3. $G^{1}$ is obtained from $G$ by $\rho_{1}$-transformation.

For simplicity, we distinguish the following two cases.
Case 1. $k>2$
In the graph $G$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1}= & \sum_{\substack{x \in\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\} \\
y \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
= & \sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{1}{\alpha+k-1}+2\left(H_{\alpha+k-2}-H_{\alpha+1}\right)\right. \\
& \left.2\left(H_{\alpha+r-k-1}-H_{\alpha}\right)+\frac{1}{\alpha+r-k}\right] . \\
A_{2}= & \delta\left(v_{k}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k}\right)}\right] \\
= & \left(\delta\left(v_{0}\right)+2\right)\left[\frac{1}{k-1}+2 H_{k-2}+2 H_{r-k-1}+\frac{1}{r-k}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha}\right] . \\
A_{3}= & \delta\left(v_{k-1}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)+1}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k-1}, v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k-1}\right)}\right] \\
= & {\left[\frac{1}{k-2}+2 H_{k-3}+2\left(H_{r-k}-H_{1}\right)+\frac{1}{r-k+1}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha+1}\right] . }
\end{aligned}
$$

In the graph $G^{1}$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{1} & =\sum_{\substack{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\} \\
y \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
& =\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{1}{\alpha+k-2}+2\left(H_{\alpha+k-3}-H_{\alpha}\right)\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left.2\left(H_{\alpha+r-k}-H_{\alpha+1}\right)+\frac{1}{\alpha+r-k+1}\right] . \\
B_{2}=\delta\left(v_{k}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)+1}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k}\right)}\right] \\
=2\left[\frac{1}{k-1}+2\left(H_{k-2}-H_{1}\right)+\left(\delta\left(v_{0}\right)+2\right)+2 H_{r-k-1}+\frac{1}{r-k}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha+1}\right] . \\
B_{3}=\delta\left(v_{k-1}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k-1}, v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k-1}\right)}\right] \\
= \\
=\left(\delta\left(v_{0}\right)+2\right)\left[\frac{1}{k-2}+2 H_{k-3}+2\left(H_{r-k}-H_{1}\right)+\frac{1}{r-k+1}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha}\right] .
\end{gathered}
$$

From the above, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}(G)-R D D_{\times}\left(G^{1}\right) & =\left(A_{1}+A_{2}+A_{3}\right)-\left(B_{1}+B_{2}+B_{3}\right) \\
& =\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{1}{\alpha+k-1}+\frac{1}{\alpha+k-2}-\frac{1}{\alpha+r-k}\right. \\
& \left.-\frac{1}{\alpha+r-k+1}\right] \\
& +\delta\left(v_{0}\right)\left[\frac{1}{k-1}+\frac{1}{k-2}-\frac{1}{r-k}-\frac{1}{r-k+1}\right]>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The inequality holds since for $k \leq \frac{r}{2}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\frac{1}{\alpha+k-1}+\frac{1}{\alpha+k-2}-\frac{1}{\alpha+r-k}-\frac{1}{\alpha+r-k+1}\right] } & >0 \\
{\left[\frac{1}{k-1}+\frac{1}{k-2}-\frac{1}{r-k}-\frac{1}{r-k+1}\right] } & >0
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2. $k=2$
In the graph $G$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{1} & =\sum_{\substack{x \in V \backslash\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\} \\
y \in T \in\left\{v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
& =\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{1}{\alpha+r-2}+2\left(H_{\alpha+r-3}-H_{\alpha}\right)\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{2} & =\delta\left(v_{k}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k}\right)}\right] \\
& =\left(\delta\left(v_{0}\right)+2\right)\left[1+2 H_{r-3}+\frac{1}{r-2}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha}\right] \\
A_{3}= & \delta\left(v_{k-1}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)+1}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k-1}, v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k-1}\right)}\right] \\
= & \left(2 H_{r-2}-1\right)+\frac{1}{r-1}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha+1} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In the graph $G^{1}$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{1} & =\sum_{\substack{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\} \\
y \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}, v_{k-1}\right\}}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
& =\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{1}{\alpha+r-1}+2\left(H_{\alpha+r-2}-H_{\alpha+1}\right)\right] . \\
B_{2} & =\delta\left(v_{k}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k}\right)}\right] \\
& =2\left[\delta\left(v_{0}\right)+1+2 H_{r-3}+\frac{1}{r-2}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha+1}\right] . \\
B_{3}= & \delta\left(v_{k-1}\right)\left[\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{0}\right)+1}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\left\{v_{k-1}, v_{k}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d\left(x, v_{k-1}\right)}\right] \\
= & \left(\delta\left(v_{0}\right)+1\right)\left[\left(2 H_{r-2}-1\right)+\frac{1}{r-1}+\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{\alpha}\right] .
\end{aligned}
$$

From the above, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}(G)-R D D_{\times}\left(G^{1}\right) & =\left(A_{1}+A_{2}+A_{3}\right)-\left(B_{1}+B_{2}+B_{3}\right) \\
& =\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{2}{\alpha+1}-\frac{1}{\alpha+r-2}-\frac{1}{\alpha+r-1}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\delta\left(v_{0}\right)\left[2-\frac{1}{r-2}-\frac{1}{r-1}\right] \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(G_{0}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{0}\right\}} \delta(x)\left(\frac{1}{\alpha}-\frac{1}{\alpha+1}\right)>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

We have exhausted all the cases, so the proof is completed.
Repeatedly using Transformation 3.1, we can easily obtain a path from a tree. By Lemma 3.2, we have

Theorem 3.3. ( [15]) Let $T$ be a tree with $n \geq 2$ vertices, then $R D D_{\times}\left(P_{n}\right) \leq R D D_{\times}(T)$, with equality if and only if $T$ is isomorphic to $P_{n}$.

The following is an immediately consequence of Theorem 3.3. But we outline another proof for the lower bound which also was gave in [6].

Corollary 3.4. Let $G$ be a graph with $n$ vertices, then $R D D_{\times}\left(P_{n}\right) \leq R D D_{\times}(G)$ $\leq R D D_{\times}\left(K_{n}\right)$, with left (resp. right) equality if and only if $T$ is isomorphic to $P_{n}\left(r e s p . K_{n}\right)$.

Proof. By the previous argument, we only need to consider trees on $n$ vertices. Let $T_{n}$ be such a tree, and let $v$ be any vertex of $T_{n}$ of degree at least 3 such that at least two of the components of $T_{n}-v$ are paths. Let those paths be of lengths $s$ and $l$ with $s \leq l$. We denote the tree induced by the vertices not in the above two paths by $R$. Let us call such a tree $T_{s, l}$. We transform $T_{s, l}$ by transplanting the end-vertex of the shorter path to the end-vertex of the longer path, obtaining a tree we denote by $T_{s-1, l+1}$. Evidently, $R$ is not affected by such a transformation. The transformation is illustrated in Fig. 3. We proceed by comparing the contributions of various pairs of vertices to the $R D D_{\times}$-values of $T_{s, l}$ and $T_{s-1, l+1}$. We consider the following two cases.

Case 1. $s>1$.
It is obvious that the contributions of all pairs not including the transplanted vertex and its neighbors remain unaffected by our transformation. Moreover, it is clear that the contributions involving the transplanted vertex are smaller in $T_{s-1, l+1}$ than in $T_{s, l}$ since the distances involved are greater. The only contributions that are greater in $T_{s-1, l+1}$ than in $T_{s, l}$ are those involving the former end-vertex of $l$-path. For a vertex $x$ at distance $d$ from $v$ such contributions are $\frac{2 \delta(x)}{d+l}$ and $\frac{\delta(x)}{d+l}$, respectively. Hence, the net change per vertex $u$ of $R$ is $\frac{\delta(x)}{d+l}$ in surplus for $T_{s-1, l+1}$. That surplus is, however, at least offset by the change in the contributions of pairs containing the new end-vertex of the shorter path. Previous contributions $\frac{2 \delta(x)}{d+l}$ become $\frac{\delta(x)}{d+l}$, resulting in a net loss of $\frac{\delta(x)}{d+l}$ per vertex $x$ at distance $d$ from $v$. Since $s-1<l$, such loss more than offsets the gain on the longer side, and hence $R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s-1, l+1}\right) \leq R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s, l}\right)$.

Case 2. $s=1$.
We still follow the same pattern discussed above. In this case, our transformation also changes the degree of $v$ by decreasing it by 1 . The only contributions that are greater in $R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s-1, l+1}\right)$ than the
corresponding contributions in $R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s, l}\right)$ are those involving the former end-vertex on the longer side. The net surplus per vertex is again $\frac{\delta(x)}{d+l}$ per vertex $x$ of $R$ at distance $d$ from $v$. Again, this is compensated by the loss of $\frac{\delta(x)}{d}$ per each such vertex coming from the decrease in the degree of $v$. It remains to consider the change in the contributions of pairs $(v, y)$ where $y$ is on the remaining path of length $l+1$. All such contributions in $R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s-1, l+1}\right)$ are smaller than the corresponding contributions in $R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s, l}\right)$ except from the last two vertices. Their combined contributions are $\frac{2(\delta(v)-1)}{l}+\frac{\delta(v)-1}{l+1}$. This quantity, however, cannot exceed the value of $\delta(v)$, representing the loss from the transplanted vertex, since $\delta(v)>\frac{2(\delta(v)-1)}{l}+\frac{\delta(v)-1}{l+1}$ for all $l \geq 2$. Again, $R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s-1, l+1}\right) \leq R D D_{\times}\left(T_{s, l}\right)$.

We recall one more lemma from [15] as we need it in the proof of our main result.
Transformation 3.5. Let $v$ be a vertex of degree $p+1$ in a graph $G$, such that $v v_{1}, v v_{2}, \cdots, v v_{p}$ are pendent edges incident with $v$, and $u$ is the neighbor of $v$ distinct from $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{p}$. Denote by $G^{1}$ the graph obtained from $G$ by removing edges $v v_{1}, v v_{2}, \cdots, v v_{p}$ and adding new edges $u v_{1}, u v_{2}, \cdots, u v_{p}$. Then we call $G \Rightarrow G^{1}$ the $\rho_{2}$-transformation.

Lemma 3.6. ([15]) Let $G^{1}$ be the graph obtained from $G$ by $\rho_{2}$-transformation. Then $R D D_{\times}(G) \leq R D D_{\times}\left(G^{1}\right)$, with equality if and only if $G$ is a star with $v$ as its center.

Proof. Let $T=\left\{v, v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{p}\right\}$ and $H$ denote the subgraph of $G$ induced by the vertex set $V(G) \backslash T$. From the definition of $R D D_{\times}(G)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}(G) & =\left[\sum_{x, y \in H \backslash\{u\}}+\sum_{x, y \in T \backslash\{v\}}+\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\
y \in T \backslash\{v\}}}\right] \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
& +\delta(u)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\{v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}\right] \\
& +\delta(v)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\{v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}\right]+\frac{\delta(u) \delta(v)}{d(u, v)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

After the $\rho_{2}$-transformation, the degree of the vertex $u$ increases by $p$, while the degree of the vertex $v$ decreases by $p$. The distance between $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ for $i \neq j$ does not change. The distance between $v_{i}$ and $v$ increases by one, while the distance between $v_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq p$, and other vertices decreases by one. During the transformation, for $x, y \in H \backslash\{u\}$ and $x, y \in T \backslash\{v\}$, the contribution $\sum \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}$ does not change.

In the graph $G$,

$$
A_{1}=\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash \backslash u\} \\ y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}=\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\ y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, y)} .
$$

while in the graph $G^{1}$,

$$
B_{1}=\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\ y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}=\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\ y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, y)-1} .
$$

For the vertex $u$ in the graph $G$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{2} & =\delta(u)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\{v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}\right] \\
& =\delta(u) \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+\frac{p \delta(u)}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

while in $G^{1}$, it becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{2} & =\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{(\delta(u)+p) \delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\{v\}} \frac{(\delta(u)+p) \delta(x)}{d(x, u)} \\
& =\delta(u) \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+p \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+p \delta(u)+p^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For the vertex $v$ in the graph $G$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
A_{3} & =\delta(v)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\{v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\frac{\delta(u)}{d(u, v)}\right] \\
& =(p+1) \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}+p(p+1)+(p+1) \delta(u) \\
& =p \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}+\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}+p^{2}+p+p \delta(u)+\delta(u) .
\end{aligned}
$$

while in $G^{1}$, it becomes

$$
\begin{aligned}
B_{3} & =\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\sum_{x \in T \backslash\{v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\frac{\delta(u)+p}{d(u, v)} \\
& =\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}+\frac{p}{2}+\delta(u)+p .
\end{aligned}
$$

From the above, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}\left(G^{1}\right)-R D D_{\times}(G) & =\left(B_{1}-A_{1}\right)+\left(B_{2}-A_{2}\right)+\left(B_{3}-A_{3}\right) \\
& =\left[\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\
y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, y)-1}-\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\
y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, y)}\right] \\
& +\left[\delta(u) \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+p \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+p \delta(u)\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.+p^{2}-\delta(u) \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}-\frac{p \delta(u)}{2}\right] \\
& +\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}+\frac{p}{2}+\delta(u)+p\right. \\
& -p \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1} \\
& \left.-\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}-p^{2}-p-p \delta(u)-\delta(u)\right] \\
& =\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\
y \in T-v}} \frac{\delta(x)}{(d(x, y)-1) d(x, y)}+p \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)(d(x, u)+1)} \\
& -p \frac{\delta(u)}{2}+\frac{p}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $u$ has at least $\delta(u)-1$ neighbors $x \in H \backslash\{u\}$, therefore $\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)(d(x, u)+1)} \geq \frac{\delta(u)-1}{2}$, and consequently

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}\left(G^{1}\right)-R D D_{\times}(G) & \geq \sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\}\} \\
y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x)}{(d(x, y)-1) d(x, y)}+\frac{p(\delta(u)-1)}{2}-\frac{p \delta(u)}{2}+\frac{p}{2} \\
& =\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u\} \\
y \in T \backslash\{v\}}} \frac{\delta(x)}{(d(x, y)-1) d(x, y)} \geq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

The equality holds if and only if $H$ contains only one vertex $u$, i.e., $G$ is a star with $v$ as its center.
For a tree $T$ on $n$ vertices, if $T$ is not isomorphic to $S_{n}$, then $T$ can be transformed into $S_{n}$ by using Transformation 3.5 repeatedly. From Lemma 3.6, we have

Theorem 3.7. ([15]) Let $T$ be a tree on $n$ vertices, then $R D D_{\times}(T) \leq R D D_{\times}\left(S_{n}\right)$ with equality if and only if $T$ is isomorphic to $S_{n}$.

### 3.2 Unicyclic graphs with maximum $R D D_{\times}$

This section will focus on the discussion of a special class of unicyclic graphs. Let $U_{n, k}$ be the unicyclic graph of order $n \geq 3$ with girth $k \geq 3$ obtained from $C_{k}$ by adding $n-k$ pendent vertices to a vertex of $C_{k}$.

Lemma 3.8. ( [15]) Let $u$ and $v$ be two vertices of a graph $H$. We use $G$ to denote the graph obtained from $H$ by attaching s pendent vertices $u_{1}, u_{2}, \cdots, u_{s}$ and $t$ pendent vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{t}$ to $u$ and $v$,
respectively. Assume that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& G_{1}=G-\left\{v v_{1}, v v_{2}, \cdots, v v_{t}\right\}+\left\{u v_{1}, u v_{2}, \cdots, u v_{t}\right\} \\
& G_{2}=G-\left\{u u_{1}, u u_{2}, \cdots, u u_{s}\right\}+\left\{v u_{1}, v u_{2}, \cdots, v u_{s}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $R D D_{\times}(G)<R D D_{\times}\left(G_{1}\right)$ or $R D D_{\times}(G)<R D D_{\times}\left(G_{2}\right)$.
Proof. For convenience, let $A=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \cdots, u_{s}\right\}, B=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{t}\right\}$ and $d_{H}(u, v)=l$. From $G$ to $G_{1}$, for any pair of vertices $x, y$ satisfying $x, y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}$ or $x, y \in A$ or $x, y \in B$ or $x \in A$ and $y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}$, the contribution $\sum_{x, y} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}$ does not change. Hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}(G) & =\left[\sum_{x, y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}}+\sum_{x, y \in A}+\sum_{x, y \in B}+\sum_{\substack{x \in A \\
y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}}}\right] \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
& +\sum_{\substack{x \in A \\
y \in B}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}+\sum_{\substack{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\} \\
y \in B}} \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)} \\
& +\delta(u)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+\sum_{x \in A} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}+\sum_{x \in B} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)}\right] \\
& +\delta(v)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\sum_{x \in A} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\sum_{x \in B} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}\right]+\frac{\delta(u) \delta(v)}{d(u, v)} \\
& \left.+\sum_{x, y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}}+\sum_{x, y \in A}+\sum_{x, y \in B}+\sum_{\substack{x \in A \\
y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}}}\right] \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}+\frac{s t}{l+2} \\
+ & \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)+1}+\left(s+\delta_{H}(u)\right)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)+1}+s+\frac{t}{l+1}\right] \\
+ & \left(t+\delta_{H}(v)\right)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+t+\frac{s}{l+1}\right] \\
& +\frac{\left(s+\delta_{H}(u)\right)\left(t+\delta_{H}(v)\right)}{l} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}\left(G_{1}\right)= & {\left[\sum_{x, y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}}+\sum_{x, y \in A}+\sum_{x, y \in B}+\sum_{\substack{x \in A \\
y \in H \backslash\{u, v\}}}\right] \frac{\delta(x) \delta(y)}{d(x, y)}+\frac{s t}{2} } \\
& +t \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}+\left(s+t+\delta_{H}(u)\right)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, u)+1}+s+t\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
+\delta_{H}(v)\left[\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \frac{\delta(x)}{d(x, v)}+\frac{t}{l+1}+\frac{s}{l+1}\right]+\frac{\delta_{H}(v)\left(s+t+\delta_{H}(u)\right)}{l} .
$$

Combing the previous two equalities, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}\left(G_{1}\right)-R D D_{\times}(G) & =\frac{s t l}{2(l+2)}+t \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{d(x, v)-d(x, u)}{(d(x, u)+1)(d(x, v)+1)}\right] \\
& +t \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{d(x, v)-d(x, u)}{d(x, v) d(x, u)}\right] \\
& +2 s t+t\left(\delta_{H}(u)-\delta_{H}(v)\right)-\frac{2 s t+t\left(\delta_{H}(u)\right)-\delta_{H}(v)}{l+1} \\
& -\frac{s t+t\left(\delta_{H}(u)-\delta_{H}(v)\right)}{l} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}\left(G_{2}\right)-R D D_{\times}(G) & =\frac{s t l}{2(l+2)}+s \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{d(x, u)-d(x, v)}{(d(x, u)+1)(d(x, v)+1)}\right] \\
& +s \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{d(x, u)-d(x, v)}{d(x, v) d(x, u)}\right] \\
& +2 s t+s\left(\delta_{H}(v)-\delta_{H}(u)\right)-\frac{2 s t+s\left(\delta_{H}(v)-\delta_{H}(u)\right)}{l+1} \\
& -\frac{s t+s\left(\delta_{H}(v)-\delta_{H}(u)\right)}{l} .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $R D D_{\times}\left(G_{1}\right)-R D D_{\times}(G)>0$, then the result follows; otherwise $R D D_{\times}\left(G_{1}\right)-R D D_{\times}(G) \leq 0$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \quad \sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{d(x, u)-d(x, v)}{(d(x, u)+1)(d(x, v)+1)}\right]+\sum_{x \in H \backslash\{u, v\}} \delta(x)\left[\frac{d(x, u)-d(x, v)}{d(x, v) d(x, u)}\right] \\
& \geq \frac{s l}{2(l+2)}+2 s+\left(\delta_{H}(u)-\delta_{H}(v)\right)-\frac{2 s+\left(\delta_{H}(u)-\delta_{H}(v)\right)}{l+1} \\
& - \\
& -\frac{s+\left(\delta_{H}(u)-\delta_{H}(v)\right)}{l}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
R D D_{\times}\left(G_{2}\right)-R D D_{\times}(G) \geq \frac{s l(s+t)}{2(l+2)}+s(s+t)\left(2-\frac{2}{l+1}-\frac{1}{l}\right)>0 .
$$

This completes the proof.


Figure 4. $\rho_{3}$-transformation $G \Rightarrow G_{1}$ or $G \Rightarrow G_{2}$.

Transformation 3.9. Let $u$ and $v$ be two vertices of a connected graph H. Let $G$ be the graph obtained from $H$ by attaching $s$ pendent vertices $u_{1}, u_{2}, \cdots, u_{s}$ and $t$ pendent vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{t}$ to $u$ and $v$, respectively. Assume that $G_{1}=G-\left\{v v_{1}, v v_{2}, \cdots, v v_{t}\right\}+\left\{u v_{1}, u v_{2}, \cdots, u v_{t}\right\}, G_{2}=$ $G-\left\{u u_{1}, u u_{2}, \cdots, u u_{s}\right\}+\left\{v u_{1}, v u_{2}, \cdots, v u_{s}\right\}$. If $R D D_{\times}(G)<R D D_{\times}\left(G_{1}\right)\left(\right.$ or $R D D_{\times}(G)<$ $\left.R D D_{\times}\left(G_{2}\right)\right)$, then we call $G \Rightarrow G_{i}$ for $i=1$ or 2 the $\rho_{3}$-transformation, see Fig 4.

For a unicyclic graph $G$ of order $n$ with girth $k$, firstly, using Transformation 3.5 on $G$ repeatedly, we can get a unicyclic graph from $C_{k}$ by adding $n-k$ pendent vertices to the vertices of $C_{k}$, then using Transformation 3.9 repeatedly, we can get the unicyclic graph $U_{n, k}$. From Lemmas 3.6 and 3.8, we now obtain the following theorem.

Theorem 3.10. ( [15]) Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n$ with girth $k$. Then $R D D_{\times}(G) \leq$ $R D D_{\times}\left(U_{n, k}\right)$ with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $U_{n, k}$.

Theorem 3.10 shows that $U_{n, k}$ is the unicyclic graph with the maximum $R D D_{\times}$among all unicyclic graph of order $n$ and girth $k$.

Theorem 3.11. ( [15]) Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n \geq 3$. Then $R D D_{\times}(G) \leq \frac{n(5 n+1)}{4}$ with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $U_{n, 3}$.

Theorem 3.11 shows that $U_{n, 3}$ is the unique graph with maximum $R D D_{\times}$among all unicyclic graph of order $n$.

## 4. Relation between $R D D_{+}$and $R D D_{\times}$

We discuss in this section the relation between the reciprocal sum-degree distance and the reciprocal product-degree distance. We start with an auxiliary lemma proved by Dragomir in [16] which will be used in later proofs.

Lemma 4.1. Let $\vec{x}=\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{N}\right)$ and $\vec{y}=\left(y_{1}, y_{2}, \cdots, y_{N}\right)$ be sequences of real numbers, $\vec{z}=\left(z_{1}, z_{2}, \cdots, z_{N}\right)$ and $\vec{w}=\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \cdots, w_{N}\right)$ be nonnegative sequences, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i} \sum_{i=1}^{N} z_{i} x_{i}^{2}+\sum_{i=1}^{N} z_{i} \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i} y_{i}^{2} \geq 2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} z_{i} x_{i} \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i} y_{i} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, if $z_{i}$ and $w_{i}$ are positive, then the equality holds in (16) if and only if $\vec{x}=\vec{y}=\vec{k}$, where $\vec{k}=(k, k, \cdots, k)$ is a constant sequence.

Define the inverse degree of a graph $G$ with no isolated vertices as

$$
R(G)=\sum_{v \in V(G)} \frac{1}{\delta(v)}
$$

The inverse degree first attracted attention through conjectures of the computer program Graffiti [25]. It has been studied by several authors, see for example [19,23].

Theorem 4.2. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges, maximum degree $\Delta$ and minimum degree $\Delta$, then

$$
\begin{align*}
2 R D D_{+}(G) R D D_{\times}(G) & \leq(2 m-\underline{\Delta}) M_{1}(G)\left[\frac{(n-1) \Delta \Delta}{\Delta+\underline{\Delta}}\right. \\
& \left.+\frac{(n-1)(n-2) \Delta}{4}+(n-1) R(G)\right] \tag{17}
\end{align*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{3}$.
Proof. Suppose that each $i$ in Lemma 4.1 corresponds a vertex pair $\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ such that $N=\binom{n}{2}$. Setting $z_{i}=w_{i}=\frac{1}{x_{i} y_{i}}$ and each $x_{i}$ is replaced by $\frac{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}$ and $y_{i}$ is replaced by $\frac{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}$, then we get

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)\right)}{\left(d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)\right)^{2}} \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}}\left[\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}+\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}\right]  \tag{18}\\
& \geq 2 \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)} \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}
\end{align*}
$$

To accomplish the proof, it is sufficient to find respectively the upper bound of

$$
\zeta_{1}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right):=\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}}\left[\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}+\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}\right]
$$

and

$$
\zeta_{2}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right):=\sum_{\left\{v_{i} \cdot v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)\right)}{\left(d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)\right)^{2}}
$$

Note that $\frac{2}{\Delta} \leq \frac{1}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}+\frac{1}{\delta\left(v_{j}\right)} \leq \frac{2}{\underline{\Delta}}$, it immediately follows that $\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)} \leq \frac{\Delta}{2}$. Again since $\frac{1}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}+\frac{1}{\underline{\Delta}} \geq$ $\frac{1}{\Delta}+\frac{1}{\underline{\Delta}}$, we have $\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \underline{\Delta}}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\underline{\Delta}} \leq \frac{\Delta \underline{\Delta}}{\Delta+\underline{\Delta}}$. Suppose that $v_{n}$ is the minimum degree vertex of degree $\underline{\Delta}$. Using the above results, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)} & =\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{n}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \underline{\Delta}}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\underline{\Delta}}+\sum_{\substack{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \\
v_{j} \neq v_{n}}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)} \\
& \leq \frac{(n-1) \Delta \underline{\Delta}}{\Delta+\underline{\Delta}}+\left[\frac{n(n-1)}{2}-(n-1)\right] \frac{\Delta}{2} \\
& =\frac{(n-1) \Delta \underline{\Delta}}{\Delta+\underline{\Delta}}+\frac{(n-1)(n-2) \Delta}{4} \tag{19}
\end{align*}
$$

By simple calculations, we get

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)} & =\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}}\left[\frac{1}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}+\frac{1}{\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}\right] \\
& =\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)}^{n} \frac{n-1}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}=(n-1) R(G) \tag{20}
\end{align*}
$$

Inequalities (19) and (20) yield

$$
\begin{align*}
\zeta_{1}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right) & =\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}}\left[\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}+\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}\right]  \tag{21}\\
& \leq \frac{(n-1) \Delta \underline{\Delta}}{\Delta+\underline{\Delta}}+\frac{(n-1)(n-2) \Delta}{4}+(n-1) R(G) .
\end{align*}
$$

Note that $\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \delta\left(v_{i}\right)=2 m$ and $d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right) \geq 1$, it holds that

$$
\begin{align*}
\zeta_{2}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right) & =\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)\right)}{\left(d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)\right)^{2}} \\
& \leq \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)\right)  \tag{22}\\
& =\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \delta^{2}\left(v_{i}\right)\left(2 m-\delta\left(v_{i}\right)\right) \\
& \leq(2 m-\underline{\Delta}) M_{1}(G)
\end{align*}
$$

Using the above results (21) and (22), we get the required result in (17). First part of the proof is done.

Now we assume that the equality holds in (17). From equality in (18), by Lemma 4.1, we get

$$
\frac{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}=\frac{d\left(v_{i}, v_{k}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{k}\right)}=\frac{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}=\frac{d\left(v_{i}, v_{k}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{k}\right)}
$$

and $d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)=d\left(v_{i}, v_{k}\right)$ holds for any vertices $v_{i}, v_{j}$ and $v_{k}$ of graph $G$. This implies that $\delta\left(v_{i}\right)=$ $\delta\left(v_{j}\right)=2$ and $D(G)=1$. Hence $G$ is isomorphism to $K_{3}$. Conversely, one can see easily that the equality holds in (17) for $K_{3}$.

The following is an immediate consequence of Theorem 4.2.

Corollary 4.3. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges, maximum degree $\Delta$, minimum degree $\triangle$ and $p$ pendent vertices, then

$$
\begin{align*}
2 R D D_{+}(G) R D D_{\times}(G) \leq & {\left[(2 m-\underline{\Delta}) M_{1}(G)+(\underline{\Delta}-1) p\right] } \\
& {\left[\frac{(n-1) \Delta \underline{\Delta}}{\Delta+\underline{\Delta}}+\frac{(n-1)(n-2) \Delta}{4}+(n-1) R(G)\right] } \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{3}$.
Proof. Since $p$ is the number of pendent vertices in $G$, it follows that

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \delta\left(v_{i}\right)^{3} & =p+\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G), \delta\left(v_{i}\right) \neq 1} \delta\left(v_{i}\right)^{3} \\
& \geq p+\underline{\Delta} \sum_{v_{i} \in V(G), \delta\left(v_{i}\right) \neq 1} \delta\left(v_{i}\right)^{2}=p+\underline{\Delta}\left(M_{1}(G)-p\right) . \tag{24}
\end{align*}
$$

Applying inequality (24) to $\zeta_{2}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$, it yields that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\zeta_{2}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right) & \leq \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)\right) \\
& =\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \delta\left(v_{i}\right)^{2}\left(2 m-\delta\left(v_{i}\right)\right) \leq(2 m-\underline{\Delta}) M_{1}(G)+(\underline{\Delta}-1) p .
\end{aligned}
$$

We get the required result in (23). Moreover, the equality holds in (23) if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $K_{3}$.

Lemma 4.4. (Radon's inequality) For real numbers $p>0, a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots, a_{N} \geq 0$ and $b_{1}, b_{2}, \cdots$, $b_{N}>0$, the following inequality holds:

$$
\sum_{l=1}^{N} \frac{a_{l}^{p+1}}{b_{l}^{p}} \geq \frac{\left(\sum_{l=1}^{N} a_{l}\right)^{p+1}}{\left(\sum_{l=1}^{N} b_{l}\right)^{p}}
$$

We now give another relation between the reciprocal sum-degree distance and reciprocal productdegree of graphs.

Theorem 4.5. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n$ vertices, $m$ edges, maximum degree $\Delta$ and minimum degree $\Delta$, then

$$
\frac{\left(R D D_{+}(G)\right)^{2}}{R D D_{\times}(G)} \leq \frac{(\Delta+\underline{\Delta})^{2}}{\Delta \underline{\Delta}} H(G)
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is a regular graph.
Proof. Assume that each $l$ in Lemma 4.4 corresponds a vertex $\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$ with $N=\binom{n}{2}$ and $p=1$. Setting each $a_{l}$ is replaced by $\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}$ and $b_{l}$ is replaced by $\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}$, it follows that

$$
\frac{\left(\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}\right)^{2}}{\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}} \leq \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\left(\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)+\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}\right)^{2}}{\frac{\delta\left(v_{i} \delta\left(v_{j}\right)\right.}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\frac{\left(R D D_{+}(G)\right)^{2}}{R D D_{\times}(G)} \leq \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}}+\sqrt{\frac{\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}}\right)^{2} \frac{1}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)} .
$$

It has been proved in [20] that

$$
\left(\sqrt{\frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}}+\sqrt{\frac{\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{\delta\left(v_{i}\right)}}\right)^{2} \leq \frac{(\Delta+\underline{\Delta})^{2}}{\Delta \underline{\Delta}}
$$

Moreover, the equality holds if and only if $G$ is a regular graph or $G$ is a bipartite semiregular graph. Hence, we obtain

$$
\frac{\left(R D D_{+}(G)\right)^{2}}{R D D_{\times}(G)} \leq \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{(\Delta+\underline{\Delta})^{2}}{\Delta \underline{\Delta}} \frac{1}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}=\frac{(\Delta+\underline{\Delta})^{2}}{\Delta \underline{\Delta}} H(G) .
$$

The equality holds if and only if $G$ is a regular graph.
We conclude this section by considering an upper bound of the difference between the reciprocal product-degree distance and reciprocal sum-degree distance.

Theorem 4.6. Let $G$ be a connected graph with $n$ vertices and $m$ edges, then

$$
\begin{align*}
R D D_{\times}(G)-R D D_{+}(G) & \leq \frac{4 m^{2}-(4 n-6) m+n^{2}-n}{4} \\
& -\frac{3}{4} M_{1}(G)+\frac{1}{2} M_{2}(G)-H(G) . \tag{25}
\end{align*}
$$

with equality if and only if the distance between any two non-pendent vertices in $G$ is at most 2 .
Proof. By the definition of the reciprocal product-degree distance and rciprocal sum-degree distance, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}(G)-R D D_{+}(G) & =\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\delta\left(v_{i}\right) \delta\left(v_{j}\right)-\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-\delta\left(v_{j}\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)} \\
& =\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}} \frac{\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}-H(G) \\
& =\sum_{v_{i} v_{j} \in E(G)}\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right) \\
& +\sum_{v_{i} v_{j} \in E(\bar{G})} \frac{\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right)}{d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}-H(G) \\
& \leq \sum_{v_{i} v_{j} \in E(G)}\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& +\frac{1}{2} \sum_{v_{i} v_{j} \in E(\bar{G})}\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right)-H(G)  \tag{26}\\
& =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}}\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right) \\
& -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{v_{i} v_{j} \in E(G)}\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right)-H(G)
\end{align*}
$$

Simple calculations yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Lambda_{1} & :=\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\}}\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left[(2 m-n)(2 m-n+1)+2 m-M_{1}(G)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Lambda_{2}: & =\sum_{v_{i} v_{j} \in E(G)}\left(\delta\left(v_{i}\right)-1\right)\left(\delta\left(v_{j}\right)-1\right) \\
& =M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G)+m .
\end{aligned}
$$

After easy manipulations, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{\times}(G)-R D D_{+}(G) & =\frac{1}{4}\left[(2 m-n)(2 m-n+1)+2 m-M_{1}(G)\right] \\
& +\frac{1}{2}\left[M_{2}(G)-M_{1}(G)+m\right]-H(G) .
\end{aligned}
$$

First part of the proof is done.
Now suppose that the equality holds in (25). Then the inequality in (26) must be equality, which implies that $d\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)=2$ for any two vertices $v_{i}$ and $v_{j}$ in $\bar{G}$ with $\delta\left(v_{i}\right), \delta\left(v_{j}\right) \geq 2$. Hence the equality holds in (25) if and only if the distance between any two non-pendant vertices in $G$ is at most 2 .

## 5. The reformulated reciprocal sum-degree distance

In this section, we mainly study the mathematical properties of the reformulated reciprocal sumdegree distance under some edge-grafting transformations. Furthermore, extremal properties of the reformulated reciprocal sum-degree distance are also studied for some interesting classes of trees. For simplicity, we divide it into several subsections, each dealing with a class of graphs.

### 5.1 Graphs with given $\boldsymbol{k}$ leaves

Let $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{k}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees with $k$ leaves. Note that there is just one tree for $k=n-1$ or 2, hence in what follows we consider $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{k}$ for $3 \leq k \leq n-2$.

In 2016, Li et al. [48] determined the graphs with maximum reformulated reciprocal sum-degree distance among the trees in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{k}$. We begin with a significant lemma which will be used in later proofs.

Transformation 5.1. Let $G_{1}$ be a simple graph as depicted in Fig. 5, where $H_{1}, H_{2}$ are two connected graphs. Let $G_{2}=G_{1}-\left\{v_{l} x: x \in N_{H_{2}}\left(v_{l}\right)\right\}+\left\{v_{1} x: x \in N_{H_{2}}\left(v_{l}\right)\right\}$. We call $G_{1} \Rightarrow G_{2}$ the $\theta_{1}-$ transformation.


Figure 5. $G_{2}$ is obtained from $G_{1}$ by $\theta_{1}$-transformation.

In particular, if $G_{1}$ is a tree, Kelmans [41] used Transformation 5.1 to prove some results on the number of spanning trees of graphs in 1976. Recently, Bollobás and Tyomkyn [9] used $\theta_{1}$-transformation to count the total number of walks (resp. paths) of trees.

Theorem 5.2. ( [48]) Let $G_{2}$ be the graph obtained from $G_{1}$ by Transformation 5.1, then $R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G_{1}\right)<$ $R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G_{2}\right)$.

Proof. For each vertex $x$ in $V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$ and for each vertex $y$ in $V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}$, it is routine to check that $\delta_{G_{1}}(x)=\delta_{H_{1}}(x)=\delta_{G_{2}}(x)$ and $\delta_{G_{1}}(y)=\delta_{H_{2}}(y)=\delta_{G_{2}}(y)$. In addition, for each vertex $y \in V\left(H_{2}\right)$, $d_{H_{2}}\left(v_{l}, y\right)=a$ in $G_{1}$ if and only if $d_{H_{2}}\left(v_{1}, y\right)=a$ in $G_{2}$.

For convenience, we distinguish the following three cases.

- For each vertex $x$ in $V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; x\right) & =\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}, x\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, y)+t}+\sum_{k=0}^{l-1} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+k+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+l-1+d_{H_{2}}\left(v_{l}, y\right)+t} . \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; x\right) & =\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}, x\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, y)+t}+\sum_{k=0}^{l-1} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+k+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+d_{H_{2}}\left(v_{1}, y\right)+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; x\right)<\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; x\right)$. Note that, for all vertex $x$ in $V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}$, we have $\delta_{G_{1}}(x)=$ $\delta_{H_{1}}(x)=\delta_{G_{2}}(x)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \delta_{G_{1}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; x\right)<\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \delta_{G_{2}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; x\right) . \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For each vertex $x$ in $V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; x\right) & =\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}, x\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}(x, y)+t}+\sum_{k=0}^{l-1} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+k+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+l-1+d_{H_{1}}\left(v_{1}, y\right)+t}, \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; x\right) & =\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}, x\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}(x, y)+t}+\sum_{k=0}^{l-1} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+k+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+d_{H_{1}}\left(v_{1}, y\right)+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows that $\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; x\right)<\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; x\right)$. Note that, for all vertex $x$ in $V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}$, we have $\delta_{G_{1}}(x)=$ $\delta_{H_{2}}(x)=\delta_{G_{2}}(x)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \delta_{G_{1}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; x\right)<\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \delta_{G_{2}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; x\right) . \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For each vertex $v_{j} \in V\left(P_{l}\right)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{l}\right\}$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; v_{j}\right) & =\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+j-1+t}+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{j}\right) \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+l-j+t} .  \tag{29}\\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; v_{j}\right) & =\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+j-1+t}+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{j}\right) \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+j-1+t} . \tag{30}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that, for each vertex $v_{j} \in V\left(P_{l}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}, v_{l}\right\}$, one has $\delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right)=\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right)=2$ and it is routine to check that $\delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)=\delta_{H_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+1, \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{l}\right)=\delta_{H_{2}}\left(v_{l}\right)+1, \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right)=\delta_{H_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+\delta_{H_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right)+1$ and $\delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{l}\right)=1$. From the combination of Eqs.(29) and (30), it yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; v_{j}\right) & =\left(\delta_{H_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+1\right)\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+t}+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{1}\right)\right. \\
& \left.+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+l-1+t}\right) \\
& +\left(\delta_{H_{2}}\left(v_{l}\right)+1\right)\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+t}+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{l}\right)\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left.+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+l-1+t}\right) \\
& +2 \sum_{j=2}^{l-1}\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+j-1+t}+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{j}\right)\right. \\
& \left.+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+l-j+t}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; v_{j}\right) & =\left(\delta_{H_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+\delta_{H_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right)+1\right)\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+t}\right. \\
& \left.+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{1}\right)+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+t}\right) \\
& +2 \sum_{j=2}^{l-1}\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+j-1+t}+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{j}\right)\right. \\
& \left.+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+j-1+t}\right) \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{\sum_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+l-1+t}+\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{l}\right) \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+l-1+t},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{1}\right)=\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; v_{l}\right)$. By direct calculation, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; v_{j}\right)-\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; v_{j}\right) \\
& \quad=\delta_{H_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+t}-\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{l}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{2}}\left(x, v_{l}\right)+l-1+t}\right) \\
& \quad+\delta_{H_{2}}\left(v_{l}\right)\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+t}-\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{1}\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, v_{1}\right)+l-1+t}\right)>0,
\end{aligned}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{1}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{1} ; v_{j}\right)<\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G_{2}}\left(v_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G_{2} ; v_{j}\right) \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of (27) and (28) and (31), we have $R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G_{1}\right)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G_{2}\right)$.

Transformation 5.3. Let $G$ be an n-vertex connected graph as depicted in Fig. 6, where wv is a cut edge of $G, H_{1}, H_{2}$ are two connected subgraphs, and $H_{1}$ contains a path $P_{k}=w_{1} w_{2} \cdots w_{k}$ satisfying $\left|V\left(H_{1}\right)\right| \geq l+2$ and $\left|V\left(P_{k}\right)\right| \geq\left|V\left(P_{l}\right)\right|$. Let $G^{\prime}=G-\left\{v x: x \in N_{H_{2}}(v)\right\}+\left\{w x: x \in N_{H_{2}}(v)\right\}$. We call $G \Rightarrow G^{\prime}$ the $\theta_{2}$-transformation.


Figure 6. $G^{\prime}$ is obtained from $G$ by $\theta_{2}$-transformation.

In particular, if $H_{1}$ (resp. $H_{2}$ ) is a tree, Ilić [36] used Transformation 5.3 to study the Laplacian coefficients of trees; Geng et al. [29] used this transformation to study the eccentric distance sum of trees; Meng and coauthors [47] used $\theta_{2}$-transformation to study the property of the reciprocal sum-degree distance of trees.

Theorem 5.4. ([48]) Let $G^{\prime}$ be the $n$-vertex connected graph obtained from $G$ by Transformation 5.3 with $G^{\prime} \neq G$, where $G^{\prime}$ and $G$ are depicted in Fig. 6. Then $R D D_{+}^{t}(G)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. Let $P_{l}=u_{1} u_{2} \cdots u_{l}$. Note that $H_{1}$ contains a path $P_{k}=w_{1} w_{2} \cdots w_{k}$ whose length is no less than that of $P_{l}$. For convenience, we distinguish the following cases.

- For all vertex $x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(P_{k}\right)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x) & =\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\{x, w\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, y)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+j+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right\}}(y, v)+t},
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right) & =\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\{x, w\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, y)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+j+1+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(y, w)+t},
\end{aligned}
$$

where $d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(y, v)=d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(y, w)$ for each vertex $y$ in $H_{2}$. Hence, it is routine to check that $\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)<\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right)$. Note that, for each vertex $x$ in $V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(P_{k}\right)$, one has $\delta_{G}(x)=\delta_{H_{1}}(x)=\delta_{G^{\prime}}(x)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(P_{k}\right)} \delta_{G}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)<\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash V\left(P_{k}\right)} \delta_{G^{\prime}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right) . \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For each vertex $x$ in $V\left(H_{2}\right)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)= & \sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\{x\}} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, y)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+j+t}+\frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+1+d_{H_{1}}(y, w)+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+d_{H_{1}}\left(w_{j}, w\right)+1+t}, \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right)= & \sum_{y \in V\left(H_{2}\right) \backslash\{x\}} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, y)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{\left.G^{\prime} \mid V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+j+1+t}+\frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{\sum_{G^{\prime}\left\{V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+d_{H_{1}}(y, w)+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+d_{H_{1}}\left(w_{j}, w\right)+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $d_{H_{1}}\left(w_{j}, w\right) \leq j$ for each $j \in\{1,2, \cdots, l\}$, we have

$$
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right)-\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)=\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+j+1+t}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& -\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+j+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{1}{d_{\left.G^{\prime} \backslash V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+j+t} \\
& -\sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+j+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{y \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}}\left(\frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+d_{H_{1}}(y, w)+t}\right. \\
& \left.-\frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+1+d_{H_{1}}(y, w)+t}\right)>0 . \tag{33}
\end{align*}
$$

In what follows, we shall show the above inequality holds. If $k=l$, then $\left|V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}\right| \geq 1$ since $\left|V\left(H_{1}\right)\right| \geq l+2$. Hence, $\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right)-\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)>0$. Otherwise, we obtain $k \geq l+1$. Combining with the condition $\left|V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}\right| \geq 0$, it yields that $\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right)-\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)>0$. In addition, for each vertex $x$ in $H_{2}$, one has $\delta_{G}(x)=\delta_{H_{2}}(x)=\delta_{G^{\prime}}(x)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \delta_{G}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)<\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \delta_{G^{\prime}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right) \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For each vertex $u_{j}$ in $P_{l}, 1 \leq j \leq l$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; u_{j}\right) & =\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; u_{j}\right)+\frac{1}{j+t}+\frac{1}{j+1+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+j+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{1}{j+1+d_{H_{1}}\left(w_{i}, w\right)+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{j+1+d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+t},
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; u_{j}\right) & =\widehat{D}_{t}\left(P_{l} ; u_{j}\right)+\frac{1}{j+t}+\frac{1}{j+1+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right\}}(x, w)+j+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{j=1}^{k} \frac{1}{j+1+d_{H_{1}}\left(w_{i}, w\right)+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{j+1+d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+t}
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\Lambda_{3}=\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G^{\prime}}\left(u_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; u_{j}\right)-\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G}\left(u_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; u_{j}\right)$. It yields that

$$
\begin{align*}
\Lambda_{3} & \geq \sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G}\left(u_{j}\right) \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+j+1+t \\
& -\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G}\left(u_{j}\right) \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+j+t}  \tag{35}\\
& =\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{-2}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+1+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+l+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+l+1+t} .
\end{align*}
$$

- For each vertex $w_{j}$ in $P_{k}, 1 \leq j \leq k$, one has $\delta\left(w_{j}\right)=\delta_{G^{\prime}}\left(w_{j}\right)=\delta_{G}\left(w_{j}\right)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; w_{j}\right) & =\sum_{i \neq j} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w_{i}, w_{j}\right)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, w_{j}\right)+t}+\sum_{i=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+1+i+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+1+t},
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w_{j}\right) & =\sum_{i \neq j} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w_{i}, w_{j}\right)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(x, w_{j}\right)+t}+\sum_{i=1}^{l} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+1+i+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right)+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\Lambda_{4}=\sum_{j=1}^{k} \delta_{G^{\prime}}\left(w_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w_{j}\right)-\sum_{j=1}^{k} \delta_{G}\left(w_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; w_{j}\right)$. Since $d_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right) \leq j$ for each $j \in$ $\{1,2, \cdots, k\}$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\Lambda_{4} & \geq \sum_{j=1}^{k} \delta_{G}\left(w_{j}\right) \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+j+t \\
& -\sum_{j=1}^{k} \delta_{G}\left(w_{j}\right) \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+j+1+t}  \tag{36}\\
& \geq \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{2}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+1+t}-\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+k+t} \\
& -\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+k+1+t},
\end{align*}
$$

where the inequality (36) follows by $\delta\left(w_{j}\right) \geq 2$ for $1 \leq j \leq k-1$ and $d\left(w_{k}\right) \geq 1$.
Hence, in view of (35), (36) and $k \geq l$, we obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Lambda_{3}+\Lambda_{4} & \geq \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+l+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+l+1+t} \\
& -\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+k+t}-\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+k+1+t} \geq 0,
\end{aligned}
$$

which is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G}\left(u_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; u_{j}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{k} \delta_{G}\left(w_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; w_{j}\right) \leq \sum_{j=1}^{l} \delta_{G^{\prime}}\left(u_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; u_{j}\right)+\sum_{j=1}^{k} \delta_{G^{\prime}}\left(w_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w_{j}\right) \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For vertices $w$ and $v$. By the definition of $\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; u)$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; w)= & \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\{w\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+t}+\frac{1}{1+t}+\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{j+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+1+t} . \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w\right)= & \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\{w\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+t}+\frac{1}{1+t}+\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{j+1+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+t} . \\
\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; v)= & \sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\{w\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+t}+\frac{1}{1+t}+\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{j+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(x, v)+t} . \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; v\right) & =\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\{w\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+t}+\frac{1}{1+t}+\sum_{j=1}^{l} \frac{1}{j+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{\left.G^{\prime} \backslash V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+1+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

For convenience, denote $m=\delta_{G\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{v\}\right]}(v)$, then $\delta_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(w)=m \geq 1$. Combining with the fact that $\delta_{G}(w)=\delta_{H_{1}}(w)+1, \delta_{G}(v)=m+2, \delta_{G^{\prime}}(w)=\delta_{H_{1}}(w)+m+1$ and $\delta_{G^{\prime}}(v)=2$, we can
obtain that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \delta_{G^{\prime}}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w\right)+\delta_{G^{\prime}}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; v\right)-\delta_{G}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; w)-\delta_{G}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; v) \\
& \quad \geq m\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+t}-\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{1}\right) \backslash\left\{V\left(P_{k}\right), w\right\}} \frac{1}{d_{H_{1}}(x, w)+1+t}\right) \\
& \quad+\left(\delta_{H_{1}}(w)-1\right)\left(\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+t}\right. \\
& \left.\quad-\sum_{x \in V\left(H_{2}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}\left[V\left(H_{2}\right) \cup\{w\}\right]}(x, w)+1+t}\right)+m\left(\frac{1}{l+1+t}-\frac{1}{k+1+t}\right),
\end{aligned}
$$

where the inequality follows by the fact $\delta_{H_{1}}\left(w, w_{j}\right) \leq j$ for each $j \in\{1,2, \cdots, k\}$. Note that $m \geq 1$ and $\delta_{H_{1}}(w) \geq 1$, hence

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{G}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; w)+\delta_{G}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; v)<\delta_{G^{\prime}}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w\right)+\delta_{G^{\prime}}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; v\right) \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of (32), (34), (37) and (38), we obtain $R D D_{+}^{t}(G)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$.
If taking $H_{1}=P_{k}, k \geq l+2$, in Theorem 5.4, we immediately obtain the following result.
Corollary 5.5. ( [48]) Given a connected graph $H$ with $v \in V(H)$, let $G_{k, l}$ be the graph obtained from $H$ by attaching two pendent paths $P^{1}=v w_{1} w_{2} \cdots w_{k}$ and $P^{2}=v u_{1} u_{2} \cdots u_{l}$, respectively, to $v$ of $H$. Set $G_{k-1, l+1}:=G_{k, l}-w_{k} w_{k-1}+w_{k} u_{l}$. If $k \geq l+2$, we have $R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G_{k, l}\right)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G_{k-1, l+1}\right)$.

A spider is a tree with at most one vertex of degree more than 2 , which is called the hub of the spider (if no vertex of degree more than two, then any vertex can be hub). A leg of spider is a path from the hub to one of its leaves.

Let $S\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots, a_{k}\right)$ be a spider with $k$ legs $P^{1}, P^{2}, \cdots, P^{k}$ such that the length of $P^{i}$ is $a_{i}, i=$ $1,2, \cdots, k$, satisfying $\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i}=n-1$. We call $S\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots, a_{k}\right)$ a balanced spider if $\left|a_{i}-a_{j}\right| \leq 1$ for $1 \leq i, j \leq k$.

Theorem 5.6. ( [48]) Among $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{k}$, the balanced spider

$$
S(\underbrace{\left\lfloor\frac{n-k}{k}\right\rfloor, \cdots,\left\lfloor\frac{n-k}{k}\right\rfloor}_{k-r}, \underbrace{\left\lceil\frac{n-k}{k}\right\rceil, \cdots,\left\lceil\frac{n-k}{k}\right\rceil}_{r})
$$

maximizes the $R D D_{+}^{t}$ value, where $n-1 \equiv r(\bmod k)$.
Proof. Let $T$ be a tree in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{k}$ such that $T$ has the largest $R D D_{+}^{t}$, then $T$ is a spider. Otherwise, by Theorem 5.5, there exists another $n$-vertex tree with $k$ leaves, say $T^{\prime}$, such that $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$, a contradiction. Denote $T:=S\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \cdots, a_{k}\right)$. In order to complete the proof, it is sufficient to show that the spider is balanced, i.e., that $\left|a_{i}-a_{j}\right| \leq 1,1 \leq i, j \leq k$. If the spider $T$ is not balanced, then $T$ contains two legs of length $a_{i}$ and $a_{j}$ such that $\left|a_{i}-a_{j}\right| \geq 2$. By Corollary 5.5 , there exists another spider $T^{\prime \prime}$ such that $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T^{\prime \prime}\right)$, a contradiction.

### 5.2 Graphs with given matching number

For a graph $G$, the matching number $\beta(G)$ is the cardinality of a maximum matching of $G$. In what follows, we are to identify the trees with the maximum $R D D_{+}^{t}$ among all $n$-vertex trees with matching number $\beta$. A vertex $v$ is matched if it is incident to an edge in the matching; otherwise the vertex is unmatched. A vertex is said to be perfectly matched if it is matched in all maximum matchings of $G$.

For convenience, let $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{\beta}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees with matching number $\beta$. Let $T_{n}^{\beta}$ be the tree obtained from the star graph $S_{n-\beta+1}$ by attaching a pendent edge to each of certain $\beta-1$ non-central vertices of $S_{n-\beta+1}$. It is easy to see that $T_{n}^{\beta}$ contains an $\beta$-matching.

Theorem 5.7. ( [48]) For any tree $T \in \mathscr{T}_{n}^{\beta}$ with $n \geq 2 \beta$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
R D D_{+}^{t}(T) & \leq \frac{(n+3 \beta-4)+(n-\beta)^{2}}{t+1}+\frac{n^{2}-3 n-\beta^{2}+3 \beta}{t+2} \\
& +\frac{(\beta-1)(2 n-\beta-4)}{t+3}+\frac{(\beta-1)(\beta-2)}{t+4} \tag{39}
\end{align*}
$$

and the equality holds in (39) if and only if $T$ is isomorphic to $T_{n}^{\beta}$.
Proof. Choose $T$ to be a tree in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{\beta}$ such that $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)$ is as larger as possible. Assume that there is a pendent path of length $p>2$ attached at vertex $v$ in $T$. We can consider a new tree $T^{\prime}$ that has two pendent paths attached at $v$ with length of 2 and $p-2$. The matching number of trees $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ is the same. Using Corollary 5.5, it follows $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$, a contradiction to the choice of $T$. Hence, we can assume all pendent paths have length one or two.

Let $v$ be a vertex of degree $k+l+1$ in $T$. Suppose that $w$ is a parent of $v$ and that there $s$ paths $v x_{11} x_{12}, v x_{21} x_{22}, \cdots, v x_{k 1} x_{k 2}$ and $t$ paths $v y_{1}, v y_{2}, \cdots, v y_{l}$ of length attached at $v$. Denote by

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{\prime} & =T-\left\{v x_{i 1} x_{i 2} \mid i=1,2, \cdots, k\right\}-\left\{v y_{j} \mid j=1,2, \cdots, l\right\} \\
& +\left\{w x_{i 1} x_{i 2} \mid i=1,2, \cdots, k\right\}+\left\{w y_{j} \mid j=1,2, \cdots, l\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
T^{\prime \prime} & =T-\left\{v x_{i 1} x_{i 2} \mid i=1,2, \cdots, k\right\}-\left\{v y_{j} \mid j=1,2, \cdots, l-1\right\} \\
& +\left\{w x_{i 1} x_{i 2} \mid i=1,2, \cdots, k\right\}+\left\{w y_{j} \mid j=1,2, \cdots, l-1\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

In what follows, we will show that using Transformations $T \Rightarrow T^{\prime}$ and $T \Rightarrow T^{\prime \prime}$ the matching number can be invariant.

First we suppose that $T$ is not the extremal graph. If the vertex $w$ is not perfectly matched in $T$, there exists a matching $M$ of maximum cardinality, such that no edge from $M$ is incident to $w$. It follows that $\beta\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\beta(G \backslash\{w\})+k+1=\beta(G)+k+1=\beta(T)$. By Theorem 5.2, we can get $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$.

If the vertex $w$ is perfectly matched in $T$, for each matching $M$ of maximum cardinality, there exists an edge $w w_{1}$ from $M$ incident to $w$. If $w w_{1}=v w$, then we have $\beta\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\beta(G \backslash\{w\})+k+1=$ $\beta(G)+k+1=\beta(T)$. By Theorem 5.2, we can get $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$, a contradiction. If
$w w_{1} \neq v w$, then $\beta\left(T^{\prime \prime}\right)=\beta(G)+k+1$ and $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T^{\prime \prime}\right)$ by Theorem 5.2, again a contradiction.

By the previous discussion and the choice of $T$, we obtain that $T$ is isomorphic to $T_{n}^{\beta}$, which is the uniqure tree with maximum $R D D_{+}^{t}$ in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{\beta}$. By direct calculation, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T_{n}^{\beta}\right) & =(\beta-1)\left[\frac{1}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}+\frac{1}{t+3}(n-\beta-1)+\frac{1}{t+4}(\beta-2)\right] \\
& +2(\beta-1)\left[\frac{2}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+1}(n-\beta-1)+\frac{1}{t+3}(\beta-2)\right] \\
& +(n-2 \beta+1)\left[\frac{1}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}(n-\beta-1)+\frac{1}{t+3}(\beta-1)\right] \\
& +(n-\beta)\left[\frac{n-\beta}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}(\beta-1)\right] \\
& =\frac{(n+3 \beta-4)+(n-\beta)^{2}}{t+1}+\frac{n^{2}-3 n-\beta^{2}+3 \beta}{t+2} \\
& +\frac{(\beta-1)(2 n-\beta-4)}{t+3}+\frac{(\beta-1)(\beta-2)}{t+4}
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof.

### 5.3 Graphs with given dominating number

A subset $S$ of $V(G)$ is called a dominating set of $G$ if for every vertex $v \in V(G) \backslash S$, there exists a vertex $u \in S$ such that $v$ is adjacent to $u$. A vertex in the dominating set is called a dominating vertex. For a dominating set $S$ of graph $G$ with $v \in S$, if $u v \in E(G)$ with $u \in V(G) \backslash S$, then $u$ is said to be dominated by $v$. The domination number of $G$, denoted by $\gamma(G)$, is defined as the minimum cardinality of dominating sets of $G$. For convenience, let $\mathscr{D}_{n}^{\gamma}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees with domination $\gamma$.

In what follows, we are to characterize the trees with the maximum $R D D_{+}^{t}$ among $n$-vertex trees with domination number $\gamma$.

Lemma 5.8. ([48]) If $T \in \mathscr{D}_{n}^{\gamma}$ has the maximum $R D D_{+}^{t}$, then $\gamma(T)=\beta(T)=\gamma$.
Proof. It was proved in [33] that $\gamma(G) \leq \beta(G)$ holds for any graph. Hence, it is sufficient to show that $\gamma(T) \geq \beta(T)$. Otherwise, by the definition of $\mathscr{D}_{n}^{\gamma}$, we have $\gamma=\gamma(T)<\beta(T)$. Assume that $S=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{\gamma}\right\}$ is a dominating set of cardinality $\gamma$. Then there must exist $\gamma$ independent edges, say $v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2} v_{2}^{\prime}, \cdots, v_{\gamma} v_{\gamma}^{\prime}$, in $T$. Let $M^{\prime}=\left\{v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime}: i=1,2, \cdots \gamma\right\}$. If $M^{\prime}$ is contained in a matching $M$ of maximum cardinality, then there must exist another edge, say $w_{1} w_{2}$, which is independent of each edge $v_{i} v_{i}^{\prime}$ by $\gamma(T)<\beta(T)$. Otherwise, note that $\gamma(T)<\beta(T)$, there exists an $M^{\prime}$-augmenting path $P=u_{1} u_{2} \cdots u_{2 t+1} u_{2 t+2}$ in $T$, where $u_{2 k} t_{2 k+1}=v_{k} v_{k}^{\prime}, k=1,2, \cdots, t$ and $u_{2}=v_{1}, u_{2 t+1}=v_{t}$. Thus, for each pair $u_{i}, u_{j} \in S \cap V(P), i<j$, we have $2 \leq j-i \leq 3$. Note that the first (resp. last) domination vertex is $u_{2}$ (resp. $u_{2 \gamma+1}$ ), there must exist a pair $u_{i}, u_{j} \in S \cap V(P)$ satisfying $j-i=3$. Without loss of generality, we assume that the smallest value of $i$ for which $u_{i}, u_{i+3} \in S$ is $i_{0}$. Let

$$
M^{\prime \prime}=\left\{u_{1} u_{2}, u_{3} u_{4}, \cdots, u_{i_{0}-1} u_{i_{0}}\right\} \cup\left\{u_{i_{0}+3} u_{i_{0}+4}, u_{i_{0}+5} u_{i_{0}+6}, \cdots, u_{2 t+1} u_{2 t+2}\right\}
$$

then $M^{\prime \prime}$ is a matching of cardinality $\gamma$, and each edge of $M^{\prime \prime}$ contains a vertex from $S$. It is easy to check that the edge $u_{i_{0}+1} u_{i_{0}+2}$ is independent of each edge from $M^{\prime \prime}$.

Hence, there must exist $\gamma+1$ independent edges $v_{1} v_{1}^{\prime}, v_{2} v_{2}^{\prime}, \cdots, v_{\gamma} v_{\gamma}^{\prime}, w_{1} w_{2}$ in $T$. If $w_{1}, w_{2}$ are dominated by the same vertex $v_{i} \in S$, there would be a triangle $w_{1} w_{2} v_{i}$. This is impossible because of the fact that $T$ is a tree. Therefore we claim that two vertices $w_{1}, w_{2}$ are dominated by two different vertices from $S$. Without loss of generality, assume that $w_{i}$ is dominated by the vertex $v_{i}$ for $i=1,2$. Now we construct a new tree $T^{\prime} \in \mathscr{D}_{n}^{\gamma}$ by Transformation 5.1 of $T$ on the edges $v_{1} w_{1}$ and $v_{2} w_{2}$, respectively. It follows from Theorem 5.2 that $R D D_{+}^{t}(T)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$, which contradicts to the choice of $T$. Thus we complete the proof.

Combing Theorem 5.7 and Lemma 5.8, the next result follows immediately.

Theorem 5.9. ( [48]) For any tree $T \in \mathscr{D}_{n}^{\gamma}$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
R D D_{+}^{t}(T) & \leq \frac{(n+3 \gamma-4)+(n-\gamma)^{2}}{t+1}+\frac{n^{2}-3 n-\gamma^{2}+3 \gamma}{t+2} \\
& +\frac{(\gamma-1)(2 n-\gamma-4)}{t+3}+\frac{(\gamma-1)(\gamma-2)}{t+4} \tag{40}
\end{align*}
$$

and the equality holds in (40) if and only if $T$ is isomorphic to $T_{n}^{\gamma}$.

### 5.4 Graphs with given bipartition

In this subsection, we investigate the property of the reformulated reciprocal sum-degree of trees by using an auxiliary transformation, which will be listed in the following.

Transformation 5.10. ([48]) Let uw be a cut edge of a bipartite graph $U$ with $\delta(w) \geq 2$. Denote by $G$ the graph obtained from $U$ and the star $S_{k+2}$ by identifying $u$ with a pendant vertex of $S_{k+2}$ whose center is $v$. Let $G[v \rightarrow w ; 2]$ be the graph obtained from $G$ by deleting all edges $v z, z \in W$ and adding all edges $w z, z \in W$, where $W=N_{G}(v) \backslash\{u\}$. In notation,

$$
G[v \rightarrow w ; 2]=G-\{v z: z \in W\}+\{w z: z \in W\}
$$

we call $G \Rightarrow G[v \rightarrow w ; 2]$ the $\theta_{3}$-transformation, see Fig 7 .


Figure 7. $G^{\prime}=G[v \rightarrow w ; 2]$ is obtained from $G$ by $\theta_{3}$-transformation.

In 2013, Geng et al. [29] used the $\theta_{3}$-transformation to study the eccentric distance sum of trees. In the same year, Li et al. [49] used this $\theta_{3}$-transformation to discuss the Laplacian permanent of trees with given bipartition. In [47], the authors explored the property of the reciprocal sum-degree distance of graphs by using the $\theta_{3}$-transformation. More recently, Li et al. [48] used this Transformation as a significant tool to study the reformulated reciprocal sum-degree distance of trees.

Theorem 5.11. ( [48]) Let $G$ and $G[v \rightarrow w ; 2]$ be the bipartite graphs with some labeled vertices as in Transformation 5.10. Then $R D D_{+}^{t}(G)<R D D_{+}^{t}(G[v \rightarrow w ; 2])$.

Proof. For convenience, let $G^{\prime}=G[v \rightarrow w ; 2], T_{1}$ be the component in $G-\{w u, u v\}$ which contains $u$, and $A:=V(U) \backslash\left(V\left(T_{1}\right) \cup\{w\}\right)$. In what follows, we will distinguish the following four possiblities.

- For all vertex $x \in A$, by direct calculation, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x) & =\sum_{y \in A \backslash\{x\}} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, y)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+t}+\sum_{y \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(x, y)+t} \\
& +\frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+2+t}+\frac{k}{d_{U}(x, w)+3+t} . \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right) & =\sum_{y \in A \backslash\{x\}} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, y)+t}+\frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+t}+\sum_{y \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}(x, y)+t} \\
& +\frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+2+t}+\frac{k}{d_{U}(x, w)+1+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that $\sum_{y \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(x, y)+t}=\sum_{y \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}(x, y)+t}$, hence $\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)<\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right)$. It is routine to check that for all vertex $x$ in $A$, one has $\delta_{G}(x)=\delta_{U}(x)=\delta_{G^{\prime}}(x)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in A} \delta_{G}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)<\sum_{x \in A} \delta_{G^{\prime}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right) \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For each vertex $x$ in $V\left(T_{1}\right)$, it is routine to check that $\delta_{G}(x)=\delta_{T_{1}}(x)=\delta_{G^{\prime}}(x)$ and $\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)=$ $\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right)$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \delta_{G}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; x)=\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \delta_{G^{\prime}}(x) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; x\right) \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For each vertex $u_{j} \in X^{\prime}=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \cdots, u_{k}\right\}$, by direct calculation we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; u_{j}\right) & =\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(x, v)+1+t}+\frac{1}{1+t}++\frac{k-1}{2+t}+\frac{1}{3+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+3+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; u_{j}\right) & =\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}(x, w)+1+t}+\frac{1}{1+t}++\frac{k-1}{2+t}+\frac{1}{3+t} \\
& +\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+1+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is routine to check that $d_{G}(x, v)=d_{G^{\prime}}(x, w)$ for any vertex $x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)$, hence $\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; u_{j}\right)$ $<\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; u_{j}\right)$. Note that $\delta_{G}\left(u_{j}\right)=\delta_{G^{\prime}}\left(u_{j}\right)=1$ for any $u_{j} \in X^{\prime}$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{u_{j} \in X^{\prime}} \delta_{G}\left(u_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G ; u_{j}\right)<\sum_{u_{j} \in X^{\prime}} \delta_{G^{\prime}}\left(u_{j}\right) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; u_{j}\right) \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

- For vertex $w$ and $v$, by direct calculation we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; w) & =\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(x, w)+t}+\frac{1}{2+t}+\frac{k}{3+t} \\
\widehat{D}_{t}(G ; v) & =\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+2+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G}(x, v)+t}+\frac{1}{2+t}+\frac{k}{1+t} \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w\right) & =\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}(x, w)+t}+\frac{1}{2+t}+\frac{k}{1+t}, \\
\widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; v\right) & =\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+2+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}(x, v)+t}+\frac{1}{2+t}+\frac{k}{3+t} .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is sufficient to show that $\Lambda_{5}=\delta_{G^{\prime}}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w\right)+\delta_{G^{\prime}}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; v\right)-\delta_{G}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; w)-$ $\delta_{G}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; v)>0$. In fact, note that $\delta_{G}(w)=\delta_{U}(w), \delta_{G}(v)=k+1, \delta_{G^{\prime}}(w)=\delta_{U}(w)+k$ and $\delta_{G^{\prime}}(v)=1$. In addition, for each vertex $x$ in $T_{1}, d_{G}(x, w)=d_{G}(x, v)=d_{G^{\prime}}(x, w)=d_{G^{\prime}}(x, v)$, hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Lambda_{5} & =k\left(\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}(x, w)+t}+\frac{1}{2+t}\right) \\
& -k\left(\sum_{x \in A} \frac{1}{d_{U}(x, w)+2+t}+\sum_{x \in V\left(T_{1}\right)} \frac{1}{d_{G^{\prime}}(x, v)+t}+\frac{1}{2+t}\right) \\
& +\frac{k}{1+t}\left(\delta_{U}(w)+k\right)-\frac{k}{3+t} \delta_{U}(w)+\frac{k}{3+t}-\frac{k(k+1)}{1+t} \\
& >k\left(\delta_{U}(w)-1\right)\left(\frac{1}{t+1}-\frac{1}{t+3}\right)>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta_{G}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; w)+\delta_{G}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}(G ; v)<\delta_{G^{\prime}}(w) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; w\right)+\delta_{G^{\prime}}(v) \widehat{D}_{t}\left(G^{\prime} ; v\right) \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combing with (41), (42), (43)) and (44) yields $R D D_{+}^{t}(G)<R D D_{+}^{t}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$.

For a given $n$-vertex connected graph $G$ satisfying its vertex set can be partitioned into two subsets $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$, such that each edge joins a vertex in $V_{1}$ with a vertex in $V_{2}$. Suppose that $V_{1}$ has $p$ vertices and $V_{2}$ has $q$ vertices, where $p+q=n$. Then we say that $G$ has a $(p, q)$-bipartition, $p \leq q$.

Let $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ the set of all $n$-vertex trees with a $(p, q)$-bipartition. In particular, $S_{n}$ is an element of $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{1, n-1}$, and $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{2, n-2}=\left\{P_{3}(a, b): a+b=n-3\right\}$, where $P_{3}(a, b)$ is obtained from $P_{3}$ by attaching $a$ and $b$ leaves to the endvertices of $P_{3}$, respectively.

Theorem 5.12. ([48]) Given positive integers $p$ and $q$ with $p \leq q$ and $p+q=n$.
(a) If $p=2$, then we order all the numbers in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{2, q}$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}^{t}\left(P_{3}(0, n-3)\right) & >R D D_{+}^{t}\left(P_{3}(1, n-4)\right)>R D D_{+}^{t}\left(P_{3}(2, n-5)\right)>\cdots \\
& >R D D_{+}^{t}\left(P_{3}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-3}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-3}{2}\right\rceil\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) If $p>2$, then for any $T \in \mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ we have

$$
R D D_{+}^{t}(T) \leq \frac{n^{2}+n-2}{t+1}+\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{t+2}+\frac{2-2 n}{t+3}-2 p q\left(\frac{1}{t+1}-\frac{1}{t+3}\right)
$$

The equality holds if and only if $T$ is isomorphic to $T(p, q)$, where $T(p, q)$ is a double star with $n$ vertices, which is obtained from an edge $v w$ by attaching $p-1$ (resp. $q-1$ ) pendent edges to $v(r e s p . w)$.

Proof. By direct calculation, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}^{t}\left(P_{3}(a-1, b+1)\right) & -R D D_{+}^{t}\left(P_{3}(a, b)\right) \\
& =\frac{2+2 b-2 a}{t+1}+\frac{2+2 b-2 a}{t+2}+\frac{2 a-2 b-2}{t+3}+\frac{2 a-2 b-2}{t+4} \\
& =(2 b-2 a+2)\left(\frac{1}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}-\frac{1}{t+3}-\frac{1}{t+4}\right)>0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

This implies the proof of (a).
For a given $T$ in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$, by repeatedly applying Transformation 5.10 to $T$ yields that $T(p, q)$ is the unique tree in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ which has the maximum $R D D_{+}^{t}$ value. By elementary calculation, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
R D D_{+}^{t}(T(p, q)) & =(p-1)\left[\frac{1}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}(p-1)+\frac{1}{t+3}(q-1)\right] \\
& +p\left[\frac{p}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}(q-1)\right]+q\left[\frac{q}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}(p-1)\right] \\
& +(q-1)\left[\frac{1}{t+1}+\frac{1}{t+2}(q-1)+\frac{1}{t+3}(p-1)\right] \\
& =\frac{p^{2}+q^{2}+p+q-2}{t+1}+\frac{(p+q-1)(p+q-2)}{t+2}+\frac{2(p-1)(q-1)}{t+3} \\
& =\frac{n^{2}+n-2}{t+1}+\frac{(n-1)(n-2)}{t+2}+\frac{2-2 n}{t+3}-2 p q\left(\frac{1}{t+1}-\frac{1}{t+3}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

This completes the proof of (b).

## 6. Conclusion

In this chapter we examined various extremal problems related to the reciprocal sum-degree distance and the reciprocal product-degree distance as well as their generalized versions. We were particularly interested in the following two problems:

- finding lower and upper sharp bounds for the reciprocal sum-degree distance and the reciprocal product-degree distance and its congeners, and
- characterizing the graphs for which the reciprocal sum-degree distance (resp. the reciprocal pro-duct-degree distance) and its congeners assume extremal (minimum or maximum) values.

Researches on these extremal aspects of the theory of the reciprocal sum-degree distance and reciprocal product-degree distance started more recently. However, once the non-triviality and mathematical beauty of the problems encountered, a remarkable activity has begun, resulting in scores of papers published in mathematical and chemical journals. Almost most all relevant results were obtained in the last five years.

Our ambition was to investigate the majority of results concerned with the above stated topics, to state them in a mathematically rigorous manner, and to provide proofs thereof. We tried to be as updated as possible, which was a near-to-impossible task since new results continue to emerge almost each month. Anyway, this chapter should offer a nearly complete survey of the extremal aspects of the results on the reciprocal sum-degree and the reciprocal product-degree distance up to year 2016.

At the very end we would like to state some open problems which-in our opinion-are most interesting from a mathematical point of view. It would be interesting to explore mathematical properties and possible predictive of the reformulated reciprocal product-degree distance. Another interesting problem would be to investigate this graph invariant for various nanostructures. Since even the simplest nanostructures, the $C_{4}$ nanotubes and nanotori, arise as the Cartesian products of paths and cycles, and since the Harary-type indices do not allow for nice expressions for such structures, there is not much hope of deriving explicit formulas of the reformulated reciprocal product-degree distance. However, it might be possible to extract certain information of the asymptotic behavior of reformulated reciprocal sum-product distance.

Errors, flaws, omissions are inevitable in a text of this kind. The author will be most grateful to those who point out such weak points of their investigation, and will appreciate any criticism thereof.

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# Some Bounds on the Eccentricity-Based Topological Indices of Graphs 

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#### Abstract

The eccentricity $\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)$ of a vertex $v$ in a graph $G$ is the maximum distance from $v_{i}$ to other vertices in $G$. As a fundamental concept in pure graph theory, the eccentricity has also been frequently used in chemical graph theory. There is a large family of eccentricity-based topological indices of (molecular) graphs, such as Zagreb eccentricity indices, eccentric connectivity index (ECI), connective eccentricity index (CEI) and average eccentricity, etc. In this chapter we present some upper or lower bounds on these eccentricity-based topological indices and characterize the corresponding extremal graphs at which the bounds are attained.


## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 189
2 Some bounds on EBTI of graphs from various sets ..... 191
2.1 Trees ..... 191
2.2 General graphs ..... 195
3 Some bounds on EBTI in terms of other topological indices ..... 199
3.1 For vertex-degree-based topological indices ..... 199
3.2 For (general) distance-based topological indices ..... 201

## 1. Introduction

We only consider finite, undirected, simple and connected graphs throughout this paper. Let $G$ be a graph with vertex set $V(G)=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots \ldots, v_{n}\right\}$ and edge set $E(G)$. The degree of $v_{i} \in V(G)$, denoted by $\operatorname{deg}_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)$, is the number of vertices in $G$ adjacent to $v$. For any two vertices $v_{i}, v_{j}$ in a graph $G$, the distance between them, denoted by $d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$, is the length (i.e., the number of edges) of a shortest path connecting them in $G$. Other undefined notations and terminology on the graph theory can be found in [8].

For any vertex of graph $G$, the eccentricity $\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)$ is the maximum distance from $v_{i}$ to other vertices of $G$, that is, $\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)=\max _{v_{j} \neq v_{i}} d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$. If $\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)=d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)$, then $v_{j}$ is an eccentric vertex of vertex $v_{i}$. Moreover, $\operatorname{rad}(G)=\min _{v_{i} \in V(G)}\left\{\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)\right\}$ and $\operatorname{diam}(G)=\max _{v_{i} \in V(G)}\left\{\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)\right\}$ are called the radius and the diameter of graph $G$, respectively. The center $C(G)$ and the periphery $P(G)$ of $G$ is the set of vertices of minimum, respectively maximum, eccentricity in it, their elements are called central, resp. peripheral, vertices. In particular, two peripheral vertices $v_{i}, v_{j}$ form a diametrical pair in a graph $G$ if $d_{G}\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)=\operatorname{diam}(G)$. The eccentricity sequence of a graph $G$ is just a set of eccentricities of its vertices, that is, $\mathcal{E}(G)=\left\{\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right): v_{i} \in V(G)\right\}$. If the eccentricity $\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)$ appears $l_{i} \geq 1$ times in $\mathcal{E}(G)$, we will write $\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)^{\left(l_{i}\right)}$ in it for short. For any graph $G$, we denote by $\bar{G}$ the complement of $G$. As usual, let $P_{n}, C_{n}, K_{n}$ be the path graph, cycle graph and complete graph, respectively, on $n$ vertices.

As a special distance of graphs, the eccentricity of a vertex has some important applications in other scientific branches. In pure graph theory, there are several special eccentricity-based graphs. Any graph $G$ with $C(G)=V(G)$ is called a self-centered graph [9]. Recently, based on the application of vertex eccentricity to location theory [10], two novel classes of graphs with specific central structure have been defined. A graph with $|C(G)|=|V(G)|-2$, or $|P(G)|=|V(G)|-1$, respectively, is called an almost self-centered (ASC) graph [7,33], or almost-peripheral (AP) graph [35], respectively. An ASC (AP, resp.) graph with radius $r$ is called an $r$-ASC ( $r$-AP, resp.) graph. A graph $G$ with $|C(G)|=|V(G)|-2$ is called a weak almost-peripheral (WAP) graph [55].

In chemical graph theory, various graphical invariants are used for establishing correlations of chemical structures with various physical properties, chemical reactivity, or biological activity. These graphical invariants are called topological indices of (molecular) graphs in this field. There is a large family of distance-based topological indices of (molecular) graphs in chemical graph theory. They include Wiener index [16,50] as the well-known and oldest topological index, hyper-Wiener index [32, 43], Harary index [31,41,56], and so on. Moreover, there are some eccentricity-based topological indices in chemical graph theory. In 2000, Gupta et al. [21] introduced a novel, adjacency-cum-path length based, topological descriptor named as connective eccentricity index (CEI) when investigating the antihypertensive activity of derivatives of N -benzylimidazole. And the connective eccentricity index of a (molecular) graph $G$ is just

$$
\xi^{c e}(G)=\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \frac{\operatorname{deg}_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)}{\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)}
$$

Moreover, in [21], they showed that the results obtained using the connective eccentricity index were better than the corresponding values obtained using Balaban's mean square distance index $[4,5]$ and the accuracy of prediction was found to be about 80 percents in the active range [21]. See $[1,54,57,59]$ for recent results on the CEI of graphs. Moreover, Sharma et al. [44] introduced the eccentric connectivity index (ECI) for a graph $G$, defined below:

$$
\xi^{c}(G)=\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \operatorname{deg}_{G}\left(v_{i}\right) \varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right),
$$

which has been employed successfully for the development of numerous mathematical models for the
prediction of biological activities of diverse nature [ $20,44,46$ ]. Some mathematical and chemical properties of ECI have been reported in $[2,3,30,39,40,60,61]$.

In analogy with the first and second Zagreb indices [25,26] of graphs, D. Vukičević and A. Graovac [49] defined the first and second Zagreb eccentricity Zagreb indices as follows:

$$
E_{1}(G)=\sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)^{2}, \quad E_{2}(G)=\sum_{v_{i} v_{j} \in E(G)} \varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right) \varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{j}\right) .
$$

Some mathematical properties of $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ can be found in [11, 17,51]. And the average eccentricity [10] of an $n$-vertex graph $G$ is defined as

$$
\operatorname{avec}(G)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{v_{i} \in V(G)} \varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)
$$

Very recently, the present author, Das and Maden [55] introduced a novel eccentricity-based invariant named as non-self-centrality number of a graph $G$ as follows:

$$
N(G)=\sum_{\left\{v_{i}, v_{j}\right\} \subseteq V(G)}\left|\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)-\varepsilon_{G}\left(v_{j}\right)\right|,
$$

which is used for measuring the non-self-centrality of all non-self-centered graphs. Some nice results on other attractive distance-based topological indices of graphs can be found in a survey paper [53] and the references therein.

In this chapter we report some upper and lower bounds on these above eccentricity-based topological indices (hereafter denoted by EBTI for short). In Section 2, we list some upper and lower bounds on EBTI of various sets of graphs. In Section 3, several bounds on EBTI are established in terms of other topological indices.

## 2. Some bounds on EBTI of graphs from various sets

In this section we propose some upper and lower bounds on EBTI of graphs from many distinct classes. And the corresponding extremal graphs are also characterized at which the upper (or lower) bounds on EBTI are attained.

### 2.1 Trees

As we all know, a tree is a connected acyclic graph, which can be viewed as the simplest case of connected graphs and so be a starting point when studying on some research topic in graph theory. In this subsection we focus on the upper and lower bounds on EBTI of general and special trees, respectively. First we limit our attention into the set of general trees. For $n=2$ or 3 , there is a single tree $P_{n}$ of order $n$. Therefore we always consider a tree of order $n \geq 4$.

In the following five theorems we focus on the upper and lower bounds on EBTI of general trees of $n \geq 4$ with the corresponding extremal trees.

Theorem 2.1. ( [11]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$. Then
(1) $E_{1}\left(S_{n}\right) \leq E_{1}(T) \leq E_{1}\left(P_{n}\right)$ with the left equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$ and the right equality holding if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$;
(2) $E_{2}\left(S_{n}\right) \leq E_{2}(T) \leq E_{2}\left(P_{n}\right)$ with the left equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$ and right equality holding if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$.

Theorem 2.2. ( [29]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
\operatorname{avec}\left(S_{n}\right) \leq \operatorname{avec}(T) \leq \operatorname{avec}\left(P_{n}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$, right holding if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$.
Theorem 2.3. ( [61]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}\left(S_{n}\right) \leq \xi^{c}(T) \leq \xi^{c}\left(P_{n}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$, right holding if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$.
Theorem 2.4. ( $[57,59])$ Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}\left(P_{n}\right) \leq \xi^{c e}(T) \leq \xi^{c e}\left(S_{n}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$ and right equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$.
Theorem 2.5. ( [55]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
N\left(S_{n}\right) \leq N(T) \leq N\left(P_{n}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$, right holding if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$.
Next we turn to the results for special trees. Before doing it, we first introduce some notations. A dumbbell $D_{n}(a, b)$ with $1 \leq a \leq b$ is a tree obtained from a path $P_{n-a-b}$ by attaching $a$ independent vertices to one pendant vertex of $P_{n-a-b}$ and $b$ independent vertices to the other pendant vertex. In particular, for an integer $d \geq 2$, a dumbbell $D_{n}(1, n-d)$ is a just a broom with diameter $d$ and will be denoted by $B_{n, d}$ in the following. And volcano graph $V_{n, d}$ is a tree obtained from a path $P_{d+1}$ by attaching $n-d-1$ pendant vertices to a central vertex (for odd $d$ ) or two adjacent central vertices (for even $d$ ) of $P_{d}$. Note that the tree $V_{n, d}$ is not unique if $d$ is even with $d<n-2$. As two examples, $D_{10}(2,3)$ and $B_{11,7}$ are shown in Figures 1 and 2, respectively. And $V_{10,6}, V_{12,7}$ are given in Figure 3.


Figure 1. The tree $D_{10}(2,3)$


Figure 2. The tree $B_{11,7}$


Figure 3. The tree $V_{10,6}$ (left) and a tree $V_{12,7}$ (right)

Theorem 2.6. ([51]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and with diameter $d>2$. Then

$$
E_{i}\left(V_{n, d}\right) \leq E_{i}(T) \leq E_{i}\left(D_{n}(a, b)\right) \text { for } i=1,2
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong V_{n, d}$, and right holding if and only if $T \cong D_{n}(a, b)$ with $a+b=n-d+1$.

Theorem 2.7. ( [39]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and with diameter $d>2$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}\left(V_{n, d}\right) \leq \xi^{c}(T) \leq \xi^{c}\left(B_{n, d}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong V_{n, d}$, right holding if and only if $T \cong B_{n, d}$.
Theorem 2.8. ([59]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and with diameter $d>2$. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}\left(D_{n}(a, b)\right) \leq \xi^{c e}(T)
$$

with equality holding iff $T \cong D_{n}(a, b)$ with $a+b=n-d+1$.
A caterpillar [27], denoted by $P_{k+1}^{n}\left(a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ with $\sum_{i=2}^{k} a_{i}=n-k-1$, is a tree of order $n$ with diameter $k$ obtained from a path $P_{k+1}=v_{1} v_{2} \cdots v_{k+1}$ by attaching $a_{i} \geq 0$ pendant vertices to the vertex $v_{i}$ for $i=2,3, \ldots, k$. If $k$ is even, $a_{2}+a_{k}+a_{\frac{k}{2}+1}=n-k-1$ with $a_{2}, a_{k}>0$ and $\left|a_{2}+a_{k}-a_{\frac{k}{2}+1}\right| \leq 2$, then $P_{k+1}^{n}\left(a_{2}, a_{3}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ is called a balanced caterpillar and denoted by $B C_{n, k}$. When $k$ is odd, the balanced caterpillar can be defined in parallel but two central vertices $v_{\frac{k+1}{2}}$ and $v_{\frac{k+3}{2}}$ in $P_{k+1}$ with $\left|a_{2}+a_{k}-a_{\frac{k+1}{2}}-a_{\frac{k+3}{2}}\right| \leq 2$ must be considered in the process. AS an example, some balanced caterpillar $B C_{12,7}$ is shown in Figure 4.


Figure 4. Some tree $B C_{12,7}$

Theorem 2.9. ( [55]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$ and with diameter $d$. Then

$$
N(T) \leq N\left(T^{*}\right)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $T \cong T^{*}$ where $T^{*}$ is isomorphic to some $B C_{n, d}$.
Next we turn to the determination of upper and lower bounds on EBTI of trees with a given matching number. And $S_{n, \beta}$ is a tree obtained from star $S_{n-\beta+1}$ by attaching a pendant edge to each $\beta-1$ pendant vertices in $S_{n-\beta+1}$. The Volkmann tree [19] $V T_{n, \Delta}$ is obtained in the following way:

Starting 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. In the last level, while not all vertices need to exist, the existing vertices fill the level consecutively. Thus, at most one vertex on the level second to last has its degree different from $\Delta$ and 1 . Some mathematical and chemical properties of Volkmann trees can be found in [36].

As two examples, the trees $S_{10,4}$ and $V T_{22,4}$ are shown in Figures 5 and 6, respectively.


Figure 5. The tree $S_{10,4}$


Figure 6. The tree $V T_{22,4}$
Theorem 2.10. ([51]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and matching number $\beta \geq 2$. Then

$$
E_{i}(T) \geq E_{i}\left(S_{n, \beta}\right) \text { where } i=1,2
$$

with equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n, \beta}$.
Theorem 2.11. ([54]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and matching number $\beta \geq 2$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}\left(S_{n, \beta}\right) \leq \xi^{c}(T) \leq \xi^{c}\left(D_{n}(a, b)\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n, \beta}$, right holding if and only if $T \cong D_{n}(a, b)$ with $a+b=n-2 \beta+1$.

Theorem 2.12. ( [54]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and matching number $\beta \geq 2$. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}\left(D_{n}(a, b)\right) \leq \xi^{c e}(T) \leq \xi^{c e}\left(S_{n, \beta}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong D_{n}(a, b)$ where $a+b=n-2 \beta+1$, right holding if and only if $T \cong S_{n, \beta}$.

Theorem 2.13. ([30]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and with maximum degree $\Delta>2$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}\left(V T_{n, \Delta}\right) \leq \xi^{c}(T) \leq \xi^{c}\left(B_{n, n-\Delta}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $T \cong V T_{n, \Delta}$, right holding if and only if $T \cong B_{n, n-\Delta}$.
Theorem 2.14. ([29]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and with maximum degree $\Delta>2$. Then

$$
\operatorname{avec}(T) \leq \operatorname{avec}\left(B_{n, n-\Delta}\right)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $T \cong B_{n, n-\Delta}$.
Theorem 2.15. ( [17]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n \geq 4$ and with maximum degree $\Delta>2$. Then

$$
E_{i}(T) \leq E_{i}\left(B_{n, n-\Delta}\right) \text { for } i=1,2
$$

with equality holding if and only if $T \cong B_{n, n-\Delta}$.

### 2.2 General graphs

In this subsection we report some upper or lower bounds on EBTI of general graphs. Recall that an $(n, m)$-graph is a connected graph of order $n$ and with $m$ edges. In particular, an $(n, n)$-graph is a unicyclic graph of order $n$, an $(n, n+1)$-graph is a bicyclic graph with $n$ vertices. Clearly a unicyclic graph has $n \geq 3$ vertices, and a unicyclic graph of order 3 is just a triangle $C_{3}$. And a bicyclic graph has at least 4 vertices.

Theorem 2.16. ( [17]) Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
E_{i}(G) \geq E_{i}\left(S_{n}^{+}\right) \text {for } i=1,2
$$

with the equality holding if and only if $G \cong S_{n}^{+}$where and hereafter $S_{n}^{+}$is a graph obtained by adding one edge to the star $S_{n}$.

Denote by $\mathcal{B}_{n}^{*}$ the set of two bicyclic graphs of order $n$ obtained by two edges to the star $S_{n}$.
Theorem 2.17. ([17]) Let $G$ be a bicyclic graph of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
E_{i}(G) \geq E_{i}\left(G^{*}\right) \text { for } i=1,2
$$

with the equality holding if and only if $G^{*} \in \mathcal{B}_{n}^{*}$.

Theorem 2.18. ( [61]) Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \geq \xi^{c}\left(S_{n}^{+}\right)
$$

with the equality holding if and only if $G \cong S_{n}^{+}$.
Theorem 2.19. ([61]) Let $G$ be a bicyclic graph of order $n$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \geq \xi^{c}\left(G^{*}\right)
$$

with the equality holding if and only if $G^{*} \in \mathcal{B}_{n}^{*}$.
Theorem 2.20. ( [59]) Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n$. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}\left(C_{3}(n-3)\right) \leq \xi^{c e}(G) \leq \xi^{c e}\left(S_{n}^{+}\right)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $G \cong C_{3}(n-3)$ where $C_{3}(n-3)$ is a graph obtained by attaching a pendant path of length $n-3$ to one vertex of $C_{3}$, and right holding if and only if $G \cong S_{n}^{+}$.

Let $\mathcal{D B}_{n}^{*}(a, b)$ be a set of two unicyclic graphs which are obtained from $D B_{n}(a, b)$ by inserting an edge between two pendant vertices adjacent to the vertex of degree $a+1$ and $b+1$, respectively.

Theorem 2.21. ([59]) Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n \geq 5$ and with diameter $d \geq 3$. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}\left(G^{*}\right) \leq \xi^{c e}(G)
$$

with left equality holding if and only if $G^{*} \in \mathcal{D B}_{n}^{*}(a, b)$.
Moreover, the upper bounds on CEI with the corresponding extremal graphs are determined in [59] among all unicyclic graphs of order $n \geq 5$ and with diameter $d \geq 3$.

Theorem 2.22. ([54]) Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n$ and with matching number $\beta \geq 2$. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}(G) \leq \xi^{c e}\left(F_{1}(n, \beta)\right)
$$

with the equality holding if and only if $G \cong F_{1}(n, \beta)$ where $F_{1}(n, \beta)$ is a graph obtained by attaching $n-2 \beta+1$ pendant edges and $\beta-2$ pendant paths of length 2 to one vertex of cycle $C_{3}$.

Theorem 2.23. ( [51]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 2$ and with $m$ edges, radius $r$ and diameter d. Then
(1) $n r^{2} \leq E_{1}(G) \leq n d^{2}$
(2) $m r^{2} \leq E_{2}(G) \leq m d^{2}$
with any equality holding if and only if $G$ is a self-centered graph.

Theorem 2.24. ([61]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \geq \xi^{c}\left(S_{n}\right)
$$

with the equality holding if and only if $G \cong S_{n}$.
Theorem 2.25. ([61]) Let $G$ be a connected graph with $m$ edges, radius $r$ and diameter $d$. Then

$$
2 m r \leq \xi^{c}(G) \leq 2 m d
$$

with any equality holding if and only if $G$ is a self-centered graph.
Theorem 2.26. ([55]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 3$. Then

$$
N\left(G_{0}\right) \leq N(G) \leq N\left(P_{n}\right)
$$

with the left equality holding if and only if $G \cong G_{0}$ where $G_{0}$ is an AP graph, and right holding if and only if $G \cong P_{n}$.

For a vertex $v$ in a connected graph $G$, the proximity $\pi(v)$ is the average distance from $v$ to all other vertices in $G$, that is, $\pi(v)=\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{u \in V(G) \backslash\{v\}} d_{G}(u, v)$. And the proximity and the remoteness of a connected graph $G$ are defined, respectively, as follows:

$$
\pi(G)=\min _{v \in V(G)} \pi(v), \quad \rho(G)=\max _{v \in V(G)} \pi(v) .
$$

Let

$$
f(n)= \begin{cases}\frac{3 n+1}{4} \frac{n-1}{n}-\frac{n+1}{4}, & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\ \frac{n-1}{2}-\frac{n}{4 n-4}, & \text { if } n \text { is even }\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 2.27. ( [38]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 3$. Then

$$
\operatorname{avec}(G) \leq \pi(G)+f(n)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong P_{n}$.
Let $K_{2, a-2}^{1}$ be a connected graph obtained from $K_{2, a-2}$ with the vertices of degree $a-2$ being adjacent. And $G_{1}$ is obtained by attaching a pendant path of length $\left\lfloor\frac{d}{2}\right\rfloor$ to each vertex of degree $n-d$ in $K_{2, n-d-1}^{1}$. Also $K_{3, a-2}^{2}$ be a connected graph of order $a+1$ obtained from $K_{2, a-2}$ with the vertices of degree $a-2$ being adjacent to a new vertex. And $G_{2}$ is obtained by attaching a pendant path of length $\frac{d}{2}-1$ to each vertex of degree $n-d$ in $K_{3, n-d+1}^{2}$.


Figure 7. One example for $G_{1}$ with $n=10$ and $d=7$


Figure 8. One example for $G_{2}$ with $n=11$ and $d=8$
Now we define two sets of graphs as follows.
$\Gamma_{1}=\left\{G: G\right.$ has diameter $\left.d, V(G)=V\left(G_{1}\right), E\left(G_{1}\right) \subseteq E(G)\right\}$.
$\Gamma_{2}=\left\{G: G\right.$ has diameter d, V(G)$\left.=V\left(G_{2}\right), E\left(G_{2}\right) \subseteq E(G)\right\}$.
Theorem 2.28. ([11]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and diameter $d$. Then

$$
E_{i}(G) \geq E\left(G^{*}\right) \text { for } i=1,2
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong G^{*}$ where $G^{*}$ is a path $P_{n}$ or belongs to $\Gamma_{1}$ or $\Gamma_{2}$.
It is interesting that the below is just a same result as the case of trees, although in it we consider the set of general graphs.

Theorem 2.29. ( [40]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and diameter $d$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \geq \xi^{c}\left(V_{n, d}\right)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong V_{n, d}$.
Moreover, some various bounds on $\xi^{c}$ are obtained [60] based on the different values of $m$ among all connected graphs of order $n$ and with $m$ edges diameter $d$.

A connected graph $G$ is called a cactus if each block of $G$ is either an edge or a cycle. Denote by $C_{n}^{k}$ a graph obtained by inserting $k$ independent edges into the star $S_{n}$. In the following theorem the upper bounds on $\xi^{c e}$ is obtained among all cacti of order $n$ and with $k$ cycles.

Theorem 2.30. ( [57]) Let $G$ be a cactus of order $n \geq 5$ and with $k$ cycles. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}(G) \leq \xi^{c e}\left(C_{n}^{k}\right)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong C_{n}^{k}$.
Now we end this subsection with the following two results on the upper bound on the average eccentricity in terms of independence number and clique number. Denote

$$
g(n)= \begin{cases}\frac{3 n^{2}-2 n-1}{4 n}+\frac{n+1}{2}, & \text { if } n \text { is odd } \\ \frac{3 n^{2}-4 n-4}{4 n}+\frac{n+2}{2}, & \text { if } n \text { is even }\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 2.31. ( [29]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 4$. Then

$$
\operatorname{avec}(G) \leq g(n)-\alpha(G)
$$

where $\alpha(G)$ is the independence number of $G$. And the equality holds if and only if $G \cong P_{n}$ for odd $n$ and $G \cong B_{n, n-2}$ for even $n$.

Theorem 2.32. ( [29]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 4$ with clique number $k$. Then

$$
\operatorname{avec}(G) \leq \frac{\operatorname{avec}\left(K i_{n, k}\right)}{k}
$$

where $K i_{n, k}$ is a kite graph obtained by attaching a pendant path of length $n-k$ to one vertex of $a$ complete graph $K_{k}$. And the equality holds if $G \cong K i_{n, k}$.

## 3. Some bounds on EBTI in terms of other topological indices

In this section we present some upper and lower bounds on EBTI in terms of other topological indices, mainly including vertex-degree-based ones, general distance-based ones.

### 3.1 For vertex-degree-based topological indices

For a (molecular) graph $G$, the first Zagreb index $M_{1}(G)$ and the second Zagreb index $M_{2}(G)$ are, respectively, defined $[25,26]$ as follows:

$$
M_{1}=M_{1}(G)=\sum_{v \in V(G)} \operatorname{deg}_{G}(v)^{2}, \quad M_{2}=M_{2}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)} \operatorname{deg}_{G}(u) \operatorname{deg}_{G}(v) .
$$

Please see [52] for some recent results on Zagreb indices and [24] for a survey of vertex-degree-based topological indices of graphs.

In the following two results some upper bounds of $E_{i}$ for $i=1,2$ are proposed, respectively, in terms of the first and the second Zagreb indices of graphs.

Theorem 3.1. ([11]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and with $m$ edges. Then

$$
E_{1}(G) \leq M_{1}(G)-4 m n+n^{3}
$$

The equality holds if and only if $G \cong G_{0}$ where $G_{0}$ is $P_{4}$ or $K_{n}$, or an $(n-1, n-2)$-semiregular graph. Theorem 3.2. ([11]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and with $m$ edges. Then

$$
E_{2}(G) \leq M_{2}(G)-n M_{1}(G)+m n^{2} .
$$

The equality holds if and only if $G \cong G_{0}$ where $G_{0}$ is $P_{4}$ or $K_{n}$, or an $(n-1, n-2)$-semiregular graph.
A connected graph $G$ with maximum degree $\Delta(G) \leq 4$ is called a molecular graph. In particular, a tree $T$ with $\Delta(T) \leq 4$ is called a chemical tree. Next we will list several results on the bounds on $\xi^{c}$ of some specific graphs, including molecular graphs, chemical trees, and general ones, in terms of $M_{i}$ for $i=1,2$.

Theorem 3.3. ([12]) Let $G$ be a connected molecular graph of order $n$ and with diameter $d \geq 7$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G)>M_{1}(G)
$$

Theorem 3.4. ( [28]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and with diameter $d$ such that $d \geq$ $\max \{7,2 \Delta(G)+1\}$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G)>M_{1}(G) .
$$

Also in [28], three sufficient conditions are given for the graphs $G$ with $\xi^{c}(G) \leq M_{i}(G)$ for $i=1,2$. Theorem 3.5. ([28]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 7$ and with minimum degree $\delta \geq \frac{n}{2}-1$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \leq M_{i}(G) \text { with } i=1,2 .
$$

Theorem 3.6. ([28]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and with diameter $d>3$. If $d_{G}(u)+d_{G}(v) \geq$ $n-1$ for any edge $u v \in E(G)$, then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \leq M_{i}(G) \text { with } i=1,2 .
$$

Theorem 3.7. ( [28]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 3$ and with average degree $\bar{d}(G)$ and diameter $d$. If $\bar{d}(G) \geq d$, then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \leq M_{i}(G) \text { with } i=1,2 .
$$

Theorem 3.8. ([61]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 3$ and with $m$ edges. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G) \leq 2 m n-M_{1}(G)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G$ is isomorphic to $P_{4}$, or $K_{n}$ or a graph obtained from $K_{n}$ by $k$ independent edges with $k=1,2, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$.

Theorem 3.9. ( [12]) Let $G$ be a chemical tree of order $n$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(T)<M_{1}(T)
$$

for $T \cong S_{4}, S_{5}$, or one of the following trees $T^{*}$ and $T^{* *}$ shown in Figure 9. Otherwise, we have

$$
\xi^{c}(T) \geq M_{1}(T)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{2}$, or $T \cong S_{3}$, or $T \cong T_{0}$ as shown in Figure 9 .


Figure 9. The trees $T_{0}, T^{*}$ and $T^{* *}$

For a (molecular) graph $G$, the Randić index $R(G)$ is defined [42] as follows:

$$
R(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)} \frac{1}{\sqrt{d_{G}(u) d_{G}(v)}} .
$$

In the two theorems below some bounds on the average eccentricity of graphs are given in terms of Randić index.

Theorem 3.10. ( [37]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 7$. Then

$$
R(G)+\operatorname{avec}(G) \geq \sqrt{n-1}+2-\frac{1}{n}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong S_{n}$.
Theorem 3.11. ( [37]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 7$. Then

$$
R(G) \cdot \operatorname{avec}(G) \geq \begin{cases}\frac{n}{2}, & 3 \leq n \leq 13 \\ \sqrt{n-1}\left(2-\frac{1}{n}\right), & n>13\end{cases}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$ if $3 \leq n \leq 13$, and $G \cong S_{n}$ if $n>13$.

### 3.2 For (general) distance-based topological indices

For a (molecular) graph $G$, as an oldest topological index, the Wiener index $W(G)$ is defined [50] as follows:

$$
W(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V(G)} d_{G}(u, v) .
$$

Please see [16] for the mathematical properties and applications of the Wiener index of trees.
Theorem 3.12. ( [13]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n>1$. Then $W(T)<\xi^{c}(T)$ for $T \cong P_{k}$ with $k=$ $2,3, \ldots, 6$ or $D_{5}(2,1)$. Otherwise, we have $\xi^{c}(T) \leq W(T)$ with equality holding if and only if $T \cong S_{4}$.

For an edge $e=u v \in E(G)$ of a graph $G$, we denote by $n_{u}(e)$ the number of vertices in $G$ with a smaller distance to $u$ than to $v$. And $n_{v}(e)$ can be similarly defined. As a generalization of Wiener index, Gutman [23] introduced a graph invariant, named as Szeged index, of a graph $G$ as follows:

$$
S z(G)=\sum_{e=u v \in E(G)} n_{u}(e) n_{v}(e) .
$$

Denote by $T(1,2,2)$ a tree obtained by attaching a pendant vertex to the central vertex of $P_{5}$.
Theorem 3.13. ([14]) Let $T$ be a tree of order $n>1$. Then

$$
S z(T) \geq \xi^{c}(T)+3
$$

if $T$ does not belong to the following set:

$$
\mathcal{G}^{*}=\left\{P_{2}, P_{3}, P_{4}, P_{5}, P_{6}, P_{7}, S_{4}, D_{5}(2,1), D_{6}(2,1), T(1,2,2)\right\} .
$$

In the following theorem two more general results on the comparison between $S z$ and $\xi^{c}$ are posed for the bipartite graphs.

Theorem 3.14. ([14]) Let $G$ be a bipartite graph of order $n>1$. Then $S z(G)<\xi^{c}(G)$ if $G$ is isomorphic to one of the trees: $P_{k}$ with $k=2,3,4,5,6, D_{5}(2,1)$. Otherwise, we have $S z(G) \geq \xi^{c}(G)$ with equality holding if and only if $G \cong C_{4}$ or $G \cong S_{4}$.

Theorem 3.15. ( [14]) Let $T$ be a bipartite graph of order $n>1$. Then

$$
S z(G) \geq \xi^{c}(G)+3
$$

if $G$ does not belong to the following set $\mathcal{G}^{*} \bigcup\left\{C_{4}\right\}$ where $\mathcal{G}^{*}$ is just the set defined in Theorem 3.13.
In the following three theorems some comparative results are given between $\xi^{c}$ and $\xi^{c e}$ of graphs. Together with these results the corresponding extremal results are characterized which are just some special eccentricity-based graphs, such as self-centered graphs or ASC ones.

Theorem 3.16. ([55]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 3$ with $m$ edges and radius $r$, diameter d. Then

$$
\xi^{c e}(G) \xi^{c}(G)-4 m^{2} \leq \frac{(d-r)^{2}}{2 d r}\left(4 m^{2}-M_{1}(G)\right)
$$

with the equality holding iff $G$ is a self-centered graph.
Theorem 3.17. ([55]) Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n \geq 3$ with $m$ edges and radius $r$, diameter d. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G)+r d \xi^{c e}(G) \leq 2 m(r+d)+\Delta(G)(d-r)
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G$ is a self-centered graph.
Theorem 3.18. ([55]) Let $G$ be a connected non-self-centered graph of order $n$ with minimum degree $\delta$ and radius $r$. Then

$$
\xi^{c}(G)-r^{2} \xi^{c e}(G) \geq 4 \delta-\frac{2 \delta}{r+1}
$$

with equality holding if and only if $G$ is an ASC graph with two non-central vertices having minimum degree $\delta$.

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# Sharp Bounds on the Eccentric Distance Sum of Graphs 

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## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 207
1.1 Background ..... 208
1.2 Some notations, terminologies and definitions ..... 209
2 Some useful transformations ..... 211
3 Extremal graphs with respect to EDS ..... 213
3.1 General graphs and bipartite graphs ..... 213
3.2 Trees ..... 213
3.3 Unicyclic graphs ..... 214
3.4 Triangle-free graphs ..... 215
3.5 (Outerplanar) planar graphs ..... 216
4 Relationship between the EDS invariant and some other graph invariants ..... 217
4.1 Bounds on EDS involving the number of edges ..... 217
4.2 Bounds on EDS involving the vertex degrees ..... 219
4.3 Bounds on EDS involving the (edge) connectivity ..... 220
4.4 Bounds involving the matching number ..... 223
4.5 Bounds on EDS involving the independence number ..... 224
4.6 Bounds on EDS involving the domination number ..... 225
4.7 Bounds on EDS involving the diameter ..... 226
4.8 Bounds on EDS involving the number of pendant vertices ..... 230
4.9 Bounds on EDS involving the ( $p, q$ )-bipartition ..... 230
4.10 Bounds involving other graph invariants ..... 232
5 Conclusion ..... 234

## 1. Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the so called eccentric distance sum (EDS) of graphs. Back in 2002, when Gupta, Singh and Madan [17] introduced the eccentric distance sum, this novel graph invariant
attracts more and more researchers' attention. One gauge that such gradual rising interest on the study of EDS must be powered by some fundamental properties of the EDS parameter.

### 1.1 Background

In this subsection, we present the related background for introducing the concept for eccentric distance sum of graphs.

A single number that can be used to characterize some property of the graph of a molecule is called a topological index, or graph invariant. Topological index is a graph theoretic property that is preserved by isomorphism. The chemical information derived through topological index has been found usefully in chemical documentation, isomer discrimination, structure property correlations, etc; see [1].

For quite some time there has been rising interest in the field of computational chemistry in topological indices. The interest in topological indices is mainly related to their use in nonempirical quantitative structure-property relationships and quantitative structure-activity relationships.

Among various indices, the Wiener index has been one of the most widely used descriptors in quantitative structure activity relationships. Many recently established topological indices such as degree distance index, eccentric connectivity index and so on are used as molecular descriptors.

The Wiener index is defined as the sum of all distances between unordered pairs of vertices

$$
W(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V_{G}} d_{G}(u, v) .
$$

It is considered as one of the most used topological index with high correlation with many physical and chemical properties of a molecule (modeled by a graph). For the results on the Wiener index one may be referred to the survey [7] and the recently published paper [27].

The degree distance index $D D(G)$ was introduced by Dobrynin and Kochetova [8] and Gutman [18] as graph-theoretical descriptor for characterizing alkanes; it can be considered as a weighted version of the Wiener index

$$
D D(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V_{G}}\left(d_{G}(u)+d_{G}(v)\right) d_{G}(u, v),
$$

where the summation goes over all pairs of vertices in $G$. In particular, when $G$ is a tree on $n$ vertices, $D D(G)=4 W(G)-n(n-1)$ (see $[20,25])$.

Sharma, Goswami and Madan [37] introduced a distance-based molecular structure descriptor, eccentric connectivity index (ECI) defined as

$$
\xi^{c}(G)=\sum_{v \in V_{G}} \varepsilon_{G}(v) d_{G}(v)
$$

The index $\xi^{c}(G)$ was successfully used for mathematical models of biological activities of diverse nature $[10,16]$. For the study of its mathematical properties one may be referred to $[23,24,32]$ and the references there in.

It is sometimes interesting to consider the sum of eccentricities of all vertices of a given graph $G$, which was first proposed by Dankelmann, Goddard and Swart in 2004 (see [5]). We call this quantity the total eccentricity of the graph $G$ and denoted it by

$$
\zeta(G)=\sum_{v \in V_{G}} \varepsilon_{G}(v)
$$

Recently, a novel graph invariant, i.e., the eccentric distance sum (EDS), was introduced by Gupta, Singh and Madan [17]. It was defined as

$$
\xi^{d}(G)=\sum_{\{u, v\} \subseteq V_{G}}\left(\varepsilon_{G}(v)+\varepsilon_{G}(u)\right) d_{G}(u, v)=\sum_{v \in V_{G}} \varepsilon_{G}(v) D_{G}(v),
$$

where $D_{G}(v)=\sum_{x \in V_{G}} d(x, v)$.
On the one hand, the eccentric distance sum offers a vast potential for structure activity/property relationships; On the other hand it can provide valuable leads for the development of safe and potent therapeutic agents of diverse nature. Comparatively, the eccentric distance sum exhibits much better correlation and lesser average errors than the Wiener index. The excellent prediction of the physical properties by the eccentric distance sum can be attributed to probable contribution of distance sum in addition to eccentricity. The physical properties are significantly responsible for the biological activity of a chemical compound. One may be referred to [17] for more details.

### 1.2 Some notations, terminologies and definitions

In this subsection, unless otherwise stated, we follow the traditional notations and terminologies (see, for instance, [3]). Some necessary definitions are provided.

We consider only simple connected graphs $G=\left(V_{G}, E_{G}\right)$, where $V_{G}$ is the vertex set and $E_{G}$ is the edge set. We call $n=\left|V_{G}\right|$ the order of $G$ and $m=\left|E_{G}\right|$ the size of $G$. Let $\bar{G}$ denote the complement of $G$. The distance, $d_{G}(u, v)$, between two vertices $u, v$ of $G$ is the length of a shortest $u-v$ path in $G$. The eccentricity $\varepsilon_{G}(v)$ of a vertex $v$ is the distance between $v$ and a furthest vertex from $v$. The diameter $\operatorname{diam}(G)$ of $G$ is defined as the maximum of the eccentricities of vertices of $G$, whereas the radius of $G$ is the minimum of the eccentricities of vertices of $G$.

Let $G=\left(V_{G}, E_{G}\right)$ be a graph. Then $G-v, G-u v$ denote the graph obtained from $G$ by deleting vertex $v \in V_{G}$, or edge $u v \in E_{G}$, respectively (this notation is naturally extended if more than one vertex or edge is deleted). Similarly, $G+u v$ is obtained from $G$ by adding an edge $u v \notin E_{G}$. Denote by $P_{n}, S_{n}$ and $K_{n}$, the path, the star, and the complete graph on $n$ vertices, respectively.

For a vertex subset $S$ of $V_{G}$, denoted by $G[S]$ the subgraph induced by $S$. Let $N_{G}(v)$ denote the set of vertices adjacent to $v . N_{G}[v]=N_{G}(v) \cup\{v\}$. The degree $d_{G}(v)$ of a vertex $v$ is equal to $\left|N_{G}(v)\right|$. The number $\Delta(G):=\max \left\{d_{G}(v) \mid v \in V_{G}\right\}$ is the maximum degree of $G$. The number $\delta(G):=\min \left\{d_{G}(v) \mid v \in V_{G}\right\}$ is the minimum degree of $G$. We call $u$ a leaf (or pendant vertex) of $G$ if $d_{G}(u)=1$. For convenience, let $\mathcal{G}_{n, m}$ be the class of all $n$-vertex connected graphs with $m$ edges.

A vertex cut of a connected graph $G$ is a set $S \subseteq V_{G}$ such that $G-S$ has more than one components. The connectivity of $G$, written $\kappa(G)$, is the minimum size of a vertex set $S$ such that $G-S$ is disconnected
or has only one vertex. A graph is $k$-connected if its connectivity is at least $k$. $G$ is 1 -connected if and only if it is connected; equivalently, $\kappa(G)=0$ if and only if it is disconnected. Similarly, an edge cut of a connected graph $G$ is a set $E^{\prime} \subseteq E_{G}$ such that $G-E^{\prime}$ has more than one components. The edge connectivity of $G$, written $\lambda(G)$, is the minimum size of an edge cut.

A subset $S$ of $V_{G}$ is called a dominating set of $G$ if for every vertex $v \in V_{G} \backslash S$, there exists a vertex $u \in S$ such that $u$ is adjacent to $v$. The domination number of $G$, denoted by $\gamma(G)$, is defined as the minimum cardinality of dominating sets of $G$. For a connected graph $G$ of order $n$, Ore [35] obtained that $\gamma(G) \leqslant \frac{n}{2}$. And the equality case was characterized independently in [13,39].

A subset $M$ of $E_{G}$ is called a matching of $G$ if no two edges of $M$ are adjacent in $G$. Let $M$ be a matching of $G$. The vertex $v$ in $G$ is $M$-saturated if $v$ is incident with an edge in $M$; otherwise, $v$ is $M$-unsaturated. A perfect matching $M$ of $G$ means that each vertex of $G$ is $M$-saturated; clearly, every perfect matching is maximum. The matching number of $G$, written as $\mu(G)$, is the cardinality of a maximum matching of $G$. If $\mu(G)=k$, then we also call such maximal matching as a $k$-matching. It is easy to prove by induction that a perfect matching of a tree is unique when it exists.

A subset $S$ of $V_{G}$ is called an independent set of $G$ if no two vertices of $S$ are adjacent in $G$. The independence number of $G$, denoted by $\alpha(G)$, is defined as the maximum cardinality of independent sets of $G$. It is known that for a bipartite graph $G$ of order $n$ with $\delta(G)>0$, then $\alpha(G)+\mu(G)=n$.

A tree is a connected graph having no cycles. Let $P_{l}(a, b)$ be an $n$-vertex tree obtained by attaching $a$ and $b$ leaves to the two end-vertices of $P_{l}=v_{1} v_{2} \ldots v_{l},(l \geqslant 2)$, respectively. Here, $a+b=n-l, a, b \geqslant 1$. A spider is a tree with at most one vertex of degree more than 2 . Let $S\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ be a spider with $k$ paths $P^{1}, P^{2}, \ldots, P^{k}$ satisfying the length of $P^{i}$ is $a_{i}(i=1,2, \ldots, k)$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{k} a_{i}=n-1$. Call $S\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{k}\right)$ a balanced spider if $\left|a_{i}-a_{j}\right| \leqslant 1$ for $1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant k$.

A bipartite graph $G$ is a simple graph with $n$ vertices, whose vertex set $V_{G}$ can be partitioned into two disjoint subsets $V_{1}$ and $V_{2}$ such that every edge of $G$ joins a vertex of $V_{1}$ with a vertex of $V_{2}$. Suppose that $V_{1}$ has $p$ vertices and $V_{2}$ has $q$ vertices, where $p+q=n$. Then we say that $G$ has a $(p, q)$-bipartition $(p \leqslant q)$. A bipartite graph in which every two vertices from different partition classes are adjacent is called complete, which is denoted by $K_{n_{1}, n_{2}}$, where $n_{1}=\left|V_{1}\right|, n_{2}=\left|V_{2}\right|$.

The join $G_{1} \oplus G_{2}$ of two vertex disjoint graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is the graph consisting of the union $G_{1} \cup G_{2}$, together with all edges of the type $x y$, where $x \in V_{G_{1}}$ and $y \in V_{G_{2}}$. For $k \geqslant 3$ vertex-disjoint graphs $G_{1}, G_{2}, \ldots, G_{k}$, the sequential join $G_{1} \oplus G_{2} \oplus \cdots \oplus G_{k}$ is the graph $\left(G_{1} \oplus G_{2}\right) \cup\left(G_{2} \oplus G_{3}\right) \cup \cdots \cup$ $\left(G_{k-1} \oplus G_{k}\right)$. The sequential join of $k$ disjoint copies of a graph $G$ will be denoted by $[k] G$, the union of $k$ disjoint copies of $G$ will be denoted by $k G$, while $[s] G_{1} \oplus G_{2} \oplus[t] G_{3}$ will denote the sequential join $\underbrace{G_{1} \oplus G_{1} \oplus \cdots \oplus G_{1}}_{s} \oplus G_{2} \oplus \underbrace{G_{3} \oplus G_{3} \oplus \cdots \oplus G_{3}}_{t}$.

The rest of this chapter is organized as follows. In Section 2, we present some graph transformations. In Section 3, we provide several extremal graphs w.r.t. EDS among some classes of graphs including general graphs, trees, bipartite graphs, unicyclic graphs, triangle-free graphs, planar graphs and outerplanar graphs. In Section 4, we provide an overview of different bounds on EDS in terms of various invariants such that sizes, vertex degrees, (edge) connectivity, matching number, independence number,
domination number, number of pendants, $(p, q)$-bipartition and so on. In the last section, we offer some open problems and conjectures for readers.

Further on, we need the following lemma.
Lemma 1.1 ( [40]). Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and $G \not \approx K_{n}$. Then for each edge e $\notin E_{G}$, $\xi^{d}(G)>\xi^{d}(G+e)$.

## 2. Some useful transformations

In this section, we will introduce several useful transformations as follows. We mainly study the effect of each of these transformations on the eccentric distance sum invariant.

Let $T$ be an arbitrary tree rooted at a center vertex and let $v$ be a vertex of degree $m+1(m \geqslant 2)$. Suppose that $w$ is adjacent to $v$ with $\varepsilon_{T}(v) \geqslant \varepsilon_{T}(w)$ and that $T_{1}, T_{2}, \ldots, T_{m}$ are subtrees under $v$ with root vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{m}$ such that the tree $T_{m}$ is actually a path. Let $T^{\prime}=T-\left\{v v_{1}, v v_{2}, \ldots, v v_{m-1}\right\}+$ $\left\{w v_{1}, w v_{2}, \ldots, w v_{m-1}\right\}$. We say that $T^{\prime}$ is a $\rho$-transformation of $T$ and denote it by $T^{\prime}=\rho(T, v)$ (see Fig. 1).


Figure 1. $\rho$-Transformation

Theorem 2.1 ( [15]). Let $T$ and $T^{\prime}$ be the trees defined as above, one has $\xi^{d}(T) \geqslant \xi^{d}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. The equality holds if and only if $\varepsilon_{T}(v)=\varepsilon_{T}(w)$ and $T[S]$ is one of the longest paths in $T$, where $S=V_{G_{0}} \cup V_{T_{m}} \cup\{v\}$. Theorem 2.2 ([15]). Let $T, T^{\prime}$ be the two trees as depicted in Fig. 2. Suppose that $P=v_{0} v_{1} \ldots v_{i} \ldots v_{r}$ $\ldots v_{d}$ is one of the longest paths contained in an $n$-vertex tree $T$ with $\left|V_{T_{1}}\right| \leqslant\left|V_{T_{d-1}}\right|$ and $r=\min \{i$ : $\left.\left|V_{T_{i}}\right|>1, i=2,3, \ldots, d-1\right\}$; see Fig. 2. Let $T^{\prime}=T-\left\{v_{r} u: u \in N_{T}\left(v_{r}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{r-1}, v_{r+1}\right\}\right\}+\left\{v_{1} u:\right.$ $\left.u \in N_{T}\left(v_{r}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{r-1}, v_{r+1}\right\}\right\}$. Then we have $\xi^{d}(T)<\xi^{d}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$.


Figure 2. Trees $T$ and $T^{\prime}$.

By Theorem 2.2, the following theorem holds.

Theorem 2.3 ( [31]). Suppose that $P=v_{0} v_{1} \ldots v_{i} \ldots v_{r} \ldots v_{d}$ is one of the longest paths contained in an $n$-vertex tree $T$ with $d_{T}\left(v_{1}\right) \leqslant d_{T}\left(v_{d-1}\right)$ and $r=\min \left\{i:\left|V_{T_{i}}\right| \geqslant 3, i=2,3, \ldots, d-1\right\}$. Let $v^{\prime}$ be an adjacent vertex of $v_{1}$ other than $v_{2}$ and $T^{\prime \prime}=T-\left\{v_{r} u \mid u \in N_{T}\left(v_{r}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{r}, v_{r+1}\right\}\right\}+\left\{v^{\prime} u \mid u \in\right.$ $\left.N_{T}\left(v_{r}\right) \backslash\left\{v_{r}, v_{r+1}\right\}\right\}$. Then we have $\xi^{d}(T)<\xi^{d}\left(T^{\prime \prime}\right)$.

Theorem 2.4 ( [15]). Given an n-vertex tree $T$ with $w u, u v \in E_{T}, d_{T}(w) \geqslant 2$, and each member in $N_{T}(v) \backslash\{u\}=\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \ldots, v_{t}\right\}$ is a leaf, $t \geqslant 1$. Let $T^{*}=T-\left\{v v_{1}, v v_{2}, \ldots, v v_{t}\right\}+\left\{w v_{1}, w v_{2}, \ldots, w v_{t}\right\} ;$ see Fig. 3. Then $\xi^{d}(T)>\xi^{d}\left(T^{*}\right)$.

We call the transformation in Theorem 2.4 as Transformation I.


Figure 3. Trees $T$ and $T^{*}$.

Theorem 2.5 ( [40]). Suppose $t \geqslant 1$ is an integer. Let $u$ be a vertex of a connected graph $G_{0}$ with at least two vertices. Let $G_{1}$ be the graph obtained by identifying $u$ and a pendant vertex of a star $S_{t+2}, G_{2}$ the graph obtained by identifying $u$ and the center of the star $S_{t+2}$. Then $\xi^{d}\left(G_{2}\right)<\xi^{d}\left(G_{1}\right)$.

We call the transformation in Theorem 2.5 as Transformation II.
Theorem 2.6 ( [26]). Let $w$ be a vertex of a nontrivial connected graph $G$. For nonnegative integers $p$ and $q$, let $G(p, q)$ denote the graph obtained from $G$ by attaching to vertex $w$ pendant paths $P=$ $w v_{1} v_{2} \ldots v_{p}$ and $Q=w u_{1} u_{2} \ldots u_{q}$ of lengths $p$ and $q$, respectively. Let $G(p+q, 0)=G(p, q)-w u_{1}+$ $v_{p} u_{1}$. If $\varepsilon_{G}(w) \geqslant p \geqslant q \geqslant 1$, then $\xi^{d}(G(p, q))<\xi^{d}(G(p+q, 0))$.

Theorem 2.7 ( [22]). Suppose $H$ is a complete graph on at least $s(\geqslant 2)$ vertices and $v_{1}, \ldots, v_{s}$ are distinct vertices of $H$. Let $G_{1}$ be the graph obtained from $H$ by attaching a nontrivial connected graph $H_{i}$ to $v_{i}$ for $i=1, \ldots, s$, respectively. Let $G_{2}$ be the graph obtained from $H$ by attaching all the above nontrivial connected graphs $H_{1}, \ldots, H_{s}$ to a vertex, say $v_{1}$, of $H$. Then $\xi^{d}\left(G_{1}\right)>\xi^{d}\left(G_{2}\right)$.

Theorem 2.8 ( [22]). Suppose $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ are two vertex-disjoint connected graphs of order at least 2. Take a vertex u from $H_{1}$ and a vertex $v$ from $H_{2}$, respectively. Let $G_{3}$ be the graph obtained by connecting $u$ and $v$ by an edge $u v$ and $G_{4}$ be the graph by identifying $u$ with $v$ and introducing a pendant edge $u w$ (or $v w$ ) with pendant vertex $w$, respectively. Then $\xi^{d}\left(G_{3}\right)>\xi^{d}\left(G_{4}\right)$.

Let $T$ be a tree of order $n>3$ and $e=u v$ be a non-pendant edge. Suppose that $T-e=T_{1} \cup T_{2}$ with $u \in V_{T_{1}}$ and $v \in V_{T_{2}}$. Now we construct a new tree $T_{0}$ obtained by identifying the vertex $u$ of $T_{1}$ with vertex $v$ of $T_{2}$ and attaching a leaf to the $u(=v)$. Then we say that $T_{0}$ is obtained by running
edge-growing transformation of $T$ (on the edge $e=u v$ ), or e.g.t of $T$ (on the edge $e=u v$ ) for short; see Fig. 4. By Theorem 2.8, $\xi^{d}\left(T_{0}\right)<\xi^{d}(T)$.


Figure 4. Two trees $T$ and $T_{0}$.

## 3. Extremal graphs with respect to EDS

In this section, we survey the results on the extremal graphs w.r.t. EDS among some classes of graphs, which include general graphs, trees, bipartite graphs, unicyclic graphs, triangle-free graphs, planar graphs and outerplanar graphs.

### 3.1 General graphs and bipartite graphs

By Lemma 1.1, the following results follow directly.
Theorem 3.1. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$. Then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant \xi^{d}\left(K_{n}\right)$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

Theorem 3.2 ( [29]). Let $G$ be a bipartite graph with $V_{G}=(U, W)$ satisfying $|U|=n_{1} \geqslant|W|=n_{2}$.
(i) If $n_{1}=n_{2}=1$, then $\xi^{d}(G)=2$ and the graph is only $K_{2}$.
(ii) If $n_{1} \geqslant 2, n_{2}=1$, then $\xi^{d}(G)=4 n_{1}^{2}-n_{1}$ and the graph is only $K_{n_{1}, 1}$.
(iii) If $n_{2}>1$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n_{1}^{2}+4 n_{2}^{2}+4 n_{1} n_{2}-4 n_{1}-4 n_{2}$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n_{1}, n_{2}}$.

### 3.2 Trees

Yu, Feng, Illić [40] characterized the $n$-vertex tree with the minimal EDS. Ilić, Yu and Feng [26] proved that the path $P_{n}$ is the unique extremal tree of order $n$ having the maximal EDS. Zhang and Li [41] determined the $n$-vertex trees with the second-maximal, third-maximal and fourth-maximal EDS, respectively. Li et al. [30] determined the trees with the third and fourth minimal EDS among the $n$-vertex trees.

Let $C\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{d-1}\right)$ be a caterpillar obtained from a path $P_{d+1}=v_{0} v_{1} \ldots v_{d}$ by attaching $a_{i}$ pendant edges to vertex $v_{i}, i=1,2, \ldots, d-1$. Clearly, $C\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{d-1}\right)$ has diameter $d$ and $n=$ $d+1+\sum_{i=1}^{d-1} a_{i}$. For simplicity, let $C_{n, d}:=C\left(0, \ldots, 0, a_{\lfloor d / 2\rfloor}, 0, \ldots, 0\right)$ and $C_{n, d}^{\prime}:=C\left(0, \ldots, 0, a_{\lfloor d / 2\rfloor}-\right.$ $1,1,0, \ldots, 0)$, where $a_{\lfloor d / 2\rfloor}=n-d-1$.

Let $\hat{T}_{n, i}$ be the tree obtained from $P_{n-1}=v_{0} v_{1} \ldots v_{n-2}$ by attaching a pendant vertex $v_{n-1}$ to $v_{i}$, where $1 \leqslant i \leqslant\lfloor(n-2) / 2\rfloor$. Let $L_{n, k}$ be the $n$-vertex tree obtained from the star $K_{1, n-k-1}$ by attaching
$k$ pendant edges to one of pendant vertices of $K_{1, n-k-1}$, where $k \in\left\{1,2, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1\right\}$. Obviously, $L_{n, 1}=C_{n, 3}$ and $L_{n, 2}=C_{n, 3}^{\prime}$.

Theorem 3.3 ( $[26,40])$. Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$. Then $\xi^{d}\left(S_{n}\right) \leqslant \xi^{d}(T) \leqslant \xi^{d}\left(P_{n}\right)$. The left equality holds if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$, whereas the right equality holds if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$.

Combining with Lemma 1.1, Theorems 3.1 and 3.3, the next corollary follows immediately.
Corollary 3.4. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$. Then $\xi^{d}\left(K_{n}\right) \leqslant \xi^{d}(G) \leqslant \xi^{d}\left(P_{n}\right)$. The left equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$, and the right equality holds if and only if $G \cong P_{n}$.

Theorem 3.5 ( [41]). If $n \geqslant 8$, then $\hat{T}_{n, 1}, \hat{T}_{n, 2}$ and $\hat{T}_{n, 3}$ are the unique trees with the second-maximal, third-maximal, and fourth-maximal eccentric distance sum among the trees on $n$ vertices.

Theorem 3.6 ( [30]). Among trees on $n$ vertices, $C_{n, 3}^{\prime}$ has the third minimal eccentric distance sum, whereas $L_{n, 3}$ has the fourth minimal eccentric distance sum.

### 3.3 Unicyclic graphs

Yu, Feng, Ilić [40] characterized the graphs among $n$-vertex unicyclic graphs with given girth having the minimal and second minimal EDS, respectively. Zhang and Li [41] characterized the extremal unicyclic graphs on $n \geqslant 8$ vertices with the maximal, second maximal and third maximal EDS, respectively.

Let $\mathscr{U}_{n}(k)$ be the set of $n$-vertex unicyclic graphs of order $n$ with girth $k$ and $\mathscr{U}_{n}$ be the set of all unicyclic graphs of order $n$. We denote by $H_{n, k}$ the unicyclic graph obtained from $C_{k}$ by adding $n-k$ pendant vertices to a vertex of $C_{k}$. Let $H\left(n, k ; n_{1}, n_{2}, \ldots, n_{k}\right)$ be a unicyclic graph on $n$ vertices obtained from cycle $C_{k}=v_{1} v_{2} \ldots v_{k}$ with $n_{i}$ pendant vertices attached at $v_{i}(i=1,2, \ldots, k)$. Clearly, $n-k=\sum_{i=1}^{k} n_{i}$. Let $H_{n, k}^{\prime}(3 \leqslant k \leqslant n-2)$ be a graph obtained from cycle $C_{k}=v_{1} v_{2} \ldots v_{k}$ by attaching $n-k-1$ pendant vertices and one pendant vertex at $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, respectively.

Theorem 3.7 ([40]). Let $G \in \mathscr{U}_{n}(k)$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n>5$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant \begin{cases}-\frac{1}{8} k^{4}+\frac{n-1}{4} k^{3}+\frac{7-3 n}{4} k^{2}+\left(n^{2}-\frac{7 n}{2}+1\right) k+2 n^{2}-n & \text { if } k \text { is even }, \\ -\frac{1}{8} k^{4}+\frac{2 n-1}{8} k^{3}+\frac{13-8 n}{8} k^{2}+\left(n^{2}-\frac{9 n}{4}+\frac{1}{8}\right) k+n^{2}-\frac{1}{2} & \text { if } k \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong H_{n, k}$.
Theorem 3.8 ( [40]). Let $G$ be a unicyclic graph of order $n>5$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n+1
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong H_{n, 3}$.
Theorem 3.9. Among all n-vertex $(n>5)$ unicyclic graphs with girth $k, H_{n, k}^{\prime}$ has the second minimal eccentric distance sum,

$$
\xi^{d}\left(H_{n, k}^{\prime}\right)= \begin{cases}-\frac{1}{8} k^{4}+\frac{n-1}{4} k^{3}+\frac{2-3 n}{4} k^{2}+\left(n^{2}-2 n-2\right) k+2 n^{2}+n-2 \quad & \text { if } k \text { is even, } \\ 6 n^{2}-11 n-15 & \text { if } k=3, \\ -\frac{1}{8} k^{4}+\frac{2 n-1}{8} k^{3}+\frac{3-8 n}{8} k^{2}+\left(n^{2}-\frac{3}{4} n-\frac{11}{8}\right) k+n^{2}+\frac{1}{2} n-\frac{7}{4} & \text { if } k \text { is odd and } k \geqslant 5 .\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 3.10 ([40]). Let $G \in \mathscr{U}_{n}\left(\neq H_{n, 3}\right)$ be a unicyclic graph on $n>5$ vertices.
(a) If $n=6$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 133$ with equality if and only if $G \cong H_{6,5}$;
(b) If $n \geqslant 7$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 6 n^{2}-11 n-16$ with equality if and only if $G \cong H_{n, 4}$.

Let $U_{n}$ be the graph obtained from a path $P_{n-1}=v_{0} v_{1} \ldots v_{n-3} v_{n-2}$ and a vertex $v_{n-1}$ by adding two edges $v_{n-1} v_{n-2}$ and $v_{n-1} v_{n-3}$. Then let $Q_{n}=U_{n}-v_{n-1} v_{n-3}+v_{n-1} v_{n-4}$ and $B_{n}=U_{n}-v_{n-1} v_{n-2}+$ $v_{n-1} v_{n-4}$.

Theorem 3.11 ([41]). Let $G$ be in $\mathscr{U}_{n} \backslash\left\{U_{n}, Q_{n}, B_{n}\right\}$ with $n \geqslant 8$. Then $\xi^{d}(G)<\xi^{d}\left(Q_{n}\right)<\xi^{d}\left(B_{n}\right)<$ $\xi^{d}\left(U_{n}\right)$.

### 3.4 Triangle-free graphs

$\mathrm{Li}, \mathrm{Yu}$ and Sun [29] determined the graphs with the smallest EDS among the $n$-vertex triangle-free graphs.

Lemma 3.12 ( [3]). Let $G$ be a connected graph with $\left|E_{G}\right|>\frac{1}{4}\left|V_{G}\right|^{2}$. Then $G$ contains at least one triangle.

Lemma 3.13 ([28]). Among $\left\{K_{n_{1}, n_{2}}: n_{1}+n_{2}=n, n_{1} \geqslant 1, n_{2} \geqslant 1\right\}$ with $n \geqslant 4$, one has $\xi^{d}\left(K_{1, n-1}\right)>$ $\xi^{d}\left(K_{2, n-2}\right)>\cdots>\xi^{d}\left(K_{\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil}\right)$.

Theorem 3.14 ( [28]). Let $G$ be a connected triangle-free graph of order $n \geqslant 4$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n(n-1)-4\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The equality holds if and only if $G \cong K_{\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}$.
Proof. Let $G$ be a triangle-free graph of order $n$ with the minimum EDS. If there exists a vertex $u \in V_{G}$ such that $\varepsilon_{G}(u)=1$, then $d_{G}(u)=n-1$. Hence, we have $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.

In what follows, we consider that the eccentricity of each vertex in $V_{G}$ is greater than one. It is easy to see that, for each vertex $x$ of $G$, one has $d_{G}(x) \leqslant n-2$. Hence, for $x \in V_{G}$, we have $\varepsilon_{G}(x) \geqslant 2$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{G}(x)=\sum_{u \in N_{G}(x)} d_{G}(u, x)+\sum_{u \in V_{G} \backslash N_{G}[x]} d_{G}(u, x) \geqslant d_{G}(x)+2\left(n-1-d_{G}(x)\right)=2 n-2-d_{G}(x) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the inequality in (2) follows from the fact that the distance between $x$ and the vertex which is not adjacent to $x$ is at least two. Together with the definition of the EDS, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\xi^{d}(G) & =\sum_{x \in V_{G}} \varepsilon_{G}(x) D_{G}(x) \\
& \geqslant \sum_{x \in V_{G}} 2\left(2 n-2-d_{G}(x)\right)  \tag{3}\\
& =4 n(n-1)-4\left|E_{G}\right| \\
& \geqslant 4 n(n-1)-4\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

where the inequality (3) follows by (2) and the inequality (4) follows by Lemma 3.12.
Hence, we have $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n(n-1)-4\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$ with equality if and only if $\varepsilon_{G}(x)=2$ for each vertex $x$ in $V_{G}$ and $\left|E_{G}\right|=\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$. In order to complete the proof, it suffices to identify all the $n$-vertex triangle-free graphs with $\varepsilon_{G}(x)=2$ for each $x \in V_{G}$ and $\left|E_{G}\right|=\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$ attaining the minimum EDS value $4 n(n-1)-4\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$.

According to Turán Theorem, $K_{\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}$ is the unique triangle-free graph with $n$ vertices and $\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$ edges. So $G$ attains the minimum EDS value $4 n(n-1)-4\left\lfloor n^{2} / 4\right\rfloor$ if and only if $G \cong K_{\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil \backslash\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}$.

From our proof, we obtain that $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$ if there exists a vertex $u$ in $V_{G}$ such that $\varepsilon(u)=1$ and $G \cong K_{\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor}$ if $\varepsilon(u)>1$ for all $u$ in $V_{G}$. Hence, by Lemma 3.13, we obtain that $K_{\left\lceil\frac{n}{2}\right\rceil\left\lfloor\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right.}$ is the unique $n$-vertex triangle-free graph which makes the equality in (1) hold, as desired.

## 3.5 (Outerplanar) planar graphs

Li and Wu [28] determined the graph with the smallest EDS among the (outerplanar) planar graphs. Recall that $\mathcal{G}_{n, m}$ is the class of all connected $n$-vertex graphs with $m$ edges.

Lemma 3.15 ( [28]). Let $G_{1}, G_{2}$ be in $\mathcal{G}_{n, m}$ with $\Delta\left(G_{1}\right)=n-1$ and $\Delta\left(G_{2}\right)<n-1$. Then $\xi^{d}\left(G_{1}\right)<$ $\xi^{d}\left(G_{2}\right)$.

Theorem 3.16 ( [28]). Let $G$ be a planar graph on $n(n \geqslant 6)$ vertices, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-18 n+26$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{2} \oplus P_{n-2}$.

Proof. Choose $G$, a planar graph of order $n$, such that its EDS is as small as possible. Since the EDS decreases by adding edges to the graph preserving that the resultant graph is still planar, $G$ must be a maximal planar graph, which means that there are $3 n-6$ edges in $G$.

We claim that $G$ has at most two vertices of degree $n-1$, otherwise as $\left|E_{G}\right|=3\left|V_{G}\right|-6$, we have $G \cong K_{3} \oplus(n-3) K_{1}$, which implies that $G$ is not a planar graph, a contradiction. By Lemma 3.15, $G$ must have at least one vertex with degree $n-1$. Hence, we proceed by distinguishing the following two cases.

Case 1. $G$ contains just one vertex of degree $n-1$, say $w$.

By the definition of the EDS, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi^{d}(G) & =\varepsilon_{G}(w) D_{G}(w)+\sum_{v \in V_{G} \backslash\{w\}} \varepsilon_{G}(v) D_{G}(v) \\
& \geqslant n-1+\sum_{v \in V_{G} \backslash\{w\}} 2\left(2 n-2-d_{G}(v)\right) \\
& =4(n-1)^{2}+3(n-1)-4 m \\
& =4 n^{2}-17 n+25 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Case 2. $G$ has exactly two vertices, say $w_{1}, w_{2}$, of degree $n-1$.

By the definition of the EDS, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi^{d}(G) & =\varepsilon_{G}\left(w_{1}\right) D_{G}\left(w_{1}\right)+\varepsilon_{G}\left(w_{2}\right) D_{G}\left(w_{2}\right)+\sum_{v \in V_{G} \backslash\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}} \varepsilon_{G}(v) D_{G}(v) \\
& \geqslant 2(n-1)+\sum_{v \in V_{G} \backslash\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}} 2\left(2 n-2-d_{G}(v)\right) \\
& =4(n-1)(n-2)+6(n-1)-4 m \\
& =4 n^{2}-18 n+26 .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is easy to check that $4 n^{2}-18 n+26<4 n^{2}-17 n+25$. Hence, $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-18 n+26$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{2} \oplus P_{n-2}$.

Theorem 3.17 ( [28]). Let $G$ be an outerplanar graph on $n(n \geqslant 6)$ vertices, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-13 n+13$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{1} \oplus P_{n-1}$.

## 4. Relationship between the EDS invariant and some other graph invariants

In this section we establish the relationship between the EDS invariant and some other graph invariants, such as the number of edges, degree sequence, (edge) connectivity, matching number, independence number, domination number, diameter, number of pendants, $(p, q)$-bipartition and so on.

### 4.1 Bounds on EDS involving the number of edges

Li and Wu [29] characterized the $n$-vertex connected graphs of size $m$ having the minimum EDS.
For any integer $m$ with $n-1 \leqslant m \leqslant \frac{n(n-1)}{2}-1$, there must exist some $k \in\{1,2, \ldots, n-2\}$ such that $n k-\frac{k(k+1)}{2} \leqslant m \leqslant n(k+1)-\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}-1$. For convenience, assume $n k-\frac{k(k+1)}{2} \leqslant m \leqslant$ $n(k+1)-\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}-1$ for some $k \in\{1,2, \ldots, n-2\}$. Then let

$$
\mathcal{G}_{n, m}^{k}=\left\{G \in \mathcal{G}_{n, m}\left|G=H \oplus K_{k},\left|V_{H}\right|=n-k,\left|E_{H}\right|=m-n k+\frac{k^{2}}{2}+\frac{k}{2}\right\}\right.
$$

be the set of graphs each of which contains exactly $k$ vertices of degree $n-1$.
Theorem 4.1 ( [28]). Let $G$ be a graph in $\mathcal{G}_{n, m}$ with $n k-\frac{k(k+1)}{2} \leqslant m \leqslant n(k+1)-\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}-1$ for some $k \in\{1,2, \ldots, n-2\}$. Then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-4 n-k n+k-4 m$ with equality if and only if $G$ is in $\mathcal{G}_{n, m}^{k}$.

Proof. Let $G$ be a graph with the minimal EDS in $\mathcal{G}_{n, m}$, where $n k-\frac{k(k+1)}{2} \leqslant m \leqslant n(k+1)-\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}-$ 1 for some fixed $k \in\{1,2, \ldots, n-2\}$. By Lemma $3.15, G$ contains at least one vertex of degree $n-1$. We are to show that the graph $G$ contains at most $k$ vertices of degree $n-1$. Suppose that $G$ contains at least $k+1$ vertices of degree $n-1$. For convenience, let $A=\left\{u \in V_{G} \mid d_{G}(u)=n-1\right\}$. Then $|A| \geqslant k+1$
and it is easy to see that for $u \in V_{G} \backslash A$, one has $d_{G}(u) \geqslant k+1$. Therefore, by Handshaking lemma, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
m & =\frac{1}{2} \sum_{u \in V_{G}} d_{G}(u)=\frac{1}{2}\left(\sum_{u \in A} d_{G}(u)+\sum_{u \in V_{G} \backslash A} d_{G}(u)\right) \\
& \geqslant \frac{1}{2}[|A|(n-1)+(n-|A|)(k+1)] \\
& \geqslant \frac{1}{2} n(k+1)+\frac{1}{2}(k+1)(n-k-2)  \tag{5}\\
& =n(k+1)-\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} \\
& >n(k+1)-\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}-1,
\end{align*}
$$

a contradiction to the assumption that $m \leqslant n(k+1)-\frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}-1$, where the inequality in (5) follows by $|A| \geqslant k+1$.

Now suppose that $G$ is a graph in $\mathcal{G}_{n, m}$ with $t$ vertices of degree $n-1$, where $1 \leqslant t \leqslant k$. Hence, $|A|=t$. Based on the structure of $G$, we have $\varepsilon_{G}(v)=1, D_{G}(v)=n-1$ for any $v \in A ; \varepsilon_{G}(v)=$ $2, D_{G}(v)=2 n-2-d_{G}(v)$ for any $v \in V_{G} \backslash A$. By the definition of the EDS, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi^{d}(G) & =\sum_{v \in A} \varepsilon_{G}(v) D_{G}(v)+\sum_{v \in V_{G} \backslash A} \varepsilon_{G}(v) D_{G}(v) \\
& =t(n-1)+\sum_{v \in V_{G} \backslash A} 2\left(2 n-2-d_{G}(v)\right) \\
& =t(n-1)+4(n-t)(n-1)-\sum_{v \in V_{G} \backslash A} 2 d_{G_{1}}(v) \\
& =4 n^{2}-4 n-t(n-1)-4 m .
\end{aligned}
$$

Obviously, we can view $\xi^{d}(G)=4 n^{2}-4 n-t(n-1)-4 m$ as a real decreasing function in $t$ with $1 \leqslant t \leqslant k$. Then $G$ attains the minimum value on $\xi^{d}(G)$ only when $t=k$. In this case, $G$ has exactly $k$ vertices of degree $n-1$. Hence, $G \in \mathcal{G}_{n, m}^{k}$.

This completes the proof.

Now we characterize the extremal graphs obtained the minimum EDS with respect to trees, unicyclic graphs, bicyclic graphs and tricyclic graphs, respectively. The following corollaries follow directly by Theorem 4.1.

Corollary 4.2 ( $[28,40])$. If $G$ is a tree in $\mathcal{G}_{n, n-1}$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n+5$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{1, n-1}$.




Figure 5. Graphs $H^{\prime}, G^{\prime}$ and $G^{\prime \prime}$.

Corollary 4.3 ( $[28,40]$ ). If $G$ is a unicyclic graph in $\mathcal{G}_{n, n}$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n+1$ with equality if and only if $G \cong H^{\prime}$, where $H^{\prime}$ is depicted in Fig. 5 .

Corollary 4.4 ([28]). If $G$ is a bicyclic graph in $\mathcal{G}_{n, n+1}$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n-3$ with equality if and only if $G \in\left\{G^{\prime}, G^{\prime \prime}\right\}$, where $G^{\prime}, G^{\prime \prime}$ are depicted in Fig. 5.





Figure 6. Tricyclic graphs $G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}, G_{4}, G_{5}$ with the minimum EDS.

Corollary 4.5 ([28]). If $G$ is a tricyclic graph in $\mathcal{G}_{n, n+2}$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n-7$ with equality if and only if $G \in\left\{G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}, G_{4}, G_{5}\right\}$, where $G_{1}, G_{2}, G_{3}, G_{4}, G_{5}$ are depicted in Fig. 6.

### 4.2 Bounds on EDS involving the vertex degrees

Let $d_{1} \geqslant d_{2} \geqslant \cdots \geqslant d_{n}$ denote the non-increasing sequence of vertex degrees. Recall that the largest and the smallest vertex degrees are denoted, respectively, as $\Delta=d_{1}$ and $\delta=d_{n}$. Hua, Zhang and Xu [22] gave the upper bound for EDS of connected graphs in terms of degree sequence. Mukungunugwa and Mukwembi [33] determined the asymptotic upper bounds for EDS of graphs according to its order and minimum degree. Miao et al. [31] determined the trees having the maximum EDS among the $n$-vertex trees with maximum degree $\Delta$. For convenience, let $\mathscr{T}^{n, \Delta}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees with the maximum degree $\Delta$.

Note that $d_{G}(u, v) \leqslant \varepsilon_{G}(v) \leqslant n-d_{G}(v)$ for any vertex $u, v \in V_{G}$. Thus,
Theorem 4.6 ( [22]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n \geqslant 2$ vertices with degree sequence $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots\right.$, $\left.d_{n}\right)$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \leqslant(n-1) \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(n-d_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $d_{1}=d_{2}=\cdots=d_{n}=n-1$, that is, $G \cong K_{n}$.

From Theorem 4.6, the following consequence follows immediately.

Corollary 4.7 ( [22]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n \geqslant 2$ vertices with minimum degree $\delta$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \leqslant n(n-1)(n-\delta)^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $\delta=n-1$, that is, $G \cong K_{n}$.
Theorem 4.8 ( [33]). Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ and minimum degree $\delta \geqslant 2$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \leqslant \frac{3 \cdot 5^{2}}{2^{5} \cdot(\delta+1)^{2}} n^{4}+O\left(n^{3}\right)
$$

Moreover, for a fixed $\delta$, this bound is asymptotically sharp.
Theorem 4.9 ( [31]). Among $\mathscr{T}^{n, \Delta}(3 \leqslant \Delta \leqslant n-2), S\left(a_{1}, 1, \ldots, 1\right)$ maximizes the EDS where $a_{1}=n-\Delta$.

### 4.3 Bounds on EDS involving the (edge) connectivity

Hua, Zhang and Xu [22] characterized the graphs with the minimum EDS among all the graphs on $n$ vertices with edge-connectivity $\lambda$. Ilić, Yu and Feng [26] established the sharp lower bound on the EDS among all connected graphs on $n$ vertices with a given connectivity. Li and Wu [28] considered the sharp upper bound on the EDS of graphs with even connectivity. Li, Wu and Sun [29] identified all the extremal graphs having the minimal EDS in the class of all connected $n$-vertex bipartite graphs with a given connectivity.

Theorem 4.10 ( [22]). Let $G$ be a graph on $n$ vertices with edge-connectivity $\lambda$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 2 n^{2}-\lambda n+2 n-3 \lambda-4
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\lambda} \oplus\left(K_{1} \cup K_{n-\lambda-1}\right)$.
Theorem 4.11 ( [26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with connectivity $\kappa$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 2 n^{2}-\kappa n+2 n-3 \kappa-4
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\kappa} \oplus\left(K_{1} \cup K_{n-\kappa-1}\right)$.
Let $G_{n}^{k}$ be a graph of order $n$ obtained from a cycle $C_{n}$ by adding edges between vertices with distance no more than $k / 2$ on this $n$-vertex cycle, where $k$ is even. For example, graphs $G_{8}^{4}$ and $G_{8}^{6}$ are depicted in Fig. 7.


Figure 7. Graphs $G_{8}^{4}$ and $G_{8}^{6}$.

Theorem 4.12 ( [28]). Let $G$ be a $k$-connected graph on $n$ vertices with $n \geqslant k+1$. If $k$ is even, then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \leqslant n\left(n+\frac{k}{2}-1\right)\left\lfloor\frac{n+k-2}{k}\right\rfloor^{2}-\frac{k n}{2}\left\lfloor\frac{n+k-2}{k}\right\rfloor^{3} .
$$

Moreover, the bound is best possible when the graph is $G_{n}^{k}$.
Proof. Choose any vertex $v \in V_{G}$ and let $\varepsilon$ be the eccentricity of $v$. Let $V_{i}=\left\{x: d_{G}(v, x)=i\right\}$ and put $a_{i}=\left|V_{i}\right|$ for $i \in\{0,1,2, \ldots, \varepsilon\}$. We can see that $a_{i} \geqslant k$ for every $i=1,2, \ldots, \varepsilon-1$. As we have

$$
D_{G}(v)=1 a_{1}+2 a_{2}+\cdots+\varepsilon a_{\varepsilon},
$$

we need to maximize the last sum under the constraints

$$
a_{1}+a_{2}+\cdots+a_{\varepsilon}=n-1, \quad a_{1}, a_{2}, \ldots, a_{\varepsilon-1} \geqslant k, a_{\varepsilon} \geqslant 1 .
$$

Thus, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
D_{G}(v)=1 a_{1}+2 a_{2}+\cdots+\varepsilon a_{\varepsilon} & \leqslant(1+2+\cdots+\varepsilon-1) k+\varepsilon(n-1-k(\varepsilon-1))  \tag{6}\\
& =\left(n+\frac{k}{2}-1\right) \varepsilon-\frac{k}{2} \varepsilon^{2},
\end{align*}
$$

where the equality in (6) holds if and only if $a_{1}=a_{2}=\cdots=a_{\varepsilon-1}=k, a_{\varepsilon}=n-1-k(\varepsilon-1) \geqslant 1$.
From the above discussion, we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
\xi^{d}(G) & =\sum_{x \in V_{G}} \varepsilon_{G}(x) D_{G}(x) \\
& \leqslant \sum_{x \in V_{G}} \varepsilon\left[\left(n+\frac{k}{2}-1\right) \varepsilon-\frac{k}{2} \varepsilon^{2}\right]  \tag{7}\\
& =n\left(n+\frac{k}{2}-1\right) \varepsilon^{2}-\frac{k n}{2} \varepsilon^{3},
\end{align*}
$$

where the inequality of (7) follows by (6).
Let $f=n\left(n+\frac{k}{2}-1\right) x^{2}-\frac{k n}{2} x^{3}$ be a real function in $x$. By a direct derivation on $f$, we have

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=n x\left[2\left(n+\frac{k}{2}-1\right)-\frac{3 k}{2} x\right] .
$$

It is easy to see that $f$ is decreasing when $x \leqslant 0$ or $x \geqslant \frac{4 n+2 k-4}{3 k}$ and increasing when $0 \leqslant x \leqslant \frac{4 n+2 k-4}{3 k}$. As $1 \leqslant \varepsilon \leqslant \frac{n+k-2}{k}$ and $\frac{4 n+2 k-4}{3 k}>\frac{n+k-2}{k}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{d}(G) \leqslant n\left(n+\frac{k}{2}-1\right)\left[\frac{n+k-2}{k}\right\rfloor^{2}-\frac{k n}{2}\left\lfloor\frac{n+k-2}{k}\right\rfloor^{3}, \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the equality of (8) holds if and only if $a_{1}=a_{2}=\cdots=a_{\varepsilon-1}=k, \varepsilon=\left\lfloor\frac{n+k-2}{k}\right\rfloor$ for each vertex of $G$, that is, $G \cong G_{n}^{k}$.

Next, we consider the extremal bipartite graphs with a given vertex connectivity. We define a bipartite graph $O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{n_{1}, n_{2}} \cup K_{m_{1}, m_{2}}\right)$, where $\cup$ is the union of two graphs, $O_{s}(s \geqslant 1)$ is an empty graph of order $s$ and $\vee_{1}$ is a graph operation that joins all the vertices in $O_{s}$ to the vertices belonging to the partitions of cardinality $n_{1}$ in $K_{n_{1}, n_{2}}$ and $m_{1}$ in $K_{m_{1}, m_{2}}$, respectively. In the rest of this subsection, $K_{1}$ may be regarded as $K_{1,0}$.
Lemma 4.13 ( [29]). If $3 p<7 q+6 s+1$ and $p \geqslant s$, then $\xi^{d}\left(O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{1} \cup K_{p, q}\right)\right)>\xi^{d}\left(O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{1} \cup\right.\right.$ $\left.K_{p+1, q-1}\right)$ ).
Lemma 4.14 ( [29]). If $p \geqslant q \geqslant 1$, then $\xi^{d}\left(O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{1} \cup K_{q, p}\right)\right) \geqslant \xi^{d}\left(O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{1} \cup K_{p, q}\right)\right)$ with equality if and only if $p=q$.
Lemma 4.15 ( [29]). If $3 p>7 q+6 s+11$ and $p \geqslant s, q \geqslant 1$, then $\xi^{d}\left(O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{1} \cup K_{p, q}\right)\right)>\xi^{d}\left(O_{s} \vee_{1}\right.$ $\left.\left(K_{1} \cup K_{p-1, q+1}\right)\right)$.
Lemma 4.16 ([29]). If $2 \leqslant s \leqslant\left\lfloor\frac{n-12}{8}\right\rfloor$, then $\xi^{d}\left(K_{s, n-s}\right)>\xi^{d}\left(O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{1} \cup K_{n-s-2,1}\right)\right)$.
For convenience, let $\mathscr{C}_{n}^{s}$ be the class of connected $n$-vertex bipartite graphs with connectivity $s$.
Lemma 4.17 ( [29]). If $G \in \mathscr{C}_{n}^{s}$ and $U$ is a vertex-cut of order $s$ in $G$ such that $G-U$ has two nontrivial components, then $G$ cannot be the graph with the minimal EDS among $\mathscr{C}_{n}^{s}$.
Theorem 4.18 ( [29]). Let $G$ be in $\mathscr{C}_{n}^{s}$ with vertex-cut $U$ satisfying $|U|=s$ and having the minimal EDS.
(i) If all the components of $G-U$ are singletons and $\frac{n-12}{8} \leqslant s \leqslant\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, then $G \cong K_{s, n-s}$.
(ii) If $G-U$ contains a non-trivial component, then $G \cong O_{s} \vee_{1}\left(K_{1} \cup K_{p, q}\right)$ for some $p$ and $q$, where $p+q=n-s-1$. In particular,
(a) $2 \leqslant s<\frac{n-12}{8}$ and $p<\frac{7 n-s-6}{10}$, one has $G \cong G_{1}^{*}$;
(b) $2 \leqslant s<\frac{n-12}{8}$ and $\frac{7 n-s-6}{10} \leqslant p \leqslant \frac{7 n-s+4}{10}$, one has $G \cong G_{1}^{*}$ or $G_{2}^{*}$ if $10 \mid(7 n-s-6)$ and $G \cong G_{2}^{*}$ if $10 \nmid(7 n-s-6)$;
(c) For $2 \leqslant s<\frac{n-12}{8}$ and $p>\frac{7 n-s+4}{10}$, one has $G \cong G_{2}^{*}$;
(d) For $\frac{n-12}{8} \leqslant s<\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, one has $G \cong G_{1}^{*}$ or $G_{2}^{*}$,


Figure 8. Graphs $G_{1}^{*}, G_{2}^{*}$ used in Theorem 4.18.

### 4.4 Bounds involving the matching number

Ilić, Yu and Feng [26] determined the graphs with the minimum EDS with given matching number. Li et al. [30] characterized the trees with the minimum and second minimum EDS among all the $n$-vertex trees with given matching number. Miao et al. [31] determined the trees having the maximum EDS among the $n$-vertex trees with given matching number. $\mathrm{Li}, \mathrm{Wu}$ and Sun [29] characterized the sharp lower bound on the EDS in the class of all connected bipartite graphs with given matching number.

We denote by $T_{n, \mu}$ the tree obtained from the star graph $S_{n-\mu+1}$ by attaching a pendant edge to each of certain $\mu-1$ non-central vertices of $S_{n-\mu+1}$. It is easy to see that $T_{n, \mu}$ contains a $\mu$-matching. If $n=2 \mu$, then it has a perfect matching. We denote by $T_{2 \mu, \mu}^{\prime}$ the tree obtained from $T_{2 \mu-2, \mu-1}$ by attaching a $P_{3}$ to a vertex of degree 2 in $T_{2 \mu-2, \mu-1}$. Graphs $T_{n, \mu}$ and $T_{2 \mu, \mu}^{\prime}$ are depicted in Fig. 9 .


Figure 9. Graphs $T_{n, \mu}$ and $T_{2 \mu, \mu}^{\prime}$ with some vertices labeled.

Theorem 4.19 ([26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with matching number $\mu, 2 \leqslant \mu \leqslant\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$. Let $b=\frac{1}{20}\left(9+5 n+\sqrt{(9+5 n)^{2}+40(1-5 n)}\right)$.
(i) If $\mu=\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant n(n-1)$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$;
(ii) If $b<\mu \leqslant\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor-1$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n-8 \mu^{2}+12 \mu+1$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{1} \oplus\left(K_{2 \mu-1} \cup \bar{K}_{n-2 \mu}\right) ;$
(iii) If $\mu=b$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n-8 \mu^{2}+12 \mu+1=4 n^{2}-5 n \mu-4 n+2 \mu^{2}+3 \mu$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{1} \oplus\left(K_{2 \mu-1} \cup \bar{K}_{n-2 \mu}\right)$, or $G \cong K_{\mu} \oplus \bar{K}_{n-\mu}$;
(iv) If $2 \leqslant \mu<b$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-5 n \mu-4 n+2 \mu^{2}+3 \mu$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\mu} \oplus \bar{K}_{n-\mu}$.

Lemma 4.20 ( [19]). Let $T$ be a tree with $n(n>2)$ vertices and with a perfect matching. Then $T$ has at least two pendant vertices such that they are adjacent to vertices of degree 2 , respectively.

Lemma 4.21 ( [19]). Let $T$ be an n-vertex tree with a $\mu$-matching, and $n=2 \mu+1$. Then $T$ has $a$ pendant vertex which is adjacent to a vertex of degree 2 .

Lemma 4.22 ( $[4,19])$. Let $T$ be an $n$-vertex tree with a $\mu$-matching where $n>2 \mu$. Then there is $a$ $\mu$-matching $M$ and a pendant vertex $v$ such that $M$ does not saturate $v$.

Theorem 4.23 ( [30]). Let $T \in \mathscr{T}_{2 \mu, \mu}$. Then $\xi^{d}(T) \geqslant 43 \mu^{2}-72 \mu+34$. The equality holds if and only if $T \cong T_{2 \mu, \mu}$, where $T_{2 \mu, \mu}$ is depicted in Fig. 9 .

Theorem 4.24 ([30]). Let $T$ be the tree in $\mathscr{T}_{2 \mu, \mu} \backslash\left\{T_{2 \mu, \mu}\right\}$. Then $\xi^{d}(T) \geqslant 55 \mu^{2}-66 \mu-52$. The equality holds if and only if $T \cong T_{2 \mu, \mu}^{\prime}$, where $T_{2 \mu, \mu}^{\prime}$ is depicted in Fig. 9.

Theorem 4.25 ( [30]). Let $T$ be an $n$-vertex $(n \geqslant 2 \mu)$ tree with a $\mu$-matching. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(T) \geqslant 6 n^{2}+\mu^{2}+9 \mu n-22 n-28 \mu+34
$$

and the equality holds if and only if $T \cong T_{n, \mu}$, where $T_{n, \mu}$ is depicted in Fig. 9 .
Theorem 4.26 ([30]). Let $T$ be the tree in $\mathscr{T}_{n, \mu} \backslash\left\{T_{n, \mu}\right\}(n>2 \mu \geqslant 6)$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(T) \geqslant 6 n^{2}+\mu^{2}+9 \mu n-13 n-26 \mu-9
$$

and the equality holds if and only if $T \cong T_{n, \mu}^{\prime}$, where $T_{n, \mu}^{\prime}=T_{n, \mu}-u q+p q$ and $T_{n, \mu}$ is depicted in Fig. 9.

Theorem 4.27 ( [31]). Among all the trees of order $n$ with matching number $\mu$, the tree $P_{l}(a, b)$ has the maximum EDS, where $l=2 \mu-1$ and $0 \leqslant b-a \leqslant 1$.

Let $\mathscr{A}_{n}^{\mu}$ be the class of all connected bipartite graphs of order $n$ with matching number $\mu$.
Theorem 4.28 ( [29]). Let $G=(U, W) \in \mathscr{A}_{n}^{\mu}$.
(i) If $\mu=1$, then $\xi^{d}(G)=\xi^{d}\left(K_{1, n-1}\right)=4 n^{2}-9 n+5$;
(ii) If $\mu \geqslant 2$, then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}+4 \mu^{2}-4 n \mu-4 n$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{\mu, n-\mu}$.

### 4.5 Bounds on EDS involving the independence number

Ilić, Yu and Feng [26] characterized the graphs having the minimum EDS of order $n$ with the independence number $\alpha$. Miao et al. [31] determined the trees having the maximum and minimum EDS among the $n$-vertex trees with independence number $\alpha$.

Theorem 4.29 ( [26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with independence number $\alpha$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant n^{2}+(\alpha-1) n+2 \alpha^{2}-3 \alpha
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong \bar{K}_{\alpha} \oplus K_{n-\alpha}$.
Theorem 4.30 ( [31]). Among all the trees of order $n$ and with independence number $\alpha$, the tree $T_{n, n-\alpha}$ has the minimum EDS.

Theorem 4.31 ( [31]). Among all trees of order $n$ and with independence number $\alpha$, the tree $P_{l}(a, b)$ has the maximum EDS, where $l=2(n-\alpha)-1$ and $0 \leqslant b-a \leqslant 1$.

Combining with Theorems 4.30 and 4.31, we have the following corollary.
Corollary 4.32. Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with independence number $\alpha$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}\left(\bar{K}_{\alpha} \oplus K_{n-\alpha}\right) \leqslant \xi^{d}(G) \leqslant \xi^{d}\left(P_{l}(a, b)\right) .
$$

The left equality attains if and only if $G \cong \bar{K}_{\alpha} \oplus K_{n-\alpha}$, and the right equality attains if and only if $G \cong P_{l}(a, b)$.

### 4.6 Bounds on EDS involving the domination number

Geng, Li and Zhang [15] characterized the tree among $n$-vertex trees with domination number $\gamma$ having the minimum EDS and they also determined the graph among $n$-vertex trees with domination number $\gamma$ satisfying $n=k \gamma$ having the maximum EDS, $k=2, n / 3, n / 2$. Miao et al. [31] characterized the tree having the maximum EDS among $n$-vertex trees with domination number $\gamma=3$.

For convenience, let $\mathcal{T}_{n, \gamma}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees with domination number $\gamma$.
Lemma 4.33 ([15]). If $T^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}_{n, \gamma}$ has the minimum EDS, then we have $\gamma\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\beta\left(T^{\prime}\right)=\gamma$.
Combining Theorem 4.25 and Lemma 4.33, the following is obvious.
Theorem 4.34 ( [15]). For any tree $T \in \mathcal{T}_{n, \gamma}$, we have $\xi^{d}(T) \geqslant 6 n^{2}+\gamma^{2}+9 \gamma n-22 n-28 \gamma+34$. The equality holds if and only if $T \cong T_{n, \gamma}$.

Lemma 4.35 ( [11]). Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$. Then $W\left(S_{n}\right) \leqslant W(T) \leqslant W\left(P_{n}\right)$. The left equality holds if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$, and the right equality holds if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$.

The corona of two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$, introduced in [14], is a new graph $G_{1} \circ G_{2}$ obtained from one copy of $G_{1}$ and $\left|V_{G_{1}}\right|$ copies of $G_{2}$ such that the $i^{\text {th }}$ vertex of $G_{1}$ is adjacent to every vertex in the $i^{\text {th }}$ copy of $G_{2}$. As an example, the corona $G \circ K_{1}$ is a graph obtained from attaching a leaf to each vertex of $G$. In particular, for a positive integer $p$, we denote by $G^{(p)}$ the graph obtained by attaching $p$ leaves to every vertex of $G$. Note that $G^{(p)}$ has $(p+1) n$ vertices and $G \circ K_{1}=G^{(1)}$.

Lemma 4.36 ( [15]). Let $T$ be a tree of order $n$ and $T^{(m)}$ be the graph as defined above. Then $\xi^{d}\left(S_{n}^{(m)}\right) \leqslant$ $\xi^{d}\left(T^{(m)}\right) \leqslant \xi^{d}\left(P_{n}^{(m)}\right)$. The left equality holds if and only if $T \cong S_{n}$, and the right equality holds if and only if $T \cong P_{n}$.

Lemma 4.37 ( $[13,39])$. If $n=2 \gamma$, then a tree $T$ belongs to $\mathcal{T}_{n, \gamma}$ if and only if there exists a tree $H$ of order $\gamma$ such that $T=H \circ K_{1}$.

Theorem 4.38 ( [15]). Among all the trees in $\mathcal{T}_{n, \frac{n}{2}}$, the tree $P_{\frac{n}{2}} \circ K_{1}$ has the maximum EDS.
Proof. By Lemma 4.37, any tree in $\mathcal{T}_{n, \frac{n}{2}}$ must be of the form $H \circ K_{1}$ where $H$ is a tree of order $\frac{n}{2}=\gamma$. Taking $m=1$ in Lemma 4.36 implies the result immediately.

Theorem 4.39 ( [15]). Among all the trees in $\mathcal{T}_{n,\left\lceil\frac{n}{3}\right\rceil}$ with $n>4$, the tree $P_{n}$ has the maximum EDS.
Lemma 4.40 ([15]). $\xi^{d}\left(P_{l}(1, n-l-1)\right)<\xi^{d}\left(P_{l}(2, n-l-2)\right)<\cdots<\xi^{d}\left(P_{l}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-l}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-l}{2}\right\rceil\right)\right)$.
Theorem 4.41 ( [15]). Among all the trees in $\mathcal{T}_{n, 2}$ with $n \geqslant 4$, the tree $P_{4}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-4}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-4}{2}\right\rceil\right)$ has the maximum EDS.

Proof. In view of Theorem 4.39, the result holds for $n=4,5,6$. So in what follows, we only consider the case for $n \geqslant 7$. Assume that $T_{1} \in \mathcal{T}_{n, 2}$ has the maximum EDS and $S=\left\{w_{1}, w_{2}\right\}$ is a dominating set of $T_{1}$. Now we show the following two claims:

Claim 1. $w_{1}$ is not adjacent to $w_{2}$.
Proof of Claim 1. If not, then $T_{1}$ must be of the form $P_{2}(a, b)$ with $a+b=n-2$ and $a \leqslant b$. By Lemma 4.40, we have $b-a \leqslant 1$. That is to say, $T_{1} \cong P_{2}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-2}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-2}{2}\right\rceil\right)$. Note that $\frac{n-2}{2} \geqslant \frac{5}{2}>2$. After running the converse of e.g.t. on the edge $w_{1} w_{2}$ of $T_{1}$, we obtain a new tree $T_{2} \cong P_{3}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-2}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-2}{2}\right\rceil-1\right)$ which still belongs to $\mathcal{T}_{n, 2}$. By Theorem 2.8, we have $\xi^{d}\left(T_{2}\right)>\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}\right)$, which contradicts the choice of $T_{1}$.

Claim 2. $d_{T_{1}}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)=3$.
Proof of Claim 2. From Claim 1, we have $d_{T_{1}}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right) \geqslant 2$. If $d_{T_{1}}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right) \geqslant 4$, then there exists at least one vertex $x$ on the shortest path between $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ such that $x$ can not be dominated by the two vertices $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$. This contradicts the fact that $T_{1} \in \mathcal{T}_{n, 2}$. Then we get $2 \leqslant d_{T_{1}}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right) \leqslant 3$. If $d_{T_{1}}\left(w_{1}, w_{2}\right)=2$, then we find that $T_{1} \cong P_{3}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-3}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-3}{2}\right\rceil\right)$ by Lemma 4.40. Assume that the common neighbor of $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ is $w_{0}$. Note that $\frac{n-3}{2} \geqslant 2>1$. By running the converse of e.g.t. on the edge $w_{0} w_{1}$ or $w_{0} w_{2}$, in view of Theorem 2.8, we get a new tree of the form $P_{4}(a, b)$ with $a+b=n-4$, which is still in $\mathcal{T}_{n, 2}$ but has a larger EDS. This is impossible because of the maximality of $\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}\right)$, as desired.

By Claims 1 and 2, $T_{1}$ must be of the form $P_{4}(a, b)$ with $a+b=n-4$. By Lemma 4.40, this theorem follows immediately.

Theorem 4.42 ([31]). Among $\mathcal{T}_{n, 3}$ with $n \geqslant 10, P_{7}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-7}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-7}{2}\right\rceil\right)$ maximizes the EDS.

### 4.7 Bounds on EDS involving the diameter

Let $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{d}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees of diameter $d$. Yu, Feng and Illić [40] that $C_{n, d}$ is unique tree in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{d}$ with the minimum EDS. As a consequence, they determined the $n$-vertex trees with minimum and second minimum EDS. Li et al. [30] characterized the extremal trees with the second minimum EDS among the $n$-vertex trees of a given diameter. Li and Wu [28] characterized the $n$-vertex graphs with diameter $d$ having minimum EDS. Li, Wu and Sun [29] considered the same problem in the class of all the connected bipartite graphs of odd diameter $d$.

Given a positive integer $t$, let $C_{d}(t)$ be the tree obtained from $C_{n-t, d}$ and $S_{t+1}$ by identifying a pendant vertex, say $u$, in the neighborhood of $v_{\lfloor d / 2\rfloor}$ with the center of the star $S_{t+1}$.

Theorem 4.43 ( [40]). Among trees on $n$ vertices and diameter $d$, caterpillar $C_{n, d}$ has the minimal eccentric distance sum ${ }^{1}$, $\xi^{d}\left(C_{n, d}\right)= \begin{cases}-\frac{7}{96} d^{4}+\left(\frac{n}{3}-\frac{17}{24}\right) d^{3}+\left(\frac{n}{4}+\frac{7}{24}\right) d^{2}+\left(n^{2}-\frac{23}{6} n+\frac{23}{6}\right) d+2 n^{2}-5 n+3, & \text { if } d \text { is even } ; \\ -\frac{7}{96} d^{4}+\left(\frac{n}{3}-\frac{5}{6}\right) d^{3}+\left(\frac{3 n}{8}+\frac{11}{48}\right) d^{2}+\left(n^{2}-\frac{29}{6} n+\frac{29}{6}\right) d+3 n^{2}-\frac{55}{8} n+\frac{123}{32}, & \text { if } d \text { is odd. }\end{cases}$

Theorem 4.44 ( [30]). $C_{n, d}^{\prime}(d \geqslant 3)$ has the second minimal eccentric distance sum in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{d}$,
$\xi^{d}\left(C_{n, d}^{\prime}\right)= \begin{cases}-\frac{7}{96} d^{4}+\left(\frac{n}{3}-\frac{17}{24}\right) d^{3}+\left(\frac{n}{4}-\frac{11}{24}\right) d^{2}+\left(n^{2}-\frac{17}{6} n-\frac{2}{3}\right) d+2 n^{2}-4, & \text { if d is even; } \\ -\frac{7}{96} d^{4}+\left(\frac{n}{3}-\frac{5}{6}\right) d^{3}+\left(\frac{3 n}{8}-\frac{37}{48}\right) d^{2}+\left(n^{2}-\frac{23}{6} n-\frac{1}{6}\right) d+3 n^{2}-\frac{31}{8} n-\frac{69}{32}, & \text { if } d \text { is odd. }\end{cases}$

[^0]Next, we characterize the $n$-vertex graphs with diameter $d$ having the minimum EDS. Clearly, $K_{n}$ (resp. $P_{n}$ ) is the unique graph of diameter 1 (resp. $n-1$ ). Hence, we consider in what follows that $2 \leqslant d \leqslant n-2$. In particular, if $d$ is odd, let
$\mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}:=\left\{G_{n, d} \mid G_{n, d}=[(d-1) / 2] K_{1} \oplus K_{n_{1}+1} \oplus K_{n_{2}+1} \oplus[(d-1) / 2] K_{1}, n_{1} \geqslant 0, n_{2} \geqslant 0, n_{1}+n_{2}=n-d-1\right\}$.
A bug $B u g_{p, q_{1}, q_{2}}$ is a graph obtained from a complete graph $K_{p}$ by deleting an edge $u v$ and attaching paths $P_{q_{1}}$ and $P_{q_{2}}$ at $u$ and $v$, respectively. It is obvious that the number of vertices of $B u g_{p, q_{1}, q_{2}}$ is $p+q_{1}+q_{2}-2$. For example, $B u g_{6,3,3}$ is depicted in Fig. 10.


Figure 10. $B^{\prime} g_{6,3,3}$.

Theorem 4.45 ( [28]). Let $G$ be an $n$-vertex graph of diameter $d$ with the minimal EDS, $2 \leqslant d \leqslant n-2$. Then $G \cong B u g_{n-d+2, \frac{d}{2}, \frac{d}{2}}$ if $d$ is even, and $G$ is in $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}$ otherwise.

Proof. Choose $G$ among the $n$-vertex graphs with diameter $d$ such that its EDS is as small as possible. Let $x_{0}$ be a vertex of $G$ with the maximal eccentricity $d$, then there exists a vertex $x_{d}$ such that $d_{G}\left(x_{0}, x_{d}\right)=d$. For convenience, let $P:=x_{0} x_{1} \ldots x_{d}$ be a path of length $d$ in $G$ connecting $x_{0}$ and $x_{d}$. Denote by $L_{i}$ the set of vertices at distance $i$ from $x_{0}$ for $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, d\}$. It is routine to check that $L_{0} \cup L_{1} \cup \cdots \cup L_{d}$ is the vertex partition of $V_{G}$. We proceed by considering the following two facts. By Lemma 1.1, the first fact is obvious.

Fact 1. $G\left[L_{i}\right]\left(\right.$ resp. $\left.G\left[L_{j-1} \cup L_{j}\right]\right)$ induces a complete graph for $i=0,1, \ldots, d($ resp. $j=1,2, \ldots, d)$.
Fact 2. Consider the vertex partition $V_{G}=L_{0} \cup L_{1} \cup \cdots \cup L_{d}$ of $G$.
(i) For even d, if $d=2$, then $\left|L_{0}\right|=\left|L_{2}\right|=1$ and $\left|L_{1}\right|=n-2$; if $d \geqslant 4$, then $\left|L_{0}\right|=\left|L_{1}\right|=\cdots=$ $\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}-1}\right|=\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}+1}\right|=\cdots=\left|L_{d-1}\right|=\left|L_{d}\right|=1,\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}}\right|=n-d$.
(ii) For odd d, one has $\left|L_{0}\right|=\left|L_{1}\right|=\cdots=\left|L_{\frac{d-3}{2}}\right|=\left|L_{\frac{d+3}{2}}\right|=\cdots=\left|L_{d-1}\right|=\left|L_{d}\right|=1$, and $\left|L_{\frac{d-1}{2}}\right|+\left|L_{\frac{d+1}{2}}\right|=n-d+1$.

Proof of Fact 2. (i) It is routine to check that $\left|L_{0}\right|=\left|L_{d}\right|=1$. Hence, if $d=2$, then $\left|L_{1}\right|=n-2$. In what follows we only show that $\left|L_{1}\right|=1$ for diameter $d \geqslant 4$ holds.

In fact, if $\left|L_{1}\right| \geqslant 2$, then choose $u \in L_{1} \backslash\left\{x_{1}\right\}$ and let $G^{\prime}=G-u x_{0}+\left\{u x: x \in L_{3}\right\}$. Then, $L_{0} \cup\left(L_{1} \backslash\{u\}\right) \cup\left(L_{2} \cup\{u\}\right) \cup L_{3} \cup \cdots \cup L_{d}$ is the vertex partition of $V_{G^{\prime}}$. By Fact 1 and the choice of $G$, we know that $G^{\prime}\left[L_{i}\right]$ for $i \in\{0,1, \ldots d\}$ and $G^{\prime}\left[L_{i-1} \cup L_{i}\right]$ for $i \in\{1,2, \ldots, d\}$ induce a complete subgraph.

By the structure of $G$ and $G^{\prime}$, we obtain that $\varepsilon_{G}(u)=d-1, \varepsilon_{G^{\prime}}(u)=d-2$, and $\varepsilon_{G}(x)=\varepsilon_{G^{\prime}}(x)$ for all $x \in V_{G} \backslash\{u\}$. And we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
D_{G}\left(x_{0}\right) & =D_{G^{\prime}}\left(x_{0}\right)-1, \quad D_{G}(u)=D_{G^{\prime}}(u)-1+\sum_{i=3}^{d}\left|L_{i}\right|, \\
D_{G}(x) & =D_{G^{\prime}}(x), \quad \text { for each } x \in\left(L_{1} \backslash\{u\}\right) \cup L_{2}, \\
D_{G}(x) & =D_{G^{\prime}}(x)+1, \quad \text { for each } x \in L_{3} \cup \ldots \cup L_{d} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, by the definition of the EDS, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\xi^{d}(G)-\xi^{d}\left(G^{\prime}\right)= & \sum_{x \in V_{G}} \varepsilon_{G}(x) D_{G}(x)-\sum_{x \in V_{G^{\prime}}} \varepsilon_{G^{\prime}}(x) D_{G^{\prime}}(x) \\
= & \varepsilon_{G}\left(x_{0}\right)\left(D_{G}\left(x_{0}\right)-D_{G^{\prime}}\left(x_{0}\right)\right)+\sum_{x \in L_{1} \backslash\{u\} \cup L_{2}} \varepsilon_{G}(x)\left(D_{G}(x)-D_{G^{\prime}}(x)\right) \\
& +\varepsilon_{G}(u) D_{G}(u)-\varepsilon_{G^{\prime}}(u) D_{G^{\prime}}(u)+\sum_{x \in L_{3} \cup \ldots \cup L_{d}} \varepsilon_{G}(x)\left(D_{G}(x)-D_{G^{\prime}}(x)\right) \\
> & -d+0+(d-2)\left(-1+\sum_{i=3}^{d}\left|L_{i}\right|\right)+\sum_{x \in L_{3} \cup \ldots \cup L_{d}} \varepsilon_{G}(x)  \tag{9}\\
= & (d-2)\left(\sum_{i=3}^{d}\left|L_{i}\right|-1\right)+\sum_{x \in L_{3} \cup \ldots \cup L_{d-1}} \varepsilon_{G}(x)>0 \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

where the inequality in (9) follows by $\varepsilon_{G}(u)=d-1>\varepsilon_{G^{\prime}}(u)=d-2$, whereas the inequality in (10) holds by $d \geqslant 4,\left|L_{i}\right| \geqslant 1$ for $i \in\{3,4, \ldots, d\}$ and $\varepsilon_{G}(x) \geqslant 2$ for any $x \in L_{3} \cup \cdots \cup L_{d}$. Hence, $\xi^{d}(G)>\xi^{d}\left(G^{\prime}\right)$, a contradiction. Therefore, $\left|L_{1}\right|=1$. By a similar discussion, we may also show that $\left|L_{2}\right|=\cdots=\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}-1}\right|=\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}+1}\right|=\cdots=\left|L_{d-1}\right|=1$, we omit the procedure here. As $\left|L_{0}\right|=\left|L_{1}\right|=\cdots=\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}-1}\right|=\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}+1}\right|=\cdots=\left|L_{d-1}\right|=\left|L_{d}\right|=1$, it is easy to see that $\left|L_{\frac{d}{2}}\right|=n-d$.
(ii) This is proved by an argument analogous to that used in (i), which is omitted here. Hence, $G \in \mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}$.

Now we come back to show our results.
If $d$ is even, by Facts 1 and 2(i), we know that $G$ is just the bug $B u g_{n-d+2, \frac{d}{2}, \frac{d}{2}}$, as desired. If $d$ is odd, by Facts 1 and 2(ii), the graph $G$ is in the set $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}$. In what follows, we shall show that each graph in $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}$ attains the minimum EDS by proving $\xi^{d}\left(G_{1}\right)=\xi^{d}\left(G_{2}\right)$ for any graphs $G_{1}, G_{2}$ in $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}$.

Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be graphs in $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}$, where $G_{1}=\left[\frac{d-1}{2}\right] K_{1} \oplus K_{n_{1}+1} \oplus K_{n_{2}+1} \oplus\left[\frac{d-1}{2}\right] K_{1}$ and $G_{2}=\left[\frac{d-1}{2}\right] K_{1} \oplus$ $K_{n_{3}+1} \oplus K_{1} \oplus\left[\frac{d-1}{2}\right] K_{1}$, satisfying $n_{1}>0, n_{2}>0, n_{3}>0$. It is easy to see that $n_{3}=n_{1}+n_{2}=n-d-1$. Let $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{1}\right\} \cup \cdots \cup\left\{x_{\frac{d-3}{2}}\right\} \cup L_{\frac{d-1}{2}} \cup L_{\frac{d+1}{2}} \cup\left\{x_{\frac{d+3}{2}}\right\} \cup \cdots \cup\left\{x_{d}\right\}$ be the vertex partition of $V_{G_{1}}$ as previously discussed. Then $G_{2}$ can be obtained from $G_{1}$ by the following graph transformation:

$$
G_{2}=G_{1}-\left\{u x_{\frac{d+3}{2}}: u \in L_{\frac{d+1}{2}} \backslash\left\{x_{\frac{d+1}{2}}\right\}\right\}+\left\{u x_{\frac{d-3}{2}}: u \in L_{\frac{d+1}{2}} \backslash\left\{x_{\frac{d+1}{2}}\right\}\right\} .
$$

Then $\left\{x_{0}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{1}\right\} \cup \cdots \cup\left\{x_{\frac{d-3}{2}}\right\} \cup\left(L_{\frac{d-1}{2}} \cup\left(L_{\frac{d+1}{2}} \backslash\left\{x_{\frac{d+1}{2}}\right\}\right)\right) \cup\left\{x_{\frac{d+1}{2}}\right\} \cup\left\{x_{\frac{d+3}{2}}\right\} \cup \cdots \cup\left\{x_{d}\right\}$ is the vertex partition of $V_{G_{2}}$. Compared the structure of $G_{1}$ with $G_{2}$, one has $\varepsilon_{G_{1}}(x)=\varepsilon_{G_{2}}(x)$, for each $x \in V_{G_{1}}$.

Furthermore,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& D_{G_{1}}(x)=D_{G_{2}}(x)+n_{2}, \text { for each } x \in\left\{x_{0}\right\} \cup \cdots \cup\left\{x_{\frac{d-3}{2}}\right\}, \\
& D_{G_{1}}(x)=D_{G_{2}}(x)-n_{2}, \text { for each } x \in\left\{x_{\frac{d+3}{2}}\right\} \cup \cdots \cup\left\{x_{d}\right\},
\end{aligned}
$$

which depends on the equation $n_{1}+n_{2}=n_{3}$. By direct calculation, one has $D_{G_{1}}(x)=n+\frac{d^{2}-2 d-3}{4}$, $D_{G_{2}}(x)=n+\frac{d^{2}-2 d-3}{4}$ for each $x \in L_{\frac{d-1}{2}} \cup L_{\frac{d-1}{2}}$. Thus, $D_{G_{1}}(x)=D_{G_{2}}(x)$ for each $x \in L_{\frac{d-1}{2}} \cup L_{\frac{d+1}{2}}$. By the definition of the EDS, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi^{d}\left(G_{1}\right)-\xi^{d}\left(G_{2}\right)= & \sum_{x \in L_{0} \cup \ldots \cup L_{\frac{d-3}{2}}}\left(\varepsilon_{G_{1}}(x) D_{G_{1}}(x)-\varepsilon_{G_{2}}(x) D_{G_{2}}(x)\right)+\sum_{x \in L_{\frac{d+3}{2}} \cup \ldots \cup L_{d}}\left(\varepsilon_{G_{1}}(x) D_{G_{1}}(x)\right. \\
& \left.-\varepsilon_{G_{2}}(x) D_{G_{2}}(x)\right)+\sum_{x \in L_{\frac{d-1}{2}}} \varepsilon_{G_{1}}(x) D_{G_{1}}(x)+\sum_{x \in L_{\frac{d+1}{2}}} \varepsilon_{G_{1}}(x) D_{G_{1}}(x) \\
& -\sum_{x \in L_{\frac{d-1}{2}}} \varepsilon_{G_{2}}(x) D_{G_{2}}(x)-\sum_{x \in L_{\frac{d+1}{2}}} \varepsilon_{G_{2}}(x) D_{G_{2}}(x) \\
= & \left(\sum_{x \in L_{0} \cup \ldots \cup L_{\frac{d-3}{2}}} \varepsilon_{G_{1}}(x) \cdot n_{2}+\sum_{x \in L_{\frac{d+3}{2}} \cup \cdots \cup L_{d}} \varepsilon_{G_{1}}(x) \cdot\left(-n_{2}\right)\right) \\
& +\frac{d+1}{2} \cdot\left(n+\frac{d^{2}-2 d-3}{4}\right) \cdot\left(\left(n_{1}+1\right)+\left(n_{2}+1\right)-\left(n_{3}+1\right)-1\right)=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, $\xi^{d}\left(G_{1}\right)=\xi^{d}\left(G_{2}\right)$, which means that every graph in $\mathscr{G}_{n}^{d}$ attains the minimum EDS for odd $d$, as desired.

This completes the proof.
Let $\mathscr{B}_{n}^{d}$ be the class of all connected bipartite graphs of order $n$ with diameter $d$. Now we consider the graphs in $\mathscr{B}_{n}^{d}$ having the minimum EDS for odd $d$. For each member in $\mathscr{B}_{n}^{d}$, assume that $P=v_{0} v_{1} \ldots v_{d}$ is one of its longest paths. Then for any $G=\left(V_{G}, E_{G}\right)$ in $\mathscr{B}_{n}^{d}$, there is a partition $V_{0}, V_{1}, \ldots, V_{d}$ of $V_{G}$ such that $\left|V_{0}\right|=1$ with $d\left(v_{0}, v\right)=i$ for each vertex $v \in V_{i}(i=0,1,2, \ldots, d)$. We call $V_{i}$ a block of $V_{G}$. Two blocks $V_{i}, V_{j}$ of $V_{G}$ are adjacent if $|i-j|=1$.

Lemma 4.46 ( [36]). For any graph $G \in \mathscr{B}_{n}^{d}$ with the above partition of $V_{G}, G\left[V_{i}\right]$ induces an empty graph (i.e., containing no edge) for each $i \in\{0,1, \ldots, d\}$.

Given integers $n, d$ with $3 \leqslant d \leqslant n-1$, define a path-complete bipartite graph as follows:

$$
G(n, d)=\left[\frac{d-1}{2}\right] K_{1} \oplus \bar{K}_{n_{1}} \oplus \bar{K}_{n_{2}} \oplus\left[\frac{d-1}{2}\right] K_{1}
$$

where $n_{1}=\left\lfloor\frac{n-d+1}{2}\right\rfloor$ and $n_{2}=\left\lceil\frac{n-d+1}{2}\right\rceil$.
Theorem 4.47 ( [29]). Let $G$ be the graph in $\mathscr{B}_{n}^{d}$ with the minimum EDS for odd $d \geqslant 3$. Then $G \cong$ $G(n, d)$, where $G(n, d)$ is defined as above.

### 4.8 Bounds on EDS involving the number of pendant vertices

Let $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{k}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees with $k$ leaves. Geng, Li and Zhang [15] determined the trees with the minimum and the maximum EDS among the $n$-vertex trees each of which contains $k$ leaves. Hua, Zhang and Xu [22] characterized the graph with $k$ pendant edges having the minimum EDS. Note that there is just one tree for $k=n-1$ or 2 , hence in what follows we consider $3 \leqslant k \leqslant n-2$.

Theorem 4.48 ([15]). Among $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{k}$, the balanced spider $S(\underbrace{\left\lceil\frac{n-1}{k}\right\rceil, \ldots,\left\lceil\frac{n-1}{k}\right\rceil}_{r}, \underbrace{\left\lfloor\frac{n-1}{k}\right\rfloor, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{n-1}{k}\right\rfloor}_{k-r})$ minimizes the EDS, where $n-1 \equiv r(\bmod k)$.

Theorem 4.49 ( [15]). Let $T$ be an $n$-vertex tree with $k$ leaves, then $\xi^{d}(T) \leqslant \xi^{d}\left(P_{n-k}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{k}{2}\right\rceil\right)\right)$ with equality if and only if $T \cong P_{n-k}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{k}{2}\right\rceil\right)$.

Proof. Let $T^{*}$ be the $n$-vertex tree with $k$ leaves which has the maximal EDS, then $T^{*}$ is of the form $P_{n-k}(a, b)$, where $a+b=k$. Otherwise, by Theorem 2.2 there exists another $n$-vertex tree with $k$ leaves, say $\hat{T}$, such that $\xi^{d}\left(T^{*}\right)<\xi^{d}(\hat{T})$, a contradiction. By Lemma 4.40, among $\left\{P_{n-k}(a, b): a+b=\right.$ $k, a, b \geqslant 1\}$, only $P_{n-k}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{k}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{k}{2}\right\rceil\right)$ has the largest EDS. This completes the proof.

For $1 \leqslant k \leqslant n-1(k \neq n-2)$, we let $K_{n}^{k}$ be the graph obtained by attaching $k$ pendant edges to a vertex of complete graph $K_{n-k}$. For the sake of consistency, if $k=0$, we let $K_{n}^{0}=K_{n}$.

Theorem 4.50 ( [22]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n$ vertices with $k$ cut edges. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 2 n^{2}+(4 k-3) n-2 k^{2}-6 k+1
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}^{k}$.
Theorem 4.51 ( [22]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n$ vertices with $k$ pendant edges. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 2 n^{2}+(4 k-3) n-2 k^{2}-6 k+1
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}^{k}$.

### 4.9 Bounds on EDS involving the ( $p, q$ )-bipartition

Let $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ be the set of all $n$-vertex trees, each of which has a $(p, q)$-bipartition $(p+q=n)$. Geng, Li and Zhang [15] determined the trees with the first, second and third minimum EDS in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$. Note that $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{1, n-1}$ contains just $S_{n}$, whereas $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{2, n-2}=\left\{P_{3}(a, b), a+b=n-3\right\}$.

By Lemmas 4.40 and Theorem 2.8, we have $\xi^{d}\left(P_{3}(0, n-3)\right)<\xi^{d}\left(P_{3}(1, n-4)\right)<\xi^{d}\left(P_{3}(2, n-5)\right)<$ $\xi^{d}\left(P_{3}(3, n-6)\right)<\ldots<\xi^{d}\left(P_{3}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-3}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-3}{2}\right\rceil\right)\right)$. Hence in what follows we consider $p \geqslant 3$.

Note that, in Theorem 2.4, if $T$ is in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$, it is easy to see that $T^{*}$ is also in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$. Furthermore, $\operatorname{diam}\left(T^{*}\right) \leqslant \operatorname{diam}(T)$. Applying Transformation I repeatedly yields the following theorem.

Theorem 4.52 ( [15]). The tree $T(p, q)$ is the unique tree in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ which has the minimum EDS, where $T(p, q)$ is depicted in Fig. 11.

Next, we determine the unique tree with the second minimum EDS in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$. Let $\mathscr{A}=\left\{T_{s}: 1 \leqslant\right.$ $\left.s \leqslant \frac{p-1}{2}\right\} \bigcup\left\{T_{t}^{\prime}: 1 \leqslant t \leqslant \frac{q-1}{2}\right\}$, where $T_{s}$ and $T_{t}^{\prime}$ are depicted in Fig. 11.

Theorem 4.53 ([15]). Among $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}, T_{1}$ is the unique tree with the second minimum EDS for $3 \leqslant p \leqslant q$. Proof. Choose $T \in \mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q} \backslash\{T(p, q)\}$ such that its EDS is as small as possible. Note that Transformation II strictly decreases the EDS of trees. It is easy to see that applying Transformation II once to $T$, the resultant graph is just $T(p, q)$. Together with the definition of $\mathscr{A}$ we know the tree among $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ with the second minimal EDS must be in $\mathscr{A}$.


Figure 11. Trees $T(p, q), T_{s}$ and $T_{t}^{\prime}$

By the definition of EDS, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi^{d}\left(T_{s}\right)= & 4(p-s-1)(1+2(p-s-1)+3(q-1)+4 s)+3(p-s+2(q-1)+3 s) \\
& +2(q+2(p-1))+3(q-2)(1+2(q-1)+3(p-1))+3(s+1+2(q-1) \\
& +3(p-s-1))+4 s(1+2 s+3(q-1)+4(p-s-1)) \\
= & 6 n^{2}+9 n p-7 p^{2}-22 n-4 p+16 p s-16 s^{2}-16 s+18=f(s) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By direct verification, it follows $f^{\prime}(s)=16 p-32 s-16=16(p-1-2 s) \geqslant 0$, which implies $f(s)$ is an increasing function in $s$ with $1 \leqslant s \leqslant \frac{p-1}{2}$. Hence, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}\right)<\xi^{d}\left(T_{2}\right)<\cdots<\xi^{d}\left(T_{\left\lfloor\frac{p-1}{2}\right\rfloor}\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\xi^{d}\left(T_{t}^{\prime}\right)= & 4(q-t-1)(1+2(q-t-1)+3(p-1)+4 t)+3(q-t+2(p-1)+3 t) \\
& +2(p+2(q-1))+3(p-2)(1+2(p-1)+3(q-1))+3(t+1+2(p-1) \\
& +3(q-t-1))+4 t(1+2 t+3(p-1)+4(q-t-1)) \\
= & 6 n^{2}+9 n q-7 q^{2}-22 n-4 q+16 q t-16 t^{2}-16 t+18=g(t) .
\end{aligned}
$$

By direct verification, it follows $g^{\prime}(t)=16 q-32 t-16=16(q-1-2 t) \geqslant 0$, which implies $g(t)$ is an increasing function in $t$ with $1 \leqslant t \leqslant \frac{q-1}{2}$. Hence,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}^{\prime}\right)<\xi^{d}\left(T_{2}^{\prime}\right)<\cdots<\xi^{d}\left(T_{\left\lfloor\frac{q-1}{2}\right\rfloor}^{\prime}\right) \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

In order to characterize the tree with second minimal EDS in $\mathscr{A}$, in view of (11) and (12) it suffices to compare the EDS of $T_{1}$ with that of $T_{1}^{\prime}$. On the one hand, if $p=q$ we have $T_{1} \cong T_{1}^{\prime}$, our result holds in this case. On the other hand, if $p<q$, by direct computing we have

$$
\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}\right)=6 n^{2}+9 n p-7 p^{2}-22 n+12 p-14, \quad \xi^{d}\left(T_{1}^{\prime}\right)=6 n^{2}+9 n q-7 q^{2}-22 n+12 q-14
$$

This gives that $\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}\right)-\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}^{\prime}\right)=2(n+6)(p-q)<0$, i.e., $\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}\right)<\xi^{d}\left(T_{1}^{\prime}\right)$, as desired.


Figure 12. Trees $T_{2}, T_{1}^{\prime}, \hat{T}_{s}, \tilde{T}_{t}$ and $\vec{T}_{r}$.

Finally, we determine the tree with the third minimum EDS in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$. Let $\mathscr{B}=\left\{T_{2}, T_{1}^{\prime}\right\} \bigcup\left\{\hat{T}_{s}: 1 \leqslant\right.$ $s \leqslant p-3\} \bigcup\left\{\tilde{T}_{t}: 1 \leqslant t \leqslant p-3\right\} \bigcup\left\{\vec{T}_{r}: 1 \leqslant r \leqslant q-3\right\}$, where $T_{2}, T_{1}^{\prime}, \hat{T}_{s}, \tilde{T}_{t}$ and $\vec{T}_{r}$ are depicted in Fig. 12.

Theorem 4.54 ([15]). Among $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ with $4 \leqslant p<q$.
(i) If $n>p-3+\sqrt{p^{2}+9 p-23}$, then $T_{2}$ is the unique tree with the third minimum $E D S$;
(ii) If $n<p-3+\sqrt{p^{2}+9 p-23}$, then $T_{1}^{\prime}$ is the unique tree with the third minimum EDS.

### 4.10 Bounds involving other graph invariants

Hua, Xu and Wen [21] obtained the sharp lower bound on the EDS of $n$-vertex cacti. The sharp lower bounds for EDS of connected graphs in terms of Wiener index and Harary index are established in [22]. Ilić et al., [26] established various lower and upper bounds for EDS in terms of other graph invariants including the Wiener index, the degree distance, eccentric connectivity index, chromatic number and clique number.

A cactus is a connected graph, each of whose blocks is either a cycle or an edge. It is obvious that if a cactus has no cycles, then it is just a tree, and if a cactus has exactly one cycle, then it is just a unicyclic graph. Let $C a t_{n, k}$ be the cactus obtained by introducing $k$ independent edges among pendant vertices of $S_{n}$.

Theorem 4.55 ( [21]). Let $G$ be a cactus with $n \geqslant 4$ and $k \geqslant 0$ cycles. Then $\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 4 n^{2}-9 n-4 k+5$ with equality if and only if $G \cong C a t_{n, k}$.

Theorem 4.56 ( [22]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n \geqslant 2$ vertices. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant \frac{4}{n(n-1)}(W(G))^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
Recall that the Harary index $[6,12,42]$ is defined as $H(G)=\sum_{u, v \in V_{G}} \frac{1}{d_{G}(u, v)}$. By the definition of $H(G)$, we have $W(G) \geqslant H(G)$, with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$. Combining the fact and Theorem 4.56 , the next corollary follows directly.

Corollary 4.57 ( [22]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n \geqslant 2$ vertices. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant \frac{4}{n(n-1)}(H(G))^{2}
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.
Using simple inequality $r(G) \leqslant \varepsilon_{G}(v) \leqslant d(G)$ and $\sum_{v \in V_{G}} D_{G}(v)=2 W(G)$, Illić, Yu and Feng [26] obtained the following result.

Theorem 4.58 ( [26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph with radius $r(G)$ and diameter $d(G)$. Then

$$
2 W(G) \cdot r(G) \leqslant \xi^{d}(G) \leqslant 2 W(G) \cdot d(G)
$$

with equality if and only if $G$ is a self-centered graph.
Let $K_{n}-k e$ be the graph formed by deleting $k\left(k=1,2, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor\right)$ independent edges from the complete graph $K_{n}$. It is easily seen that $\varepsilon_{G}(v) \leqslant n-d_{G}(v)$.

Theorem 4.59 ( [26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n \geqslant 3$ vertices. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \leqslant 2 n \cdot W(G)-D D(G)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}-$ ke for $k=0,1, \ldots,\left\lfloor\frac{n}{2}\right\rfloor$ or $G \cong P_{4}$.
Note that the relation $D_{G}(v) \geqslant d_{G}(v)$ and the equality holds if and only if $\varepsilon_{G}(v)=1$ and $d_{G}(v)=$ $n-1$. Hence, the next result follows.

Theorem 4.60 ( [26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph on $n \geqslant 3$ vertices. Then $\xi^{c}(G) \geqslant \xi^{d}\left(K_{n}\right)$ with equality if and only if $G \cong K_{n}$.

Let $T_{n, k}$ be the Turán graph which is a complete $k$-partite graph on $n$ vertices whose partite sets differ in size by at most one. The famous graph appears in many extremal graph theory problems [2,34,38].

Theorem 4.61 ([26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with chromatic number $\chi$. Assume that $n=\chi s+r$ with $0 \leqslant r<\chi$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \geqslant 2\left(n^{2}+(n+r-\chi) s-n\right)
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong T_{n, \chi}$.

The clique number of a graph $G$ is the size of a maximal complete subgraph of $G$ and it is denoted as $\omega(G)$. The kite $K(n, k)$ is obtained from a complete $K_{k}$ and a path $P_{n-k+1}$, by joining one of the end vertices of $P_{n-k+1}$ to one vertex of $K_{k}$ (see Fig. 13). An asymptotically sharp upper bound for the eccentric connectivity index is derived independently in [9, 32], with the extremal graph $K(n,\lfloor n / 3\rfloor)$. Furthermore, it is shown that the eccentric connectivity index grows no faster than a cubic polynomial in the number of vertices. Motivated by these facts, Yu, Feng and Illić [26] characterized the $n$-vertex graph with clique number having the maximum EDS.


Figure 13. The Kite $K(12,8)$.

Theorem 4.62 ( [26]). Let $G$ be a connected graph of order $n$ with clique number $\omega$. Then

$$
\xi^{d}(G) \leqslant \xi^{d}(K(n, \omega))
$$

with equality if and only if $G \cong K(n, \omega)$.

## 5. Conclusion

We conclude with several open problems and conjectures.
Problem 5.1. How to determine the sharp upper bound on EDS of several graphs including bipartite graphs, triangle-free graphs, planar graphs and outerplanar graphs?

Problem 5.2. How to determine the graph with maximal EDS among n-vertex graphs with a given edge-connectivity?

Problem 5.3 ( [28]). Let $G$ be a $k$-connected graph on $n$ vertices with $n \geqslant k+1$. If $k$ is odd, how to determine the sharp upper bound on the EDS of $G$ ?

Problem 5.4 ( [29]). How to determine the graph with minimum EDS among n-vertex bipartite graphs with a given even diameter?

Problem 5.5 ( [29]). How to determine the graph with minimum EDS among $n$-vertex bipartite graphs with a given radius?

Problem 5.6 ( [29]). How to determine the graph with minimum EDS among $n$-vertex bipartite graphs with a given edge-connectivity?

Problem 5.7. How to determine the tree with the minimum EDS in $\mathscr{T}_{n}^{p, q}$ ?
Problem 5.8. Let $G$ be a connected triangle-free graph on $n \geqslant 5$ vertices. If $\bar{G}$ is connected, how to determine the sharp upper bound on the Nordhaus-Gaddum type relations for the EDS of G?


Figure 14. Trees $T^{*}$ with $n=22$ and $\Delta=4$.

Conjecture 5.9 ( [31]). Among $\mathscr{T}^{n, \Delta}$, $T^{*}$ minimizes the EDS, where $T^{*}$ is a Volkmann tree. When $n=22, \Delta=4, T^{*}$ is depicted in Fig. 14.

Conjecture 5.10 ([31]). Among $\mathcal{T}_{n, \gamma}$ with $4 \leqslant \gamma \leqslant \frac{n}{3}, P_{\alpha}\left(\left\lfloor\frac{n-\alpha}{2}\right\rfloor,\left\lceil\frac{n-\alpha}{2}\right\rceil\right)$ maximizes the EDS, where $\alpha=3(\gamma-1)+1$.

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# Extremal Properties of Hexagonal Systems 

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## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 239
2 Extremal values of $r$ and $b$ over catacondensed hexagonal systems ..... 242
3 Convex hexagonal systems with maximal number of internal vertices ..... 245
4 Extremal values of $b$ over hexagonal systems ..... 252
5 Extremal values of $\boldsymbol{r}$ over hexagonal systems ..... 255
6 Extremal values of $r$ and $b$ over pericondensed hexagonal systems ..... 267
7 Hexagonal systems with equal number of vertices ..... 273
8 Hexagonal systems with equal number of edges ..... 279

## 1. Introduction

Our main concern are hexagonal systems, natural graph representations of benzenoid hydrocarbons which are of great importance in organic chemistry. For the definition of hexagonal systems and details of their theory we refer to [13]. We denote by $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ the set of hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons. The hexagons of a hexagonal system can be classified according to the number and position of edges shared with the adjacent hexagons. Figure 1 shows the 12 different types of hexagons that can occur in a hexagonal system.

When going along the perimeter of a hexagonal system, then certain features may be encountered, called [13] fissure, bay, cove, and fjord (see Figure 1). These, respectively, correspond to vertex degree sequences

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2,3,2),(2,3,3,2) \quad,(2,3,3,3,2) \quad, \quad(2,3,3,3,3,2) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The number of fissures, bays, coves, and fjords of a hexagonal system $H$ are denoted by $f=$ $f(H), B=B(H), C=C(H)$, and $F=F(H)$, respectively. The parameter

$$
r=r(H)=f+B+C+F
$$

was introduced in [20], and is called the number of inlets of $H$.


Figure 1. Types of hexagons in a hexagonal system. Some structural features on the perimeter.
Lemma 1.1. [20] Let $H$ be a hexagonal system with $n$ vertices, $h$ hexagons, $r$ inlets and $m_{i j}$ edges between vertices of degree $i$ and degree $j$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
& m_{22}=n-2 h-r+2  \tag{2}\\
& m_{23}=2 r  \tag{3}\\
& m_{33}=3 h-r-3 \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. Relation (3) follows directly from the definition of an inlet, namely an inlet corresponds to a sequence of vertices on the perimeter, of which the first and the last are 2-vertices and all other are 3 -vertices. From the fact that the number of 3 -vertices in $H$ is

$$
n_{3}=2(h-1)
$$

it follows

$$
m_{23}+2 m_{33}=3 n_{3}=6 h-6
$$

which combined with (3) results in (4). In hexagonal systems, $m_{22}+m_{23}+m_{33}$ is just the total number of edges, $m$, known to conform to the relation

$$
m=n+h-1
$$

Substituting the relations (3) and (4) into

$$
m_{22}+m_{23}+m_{33}=n+h-1
$$

one readily obtains (2).
Another quantity much studied in the theory of hexagonal systems [13] is the number of bay regions $b=b(H)$ defined as

$$
b=B+2 C+3 F
$$

It is easy to recognize that $b$ counts the number of edges on the perimeter, connecting two vertices of degree 3 . These two quantities are related as follows:

Lemma 1.2. [2] Let $H$ be a hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons, $r$ inlets, $b$ number of bay regions and $n_{i}$ internal vertices. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
r=2(h-1)-\left(b+n_{i}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. It is well-known [13] that

$$
m_{23}=4 h-4-2 b-2 n_{i} .
$$

From (3) we know that $m_{23}=2 r$ which yields (5).
The number of bay regions $b$ and the number of inlets $r$ are two parameters related in a simple manner to the structure of a hexagonal system, which play a significant role in theory of vertex-degreebased topological indices (molecular descriptors). Recall that a vertex-degree-based topological index, denoted by $T I$, is defined from a set of nonnegative real numbers $\left\{\varphi_{i j}\right\}$, where $1 \leq i \leq j \leq n-1$, as

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(G)=\sum_{1 \leq i \leq j \leq n-1} m_{i j} \varphi_{i j} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $G$ is a graph (i.e. undirected graph) with $n$ vertices and $m_{i j}=m_{i j}(G)$ the number of $i j$-edges, i.e. the number of edges in $G$ with end vertices of degree $i$ and $j$ ( [10], [14], [15], [17], [24]). When $\varphi_{i j}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{i j}}$ we obtain the Randić index ([28]), one of the most widely used in applications to physical and chemical properties ( [7], [18], [19], [29]). Due to the success of the Randić index many other topological indices appeared in the mathematical-chemistry literature, which are particular cases of the formula given in (6). For instance, the second Zagreb index is obtained by setting $\varphi_{i j}=i j$ [11], in the atom-bond connectivity index $\varphi_{i j}=\sqrt{\frac{i+j-2}{i j}}$ [8], in the geometric-arithmetic index $\varphi_{i j}=\frac{2 \sqrt{i j}}{i+j}$ [30], in the sum-connectivity index $\varphi_{i j}=\frac{1}{\sqrt{i+j}}$ [32], in the augmented Zagreb index $\varphi_{i j}=\frac{(i j)^{3}}{(i+j-2)^{3}}$ [9] and in the harmonic index $\varphi_{i j}=\frac{2}{i+j}$ [31], just to mention the most important ones.

Since any hexagonal system has only vertices of degree 2 and 3 , the general expression for its vertex-degree-based topological index reads

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(H)=m_{22} \varphi_{22}+m_{23} \varphi_{23}+m_{33} \varphi_{33} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the relations (2), (3),(4) and the well-known relation [13]

$$
n=4 h+2-n_{i}
$$

we deduce from (7) that for every $S, U \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(S)-T I(U)=q[r(S)-r(U)]+\varphi_{22}\left[n_{i}(U)-n_{i}(S)\right] \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
q=2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (5) we can also express the variation of $T I$ in terms of the number of bay regions

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(S)-T I(U)=q[b(U)-b(S)]+\left(q+\varphi_{22}\right)\left[n_{i}(U)-n_{i}(S)\right] \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

It becomes clear from the expressions (8) and (10) that the extremal values of $T I$ depend on the extremal values of $r, b$ and $n_{i}$.

Our main interest in this chapter is to find extremal values of the parameters $r$ and $b$ over significant classes of hexagonal systems, such as catacondensed hexagonal systems, pericondensed hexagonal systems, or convex hexagonal systems, and then use relations (8) and (10) to deduce extremal values of a vertex-degree-based topological index $T I$ over such classes.

## 2. Extremal values of $r$ and $b$ over catacondensed hexagonal systems

Recall that $W$ is a catacondensed hexagonal system if $n_{i}(W)=0$, or equivalently, if $W$ only has $A_{2}, A_{3}, L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ hexagons. We denote by $a_{2}(W), a_{3}(W), l_{1}(W)$ and $l_{2}(W)$ the number of $A_{2}, A_{3}, L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ hexagons the hexagonal system $W$ has, respectively. If it's clear from the context we just write $a_{2}, a_{3}, l_{1}$ and $l_{2}$. We will denote by $\mathcal{C H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ the set of catacondensed hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.

Lemma 2.1. [26] Let $W \in \mathcal{C H S}{ }_{h}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& m_{22}=a_{2}+3 a_{3}+6 \\
& m_{23}=4(h-1)-2 a_{2}-6 a_{3} \\
& m_{33}=h-1+3 a_{3}+a_{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. The following relations are well-known [12]

$$
\begin{align*}
& m_{22}=a_{2}+3 a_{3}+6 \\
& m_{23}=4 l_{1}+4 l_{2}+2 a_{2}-2 a_{3}-4  \tag{11}\\
& m_{33}=l_{1}+l_{2}+2 a_{2}+4 a_{3}-1
\end{align*}
$$

Since

$$
\begin{gather*}
l_{1}=a_{3}+2 \\
h=l_{1}+l_{2}+a_{2}+a_{3} \tag{12}
\end{gather*}
$$

we deduce

$$
\begin{aligned}
l_{2} & =h-l_{1}-a_{2}-a_{3} \\
& =h-\left(a_{3}+2\right)-a_{2}-a_{3} \\
& =h-2 a_{3}-a_{2}-2
\end{aligned}
$$

Now substituting the expressions

$$
\begin{aligned}
& l_{1}=a_{3}+2 \\
& l_{2}=h-2 a_{3}-a_{2}-2
\end{aligned}
$$

in (11) gives the result.



Figure 2. Catacondensed hexagonal system $E_{h}$ when $h$ is even (on the left) and when $h$ is odd (on the right).

Lemma 2.2. [26] Let $h \geq 3$ and $W \in \mathcal{C H S}_{h}$. Then

$$
0 \leq a_{3}(W) \leq\left\lfloor\frac{1}{2}(h-2)\right\rfloor
$$

Moreover, equality on the left is attained in hexagonal chains and the equality on the right is attained in $E_{h}$ (See Figure 2).

Proof. From the relations given in (12) we deduce

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{3}=\frac{1}{2}\left(h-\left(a_{2}+l_{2}+2\right)\right) \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $h$ is even then it follows from (13)

$$
a_{3} \leq \frac{1}{2}(h-2)
$$

since $a_{2}+l_{2} \geq 0$. If $h$ is odd then again by (13) $a_{2}+l_{2} \geq 1$, since $a_{2}+l_{2}=0$ implies that $a_{3}$ is not an integer, a contradiction. Hence

$$
a_{3} \leq \frac{1}{2}(h-3)
$$

The equality on the left is clear for hexagonal chains. On the other hand, note that $a_{2}\left(E_{h}\right)=0=$ $l_{2}\left(E_{h}\right)$ if $h$ is even, $a_{2}\left(E_{h}\right)=1$ and $l_{2}\left(E_{h}\right)=0$ if $h$ is odd. It follows from (13) that

$$
a_{3}\left(E_{h}\right)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2}(h-2) & \text { if } h \text { is even } \\ \frac{1}{2}(h-3) & \text { if } h \text { is odd }\end{cases}
$$

Consider the subset $\mathcal{C H} \mathcal{S}_{h, p}$ of $\mathcal{C H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ defined by

$$
\mathcal{C H}_{h, p}=\left\{W \in \mathcal{C H}_{h}: a_{3}(W)=p\right\}
$$

Lemma 2.3. [26] Let $h \geq 3$ and $0 \leq p \leq\left\lfloor\frac{1}{2}(h-2)\right\rfloor$. If $W \in \mathcal{C H S}_{h, p}$ then

$$
0 \leq a_{2}(W) \leq h-2(p+1)
$$

Proof. From relations (12) and the fact that $l_{2} \geq 0$ we deduce

$$
a_{2}=h-2 p-l_{2}-2 \leq h-2(p+1) .
$$

Now we can find the minimal value of $r$ over $\mathcal{C H}_{h}$.
Theorem 2.4. [21] Let $h \geq 3$ and $W \in \mathcal{C H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Then

$$
\left\lceil\frac{h}{2}+1\right\rceil \leq r(W) \leq 2(h-1)
$$

Proof. For the upper bound we use (5) and the fact that $n_{i}(W)=0$ to deduce

$$
r(W)=2(h-1)-b(W) \leq 2(h-1)
$$

since $b \geq 0$. For the lower bound by Lemmas 2.1, 2.3 and 2.2:

$$
\begin{aligned}
m_{23}(W) & =4(h-1)-2 a_{2}-6 a_{3} \\
& \geq 4(h-1)-2\left(h-2\left(a_{3}+1\right)\right)-6 a_{3} \\
& =2 h-2 a_{3} \geq 2 h-2\left(\left\lfloor\frac{1}{2}(h-2)\right\rfloor\right) \\
& =2\left\lceil\frac{h}{2}+1\right\rceil .
\end{aligned}
$$

It follows from (3) that $r(W) \geq\left\lceil\frac{h}{2}+1\right\rceil$.
Note that $r\left(E_{h}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{h}{2}+1\right\rceil$ and $r\left(L_{h}\right)=2(h-1)$ (see Figure 3). Hence Theorem 2.4 states that $E_{h}$ and $L_{h}$ have the minimal and maximal number of inlets, respectively, among all catacondensed hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.


Figure 3. Linear hexagonal system $L_{h}$.

The extremal values of $b$ over $\mathcal{C H S}_{h}$ can be easily deduced from Theorem 2.4.

Theorem 2.5. Let $h \geq 3$ and $W \in \mathcal{C H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Then

$$
0 \leq b(W) \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

Proof. By (5) and the fact that $n_{i}(W)=0$ we deduce

$$
b(W)=2(h-1)-r(W)
$$

It follows from Theorem 2.4 that

$$
0 \leq b(W) \leq 2(h-1)-\left\lceil\frac{h}{2}+1\right\rceil=\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

Since $b\left(E_{h}\right)=\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil$ and $b\left(L_{h}\right)=0$, Theorem 2.5 states that $E_{h}$ and $L_{h}$ have maximal and minimal number of regions, respectively, among all catacondensed hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.

From Theorems 2.4 or 2.5 we can easily deduce the extremal values of a vertex-degree-based topological index $T I$ over $\mathcal{C H}_{h}$. Recall that $q$ is given by formula (9).

Theorem 2.6. Let TI be a vertex-degree topological index of the form (7). Then

1. If $q=0$ then $T I$ is constant over $\mathcal{C H S}_{h}$;
2. If $q>0$ then $L_{h}\left(\right.$ resp. $E_{h}$ ) attains the maximal (resp. minimal) value of $T$ I over $\mathcal{C H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$;
3. If $q<0$ then $E_{h}$ (resp. $L_{h}$ ) attains the maximal (resp. minimal) value of TI over $\mathcal{C H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Proof. From (8)

$$
T I(S)-T I(U)=q[r(S)-r(U)]
$$

for all $S, U \in \mathcal{C H}_{h}$. The result follows from Theorem 2.4.
The results of Theorem 2.6 were obtained in [23] using linearizing and unbranching operations in catacondensed hexagonal systems.

## 3. Convex hexagonal systems with maximal number of internal vertices

We already know by Harary-Harborth's paper [16] that the spiral hexagonal system $S_{h}$ (see Figure 4) has the maximal value of internal vertices, among all hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons. More precisely,

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i}(H) \leq 2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil=n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right) \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $H \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.


Figure 4. Spiral hexagonal system $S_{h}$

Looking at the expression (10), the following question arises naturally: are there convex hexagonal systems $W \in \mathcal{H S}_{h}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i}(W)=2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil ? \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

When this occurs then we have the following result.
Theorem 3.1. [25] Let $W$ be a convex hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons which satisfies (15). If $-\varphi_{22} \leq q \leq 0$ then $W$ has minimal TI-value among all hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.

Proof. It follows from (10) that for every $S \in \mathcal{H S}_{h}$

$$
T I(S)-T I(W)=q[-b(S)]+\left[\varphi_{22}+q\right]\left[(2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil)-n_{i}(S)\right]
$$

In particular if $-\varphi_{22} \leq q \leq 0$, then $T I(S)-T I(W) \geq 0$ by (15) and (14).
Remark 3.2. As we can see in Table 1, all topological indices listed in the introduction except the atom-bond-connectivity index satisfy the condition $-\varphi_{22} \leq q \leq 0$. So for all these indices, the minimal TI-value is attained in $W$.

|  | $i j$ | $\frac{1}{\sqrt{i j}}$ | $\frac{2 \sqrt{i j}}{i+j}$ | $\frac{2}{i+j}$ | $\frac{1}{\sqrt{i+j}}$ | $\frac{(i j)^{3}}{(i+j-2)^{3}}$ | $\sqrt{\frac{i+j-2}{i j}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $q$ | -1 | -.0168 | -.0404 | -.0333 | -.0138 | -3.3906 | .0404 |
|  | 4 | .5 | 1 | .5 | .5 | 8 | 0.70 |

Table 1. Values of $q$ and $\varphi_{22}$ for well-known VDB topological indices.
Note that in general the spiral hexagonal system $S_{h}$ satisfies

$$
b\left(S_{h}\right)=0 \quad \text { or } \quad b\left(S_{h}\right)=1 .
$$

When $h=3 k^{2}-3 k+1$, where $k$ is a positive integer, then $W=S_{h}$ is convex and satisfies (15). Are there other values of $h$ possible? We will now determine necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence of convex hexagonal systems with maximal number of internal vertices. A convex hexagonal system can be expressed as

$$
H\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)
$$

for positive integers $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}$ (see Figure 5).


Figure 5. The general form of a convex hexagonal system.

However, these parameters are not all mutually independent. From the fact that the sides 1 and 4 are parallel, it follows that condition (17) must be obeyed. In a fully analogous manner we arrive also at (16) and (18):

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{1}+a_{2}=a_{4}+a_{5}  \tag{16}\\
& a_{2}+a_{3}=a_{5}+a_{6}  \tag{17}\\
& a_{3}+a_{4}=a_{6}+a_{1} \tag{18}
\end{align*}
$$

Of these relations only two are linearly independent, e.g., (16) and (17), and then the values of $a_{5}$ and $a_{6}$ can be expressed in terms of $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}$ :

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{5}=a_{1}+a_{2}-a_{4}  \tag{19}\\
& a_{6}=a_{3}+a_{4}-a_{1} \tag{20}
\end{align*}
$$

We thus arrive at the following:

Theorem 3.3. [2] Let $H=H\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)$ be a convex hexagonal system (see Figure 5). Four parameters among $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}$ fully determine $H$. Of these four parameters only two can correspond to opposite sides of $H$. In particular, the structure of $H$ is fully determined by $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}$.

From Figure 5 one may get the impression that the shape of any convex hexagonal system has six sides. Some noteworthy special cases need to be pointed out. These are depicted in Figure 6.


Figure 6. Special cases of convex hexagonal systems $H=H\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)$, when some of the parameters $a_{i}$ are equal to unity. Pentagon-shaped $P\left(a_{1}=1, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{6}>1\right)$, quadrangle-shaped $Q_{1}\left(a_{2}=a_{5}=1, a_{1}=a_{4}, a_{3}=a_{6}\right)$ and $Q_{2}\left(a_{2}=a_{5}=1, a_{2}=a_{6}\right)$, triangle-shaped $T\left(a_{1}=a_{3}=a_{5}=1, a_{2}=a_{4}=a_{6}\right)$, and linear $L\left(a_{2}=a_{3}=a_{5}=\right.$ $a_{6}=1, a_{1}=a_{4}$ )

In view of Theorem 3.3 we may ask how the basic structural parameters of a convex hexagonal system are determined by the parameters $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}$. A partial answer to this question is given in Theorem 3.4.

Theorem 3.4. [2] Let $H=H\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)$ be a convex hexagonal system (see Figure 5). Let $r(H), h(H)$, and $n_{i}(H)$ be the number of inlets, hexagons, and internal vertices of $H$. Then

$$
\begin{align*}
r(H)= & a_{1}+2 a_{2}+2 a_{3}+a_{4}-6  \tag{21}\\
h(H)= & a_{1} a_{3}+a_{1} a_{4}+a_{2} a_{3}+a_{2} a_{4}-a_{2}-a_{3} \\
& -\frac{1}{2} a_{1}\left(a_{1}+1\right)-\frac{1}{2} a_{4}\left(a_{4}+1\right)+1  \tag{22}\\
n_{i}(H)= & 2\left(a_{1} a_{3}+a_{1} a_{4}+a_{2} a_{3}+a_{2} a_{4}\right) \\
& -a_{1}\left(a_{1}+2\right)-a_{4}\left(a_{4}+2\right)-4\left(a_{2}+a_{3}\right)+6 . \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. Eq. (21) follows from the fact that the $i$-th side of $H$ has $a_{i}-1$ inlets. Therefore

$$
r(H)=a_{1}+a_{2}+a_{3}+a_{4}+a_{5}+a_{6}-6
$$

Eq. (21) is then obtained by taking into the relations (19) and (20).
Eq. (22) is deduced by counting the hexagons in the auxiliary hexagonal system depicted in Figure 7 and subtracting the number of shaded hexagons. By taking into account that a triangle-shaped hexagonal system ( $T$ in Figure 6) of size $\frac{k(k-1)}{2}$ hexagons, and using the relations (19) and (20), after a lengthy calculation we arrive at Eq. (22).

Eq. (23) is deduced in an analogous manner as Eq. (22), bearing in mind that a triangle-shaped hexagonal of size $k$ has $(k-1)^{2}$ internal vertices.


Figure 7. An auxiliary triangle-shaped hexagonal system used in the proof of Theorem 3.4.

Now we give a characterization of convex hexagonal systems with maximal number of internal vertices.

Theorem 3.5. [25] Let $h$ be a positive integer. The following conditions are equivalent:

1. There exists a hexagonal system $W$ with $h$ hexagons satisfying (15);
2. There exist a set of positive integers $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}$ which are solution of the system of equations

$$
\left.\begin{array}{rl}
h & =a_{1} a_{3}+a_{1} a_{4}+a_{2} a_{3}+a_{2} a_{4}-a_{2}-a_{3}  \tag{24}\\
& -\frac{1}{2} a_{1}\left(a_{1}+1\right)-\frac{1}{2} a_{4}\left(a_{4}+1\right)+1 \\
\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil & =a_{1}+2 a_{2}+2 a_{3}+a_{4}-3
\end{array}\right\}
$$

Proof. 1. $\Rightarrow 2$. Assume that $W$ is a convex hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons, satisfying (15). Let $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}$ be positive integers such that $W=H\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)$.

We know from Theorem 3.4 that

$$
\begin{align*}
h & =a_{1} a_{3}+a_{1} a_{4}+a_{2} a_{3}+a_{2} a_{4}-a_{2}-a_{3} \\
& -\frac{1}{2} a_{1}\left(a_{1}+1\right)-\frac{1}{2} a_{4}\left(a_{4}+1\right)+1 \\
n_{i}(W) & =2\left(a_{1} a_{3}+a_{1} a_{4}+a_{2} a_{3}+a_{2} a_{4}\right)-a_{1}\left(a_{1}+2\right)  \tag{25}\\
& -a_{4}\left(a_{4}+2\right)-4\left(a_{2}+a_{3}\right)+6 .
\end{align*}
$$

Substituting these expressions of $h$ and $n_{i}(W)$ back into (15) yields

$$
\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil=a_{1}+2 a_{2}+2 a_{3}+a_{4}-3
$$

$2 . \Rightarrow 1$. Conversely, if the set of positive integers $a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}$ is a solution of the system of equations (24), consider the convex hexagonal system $Z=H\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)$, where $a_{5}$ and $a_{6}$ are given by (19) and (20). Again by Theorem 3.4, we have expressions for $h$ and $n_{i}(Z)$ as in (25). Consequently,

$$
2 h+1-n_{i}(Z)=a_{1}+2 a_{2}+2 a_{3}+a_{4}-3=\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil .
$$

Solving for $n_{i}(Z)$ in this relation, we deduce that

$$
n_{i}(Z)=2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil \text {. }
$$

We now show that not for every positive integer $h$ there is a solution for the system of equations (24). This is a consequence of our next result.

Theorem 3.6. [25] Let $h$ be a positive integer. If the set of positive integers $\left\{a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right\}$ is a solution of the system of equations (24), then there exists a solution to the Diophantine equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
21 x^{2}+3 y^{2}+z^{2}=28 H \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $H=\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil^{2}-(12 h-3)$.
Proof. Substituting

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil-a_{3}-\frac{1}{2} a_{4}-\frac{1}{2} a_{1}+\frac{3}{2} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the first equation of (24) we deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
h & =\frac{3}{2} a_{3}+\frac{3}{2} a_{4}-\frac{1}{2}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil-\frac{1}{2} a_{1}^{2}-a_{3}^{2}-a_{4}^{2}+\frac{1}{2} a_{1} a_{3}+\frac{1}{2} a_{1} a_{4}-\frac{3}{2} a_{3} a_{4} \\
& +\frac{1}{2} a_{3}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+\frac{1}{2} a_{4}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil-\frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

and solving for $a_{4}$ in this equation it follows that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{4}=\frac{1}{4} a_{1}-\frac{3}{4} a_{3}+\frac{1}{4}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+\frac{3}{4} \pm \frac{1}{4} \sqrt{P\left(a_{1}, a_{3}\right)} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(a_{1}, a_{3}\right)= & -7 a_{1}^{2}+2 a_{1} a_{3}+2 a_{1}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+6 a_{1}-7 a_{3}^{2}+2 a_{3}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+ \\
& 6 a_{3}+\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil^{2}-2\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil-16 h+1
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\sqrt{P\left(a_{1}, a_{3}\right)} \in \mathbb{Z}$, we may assume that $P\left(a_{1}, a_{3}\right)=x^{2}$ for some $x \in \mathbb{N}$. Solving for $a_{1}$ we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{1}=\frac{1}{7} a_{3}+\frac{1}{7}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+\frac{3}{7} \pm \frac{1}{7} \sqrt{Q\left(a_{3}\right)} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
Q\left(a_{3}\right) & =-7 x^{2}-48 a_{3}^{2}+16 a_{3}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+48 a_{3}+8\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil^{2} \\
& -8\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil-112 h+16
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $\sqrt{Q\left(a_{3}\right)} \in \mathbb{Z}$, there exists an integer $y \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $Q\left(a_{3}\right)=y^{2}$. Now we solve for $a_{3}$ to obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{3}=\frac{1}{6}\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+\frac{1}{2} \pm \frac{1}{12} \sqrt{R} \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
R=-21 x^{2}-3 y^{2}+28\left(\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil^{2}-(12 h-3)\right) \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly $\sqrt{R} \in \mathbb{Z}$ and so $R=z^{2}$ for $z \in \mathbb{N}$. Hence

$$
z^{2}=-21 x^{2}-3 y^{2}+28\left(\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil^{2}-(12 h-3)\right)
$$

and we are done.
Theorem 3.6 gives a method to find values of $h$ for which there are no convex hexagonal systems which satisfy (15).

Example 3.7. Let $h$ be a positive integer and $H$ as in the hypothesis of Theorem 3.6. If $28 H-21 x^{2}-3 y^{2}$ is not the square of an integer for every $(x, y) \in \mathbb{N} \times \mathbb{N}$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
0 \leq x \leq \sqrt{\frac{28 H}{21}} \quad \text { and } \quad 0 \leq y \leq \sqrt{\frac{28 H-21 x^{2}}{3}} \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

then there are no convex hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons satisfying (15). Using a computer is easy to check that the first values of $h$ are the following:

| 121 | 163 | 211 | 235 | 265 | 292 | 325 | 355 | 391 | 424 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 463 | 499 | 541 | 580 | 625 | 667 | 706 | 715 | 760 | 802 |
| 811 | 859 | 904 | 913 | 955 | 964 | 1012 | 1021 | 1066 | 1075 |
| 1126 | 1135 | 1183 | 1192 | 1246 | 1255 | 1306 | 1315 | 1372 | 1381 |

On the other hand, for those values of $h$ where the Diophantine equation (26) has a solution, we were able to find convex hexagonal systems with maximal number of vertices, using the proof of Theorem 3.6 as follows: starting from a solution $x, y, z$ of (26), we compute $R, a_{3}, a_{1}, a_{4}$ and $a_{2}$, in this order, from relations (31), (30), (29), (28), and (27), respectively. Then $a_{5}$ and $a_{6}$ are computed using equations (19) and (20). It turns out that $W=H\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}, a_{5}, a_{6}\right)$ is a convex hexagonal system satisfying (15). For instance,

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
h=120 & h=5306 & h=10000 \\
H(7,6,8,6,7,7) & H(39,43,42,47,35,50) & H(63,60,54,59,64,50)
\end{array}
$$

Now we return to the study of vertex-degree-based topological indices of hexagonal systems. If the system of equations (24) has a solution for a positive integer $h$, then there exists a convex hexagonal system $W$ such that (15) holds, which implies by Theorem 3.1 that $W$ has a minimal $T I$-value when $-\varphi_{22} \leq q \leq 0$. So a question arises naturally: if (24) has no solution for certain $h$, which is the minimal $T I$-value in the set of all hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons?

Theorem 3.8. [25] Let $h$ be a positive integer and assume that the system of equations (24) has no solution. If $\frac{-\varphi_{22}}{2} \leq q \leq 0$, then the spiral hexagonal system $S_{h}$ has minimal TI-value over the set of all hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.

Proof. Since (24) has no solution, $b\left(S_{h}\right)=1$. Let $S$ be a hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons. From (10)

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(S)-T I\left(S_{h}\right)=q[1-b(S)]+\left[\varphi_{22}+q\right]\left[n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)-n_{i}(S)\right] . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

We consider two cases. If $b(S)=0$, then $n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)-n_{i}(S) \geq 1$ since (24) has no solution. Consequently from (34) and the fact that $\frac{-\varphi_{22}}{2} \leq q \leq 0$ we deduce

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I(S)-T I\left(S_{h}\right) & =q+\left[\varphi_{22}+q\right]\left[n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)-n_{i}(S)\right] \\
& \geq q+\left[\varphi_{22}+q\right]=2 q+\varphi_{22} \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

Otherwise $b(S) \geq 1$ which implies $1-b(S) \leq 0$. Since $n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)-n_{i}(S) \geq 0$ by (14) then again by (34) and $\frac{-\varphi_{22}}{2} \leq q \leq 0$ it follows that

$$
T I(S)-T I\left(S_{h}\right)=q[1-b(S)]+\left[\varphi_{22}+q\right]\left[n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)-n_{i}(S)\right] \geq 0 .
$$

Thus $S_{h}$ has minimal $T I$-value among all hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.
Example 3.9. For every value of $h$ given in Example 3.7 (33), the spiral hexagonal system $S_{h}$ has minimal TI-value over $\mathcal{H S}_{h}$.

Remark 3.10. We can easily see that all topological indices listed in the introduction except the atom-bond-connectivity index satisfy the condition $\frac{-\varphi_{22}}{2} \leq q \leq 0$ (see Table 1).

## 4. Extremal values of $\boldsymbol{b}$ over hexagonal systems

For every positive integer $h$ we can easily construct convex hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons (for instance, the linear hexagonal chain $L_{h}$ ). These have obviously minimal number of bay regions in $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. So we now consider the problem of maximal number of bay regions in $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Recall that every hexagonal system with $h \geq 2$ hexagons is obtained from a hexagonal system with $h-1$ hexagons by adding a hexagon of type $L_{1}$ (one-contact addition), or $P_{2}$ (two-contact addition), or $L_{3}$ (three-contact addition), or $P_{4}$ (four-contact addition) or $L_{5}$ (five-contact-addition) (see [13]). In particular, every hexagonal system has one of the mentioned hexagons: $L_{1}, P_{2}, L_{3}, P_{4}$ and $L_{5}$. The proof of our next result is based on this observation.

Another well-known relation [13] we will use frequently from now on is

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{22}(H)=b(H)+6 . \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 4.1. [4] [6] Let $H \in \mathcal{H S}_{h}$ with $h \geq 2$. Then

$$
b(H) \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

Proof. The proof is by induction on $h$. It is easy to check the result for $h=2,3,4$. Let $h \geq 5$ and assume that the result is true for any hexagonal system with less than $h$ hexagons. Let $H$ be a hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons. We consider several cases:

1. $H$ contains a $L_{3}, P_{4}$ or $L_{5}$ hexagon, or a $P_{2}$ hexagon of the form depicted in Figure 8. In this case we will show that there exists a (sub)hexagonal system $H_{1}$ with $h-1$ hexagons such that $b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+1$. If this is so then by induction we easily obtain

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+1 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2}(h-1)-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+1 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

Note that in each case, splitting $H$ into the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system $H_{1}$ of $h-1$ hexagons and the corresponding hexagon $L_{3}, P_{4}, L_{5}$ or $P_{2}$, we obtain at least five new 2-2-edges. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+6-5=m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+1,
$$

and from relation (35) we deduce

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+1 .
$$



Figure 8. Hexagonal systems used in the proof of Theorem 4.1, case 1.
2. $H$ contains a $P_{2}$ hexagon of the form depicted in Figure 9. In this case we will show that there exist (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ of $H$, with $h_{1} \geq 2$ and $h_{2} \geq 2$ hexagons respectively, such that $h=h_{1}+h_{2}$ and $b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3$. Then by induction

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{1}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{2}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+3 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

Splitting $H$ into the two hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$, where $H_{1}$ is the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system, we obtain at least three new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-3,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 .
$$






Figure 9. Hexagonal systems used in the proof of Theorem 4.1, case 2.
3. $H$ contains a $L_{1}$ hexagon and the hexagon adjacent to it is not $A_{3}$. In this case we show that there exist two (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ of $H$, with $h_{1} \geq 2$ and $h_{2} \geq 2$ hexagons respectively, such that $h=h_{1}+h_{2}$ and $b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3$ and the result follows as in part 2 of this theorem.

Let $X$ be the hexagon adjacent to the $L_{1}$ hexagon in $H$. Then $X$ must be $L_{2}, A_{2}, P_{3}$ or $L_{4}$ (see Figure 10). In each case, we split $H$ into the two hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$, where $H_{1}$ is the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system, obtaining at least three new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-3,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 .
$$






Figure 10. Hexagonal systems used in the proof of Theorem 4.1, case 3.
4. $H$ contains a $A_{3}$ hexagon and $X$ is one of the hexagons next to it which is not $A_{3}$ nor $L_{1}$. Then we will show that there exist (sub)systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ of $H$, with $h_{1} \geq 2$ and $h_{2} \geq 2$ hexagons respectively, such that $h=h_{1}+h_{2}$ and $b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3$ The result would follow as in part 2 of this theorem.

Clearly $X$ must be a $L_{2}, L_{4}, A_{2}$ or $P_{3}$ hexagon (see Figure 11). In each case, we split system $H$ into the two (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$, where $H_{1}$ is the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system, obtaining at least three new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-3,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 .
$$






Figure 11. Hexagonal systems used in the proof of Theorem 4.1, case 4.
5. Finally, all hexagons in $H$ are $L_{1}$ or $A_{3}$. Then $H$ is a catacondensed hexagonal system and the result follows by Theorem 2.5.

## 5. Extremal values of $r$ over hexagonal systems

We first find the hexagonal system with maximal number of inlets.
Lemma 5.1. [2] Let H be a hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons and $r$ inlets, then $r \leq 2(h-1)$.
Proof. By (5)

$$
r=2(h-1)-\left(b+n_{i}\right) \leq 2(h-1)
$$

since $b+n_{i} \geq 0$.
Note that $r\left(L_{h}\right)=2(h-1)$, where $L_{h}$ is the linear hexagonal chain with $h$ hexagons (see Figure 3). Hence Lemma 5.1 states that the linear hexagonal chain has the maximal number of inlets among all hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.

Now we can determine extremal values of a vertex-degree-based topological index $T I$ over $\mathcal{H S}_{h}$.
Theorem 5.2. Let TI be a vertex-degree topological index of the form (7) and $q$ as in formula (9). Then

1. If $q=0$ then the catacondensed hexagonal systems (resp. spiral hexagonal systems) have maximal (resp. minimal) TI-value over $\mathcal{H S}_{h}$;
2. If $q>0$ then the linear hexagonal chain has maximal TI-value over $\mathcal{H S}_{h}$;
3. If $q \leq-\varphi_{22}$ then the linear hexagonal chain has minimal TI-value over $\mathcal{H S}_{h}$.

Proof. Let $H$ be a hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons.

1. Assume that $q=0$ and let $S_{h}$ be the spiral hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons. Then by (8) and (14)

$$
T I\left(S_{h}\right)-T I(H)=\varphi_{22}\left[n_{i}(H)-n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)\right] \leq 0 .
$$

Consequently $S_{h}$ has minimal $T I$-value. If $V$ is a catacondensed hexagonal system then $n_{i}(V)=0$ which implies

$$
T I(V)-T I(H)=\varphi_{22}\left[n_{i}(H)\right] \geq 0
$$

and so $V$ has maximal $T I$-value.
2. Suppose that $q>0$. We know from Lemma 5.1 that $r(H) \leq r\left(L_{h}\right)=2(h-1)$. Since $n_{i}\left(L_{h}\right)=0$ and $n_{i}(H) \geq 0$ it follows from (10) that

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I\left(L_{h}\right)-T I(H) & =q\left[b(H)-b\left(L_{h}\right)\right]+\left(q+\varphi_{22}\right)\left[n_{i}(H)-n_{i}\left(L_{h}\right)\right] \\
& =q[b(H)]+\left(q+\varphi_{22}\right)\left[n_{i}(H)\right] \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $L_{h}$ has maximal $T I$-value.
3. Suppose that $q \leq-\varphi_{22}$. From (10) we deduce

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I\left(L_{h}\right)-T I(H) & =q\left[b(H)-b\left(L_{h}\right)\right]+\left(q+\varphi_{22}\right)\left[n_{i}(H)-n_{i}\left(L_{h}\right)\right] \\
& =q[b(H)]+\left(q+\varphi_{22}\right)\left[n_{i}(H)\right] \leq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $L_{h}$ has minimal $T I$ value.

Next we determine the minimal value of $r$ over $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. For each $H \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$, consider the set $\mathcal{A}(H)$ of all hexagonal systems with $h+1$ hexagons that contains $H$ :

$$
\mathcal{A}(H)=\left\{H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h+1}: H \subset H^{\prime}\right\} .
$$

Definition 5.3. Let $H \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. We say that $H$ is an inlet-increasing hexagonal system if $r(H)<r\left(H^{\prime}\right)$ for every $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$.

The hexagonal system $H_{1}$ in Figure 12 is inlet-increasing since $\mathcal{A}\left(H_{1}\right)=\left\{H_{1}^{\prime}, H_{2}^{\prime \prime}\right\}, r\left(H_{1}\right)=3$ and $r\left(H_{1}^{\prime}\right)=r\left(H_{1}^{\prime \prime}\right)=4$. On the other hand, the hexagonal system $H_{2}$ in the same figure is not inletincreasing since $H_{2}^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}\left(H_{2}\right)$ and $r\left(H_{2}\right)>r\left(H_{2}^{\prime}\right)$.

$H_{1}$

$H_{1}^{\prime}$

$H_{1}^{\prime \prime}$

$\mathrm{H}_{2}$

$H_{2}^{\prime}$

Figure 12. Inlet-increasing and not inlet-increasing hexagonal systems.

Let $a(H)$ be the number of adjacent inlets of $H$ (i.e. pair of inlets that have a common vertex of degree 2) introduced in [22]. Next we describe the inlets of an inlet-increasing hexagonal system.

Proposition 5.4. [5] Let $H$ be an inlet-increasing hexagonal system. Then $H$ has no fjords and $a(H)=$ 0 .

Proof. Let $H$ be an inlet-increasing hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons and $r$ inlets.

1. Suppose $H$ has a fjord formed by the perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, x_{6}, b$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{a}, 2,3,3,3,3,2, d_{b}\right)$ where $d_{a}$ and $d_{b}$ are the degrees of the vertices $a$ and $b$ respectively. Adding the edge $x_{1} x_{6}$ we obtain a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ with $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r$ if $d_{a}=d_{b}=2$, or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-1$ if $d_{a} \neq d_{b}$ or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-2$ if $d_{a}=d_{b}=3$ (see Figure 13). Since $H$ is inlet-increasing we get a contradiction.


Figure 13. Figure used in the proof of Proposition 5.4 part 1.
2. Suppose $a(H)>0$. Since $H$ has no fjords, we have to consider the following cases:

Case 1: $H$ has two adjacent fissures with a common vertex $u$. Then $H$ has a perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, u, y_{1}, y_{2}$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{a}, 2,3,2,3,2\right)$. Adding a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}$ and $x_{2} u$ we obtain a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ with $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r$ if $d_{a}=2$ or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-1$ if $d_{a}=3$ (see Figure 14). This contradicts the fact that $H$ is inlet-increasing.


Figure 14. Figure used in the proof of Proposition 5.4 part 2, Case 1.

Case 2: A fissure and a bay of $H$ are adjacent with a common vertex $u$. Then $H$ has a perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, u, y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{a}, 2,3,2,3,3,2\right)$. Adding a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}$ and $x_{2} u$ we obtain a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ with $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r$ if $d_{a}=2$ or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-1$ if $d_{a}=3$ (see Figure 15). This contradicts the fact that $H$ is inlet-increasing.


Figure 15. Figure used in the proof of Proposition 5.4 part 2, Case 2.

Case 3: A fissure and a cove of $H$ are adjacent with a common vertex $u$. Then $H$ has a perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, u, y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, y_{4}$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{a}, 2,3,2,3,3,3,2\right)$. Adding a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}$ and $x_{2} u$ we obtain a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ with $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r$ if $d_{a}=2$ or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-1$ if $d_{a}=3$ (see Figure 16). This contradicts the fact that $H$ is inlet-increasing.


Figure 16. Figure used in the proof of Proposition 5.4 part 2, Case 3.

Case 4: $H$ has two adjacent bays with a common vertex $u$. Then $H$ has a perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, u, y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{a}, 2,3,3,2,3,3,2\right)$. Adding a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}$ and $x_{3} u$ we obtain a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ with $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r$ if $d_{a}=2$ or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-1$ if $d_{a}=3$ (see Figure 16). This contradicts the fact that $H$ is inlet-increasing.


Figure 17. Figure used in the proof of Proposition 5.4 part 2, Case 4.

Case 5: A bay and a cove of $H$ are adjacent with a common vertex $u$. Then $H$ has a perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, u, y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, y_{4}$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{a}, 2,3,3,2,3,3,3,2\right)$. Adding a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}$ and $x_{3} u$ we obtain a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ with $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r$ if $d_{a}=2$ or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-1$ if $d_{a}=3$ (see Figure 18). This contradicts the fact that $H$ is inlet-increasing.


Figure 18. Figure used in the proof of Proposition 5.4 part 2, Case 5.


Figure 19. Figure used in the proof of Proposition 5.4 part 2, Case 6.

Case 6: $H$ has two adjacent coves with a common vertex $u$. Then $H$ has a perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, u, y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}, y_{4}$ with degree sequence $\left(d_{a}, 2,3,3,3,2,3,3,3,2\right)$. Adding a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}, x_{3} x_{4}$ and $x_{4} u$ we obtain a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ with $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r$ if $d_{a}=2$ or $r\left(H^{\prime}\right)=r-1$ if $d_{a}=3$ (see Figure 19). This contradicts the fact that $H$ is inlet-increasing.

Proposition 5.5. [5] Let $H$ be an inlet-increasing hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons and $r$ inlets. Then there exists a convex hexagonal system $H^{\prime}$ that contains $H$ such that

$$
\begin{align*}
r^{\prime}=r\left(H^{\prime}\right) & \leq 2 r  \tag{3}\\
h^{\prime}=h\left(H^{\prime}\right) & =h+r^{\prime}-r \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Proof. By Proposition 5.4, the inlets of the maximal hexagonal system $H$ are fissures, bays and coves and there are no adjacent inlets. We construct a new hexagonal system $H^{\prime}$ in the following way:

To each bay in $H$, with perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, b$ and degree sequence $(2,2,3,3,2,2)$ we add a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}, x_{3} x_{4}$ (see Figure 20).

To each cove in $H$, with perimetral path $a, x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, x_{4}, x_{5}, b$ and degree sequence $(2,2,3,3,3,2,2)$ we add a hexagon with edges $x_{1} x_{2}, x_{2} x_{3}, x_{3} x_{4}, x_{4} x_{5}$ (see Figure 20).


Figure 20. A inlet-increasing hexagonal system and its corresponding convex hexagonal system.

Note that the obtained hexagonal system $H^{\prime}$ has no bay regions so it is a convex hexagonal system. Moreover, for each bay and each cove we add one hexagon and obtain two fissures in $H^{\prime}$, then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r^{\prime} & =f(H)+2 B(H)+2 C(H)=r+B(H)+C(H) \leq 2 r \\
h^{\prime} & =h+B(H)+C(H)=h+r+B(H)+C(H)-r=h+r^{\prime}-r
\end{aligned}
$$

Next we find the lower bound on the number of inlets for the inlet-increasing hexagonal systems.
Proposition 5.6. [5] Let $H$ be an inlet-increasing hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons and $r$ inlets. Then

$$
r \geq\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil
$$

Proof. Let $H$ be an inlet-increasing hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons and $r$ inlets. Let $H^{\prime}=H^{\prime}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}\right.$, $a_{3}, a_{4}$ ) be a convex hexagonal system obtained from $H$ as described in Proposition 5.5. We use the method of Lagrange multipliers to find the maximal value of the function $h^{\prime}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)$, determined by equation (22), imposing the condition (21).

The maximal value of the function $h^{\prime}\left(a_{1}, a_{2}, a_{3}, a_{4}\right)$ is attained for

$$
a_{1}=a_{2}=a_{3}=a_{4}=\frac{r^{\prime}}{6}+1
$$

and

$$
h_{\max }^{\prime}=3\left(\frac{r^{\prime}}{6}+1\right)\left(\frac{r^{\prime}}{6}\right)+1
$$

Using relations (36) and (37) in Proposition 5.5 we obtain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
h & =h^{\prime}-r^{\prime}+r \leq h_{\max }^{\prime}-r^{\prime}+r \\
& =3\left(\frac{r^{\prime}}{6}+1\right)\left(\frac{r^{\prime}}{6}\right)+1-r^{\prime}+r=\frac{r^{\prime}}{12}\left(r^{\prime}-6\right)+1+r \\
& \leq \frac{r^{2}}{3}+1
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies

$$
r \geq\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil
$$

In order to extend Proposition 5.6 for general hexagonal systems we need the following lemma.
Lemma 5.7. Let $H \subset H_{1} \subset H_{2} \subset \cdots \subset H_{i} \subset \cdots$ be a sequence of hexagonal systems such that $H \in \mathcal{H S}_{h}, H_{i} \in \mathcal{H S}_{h_{i}}$ for all $i=1,2,3 \ldots$ and $h<h_{1}<h_{2}<\cdots<h_{i}<\cdots$. Then

$$
\lim _{i \rightarrow \infty} r\left(H_{i}\right)=+\infty
$$

Proof. Let $H \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ with $n_{2}^{*}$ (resp. $n_{3}^{*}$ ) external vertices of degree 2 (resp. 3). It is well known [13] that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n_{2}^{*}=2 h+4-n_{i} \\
& n_{3}^{*}=2 h-2-n_{i}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $n_{i}$ is the number of internal vertices. It follows that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& n_{2}^{*} \geq\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil+3 \\
& n_{3}^{*} \geq\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil-3
\end{aligned}
$$

since $n_{i} \leq 2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil$ by (14). Hence the number of external vertices of degree 2 and 3 in the perimeter of a hexagonal system approaches infinity as $h$ approaches infinity. Since there are at most four consecutive vertices of degree 2 in the perimeter, the number of inlets $r=2 m_{23}$ (see (3)), also approaches infinity.

Theorem 5.8. [5] Let $H$ be a hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons and $r$ inlets. Then

$$
r \geq\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil
$$

Proof. If $H$ is an inlet-increasing hexagonal system, by Proposition 5.6 we are done. Otherwise we will show that there exists an inlet-increasing hexagonal system $H_{s} \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h+s}$ such that $r=r(H) \geq r\left(H_{s}\right)$.

In fact, if $H$ is not inlet-increasing there exists $H_{1} \in \mathcal{A}(H)$ such that $r \geq r\left(H_{1}\right)$. If $H_{1}$ is not inlet-increasing there exists $H_{2} \in \mathcal{A}\left(H_{1}\right)$ such that $r \geq r\left(H_{1}\right) \geq r\left(H_{2}\right)$.

Continuing this process we construct a sequence

$$
H=H_{0} \subset H_{1} \subset H_{2} \subset \cdots \subset H_{i} \subset \cdots
$$

such that $H_{i} \in \mathcal{A}\left(H_{i-1}\right)$ and

$$
r=r(H) \geq r\left(H_{1}\right) \geq r\left(H_{2}\right) \geq \cdots \geq r\left(H_{i}\right) \geq \cdots
$$

Note that the sequence $\left\{r\left(H_{i}\right)\right\}_{i}$ is bounded by $r$. Consequently by Lemma 5.7, the sequence is finite. In other words, there exists $H_{s} \in \mathcal{A}\left(H_{s-1}\right)$ such that $H_{s}$ is inlet-increasing and $r=r(H) \geq r\left(H_{1}\right) \geq$ $\cdots \geq r\left(H_{s}\right)$. Hence, by Proposition 5.6

$$
r=r(H) \geq r\left(H_{s}\right) \geq \sqrt{3(h+s-1)} \geq \sqrt{3(h-1)}
$$

which implies

$$
r \geq\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil
$$

Let $S_{h^{\prime}}$ be the spiral hexagonal system with $h^{\prime}$ hexagons. The number of internal vertices $n_{i}^{\prime}=$ $n_{i}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)$, the number of bay regions $b^{\prime}=\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)$ and the number of inlets $r^{\prime}=r\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)$ satisfy the following relations:

$$
\begin{align*}
n_{i}^{\prime} & =n_{i}^{\prime}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)=2 h^{\prime}+1+\left\lceil\sqrt{12 h^{\prime}-3}\right\rceil  \tag{38}\\
b^{\prime} & =b^{\prime}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right) \in\{0,1\}  \tag{39}\\
r^{\prime} & =r^{\prime}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)=\left\lceil\sqrt{12 h^{\prime}-3}\right\rceil-3-b^{\prime} \tag{40}
\end{align*}
$$

Now we introduce a parametrization of the spiral hexagonal system $S_{h^{\prime}}$ that will be useful in the sequel. Let $h^{\prime} \geq 7$ and $k$ be the greatest integer such that $3 k(k-1)+1 \leq h^{\prime}<3 k(k+1)+1$. Since $0 \leq h^{\prime}-3 k(k-1)-1<6 k$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
q^{\prime} & =\left\lfloor\frac{h^{\prime}-3 k(k-1)-1}{k}\right\rfloor \\
l^{\prime} & =h^{\prime}-3 k(k-1)-1-q^{\prime} k .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $h^{\prime}$ has a unique representation of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)=3 k(k-1)+1+q^{\prime} k+l^{\prime} \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k=2,3, \ldots, q^{\prime} \in\{0,1,2,3,4,5\}$ and $l^{\prime}=0,1, \ldots, k-1$. From the construction of $S_{h^{\prime}}$ we conclude that $k$ is the number of complete loops in $S_{h^{\prime}}, q^{\prime}$ is the side of the spiral to which belongs the last hexagon in $S_{h^{\prime}}$ and $l^{\prime}$ is the number of the last hexagon in the side $q$. In Figure 21 the spiral system $S_{h^{\prime}}$ for every value of $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(2, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)$ are depicted.

$q^{\prime}=0, l^{\prime}=0$

$q^{\prime}=2, l^{\prime}=0$

$q^{\prime}=4, l^{\prime}=0$

$q^{\prime}=0, l^{\prime}=1$

$q^{\prime}=2, l^{\prime}=1$

$q^{\prime}=4, l^{\prime}=1$

$q^{\prime}=1, l^{\prime}=0$

$q^{\prime}=3, l^{\prime}=0$

$q^{\prime}=5, l^{\prime}=0$

$q^{\prime}=1, l^{\prime}=1$

$q^{\prime}=3, l^{\prime}=1$

$q^{\prime}=5, l^{\prime}=1$

Figure 21. Spiral systems $S_{h^{\prime}}$ for every value of $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(2, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)$.

Next we obtain the number of bay regions, the number of inlets and the number of hexagons in the perimeter of $S_{h^{\prime}}$ in terms of the introduced parameters $k, q^{\prime}$ and $l^{\prime}$.

Proposition 5.9. [5] Let $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)$ of the form (41) and $h_{e}^{\prime}$ be the number of hexagons in the perimeter of $S_{h^{\prime}}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& b^{\prime}=b^{\prime}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
0 & \text { if } & l^{\prime}=0, \\
0 & \text { if } & l^{\prime}=k-1, \\
1 & \text { otherwise } & q^{\prime}<5
\end{array}\right. \\
& r^{\prime}=r^{\prime}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
6 k-6 & \text { if } & l^{\prime}=0, \\
6 k-5+q^{\prime} & \text { if } & l^{\prime}=0 \\
6 k-6+q^{\prime} & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right. \\
& h_{e}^{\prime}=h_{e}^{\prime}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)= \begin{cases}6 k-6 & \text { if } \\
6 k-5+q^{\prime} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. Since

$$
12 h^{\prime 2}-36 k+12 q^{\prime} k+12 l^{\prime}+9
$$

we have:
If $q^{\prime}=0$ and $l^{\prime}=0$ then $12 h^{\prime 2}$. Consequently, $\left\lceil\sqrt{12 h^{\prime}-3}\right\rceil=6 k-3$.
If $q^{\prime}=0$ and $0<l^{\prime} \leq k-1$ we have

$$
\begin{array}{r}
12 h^{\prime 2} \\
12 h^{\prime 2}-24 k-3<(6 k-2)^{2} .
\end{array}
$$

Consequently, $\left\lceil\sqrt{12 h^{\prime}-3}\right\rceil=6 k-3$.
If $0<q^{\prime} \leq 5$ and $0 \leq l^{\prime} \leq k-1$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
12 h^{\prime 2}-36 k+12 q^{\prime} k+9 & =\left(6 k-3+q^{\prime 2}+9-\left(3-q^{\prime 2}>\right.\right. \\
& \left(6 k-3+q^{\prime 2}\right. \\
12 h^{\prime 2}-36 k+12 q^{\prime} k+12 k-3 & <\left(6 k-2+q^{\prime 2} .\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently, $\left\lceil\sqrt{12 h^{\prime}-3}\right\rceil=6 k-2+q^{\prime}$.
It follows that

$$
\left\lceil\sqrt{12 h^{\prime}-3}\right\rceil=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
6 k-3 & \text { if } & l^{\prime}=0, q^{\prime}=0  \tag{42}\\
6 k-2+q^{\prime} & \text { otherwise }
\end{array}\right.
$$

Note that $b^{\prime}=b\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)=0$ if and only if $n_{i}\left(S_{h^{\prime}+1}\right)=n_{i}\left(S_{h^{\prime}}\right)+1$. From (38) this fact occurs if and only if

$$
\left\lceil\sqrt{12 h^{\prime}-3}\right\rceil+1=\left\lceil\sqrt{12\left(h^{\prime}+1\right)-3}\right\rceil .
$$

From (42) we obtain the expression for $b^{\prime}$ in terms of $k$ and $q^{\prime}$. From (40) and the fact that $h_{e}^{\prime}=r^{\prime}+b^{\prime}$ we obtain the expressions for $r^{\prime}$ and $h_{e}^{\prime}$ in terms of $k$ and $q^{\prime}$.

Theorem 5.10. [5] For any $h \geq 4$ there exists a hexagonal system $B_{h}$ such that $r\left(B_{h}\right)=\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil$.

Proof. Let $h \geq 4$ and $k$ be the greatest integer such that $3(k-1)^{2}+1 \leq h<3 k^{2}+1$. Since $0 \leq h-3(k-1)^{2}-1<3(2 k-1)$, let

$$
\begin{aligned}
q & =\left\lfloor\frac{h-3(k-1)^{2}-1}{2 k-1}\right\rfloor \\
l & =h-3(k-1)^{2}-1-q(2 k-1) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then $h$ has a unique representation of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
h=h(k, q, l)=3(k-1)^{2}+1+q(2 k-1)+l \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k=3,4, \ldots, q \in\{0,1,2\}$ and $l=0,1, \ldots, 2 k-2$.
In order to construct a system $B_{h}$ with minimal number of inlets for each $h \geq 4$, we take the spiral system $S_{h^{\prime}}$, with an appropriate value of $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)$ of the form (41), and remove alternately $\left\lfloor h_{e}^{\prime} / 2\right\rfloor$ hexagons from the perimeter of $S_{h^{\prime}}$, starting from the last hexagon and moving in opposite direction with respect to the construction of the spiral systems described in Figure 4. Consider the following cases:

- $h=h(k, 0,0)=3(k-1)^{2}+1$.

Let $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}(k, 0,0)=3 k(k-1)+1$. By Proposition 5.9, $h_{e}^{\prime}=r^{\prime}=6 k-6$ and $S_{h^{\prime}}$ has no bay regions. Note that when we remove from $S_{h^{\prime}}$ each one of the $3 k-3$ hexagons, we reduce by one the number of inlets of $S_{h^{\prime}}$. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
h^{\prime}(k, 0,0)-\left\lfloor\frac{h_{e}}{2}\right\rfloor & =3(k-1)^{2}+1=h(k, 0,0) \\
r & =\frac{r^{\prime}}{2}=3(k-1)
\end{aligned}
$$

- $h=h(k, q, l)$ where $(q, l) \neq(0,0), q \in\{0,1,2\}$ and $l=0, \ldots k-2$.

Let $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)$ where $q^{\prime}=2 q$ and $l^{\prime}=l$. By Proposition 5.9, $h_{e}^{\prime}=6 k-5+2 q$ and $S_{h^{\prime}}$ has one bay region next to the last hexagon in $S_{h^{\prime}}$. When we remove the last hexagon in $S_{h^{\prime}}$, the number of inlets does not change, while when we remove each one of the remained $\left[\frac{h_{e}^{\prime}}{2}\right]-1$ hexagons, the number of inlets of $S_{h^{\prime}}$ reduces by one. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)-\left\lfloor\frac{h_{e}}{2}\right\rfloor & =3 k(k-1)+2 q k+l-[3(k-1)+q] \\
& =3(k-1)^{2}+1+q(2 k-1)+l=h(k, q, l) \\
r & =r^{\prime}-\left(\left\lfloor\frac{h_{e}}{2}\right\rfloor-1\right)=6 k-6+2 q+1-[3(k-1)+q] \\
& =3 k-2+q
\end{aligned}
$$

- $h=h(k, q, l)$ where $q \in\{0,1,2\}$ and $l=k-1, \ldots 2 k-3$.

Let $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)$ where $q^{\prime}=2 q+1$ and $l^{\prime}=l-k+1$. By Proposition 5.9, $h_{e}^{\prime}=6 k-4+2 q$ and $S_{h^{\prime}}$ has one bay region next to the last hexagon in $S_{h^{\prime}}$. When we remove the last hexagon in
$S_{h^{\prime}}$ the number of inlets does not change, while when we remove each one of the remained $\frac{h_{e}}{2}-1$ hexagons, the number of inlets of $S_{h^{\prime}}$ reduces by one. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)-\frac{h_{e}}{2} & =3 k(k-1)+1+(2 q+1) k+l-k+1-[3 k-2+q] \\
& =3(k-1)^{2}+1+q(2 k-1)+l=h(k, q, l) \\
r & =r^{\prime}-\left(\frac{h_{e}}{2}-1\right)=6 k-6+(2 q+1)+1-[3 k-2+q] \\
& =3 k-2+q
\end{aligned}
$$

- $h=h(k, q, l)$ where $q \in\{0,1,2\}$ and $l=2 k-2$.

Let $h^{\prime}=h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)$ where $q^{\prime}=2 q+1$ and $l^{\prime}=k-1$. By Proposition 5.9, $h_{e}^{\prime}=6 k-4+2 q$. Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
h^{\prime}\left(k, q^{\prime}, l^{\prime}\right)-\frac{h_{e}}{2} & =3 k(k-1)+1+(2 q+1) k+k-1-[3 k-2+q] \\
& =3(k-1)^{2}+1+q(2 k-1)+l=h(k, q, l)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $q^{\prime}=2 q+1=5$ then $S_{h^{\prime}}$ has one bay region next to the last hexagon in $S_{h^{\prime}}$. When we remove the last hexagon in $S_{h^{\prime}}$ the number of inlets does not change, while when we remove each one of the remained $\frac{h_{e}}{2}-1$ hexagons, the number of inlets of $S_{h^{\prime}}$ reduces by one. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r & =r^{\prime}-\left(\frac{h_{e}}{2}-1\right)=6 k-6+2 q+1+1-[3 k-2+q] \\
& =3 k-2+q
\end{aligned}
$$

If $q^{\prime}=2 q+1<5$ then $S_{h^{\prime}}$ has no bay regions. When we remove each one of the $\frac{h_{e}}{2}$ hexagons, the number of inlets of $S_{h^{\prime}}$ reduces by one. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r & =r^{\prime}-\frac{h_{e}}{2}=6 k-5+2 q+1-[3 k-2+q] \\
& =3 k-2+q
\end{aligned}
$$

In both cases we obtain $r=3 k-2+q$.

For each value of $h=h(k, q, l)$ we constructed a hexagonal system $B_{h}$ such that $r=r\left(B_{h}\right)=3 k-3$ if $(q, l)=(0,0)$ and $r=r\left(B_{h}\right)=3 k-2+q$ otherwise. In Figure 22 the hexagonal systems $B_{h}$ for every value of $h=h(2, q, l)$ are depicted. Now we show that $r=\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil$.

$q=0, l=0$

$q=1, l=0$

$q=2, l=0$

$q=0, l=1$

$q=1, l=1$

$q=2, l=1$

$q=0, l=2$

$q=1, l=2$

$q=2, l=2$

Figure 22. Hexagonal systems $B_{h}$ for every value of $h=h(2, q, l)$.
If $(q, l)=(0,0)$ we have $3(h-1)=9(k-1)^{2}$ and $\sqrt{3(h-1)}=3(k-1)=r$.
If $(q, l) \neq(0,0)$, since $l \leq 2 k-2$ and $q \in\{0,1,2\}$ we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
3(h-1) & =9(k-1)^{2}+3 q(2 k-1)+3 l \leq 9 k^{2}-6 k(2-q)+3-3 q \\
& =(3 k-2+q)^{2}+3-(2-q)^{2}-3 q<(3 k-2+q)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

On the other hand, if $q=0$ then $l>0$ and

$$
3(h-1)=9(k-1)^{2}+3 l>9(k-1)^{2} .
$$

If $q \neq 0$ then $l \geq 0$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
3(h-1) & =9(k-1)^{2}+3 q(2 k-1)+3 l \geq 9 k^{2}-6 k(3-q)+9-3 q \\
& =(3 k-3+q)^{2}+9-(3-q)^{2}-3 q>(3 k-3+q)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

It means that if $(q, l) \neq(0,0)$ then

$$
(3 k-3+q)^{2}<3(h-1)<(3 k-2+q)^{2} .
$$

We conclude that

$$
\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil=3 k-2+q=r
$$

Note that the hexagonal system $B_{h}$, when $h=h(p-1,0,0)$ where $p$ isan even integer such that $p \geq 4$, coincide with the systems $B_{p, p-2}$ obtained in [3].

From Theorems 5.8 and 5.10 we obtain the following result.

Corollary 5.1. [5] The system $B_{h}$ is a hexagonal system with minimal number of inlets in $\mathcal{H S}_{h}$ for every value of $h \geq 4$.

## 6. Extremal values of $r$ and $b$ over pericondensed hexagonal systems

Recall that $H$ is a pericondensed hexagonal system if $n_{i}(H) \geq 1$. We will denote by $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ the set of pericondensed hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons. We first determine the extremal values of $r$ over $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.


Figure 23. Hexagonal system $B_{h}$ with minimal number of inlets over $\mathcal{H S}_{h}$.
It was shown in Section 5 that the hexagonal system $B_{h}$ (see Figure 23) has $\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil$ inlets and this is the minimal number of inlets among all hexagonal systems in $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Since $B_{h}$ is a pericondensed hexagonal system, then $B_{h}$ attains the minimal number of inlets in $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

We need the following result to find the hexagonal system with maximal number of inlets in $\mathcal{P H S} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.
Lemma 6.1. Let $H \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ and $h \geq 4$. If $n_{i}(H)=1$ then $b(H) \geq 1$.
Proof. If $n_{i}(H)=1$ then $H$ has a subhexagonal system of the form depicted in Figure $31(a)$, where no hexagon can be adjacent to the fissures. Since $h \geq 4$, there must be an hexagon adjacent to any of the edges that are not part of the fissures, and this hexagon will transform one of the fissures into a bay. Hence, $b(H) \geq 1$.

We now show that the pericondensed hexagonal system $M_{h}$ depicted in Figure 24 has the maximal number of inlets in $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Theorem 6.2. Let $h \geq 4$. Then for all $P \in \mathcal{P H S}_{h}$

$$
\lceil\sqrt{3(h-1)}\rceil=r\left(B_{h}\right) \leq r(P) \leq r\left(M_{h}\right)=2(h-2) .
$$

Proof. We only have to prove the upper bound. Let $P \in \mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ and assume that $n_{i}(P) \geq 2$. Then $b(P)+n_{i}(P) \geq 2$ and so by (5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(P) & =2(h-1)-\left(b(P)+n_{i}(P)\right) \\
& \leq 2(h-1)-2=2(h-2)
\end{aligned}
$$

If $n_{i}(P)=1$ then $b(P) \geq 1$ by Lemma 6.1. Hence $b(P)+n_{i}(P) \geq 2$ and again $r(P) \leq 2(h-2)$. Finally, it is easy to show that $r\left(M_{h}\right)=2(h-2)$.


Figure 24. Hexagonal systems $M_{h}$ with maximal number of inlets over $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Now we look at the bounds for $b$ over $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. For every positive integer $h$ we can easily construct convex pericondensed hexagonal systems as we can see in Figure 25. These have obviously minimal number of bay regions in $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

$h$ odd

$h$ even

Figure 25. Convex pericondensed hexagonal systems.

So now we are interested in finding the maximal number of bay regions among all hexagonal systems in $\mathcal{P H S} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. As in the proof of Theorem 4.1, we use the fact that every hexagonal system has a hexagon of the form $L_{1}, P_{2}, L_{3}, P_{4}$ or $L_{5}$.

Theorem 6.3. [6] Let $H \in \mathcal{P H S}_{h}$ with $h \geq 4$. Then

$$
b(H) \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil
$$

Proof. The proof is by induction on $h$. It is easy to check the result for $h=4,5,6$. Let $h \geq 7$ and assume that the result is true for any pericondensed hexagonal system with less than $h$ hexagons. Let $H$ be a pericondensed hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons. First assume that $n_{i}(H) \geq 5$.

1. $H$ contains a $L_{3}, P_{4}$ or $L_{5}$ hexagon, or a $P_{2}$ hexagon of the form depicted in Figure 8. Then by part 1 of the proof of Theorem 4.1, there exists a (sub)hexagonal system $H_{1}$ with $h-1$ hexagons such that $b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+1$. Moreover, since $n_{i}(H) \geq 5, H_{1} \in \mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h-1}$. Hence by induction we deduce

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+1 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2}(h-1)-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil+1 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

2. $H$ satisfies any of the cases 2,3 or 4 in the proof of Theorem 4.1. Then there exist two (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ of $H$, with $h_{1} \geq 2$ and $h_{2} \geq 2$ hexagons respectively, such that $h=h_{1}+h_{2}$
and $b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3$. Since $n_{i}(H) \geq 5$, one of the two hexagonal systems is pericondensed, say $H_{1}$. Then by induction we deduce

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{1}-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil+\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{2}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+3 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil
$$

The only possibility left is case 5 in Theorem 4.1, but this cannot occur since $H \in \mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. So we only have to consider when $1 \leq n_{i}(H) \leq 4$.

If $n_{i}(H)=4$ then the proof works the same as in the case $n_{i}(H) \geq 5$ except when there is a $L_{5}$ hexagon. Note that in the splitting of $H$ in that case, none of the (sub)hexagonal systems is pericondensed. However, if $n_{i}(H)=4$ then we can split $H$ (see Figure 26) into the two (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$, where $H_{1}$ is the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system with at least four hexagons. In this case, we obtain at least three new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-3,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 .
$$

Since $H_{1}$ is pericondensed (with exactly one internal vertex), the results follow as in part 2 of this theorem. Note that if $H_{1}$ has exactly three hexagons, then one of these hexagons is a $P_{2}$ hexagon and the results follows as in part 1 of this theorem.

$n_{i}=4$

$n_{i}=3$

$n_{i}=2$

Figure 26. Pericondensed hexagonal systems with $n_{i} \in\{2,3,4\}$.

If $n_{i}(H)=3$ then $H$ does not contain a $L_{5}$ hexagon. Again, the proof works as in the case $n_{i}(H) \geq$ 5 except when $H$ contains a $P_{4}$ hexagon. However, since $n_{i}(H)=3$ we can split $H$ into the two (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$ (see Figure 26), where $H_{1}$ is the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system with at least four hexagons. In this case, we obtain at least three new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-3
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 .
$$

Since $H_{1}$ is pericondensed (with exactly one internal vertex), the results follow as in part 2 of this theorem. Note that if $H_{1}$ has exactly three hexagons, then one of these hexagons is a $P_{2}$ hexagon and the results follows as in part 1 of this theorem.

If $n_{i}(H)=2, H$ is of the form depicted in Figure 26. Note that one internal vertex is highlighted and the other one belongs to the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system. We split system $H$ into the two (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$, where $H_{1}$ is the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system. If $H_{2}$ has two or more hexagons, we obtain at least three new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-3
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 .
$$

Since $H_{1}$ is pericondensed, the results follow as in part 2 of this theorem.
On the other hand, if $H_{2}$ consists of only one hexagon then the system $H$ has the form (a) or the form (b) depicted in Figure 27. Note that in case (b) one internal vertex is highlighted and the other one belongs to the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system. In each case, we split system $H$ into the two (sub)hexagonal systems $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$, where $H_{1}$ is the dark shadowed (sub)hexagonal system.

(a)

(b)

Figure 27. Pericondensed hexagonal systems with $n_{i}=2$ when $H_{2}$ consists of only one hexagon.

In case (a) we obtain at least five new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-5,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+1
$$

Since neither $H_{1}$ nor $H_{2}$ are pericondensed, by Theorem 4.1 we deduce

$$
\begin{aligned}
b(H) & \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+1 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{1}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{2}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+1 \\
& \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil .
\end{aligned}
$$

In case (b) we obtain at least three new 2-2-edges in $H_{1}$ and $H_{2}$. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-3
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+3 .
$$

Since $H_{1}$ is pericondensed, the results follow as in part 2 of this theorem.

Finally, if $n_{i}(H)=1$, we split $H$ into three (sub) hexagonal system $H_{1}, H_{2}$ and $H_{3}$ of $H$ as depicted in Figure 28, where $h=h_{1}+h_{2}+h_{3}$. If $h_{2}=h_{3}=1$ then

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+6+6-4-4-3=m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+1,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+1 .
$$

From Theorem 4.1

$$
\begin{aligned}
b(H) & \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+1 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2}(h-2)-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+1 \\
& \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $h_{2}>1$ and $h_{3}=1$ then

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)+6-4-3-3=m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)-4,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+2 .
$$

From Theorem 4.1 and the fact that $h=h_{1}+h_{2}+1$ we obtain

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+2 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{1}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{2}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+2 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil .
$$

Now, if $h_{2}>1$ and $h_{3}>1$ we obtain at least nine new 2-2-edges. Hence

$$
m_{22}(H) \leq m_{22}\left(H_{1}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{2}\right)+m_{22}\left(H_{3}\right)-9,
$$

or equivalently,

$$
b(H) \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+b\left(H_{3}\right)+3 .
$$

It follows from Theorem 4.1 and the fact that $h=h_{1}+h_{2}+h_{3}$ that

$$
\begin{aligned}
b(H) & \leq b\left(H_{1}\right)+b\left(H_{2}\right)+b\left(H_{3}\right)+3 \\
& \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{1}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{2}-\frac{7}{2}\right\rceil+\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h_{3}-\frac{7}{2}\right]+3 \leq\left\lceil\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil .
\end{aligned}
$$

Figure 28. Split of pericondensed (sub)hexagonal system $H$ with $n_{i}=1$.

Example 6.4. The hexagonal system $F_{h}$ depicted in Figure 29 has maximal value of $b$ over the set of pericondensed hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.

$F_{h}$ ( $h$ odd)

$F_{h}$ ( $h$ even)

Figure 29. Hexagonal system with maximal value of $b$ over $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Next we discuss the extremal value problem of $T I$ over $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Recall that the spiral hexagonal system $S_{h}$ has maximal number of internal vertices

$$
n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)=2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil
$$

among all hexagonal systems in $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. In Section 3 we characterized the values of $h$ for which there exists a convex hexagonal system $W$ with maximal number of internal vertices, i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{i}(W)=2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil . \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $W \in \mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Hence we deduce from Theorems 3.1 and 3.8:
Theorem 6.5. [6] Let TI be a vertex-degree-based topological index of the form (7).

1. If there exists a convex hexagonal system $W$ with $h$ hexagons satisfying (44) and $-\varphi_{22} \leq q<0$ then $W$ has minimal TI-value among all hexagonal systems in $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.
2. If there is no convex hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons satisfying (44) and $\frac{-\varphi_{22}}{2} \leq q<0$, then the spiral $S_{h}$ has minimal $T I$-value over $\mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} S_{h}$.

Now based on Theorems 6.2 and 6.3 we find the maximal value of $T I$ over $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.
Theorem 6.6. [6] Let TI be a vertex-degree-based topological index of the form (7). If $-\varphi_{22} \leq q<0$ then $F_{h}$ (see Figure 29) has maximal TI -value over $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Proof. Let $P \in \mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Then $n_{i}(P) \geq 1$. It follows from (10) and Theorem 6.3 that

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I\left(F_{h}\right)-T I(P) & =q\left[b(P)-b\left(F_{h}\right)\right]+\left(q+\varphi_{22}\right)\left[n_{i}(P)-n_{i}\left(F_{h}\right)\right] \\
& =q\left[b(P)-\left[\frac{3}{2} h-\frac{11}{2}\right\rceil\right]+\left(q+\varphi_{22}\right)\left[n_{i}(P)-1\right] \geq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently, $T I\left(F_{h}\right) \geq T I(P)$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Remark 6.7. The condition $\frac{-\varphi_{22}}{2} \leq q<0$ holds for most of the well-known topological indices, as we can see in Table 1. Consequently, for all these indices the extremal values of TI over $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ are determined for all h, by Theorems 6.5 and 6.6.

In the case of the Atom-Bond-Connectivity index $q>0$.
Theorem 6.8. [6] Let TI be a vertex-degree-based topological index of the form (7). If $q>0$ then $M_{h}$ has maximal TI-value among all hexagonal systems in $\mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Proof. Let $P \in \mathcal{P} \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Then $n_{i}(P) \geq 1$. By (8) and Theorem 6.2

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I\left(M_{h}\right)-T I(P) & =q\left[r\left(M_{h}\right)-r(P)\right]+\varphi_{22}\left[n_{i}(P)-n_{i}\left(M_{h}\right)\right] \\
& =q[2(h-2)-r(P)]+\varphi_{22}\left[n_{i}(P)-1\right] \geq 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence $T I\left(M_{h}\right) \geq T I(P)$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

## 7. Hexagonal systems with equal number of vertices

Let $\Lambda_{n}$ denote the set of hexagonal systems with exactly $n$ vertices. We will find in this section the hexagonal systems with maximal number of inlets in $\Lambda_{n}$ and then, we will apply this result in the study of extremal values of vertex-degree-based topological indices. Figure 30 shows several hexagonal systems belonging to $\Lambda_{42}$.






Figure 30. Hexagonal systems in $\Lambda_{42}$.

Note that the number of hexagons in hexagonal systems belonging to $\Lambda_{n}$ is variable. In fact, if $H \in \Lambda_{n}$ then it follows from [16] that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\lceil\frac{1}{4}(n-2)\right\rceil \leq h(H) \leq n+1-\left\lceil\frac{1}{2}(n+\sqrt{6 n})\right\rceil \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $h(H)$ denotes the number of hexagons $H$ has. Since $n$ is fixed then for each value $h(H)$ in the interval defined by (45), the number of internal vertices $n_{i}(H)$ is also determined via the relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
n=4 h(H)+2-n_{i}(H) \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Example 7.1. Consider the set $\Lambda_{42}$. Then by (45), if $H \in \Lambda_{42}$ then

$$
10 \leq h(H) \leq 14
$$

Hence we can classify the hexagonal systems in $\Lambda_{42}$ depending on the number of hexagons as:

$$
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
h=10 & h=11 & h=12 & h=13 & h=14 \\
n_{i}=0 & n_{i}=4 & n_{i}=8 & n_{i}=12 & n_{i}=16
\end{array}
$$

Recall that $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ is the set of hexagonal systems with $h$ hexagons.
Lemma 7.2. Let $H \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ and $h \geq 4$. Assume that $H$ has an internal vertex $v_{0}$ such that no adjacent vertex of $v_{0}$ is internal. Then $H$ is not a convex hexagonal system.

Proof. By hypothesis, $H$ has a subhexagonal system of the form depicted in Figure 31 (a), where no hexagon can be adjacent to the fissures indicated by heavy lines. Since $h \geq 4$, there must be an hexagon adjacent to any of the edges that are not part of the fissures, and this hexagon will transform one of the fissures into a bay. Hence, $b(H) \geq 1$ and $H$ is not a convex hexagonal system.

(a)

(b)

(c)

Figure 31. Hexagonal systems with 1,2 and 3 internal vertices, respectively.

Lemma 7.3. Let $H \in \mathcal{H S}_{h}$. In each of the following conditions $H$ is not a convex hexagonal system:

1. If $h \geq 4$ and $n_{i}(H)=1$;
2. If $h \geq 5$ and $n_{i}(H)=2$;
3. If $h \geq 6$ and $n_{i}(H)=3$.

Proof. 1. This is an immediate consequence of Lemma 7.2.
2. We may assume that the two internal vertices are adjacent, otherwise we apply Lemma 7.2 and the result follows. Then $H$ has a subhexagonal system of the form shown in Figure 31 (b), where no hexagons are adjacent to the fissures indicated in heavy lines. Since $h \geq 5$, there must be an hexagon adjacent to an edge that is not part of the fissures, and this hexagon will transform one of the fissures into a bay. Hence, $b(H) \geq 1$.
3. Again by Lemma 7.2 we may assume that $H$ has a subhexagonal system of the form shown in Figure $31(c)$, and a similar argument as above shows that $b(H) \geq 1$.

Next we find the hexagonal system with maximal number of inlets in $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$ with a fixed number of internal vertices. Recall that $M_{h}, N_{h}$ and $Q_{h}$ are the hexagonal systems depicted in Figure 32.

$M_{h}(h \geq 4)$

$N_{h}(h \geq 5)$

$Q_{h}(h \geq 6)$

Figure 32. Hexagonal systems with maximal number of inlets in $\mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$.

Proposition 7.4. Let $H \in \mathcal{H} \mathcal{S}_{h}$. Then:

1. If $n_{i}(H)=1$ then

$$
r(H) \leq r\left(M_{h}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
3 & \text { if } h=3 \\
2 h-4 & \text { if } h \geq 4
\end{array} ;\right.
$$

2. If $n_{i}(H)=2$ then

$$
r(H) \leq r\left(N_{h}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
4 & \text { if } h=4 \\
2 h-5 & \text { if } h \geq 5
\end{array}\right. \text {; }
$$

3. If $n_{i}(H)=3$ then

$$
r(H) \leq r\left(Q_{h}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
5 & \text { if } h=5 \\
2 h-6 & \text { if } h \geq 6
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. 1. If $n_{i}(H)=1$ then clearly $h \geq 3$. If $h=3$ then $H=M_{3}$ is the unique hexagonal system in $H \in \mathcal{H S}_{3}$ such that $n_{i}(H)=1$ and so the result follows. Assume that $h \geq 4$. Then by Lemma 7.3 part 1., $H$ is not a convex hexagonal system. Hence $b(H) \geq 1$ and from (5) we deduce

$$
r(H)=2 h-3-b(H) \leq 2 h-4
$$

2. If $n_{i}(H)=2$ then $h \geq 4$. If $h=4$ then $H=N_{4}$ and we are done. Otherwise, $h \geq 5$ and so by Lemma 7.3 part 2., $b(H) \geq 1$. Then using (5) we get

$$
r(H)=2 h-4-b(H) \leq 2 h-5
$$

3. If $n_{i}(H)=3$ then $h \geq 5$. If $h=5$ then $H=Q_{5}$ and we are done. Otherwise, $h \geq 6$ and so by Lemma 7.3 part 3 ., $b(H) \geq 1$. It follows from (5) that

$$
r(H)=2 h-5-b(H) \leq 2 h-6
$$

Now we can find the hexagonal system with maximal number of inlets in $\Lambda_{n}$, the set of hexagonal systems with $n$ vertices. Recall that $L_{h}$ is the linear hexagonal chain with $h$ hexagons.

Theorem 7.5. [1] Let $H \in \Lambda_{n}$. Then:

1. If $n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ then $r(H) \leq \frac{n-10}{2}=r\left(N_{\frac{n}{4}}\right)$;
2. If $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ then $r(H) \leq \frac{n-9}{2}=r\left(M_{\frac{n-1}{4}}\right)$;
3. If $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ then $r(H) \leq \frac{n-6}{2}=r\left(L_{\frac{n-2}{4}}\right)$;
4. If $n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then $r(H) \leq \frac{n-11}{2}=r\left(Q_{\frac{n+1}{4}}\right)$.

Proof. We know by (45) that

$$
\left\lceil\frac{1}{4}(n-2)\right\rceil \leq h(H) \leq n+1-\left\lceil\frac{1}{2}(n+\sqrt{6 n})\right\rceil
$$

1. If $n \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{4}(n-2)\right\rceil=\frac{n}{4}$. Consider first the case that $h(H)=\frac{n}{4}$. Then by (46)

$$
n=4 h(H)+2-n_{i}(H)=4 \frac{n}{4}+2-n_{i}(H)=n+2-n_{i}(H)
$$

which implies $n_{i}(H)=2$. Now we can apply Proposition 7.4 part 2 ., to conclude that $r(H) \leq r\left(N_{\frac{n}{4}}\right)$ and we are done. So assume now that $h(H) \geq \frac{n}{4}+1$. Then by (5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =n-2 h(H)-b(H)-4 \leq n-2\left(\frac{n}{4}+1\right)-b(H)-4 \\
& =\frac{1}{2} n-b(H)-6 \leq \frac{n-12}{2} \leq \frac{n-10}{2}=r\left(N_{\frac{n}{4}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

2. If $n \equiv 1(\bmod 4)$ then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{4}(n-2)\right\rceil=\frac{n-1}{4}$. If $h(H)=\frac{n-1}{4}$ then by (46)

$$
n=4 h(H)+2-n_{i}(H)=4 \frac{n-1}{4}+2-n_{i}(H)=n+1-n_{i}(H)
$$

and so $n_{i}(H)=1$. By Proposition 7.4 part 1., $r(H) \leq r\left(M_{\frac{n-1}{4}}\right)$. If $h(H) \geq \frac{n-1}{4}+1$. Then by (5)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =n-2 h(H)-b(H)-4 \leq n-2\left(\frac{n-1}{4}+1\right)-b(H)-4 \\
& =\frac{1}{2} n-b(H)-\frac{11}{2} \leq \frac{n-11}{2} \leq \frac{n-9}{2}=r\left(M_{\frac{n-1}{4}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

3. If $n \equiv 2(\bmod 4)$ then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{4}(n-2)\right\rceil=\frac{n-2}{4}$. Since $h(H) \geq \frac{n-2}{4}$ then by (46)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =n-2 h(H)-b(H)-4 \leq n-2\left(\frac{n-2}{4}\right)-b(H)-4 \\
& =\frac{1}{2} n-b(H)-3 \leq \frac{n-6}{2}=r\left(L_{\frac{n-2}{4}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

4. If $n \equiv 3(\bmod 4)$ then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{4}(n-2)\right\rceil=\frac{n+1}{4}$. If $h(H)=\frac{n+1}{4}$ then by (46)

$$
n=4 h(H)+2-n_{i}(H)=4 \frac{n+1}{4}+2-n_{i}(H)=n+3-n_{i}(H)
$$

which implies that $n_{i}(H)=3$. Now by Proposition 7.4 part 3., $r(H) \leq r\left(Q_{\frac{n+1}{4}}\right)$. In the case that $h(H) \geq \frac{n+1}{4}+1$ then by (46)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =n-2 h(H)-b(H)-4 \leq n-2\left(\frac{n+1}{4}+1\right)-b(H)-4 \\
& =\frac{1}{2} n-b-\frac{13}{2} \leq \frac{n-13}{2} \leq \frac{n-11}{2}=r\left(Q_{\frac{n+1}{4}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $T I$ be a vertex-degree-based topological index induced by the real nonnegative numbers $\left\{\varphi_{i j}\right\}$. From (2), (3), (4) and (7) we deduce that if $H \in \Lambda_{n}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(H)=\varphi_{22} n+\left[3 \varphi_{33}-2 \varphi_{22}\right] h+\left[2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33}\right] r+\left[2 \varphi_{22}-3 \varphi_{33}\right] . \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $H, U \in \Lambda_{n}$ then clearly

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(H)-T I(U)=\left[3 \varphi_{33}-2 \varphi_{22}\right](h(H)-h(U))+\left[2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33}\right](r(H)-r(U)) \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

From now on we set $p=3 \varphi_{33}-2 \varphi_{22}$ and $q=2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33}$.
Theorem 7.6. [1] Let TI be a topological index of the form (7) induced by the nonnegative real numbers $\left\{\varphi_{22}, \varphi_{23}, \varphi_{33}\right\}$. Assume that $H_{0}$ is a hexagonal system with maximal number of inlets in $\Lambda_{n}$. Then:

1. If $p \leq 0$ and $q \geq 0$ then TI reaches its maximal value in $H_{0}$;
2. If $p \geq 0$ and $q \leq 0$ then TI reaches its minimal value in $H_{0}$.

Proof. Let $U \in \Lambda_{n}$. Then by (48)

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I\left(H_{0}\right)-T I(U)=p\left(h\left(H_{0}\right)-h(U)\right)+q\left(r\left(H_{0}\right)-r(U)\right) \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

By hypothesis $r\left(H_{0}\right)-r(U) \geq 0$. By (45) and Theorem 7.5,

$$
h(U) \geq\left\lceil\frac{1}{4}(n-2)\right\rceil=h\left(H_{0}\right)
$$

Hence by (49), if $p \leq 0$ and $q \geq 0$ then

$$
T I\left(H_{0}\right)-T I(U) \geq 0
$$

and if $p \geq 0$ and $q \leq 0$ then

$$
T I\left(H_{0}\right)-T I(U) \leq 0
$$

In other words, if $p \leq 0$ and $q \geq 0$ then $T I\left(H_{0}\right) \geq T I(U)$ for all $U \in \Lambda_{n}$, which implies that $T I$ reaches its maximal value in $H_{0}$. Similarly, if $p \geq 0$ and $q \leq 0$ then $T I\left(H_{0}\right) \leq T I(U)$ for all $U \in \Lambda_{n}$, and so $T I$ reaches its minimal value in $H_{0}$.

Example 7.7. The following table contains the values of $p$ and $q$ for several well-known topological indices:

$$
\begin{array}{c||cccccc} 
& i j & \frac{1}{\sqrt{i j}} & \frac{2 \sqrt{i j}}{i+j} & \frac{2}{i+j} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{i+j}} & \frac{(i j)^{3}}{(i+j-2)^{3}}  \tag{50}\\
\hline \hline q & -1 & -.0168 & -.0404 & -.0333 & -.0138 & -3.3906 \\
\cline { 2 - 7 } & 19 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0.22 & 18.17
\end{array}
$$

Hence, by Theorems 7.5 and 7.6 we can deduce the minimal value of each TI over $\Lambda_{n}$, for every $n$. More precisely, the minimal value of every TI that appears in Table (50) over $\Lambda_{n}$ is as follows:

$$
\begin{array}{cccc}
n \equiv 0(\bmod 4) & n \equiv 1(\bmod 4) & n \equiv 2(\bmod 4) & n \equiv 3(\bmod 4) \\
\downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
N_{\frac{n}{4}} & M_{\frac{n-1}{4}} & L_{\frac{n-2}{4}} & Q_{\frac{n+1}{4}}
\end{array}
$$

If $H$ is a hexagonal system with $n$ vertices, then from the relations (5), (46) and (47) we deduce

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I(H)= & {\left[2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{33}\right] n+\left[5 \varphi_{33}-4 \varphi_{23}\right] h(H)+\left[-2 \varphi_{23}+\varphi_{22}+\varphi_{33}\right] b(H) } \\
& +\left[6 \varphi_{22}+\varphi_{33}-8 \varphi_{23}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Consequently, for hexagonal systems $W, Z \in \Lambda_{n}$

$$
\begin{align*}
T I(W)-T I(Z)= & {\left[5 \varphi_{33}-4 \varphi_{23}\right][h(W)-h(Z)]+}  \tag{51}\\
& {\left[-2 \varphi_{23}+\varphi_{22}+\varphi_{33}\right][b(W)-b(Z)] }
\end{align*}
$$

Set $t=5 \varphi_{33}-4 \varphi_{23}$ and keep the notation for $q$ introduced earlier. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(W)-T I(Z)=t[h(W)-h(Z)]-q[b(W)-b(Z)] \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

As we can see this expression only depends on the number of hexagons and the number of bay regions. We know from (45) that the maximal value possible of hexagons in a system with $n$ vertices is $n+1-$ $\left\lceil\frac{1}{2}(n+\sqrt{6 n})\right\rceil$, and this occurs precisely in the spirals $S_{n}$.
Theorem 7.8. [1] Let $h$ such that $S_{h}$ is convex and $n=2 h+1+\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil$. Then

1. If $u \geq 0$ and $q \geq 0$ then $S_{h}$ has the maximal TI-value over $\Lambda_{n}$;
2. If $u \leq 0$ and $q \leq 0$ then $S_{h}$ has the minimal TI-value over $\Lambda_{n}$.

Proof. Since $n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)=2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil$ then

$$
n\left(S_{h}\right)=4 h+2-(2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil)=2 h+1+\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil
$$

and so $S_{h}$ has $n$ vertices. Also we know by hypothesis that $b\left(S_{h}\right)=0$. On the other hand, $n=$ $2 h+1+\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil$ implies $h=n+1-\left\lceil\frac{1}{2}(n+\sqrt{6 n})\right\rceil$. Hence by (52) and (45) it follows that for any hexagonal system $H \in \Lambda_{n}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I(H)-T I\left(S_{h}\right)= & t\left[h(H)-h\left(S_{h}\right)\right]-q\left[b(H)-b\left(S_{h}\right)\right] \\
= & t\left[h(H)-\left(n+1-\left[\frac{1}{2}(n+\sqrt{6 n})\right]\right)\right]-q[b(H)] \\
& \begin{cases}\leq 0 & \text { if } t \geq 0 \text { and } q \geq 0 \\
\geq 0 & \text { if } t \leq 0 \text { and } q \leq 0\end{cases}
\end{aligned}
$$

Example 7.9. Consider the atom-bond connectivity index defined by the numbers $\varphi_{i j}=\sqrt{\frac{i+j-2}{i j}}$. Then $t \cong 0.505$ and $q \cong 0.04$. Hence by part 1. of Theorem 7.8 we can determine its maximal value for those $h$ such that $S_{h}$ is convex.

## 8. Hexagonal systems with equal number of edges

From now on we will denote by $\Gamma_{m}$ the set of hexagonal systems with $m$ edges. The main idea in this section consists in constructing hexagonal systems with maximal number of inlets in $\Gamma_{m}$ which have simultaneously minimal number of hexagons. Figure 33 shows several hexagonal systems belonging to $\Gamma_{51}$ 。




Figure 33. Hexagonal systems with equal number of edges

We note that the number of hexagons in the hexagonal systems of $\Gamma_{51}$ is variable. In general, given a positive integer $m$, the variation of the number of hexagons in $\Gamma_{m}$ is completely determined by Harary and Harborth [16]: if $H \in \Gamma_{m}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil \leq h(H) \leq m-\left\lceil\frac{1}{3}(2 m-2+\sqrt{4 m+1})\right\rceil . \tag{53}
\end{equation*}
$$

Example 8.1. Consider the set $\Gamma_{51}$. Then by (45), if $H \in \Gamma_{51}$ then

$$
10 \leq h(H) \leq 12
$$

Hence we can classify the hexagonal systems in $\Gamma_{51}$ depending on the number of hexagons as:

$$
\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{c|c|c|}
h=10 & h=11 & h=12 \\
n_{i}=0 & n_{i}=5 & n_{i}=10
\end{array}\right.
$$

We have to extend Proposition 7.4 to hexagonal systems with four internal vertices.
Lemma 8.2. Let $H$ be a hexagonal system such that $n_{i}(H)=4$. Then $H$ must contain a subhexagonal system of the form given in Figure 34, where no hexagons are adjacent to the fissures.

Proof. If the four internal vertices are connected then $H$ must have a subhexagonal system of type (d), (e) or (f) in Figure 34. Clearly, no hexagons are adjacent to the fissures, otherwise $n_{i}(H) \geq 5$. If the
four internal vertices are not connected then the possibilities that $H$ has subhexagonal systems are as shown in the columns of the following table:

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { type (a) } & 1 & 0 & 2 & 4 \\
\text { type (b) } & 0 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\
\text { type (c) } & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0
\end{array}
$$

In any case, no hexagons are adjacent to the fissures, otherwise $n_{i}(H) \geq 5$.

(a)

(b)

(c)

(d)

(e)

(f)

Figure 34. Hexagonal systems with $1,2,3$ and 4 internal vertices, respectively.

Let us define the hexagonal system $R_{h}$ as in Figure 35.


Figure 35. Hexagonal systems with maximal number of inlets.

Proposition 8.3. Let $H$ be a hexagonal system with $h$ hexagons. If $n_{i}(H)=4$ then

$$
r(H) \leq r\left(R_{h}\right)=\left\{\begin{array}{ccc}
6 & \text { if } & h=6 \\
2 h-7 & \text { if } & h \geq 7
\end{array} .\right.
$$

Proof. If $h=6$ then $H$ is one of the hexagonal systems (d), (e) and (f) in Figure 34. In any case it is clear that $r(H) \leq r\left(R_{6}\right)$. So let us assume that $h \geq 7$. By Lemma $8.2, H$ has a subhexagonal system as in Figure 34, where no hexagons are adjacent to the fissures. Since $h \geq 7$ there must exist hexagons adjacent to a (2-2)-edge, and these hexagons will transform one of the fissures into a bay, cove or fjord. Consequently, $b(H) \geq 1$. Then by (5)

$$
r(H)=2 h(H)-b(H)-6 \leq 2 h-7
$$

Next we find a hexagonal system with maximal number of inlets in the set of hexagonal systems with equal number of edges. Recall that for $H \in \Gamma_{m}$ the following relation holds [13]

$$
\begin{equation*}
m(H)=5 h(H)+1-n_{i}(H) . \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

We then deduce from (5) and (54) that

$$
\begin{equation*}
r(H)=m(H)-3-3 h(H)-b(H) . \tag{55}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 8.4. [27] Let $H \in \Gamma_{m}$. Then

$$
r(H) \leq\left\{\begin{array}{cl}
r\left(M_{\frac{m}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 0(\bmod 5) \\
r\left(L_{\frac{m-1}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 1(\bmod 5) \\
r\left(R_{\frac{m+3}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 2(\bmod 5) \\
r\left(Q_{\frac{m+2}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 3(\bmod 5) \\
r\left(N_{\frac{m+1}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 4(\bmod 5)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Proof. Recall that $h(H) \geq\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil$ (see (53)).
(a) Assume that $m \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$. Then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil=\frac{m}{5}$. If $h(H)=\frac{m}{5}$ then by (54)

$$
m=5\left(\frac{m}{5}\right)+1-n_{i}(H)
$$

which implies that $n_{i}(H)=1$. Then $r(H) \leq r\left(M_{\frac{m}{5}}\right)$ by part 1 of Proposition 7.4. Otherwise $h(H) \geq$ $\frac{m}{5}+1$ and so by (55) and the fact that $b(H) \geq 0$

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =m-3-3 h(H)-b(H) \leq m-3-3\left(\frac{m}{5}+1\right) \\
& =\frac{2 m-30}{5} \leq \frac{2 m-20}{5}=r\left(M_{\frac{m}{5}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) Assume that $m \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$. Then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil=\frac{m-1}{5}$. It follows from (55)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =m-3-3 h(H)-b(H) \leq m-3-3\left(\frac{m-1}{5}\right) \\
& =\frac{2 m-12}{5}=r\left(L_{\frac{m-1}{5}}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

(c) Assume that $m \equiv 2(\bmod 5)$. Then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil=\frac{m+3}{5}$. If $h(H)=\frac{m+3}{5}$ then by (54)

$$
m=5\left(\frac{m+3}{5}\right)+1-n_{i}(H)
$$

which implies that $n_{i}(H)=4$. It follows from Proposition 8.3 that $r(H) \leq r\left(R_{\frac{m+3}{5}}\right)$. Otherwise $h(H) \geq \frac{m+3}{5}+1$ and then by (55)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =m-3-3 h(H)-b(H) \leq m-3-3\left(\frac{m+3}{5}+1\right) \\
& =\frac{2 m-39}{5} \leq \frac{2 m-29}{5}=r\left(R_{\frac{m+3}{5}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(d) Assume that $m \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$. Then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil=\frac{m+2}{5}$. If $h(H)=\frac{m+2}{5}$ then by (54)

$$
m=5\left(\frac{m+2}{5}\right)+1-n_{i}(H)
$$

which implies $n_{i}(H)=3$. It follows from Proposition 7.4 that $r(H) \leq r\left(Q_{\frac{m+2}{5}}\right)$. Otherwise $h(H) \geq$ $\frac{m+2}{5}+1$ and then by (55)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =m-3-3 h(H)-b(H) \leq m-3-3\left(\frac{m+2}{5}+1\right) \\
& =\frac{2 m-36}{5} \leq \frac{2 m-26}{5}=r\left(Q_{\frac{m+2}{5}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

(e) Assume that $m \equiv 4(\bmod 5)$. Then $\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil=\frac{m+1}{5}$. If $h(H)=\frac{m+1}{5}$ then by (54)

$$
m=5\left(\frac{m+1}{5}\right)+1-n_{i}(H)
$$

which implies $n_{i}(H)=2$. It follows from Proposition 7.4 that $r(H) \leq r\left(N_{\frac{m+1}{5}}\right)$. Otherwise $h(H) \geq$ $\frac{m+1}{5}+1$ and then by (55)

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(H) & =m-3-3 h(H)-b(H) \leq m-3-3\left(\frac{m+1}{5}+1\right) \\
& =\frac{2 m-33}{5} \leq \frac{2 m-23}{5}=r\left(N_{\frac{m+1}{5}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $T I$ be a vertex-degree-based topological index defined by the nonnegative real numbers $\left\{\varphi_{i j}\right\}$. By (2), (3), (4) and the well-known fact [13]

$$
n=m-h+1
$$

we deduce from (7)

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(H)=\varphi_{22} m+3\left(\varphi_{33}-\varphi_{22}\right) h+\left(2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33}\right) r+3\left(\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33}\right) \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular, if $H, U \in \Gamma_{m}$ then

$$
\begin{align*}
T I(H)-T I(U) & =3\left(\varphi_{33}-\varphi_{22}\right)(h(H)-h(U)) \\
& +\left(2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33}\right)(r(H)-r(U)) \tag{57}
\end{align*}
$$

Define $q=2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{33}$ and $s=\varphi_{33}-\varphi_{22}$.
Theorem 8.5. [27] Let TI be a vertex-degree-based topological index defined by the nonnegative real numbers $\left\{\varphi_{22}, \varphi_{23}, \varphi_{33}\right\}$. Assume that $q \geq 0$ and $s \leq 0$ (resp. $q \leq 0$ and $s \geq 0$ ). Then the maximal (resp. minimal) TI-value over $\Gamma_{m}$ is attained in:

1. $M_{\frac{m}{5}}$ if $m \equiv 0(\bmod 5)$;
2. $L_{\frac{m-1}{5}}$ if $m \equiv 1(\bmod 5)$;
3. $R_{\frac{m+3}{5}}$ if $m \equiv 2(\bmod 5)$;
4. $Q_{\frac{m+2}{5}}$ if $m \equiv 3(\bmod 5)$;
5. $N_{\frac{m+1}{5}}$ if $m \equiv 4(\bmod 5)$.

Proof. Let $H \in \Gamma_{m}$. Note that by (53)

$$
h(H) \geq\left\lceil\frac{1}{5}(m-1)\right\rceil=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
h\left(M_{\frac{m}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 0(\bmod 5) \\
h\left(L_{\frac{m-1}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 1(\bmod 5) \\
h\left(R_{\frac{m+3}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 2(\bmod 5) \\
h\left(Q_{\frac{m+2}{5}}\right) & \text { if } m \equiv 3(\bmod 5) \\
h\left(N_{\frac{m+1}{5}}\right) & \text { if } & m \equiv 4(\bmod 5)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Hence by Theorem 8.4 the hexagonal systems $M_{\frac{m}{5}}, L_{\frac{m-1}{5}}, R_{\frac{m+3}{5},} Q_{\frac{m+2}{5}}$ and $N_{\frac{m+1}{5}}$ have simultaneously maximal number of inlets and minimal number of hexagons over the set of hexagonal systems with $m$ edges. Hence the result follows from (57) and the signs of $q$ and $s$.

Example 8.6. The following table contains the values of $q$ and $s$ for several well-known topological indices:

$$
\begin{array}{c||ccccccc} 
& i j & \frac{1}{\sqrt{i j}} & \frac{2 \sqrt{i j}}{i+j} & \frac{2}{i+j} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{i+j}} & \frac{(i j)^{3}}{(i+j-2)^{3}} & \sqrt{\frac{i+j-2}{i j}}  \tag{58}\\
\hline \hline q & -1 & -.0168 & -.0404 & -.0333 & -.0138 & -3.390 & 0.040 \\
\cline { 2 - 7 } & 5 & -.1667 & 0 & -.1667 & -0.091 & 3.390 & -0.040
\end{array}
$$

Hence by Theorem 8.5, in the case of the second Zagreb index, geometric-arithmetic index and the augmented Zagreb index we can determine the minimal value of TI, and for the atom-bond-connectivity index we can determine the maximal value of TI.

Susbstituting (55) in (56) we obtain a new expression for $T I$

$$
T I(H)=\left(2 \varphi_{23}-\varphi_{33}\right) m+6\left(\varphi_{33}-\varphi_{23}\right) h+\left(\varphi_{22}-2 \varphi_{23}+\varphi_{33}\right) b+6\left(\varphi_{22}-\varphi_{23}\right)
$$

and so for every $H, U \in \Gamma_{m}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
T I(H)-T I(U)=u(h(H)-h(U))-q(b(H)-b(U)) \tag{59}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $u=6\left(\varphi_{33}-\varphi_{23}\right)$ and $q$ as before. We will now use this expression to find extremal values of $T I$ over the set of hexagonal systems with $m$ edges. Recall that a hexagonal system $H$ with $m$ edges satisfies (53)

$$
h(H) \leq m-\left\lceil\frac{1}{3}(2 m-2+\sqrt{4 m+1})\right\rceil .
$$

Theorem 8.7. [27]Let $h$ such that the spiral $S_{h}$ is convex and $m=3 h+\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil$. Then

1. If $u \geq 0$ and $q \geq 0$ then $S_{h}$ has the maximal TI-value over $\Gamma_{m}$;
2. If $u \leq 0$ and $q \leq 0$ then $S_{h}$ has the minimal TI-value over $\Gamma_{m}$.

Proof. Since $n_{i}\left(S_{h}\right)=2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil$ then

$$
m\left(S_{h}\right)=5 h+1-(2 h+1-\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil)=3 h+\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil=m
$$

and so $S_{h}$ has $m$ edges. Also we know by hypothesis that $b\left(S_{h}\right)=0$. On the other hand, $m=$ $3 h+\lceil\sqrt{12 h-3}\rceil$ implies $h=m-\left\lceil\frac{1}{3}(2 m-2+\sqrt{4 m+1})\right\rceil$. Hence by (59) and (53) it follows that for any hexagonal system $H \in \Gamma_{m}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
T I(H)-T I\left(S_{h}\right)= & u(h(H)-h)-q b(H) \\
& \left\{\begin{array}{l}
\leq 0 \quad \text { if } u \geq 0 \text { and } q \geq 0 \\
\geq 0
\end{array} \text { if } u \leq 0 \text { and } q \leq 0\right.
\end{aligned} .
$$

Remark 8.8. Note that in general the spiral hexagonal system $S_{h}$ satisfies

$$
b\left(S_{h}\right)=0 \quad \text { or } \quad b\left(S_{h}\right)=1 .
$$

In Section 5 there is a precise description of the (infinite) values of $h$ for which $S_{h}$ is convex. For instance, if $h=3 k^{2}-3 k+1$ for any positive integer $k$ then $S_{h}$ is convex. So the hypothesis of Theorem 8.7 holds for a large number of values of $h$.

Example 8.9. The following table contains the values of $q$ and $u$ for several well-known topological indices:

$$
\begin{array}{c||ccccccc} 
& i j & \frac{1}{\sqrt{i j}} & \frac{2 \sqrt{i j}}{i+j} & \frac{2}{i+j} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{i+j} j} & \frac{(i j)^{3}}{(i+j-2)^{3}} & \sqrt{\frac{i+j-2}{i j}}  \tag{60}\\
\hline \hline q & -1 & -.0168 & -.0404 & -.0333 & -.0138 & -3.390 & 0.040 \\
\cline { 2 - 7 } & 18 & -.449 & 0.121 & -0.4 & -0.233 & 20.344 & -0.242
\end{array}
$$

It follows from Theorem 8.7 that the Randic index, the harmonic index and the sum-connectivity index have minimal TI values in the spiral $S_{h}$.

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# On Degree-Based Indices of Dendrimers 

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#### Abstract

The Narumi-Katayama index of a graph $G$, denoted by $N K(G)$, is equal to the product of degrees of vertices of $G$. In this chapter, we report our recent results on computing an important degree-based topological index, which is called Narumi-Katayama index, for dendrimers. Also, we gather some of our results about the Narumi-Katayama index of some graph compositions which using them, the Narumi-Katayama index of many chemical graphs can be computed. Next, we demonstrate some applications to chemically relevant graphs and show how the Narumi-Katayama index can be used as a measure of graph irregularity.


## Contents

1 Introduction ..... 287
2 Composite graphs ..... 288
2.1 Splice, link and gate ..... 289
2.2 Chains and necklaces ..... 290
2.3 Join ..... 291
2.4 Corona ..... 292
2.5 Composition ..... 292
2.6 Cartesian product ..... 293
3 Applications and concluding remarks ..... 293
3.1 Spiro and polyphenyl hexagonal chains ..... 293
3.2 Catacondensed benzenoids ..... 294
3.3 Phenylenes and their hexagonal squeezes ..... 295
3.4 Dendrimers ..... 295
3.5 Graph irregularity ..... 298

## 1. Introduction

Several hundreds of topological invariants of molecular graphs have been defined and employed in the QSAR/QSPR research during the last couple of decades [13]. One of the simplest, defined as the product
of degrees of all vertices, was introduced by Narumi and Katayama in 1984 and named, accordingly, the "simple topological index" [12]. In the subsequent papers the more informative name "NarumiKatayama index" was introduced and became established, so we use it in the present chapter. In the beginning, the index attracted only a moderate attention [4,6], but recently a number of papers appeared studying its various mathematical properties (such as the extremal graphs and values [5]) and its values over special classes of graphs [14]. Further, it also spawned various generalizations such as the degree product polynomial considered recently by Klein and Rosenfeld [10, 11]. This chapter aims to further contribute to the better understanding of the Narumi-Katayama index by investigating its behavior under several binary operations on graphs. The results in this chapter are mainly taken from [7,8]. We start by defining the terms.

A molecular graph is a simple graph such that its vertices correspond to the atoms and the edges to the bonds [15]. For a given graph $G$ we denote its vertex set by $V(G)$ and its edge set by $E(G)$. The number of vertices is denoted by $n$. If we consider several graphs, $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{k}$, the quantities pertaining to a given graph are denoted by the corresponding subscript. The degree $d_{G}(v)$ of a vertex $v \in V(G)$ is the number of neighbors of $v$ in $G$. When the graph $G$ is clear from the context, we omit the subscript.

The Narumi-Katayama index of a graph $G$ is defined as the product of degrees of all its vertices,

$$
N K(G)=\prod_{i=1}^{n} d_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)
$$

It is clear from the definition that we can restrict our attention to connected graphs, since for a graph with several connected components its Narumi-Katayama index is equal to the product of the indices of components. (This restriction also takes care of graphs with isolated vertices, among which the index cannot discriminate.)

Let $U=\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \ldots, u_{k}\right\}$ be a subset of $V(G)$. We define the truncated Narumi-Katayama index (with respect to $U$ ) as

$$
N K^{(U)}(G)=\prod_{v \in V(G)-U} d_{G}(v)
$$

In the case when $U$ is the empty set, we obtain $N K^{(\emptyset)}(G)=N K(G)$. Note that here the vertices of $U$ are not deleted from $V(G)$, and the degrees of vertices not in $U$ are not affected. The truncated Narumi-Katayama index will enable us to express some of our results in a more compact form.

## 2. Composite graphs

Many interesting classes of graphs arise from simpler graphs via binary operations sometimes known as graph products. (We refer the reader to a monograph by Imrich and Klavžar [9] for a comprehensive introduction.) Our aim here is to study how the Narumi-Katayama indices of such graphs can be expressed in terms of Narumi-Katayama indices of operands and some auxiliary invariants. We start by three simple operations on the union of two graphs.

### 2.1 Splice, link and gate

Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ are two graphs with disjoint vertex sets. For given vertices $v_{1} \in V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $v_{2} \in V\left(G_{2}\right)$ the splice of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ by vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2},\left(G_{1} \cdot G_{2}\right)\left(v_{1}, v\right)$, is defined by identifying the vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ in the union of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$. Similarly, the link of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ by vertices $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ is defined as the graph $\left(G_{1} \sim G_{2}\right)\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$ obtained by joining $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$ by an edge in the union of these graphs. We shorten the notation to $G_{1} \cdot G_{2}$ and $G_{1} \sim G_{2}$ when the vertices $v_{1}, v_{2}$ are clear from the context. (These two operations also appear in the literature under different names; we follow here the terminology introduced in [2].)

The gate $\left(G_{1} \| G_{2}\right)\left(u_{1}, v_{1} ; u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ is obtained from $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ by identifying the edges $u_{1} v_{1}$ of $G_{1}$ and $u_{2} v_{2}$ of $G_{2}$ so that $u_{1}$ is identified with $u_{2}$ and $v_{1}$ with $v_{2}$. We denote the end-vertices of the identified edge in $G_{1} \| G_{2}$ by $u_{12}$ and $v_{12}$.

Obviously, the only vertices whose degrees are affected by the above operations are $u_{i}$ and $v_{i}$, for $i=1,2$. If we denote by $v_{12}$ the vertex of $G_{1} \cdot G_{2}$ obtained by identifying $v_{1}$ and $v_{2}$, we have the following expressions.

$$
\begin{gathered}
d_{G_{1} \cdot G_{2}}\left(v_{12}\right)=d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right) ; \\
d_{G_{1} \sim G_{2}}\left(v_{1}\right)=d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+1 ; \\
d_{G_{1} \sim G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)=d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)+1 ; \\
d_{G_{1}| | G_{2}}\left(u_{12}\right)=d_{G_{1}}\left(u_{1}\right)+d_{G_{2}}\left(u_{2}\right)-1 ; \\
d_{G_{1} \| G_{2}}\left(v_{12}\right)=d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)-1 .
\end{gathered}
$$

The following results are direct consequences of the above observations.

## Proposition 1

$$
\begin{gathered}
N K\left(G_{1} \cdot G_{2}\right)=N K\left(G_{1}\right) N K\left(G_{2}\right) \frac{d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)}{d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right) d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)} ; \\
N K\left(G_{1} \sim G_{2}\right)=N K\left(G_{1}\right) N K\left(G_{2}\right) \frac{\left(d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+1\right)\left(d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)+1\right)}{d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right) d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)} ; \\
N K\left(G_{1} \| G_{2}\right)=N K\left(G_{1}\right) N K\left(G_{2}\right) \frac{\left(d_{G_{1}}\left(u_{1}\right)+d_{G_{2}}\left(u_{2}\right)-1\right)\left(d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)-1\right)}{d_{G_{1}}\left(u_{1}\right) d_{G_{2}}\left(u_{2}\right) d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right) d_{G_{2}}\left(v_{2}\right)} .
\end{gathered}
$$

An alternative way of writing the second result is

$$
N K\left(G_{1} \sim G_{2}\right)=N K\left(G_{1}\right) N K\left(G_{2}\right)+N K\left(G_{1} \cdot G_{2}\right)+N K^{\left(V\left(G_{1}\right)-v_{1}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right) N K^{\left(V\left(G_{2}\right)-v_{2}\right)}\left(G_{2}\right) .
$$

The results for splice can be in a straightforward way generalized to more than two operands. If we have graphs $G_{1}, \ldots, G_{k}$ and $v_{i} \in V\left(G_{i}\right)$ for each $i=1, \ldots, k$, then their splice in vertices $v_{i}$ is obtained by identifying all $k$ vertices $v_{i}$.

## Corollary 2

$$
N K\left(G_{1} \cdot G_{2} \cdot \ldots \cdot G_{k}\right)=\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{k} d_{G_{i}}\left(v_{i}\right)}{\prod_{i=1}^{k} d_{G_{i}}\left(v_{i}\right)} \prod_{i=1}^{k} N K\left(G_{i}\right) .
$$

If we have $k$ copies of the same graph $G$ and splice them at the same vertex $v$, we obtain $G^{\cdot k}$, the $k$-th splice-power of $G$. The above result then simplifies to

$$
N K\left(G^{\cdot k}\right)=\frac{k[N K(G)]^{k}}{d_{G}(v)^{k-1}} .
$$

By considering links of more than two graphs we arrive at the next class of composite graphs considered here, the chain (or bridge) graphs.

### 2.2 Chains and necklaces

Let $G_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq k$, be some graphs and $v_{i} \in V\left(G_{i}\right)$. A chain graph denoted by $G=G\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{k}, v_{1}\right.$, $\left.\ldots, v_{k}\right)$ is obtained from the union of the graphs $G_{i}, i=1, \ldots, k$, by adding the edges $v_{i} v_{i+1} 1 \leq i \leq$ $k-1$, see Fig. 1. Then $|V(G)|=\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left|V\left(G_{i}\right)\right|$ and $|E(G)|=(k-1)+\sum_{i=1}^{k}\left|E\left(G_{i}\right)\right|$. By adding the edge $v_{k} v_{1}$ to a chain graph we obtain the corresponding necklace $G_{0}=G_{0}\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{k}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right)$.


Figure 1. The chain graph $G=G\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{k}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right)$.

One can see that $G\left(G_{1}, G_{2}, v_{1}, v_{2}\right) \cong\left(G_{1} \sim G_{2}\right)\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)$.
It is worth noting that the above specified classes of chain graphs and necklaces embrace, as special cases, all trees (among which are the molecular graphs of alkanes) and all unicyclic graphs (among which are the molecular graphs of monocycloalkanes). Also the molecular graphs of many polymers and dendrimers are chain graphs. Further, when all $G_{i}$ are equal to $G$ and all $v_{i}$ are equal, we have the rooted products of $P_{k}$ and $G$ and of $C_{k}$ and $G$.

It is clear that the root vertices are the only ones whose degrees are affected by the chain and necklace construction. Hence,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d_{G}(u)= \begin{cases}d_{G_{i}}(u) & \text { if } u \in V\left(G_{i}\right) \text { and } u \neq v_{i} \\
d_{G_{i}}\left(v_{i}\right)+1 & \text { if } u=v_{i}, i=1, k \\
d_{G_{i}}\left(v_{i}\right)+2 & \text { if } u=v_{i}, 2 \leq i \leq k-1\end{cases} \\
& d_{G_{0}}(u)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
d_{G_{i}}(u) & \text { if } u \in V\left(G_{i}\right) \text { and } u \neq v_{i} \\
d_{G_{i}}\left(v_{i}\right)+2 & \text { if } u=v_{i}, 1 \leq i \leq k
\end{array} .\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

## Theorem 3

$$
\begin{aligned}
N K\left(G\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{k}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right)\right) & =\left(d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{1}\right)+1\right)\left(d_{G_{k}}\left(v_{k}\right)+1\right) \prod_{i=2}^{k-1}\left(d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{i}\right)+2\right) \\
& \times \prod_{i=1}^{n} N K^{\left(V\left(G_{i}\right)-v_{i}\right)}\left(G_{i}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Theorem 4

$$
N K\left(G_{0}\left(G_{1}, \ldots, G_{k}, v_{1}, \ldots, v_{k}\right)\right)=\prod_{i=1}^{k}\left(d_{G_{1}}\left(v_{i}\right)+2\right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} N K^{\left(V\left(G_{i}\right)-v_{i}\right)}\left(G_{i}\right) .
$$

In both cases the proof follows immediately by using the definition of the truncated $N K$ index, and we omit the details.

### 2.3 Join

The join (sometimes also called the sum) of two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is obtained by taking their union and adding all possible edges between $V\left(G_{1}\right)$ and $V\left(G_{2}\right)$. We denote it by $G_{1} \nabla G_{2}$. When one of the graphs is $K_{1}$, the join of $K_{1}$ and $G$ is called the suspension of $G$. The degree of a vertex of $G$ in its suspension increases by one, while the degree of the vertex of $K_{1}$ is equal to $|V(G)|=n$. Hence the Narumi-Katayama index of $K_{1} \nabla G$ is given by

$$
N K\left(K_{1} \nabla G\right)=n \prod_{i=1}^{n}\left(d_{G}\left(v_{i}\right)+1\right)
$$

The product on the right-hand side of the above formula can be expressed in terms of truncated Narumi-Katayama indices with respects to all subsets of $V(G)$. The result follows by expanding the product into a sum of $2^{n}$ terms and noting that the products of degrees of each of $2^{n}$ subsets of $V(G)$ appear exactly once in the sum.

## Proposition 5

$$
N K\left(K_{1} \nabla G\right)=n \sum_{U \subseteq V(G)} N K^{(U)}(G) .
$$

The above result can be straightforwardly generalized to the case when one of the components of a join is the set of $m$ independent vertices, i.e., the complement $\bar{K}_{m}$ of the complete graph $K_{m}$.

## Proposition 6

$$
N K\left(\bar{K}_{m} \nabla G\right)=n^{m}\left(\sum_{U \subseteq V(G)} N K^{(U)}(G) m^{n-|U|}\right) .
$$

A closer look on the above formula should reveal that all effects of the independence of vertices of $\bar{K}_{m}$ are concentrated in the $n^{m}$ term. Hence, the contribution of vertices of one component in a join of two graphs depends only on the number of vertices in the other component, and not on its internal structure. From this observation we can deduce the formula for the general case.

Proposition 7 Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be two graphs with $n_{1}$ and $n_{2}$ vertices, respectively. Then

$$
N K\left(G_{1} \nabla G_{2}\right)=\left(\sum_{U_{1} \subseteq V\left(G_{1}\right)} N K^{\left(U_{1}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right) n_{2}^{n_{1}-\left|U_{1}\right|}\right)\left(\sum_{U_{2} \subseteq V\left(G_{2}\right)} N K^{\left(U_{2}\right)}\left(G_{2}\right) n_{1}^{n_{2}-\left|U_{2}\right|}\right) .
$$

The results of this subsection could be further generalized to joins of more than two graphs, but we leave that to the interested reader. Instead, we use them to derive formulas for the Narumi-Katayama index of a corona of two graphs.

### 2.4 Corona

The corona of two graphs $G$ and $H$ is the graph obtained by taking $|V(G)|$ copies of $H$ and connecting each vertex in the $i$-th copy of $H$ to the vertex $v_{i}$ of $G$. It is usually denoted by $G \circ H$. (We have used $G$ and $H$ instead of $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ in order to stress the fact that the components enter their corona in an asymmetric way.) Hence, a corona is a collection of $n$ suspensions of $H$ on a scaffold provided by $G$. This is reflected in the formula for its Narumi-Katayama index.

Proposition 8 Let $G$ and $H$ be two graphs with $n$ and $m$ vertices, respectively. Then

$$
N K(G \circ H)=\left(\sum_{U \subseteq V(G)} N K^{(U)}(G) m^{n-|U|}\right)\left(\sum_{W \subseteq V(H)} N K^{(W)}(H)\right)^{n}
$$

### 2.5 Composition

The composition of two graphs $G$ and $H$ is the graph with vertex set $V(G) \times V(H)$, and the vertex $u=\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ is adjacent to the vertex $v=\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ whenever either $u_{1} u_{2} \in E(G)$ or $u_{1}=u_{2}$ and $v_{1} v_{2} \in E(H)$. This graph operation is denoted by $G[H]$. So the degree of the vertex $(u, v)$ in $G[H]$ is $d_{G[H]}(u, v)=d_{H}(v)+n d_{G}(u)$, where $n$ is the number of vertices of $G$. The composition of two graphs is also known as graph substitution, a name that bears witness to the fact that $G[H]$ can be obtained from $G$ by substituting a copy of $H$, labeled $H_{w}$, for every vertex $w$ in $V(G)$ and then joining all vertices of $H_{w}$ with all vertices of $H_{w^{\prime}}$ if and only if $w w^{\prime} \in E(G)$, and there are no edges between vertices in $H_{u}$ and $H_{u^{\prime}}$ otherwise. Now by the above approach, one can see the Narumi-Katayama index of the composition of two graphs as follows:

Proposition 9 Let $G$ and $H$ be two graphs with $n$ and $m$ vertices, respectively. Then

$$
N K(G[H])=\prod_{u \in V(G)} \sum_{U \subseteq V(H)} N K^{(U)}(H)\left(n d_{G}(u)\right)^{m-|U|}
$$

### 2.6 Cartesian product

The Cartesian product $G_{1} \square G_{2}$ of graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ is a graph such that $V\left(G_{1} \square G_{2}\right)=V\left(G_{1}\right) \times V\left(G_{2}\right)$, and any two vertices $\left(u_{1}, v_{1}\right)$ and $\left(u_{2}, v_{2}\right)$ are adjacent in $G_{1} \square G_{2}$ if and only if either ( $u_{1}=u_{2}$ and $v_{1}$ is adjacent with $v_{2}$ ), or ( $v_{1}=v_{2}$ and $u_{1}$ is adjacent with $u_{2}$ ). It is easy to see that $d_{G_{1} \square G_{2}}(u, v)=$ $d_{G_{1}}(u)+d_{G_{2}}(v)$. According to the previous subsections, we can write the Narumi-Katayama index of the Cartesian product of two graphs $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ with $n$ and $m$ vertices, respectively, by

$$
\prod_{u \in V\left(G_{1}\right)} \sum_{U \subseteq V\left(G_{2}\right)} N K^{(U)}\left(G_{2}\right)\left(d_{G_{1}}(u)\right)^{m-|U|}
$$

or

$$
\prod_{v \in V\left(G_{2}\right)} \sum_{W \subseteq V\left(G_{1}\right)} N K^{(W)}\left(G_{1}\right)\left(d_{G_{2}}(v)\right)^{n-|W|}
$$

So to preserve the symmetric of the formula for the Narumi-Katayama index of Cartesian product of two graphs, we have the next proposition.

Proposition 10 Let $G_{1}$ and $G_{2}$ be two graphs with $n$ and $m$ vertices, respectively. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
N K\left(G_{1} \square G_{2}\right) & =\frac{1}{2} \prod_{u \in V\left(G_{1}\right)} \sum_{U \subseteq V\left(G_{2}\right)} N K^{(U)}\left(G_{2}\right)\left(d_{G_{1}}(u)\right)^{m-|U|} \\
& +\frac{1}{2} \prod_{v \in V\left(G_{2}\right)} \sum_{W \subseteq V\left(G_{1}\right)} N K^{(W)}\left(G_{1}\right)\left(d_{G_{2}}(v)\right)^{n-|W|}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 3. Applications and concluding remarks

### 3.1 Spiro and polyphenyl hexagonal chains

A (poly)spiro compound is a polycyclic organic compound whose rings are connected by one atom. The rings may be of various lengths. The connecting atom, most often a carbon, is also called the spiroatom. Their graphs appear in the mathematical literature as cactus graphs; if a polyspiro compound is unbranched, the corresponding graph is also known as cactus chain [3]. If all cycles (rings) are of the same length, we say that the chain is uniform. An example of a uniform (hexagonal) spiro chain of length 6 is shown in Fig. 2.


Figure 2. A hexagonal spiro chain of length 6.

Let a hexagonal chain of length $h$ be denoted by $H_{h}$. From the first claim of Proposition 1 we obtain the recurrence for $N K\left(H_{h}\right)$,

$$
N K\left(H_{h+1}\right)=N K\left(H_{h}\right) N K\left(H_{1}\right)
$$

This, together with the obvious initial condition $N K\left(H_{1}\right)=2^{6}=64$, yields the following result.

## Corollary 11

$$
N K\left(H_{h}\right)=64^{h} .
$$

The same reasoning remains valid also when the cycles are not all of the same length. In general, if $G_{h}$ is a cactus graph with $h$ blocks in which every cut-vertex is shared by exactly two cycles, then

$$
N K\left(G_{h}\right)=2^{\left|V\left(G_{h}\right)\right|},
$$

regardless of the structure of $G_{h}$.
A class of polycyclic compounds in which two or more benzene rings are connected by a cut edge is known as polyphenyl compounds. Their graphs are called polyphenyl hexagonal chains. An example is shown in Fig. 3. We denote such a chain with $h$ hexagons by $P P_{h}$.


Figure 3. A polyphenyl hexagonal chain of length 6.

By using the second claim of Proposition 1 we immediately obtain

$$
N K\left(P P_{h}\right)=\left(\frac{9}{4}\right)^{h-1} N K\left(H_{h}\right)
$$

leading to the explicit expression $N K\left(P P_{h}\right)=\frac{4}{9} 144^{h}$.

### 3.2 Catacondensed benzenoids

It is clear that the graph of any catacondensed benzenoid can be constructed by starting from a single hexagon and adding one hexagon at a time by the gate operation. If we denote a catacondensed benzenoid with $h$ hexagons by $B_{h}$, we obtain a recurrence for $N K\left(B_{h}\right)$ in the form

$$
N K\left(B_{h+1}\right)=\left(\frac{9}{16}\right) N K\left(B_{h}\right) N K\left(B_{1}\right)
$$

resulting in the explicit formula $N K\left(B_{h}\right)=\left(\frac{9}{16}\right)^{h-1} N K\left(B_{1}\right)^{h}=\frac{16}{9} 36^{h}$. (See also [14].)

### 3.3 Phenylenes and their hexagonal squeezes

The last class of object we consider here are phenylenes and their hexagonal squeezes as defined in [14]. It is obvious that any phenylene can be constructed starting from a single hexagon and adding one hexagon at a time by iterating the two-step construction shown in Fig. 4. Hence, we first


Figure 4. Two-step construction of a phenylene.
link a hexagon to the already constructed graph, and then add an edge. We will need the following lemma that describes the effect of adding an edge to $G$.

Lemma 12 Let $G$ be a connected graph and $u, v \in V(G)$ two non-adjacent vertices of $G$. Then

$$
N K(G+u v)=N K(G) \frac{(d(u)+1)(d(v)+1)}{d(u) d(v)} .
$$

By combining Lemma 12 with the second claim of Proposition 1 we obtain a recurrence for the Narumi-Katayama indices of phenylenes and their hexagonal squeezes. It leads to explicit formulas that confirm the relationships between them established in reference [14].

### 3.4 Dendrimers

The goal of this section is computing the truncated $N K$ index of an infinite class of dendrimers. To do this, we use from Theorem 2. The truncated $N K$ index for other classes of dendrimers, can be computed similarly.

Consider the graph $G_{1}$ shown in Fig. 5.


Figure 5. The graph of dendrimer $G_{n}$ for $n=1$.

It is easy to see that

$$
N K\left(G_{1}\right)=2^{15} 3^{4},
$$

$$
N K^{\left(v_{1}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right)=N K^{\left(v_{2}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right)=N K^{\left(v_{3}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right)=N K^{(v)}\left(G_{1}\right)=2^{14} 3^{4}
$$

and so, for $1 \leq i, j \leq 3, i \neq j$,

$$
N K^{(v, v)}\left(G_{1}\right)=N K^{\left(v_{i}, v_{j}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right)=2^{13} 3^{4}
$$

Now consider the graph $G_{n}=\left(G_{n-1} \sim H_{1}\right)\left(v_{1}, u_{1}\right)$, shown in Fig. 2 (for $n=1$ ) and Fig. 3, respectively. It is easy to see that $H_{i} \cong G_{1},(1 \leq i \leq n-1)$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
G_{n} & =\left(G_{n-1} \sim H_{1}\right)\left(v_{1}, u_{1}\right) \\
G_{n-1} & =\left(G_{n-2} \sim H_{2}\right)\left(v_{2}, u_{2}\right) \\
& \vdots \\
G_{n-i} & =\left(G_{n-i-1} \sim H_{i+1}\right)\left(v_{i+1}, u_{i+1}\right) \\
& \vdots \\
G_{2} & =\left(G_{1} \sim H_{n-1}\right)\left(v_{n-1}, u_{n-1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Then by using Theorem 3, we have the following relations:

$$
\begin{aligned}
N K\left(G_{n}\right) & =N K^{\left(v_{1}\right)}\left(G_{n-1}\right) N K^{\left(u_{1}\right)}\left(H_{1}\right) \times 3^{2} \\
N K^{\left(v_{1}\right)}\left(G_{n-1}\right) & =N K^{\left(v_{2}\right)}\left(G_{n-2}\right) N K^{\left(v_{1}, u_{2}\right)}\left(H_{2}\right) \times 3^{2} \\
& \vdots \\
N K^{\left(v_{i}\right)}\left(G_{n-i}\right) & =N K^{\left(v_{i+1}\right)}\left(G_{n-i-1}\right) N K^{\left(v_{i}, u_{i+1}\right)}\left(H_{i+1}\right) \times 3^{2} \\
& \vdots \\
N K^{\left(v_{n-2}\right)}\left(G_{2}\right) & =N K^{\left(v_{n-1}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right) N K^{\left(v_{n-2}, u_{n-1}\right)}\left(H_{n-1}\right) \times 3^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Production of two sides of these relations yields

$$
N K\left(G_{n}\right)=N K^{\left(v_{n-1}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right) N K^{\left(u_{1}\right)}\left(H_{1}\right) \prod_{i=2}^{n-1} N K^{\left(v_{i-1}, u_{i}\right)}\left(H_{i}\right) \times 3^{2(n-1)}
$$

and it is easy to obtain

$$
\begin{aligned}
N K\left(G_{n}\right) & =\left(N K^{\left(v_{1}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right)\right)^{2}\left(N K^{\left(v_{1}, v_{2}\right)}\left(G_{1}\right)\right)^{n-2} \times 3^{2(n-1)} \\
& =2^{13 n+2} 3^{6 n-2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

In other words we arrived at the following:
Theorem 13 Consider the graph $G_{n}=\left(G_{n-1} \sim H_{1}\right)\left(v_{1}, u_{1}\right),(2 \leq n)$, shown in Fig. 6. Then,

$$
N K\left(G_{n}\right)=2^{13 n+2} 3^{6 n-2}
$$

Corollary 14 Consider the dendrimer D, shown in Fig. 7. Then,

$$
N K(D)=2^{13 n+2} 3^{6 n-2},
$$

where $n$ is the number of repetition of the fragment $G_{1}$.


Figure 6. The graph $G_{n}$ and the labeling of its vertices.


Figure 7. The graph of the dendrimer $D$.

### 3.5 Graph irregularity

Regularity of a graph is a binary property - a graph is either regular or not. However, while all regular graphs (of a given order and size) are equally regular, the non-regular graphs of the same order and size are not all equally far from being regular. There are several proposed measures of non-regularity of a graph. Most of them are based on measuring local discrepancies, i.e., quotients or differences of degrees of adjacent vertices. An example is the invariant, first introduced and studied by Albertson [1] and called irregularity. The irregularity of a graph $G$ is defined as

$$
\operatorname{irr}(G)=\sum_{u v \in E(G)}\left|d_{G}(u)-d_{G}(v)\right| .
$$

(The same quantity is sometimes called also the third Zagreb index.) Further examples are the ari-thmetic-geometric index and other indices based on combinations of various means of degrees of adjacent vertices.

Let $G$ be a graph on $n$ vertices and $m$ edges. It is clear from the Arithmetic-Geometric Mean inequality that the Narumi-Katayama index of a graph cannot exceed the $n$-th power of the average degree of the graph $\left(\frac{2 m}{n}\right)^{n}$. Furthermore, the bound is attained if and only if $G$ is regular. Hence, it is to be expected that a greater variability of degrees of vertices of $G$ will be reflected in a smaller value of its Narumi-Katayama index. This indeed seems to be the case. In Fig. 8 we show the scatter-plot of $\operatorname{irr}(G)$ vs. $N K(G)$ for all trees (left) and all unicyclic graphs (right) on 8 vertices.


Figure 8. The Narumi-Katayama index vs. irregularity for trees (left) and unicyclic graphs (right) on 8 vertices.

Although the exact nature of the relationship remains unexplored and the trend becomes less pronounced for denser graphs, it is clear that the Narumi-Katayama index can serve as a useful global measure of the graph irregularity.

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ The value of $\xi^{d}\left(C_{n, d}\right)$ in [40] is not correct. Here, we give the correct version.

