

# NOT EVERY UNIFORM TREE COVERS RAMANUJAN GRAPHS

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ABSTRACT. The notion of Ramanujan graph has been extended to not necessarily regular graphs by Y. Greenberg. We construct infinite trees with infinitely many finite quotients, none of which is Ramanujan. We give a sufficient condition for a finite graph to be covered by such a tree.

## 1. Introduction.

Let  $X$  be a finite (undirected) simple  $k$ -regular graph and  $\delta$  its adjacency matrix. The graph  $X$  is called *Ramanujan* if, for every eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $\delta$ , either  $\lambda = \pm k$  or  $|\lambda| \leq 2\sqrt{k-1}$ . It is a well known result of Alon and Boppana (see [LPS, Proposition 4.2]) that the bound  $|\lambda| \leq 2\sqrt{k-1}$  is the best possible if one seeks an infinite family of regular graphs of a fixed degree  $k$ .

Various constructions of families of Ramanujan graphs are known, all based on number theory (see [Lu1], [Va] and references therein). The most general one is due to M. Morgenstern [Mo] who constructed infinitely many  $k$ -regular Ramanujan graphs for every  $k$  of the form  $p^\alpha + 1$  when  $p$  is a prime and  $\alpha$  a positive integer. If  $k$  is not of this form, then only finitely many  $k$ -regular Ramanujan graphs are known.

**Problem 1.** *Let  $k \geq 3$  be an integer. Are there infinitely many  $k$ -regular Ramanujan graphs?*

Problem 1 is open for every  $k$  which is not of the form  $p^\alpha + 1$ . The smallest open case is  $k = 7$ . One is tempted to conjecture that there should be infinitely many  $k$ -regular Ramanujan graphs for every  $k \geq 3$ . From the combinatorial point of view, there seems to be no difference between  $k$  of the form  $p^\alpha + 1$  and others. Moreover, the results of J. Friedman, J. Kahn and E. Szemerédi show that, for every  $k$ , “almost every”  $k$ -regular graph is “almost Ramanujan” (see [Fr], [FKS] for precise definitions).

The purpose of this note is to illustrate that one should be more cautious in making such a conjecture.

In [Gr] Y. Greenberg introduced the notion of Ramanujan graph for a general finite graph (not necessarily regular). Namely, a finite graph  $X$  is called *Ramanujan* if for every non-trivial eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $X$  (i.e., except the Perron-Frobenius’s one

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*Key words and phrases.* Ramanujan graph, covering tree, spectral radius, minimal graph.

The first author acknowledges support from the “Fonds National Suisse de la Recherche Scientifique”.

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and its negative)  $|\lambda| \leq \rho(\tilde{X})$ , where  $\rho(\tilde{X})$  is the spectral radius of the universal covering tree  $\tilde{X}$  of  $X$ . (Note that if  $X$  is  $k$ -regular  $\rho(\tilde{X}) = 2\sqrt{k-1}$ .) Moreover, Greenberg extended the Alon-Boppana's result to the general case. One can now extend Problem 1 and ask the following question:

**Problem 2.** *Does every infinite uniform tree cover a Ramanujan graph? infinitely many such graphs?*

An infinite tree is called *uniform* if it covers some (and hence infinitely many) finite graphs. (A necessary and sufficient condition for a tree to be uniform is given in [BK].)

Problems 1 and 2 were stated in [Lu2], see also [Lu1, Problem 10.4.4, page 129]. In this note we show that the answer to Problem 2 is *No*! In fact, we present many examples of graphs  $X$  such that  $\tilde{X}$  covers no finite Ramanujan graph!

**Remark.** Observe however, that whenever  $X$  is a finite graph with a non-abelian fundamental group, its universal cover  $\tilde{X}$  covers an infinite family of expanders. Indeed, choose in  $\Gamma = \pi_1(X)$  an infinite family of normal subgroups  $\{N_i\}$ , such that  $\cap_{i=1}^{\infty} N_i = \{1\}$ , and  $\Gamma$  has property  $(\tau)$  with respect to  $\{N_i\}$ . It follows from [Lu3] that the covers  $\{X_i\}$  of  $X$  corresponding to  $\{N_i\}$  form a family of expanders.

The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we overview the work of Greenberg defining general Ramanujan graphs and bring in some simple lemmas estimating the spectral radius of a tree and eigenvalues of a graph. In Section 3 we describe, following [BT], minimal graphs and give a sufficient condition for the covering tree of a minimal graph to have no Ramanujan quotient. In Section 4 we exhibit examples satisfying this sufficient condition. Thus the answer to Problem 2 is negative.

**Acknowledgements.** The first author acknowledges the warm hospitality of the University of Geneva where this work was carried on. We are also grateful to Hyman Bass, Pierre de la Harpe, and Alain Valette for valuable remarks.

## 2. General Ramanujan graphs.

Let  $X = (V, E)$  be a connected undirected graph in which the degree  $\deg(x)$ , i.e., the number of incident edges of each vertex  $x$ , is at most  $k$ . Let  $l^2(X)$  denote the space of functions  $f$  on  $V(X)$  with  $\sum_{x \in V} |f(x)|^2 < \infty$  and  $\delta : l^2(X) \rightarrow l^2(X)$  be the *adjacency operator*, i.e.,  $(\delta f)(x) = \sum_y \delta_{x,y}(f(y))$ , where  $\delta_{x,y}$  denotes the number of edges connecting  $x$  and  $y$ .

Denote by  $\rho(X)$  the *spectral radius* of  $\delta$

$$\rho(X) = \sup\{|\lambda| \mid \lambda \in \text{spectrum of } \delta\} .$$

It is well known (see [Lu1, Chapter 4] and references therein) that

$$\rho(X) = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n^{1/n} ,$$

where  $a_n$  is the number of closed paths of length  $n$  in  $X$  starting from a fixed vertex  $x_0$  of  $X$ .

If  $Y_1, Y_2$  are two graphs, a morphism  $\pi : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$  is called a *cover map* if it is surjective and locally an isomorphism, namely, for every  $y \in Y_1$  it induces

an isomorphism from  $st(y)$  to  $st(\pi(y))$ , where  $st(y)$  denotes the set of vertices at distance at most 1 from  $y$ . It is not difficult to see ([Pa, Prop 2.1]) that if  $\pi : Y_1 \rightarrow Y_2$  is a cover map, then  $\rho(Y_1) \leq \rho(Y_2)$ . If  $Y_1$  is finite then  $\rho(Y_1) = \rho(Y_2)$ . A theorem of F. Leighton [Le] asserts that any two finite graphs  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  with the same universal covering tree have a common finite cover  $Y$ . One can now deduce

**Proposition 2.1 (Greenberg [Gr]).** *Let  $X$  be a connected locally finite graph and let  $\Omega_f(X)$  denote the family of finite graphs covered by  $X$ . If  $Y_1, Y_2 \in \Omega_f(X)$  then  $\rho(Y_1) = \rho(Y_2)$ . This common value is denoted by  $\chi(X)$ .*

**Example 2.2.** Let  $T_k$  be the infinite  $k$ -regular tree. Then  $\chi(T_k) = k$  while  $\rho(T_k) = 2\sqrt{k-1}$  (see [Lu1, Chapter 4]).

Let  $X$  be a fixed, connected, infinite, locally finite graph. For  $Y \in \Omega_f(X)$  of order  $n$ , denote by  $\lambda_0(Y) > \lambda_1(Y) \geq \lambda_2(Y) \geq \dots \geq \lambda_{n-1}(Y)$  the eigenvalues of  $Y$  and  $\text{spec}(Y) = \{\lambda_0(Y), \dots, \lambda_{n-1}(Y)\}$ . It follows from the Perron-Frobenius' Theorem that  $\lambda_0(Y) = \chi(X)$ .

**Theorem 2.3 (Greenberg [Gr]).** *Given  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $c = c(X, \epsilon) \in (0, 1)$ , such that for every  $Y \in \Omega_f(X)$ ,*

$$|\{\lambda \in \text{spec}(Y) \mid \lambda \leq \rho(X) - \epsilon\}| < c|Y|$$

and

$$|\{\lambda \in \text{spec}(Y) \mid \lambda \geq -\rho(X) + \epsilon\}| < c|Y|,$$

*i.e., at least a  $(1-c)$  fraction of the eigenvalues of  $Y$  is greater than  $\rho(X) - \epsilon$ , and similarly at least a  $(1-c)$  fraction of the eigenvalues of  $Y$  is smaller than  $-\rho(X) + \epsilon$ .*

Theorem 2.3 is a far reaching generalization of the following well known result of Alon and Boppana. (It also extends some unpublished results of M. Burger and J.-P. Serre, see [Li, Chapter 9, Theorem 13].)

**Theorem 2.4.** *If  $(X_n)$  is an infinite family of  $k$ -regular graphs (with  $k$  fixed) then  $\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_1(X_n) \geq 2\sqrt{k-1}$ .*

Theorem 2.4 has been the motivation for the definition of Ramanujan  $k$ -regular graphs. Namely, a finite  $k$ -regular graph  $X$  is called *Ramanujan* if for every eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $X$ , either  $\lambda = \pm k$  or  $|\lambda| \leq 2\sqrt{k-1}$ .

Theorem 2.3 justifies the following definition.

**Definition 2.5.** *A finite connected graph  $X$  is called Ramanujan if for every eigenvalue  $\lambda$  of  $X$  either  $\lambda = \pm\chi(\tilde{X})$  or  $|\lambda| \leq \rho(\tilde{X})$ , where  $\rho(\tilde{X})$  is the spectral radius of the covering tree  $\tilde{X}$ , and  $\chi(\tilde{X})$  as in Proposition 2.1.*

Note that the largest eigenvalue of  $X$  is always equal to  $\chi(\tilde{X})$  (it is of multiplicity one since  $X$  is connected). The smallest one is equal to  $-\chi(\tilde{X})$  if and only if  $X$  is bipartite.

We end this section with three simple lemmas estimating the spectral radius and eigenvalues.

**Lemma 2.6.** *Let  $T$  be an infinite tree with  $\deg(x) \leq k$  for every vertex  $x$  of  $T$ . Then*

$$\rho(T) \leq \rho(T_k) = 2\sqrt{k-1},$$

where  $T_k$  is the  $k$ -regular tree.

*Proof.* As mentioned above,  $\rho(T) = \liminf a_n(T)^{1/n}$ , where  $a_n(T)$  is the number of closed paths of length  $n$  in  $T$  starting from a fixed vertex  $x_0$ . Since the degree of each vertex of  $T$  is less than  $k$ , it is clear that  $a_n(T) \leq a_n(T_k)$  for each  $n$ . Hence  $\rho(T) \leq \rho(T_k)$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 2.7 (Interlacing of eigenvalues).** *Let  $X$  be a finite graph with  $n$  vertices and eigenvalues  $\theta_1 \geq \theta_2 \geq \dots \geq \theta_n$ . Let  $x_0$  be a vertex of  $X$  and  $Y = X \setminus \{x_0\}$  the graph obtained from  $X$  by deleting  $x_0$  and all edges incident to it. Let  $\tau_1 \geq \tau_2 \geq \dots \geq \tau_{n-1}$  be the eigenvalues of  $Y$ . Then*

$$\theta_1 \geq \tau_1 \geq \theta_2 \geq \tau_2 \geq \dots \geq \theta_{n-1} \geq \tau_{n-1} \geq \theta_n.$$

*Proof.* See [Go, Theorem 5.3, page 29].  $\square$

**Lemma 2.8.** *The largest eigenvalue of a finite graph  $X$  is bounded from below by the average degree of  $X$  with the equality holding if and only if the graph is regular.*

*Proof.* See [Bi, page 54].  $\square$

### 3. Minimal graphs.

**Definition 3.1.** *A finite graph  $X$  is called minimal if it is equal to the universal covering  $\tilde{X}$  of  $X$  divided by the full automorphism group of  $\tilde{X}$*

$$X = \tilde{X}/\text{Aut}(\tilde{X}).$$

In [BT] a method is developed which allows to establish whether a given finite graph  $X = (V, E)$  (or more generally an “indexed graph”) is minimal. For each vertex  $a$  of  $X$  and a set of vertices  $B$ , let  $E(a, B)$  be the set of edges connecting  $a$  and  $B$  and let  $i(a, B)$  denote  $|E(a, B)|$ .

Define a descending sequence  $R_n$  of equivalence relations on  $V$  (viewed as subsets of  $V \times V$ ) as follows. The relation  $R_0$  is defined to be the “egalitarian relation”, i.e., all vertices are  $R_0$ -equivalent. Define  $R_{n+1}$  inductively by  $aR_{n+1}b$  if and only if  $aR_nb$  and  $i(a, C) = i(b, C)$  for any  $R_n$ -class  $C$ .

Note that  $aR_1b$  if and only if  $\deg(a) = \deg(b)$ . Also  $aR_2b$  if and only if  $\deg(a) = \deg(b)$  and, for every  $l \geq 1$ , the number of neighbours of  $a$  of degree  $l$  is equal to the number of neighbours of  $b$  of the same degree. Now  $aR_3b$  if and only if  $aR_2b$  and, for all  $l, m, n \geq 1$ ,  $|\{x \in V \mid a \sim x; \deg(x) = l; x \text{ has } m \text{ neighbours of degree } n\}| = |\{x \in V \mid b \sim x; \deg(x) = l; x \text{ has } m \text{ neighbours of degree } n\}|$ .

In general, the definition of the relation  $R_n$  for an arbitrary  $n$  can be restated as follows. For a vertex  $a \in V(X)$  of degree  $k_0$ , let  $\deg_{k_0, k_1, \dots, k_n}(a)$  denote the number of paths  $(a = a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n)$  in  $X$ , such that  $\deg(a_i) = k_i$  (note that backtracking is allowed in a path). Vertices  $a$  and  $b$  are  $R_n$ -equivalent,  $aR_nb$ , if and only if  $\deg_{k_0, k_1, \dots, k_m}(a) = \deg_{k_0, k_1, \dots, k_m}(b)$  for every  $m \leq n$  and for every  $(m+1)$ -tuple

$k_0, \dots, k_m$ . (Remark that each  $k_i$  takes values in the finite interval  $[\min\{\deg(x) \mid x \in V(X)\}, \max\{\deg(x) \mid x \in V(X)\}]$ .)

These relations stabilize at some relation  $R_n = R$  for all  $n$  large enough. One can form the quotient graph  $X^*$  whose vertices are the  $R$ -classes of vertices of  $V$ . Two vertices  $a^*$  and  $b^*$  of  $X^*$  are connected by an edge if and only if  $i(a, b^*) > 0$  (note that this number depends only on  $a^*$  and not on a representant  $a$  of  $a^*$  since the relation  $R$  is stable). The following is shown in [BT]:

**Theorem 3.2.** *The graph  $X^*$  is isomorphic to  $\tilde{X}/\text{Aut}(\tilde{X})$ .*

If  $X = X^*$  then each class  $a^*$  consists of one vertex  $a$ , hence it is impossible to make a proper quotient of  $X$  and  $X = \tilde{X}/\text{Aut}(\tilde{X})$ . On the other hand, note that if  $X$  is  $k$ -regular then  $X^*$  contains a single vertex.

We can now state the main result.

**Theorem 3.3.** *Let  $X$  be a finite minimal graph with a cut vertex  $x_0$ , that is, if we delete  $x_0$  and the edges incident to it we are left with two disjoint non-empty subgraphs, say  $Y$  and  $Z$ . Assume that*

- (1)  $\deg(x) \leq k$  for every vertex  $x$  of  $X$ ;
- (2) *the average degrees of both  $Y$  and  $Z$  are strictly greater than  $2\sqrt{k-1}$ .*

*Then the universal cover  $\tilde{X}$  of  $X$  is a locally finite uniform tree which covers no Ramanujan graph.*

*Proof.* The universal cover  $\tilde{X}$  of  $X$  is a tree with the degree of every vertex at most  $k$ . Thus by Lemma 2.6,  $\rho(\tilde{X}) \leq 2\sqrt{k-1}$ . Let  $X_0$  be the graph obtained from  $X$  by deleting  $x_0$ . Then the two largest eigenvalues of  $X_0$  denoted by  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  satisfy  $\tau_i > 2\sqrt{k-1}$  for  $i = 1, 2$  (the values  $\tau_1$  and  $\tau_2$  might coincide). Indeed,  $\rho(Y)$  and  $\rho(Z)$  are both eigenvalues of  $X_0$ , and by assumption (2) and Lemma 2.8,  $\rho(Y)$  and  $\rho(Z)$  are both strictly greater than  $2\sqrt{k-1}$ , hence  $\tau_i > 2\sqrt{k-1}$  for  $i = 1, 2$ . By Lemma 2.7 the second largest eigenvalue of  $X$  is strictly greater than  $2\sqrt{k-1}$ , hence also strictly greater than  $\rho(\tilde{X})$ . This proves that  $X$  is not Ramanujan.

If  $X'$  is any finite quotient of  $\tilde{X}$ , then  $X$  is a quotient of  $X'$  since  $X$  is minimal. Hence every eigenvalue of  $X$  is also an eigenvalue of  $X'$ , and  $X'$  is not Ramanujan either. This proves that  $\tilde{X}$  has no Ramanujan quotients, as claimed.  $\square$

#### 4. Examples.

We construct now a series of examples of graphs which satisfy all the assumptions of Theorem 3.3 and therefore their universal covers cover no Ramanujan graph.

**Example 1.** The first class of examples (see Figure 1) is parametrized by two integers  $m > l > 1$ . Each graph  $X_{m,l}$  is formed of two subgraphs  $X_m, X_l$  connected by a bridge of length 2. There are  $2m + 1$  vertices in the graph  $X_m$ : vertices  $u_1, \dots, u_m$ ; vertices  $\tilde{u}_1, \dots, \tilde{u}_{m-1}$ ; a vertex  $U$  which is adjacent to all the vertices of the graph  $X_m$  and is therefore of degree  $2m$ ; a vertex  $u_0$  which is adjacent to the vertices  $U, u_1, \dots, u_m$  and is also an extremity of the “bridge” connecting  $X_m$  with  $X_l$  in  $X_{m,l}$  (thus  $u_0$  is of degree  $m + 1$  in  $X_m$  but of degree  $m + 2$  in  $X_{m,l}$ ). The vertices  $u_1, \dots, u_m$  are adjacent to  $u_0, U$  and to the vertices  $\tilde{u}_j$  with  $j < i$ . Thus a vertex  $u_i$  is of degree  $i + 1$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . A vertex  $\tilde{u}_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, m - 1$  is adjacent to the vertex  $U$  and to the vertices  $u_i$  with  $i > j$ , hence is of degree

$m - j + 1$ . Similarly, the graph  $X_l$  has the vertices  $v_1, \dots, v_l; \tilde{v}_1, \dots, \tilde{v}_{l-1}; v_0; V$ , and the adjacency structure analogous to that of  $X_m$ . The graph  $X_{m,l}$  is formed by connecting  $u_0$  and  $v_0$  to a vertex  $c$ , thus constructing a “bridge” between  $X_m$  and  $X_l$ .

We first prove that  $X_{m,l}$  is minimal. The vertex  $U$  is not  $R_1$ -equivalent to any other vertex because it is the only vertex of degree  $2m$ . The vertex  $V$  is not  $R_1$ -equivalent to any vertex of  $X_l$ , and also not  $R_2$ -equivalent to any vertex in  $X_m$  because  $V$  and  $U$  are not adjacent. Therefore all vertices of  $X_m$  are not  $R_2$ -equivalent to the vertices of  $X_l$  (being all adjacent respectively to  $U$  and  $V$ ). The vertex  $c$  of degree 2 in the middle of the bridge is not  $R_2$ -equivalent to any other vertex because it is the only vertex not adjacent to  $U$  or  $V$ .

Finally we check that no two vertices of  $X_m$  (and similarly for  $X_l$ ) are  $R_2$ -equivalent. The vertex  $u_0$  is the only vertex of degree  $m+2$ , thus not  $R_1$ -equivalent to any other vertex. The vertices  $u_1, \dots, u_m$  (and similarly the vertices  $\tilde{u}_1, \dots, \tilde{u}_{m-1}$ ) are not  $R_1$ -equivalent because they are all of different degrees. A vertex  $u_i$  is not  $R_2$ -equivalent to a vertex  $\tilde{u}_j$  because  $u_i$  is adjacent to  $u_0$  and  $\tilde{u}_j$  is not.

Let us check now the other assumptions of Theorem 3.3. All vertices of  $X_{m,l}$  are of degree at most  $2m$ . The average degrees of  $X_m$  and  $X_l$  are respectively  $(m^2 + 5m)/(2m + 1)$  and  $(l^2 + 5l)/(2l + 1)$ . It is clear that when  $m$  is very big and  $l$  is not very different from  $m$ , both average degrees are bigger than  $2\sqrt{2m-1}$  (and hence  $X_{m,l}$  is not Ramanujan). The smallest possible values are  $l = 24, m = 25$ .

The graphs  $X_{m,l}$  are very far from being regular, that is, the degrees of their vertices vary from 2 to  $m+1$ . In fact, one can also find examples of graphs satisfying all the assumptions of Theorem 3.3 with vertices of only two different degrees.

**Example 2.** All vertices of the graph  $X$  (see Figure 2) are of degree 5 or 6. The vertices of degree 5 are marked by “tildas” on the picture. Others are of degree 6. We will check the minimality of the graph  $X$  with help of the table below.

vertex of $X$	degree	adjacent vertices	number of neighbours of degree 6
$u$	6	$l_1, l_2, l_3, l_4, l_5, l_6$	6
$l_1$	6	$u, \tilde{l}_2, \tilde{l}_3, \tilde{l}_4, \tilde{l}_5, \tilde{l}_6$	1
$l_2$	6	$u, l_6, \tilde{l}_3, \tilde{l}_4, \tilde{l}_5, \tilde{u}$	2
$l_3$	6	$u, l_4, l_6, \tilde{l}_3, \tilde{l}_4, \tilde{u}$	3
$l_4$	6	$u, l_3, l_5, l_6, \tilde{l}_6, \tilde{u}$	4
$l_5$	6	$u, l_4, l_6, \tilde{l}_2, \tilde{l}_3, \tilde{u}$	3
$l_6$	6	$u, l_2, l_3, l_4, l_5, \tilde{u}$	5
$\tilde{u}$	5	$l_2, l_3, l_4, l_5, l_6$	5
$\tilde{l}_1$	5	$c, \tilde{l}_2, \tilde{l}_3, \tilde{l}_4, \tilde{l}_5$	1
$\tilde{l}_2$	5	$c, l_1, l_5, \tilde{l}_1, \tilde{l}_6$	3
$\tilde{l}_3$	5	$l_1, l_2, l_3, l_5, \tilde{l}_1$	4
$\tilde{l}_4$	5	$l_1, l_2, l_3, \tilde{l}_1, \tilde{l}_5$	3
$\tilde{l}_5$	5	$l_1, l_2, \tilde{l}_1, \tilde{l}_4, \tilde{l}_6$	2
$\tilde{l}_6$	5	$c, l_1, l_4, \tilde{l}_2, \tilde{l}_5$	3

$c$	6	$r_5, r_4, r_3, \tilde{l}_1, \tilde{l}_2, \tilde{l}_6$	3
$r_1$	6	$r_2, r_3, r_5, \tilde{r}_1, \tilde{r}_2, \tilde{r}_3$	3
$r_2$	6	$r_5, r_1, \tilde{r}_1, \tilde{r}_3, \tilde{r}_4, \tilde{r}_5$	2
$r_3$	6	$c, r_1, r_4, r_5, \tilde{r}_1, \tilde{r}_3$	4
$r_4$	6	$c, r_3, r_5, \tilde{r}_1, \tilde{r}_4, \tilde{r}_5$	3
$r_5$	6	$c, r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4, \tilde{r}_2$	5
$v$	6	$\tilde{r}_1 \tilde{r}_2, \tilde{r}_3, \tilde{r}_4, \tilde{r}_5, \tilde{r}_6$	0
$\tilde{v}$	5	$\tilde{r}_2, \tilde{r}_3, \tilde{r}_4, \tilde{r}_5, \tilde{r}_6$	0
$\tilde{r}_1$	5	$v, r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4$	5
$\tilde{r}_2$	5	$v, r_1, r_5, \tilde{v}, \tilde{r}_6$	3
$\tilde{r}_3$	5	$v, r_2, r_3, r_4, \tilde{v}$	4
$\tilde{r}_4$	5	$v, r_2, r_4, \tilde{v}, \tilde{r}_6$	3
$\tilde{r}_5$	5	$v, r_1, r_2, \tilde{v}, \tilde{r}_6$	3
$\tilde{r}_6$	5	$v, \tilde{v}, \tilde{r}_2, \tilde{r}_4, \tilde{r}_5$	1

The vertices of degree 5 are not  $R_1$ -equivalent to the vertices of degree 6. The vertices of a same degree which have different numbers of neighbours of degree 6 are not  $R_2$ -equivalent. The vertices  $l_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, 6$ , are not  $R_3$ -equivalent to the vertices  $r_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, 5$ , because each vertex  $l_i$  and no vertex  $r_j$  is adjacent with  $u$  which is the only vertex with 6 neighbours of degree 6. The vertices  $\tilde{l}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, 6$ , are not  $R_3$ -equivalent to the vertices  $\tilde{r}_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, 6$ , because each vertex  $\tilde{r}_j$  and no vertex  $\tilde{l}_i$  is adjacent to one of two vertices  $v, \tilde{v}$  which have 0 neighbours of degree 6.

Among the vertices  $l_1, \dots, l_6$  only  $l_3$  and  $l_5$  are  $R_2$ -equivalent. The neighbours of degree 5 of  $l_3$  are  $\tilde{l}_3, \tilde{l}_4, \tilde{u}$ ; the neighbours of degree 5 of  $l_5$  are  $\tilde{l}_3, \tilde{l}_2, \tilde{u}$ . Both vertices  $\tilde{l}_2$  and  $\tilde{l}_4$  have the same number of neighbours of degree 6 (hence also of degree 5). Therefore, the vertices  $l_3$  and  $l_5$  are also  $R_3$ -equivalent. But,  $\deg_{6,5,5,6}(l_3) = 4$  while  $\deg_{6,5,5,6}(l_5) = 5$ , thus  $l_3$  and  $l_5$  are not  $R_4$ -equivalent. The vertex  $c$  is  $R_2$  but not  $R_3$ -equivalent to  $l_3$  and  $l_5$ .

Analogously, looking at the adjacency table, one concludes that  $\tilde{l}_2, \tilde{l}_4, \tilde{l}_5$  are  $R_2$  but not  $R_3$ -equivalent.

The vertices  $c, r_1, r_4$  are  $R_2$  but not  $R_3$ -equivalent. The vertex  $\tilde{r}_2$  is  $R_2$  but not  $R_3$ -equivalent to the vertices  $\tilde{r}_4, \tilde{r}_5$ . The vertices  $\tilde{r}_4$  and  $\tilde{r}_5$  are  $R_3$  but not  $R_4$ -equivalent because the sets of their neighbours of degree 6 are different, and all vertices of type  $r_i$  are not  $R_3$ -equivalent (for example,  $\deg_{5,6,6,6}(\tilde{r}_4) = 12$  while  $\deg_{5,6,6,6}(\tilde{r}_5) = 11$ ).

Thus  $X$  is a minimal graph.

The vertex  $c$  is a cut-vertex in the graph  $X$ . After deleting it we get two components: the “left” one and the “right” one. The average degree of the “left” component is  $37/7$ , the average degree of the “right” component is  $68/13$ . Both average degrees are thus strictly greater than  $2\sqrt{5}$ , and the graph  $X$  is minimal and not Ramanujan. Hence all the assumptions of Theorem 3.3 are fulfilled, and  $\tilde{X}$  covers, therefore, no Ramanujan graph.

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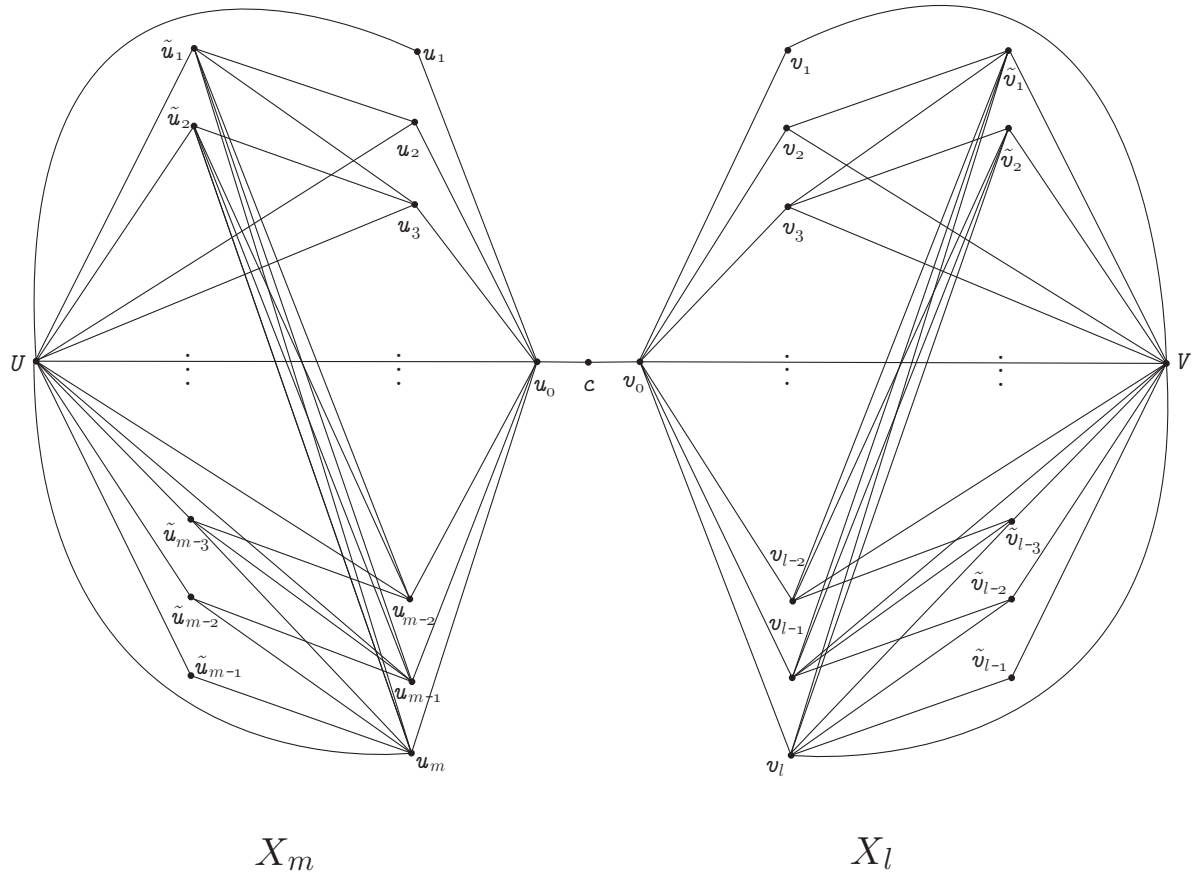
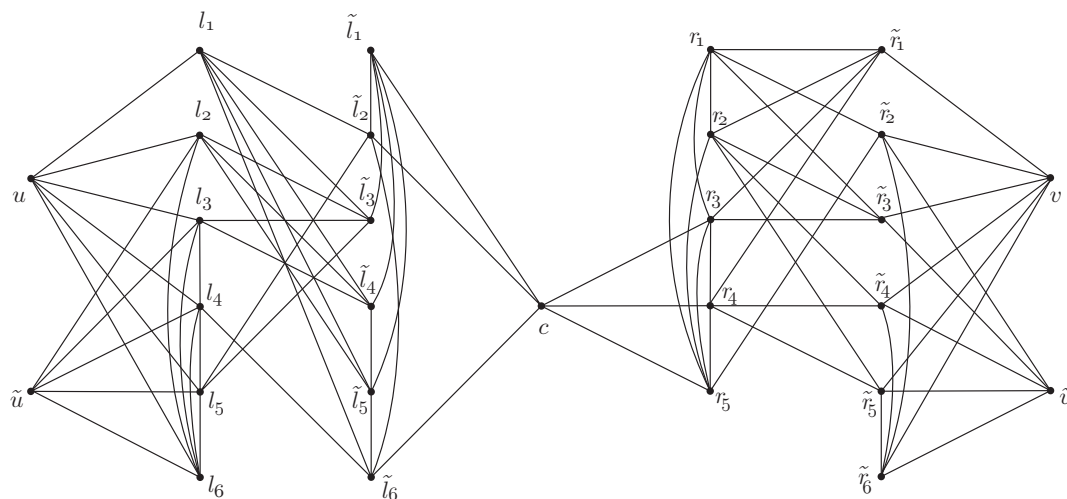


Figure 1



$X$

Figure 2

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