# ON THE GIRTH OF RANDOM CAYLEY GRAPHS 

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#### Abstract

We prove that random $d$-regular Cayley graphs of the symmetric group asymptotically almost surely have girth at least $\left(\log _{d-1}|G|\right)^{1 / 2} / 2$ and that random $d$-regular Cayley graphs of simple algebraic groups over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ asymptotically almost surely have girth at least $\log _{d-1}|G| / \operatorname{dim}(G)$. For the symmetric $p$-groups the girth is between $\log \log |G|$ and $(\log |G|)^{\alpha}$ with $\alpha<1$. Several conjectures and open questions are presented.


## 1. Introduction

The girth of a graph is the length of a shortest cycle. Finite regular graphs of large girth are a natural analogue to the infinite tree. While random regular graphs have nice expansion properties, their girth tends to be small, as small cycles can appear at many places independently. The objects of study of this paper, random Cayley graphs, overcome this problem. While being random, they are vertex-transitive, giving short cycles fewer opportunities to appear.

Graphs of large girth. Let $g=g(n, d)$ be the largest possible girth of a $d$-regular graph of size at most $n$. Deriving good bounds on $g(n, d)$ for any $d \geq 3$ is a notoriously hard problem. If we consider $d \geq 3$ fixed and growing $n$, the best asymptotic estimates known are:

$$
\begin{equation*}
(2+o(1)) \cdot \log _{d-1} n \geq g(n, d) \geq\left(\frac{4}{3}-o(1)\right) \cdot \log _{d-1} n . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

While it may appear that the problem is essentially solved, the constant factor gap is crucial here. Clearly, when considering the inverse of $g$ the constant factor gap becomes an exponent gap. Also, it is a small miracle that the lower bound constant $4 / 3$ is greater than 1 , see Conjecture 5 .

The first inequality in (11) is a version of the Moore bound. It is a consequence of a simple counting argument stating that a ball of radius $\lfloor(g-1) / 2\rfloor$ around a vertex (or an edge) is a tree, and therefore must have $\Omega\left((d-1)^{g / 2}\right)$ distinct vertices.

For a family of $d$-regular graphs $\mathcal{G}_{i}$ of logarithmic girth, let $\gamma\left(\left\{\mathcal{G}_{i}\right\}\right)=\lim \inf _{i \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\operatorname{girth}\left(\mathcal{G}_{i}\right)}{\log _{d-1}\left(\left|\mathcal{G}_{i}\right|\right)}$. Erdős and Sachs [16] described a simple procedure yielding families of graphs with large girth with $\gamma=1$. The first explicit construction of an infinite degree 4 family with $\gamma \approx 0.83$
was given by Margulis [31, who also gave examples of infinite families with arbitrary large degree and $\gamma \approx 0.44$; the constructions in question are Cayley graphs of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. Imrich [20], extending the work of Margulis, constructed a family of Cayley graphs of arbitrary degree with $\gamma \approx 0.48$, and cubic graphs with $\gamma \approx 0.96$. A family of geometrically defined cubic graphs introduced by Biggs and Hoare [11] was proven to have $\gamma \geq 4 / 3$ by Weiss [39].

Examples of graphs of arbitrarily large degree satisfying $\gamma \geq 4 / 3$ where given by Lubotzky, Phillips and Sarnak [27] and by by Margulis [32]: these are celebrated Ramanujan graphs $X^{p, q}$ - Cayley graphs of $P G L_{2}(q)$ with respect to a very special choice of $(p+1)$ generators, where $p$ and $q$ are primes congruent to $-1 \bmod p$ with the Legendre symbol $\left(\frac{p}{q}\right)=-1$. A similar result was obtained by Morgenstern [34 for any prime power in place of $p$. Biggs and Bosher [10] proved that the constant $\gamma=\frac{4}{3}$ for $X^{p, q}$ is essentially the best possible, namely they showed that

$$
\operatorname{girth}\left(X^{p, q}\right) \leq 4 \log _{p} q+\log _{p} 4+2 .
$$

For every prime power $q$ Lazebnik, Ustimenko, and Woldar [27] constructed families of $q$ regular graphs with $\gamma \geq \frac{4}{3} \log _{q}(q-1)$.

Random Cayley graphs. Let $G$ be a finite group and let $S \subset G$. The (undirected) Cayley graph $\mathcal{G}(G, S)$ is the undirected graph with the vertex set $G$ and the edge set $\{(g, g s): g \in$ $\left.G, s \in S \cup S^{-1}\right\}$. Given some group $G$, a random $2 k$-regular Cayley graph of $G$ is the Cayley graph $\mathcal{G}\left(G, S \cup S^{-1}\right)$ where $S$ is a set of $k$ elements from $G$, selected independently and uniformly at random.

The properties of this model for random graphs received considerable attention in the last decade. The expansion of such graphs (for $|S|$ growing with $|G|$ ) was considered by AlonRoichman [4], Pak [35] and Landau-Russell [25]. The diameter of random Cayley graphs on the symmetric group was considered by Babai et al. [8, 6, 7].

In this work we consider the girth of random Cayley graphs on various groups. It turns out that random Cayley graphs of the symmetric group and of the algebraic groups over finite fields, tend to have high girth. This is in contrast to random $d$-regular graphs that tend to have constant girth [21, 33].

Fixed walks in random graphs. In the classical models for random walks in random environment, an environment is created by some random process, then a particle performs a random walk on this environment.

Normally, there are two ways to look at such walks; quenched properties of the random walk are for the typical environment, and annealed properties of the random walk are averaged over environments.

The model of random Cayley graphs allows for a third interpretation, as the random walk (a sequence of symbols $w=w_{1} w_{2} \cdots w_{n}$ from $S$ ) can be fixed in advance of generating the random graphs. Thus, for a random Cayley graph model we can always talk about the fixed walk on the random graph, which, equivalently, is a random evaluation of the word $w$.

All of our girth results are based on bounds on the return probability of fixed walks on random graphs. More precisely, given a sequence of groups, we will show that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sup _{|w| \leq \ell_{n}} P_{G_{n}}(w=1)=o\left((d-1)^{-\ell_{n}}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

See Section 2 for further details and discussion.

Results in this paper. We study the girth of random Cayley graphs for three natural classes of groups. The methods used to prove (2) are unique to each class. While the firstorder asymptotics of the girth is still an open problem in all cases, our results give bounds of varying precision.

The most general such result is a simple corollary of the following theorem, due to Dixon, Pyber, Seress and Shalev [14]:

Theorem 1. [14] Let $G_{n}$ be a sequence of simple groups with increasing order, and let $w$ be a word. Then as $n \rightarrow \infty, P\left(w=1\right.$ in $\left.G_{n}\right) \rightarrow 0$.

Corollary 2. For $k$ random generators, $\operatorname{girth}\left(G_{n}\right) \rightarrow \infty$ in probability.
In the case of the symmetric group, we show the following in section 3,
Theorem 3. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, a.a.s. the girth of the d-regular random Cayley graph of $S_{n}$ is at least $(1 / 2-o(1)) \cdot \sqrt{\log _{d-1}\left|S_{n}\right|}$.

However, we conjecture that the girth is equal to $O\left(\log \left|S_{n}\right|\right)$.
In section 4 we consider families of simple groups of Lie type; in this case representations as matrices is very helpful and we can get stronger bounds.

Theorem 4. As $q \rightarrow \infty$ a.a.s. the girth of the d-regular random Cayley graph of $G\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)$, where $G$ is a simple group of fixed Lie type and fixed rank over $\mathbb{F}_{q}$ is at least $(\gamma-o(1)) \log _{d-1}\left|G\left(\mathbb{F}_{q}\right)\right|$ with $\gamma=1 / \operatorname{dim}(G)$.

The bound in Theorem 4 is optimal except for the crucial constant $\gamma$. It should be noted that the construction yielding the lower bound in (1) is a Cayley graph of $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)$. However, it seems from computer experiments (section 4.2), that such a result (or even a lower bound of $\left.1 \cdot \log _{d-1}|G|\right)$ is unlikely for a random Cayley graph of $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)$. In fact, achieving better girth than $\log _{d-1}|G|$ seems to be a barrier for many combinatorial constructions such as the result of Erdős and Sachs [16].

The $\gamma=1$ threshold can be obtained as a consequence of the following appealing heuristics. Let $w\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ be a fixed word in a free group on $k$ generators $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$. Let $f_{w}\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)$ be an element in $G$ obtained by substituting $x_{i}=g_{i}$. Define

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{G}(w)=\operatorname{Prob}\left[f_{w}\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)=1\right] \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose that for a fixed short words $w$ we have $P_{G}(w) \sim 1 /|G|$, and that the events $\left[f_{w_{1}}=1\right]$ and $\left[f_{w_{2}}=1\right]$ are independent for "generic" $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$. Then by counting words we could easily get that $\operatorname{girth}(G) / \log _{d-1}|G| \rightarrow 1$ as $|G| \rightarrow \infty$ a.a.s.

Both of these assumptions are false. It seems that it is not possible to decrease the satisfaction probability for a sufficiently large number of words, but it is possible to increase it, for example in Abelian groups.

The independence assumption is not needed for the lower bound (where the union bound can be used), but problematic positive correlations arise when one tries to prove upper bounds. Yet we believe that for random Cayley graphs, a stronger version of the Moore bound holds (with constant 1 instead of 2 ).

Conjecture 5. Let $\left\{G_{n}\right\}$ be a sequence of groups. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, a.a.s. the girth of the $d$-regular random Cayley graph of $G_{n}$ is at most $(1+o(1)) \log _{d-1}\left|G_{n}\right|$.

The third family of groups we are considering are $p$-groups, which may be thought of as an intermediate class between Abelian groups (where the girth is at most 4) and simple groups (where the girth can be logarithmic). This is the only case where we have an upper bound better than Moore's.

The symmetric $p$-group $W_{n}(p)$ of height $n$ is the $n$-fold iterated wreath product of $\mathbb{Z} /(p \mathbb{Z})$. It is isomorphic to the Sylow $p$-subgroup of the symmetric group $\operatorname{Sym}\left(p^{n}\right)$. It plays the role analogous to the symmetric group in the realm of $p$-groups: it is a basic family of groups containing all finite $p$-groups as subgroups.

Theorem 6. As $n \rightarrow \infty$, a.a.s. the girth $g_{n}$ of the d-regular random Cayley graph of the symmetric $p$-group $G=W_{n}(p)$ satisfies

$$
(1-o(1)) \beta \log \log |G| \leq g_{n} \leq(1+o(1))(\log |G|)^{\alpha}
$$

where $\alpha<1$ is a constant depending on $p$ only, and $\beta$ depends on $p$ and $d$.
In Section 5, we present the proof of Theorem 6, as well as heuristics to show why the upper bound should be closer to the truth. It turns out that it helps to relate this problem to a simple toy model for genetics.

A basic question in this direction is
Question 7. Does there exist a sequence of p-groups of increasing order with random Cayley graphs of logarithmic girth?

We conclude the paper in section 6 by commenting on the analog of large girth property in the case of compact Lie groups.

## 2. The union bound and worst case analysis

In all of our proofs we estimate the probability that a given word evaluates to the identity, thus creating a short cycle. All of our girth results are based on bounding the probability of random elements to satisfy a given word. More precisely, given a sequence of groups $G_{n}$, and a word $w$ in $d$ generators for a fixed $d>2$, we show that

$$
\sup _{|w| \leq \ell_{n}} P_{G_{n}}(w=1)=o\left((d-1)^{-\ell_{n}}\right)
$$

for some sequence $\ell_{n}$. Summing over all words we get that

$$
\begin{align*}
P\left(\operatorname{girth} G_{n} \leq \ell_{n}\right) & =P\left(w=1 \text { in } G_{n} \text { for some }|w| \leq \ell_{n}\right) \\
& \leq \sum_{|w| \leq \ell_{n}} P\left(w=1 \text { in } G_{n}\right)  \tag{4}\\
& \leq \#\left\{w:|w| \leq \ell_{n}\right\} \sup _{|w| \leq \ell_{n}} P\left(w=1 \text { in } G_{n}\right)  \tag{5}\\
& =\left(1+d \sum_{l=0}^{l_{n}}(d-1)^{l}\right) o\left((d-1)^{\ell_{n}}\right) \\
& =o(1)
\end{align*}
$$

We believe that the sup bound (5) is wasteful; see Remark 1 in the next section.
The other potentially wasteful part is the union (4) bound, which is not far off when events are not positively correlated. However, it seems that at least in some cases, there are
correlations. For example, consider words $w$ and $w^{\prime}$ in two generators, $a, b$. In a significantly large portion of such words, the exponent sum of $a$ equals 0 . Thus $w=w^{\prime}=1$ if $b=1$, giving $P\left(w=w^{\prime}=1\right) \geq 1 /|G|$. Typically, we expect $P(w=1) \asymp 1 /|G|$, and so the uncorrelated case would be $P\left(w=w^{\prime}=1\right) \asymp 1 /|G|^{2}$. We don't know how to take advantage of these correlations for lower bounds. Moreover, they have blocked our attempts for upper bounds on girth via the second moment method.
2.1. Limits of the union bound. The expression in the union bound (4) can be written as a double sum

$$
\sum_{|w| \leq \ell_{n}} P\left(w=1 \text { in } G_{n}\right)=|G|^{-k} \sum_{|w|<\ell_{n}} \sum_{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}} \mathbf{1}\left(w\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)=1\right)
$$

where 1 is 1 if its argument is true and zero otherwise. Switching the order of summation and changing back to probabilities gives

$$
|G|^{-k} d(d-1)^{\ell-1} \sum_{g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}} P(w=1)
$$

where $w$ now is a uniform random reduced word of length $\ell$. If $w$ was just a uniformly chosen word, then $P(w=1)$ would mean the chance that a random walk on $G$ with generators $\left\{g_{k}\right\}$ is at the origin at time $n$. It is easy to check (and well-known, see [5] p.139) that for even $\ell$ this probability is at least $1 /|G|$. Using this it is possible to show that if $\ell_{n} \geq(1+\epsilon) \log _{d-1}\left|G_{n}\right|$, then (4) cannot be $o(1)$, and no proof using the union bound could work to show that the girth is at least $(1+\epsilon) \log _{d-1}|G|$.
2.2. Random evaluation of words. Bounds on $P(w=1)$ have appeared in the literature [14]. A nice bound, using transitivity properties of groups appears in [1]. In [22] it is shown that only finitely many finite simple groups satisfy a given non-trivial law $w$. Word maps are studied in [26, 37].

It is also natural to ask (in context of the last paragraph) for which groups do we have $P(w=1) \geq 1 /|G|$. Perhaps surprisingly, It turns out that this is always true for all words in one or two generators, but not necessarily for three. See [2] for many counterexamples and discussion.

## 3. Random Cayley graphs of $S_{n}$

For some $k \geq 2$, let $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}$ be independent uniform random permutations from $S_{n}$. Let $d=2 k$, and $S=\left\{\sigma_{1}^{ \pm 1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}^{ \pm 1}\right\}$. We prove for $G=C\left(S_{n}, S\right)$ that a.a.s $\operatorname{girth}(G) \geq$ $c \cdot \sqrt{n \log n / \log (d-1)}$ for any constant $c<1 / 2$.

Remark 1. The crucial bound used in our proof of Theorem 3 is the upper bound on $P_{G}(w)$, which holds for all non-trivial words of length at most $l$. We observe that, for the power word $w=a^{l}$, this bound is almost tight. Indeed, $P_{G}(w)$ is at least the probability that the first $\lfloor n / l\rfloor$ cycles of a random permutation in $S_{n}$ have length $l$. Therefore

$$
P_{G}(w) \geq \prod_{i=0}^{\lfloor n / l\rfloor-1} 1 /(n-i l) \geq(1 / n)^{\frac{n}{l}}
$$

Therefore in order to improve upon Theorem 3, by more than a constant factor, one needs either to avoid the union bound on $w$ or refine the upper bound on $P_{G}(w)$ to incorporate more information on the structure of $w$.

Proof of Theorem 3. Our first observation is that the girth of $G$ is the length of the shortest non-trivial relation between $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}$. Therefore, $\operatorname{girth}(G) \geq g$ with high probability, if for most choices of $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}$, no non-trivial word in $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}$ of length smaller than $g$ is the identity permutation. Clearly, it suffices to check only non-trivial cyclically reduced words of length $\ell<g$. Namely words $w=s_{0} \cdots s_{\ell-1}$, satisfying $s_{i} \neq s_{i+1}^{-1}(\bmod \ell)$ for $0, \ldots, \ell-1$. We denote the set of such words by $\operatorname{Irred}_{g}$; clearly $\left|\operatorname{Irred}_{g}\right| \leq(d-1)^{g}$. The probability of $\operatorname{girth}(G)<g$ is bounded by $\sum_{w \in \operatorname{Irred}_{g}} P_{G}(w)$, where $P_{G}(w)$, defined in (3) denotes the probability that $w$ is the identity permutation. That is $P_{G}(w)$ is the probability that $w$ fixes all the $n$ points $1, \ldots, n$.

Given a word $w=s_{0} \cdots s_{\ell-1}$ and some starting point $x_{1}$, we trace the path $x_{1}, x_{1} s_{0}, x_{1} s_{0} s_{1}, \ldots$, exposing the necessary entries of the permutations $\sigma_{1}, \ldots, \sigma_{k}$ one by one. In order that $w$ will fix $x_{1}$, some coincidence must occur. That is, when exposing the entries of the path starting at $x_{1}$, there has to be a first time when the path arrives at $x_{1}$ by some permutation different from $s_{0}^{-1}$. The probability of such an event occurring at any specific step $i$ is bounded by $1 /(n-e)$, where $e$ is the number of entries exposed so far. Since $e$ is at most $\ell$, and since there are at most $\ell$ choices for $i$, we have $\operatorname{Pr}\left[x_{1} w=x_{1}\right] \leq \ell /(n-\ell)$.

Suppose that we already verified that $w$ fixes $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{m-1}$ by exposing the necessary entries. Then we have exposed at most $(m-1) \cdot \ell$ entries. As long as this number is smaller than $n$, we can choose a point $x_{m}$ such that no entry involving $x_{m}$ was exposed yet. Repeating the previous argument, yields an upper bound of $\ell /(n-m \ell)$ on the probability that $w$ fixes $x_{m}$, even when conditioning on the previously exposed entries. Therefore the probability that $w$ is the identity permutation is bounded by $(\ell /(n-m \ell))^{m}$, as long as $m \ell<n$. Substituting $m=n /(2 \ell)$, yields the bound

$$
\begin{equation*}
P(w) \leq(2 \ell / n)^{n /(2 \ell)} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Therefore

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{girth}(G)<g] \leq\left|\operatorname{Irred}_{g}\right| \cdot(2 g / n)^{n /(2 g)} \leq(d-1)^{g} \cdot(2 g / n)^{n /(2 g)}
$$

Setting $g=c \cdot \sqrt{n \log n / \log (d-1)}$ for any constant $c<1 / 2$, yields the required result:

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[\operatorname{girth}(G)<g]) \leq \exp (-\Omega(\sqrt{n \log n \log (d-1)}))
$$

## 4. Random Cayley graphs of simple groups of Lie type

Before proving Theorem 4 in general (in section 4.4), we give an elementary proof for the group $\mathrm{SL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ (in section4.1) and discuss computer experiments (section4.2) and connection between girth and expansion (section 4.3) in the case of this group.
4.1. Random Cayley graphs of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. We begin by giving an elementary proof of the lower bound on the girth of a random $2 k$-regular Cayley graph of the group $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ for prime $p$; the proof for $\mathrm{SL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is similar. The Cayley graph is constructed with respect to the set $S=\left\{g_{1}^{ \pm 1}, \ldots, g_{k}^{ \pm 1}\right\}$, where $d=2 k$ and $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}$ are independent uniform random elements from $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$.

Theorem 8. As $p \rightarrow \infty$, a.a.s.the girth of the d-regular random Cayley graph of $G=$ $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ or of $G=\mathrm{SL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is at least $(1 / 3-o(1)) \cdot \log _{d-1}|G|$.

Before proceeding with the proof of Theorem 8 we recall the upper bound on the number of projective zeros of a polynomial.

Theorem 9 (Serre [36], Sørensen [38]). Homogeneous polynomial in $m$ variables in $F_{p}$ of degree $d$ has at most $d p^{m-2}+\left(p^{m-2}-1\right) /(p-1)$ projective zeros, and this is sharp.

To prove Theorem 8, we start with the following lemma:
Lemma 10. Let $w$ be a word of length $\ell$ in the free group $\mathcal{F}_{k}$. If $w$ is not identically 1 for every substitution of values from $P G L_{2}(p)$, then for a random substitution

$$
\operatorname{Pr}[w=1] \leq \ell / p+O\left(p^{-2}\right)
$$

where implied constant depends on $k$ only.
Proof. The word $w\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)$ evaluated in $\mathrm{GL}_{2}$ is a matrix whose entries are rational functions of the entries of the $g_{i}$. The reason they are not polynomials is that $w$ may contain inverses of the form $g_{i}^{-1}$, so that a factor of $1 / \operatorname{det}\left(g_{i}\right)$ appears. Nevertheless, the equation
$w=I \times$ constant (i.e. $w=1$ in PGL) reduces to three homogeneous polynomial equations of degree $\ell$ in $4 k$ variables, corresponding to the equations $a_{11}=a_{22}, a_{12}=0$ and $a_{21}=0$.

By our assumptions at least one of these equations is not identically zero. So by Theorem 9 it has at most $\ell p^{4 k-1}+O\left(p^{4 k-2}\right)$ solutions among all possible matrices $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}$, and therefore there are at most this many in the subset $\left(\mathrm{GL}_{2}(p)\right)^{k}$. Since multiplication by constant matrices preserves solutions, it follows that there are at most $\ell p^{4 k-1}(p-1)^{-k}+O\left(p^{3 k-2}\right)$ solutions to $w=1$ in $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)^{k}$. Dividing by the $k$-th power of $\left|\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)\right|=p(p-1)(p+1)$, completes the proof.

Proof of Theorem 8. Let $d=2 k$. The number of words of length $\ell$ or less is at most $(d-1)^{\ell+1}$. The probability of each such word is at most $\ell / p+O\left(p^{-2}\right)$. So by the union bound all we need is that $(d-1)^{\ell+1} \ell / p=o(1)$, which holds if

$$
\ell=\log _{d-1} p-2 \log _{d-1} \log _{d-1} p=(1 / 3-o(1)) \cdot \log _{2 k-1}\left|P G L_{2}(p)\right| .
$$

We made the assumption that words of length $\ell$ or less do not yield the identity for all substitutions; this follows from the following proposition:

Proposition 11. For any $k$ the length of the shortest non-trivial word $w\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)$ such that $f_{w}\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)=1$ for all $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}$ in $\operatorname{SL}\left(2, \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is at least $\Omega(p / \log p)$.

Proposition 11 follows from Lemma 12 and Corollary 14 proved below.
Lemma 12. The length of the shortest non-trivial word $w\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ such that $f_{w}\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right)=1$ for all $g_{1}, g_{2}$ in $\mathrm{SL}\left(2, \mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ is at least $p$.

Proof. Suppose we have a word in two generators $g, h$ and let $g=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ x & 1\end{array}\right), h=\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & x \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right)$. By a simple inductive argument, for all integers $l_{1}, k_{1}, \ldots, l_{n}, k_{n}$ we have

$$
g^{l_{1}} h^{k_{1}} g^{l_{2}} h^{k_{2}} \ldots g^{l_{n}} h^{k_{n}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
f_{11} & f_{12} \\
f_{21} & f_{22}+l_{1} k_{1} \ldots l_{n} k_{n} x^{2 n}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $f_{11}, f_{12}, f_{21}, f_{22}$ are polynomials of degree at most $2 n-1$. If the length of the word is less than $p$ then all $l_{i}$ and $k_{i}$ are less than $p$ in absolute value, and hence $l_{1} k_{1} \ldots l_{n} k_{n}$ is not congruent to zero modulo $p$. Consequently we have that $\left(f_{22}+l_{1} k_{1} \ldots l_{n} k_{n} x^{2 n}\right)-1$ is a nontrivial polynomial of degree $2 n$, which has at most $2 n$ roots. Since $2 n$ is clearly also less than $p$, there is choice of $x$ for which the polynomial is not zero modulo $p$; hence for such $x$ we have that $g^{l_{1}} h^{k_{1}} g^{l_{2}} h^{k_{2}} \ldots g^{l_{n}} h^{k_{n}} \neq\left(\begin{array}{ll}1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1\end{array}\right) \quad \bmod p$.

Similarly, we obtain that

$$
g^{l_{1}} h^{k_{1}} g^{l_{2}} h^{k_{2}} \ldots g^{l_{n}} h^{k_{n}} g^{l_{n+1}}=\left(\begin{array}{cc}
v_{11} & v_{12} \\
v_{21}+l_{1} k_{1} \ldots l_{n} k_{n} l_{n+1} x^{2 n+1} & v_{22}
\end{array}\right)
$$

where $v_{11}, v_{12}, v_{21}, v_{22}$ are polynomials of degree at most $2 n$; and apply the preceding argument.

Lemma 13. Let $\omega$ be a non-empty length $l$ reduced word in the $k$ letters $S=\left\{g_{1}^{ \pm 1}, g_{2}^{ \pm 1}, \ldots, g_{k}^{ \pm 1}\right\}$.
Then for any $k>k^{\prime} \geq 2$, one can find words $\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{k}$ in the letters $S^{\prime}=\left\{g_{1}^{ \pm 1}, g_{2}^{ \pm 1}, \ldots, g_{k^{\prime}}^{ \pm 1}\right\}$ so that the word $\omega^{\prime}$ obtained from $\omega$ by substituting $g_{i}^{ \pm 1}$ by $\omega_{i}^{ \pm 1}$ for $i=1, \ldots, k$, does not reduce to the empty word. Moreover, one can find such words with $\left|\omega_{i}\right| \leq 3+2 \log _{2 k^{\prime}-1} / \log l$.

Corollary 14. Let $l$ be the length of the shortest non-trivial word in two letters over the group $G$. Then the length of the shortest non-trivial word over $G$ in any number of letters is at least $\Omega(l / \log l)$.

Proof of Lemma 13. Given the word $\omega$ as above, we set $\omega_{i}=\omega_{i, L} x_{i} \omega_{i, R}$, where $\omega_{i, L}$ and $\omega_{i, R}$ are uniform independent random reduced words of length $s$, and $x_{i}$ is chosen from $S^{\prime}$ so that no cancellations occur in $\omega_{i}$. We claim that for a sufficiently large length $s$, the resulting word $\omega^{\prime}$ does not reduce to the empty word with probability greater than zero.

Suppose that $\omega^{\prime}$ reduces to the empty word. Then, one can obtain the empty word from $\omega^{\prime}$ by repeatedly deleting consecutive pairs of a letter and its inverse. Since, no letter $x_{i}$ can cancel until one of the half-words $\omega_{i, L}$ or $\omega_{i, R}$ cancels, two half words that appear consecutively in the expanded word must cancel. Since two independent length $s$ reduced words cancel with probability $2 k^{\prime}\left(2 k^{\prime}-1\right)^{-(s-1)}$, and since there are only $l-1$ consecutive pairs of half words in the expanded word $\omega^{\prime}$, one obtains by union bound that $\omega^{\prime}$ reduces to the empty word with probability at most $l\left(2 k^{\prime}\right)\left(2 k^{\prime}-1\right)^{-(s-1)}$, which is less than one for the claimed value of $s$.
4.2. Computer experiments for $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)$. In contrast to the permutation group $S_{n}$ and the iterated wreath product $W_{n}$, the size of $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)$ grows moderately with $p$. This allows getting some intuition on the asymptotic girth of $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)$ from computer experiments. We conducted experiments on random 4-regular Cayley graphs over $G=\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)$. The experiments where conducted for varying primes $p$, where each experiment was repeated 1000 times. In each case, our computer program either returned the length of the shortest cycle, or announced it to be greater than 30 .

In light of the experimental data, we make the following two conjectures:

Conjecture 15. The girth of such graphs is almost surely even.
Conjecture 16. The girth of such graphs is $(c+o(1)) \log _{3}|G|$, for some constant $c$, satisfying $1 / 3<c<1$. Furthermore, a.a.s. the girth is one of two consecutive even numbers.

We give the following excerpt of our experimental data. As mentioned, for each value of $p$ we computed the girth of 1000 random 4-regular Cayley graphs over $\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)$. In the first table $n_{\text {odd }}$ is the number of graphs with odd girth (out of thousand).

| $p$ | 101 | 331 | 1009 | 2003 | 4001 | 10007 | 20011 | 40009 | 100003 |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n_{\text {odd }}$ | 146 | 138 | 66 | 42 | 22 | 16 | 8 | 7 | 1 |

The second table lists, the number of times each even girth was attained (out of thousand). The two most abundant values of the girth where marked in bold. Normalizing these two values by dividing the girth by $\log _{3}\left|\mathrm{PGL}_{2}(p)\right|$ yields: $0.85,0.95$ for $p=1009 ; 0.87,0.95$ for $p=10007$; and $0.83,0.89$ for $p=100003$.

| girth | $\leq 10$ | 12 | 14 | 16 | 18 | 20 | 22 | 24 | 26 | 28 | 30 | $>30$ |
| :--- | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| $p=1009$ | 52 | 71 | 111 | $\mathbf{2 2 4}$ | $\mathbf{2 9 5}$ | 172 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $p=10007$ | 9 | 7 | 18 | 38 | 93 | 198 | $\mathbf{2 9 6}$ | $\mathbf{2 9 6}$ | 29 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| $p=100003$ | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 8 | 39 | 60 | 148 | $\mathbf{3 1 7}$ | $\mathbf{3 4 2}$ | 79 | 0 |

4.3. Girth and expansion. In [13] it is shown that if $\Sigma_{p}$ is a symmetric generating set for $\operatorname{PSL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)(p$ prime $)$ such that $\operatorname{girth}\left(\mathcal{G}\left(\mathrm{PSL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right), \Sigma_{p}\right)\right) \geq c \log p$, where $c$ is independent of $p$, then $\mathcal{G}\left(\mathrm{PSL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right), \Sigma_{p}\right)$ form a family of expanders. Combined with Theorem 4 this implies that Cayley graphs of $\mathrm{PSL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ are expanders with respect to generators chosen at random in $\mathrm{PSL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. The following conjecture, combined with the result in [13], would imply that Cayley graphs of $\mathrm{SL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$ are expanders with respect to any choice of generators.

Conjecture 17. Suppose $\left\langle\Sigma_{p}\right\rangle=\mathrm{PSL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right)$. There is a constant $C$, independent of $p$, satisfying the following property: the ball of radius $C$ in the generating set $\Sigma_{p}$ contains two elements $g$, $h$ such that $\operatorname{girth}\left(\mathcal{G}\left(\operatorname{PSL}_{2}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p}\right),\{g, h\}\right)\right) \geq \frac{1}{C} \log p$.
4.4. Proof of Theorem 4. Note first, that, by [28], almost all $d$-tuples of elements in $G(q)$ generate $G$ as $q \rightarrow \infty$.

Let $d=2 k$. Let $F_{k}$ be the free group on $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}$. For $w \in F_{k}$ and a group $G$ set

$$
V_{w}(G)=\left\{\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right): g_{i} \in G, w\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)=1\right\}
$$

Suppose $G(q)$ is a Chevalley group, coming from the simple algebraic group $G$. The set $V_{w}$ is an algebraic set in $G^{k}$; by Borel's theorem [12] for a nontrivial word $w, V_{w}$ is a proper subvariety of $G^{k}$.

Set $e=\operatorname{dim} G$. Then we have

$$
\operatorname{dim} V_{w}(G) \leq k e-1
$$

Note however that $V_{w}(G)$ may well be a reducible subvariety.
Now, suppose $w$ has length at most $l$. We can view elements of $G$ as matrices (in a natural way if $G$ is classical, or using a minimal faithful module if $G$ is exceptional). Then the requirement $w\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)=1$ translates into polynomial equations of degree at most $l$ in the matrix entries. Denoting by $r$ the rank of $G$ the number of such equations is bounded above by $a r^{2}$ for some absolute constant $a$. To define $V_{w}(G)$ over the affine space of matrices we need to add say $f(r, k)$ fixed equations defining $G^{k}$ there.

It is known that an affine variety $V$ of dimension $D$ defined by $m$ equations of degrees $\leq l$ has at most $l^{m}(q+1)^{D} q$-rational points. This follows from Bezout theorem and intersection theory. Moreover, the same applies if, instead of taking fixed points of Frobenius, we count solutions to $x^{q}=h(x)$, which define the finite twisted groups of Lie type. See Section 10 of Hrushovski [19] for these facts.

Combining this with the information in the previous paragraph regarding $V_{w}$ we obtain

$$
\left|V_{w}(G(q))\right| \leq b_{1} l^{a r^{2}}(q+1)^{k e-1}
$$

where $b_{1}=b_{1}(r, k)$ depends on $r$ and $k$. Since $|G(q)| \sim q^{e}$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|V_{w}(G(q))\right| /\left|G(q)^{k}\right| \leq b l^{a r^{2}} / q \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $b=b(r, k)$ is a constant.
Now noting that the expression on the left-hand side of (7) is the probability of the word $w$ being equal to identity and applying the union bound of section 2 completes the proof of Theorem 4.

## 5. Girth for $p$-Groups and toy genetics

The symmetric $p$-group $W_{n}(p)$ of height $n$ is the $n$-fold iterated wreath product of $\mathbb{Z} /(p \mathbb{Z})$. It is isomorphic to the Sylow $p$-subgroup of the symmetric group $\operatorname{Sym}\left(p^{n}\right)$. Also, it is isomorphic to the automorphism group of the height $n$ rooted $p$-ary tree. The group $W_{n}$ plays the analogous role to the symmetric group in the realm of $p$-groups: It is a basic
family of groups containing all finite $p$-groups as subgroups. The size of this group satisfies $\log _{p}\left|W_{n}(p)\right|=\left(p^{n}-1\right) /(p-1)$.

In this section, we study the girth of the symmetric $p$-group; we restrict our attention to $p=2$, as it is conceptually and notationally more clear. Analogous results hold for other primes $p$. The symmetric 2 -group is also the graph automorphism group of the rooted binary tree of height $n$. Each element $g$ of $W_{n}=W_{n}(2)$ can be written as $\left(g_{1}, g_{2}\right) \times_{g}$, where $g_{i} \in W_{n-1}$ are elements of the automorphism groups of the two subtrees $T_{1}, T_{2}$ of $T$ with roots at level 1 , and $\times_{g} \in \mathbb{Z} /(2 \mathbb{Z})$ either switches $T_{1}$ and $T_{2}$ (active) or equals the identity (inactive).

We start with a word $w$ in some letters $a, b, \ldots$ and their inverses $a^{-1}=\tilde{a}, b^{-1}=\tilde{b} \ldots$. Assume that the values of $x_{a}, x_{b}, \ldots$ are known. Then $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ can be expressed in terms $a_{1}, a_{2}, b_{1}, b_{2} \ldots$

It is also clear that if $g$ is a uniform random element in $W_{n}$, then $g_{1}, g_{2} \in W_{n-1}$ and $\times_{g}$ are independent uniform choices.

The following toy genetics model describes the way words $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ (and their recursive offsprings) are determined.

A toy genetics model. Here we describe a biologically incorrect model for the genome evolution of a strictly asexual organism, henceforth referred to as an "amoeba".

The DNA of an amoeba is a sequence of length $l$ of "forward" bases, and their inverses, or "backward" pairs. Backward and forward versions of the same base cannot be next to each other in the DNA.

At each integer time, each amoeba undergoes fission into two offspring, and its DNA is inherited as follows. First, two fresh copies of the DNA are created. Then, "crossing over" symbols are introduced as follows. Each pair of forward and backward bases introduces its own crossover symbol into the sequence: the forward alleles after their occurrence; the backwards ones, before.

Each crossover symbol is active or inactive, with equal probability, independently of others. Crossovers happen at the active symbols.

For example, starting with the word $w=\tilde{a} b c a a \tilde{c}$ (where $\tilde{a}=a^{-1}$ denotes the backward pair of $a$ ) the two fresh copies are $\tilde{a}_{1} b_{1} c_{1} a_{1} a_{1} \tilde{c}_{1}$ and $\tilde{a}_{2} b_{2} c_{2} a_{2} a_{2} \tilde{c}_{2}$. With the introduction of the crossover symbols, the word becomes

$$
\tilde{a} b c a a \tilde{c} \Rightarrow \times_{a} \tilde{a} b \times_{b} c \times_{c} a \times_{a} a \times_{a} \times_{c} \tilde{c} .
$$

Say the random settings activate the symbols $x_{a}$ and $x_{b}$, but not $x_{c}$. Then the DNA of the two offspring are:

$$
\begin{align*}
& w_{1}=\tilde{a}_{2} b_{2} c_{1} a_{1} a_{2} \tilde{c_{1}} \\
& w_{2}=\tilde{a}_{1} b_{1} c_{2} a_{2} a_{1} \tilde{c_{2}} \tag{8}
\end{align*}
$$

We are interested in how fast the DNA diversifies. Call an amoeba free if its DNA consists of all different bases. Starting from a given DNA $w$, how many generations does it take until a free amoeba is born? In the above example $l=|\omega|=6$ and $\omega$ has 3 different bases. After one generation $\omega_{1}$ and $\omega_{2}$ have 5 different bases each, so they are not free.

Heuristic. Very roughly speaking, in each generation, the number of bases doubles. Thus within a logarithmic number of steps, an amoeba should emerge with all different bases in its DNA.

Conjecture 18. There exists a constant $c>0$ so that starting with any DNA configuration of length $n$, the probability that there is an amoeba at generation $c \log n$ with all different bases in her DNA is at least 1/2.

In fact, there is a simple conjecture that would imply this and more. We call an integervalued function from the space of words a complexity function if it satisfies the following properties. Note that $w_{1}$ and $w_{2}$ denote the random DNA of the offspring as in (8).
(1) $\chi\left(w_{i}\right) \leq \chi(w)$ for $i=1,2$
(2) $\chi(w) \leq 0$ iff $w$ consists of different bases
(3) Given $w$ with $\chi(w) \geq 1$ we have $\operatorname{Pr}\left[\min \left(\chi\left(w_{1}\right), \chi\left(w_{2}\right)\right) \leq \chi(w)-1\right] \geq 1 / 2$.

We define

$$
\bar{\chi}(\ell)=\sup _{|w| \leq \ell} \chi(w)
$$

It is not true that the number of bases in the DNA doubles in each generation with fixed probability. But we believe that there "the log number of bases" can be replaced by some other function of the DNA so that we get this behavior.

Conjecture 19. There exists a complexity function $\chi$ with $\bar{\chi}(\ell) \leq \beta \log \ell$ for a fixed $\beta \geq 1$ and all $n \geq 1$.

Here we show that
Lemma 20. The function $\chi(w)=|w|-m(w)$, where $m(w)$ is the number of distinct bases used by $w$ is a complexity function.

Clearly, $\bar{\chi}(l)=l-1$, and the first two properties are satisfied. For the third, it suffices to prove the following.

Lemma 21. The probability that a given offspring of a given amoeba with some fixed DNA $w$ has at least one more base in her DNA than her parent (given that the parent has a repeated base) is at least $1 / 2$.

Proof. We consider a repeated base, say $a$, for which the two repetitions are closest to each other in the DNA.

If they have the same orientation, then at the time of fission there will be a single crossover symbol $x_{a}$ in between the two. Given the values of all the other crossover symbols, this symbol is independent and random, and is active with probability $1 / 2$. Thus, in the child, the first occurrences of $a$ are from the same copy of the DNA or a different copy, with probability $1 / 2$ each.

If they have different orientation, then there must be at least another base, say $b$, in between the two occurrences; there, $b$ has to appear a single time, otherwise the pair of $a$ 's could not be closest. Thus a single $b$-crossover symbol $\times_{b}$ appears between the pair of $a$-s. The proof concludes as in the first case, except we condition on the value of all crossover symbols but $x_{b}$.

Lemma 22. If $\chi$ is a complexity function, then the probability, starting with DNA w, that there is no free amoeba at generation $n$ is at most $p_{1}(n,|w|)$, where:

$$
p_{1}(n, l)=\exp \left(-\frac{n}{4}\left(1-\frac{2 \bar{\chi}(l)}{n}\right)^{2}\right) .
$$

Proof. Let $\ell=|w|$. We consider the evolution of the DNA $w=w(0)$ let $w(n+1)$ be the the one of the two children of $w(n)$ with lower complexity. By property (3) of the complexity function, the process $\chi(w(n))$ is stochastically dominated by $\bar{\chi}(\ell)-S_{n}$, where $S_{n}$ is a $\operatorname{binomial}(n, 1 / 2)$ random variable, i.e. the sum of $n$ independent random variables taking the values $\{0,1\}$ with probability $1 / 2$ each. For such independent "coin tosses", we have the well-known Chernoff (large deviation) bound

$$
P\left[S_{n} \leq \gamma n / 2\right] \leq e^{-n(1-\gamma)^{2} / 4}
$$

Setting $\gamma n / 2=\bar{\chi}(|w|)$ completes the proof.
After this brief digression into genetics we turn our attention to the symmetric 2-groups.

Proposition 23. There exists $\beta_{k}>0$ so that for any word $w$ of length at most $\ell=\left\lfloor\beta_{k} n\right\rfloor$ in $k$ generators we have

$$
P\left(w=1 \text { in } W_{n}\right)=o\left((2 k-1)^{\ell}\right)
$$

As a consequence, for $k$ random generators, we have

$$
\operatorname{girth}\left(W_{n}\right) \geq \beta_{k} \log _{2} \log _{2}\left|W_{n}\right| \quad \text { a.a.s. }
$$

Proof. Let $n_{0}<n$. By Lemmas 20 and 22 with probability $1-p_{1}\left(n_{0}, \ell\right)$ there is a free amoeba at generation $n_{0}$.

If level $n_{0}$ of the tree is not fixed by $w$, then $w \neq 1$ in $W_{n}$ and we are done. If it is fixed by $w$, then the DNA $w^{\prime}$ of the free amoeba describes the action of $w$ on $T^{\prime}$, one of the subtrees of height $n-n_{0}$ rooted at level $n_{0}$.

Since all bases in $w^{\prime}$ are different, when the random evaluation of $w^{\prime}$ gives a uniform random element of $\operatorname{Aut}\left(T^{\prime}\right)$. Thus the conditional probability of $w=1$ in $W_{n}$ is at most

$$
p_{2}\left(n-n_{0}\right)=P\left(w^{\prime}=1 \text { in } \operatorname{Aut}\left(T^{\prime}\right)\right)=\left|\operatorname{Aut}\left(T_{n-n_{0}}\right)\right|^{-1} .
$$

Given some value of $\ell$, we set $n_{0}, n$ so that both $p_{1}\left(n_{0}, \ell\right)$ and $p_{2}\left(n-n_{0}\right)$ are $o\left((2 k-1)^{-\ell}\right)$. First, we set $n_{0}=\alpha_{k} \ell$ where $\alpha_{k}$ is a sufficiently large constant to make $p_{1}$ small. It is not difficult to verify that $\alpha_{k}>4(\log (2 k-1)+1)$ suffices. Second, we take $n-n_{0}$ sufficiently large so that $p_{2}^{-1}=\left|W_{n-n_{0}}\right| \gg(2 k-1)^{\ell}$. Here the situation is much better, and $n-n_{0}=\Theta(\log \ell)$ suffices. Putting the two bounds together yields the lemma, for any $\beta_{k}<[4(\log (2 k-1)+1)]^{-1}$.

It was shown in [3] that typical elements have order $2^{\alpha n+o(1)}$ with $\alpha<1$. This implies the following.

Proposition 24. Even for a single random generator, we have girth $\left(W_{n}\right) \leq\left(\log \left|W_{n}\right|\right)^{\alpha+o(1)}$ a.a.s.

So the symmetric two-group gives an interesting example of intermediate girth groups. Based on the heuristic argument before Conjecture 18, we have

Conjecture 25. For $k$ random generators, there is $\beta=\beta_{k}$ so that we have $\operatorname{girth}\left(W_{n}\right)=$ $\left(\log \left|W_{n}\right|\right)^{\beta+o(1)}$ a.a.s.

Another conjecture by Abért and the last author is closely related to this problem.
Conjecture 26. Let $w$ be a word of length $2^{m}$. If $m<n$, then $P(w=1)<1$ in $W_{n}$.
The $m<n$ condition is sharp, as $w=a^{2^{n}}$ is satisfied by all elements in $W_{n}$.
In general, we believe that the power word is the easiest to satisfy.

Conjecture 27. Let $w$ be a word of length $2^{m}$. Then $P(w=1) \leq P\left(a^{2^{m}}=1\right)$ in $W_{n}$.
If true, this conjecture implies that the length of the shortest non-trivial word satisfied in $W_{n}$ is $2^{n}$.

We leave it for the reader to check that this conjecture implies that the upper bound in Proposition 24 has a lower bound of the same form (with a different constant $\alpha^{\prime}$ ).

## 6. Noncommutative diophantine property

In closing we mention the continuous analog of the notion of large girth suitable for elements in the group ring of a compact group. It was introduced in [17] (with $G=S U(2)$ ) and called there noncommutative diophantine property.

Definition 28 ([17]). For $k \geq 2$, we say that $g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{k} \in G$ satisfy noncommutative diophantine property if there is a $D=D\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)>0$ such that for any $m \geq 1$ and $a$ word $W_{m}$ in $g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{k}$ of length $m$ with $W_{m} \neq e$ (where $e$ denotes the identity in $\mathrm{SU}(2)$ ) we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|W_{m}-e\right\| \geq D^{-m} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here

$$
\left\|\left[\begin{array}{ll}
a & b \\
c & d
\end{array}\right]\right\|^{2}=|a|^{2}+|b|^{2}+|c|^{2}+|d|^{2}
$$

Recall that $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ is called diophantine if there are positive constants $C_{1}, C_{2}$ such that for all $(k, l) \in \mathbb{Z}^{2}$ with $k \neq 0$ we have $|k \theta-l| \geq C_{1} k^{-C_{2}}$. Equivalently, letting $g=e^{2 \pi \theta} \in \mathrm{SO}(2)$, we may reexpress this condition as follows: $\left|g^{k}-1\right| \geq C_{1}^{\prime} k^{-C_{2}^{\prime}}$. A classical result [24] asserts that diophantine numbers $\theta$ are generic in measure in $\mathbb{R}$. Given diophantine $\theta_{1}, \ldots, \theta_{k}$ and $g_{1}=e^{2 \pi \theta_{1}}, \ldots, g_{k}=e^{2 \pi \theta_{k}} \in \mathrm{SO}(2)$, for any word $W$ in $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}$ of length $m$ we have $\left|W_{m}-1\right| \geq \tilde{C}_{1} m^{-\tilde{C}_{2}}$ for some $\tilde{C}_{1}, \tilde{C}_{2}$. In the case of $\operatorname{SO}(3)$, given $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}$ generating a free subgroup, a pigeonhole argument shows that for any $m \geq 1$ there is always a word $W$ in $g_{1}, g_{1}^{-1}, \ldots, g_{k}, g_{k}^{-1}$ of length at most $m$ satisfying

$$
\|W-e\| \leq \frac{10}{(2 k-1)^{m / 6}}
$$

so the exponential behavior in the definition above is the appropriate one.
As was first exploited by Hausdorff, for $G=S U(2)$ [18] the relation

$$
W_{m}\left(g_{1}, g_{1}^{-1}, \ldots, g_{k}, g_{k}^{-1}\right)=e
$$

where $W_{m}$ is a reduced word of length $m \geq 1$ is not satisfied identically in $G^{(k)}$. Hence the sets

$$
V\left(W_{m}\right):=\left\{\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right) \mid W_{m}(g)=e\right\}
$$

are of codimension at least one in $G^{(k)}$. It follows that $\cup_{m \geq 1} V\left(R_{m}\right)$ is of zero measure in $G^{(k)}$ and also it is of the first Baire category in $G^{(k)}$. Thus the generic $\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right) \in G^{(k)}$ (in both senses) generates the free group.

This holds quite generally: for $G$ connected, finite-dimensional non-solvable Lie group it was proved by D.B.A. Epstein [15] that for each $k>0$, and for almost all $k$-tuples $\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)$ of elements of $G$, the group generated by $g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}$ is free on these $k$ elements.

Now the set of $\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right) \in G^{(k)}$ for which $\left\langle g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right\rangle$ is not free is clearly dense in $G^{(k)}$ so it follows easily that the set of $\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right) \in G^{(k)}$ which are not diophantine is of the second (Baire) category in $G^{(k)}$. That is to say the topologically generic $\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)$ is free but not diophantine. On the other hand in [17] it was proved that the elements with algebraic number entries are diophantine and the following conjecture was made:

Conjecture 29. Generic in the measure sense $\left(g_{1}, \ldots, g_{k}\right)$ is diophantine.
Kaloshin and Rodnianski [23] established the following result towards conjecture 29 for almost every pair $(A, B) \in S O(3) \times S O(3)$ there is a constant $D>0$ such that for any $n$ and any word $W_{n}(A, B)$ of length $n$ in $A$ and $B$ the following weak diophantine property holds:

$$
\left\|W_{n}(A, B)-e\right\| \geq D^{-n^{2}}
$$

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