THE DIAMETER OF RANDOM CAYLEY DIGRAPHS OF GIVEN DEGREE

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Abstract. We consider random Cayley digraphs of order \( n \) with uniformly distributed generating set of size \( k \). Specifically, we are interested in the asymptotics of the probability such a Cayley digraph has diameter two as \( n \to \infty \) and \( k = f(n) \). We find a sharp phase transition from 0 to 1 as the order of growth of \( f(n) \) increases past \( \sqrt{n \log n} \). In particular, if \( f(n) \) is asymptotically linear in \( n \), the probability converges exponentially fast to 1.

1. Introduction

It is well known that almost all graphs and digraphs have diameter two [2]. This result has been generalized and strengthened in various directions, of which we shall be interested in restrictions to Cayley graphs and digraphs.

In [7] it was proved that almost all Cayley digraphs have diameter two, and in [6] this was extended to Cayley graphs. The random model used in [7, 6] is the most straightforward one: in terms of Cayley digraphs for a given group \( G \), one chooses a random generating set by choosing its elements among the non-identity elements of \( G \) independently and uniformly, each with probability \( 2^{-n+1} \) where \( n \) is the order of \( G \). Observe that such generating sets have size at least \( n/2 \) with probability at least \( 1/2 \), in which case the corresponding Cayley digraphs automatically have diameter at most two. The less trivial part of [7] therefore concerns random Cayley digraphs in which the number of generators is at most half of the order of the group.

This motivates a study of random Cayley digraphs in which the number of generators is restricted. The fundamental problem here is the following: for which functions \( f \) is it true that the diameter of a random Cayley digraph of an arbitrary group of order \( n \) and of degree \( f(n) \) is asymptotically almost surely equal to 2 as \( n \) tends to infinity? By the well known Moore bound for graphs or digraphs of diameter two we know that \( f \) has to increase at least as fast as \( \sqrt{n} \). However, even the case when \( f(n) = cn \) for a constant \( c \) seems not to have been investigated before and, as we shall see, leads to interesting questions in the study of generating functions.

In order to investigate the above problem one cannot use the model of [7]. Instead, we will consider the uniform distribution of subsets of size \( k \) in the set of all non-identity elements of a given group of order \( n \). A detailed description of the model and the associated parameters is given in Section 2. The probability that a random Cayley digraph of (in- and out-) degree \( k \) on a group of order \( n \) has diameter 2 will be estimated in Section 3 in terms of a certain combinatorial function \( p(n, k, t) \) where \( t \) is a parameter that depends on the group and \( 2t < n \). Dependence on the group is then eliminated by showing that one can use \( t = \lfloor \gamma n \rfloor \) for a suitable constant \( \gamma \leq 1/2 \) in the estimates. Setting \( k = f(n) \) and \( t = \lfloor \gamma n \rfloor \), the probability that a random Cayley digraph has diameter two can be studied by means of the asymptotic behaviour of \( p(n, f(n), \lfloor \gamma n \rfloor) \) as \( n \to \infty \). The two cases of particular interest are \( f(n) = cn \) for a fixed constant \( c \) with \( 0 < c < 1/2 \), and \( f(n) = \lfloor n^\alpha \rfloor \) for a fixed constant \( \alpha \) such that \( 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \). By a delicate asymptotic analysis, in Section 4 we prove that in both cases the diameter of a random Cayley graph is asymptotically almost surely equal to two. We also consider analogous questions for random Cayley graphs on elementary abelian 2-groups. Under this restriction we obtain tighter bounds in terms of \( p(n, k, t) \) for the probabilities, which raises an interesting question on the probability evolution if \( f(n) \sim c\sqrt{n} \) for a constant \( c > 1 \).

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2. The model

Throughout, let \( G \) be a finite group of order \( n \) and let \( k \) be a positive integer not exceeding \( n - 1 \). The set of non-trivial elements of \( G \) will be denoted by \( G^* \). For a set \( A \) and an integer \( r \), the symbol \( \binom{A}{r} \) will stand for the set of all subsets of \( A \) of size \( r \).

For \( S \in \binom{G^*}{k} \), the Cayley digraph on \( G \) relative to \( S \), denoted by \( \text{Cay}(G, S) \), is the \( k \)-valent digraph with vertex set \( G \) and arc set \( \{(g, gs) : g \in G, s \in S\} \). The distance \( \partial(g, h) \) from the vertex \( g \) to the vertex \( h \) in \( \text{Cay}(G, S) \) is the length of the shortest directed path from \( g \) to \( h \) in \( \text{Cay}(G, S) \). The diameter \( \text{diam}(\text{Cay}(G, S)) \) is the smallest integer \( d \) such that for every ordered pair \((g, h)\) the distance from \( g \) to \( h \) is at most \( d \).

We are now ready to introduce our model for random Cayley digraphs of a given valence. Let \( \mathcal{P}(G, k) \) be the probability space \((\mathcal{B}, 2^\mathcal{B}, P)\) where \( \mathcal{B} = \binom{G^*}{k} \), \( 2^\mathcal{B} \) is the power set of \( \mathcal{B} \), and \( P \) is the uniformly distributed probability measure on \( \mathcal{B} \). Since \( |\mathcal{B}| = \binom{n}{k} \), a simple counting argument shows that \( \Pr\{\{S\}\} = \binom{n-1}{k-1}^{-1} \) for every \( S \in \mathcal{B} \). More generally, for every subset \( L \subseteq G^* \) of size \( \ell \), the probability that a random set \( S \in \mathcal{B} \) contains \( L \) as a subset is given by

\[
\Pr(S \supseteq L) = \Pr\{\{S\} : L \subseteq S\} = \binom{n-1-\ell}{k-\ell} \binom{n-1}{k}^{-1} = \frac{(k-\ell)}{(n-1)\ell}
\]

where \((r) = r(r-1) \ldots (r-\ell + 1)\) denotes the \(\ell\)-th descending factorial of \(r\) (with the convention that \(r_0 = 1\)). We can now define a random variable \( \text{Diam} : \mathcal{B} \to \mathbb{R} \) on the probability space \( \mathcal{P}(G, k) \) by letting, for every \( S \in \binom{G^*}{k} \),

\[
\text{Diam}(S) = \text{diam}(\text{Cay}(G, S)).
\]

The main goal of this article is to derive bounds on the probability of the event \( \{S \in \binom{G^*}{k} : \text{diam}(\text{Cay}(G, S)) = 2\} \) and study the asymptotic behaviour of the bounds.

Since Cayley digraphs are vertex-transitive, the diameter of \( \text{Cay}(G, S) \) coincides with the maximum value of \( \partial(1, y) \) over all \( y \in G^* \). Clearly, if \( \partial(1, y) \leq 2 \), then \( y \in S \), or there exists \( x \in S \) such that \( (1, x, y) \) is a directed path from \( 1 \) to \( y \) of length \( 2 \). The latter is equivalent to requiring that \( \{x, x^{-1}y\} \subseteq S \). This shows that the following events will play an important role:

**Definition 2.1.** For \( x, y \in G^* \), let

\[
T(x, y) = \{S : S \in \binom{G^*}{k}, \{x, x^{-1}y\} \subseteq S\} \quad \text{and} \quad X(y) = \bigcup_{x \in G^*} T(x, y).
\]

Let \( S \) be an arbitrary element of \( \binom{G^*}{k} \). Clearly, there is a directed path from \( 1 \) to \( y \) of length \( 2 \) in \( \text{Cay}(G, S) \) if and only if \( S \in X(y) \). In other words, \( S \in \overline{X(y)} \) if and only if there is no directed path from \( 1 \) to \( y \) in \( \text{Cay}(G, S) \) of length exactly \( 2 \). Thus, if \( \text{diam}(\text{Cay}(G, S)) > 2 \) then \( S \in \bigcup_{y \in G^*} \overline{X(y)} \). Therefore we have the following inequality:

\[
\Pr(\text{Diam} > 2) \leq \sum_{y \in G^*} \Pr(\overline{X(y)}).
\]

On the other hand, if \( \text{diam}(\text{Cay}(G, S)) \leq 2 \), then for every \( y \in G^* \) we have \( y \in S \) or \( S \in X(y) \). Hence \( \Pr(\text{Diam} \leq 2) \leq \Pr(X(y)) + \Pr(y \in S) \), and by (1), it follows that \( \Pr(\text{Diam} \leq 2) \leq \Pr(X(y)) + \frac{k}{n-1} \), which is equivalent to \( \Pr(\text{Diam} > 2) \geq \Pr(X(y)) - \frac{k}{n-1} \). This, together with (3), shows that

\[
M - \frac{k}{n-1} \leq \Pr(\text{Diam} > 2) \leq (n-1)M, \quad \text{where} \quad M = \max_{y \in G^*} \Pr(\overline{X(y)}).
\]

The inequality (1) provides the basis for our investigation. In what follows we consider estimates for the quantity \( M \) appearing in (3).
3. The estimates

The key to deriving bounds on $M$ is the evaluation of the probability $\Pr(X(y)) = 1 - \Pr(\cup_{x \in G^*} T(x, y))$. As Lemma 3.1 below shows, this probability is closely related to the values of $p(n, k, t)$, $t, k \leq n$, where $p(n, k, t)$ is defined by

$$p(n, k, t) = \sum_{i=0}^{t} (-1)^i \binom{t}{i} \binom{n - 1 - 2i}{k - 2i} \binom{n - 1}{k}^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{t} (-1)^i \binom{t}{i} \frac{(k)_{2i}}{(n-1)_{2i}}.$$  

**Lemma 3.1.** Let $y \in G^*$ and let $J \subseteq G^* \setminus \{y\}$ be a set of size $t$ such that the sets $\{x, x^{-1}y\}$, with $x \in J$, are pairwise disjoint and of size 2. Then

$$\Pr(X(y)) \leq p(n, k, t).$$

**Proof.** We start with a simple inequality

$$\Pr(X(y)) = 1 - \Pr(X(y)) = 1 - \Pr(\cup_{x \in G^*} T(x, y)) \leq 1 - \Pr(\cup_{x \in J} T(x, y)).$$

Now observe that the set $\cap_{x \in J} T(x, y)$ consists of all those $S \in \binom{G^*}{k}$ for which $\cup_{x \in J} \{x, x^{-1}y\} \subseteq S$. Hence, if $I \subseteq J$ and $|I| = i$, then

$$\Pr(\cap_{x \in I} T(x, y)) = \binom{n - 1 - 2i}{k - 2i} \binom{n - 1}{k}^{-1} = \frac{(k)_{2i}}{(n-1)_{2i}}.$$  

By the inclusion-exclusion formula, we have

$$\Pr(\cup_{x \in J} T(x, y)) = \sum_{i=1}^{t} (-1)^{i-1} \sum_{I \subseteq J} \Pr(\cap_{x \in I} T(x, y))$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{t} (-1)^{i-1} \binom{t}{i} \binom{n - 1 - 2i}{k - 2i} \binom{n - 1}{k}^{-1}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{t} (-1)^{i-1} \binom{t}{i} \frac{(k)_{2i}}{(n-1)_{2i}};$$

and the result follows. \( \square \)

A straightforward consequence of the above proof is the fact that $0 \leq p(n, k, t) \leq 1$ and that $p(n, k, t)$ is decreasing in $t$ (in the range for which there is an appropriate group $G$ for which the above lemma can be used).

We continue with establishing an upper bound on the parameter $t$ appearing in the sums above. For this we need an estimate of the number of 'square roots' of a non-identity element in a group.

Therefore, for an element $y \in G$ let $\sigma(y)$ denote the set of $x \in G$ such that $x^2 = y$.

**Lemma 3.2.** If $y$ is a non-trivial element of a finite group $G$, then $|\sigma(y)| \leq \frac{3}{4}|G|$.  

**Proof.** Suppose the contrary and let $y \in G^*$ be such that $|\sigma(y)| > \frac{3}{4}|G|$. Take an arbitrary element $z \in G$, and observe that $\sigma(y^z) = \sigma(y)^2$. In particular, $|\sigma(y^z)| = |\sigma(y)| > \frac{3}{4}|G|$, implying that $\sigma(y) \cap \sigma(y^z)$ is non-empty. Take any $x \in \sigma(y) \cap \sigma(y^z)$, and note that $y = x^2 = y^2$. Hence $y$ is in the centre of $G$. Now consider the quotient projection $\pi: G \to G/\langle y \rangle$, let $s$ be the order of $y$ in $G$, and let $T$ denote the set of elements $x \in G/\langle y \rangle$ such that $x^2 = 1$. Clearly, $\pi(\sigma(y)) \subseteq T$. Suppose that $\pi(x_1) = \pi(x_2)$ for some pair of $x_1, x_2 \in \sigma(y), x_1, \neq x_2$. Then $x_2 = x_1 y^r$ for $1 \leq r < s$, and so $y = x_2^2 = x_1^2 y^{2r} = y^{1+2r}$, implying that $s = 2r$. This shows that the preimage of each element in $T$ contains at most 2 elements from $\sigma(y)$, and contains at most one element from $\sigma(y)$ if $s$ is odd. Therefore $|T| \geq \frac{|\sigma(y)|}{2} > \frac{3}{8}|G/\langle y \rangle|$ if $s$ is even, and $|T| \geq |\sigma(y)| > \frac{3}{4}|G/\langle y \rangle|$ if $s$ is odd. On the other hand, $|T| \leq |G/\langle y \rangle|$, implying that $s = 2$ and $|T| > \frac{3}{4}|G/\langle y \rangle|$. It is known that the only groups for which the proportion of the involutions is more than $\frac{3}{4}$ are the elementary abelian 2-groups (see [23]). Hence $G/\langle y \rangle$ is an elementary abelian 2 group, say $G/\langle y \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_2^p$, where $p$ is a positive integer, and consequently, $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2^{p+1}$ or $G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2^{p-1} \times \mathbb{Z}_4$. However, it is clear that no element $y$ in such groups satisfies $|\sigma(y)| > \frac{3}{4}|G|$. \( \square \)
We remark that the bound in the previous lemma is sharp. For example, if \( Q = \{ \pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k \} \) is the quaternion group and if \( G = Q \times \mathbb{Z}_2^3 \), then for the element \( y = (-1,0,\ldots,0) \) we have \( \sigma(y) = \frac{3}{4}|G| \).

We are now ready to prove the main result of this section, which is an upper bound on the probability \( \Pr(\text{Diam} > 2) \) in terms of \( p(n,k,t) \).

**Theorem 3.3.** Let \( G \) be a finite group, and let \( k \) be such that \( 1 \leq k \leq n = |G| \). Then for the random variable \( \text{Diam} \) on the probability space \( \mathcal{P}(G,k) \) we have

\[
\Pr(\text{Diam} > 2) \leq (n - 1)p(n,k,\lfloor (n - 4)/12 \rfloor).
\]

**Proof.** Let \( y \in G^* \) and set \( s = |\sigma(y)| \). We first show that there exists a set \( J \subseteq G \setminus \{1,y\} \) of size at least \( t = \lfloor \frac{n-1-s}{3} \rfloor \) such that the sets \( \{x,x^{-1}y\} \), where \( x \in J \), are pairwise disjoint and of size 2. We shall define such a set \( J \) recursively.

If \( s \geq n - 3 \), then \( t = 0 \), and \( J = \emptyset \) will do the job. So we may assume that \( s \leq n - 4 \). Then the set \( C = G^* \setminus (\sigma(y) \cup \{y\}) \) is non-empty, and we can choose \( x_1 \in C \) and set \( J_1 = \{x_1\} \).

Now suppose that \( J_1, \ldots, J_{\ell} \) have already been defined for some \( \ell < t \), and suppose that this has been done in such a way that \( J_i \subseteq C, |J_i| = i \) and \( |\cup_{x \in J_i}\{x,x^{-1}y\}| = 2i \) for every \( i \in \{1, \ldots, \ell\} \). Let \( K_\ell = \cup_{x \in J_\ell}\{x,xy^{-1},x^{-1}y\} \). Then \( |K_\ell| \leq 3\ell \leq 3t \leq n - s - 4 < n - s - 2 = |C| \). Hence, we can choose an element \( x_{\ell+1} \in C \setminus K_\ell \) and define \( J_{\ell+1} = J_\ell \cup \{x_{\ell+1}\} \). Clearly, \( |J_{\ell+1}| = |J_\ell| + 1 = \ell + 1 \), and since \( x_{\ell+1} \in C \), also \( J_{\ell+1} \subseteq C \). Now suppose that \( |\cup_{x \in J_{\ell+1}}\{x,x^{-1}y\}| < 2\ell + 2 \). Then one of the elements \( x_{\ell+1} \) and \( x_{\ell+1}^{-1}y \) belongs to \( \cup_{x \in J_\ell}\{x,x^{-1}y\} \). However, both cases imply that \( x_{\ell+1} \in K_\ell \), which contradicts our assumption. Hence this construction yields a set \( J = J_t \) with the desired properties.

From Lemma 3.1 it follows that \( \Pr(\overline{X}(y)) \leq p(n,k,\lfloor (n - 1 - s)/3 \rfloor) \). Then by Lemma 3.2 we have \( s \leq \frac{3}{4}n \) and therefore \( (n - 1 - s)/3 \geq (n - 4)/12 \). Using (4), and the fact that \( p(n,k,t) \) is decreasing in \( t \) we arrive at the inequality in the statement of the theorem. \( \Box \)

If the group \( G \) is an elementary abelian 2-group, then the value of \( M \) in (4) can be expressed in terms of \( p(n,k,t) \) exactly. This leads to the following result.

**Theorem 3.4.** Let \( G \cong \mathbb{Z}_2^d \) be an elementary abelian 2-group, and let \( 1 \leq k \leq n = 2^d \). Then for the random variable \( \text{Diam} \) on the probability space \( \mathcal{P}(G,k) \) we have

\[
p(n,k,(n - 2)/2) - \frac{k}{n - 1} \leq \Pr(\text{Diam} > 2) \leq (n - 1)p(n,k,(n - 2)/2).
\]

**Proof.** We show that for any \( y \in G^* \) we have \( \Pr(\overline{X}(y)) = p(n,k,\frac{n-2}{2}) \). Let \( J_y \) be any transversal of the subgroup \( \langle y \rangle \) in \( G \), and let \( J = J_y \setminus \{1,y\} \). Then \( \Pr(\overline{X}(y)) = \Pr(\cup_{x \in G \setminus \langle y \rangle}T(x,y)) = \Pr(\cup_{x \in J}T(x,y)) \). On the other hand, the set \( J \) satisfies the conditions of Lemma 3.1. Since \( |J| = \frac{n-2}{2} \), we have

\[
\Pr(\overline{X}(y)) = 1 - \Pr(\cup_{x \in J}T(x,y)) = p(n,k,(n - 2)/2).
\]

The statement now follows from (4). \( \Box \)

It is now clear that knowledge of the asymptotic behaviour of \( p(n,k,t) \) would allow us to make conclusions about the asymptotic behaviour of the random variable \( \text{Diam} \). As explained in the Introduction, the most interesting cases to study are \( f(n) = [cn] \) for \( 0 < c < 1/2 \) and \( f(n) = [n^\alpha] \) for \( 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \). For example, Theorem 3.3 shows that if \( \lim_{n \to \infty}(n - 1)p(n,\lfloor cn \rfloor,\lfloor (n - 4)/12 \rfloor) = 0 \) for a constant \( c \) such that \( 0 < c < 1/2 \), then the diameter of a random Cayley digraph of order \( n \) and degree \( [cn] \) is asymptotically almost surely equal to two. By the same token, if \( \lim_{n \to \infty}(n - 1)p(n,\lfloor n^\alpha \rfloor,\lfloor (n - 4)/12 \rfloor) = 0 \) for \( 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \), then the diameter of a random Cayley digraph of order \( n \) and degree \( [n^\alpha] \) is also asymptotically almost surely equal to two. Similar statements, with \( n \) a power of two and with \( (n - 2)/2 \) in the third position, hold for random abelian Cayley digraphs on the basis of Theorem 3.4. In the next section we will show that the above limits are indeed equal to zero and therefore the corresponding random Cayley digraphs almost surely have diameter two. Since Theorem 3.4 gives also a lower bound, it is natural to ask if, for \( n \) a power of two, \( \lim_{n \to \infty}p(n,\lfloor cn^{1/2} \rfloor,\lfloor (n - 2)/2 \rfloor) = 1 \) for sufficiently large \( c \). As we shall
see, the answer to this question is in the negative. In what follows we also describe more precisely the threshold at which \( \Pr(\text{Diam} \leq 2) \) jumps asymptotically away from 0.

4. Asymptotic analysis

We use a mixture of techniques, based on generating functions, with varying levels of sophistication. Some of the questions of the previous section are quickly addressed by relatively simple means, while for others it is cleaner to apply asymptotic techniques for the analysis of coefficients of multivariate generating functions as developed in \([9, 11, 8, 1, 5]\). See \([11]\) for a detailed survey of the use of such techniques in combinatorial problems. For the hardest questions we use the recently developed machinery of \([2, 4]\).

The quantity \( a(n, k, t) := \binom{k}{t} p(n+1, k, t) \) is simpler to analyse in this way than \( p(n, k, t) \) itself. It is easily seen from above that \( a(n, k, t) \) has a purely combinatorial description. Namely, given a set of size \( n \), we choose \( t \) disjoint pairs from this set. Then \( a(n, k, t) \) is the number of subsets of size \( k \) that contain none of the pairs. Note that \( a(n, k, t) = 0 \) if \( k + t > n \), by the pigeonhole principle (since the complement of \( S \) has size less than \( t \), \( S \) must contain at least \( t + 1 \) of the \( 2t \) paired elements).

From the statement of the problem, \( a(n, k, t) \) is not defined if \( 2t > n \); however, formula \( 3 \) still makes sense in that case, even though it does not define the probability of any event. In fact, \( a(n, k, t) \) can be negative for large \( t \). Asymptotic analysis in this case is considerably more difficult than what is presented below, and we will avoid this case in the present paper, since it is not relevant to the original combinatorial question.

4.1. Generating functions. We first compute the trivariate generating function of \( a(n, k, t) \). The most direct approach is to use some well-known bivariate generating functions \( \sum_{i,j} a_{ij} x^i y^j \).

Throughout, we use the convention that the binomial coefficient \( \binom{k}{t} \), with \( k, l \in \mathbb{Z} \), is zero unless \( 0 \leq l \leq k \). If \( a_{ij} = \binom{i+j}{i} \) then the generating function is \((1 - x - y)^{-1} \), while that for \( a_{ij} = \binom{i}{j} \) is \((1 - (x + 1)y)^{-1} \). We now compute

\[
\sum_{n,k,t,i} x^n y^k z^t w^i \binom{t}{i} \binom{n - 2i}{k - 2i} = \sum_{N,K,i,j} x^{N+2i} y^{K+2i} z^{i+j} w^i \binom{N}{K} \binom{i+j}{i} \binom{N}{K} x^N y^K = 1 + 1 \frac{1}{1 - z(1 + w^2 y^2) \left(1 - x(1 + y)\right)},
\]

which yields the trivariate generating function

\[
G(x, y, z) = \sum_{n,k,t} a(n, k, t)x^ny^kz^t = \frac{1}{1 - z(1 - x^2 y^2)} \frac{1}{1 - x(1 + y)}. \tag{6}
\]

Note that if we impose the restriction \( 2t \leq n \), then the sum over \( N \) is restricted to \( N \geq 2j \). Now summing over \( N, K, i, j \) as above we obtain the more relevant restricted trivariate generating function

\[
G_1(x, y, z) = \sum_{(n,k,t: 2t \leq n)} a(n, k, t)x^ny^kz^t = \frac{1}{1 - x(1 + y)} \frac{1}{1 - zx^2(1 + 2y)} =: \frac{1}{H_1 H_2} \tag{7}
\]

The series \( G_1 \) is more useful for our purposes, since all coefficients are nonnegative.

4.2. Basic asymptotic approximations. We list here some standard asymptotic approximations that will be used later.

**Lemma 4.1.** Write \( n = \lambda k \) with \( 0 < \lambda < 1 \). Then

\[
\binom{n}{k} = \exp(n R(\lambda)) P(\lambda) n^{-1/2} C(n, \lambda) \tag{8}
\]
where
\[
R(\lambda) = -\lambda \log \lambda - (1 - \lambda) \log(1 - \lambda)
\]
\[
P(\lambda) = (2\pi \lambda (1 - \lambda))^{-1/2}
\]
\[
C(n, \lambda) = (1 + O(n^{-1}) + O((n\lambda)^{-1}) + O((n(1 - \lambda))^{-1}) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.
\]

Proof. A direct application of Stirling’s approximation. \qed

We call \(R\) the exponential rate and \(P\) the leading coefficient, while \(C\) is the correction term. Of course \(R\) depends on \(\lambda\) and so may vary with \(n\) as \(n \to \infty\).

**Lemma 4.2.** For \(t \geq k \geq 0\) define
\[
b(t, k) := \frac{2^k \binom{t}{k}}{\binom{2k}{k}}.
\]
Then with \(t = \lambda k\) we have
\[
\sum_{k,t} a(2t + 1, k, t) y^k z^t = 1 + y z^{1 + 2t}/(1 + 2t)
\]
and hence we may extract coefficients to obtain
\[
a(2t + 1, k, t) = 2^k \binom{t}{k} + 2^{k-1} \binom{t}{k-1}.
\]

We also need some standard facts about the stationary phase approximation of an oscillatory integral. We recall them below and refer to a standard text such as [13] for details. Define
\[
I(f; n) = \int_a^b e^{nf(\theta)} g(\theta) d\theta
\]
where \(f\) and \(g\) are smooth functions and \(\Re f \geq 0\) on \([a, b]\).

**Lemma 4.3** (Laplace approximation). Let \(I(f; n)\) be as defined above. Suppose that \(\Re f > 0\) on \([a, b]\) except at a single point \(x \in (a, b)\). Furthermore suppose that \(f'(x) = 0\) and \(f''(x) \neq 0\), while \(g(x) \neq 0\). Then
\[
I(f; n) = \exp(nf(x)) \frac{g(x)}{\sqrt{2\pi n f''(x)}} (1 + O(n^{-1})) \quad \text{as } n \to \infty.
\]
The implied constant in the \(O\)-term remains bounded as we vary \(f\) and \(g\) provided that no hypotheses change, \(x\) remains in a compact subset of \((a, b)\), \(f''(x)\) remains bounded away from zero, and the maximum of \(|g|\) remains bounded. \qed

4.3. **Abelian groups.**

4.3.1. **The linear case.** The simpler form of the bounds involving \(p(n, k; t)\) in the abelian case allows an easy elementary approach, which we now present.

Suppose that \(t = (n - 2)/2\), so that \(n - 1 = 2t + 1\). A direct evaluation as in Section 4.1 above shows that
\[
\sum_{k,t} a(2t + 1, k, t) y^k z^t = \frac{1 + y}{1 - z(1 + 2y)}
\]
and hence we may extract coefficients to obtain
\[
a(2t + 1, k, t) = 2^k \binom{t}{k} + 2^{k-1} \binom{t}{k-1}.
\]
Now
\[ p(2t + 2, k, t) = \left( \frac{2t + 1}{k} \right)^{-1} a(2t + 1, k, t) \]
\[ = \left[ \left( \frac{2t}{k} \right)^{-1} \right]^{2k} \left( \frac{(2t - k + 2)(2t + 1)}{(2t - 2k + 2)(2t + 1)} \right) \]
\[ =: [b(t, k)]c(t, k)]. \]

When \( k = t + 1 \), the right side above should be replaced by \( 2^t \), but we do not deal with this case below anyway (since \( k < n/2 \), \( n \) is even and \( k \) is an integer we must have \( k \leq (n - 2)/2 = t \).

From (9), we obtain the exponential rate of \( b(t, k) \) with respect to \( t \) as
\[ R(\lambda) = (2 - \lambda) \log(1 - \lambda/2) - (1 - \lambda) \log(1 - \lambda) \]
with \( \lambda = k/t \). This is easily seen by elementary calculus to be negative for \( 0 < \lambda \leq 1 \). Furthermore \( c(t, k) \) has exponential rate zero. Thus in combination with Theorem 3.4 we have:

**Theorem 4.4.** For any constant \( c \) such that \( 0 < c < 1/2 \), the diameter of a random Cayley digraph on an elementary abelian 2-group of order \( n \) and degree \( \lfloor cn \rfloor \) is asymptotically almost surely equal to two. Furthermore the convergence is exponentially fast. \( \square \)

4.3.2. The sublinear case. We now consider the case where \( k \) is of order \( n^\alpha \) with \( 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \). For \( k = \lambda t \) with \( \lambda = o(1) \) as \( t \to \infty \), we have \( c(t, k) = 1 + O(\lambda) \). By (9) we again have
\[ R(\lambda) = (2 - \lambda) \log(1 - \lambda/2) - (1 - \lambda) \log(1 - \lambda) = -\lambda^2/4 + O(\lambda^3). \]

Thus if \( k \) grows at least as fast as \( n^\alpha \) with \( \alpha > 1/2 \), it is definitely the case that the upper bound \( (2t + 1)b(t, k)c(t, k) \) decays faster than polynomially. Using Theorem 3.4 again, we have the following conclusion.

**Theorem 4.5.** For any constant \( \alpha \) such that \( 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \), the diameter of a random Cayley digraph on an elementary abelian group of order \( n \) and degree \( \lfloor n^\alpha \rfloor \) is asymptotically almost surely equal to two. \( \square \)

Also, the approximation above shows that if \( k = \lfloor c\sqrt{n} \rfloor \) then the lower bound \( b(t, k)c(t, k) \) converges to \( \exp(-c^2/2) \), and not 1. This shows that for \( n \) a power of two, \( p(n, \lfloor cn^{1/2} \rfloor, (n - 2)/2) \) does not tend to 1 as \( n \to \infty \).

The case of general groups could be attacked in a similar way to the elementary approach above, but with more effort. For example, \( p(n, k, t) \) is decreasing in \( t \), so that \( p(n, k, (n - 2)/12) \geq p(n, k, (n - 4)/12) \geq p(n, k, (n - 4)/12) \) for sufficiently large \( n \). As above we can compute the bivariate generating function for \( F(12t + 3, k, t) \) and \( F(12t + 1, k, t) \), and estimate each of these as above when \( k \) is of order \( n^\alpha \). However, this approach depends heavily on the relatively nice formula for \( p(n, k, t) \) involving well-studied binomial coefficients. For variety, and to illustrate that more detailed explanations can be obtained in more generality, we use a different approach in Section 4.4.

4.4. General groups. In this section we use Theorem 3.3 to study the asymptotic behavior of the diameter of a general random Cayley digraph of order \( n \) and degree \( k \). We again consider two different regimes, namely \( k = \lfloor cn \rfloor \) and \( k = \lfloor n^\alpha \rfloor \) where \( 0 < c < 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \).

Our analysis is in terms of parameter-varying integrals that lead to uniform asymptotic expansions for the coefficients \( a(n, k, t) \), with \( t = \lfloor (n - 4)/12 \rfloor \). We make heavy use of the fact that \( n \geq 2k \) and \( n \geq 2t \) for both regimes to reduce the problem to the analysis of a one-dimensional parameter-varying integral. For the first regime, the asymptotic behavior of the resulting integral relies on the stationary phase method as found for example in [13]. Instead, for the second regime, the analysis follows the lines of [3] and [4] to properly use the Laplace approximation of Lemma 3.3.

In what follows it is always assumed that \( n \geq 2k \geq 0 \) and \( n \geq 2t \geq 0 \). We first reduce the problem to computing the asymptotics of a certain one-dimensional integral. Since \( a(n, k, t) = \)
Using Cauchy’s formula, the above implies for all $r > 0$ that

$$a(n, k, t) = \frac{r^{-k}}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (1 + re^{i\theta})^{n-2t}(1 + 2re^{i\theta})^t e^{-ik\theta} d\theta. \tag{10}$$

In particular, we can rewrite

$$a(n, k, t) = (2\pi)^{-1} \cdot E(r; n, k, t) \cdot I(r; n, k, t), \tag{11}$$

where

$$E(r; n, k, t) := r^{-k}(1 + r)^{n-2t}(1 + 2r)^t,$$

$$I(r; n, k, t) := \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \left( \frac{1 + re^{i\theta}}{1 + r} \right)^{n-2t} \left( \frac{1 + 2re^{i\theta}}{1 + 2r} \right)^t e^{-ik\theta} d\theta.$$

The integral in (10) has been normalized by the factor $(1 + r)^{n-2t}(1 + 2r)^t$ to emphasize that the modulus of each of the two factors in the integrand is maximized at $\theta = 0$.

To determine the asymptotic behavior of $a(n, k, t)$ the goal is to tune $r$ with $(n, k, t)$ so that $I(r; n, k, t)$ decays polynomially with $n$, in other words so that $E(r; n, k, t)$ captures the precise exponential growth rate of the coefficients $a(n, k, t)$.

To accomplish our goal, motivated by the stationary phase method, we rewrite the integrand of $I(r; n, k, t)$ in an exponential-logarithmic form to obtain

$$I(r; n, k, t) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \exp \left\{ -n \cdot F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3) \right\} d\theta, \tag{12}$$

where

$$F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3) := d_3 \cdot i\theta - d_1 \cdot \ln \left\{ \frac{1 + re^{i\theta}}{1 + r} \right\} - d_2 \cdot \ln \left\{ \frac{1 + 2re^{i\theta}}{1 + 2r} \right\},$$

$$d_1 := \frac{n-2t}{n},$$

$$d_2 := \frac{t}{n},$$

$$d_3 := \frac{k}{n}.$$

In what follows all logarithms are to be interpreted in the principal sense. In addition, unless otherwise stated, $d_1$, $d_2$ and $d_3$ always stand as short forms of the functions defined above. As a note on our terminology, we refer to $I(r; n, k, t)$ as a parameter-varying integral because $F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3)$, the so called phase term, depends upon the parameter $n$ itself.

We note for later that the exponential rate of $E(r; n, k, t)$ in these variables is given by

$$\limsup_n \frac{\log E(r; n, k, t)}{n} = -d_3 \log r + d_1 \log(1 + r) + d_2 \log(1 + 2r). \tag{13}$$

Before analyzing the asymptotic behavior of $I(r; n, k, t)$, we discuss the properties satisfied by the phase term that are essential for the application of the Laplace approximation. For this and based upon analytic properties to be clarified shortly, observe first that
In (16). In addition, we write $c$ as long as no hypotheses change and also bounded away from zero. Thinking momentarily of $\theta$ as $n$ the hypotheses of Lemma 4.3. Furthermore since $\text{Theorem 4.6.}$ This together with $\text{Theorem 3.3}$ yields the following result.

Thus, in order for $\theta = 0$ to be a stationary point of $F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3)$, $r$ and $(n, k, t)$ must satisfy the relation $d_3 = d_1r/(1 + r) + 2d_2r/(1 + 2r)$. A solution $r \geq 0$ to this equation is given by the formula

$$r = \frac{2d_3}{(1 - 3d_3) + \sqrt{(1 - 3d_3)^2 + 8d_3(d_1 + d_2 - d_3)}}.$$  

Note that there is a unique positive solution for $r$. On the other hand, using that $d_1 + 2d_2 = 1$, it follows almost immediately that

$$r \geq \frac{r}{2(1 + 2r)^2}.$$  

Similarly, but after using that $\ln(1 - w) \leq -w/2$, for all $0 \leq w \leq 1$, it follows that

$$\Re\{F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3)\} \geq \frac{(1 - \cos \theta)r}{2(1 + 2r)^2}.$$  

Thus for given $d_1, d_2, d_3$ in the right range, $F$ has a single stationary point at $\theta = 0$, satisfying the hypotheses of Lemma [14]. Furthermore since $g = 1$ there the Laplace approximation is uniform as long as no hypotheses change and $r$ remains bounded away from zero.

In what follows, unless otherwise stated, $r$ always stands for the short form of the term defined in (15). In addition, we write $E(n, k, t)$, $I(n, k, t)$ and $F(\theta; d_1, d_2, d_3)$ respectively as a short form for $E(r; n, k, t)$, $I(r; n, k, t)$ and $F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3)$.

4.4.1. The linear case. We first study the asymptotic behavior of the coefficient $a(n, k, t)$ for the regime where $k = |cn|$ and $t = \lfloor (n - 4)/12 \rfloor$, with $0 < c < 1/2$. In this case, as $n \to \infty$, $d_1 \to 5/6$, $d_2 \to 1/12$, $d_3 \to c$ and $r \to r_c$, where $r_c > 0$ is the quantity defined as

$$r_c := \frac{2c}{(1 - 3c) + \sqrt{(1 - 3c)^2 + 8c(11/12 - c)}}.$$  

In particular, if $c$ is bounded away from zero then for sufficiently large $n$ independent of $c$, $r$ is also bounded away from zero. Thinking momentarily of $\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3)$ as a vector of unrelated variables, observe that there exists a sufficiently small $0 < \delta < \pi$ such that $F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3)$ is an analytic function of $\theta$ for $|\theta| < 2\delta$, for all $(r, d_1, d_2, d_3)$ such that $|r - r_c| < 2\delta$. Thus by Laplace’s approximation $I(n, k, t)$ is asymptotically of order $n^{-1/2}$ as $n \to \infty$. Hence the exponential rate of $p(n, k, t)$ is indeed given by that of $(n \choose k)^{-1} E(n, k, t)$. Using (8) and (13) we see that this rate is

$$\frac{5}{6} \ln(1 + r_c) + \frac{1}{12} \ln(1 + 2r_c) - c \ln(r_c) + (1 - c) \ln(c) + c \ln(c).$$  

It is readily computed that the supremum of the exponential rate for $0 \leq c < 11/12$ occurs only when $c \to 0^+$ and has value 0. Thus certainly for $0 < c < 1/2$, the exponential rate is negative. This together with Theorem [83] yields the following result.

**Theorem 4.6.** The diameter of a random Cayley digraph of order $n$ and degree $k$ is asymptotically almost surely equal to two provided that $k/n$ remains in a compact subset of the interval $(0, 1/2)$ as $n \to \infty$. Furthermore, the convergence is exponentially fast.

Of course the same result will hold for larger values of $c$. Note that when $c > 11/12$ then for large enough $n, k + t > n$ for the value of $t$ considered here and so $a(n, k, t) = 0$.

We note in passing that in this case where $k$ is asymptotically linear in $n$, the analysis of the asymptotics of $a(n, k, t)$ is easily accomplished by the recently developed methods of Robin Pemantle and Mark Wilson [9] [10]. The resulting asymptotic expansion can be read off almost directly from the explicit expression for $G_1$. We refer to [11] Section 4.9] for more details. However, the methods of [9] [10] do not work directly in the sublinear case, unlike the methods of the present paper.
4.4.2. The sublinear case. Next we study the asymptotic behavior of \( a(n, k, t) \) for the regime where \( k = \lfloor n^\alpha \rfloor \) and \( t = (n - 4)/12 \), with \( 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \). As before, \( d_1 \to 5/6 \) and \( d_2 \to 1/12 \). However, \( d_3 \to 0 \) and therefore \( r \to 0 \) as \( n \to \infty \). The new difficulty here is that the phase term of \( I(r; n, k, t) \) converges uniformly to 0 for all \( -\pi \leq \theta \leq \pi \) as \( n \to \infty \).

To resolve this issue we factor out \( r \), exploiting the fact that \( F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3) \) is also analytic with respect to \( r \). Indeed, thinking again of \((\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3)\) as a vector of unrelated variables, observe that there exists \( \delta > 0 \) such that \( F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3) \) is an analytic function of \((\theta; r)\) for \( |\theta| < 2\pi \) and \( |r| < 2\delta \), for all \((d_1, d_2, d_3)\). Thus since \( F(\theta; 0, d_1, d_2, d_3) = 0 \), there exists a function \( F_1(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3) \), analytic in \((\theta; r)\) for \( |\theta| < 2\pi \) and \( |r| < 2\delta \), such that

\[
F(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3) = F_1(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3). 
\]

In what follows we write \( F_1(\theta; d_1, d_2, d_3) \) as a short form for \( F_1(\theta; r, d_1, d_2, d_3) \). Reverting to our value of \( r \) given by (16), we see that

\[
(20) \quad F_1(\theta; d_1, d_2, d_3) = r \cdot F_1(\theta; d_1, d_2, d_3).
\]

Using (12) and (20), we obtain

\[
I(n, k, t) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{-nr \cdot F_1(\theta; d_1, d_2, d_3)} d\theta,
\]

for all \((n, k, t)\) such that \( 0 < r \leq \delta \). Furthermore, given the factorization in (20), it follows from (14), (16), (17) and (18) that \( \frac{\partial^2 F_1}{\partial \theta^2}(0; d_1, d_2, d_3) = 0 \) and that

\[
\Re\{F_1(\theta; d_1, d_2, d_3)\} \geq \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{2 (1 + 2r)^2}.
\]

Now it is readily computed from the definition that

\[
(22) \quad r \sim d_3 - d_3(d_1 - 5/6) - 2d_2(d_2 - 1/12) + 7d_2^2/6.
\]

In particular, given that \( d_1 \to 5/6 \) and \( d_2 \to 1/12 \), we have \( n \cdot r \sim n \cdot d_3 = k \to \infty \), as \( n \to \infty \).

Since \( F_1(\theta; d_1, d_2, d_3) \) is analytic in the disk \( |\theta| < 2\pi \), the Laplace approximation can be reapplied but this time to determine the asymptotic behavior of the integral on the right-hand side of (21). It follows that \( I(n, k, t) \) is asymptotically of order \( (nr)^{-1/2} \sim k^{-1/2} = O(n^{-1/2}) \). As a result, the exponential growth rate of \( p(n, k, t) \) is again given by that of \( \binom{n}{k}^{-1} E(n, k, t) \).

The exponential rate in question is

\[
d_3 \log d_3 + (1 - d_3) \log(1 - d_3) - d_3 \log r + (1 - 2d_2) \log(1 + r) + d_2 \log(1 + 2r).
\]

Using (22), we see that as \( n \to \infty \) this rate is asymptotic to \(-d_3^2/12\). When \( k = \lfloor n^\alpha \rfloor \) with \( \alpha > 1/2 \) the exponential part of \( p(n, k, t) \) is therefore \( \exp(n(1-2\alpha)/12(1 + o(1))) \). With the help of Theorem 3.3 we finally obtain:

**Theorem 4.7.** For any constant \( \alpha \) such that \( 1/2 < \alpha < 1 \), the diameter of a random Cayley digraph of order \( n \) and degree \( \lfloor n^\alpha \rfloor \) is asymptotically almost surely equal to two. \( \square \)

Note that convergence of the upper bound to zero is faster than polynomial, but subexponential.

4.5. The threshold. We have not yet answered the original question in the introduction, concerning the threshold for \( k = f(n) \) at which the asymptotic value of \( \Pr(\text{Diam} > 2) \) undergoes a phase transition, abruptly switching from 1 to 0 as \( k \) increases.

The methods above give some useful information on this point. Consider the simpler analysis of Section 3.3 concerning abelian 2-groups (similar calculations occur when considering the bounds for general groups). Assuming that \( k = o(t) \), we see that the lower bound has order of growth equal to that of \( b(t, k) \) as \( t \to \infty \). As we have seen, if \( k = \Omega(t^\alpha) \) with \( \alpha > 1/2 \), then \( b(t, k) \) converges to zero faster than any polynomial, so the upper bound converges to zero. To see where the upper bound is asymptotically constant, we observe from the approximation that \( \exp(-\lambda^2t/4) \) must be of order \( t^{-1} \). Thus we require \( k \approx 2\sqrt{T \log T} \) for this to occur. At this stage the upper
bound converges to 2; the more precise \( k = 2\sqrt{t \log t + \log 2} \) yields a limiting upper bound of 1. At this stage the lower bound looks like \( 1/t \) and converges to 0. The lower bound converges to 1 only when \( k = o(\sqrt{t}) \) which is not useful. If \( k \) grows faster than \( \sqrt{t \log t} \), the upper bound converges to zero. If \( k \) grows slower than \( \sqrt{t \log t} \), then the upper bound goes to infinity with \( t \). This gives a threshold (rather weaker than we might hope for) in the abelian case.

In the nonabelian case we can make a similar argument with the upper bound. However we do not have a good lower bound on the probability. It may be possible to extract one by refining our arguments of Sections 2 and 3. However Robin Pemantle (personal communication) has discovered an approach using probabilistic techniques and along these lines that gives sharper results on the threshold. Thus we do not proceed further here, preferring to await the appearance of Pemantle’s work.

5. Conclusions

We have derived precise information on the event that a random Cayley digraph has diameter 2, in the abelian group case, and slightly less precise information in the general case. Many natural questions have been answered by our asymptotic analysis of upper and lower bounds on probability. An open question concerns the behaviour in the abelian case when \( k = c\sqrt{n} \). Our upper bound on probability converges to \( \infty \) and the lower bound to \( \exp(-c^2/2) \). Perhaps better bounds will allow us to determine the exact limiting probability using methods similar to those in this paper.

The genesis of this paper may be of interest. PP and the first JS were visiting the second JS in Auckland, where they derived the bounds of Section 3 and posed several questions regarding the asymptotic behaviour. Their enquiries about asymptotic analysis led from Auckland to Slovenia (M. Petkovsek) to Pennsylvania (H. Wilf) and then via Robin Pemantle to ML and MW, the latter being blissfully unaware in Auckland of the existence of the work going on in the same building!

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