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Hamiltonian paths in Cayley graphs

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ABSTRACT

The classical question raised by Lovász asks whether every Cayley graph is Hamiltonian. We present a short survey of various results in that direction and make some additional observations. In particular, we prove that every finite group G has a generating set of size at most $\log_2 |G|$, such that the corresponding Cayley graph contains a Hamiltonian cycle. We also present an explicit construction of 3-regular Hamiltonian expanders.

0. Introduction

Finding Hamiltonian cycles in graphs is a difficult problem, of interest in Combinatorics, Computer Science, and applications. It is one of the classical NP-complete problems, and thus not expected to have a simple solution [15]. Since 1969 a great attention was received by the *Lovász conjecture* (misnamed, as we explain in Section 4) which states that every vertex-transitive graph has a Hamiltonian path [27]. Despite a significant effort [10,60], there has been very little progress towards resolving this conjecture in full generality. Further, some authors expressed doubts as to the validity of the conjecture (see Section 4 for references and details). In this paper we survey several little known results that, until now, were spread around the literature. We prove the results in modern language, as well as several new results. In particular, we present a rare positive result for *all* finite groups:

Theorem 1. *Every finite group G of size $|G| \geq 3$ has a generating set S of size $|S| \leq \log_2 |G|$, such that the corresponding Cayley graph $\Gamma(G, S)$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle.*

The result is optimal in the sense that the size of the smallest generating set of a finite group G, denoted $d(G)$, is equal to $\log_2 |G|$ for $G = \mathbb{Z}_2^m$. Of course, for other groups $d(G)$ is much smaller. For example, $d(G) = 2$ for all finite simple groups [18]. We obtain optimal results in this case as well (see Section 1).

Note that we cannot prove that all, or even most, Cayley graphs of a finite group (with a fixed number of, say, $d(G)$ generators) are Hamiltonian. Even for simple groups, or for symmetric groups S_n (generated by two elements), Lovász conjecture remains infeasible. Instead, Theorem 1 shows that every finite group G has a Hamiltonian Cayley graph with a generating set of small size. The proof relies on an explicit combinatorial construction and a consequence from the Classification of Finite Simple Groups.

Our second result is an explicit construction of 3-regular Hamiltonian expanders. Expanders are highly connected graphs of bounded degree. They have a number of useful graph theoretic properties, and have applications in a number

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of problems in computer science, ranging from parallel computation to complexity theory, from cryptography to coding theory, and, most recently, computational group theory (see e.g. [1,17,32,51,56,58]). It is well known that random d-regular graphs are expanders with high probability, for $d \geq 3$ [22]. However, finding *explicit constructions* of expanders is an important problem, of interest in Combinatorics and Computer Science. The first such constructions were found in [35, 36,33] (see also [30,48]). Here we present a construction of Hamiltonian 3-regular Cayley graphs, and prove that these are expanders. Our construction is related to involutions of Nuzhin [43] and the expansion is proved by reduction to expanders of Lubotzky–Phillips–Sarnak [33].

This paper is written in a mixture of research and survey styles. We start with definitions and main results in Section 1. Then, in Section 2, we present proofs of three interrelated combinatorial lemmas, two of which are known in the literature. This is the heart of the paper. We prove theorems by technical arguments in Section 3. At this point we switch to a survey style and, in an extensive Section 4, we elaborate on the history behind this problem, connections to problems in graph theory, probabilistic and geometric group theory, etc. Let us mention here that we try to complement the existing survey articles [10,60], which have virtually no overlap with results in this paper. In Section 4 we try to emphasize the group theoretic and algebraic combinatorial properties of Cayley graphs.

1. Main results

Let G be a finite group and let S be a symmetric generating set, i.e. such that $S = S^{-1}$. A *Cayley graph* $\Gamma = \Gamma(G, S)$ is defined to be a graph with vertices $g \in G$, and edges $(g, gs), (g, gs^{-1}) \in G^2$, where $s \in S$. We shall ignore labels and orientation of edges and treat Γ as a simple graph on $|G|$ vertices. Clearly, Γ is d-regular, where $d = |S|$. From this point on, we consider only Cayley graphs.

A *Hamiltonian path* is a path in Γ which goes through all vertices exactly once. A *Hamiltonian cycle* is a closed Hamiltonian path. *Lovász conjecture* claims that every (connected) Cayley graph contains a Hamiltonian path.

Let G be a finite group, and let $\ell(G)$ be the number of composition factors of G. Denote by $r(G)$ and $m(G)$ the number of Abelian and non-Abelian composition factors, respectively. Clearly, $\ell(G) = r(G) + m(G)$.

Theorem 2. *Let G be a finite group, and let $r(G)$ and $m(G)$ be as above. Then there exists a generating set S, $\langle S\rangle = G$, with $|S| \leq r(G) + 2m(G)$, such that the corresponding Cayley graph $\Gamma(G, S)$ contains a Hamiltonian path.*

Since the smallest non-Abelian simple group has order $|A_5| = 60$, one can show that Theorem 2 implies Theorem 1 (see Section 3).

For every subset of vertices $X \subset G$ define ∂X to be the set of vertices $v \in G - X$, which are connected to X by an edge. We say that a graph is *ε-expander* if for every $|X| \leq |G|/2$, we have $|\partial X| > \varepsilon|X|$, for some fixed $\varepsilon > 0$.

Let p be a prime, $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$. Let $\mathbb{F}_p$ be a finite field with p elements, and $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ such that $a^2 = -1$. Consider the group $\mathrm{SL}(2, p)$ of two by two matrices over $\mathbb{F}_p$ with determinant one. Let $G = \mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$ be the quotient of $\mathrm{SL}(2, p)$ by the subgroup of diagonal matrices $\{\pm 1\}$. By abuse of notation, we use matrices to denote elements of $\mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$.

Consider three elements $\alpha, \beta, \gamma \in \mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$, given by the matrices

$$\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & -a \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \gamma = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 \\ a & -a \end{pmatrix}.$$

These elements generate the group G: $\mathrm{PSL}(2, p) = \langle \alpha, \beta, \gamma \rangle$. This generating set was first studied by Nuzhin in [43]. One can easily check that $\alpha^2 = \beta^2 = \gamma^2 = 1$ (see Section 3). Now consider Cayley graphs

$$\Gamma_p = \Gamma\big(\mathrm{PSL}(2, p), \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}\big).$$

Theorem 3. *Cayley graphs Γ_p defined as above contain Hamiltonian cycles and are ε-expanders, for some $\varepsilon > 0$, independent of prime $p \equiv 1 \mod 4$.*

Note that one cannot hope to obtain a sharper result since connected 2-regular graphs are simple cycles. Proof of Theorems 2 and 3 are based on combinatorial lemmas of independent interest. We present these lemmas in the following section.

2. Combinatorial conditions for Hamiltonicity

Let G be a finite group with a generating set S, and $|S| \leq 3$. In this section we consider simple relations on generators which suffice to prove that the Cayley graph $\Gamma(G, S)$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle.

An element $\alpha \in G$ is called an *involution*, if $\alpha^2 = 1$.

Lemma 1 (*Rapaport-Strasser*). *Let G be a finite group, generated by three involutions α, β, γ. Suppose $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. Then the Cayley graph $\Gamma = \Gamma(G, \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\})$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle.*

Proof. For every $z \in G$ and every $X \subset G$, denote

$$\partial_z(X) = \{g \in G - X : g = xz,\ x \in X\}.$$

Denote by $H = \langle \beta, \gamma \rangle$ a subgroup of G of order $|H| = 2m$. Let $X_1 = H$. Since H is a dihedral group, X_1 contains a Hamiltonian cycle:

$$(*) \qquad 1 \to \beta \to \beta\gamma \to \beta\gamma\beta \to \cdots \to (\beta\gamma)^{m-1}\beta \to (\beta\gamma)^m = 1.$$

We shall construct a Hamiltonian cycle in Γ by induction. At step i we obtain a cycle which spans set $X_i \subset G$. Further, each X_i will satisfy the condition $\partial_\beta(X_i) = \partial_\gamma(X_i) = \varnothing$. This is equivalent to saying that each X_i is a union of left cosets of H. By definition, $\partial_\beta(X_1) = \partial_\gamma(X_1) = \varnothing$. This establishes the base of induction.

Now suppose X_i is as above. Either $\partial_\alpha(X_i) = \varnothing$, in which case the spanning cycle in $X_i = G$ is the desired Hamiltonian cycle. Otherwise, there exists $y \in \partial_\alpha(X_i) \subset G - X_i$. Observe that $yH \cap X_i = \varnothing$, since otherwise $y \cdot h = x \in X_i$, for some $h \in H$. This implies that $y = x \cdot h^{-1} \in X_i$, since $h \in \langle \beta, \gamma \rangle$ and $z\beta, z\gamma \in X$ for all $z \in X$.

Let $X_{i+1} = X_i \cup yH$. Clearly, $\partial_\beta(X_{i+1}) = \partial_\gamma(X_{i+1}) = \varnothing$. By inductive assumption, $x = y\alpha \in X_i$ lies on a cycle which spans X_i. Then x must be connected to $x\beta$ and $x\gamma$, as $x\alpha = y \notin X_i$. Consider a cycle in $y \cdot H$, obtained by multiplying cycle in $(*)$ by y. Recall that $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. This implies $x\beta\alpha = y\beta$. Remove edges $(x, x\beta)$ and $(y, y\beta)$ from cycles in X_i and yH, and add (x, y), $(x\beta, y\beta)$. This gives a cycle which spans X_{i+1}, and completes the step of induction. □

Example 1. Consider $G = S_{2n+1}$ and three involutions $\alpha = (1\,2)$, $\beta = (1\,2)(3\,4)\cdots(2n-1\,2n)$, $\gamma = (2\,3)(4\,5)\cdots(2n\,2n+1)$ (we use cycle notation here). Observe that

$$\beta\gamma = (1\,3\,5\,\ldots\,2n-1\,2n+1\,2n\,2n-2\,\ldots\,4\,2),$$

so $\langle \alpha, \beta, \gamma \rangle = S_{2n+1}$. Note also that $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. Then Lemma 1 implies that the Cayley graph $\Gamma(S_n, \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\})$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle. This result goes back to [47] (cf. Section 4).

The following result is not formally needed to prove Theorem 2, but is of independent interest. It also gives new interesting examples and helps to smooth the transition from the proof of Lemma 1 to the proof of Lemma 3.

Lemma 2. *Let G be a finite group, generated by an involution β and an element α. Let $\gamma = \beta^\alpha := \alpha^{-1}\beta\alpha$. Then the Cayley graph $\Gamma = \Gamma(G, \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\})$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle.*

Proof. We use the same induction assumption as in the proof of Lemma 1, but the induction step requires more cases to consider. As before, let $H = \langle \beta, \gamma \rangle \subset G$. Let $X_1 = H$. We assume that Γ restricted to X_i contains a Hamiltonian cycle C_i, and that $\partial_\beta(X_i) = \partial_\gamma(X_i) = \varnothing$. Further, we assume that in the sequence of labels of the *oriented* Hamiltonian cycle C_i no label α^{-1} precedes label β or succeeds label γ.[1] Similarly, assume that in C_i no label α precedes label γ or succeeds label β (other possibilities are allowed). We shall call these *label conditions* on the cycle.

For the step of induction, recall that α is no longer an involution. Either $\partial_\alpha(X_i) = \partial_{\alpha^{-1}}(X_i) = \varnothing$, in which case $X_i = G$ and we are done, or at least one of these subsets is nonempty. Suppose there exists $y = x\alpha \in \partial_\alpha(X_i) \subset G - X_i$, where $x \in X_i$. Let $X_{i+1} = X_i \sqcup yH$, as in the proof of Lemma 1. It remains to show that X_{i+1} contains a Hamiltonian cycle C_{i+1} in this case, satisfying conditions as above.

Observe that of the three remaining possibilities (α^{-1}, β, and γ) at least one of the two edges adjacent to x in a Hamiltonian cycle C_i in X_i must be an involution β or γ. In the first case, the cycles C_i in X_i and R in yH are connected by a square:

$$x \to y = x\alpha \to y\gamma = x\alpha\gamma \to x\alpha\gamma\alpha^{-1} \to x\alpha\gamma\alpha^{-1}\beta = x,$$

so we can join the two cycles. Formally, remove edges $(x, x\beta)$ and $(y, y\gamma)$ from the union of two cycles $C_i \cup R$, and add edges (x, y), $(x\beta, y\gamma)$. Clearly, the resulting graph C_{i+1} is a Hamiltonian cycle in X_{i+1} indeed. We should note that C_{i+1} inherits orientation from C_i, due to the fact that labels of R are all involutions β and γ, and can be oriented accordingly. A simple check shows that the label conditions for C_{i+1} with respect to such orientation are all satisfied.

Now suppose neither of the two edges adjacent to x in C_i is β. By the label conditions, label α cannot precede γ and thus must succeed it. Similarly, label α^{-1} cannot succeed γ and thus must precede it. However, in both label arrangements this contradicts the fact that an edge leaving x in C_i must have label α^{-1} (in the direction of the cycle, opposite direction). Therefore we can discard these possibilities, which finalizes the case $y = x\alpha$.

Now, suppose $y = x\alpha^{-1} \in \partial_{\alpha^{-1}}(X_i) \subset G - X_i$. Since $\beta = \alpha\gamma\alpha^{-1}$, we can proceed as before, with the roles of β and γ, α and α^{-1} interchanged. Note that the label conditions are invariant under this transformation. This completes the step of induction. □

[1] We are using the terms *precedes* and *succeeds* as a shorthand for "occurs right before" and "occurs right after", respectively.

Example 2. Let $G = S_n$, and let $\alpha = (1\,2\,\ldots\,n)$, $\beta = (1\,2)$, $\gamma = (2\,3)$. Observe that $\gamma = \alpha^{-1}\beta\alpha$. Then Lemma 2 implies that the Cayley graph $\Gamma(S_n, \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\})$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle. In fact, it is known that the subgraph $\Gamma(S_n, \{\alpha, \beta\})$ is already Hamiltonian [8] (cf. Section 4).

Lemma 3 (*Rankin*). *Let G be a finite group, generated by two elements α and β, such that $(\alpha\beta)^2 = 1$. Then the Cayley graph $\Gamma = \Gamma(G, \{\alpha, \beta\})$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle.*

Proof. Again, we use an inductive assumption with a new simple label condition. Let $H = \langle\beta\rangle$, $X_1 = H$, and assume that $\partial_\alpha(X_i) = \partial_{\alpha^{-1}}(X_i) = \varnothing$. We also assume, by induction, that restriction of Γ to X_i contains an oriented Hamiltonian cycle C_i, which contains only labels β and α^{-1}. We call these the label conditions.

The base of induction is obvious. For the step of induction, consider $y = x\alpha \in \partial_\alpha X_i - X_i$. Note that the edge oriented towards $x \in X_i$ in C_i cannot have label α^{-1} (otherwise it is (y, x), whereas $y \notin X_i$) nor labels α, or β^{-1} (by the label conditions). Therefore this edge has the only remaining label β, and $(x\beta^{-1}, x) \in C_i$. Now consider a cycle R on yH with labels β on all edges, and observe that

$$x \to x\alpha = y \to x\alpha\beta = y\beta \to x\beta^{-1} = x\alpha\beta\alpha \to x$$

is a square which connects R and C_i. Formally, let

$$C_{i+1} = C_i \cup R + (x, y) + (y\beta, x\beta^{-1}) - (x\beta^{-1}, x) - (y, y\beta),$$

and observe that C_i is a Hamiltonian cycle on $X_{i+1} = X_i \cup yH$. Let C_{i+1} inherit the orientation from C_i, and check that now C_{i+1} satisfies the label conditions with respect to this orientation.

In case when $y = x\alpha^{-1} \notin X_i$, we consider the edge leaving $x \in X_i$, and proceed verbatim. If $\partial_\alpha X_i = \partial_\alpha^{-1} X_i = \varnothing$, we have $X_i = G$, which completes the proof. □

Example 3. Let $G = S_n, \alpha = (1\,2\,\ldots\,n)$, $\beta = (2\,3\,\ldots\,n)$. Then $\alpha\beta^{-1} = (1\,n)$ is an involution, and by Lemma 3 the Cayley graph $\Gamma(S_n, \{\alpha, \beta\})$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle. Incidentally, this Cayley graph is conjectured to have the longest diameter and the largest mixing time of all Cayley graphs of S_n [3,11].

3. Proof of theorems

Proof of Theorem 1. We deduce it from Theorem 2. Fix a composition series of G. Let $r = r(G)$ and $m = m(G)$. Denote by $K_1, \ldots, K_r$ and $L_1, \ldots, L_m$ the of Abelian and non-Abelian composition factors of G, respectively. Recall that $|L_j| \geq 60 > 4$. We have:

$$2^{r+2m} = 2^r \cdot 4^m \leq \prod_{i=1}^{r} |K_i| \cdot \prod_{j=1}^{m} |L_j| = |G|.$$

Therefore, $r(G) + 2m(G) \leq \log_2 |G|$, with the equality attained only for $G \simeq \mathbb{Z}_2^n$. In the latter case, when $n \geq 2$, an elementary inductive argument (or a Gray code [60,24]) gives a Hamiltonian cycle. In other cases, one can add to a generating set, one extra group element, which connects the endpoints of a Hamiltonian path. This gives the desired Hamiltonian cycle and completes the proof. □

Proof of Theorem 2. It is a well known consequence from the classification of finite simple groups, that every non-Abelian finite simple group can be generated by two elements, one of which is an involution. Therefore Lemma 3 is applicable, and for every non-Abelian finite simple group produces a generating set S, with $|S| = 2$, such that the corresponding Cayley graph contains a Hamiltonian cycle. If the group G is cyclic ($G = \mathbb{Z}_p$), a single generator suffices, of course. We need the following simple "reduction lemma":

Lemma 4. *Let G be a finite group, and let $H \lhd G$ be a normal subgroup. Suppose $S = S_1 \sqcup S_2$ is a generating set of G, such that $S_1 \subset H$, $\langle S_1\rangle = H$, and projection S_2' of S_2 onto G/H generates G/H. Suppose both $\Gamma_1 = \Gamma(H, S_1)$ and $\Gamma_2 = \Gamma(G/H, S_2')$ contain Hamiltonian paths. Then $\Gamma = \Gamma(G, S)$ also contains a Hamiltonian path.*

We postpone the proof of lemma until after we finish the proof of the theorem. Observe that in notation of Lemma 4, any generating set $\langle S_2'\rangle = G/H$ can be lifted to $S_2 \subset G$, so that $S = S_1 \sqcup S_2$ is a generating set of G. Therefore, if H and G/H have generating sets of size k_1 and k_2, respectively, so that the corresponding Cayley graphs contain Hamiltonian paths, then G contains such a generating set of size $k_1 + k_2$.

Now fix any composition series of a finite group G. By Lemma 4, we can construct a generating set S of size $r(G) + 2m(G)$, so that the corresponding Cayley graph $\Gamma(G, S)$ has a Hamiltonian path. This completes the proof of Theorem 2. □

Proof of Lemma 4. We start with the following elementary observation. Let $\Gamma = \Gamma(G, S)$ be a Cayley graph which contains a Hamiltonian path. By vertex-transitivity of Γ one can arrange this path to start at any vertex $g \in G$.

Let $k = [G : H] = |G/H|$, and let $g_1 = 1 \in G$. Consider a Hamiltonian path in the Cayley graph $\Gamma = \Gamma(G/H, S_2')$:

$$H = Hg_1 \to Hg_2 \to Hg_3 \to \cdots \to Hg_k.$$

Now proceed by induction in a manner similar to that in the proof of Lemma 1. Fix a Hamiltonian path in the coset Hg_1, so that $1 \in G$ is its starting point. Suppose h_1g_1 is its end point. Add an edge $(h_1g_1, h_1g_2) \in \Gamma$. Consider a Hamiltonian path path in the coset Hg_2 starting at h_1g_2. Suppose h_2g_2 is its end point. Repeat until the resulting path ends at h_kg_k. This completes the construction and proves the Lemma. □

Proof of Theorem 3. We write $A = \pm B$ for matrices $A, B \in \mathrm{SL}(2, p)$, to indicate that these elements map onto the same element in $\mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$.

For matrices α, β, γ as in Section 1, note that:

$$\alpha^2 = \gamma^2 = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 & 0 \\ 0 & a^2 \end{pmatrix} = \pm \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \beta^2 = \pm \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$\alpha\,\beta = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & a \\ a & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \beta\,\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -a \\ -a & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \pm\alpha\,\beta,$$

$$\gamma\alpha = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 & 0 \\ a^2 & a^2 \end{pmatrix} = \pm \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \beta\,\gamma\,\alpha\,\beta = \pm \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

The first line shows that α, β, γ are indeed involutions in $\mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$. The second line shows that α and β commute in $\mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$. Therefore, Lemma 1 implies that the Cayley graphs $\Gamma_p = \Gamma(\mathrm{PSL}(2, p), \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\})$ contain a Hamiltonian cycle.

Finally, the third line implies that elementary transvections

$$E = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad E^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad F = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad F^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

can be obtained as words of length at most 4 in α, β, γ. The celebrated result in [33] (see also [30], Theorem 4.4.3) shows that the Cayley graphs

$$\widetilde{\Gamma}_p = \Gamma\big(\mathrm{PSL}(2, p), \{E, F\}\big)$$

are ε-expanders for some universal $\varepsilon > 1/100$. It is well known and easy to see (see e.g. [30]) that if a Cayley graph $\Gamma(G, S)$ is an expander with some $\varepsilon > 0$, and if elements of S are the words of length at most C in generators S', then $\Gamma(G, S')$ is an expander with $\varepsilon' > 0$ depending only on ε and C. Taking $C = 4$, this implies the result. □

4. Historical remarks, connections and applications

(1) It seems that the problem of finding Hamiltonian cycles in Cayley graphs was suggested for the first time by Rapaport-Strasser [47]. She was motivated by bell ringing (cf. [24]) and "chess problem of the knight", popular in recreational literature.

As stated in [10], versions of Lovász conjecture (for Cayley graphs, digraphs, etc.) were proposed by "many people". Lovász himself originally conceived it as a special case of another then–problem of Gallai [14] in Graph Theory, which asked whether all longest self-avoiding paths in simple connected graphs must have a common vertex [29]. In a special case of vertex-transitive graphs this would imply that all such longest paths must have *every* vertex in common, and thus are Hamiltonian. Gallai's problem was later shown to have a negative answer [57].

Despite a very positive tone in [10], there seems to be no consensus in the field as to whether one should believe in Lovász conjecture. As opposed to conventional wisdom, the original conjecture of Lovász puts it in the negative. Here is a full and precise quote from [27], stating it as a research problem: "*Let us construct a finite, connected undirected graph, which is symmetric and has no simple path containing all the vertices. A graph is symmetric, if for any two vertices x and y, it has an automorphism mapping x onto y.*" Traditionally, however, the question is stated in the positive, and is usually referred as the "Lovász conjecture."

In a survey article [3, Section 3.3], Babai is sharply critical of the Lovász conjecture: "*In my view these beliefs only reflect that Hamiltonicity obstacles are not well understood; and indeed, vertex-transitive graphs may provide a testing ground for the power of such obstacles.*" Babai conjectured that for some $c > 0$, there exist infinitely many Cayley graphs without cycles of length $\geq (1 - c)n$. Clearly, Babai's conjecture contradicts the Lovász conjecture. In a different direction, it it worth noting Thomassen's work [54] suggesting that there might be only finitely many counterexamples.

(2) Hamiltonian cycles in several classical vertex-transitive and Cayley graphs play an important role in Combinatorics and applications. The story starts with *Gray codes* which are Hamiltonian cycles in the hypercube $\mathbb{Z}_2^n$ (patented by F. Gray in 1953). The recent treatise by Knuth [24] on the Hamiltonian cycles in Johnson's graph (on k-subsets of an n-set) and other graphs, is a great source of references and results.[2]

[2] See also a related concept of "universal cycles" in [6].

The case of Cayley graphs of the symmetric group is of particular interest. A number of results are known for particular sets of generators, such as certain involutions [47], transpositions [25], or a transposition and a long cycle [8]. The ad hoc argument in the latter paper proves the result in Example 2. Example 1 was resolved in the early paper [47], and was further investigated in [24]. We should mention that the arguments in [8,24] prove much more than a mere existence of a Hamiltonian cycle, but also present algorithms for their construction with linear space requirements. Note that our generic approach is inherently exponential (we keep all elements of G in the memory). We refer to survey papers [3,10,24,60] for further references and generalizations.

(3) The most general classes of finite groups for which Lovász conjecture was proved include Abelian groups, p-groups, some (but not all!) dihedral groups, and certain special extensions (see e.g. [28,59]). We refer to [2,10,60] and other papers in this volume for further references.

(4) If one ignores a tight bound and an explicit construction of the Cayley graphs in Theorem 1, this result can be viewed as a corollary from the following conjecture:

Conjecture 1. *There exists a constant $c \geq 1$, such that for every finite group G, and every $k \geq c \log_2 |G|$, the probability $P(G, k)$ that the Cayley graph $\Gamma = \Gamma(G, S)$ with a random generating set S of size $|S| = k$ contains a Hamiltonian cycle, satisfies:*

$$P(G, k) \to 1 \quad \text{as } |G| \to \infty.$$

While, of course, Conjecture 1 is much weaker than the Lovász conjecture, it may prove to be more feasible. It also does not contradict Babai's conjecture (see above). Until recently, the best known bound in this direction was in [39], where $k \geq |G|/3$ bound was established. A recent work [26], using sharp results of an earlier paper [2], reduces this bound down to $k \geq c \log^5 |G|$. Interestingly enough, papers [2,26] use no group theory to obtain the results. This suggests that there might be an elementary, classification-free, proof of Theorem 1.

(5) Following the paper of Pósa [26] (see also [28]), the connection between expansion and Hamiltonicity is well known, although yet to be fully understood (see [26,45]). In particular, all expanders on n vertices contain a self-avoiding path of length $> (1 - c)n$, where $c = c(\varepsilon)$ is independent of n. It is easy to see that the inverse is false. Whether expansion implies Hamiltonicity is yet to be seen, as a weaker *toughness condition* of Chvátal (known to be true for all Cayley graphs [3]) is conjectured to imply Hamiltonicity [7].

It is known that Cayley graphs with $k > C \log_2 |G|$ are expanders w.h.p. [2], for a universal constant $C > 1$. This implies that they also have self-avoiding paths of length $(1 - c)n$. Also, in a certain formal sense *almost all* k-regular graphs are Hamiltonian [49]. This view gives an extra support in favor of Conjecture 1.

(6) Both Theorems 2 and 3 require some delicacy in understanding. We present here few arguments and counterarguments which explain why neither theorem follows from known results.

We start with a somewhat more straightforward Theorem 2. In the case of simple groups, for example, pairs of generators are well known. Can one, perhaps, simply check whether the corresponding Cayley graphs contain Hamiltonian cycles? The answer is affirmative for every particular group, even for the Monster (although the size is prohibitively large), but not so clear for the series. As demonstrated by papers [8,16,50], even for $G = S_n$ or $\mathrm{SL}(2, p)$, proving Hamiltonicity requires a substantial amount of work with ad hoc methods.

The same argument goes in defense of Theorem 3. Indeed, Lovász conjecture states that Cayley graphs $\widetilde{\Gamma}_p$ (see Section 3) must contain Hamiltonian cycles, which should imply the result. Unfortunately we do not know if graphs $\widetilde{\Gamma}_p$ are Hamiltonian. Even if they are, it is not easy to construct an explicit Hamiltonian cycle in this case and we know of no fast algorithm which would do this in polynomial time. On the other hand, an algorithm for constructing a Hamiltonian path as in the proof of Lemma 1 works in linear time (in the number of vertices) .

Furthermore, one can propose a $(2, p, 3)$-generating set for $\mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$ considered in [16]. The authors prove that the corresponding Cayley graph contains a Hamiltonian cycle. A conjecture by Lubotzky [31] (see also [30]) claims that every bounded size generating set of $G = \mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$ is an expander, with a universal $\varepsilon > 0$ independent of p and the generating set. An important special case of this conjecture was recently established in [5]. As explained above, this implies that such graphs have a self-avoiding paths of length $(1 - c)|G|$. This does not by itself imply that these Cayley graphs are 3-regular Hamiltonian expanders. On the other hand, the expander graphs studied in [33] are Schrier graphs and easily contain a Hamiltonian path.

(7) It is a natural question whether Theorem 2 can be proved by using Lemma 1 or Lemma 2 alone. Indeed, Lemma 2 suffices, but gives a somewhat weaker constant: for simple groups it gives 3 generators instead of 2 (note that the degrees of the Cayley graphs are 4 in both cases). The situation with Lemma 1 is more interesting, and may also seem promising in light of a well known result [34] that, with one exception, all finite simple groups are generated by three involutions.

By now all finite simple groups generated by three involutions, two of which commute, have been classified. In papers [40–43], Nuzhin completed classification of all but sporadic simple groups which are generated by three involutions, two of which commute (he refers to such groups as $(2, 2 \times 2)$-generated). In particular, he showed that all groups of Lie type of rank ≥ 4 have such generators (few series of groups of small rank do not). A recent investigation of sporadic groups by means of explicit computation and character analysis showed that all sporadic simple groups except for M_{11}, M_{22}, M_{23} and M^cL are $(2, 2 \times 2)$-generated [44,55,37].

As there seems to be confusion over the history of $(2, 2 \times 2)$-generated groups, let us add a few more references for a complete picture. The problem was proposed by Mazurov in 1980 (see [38]). The case of alternating groups A_n, for n large enough, was solved in a much greater generality in [9]. He showed that $A_n = \langle x, y, t\rangle$, such that $x^2 = y^3 = t^2 = (xt)^2 = (yt)^2 = 1$, with (x, y, t) satisfying few other relations. Taking $\alpha = t$, $\beta = xt$, $\gamma = yt$ gives the desired three involutions with $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$. In [41], and, later, in [52], the authors independently completed classification, unaware of the previous work. Also, paper [53], independently of [42,43] proves that groups of Lie type of large enough rank are $(2, 2 \times 2)$-generated.

(8) One can ask whether Hamiltonian 3-regular expanders can be obtained as Schreier graphs of an infinite group with Kazhdan's property (T), an approach pioneered by Margulis [35] (see also [30]). In fact, one can indeed generate $\mathrm{SL}(k, \mathbb{Z})$, $k \geq 3$, by two elements, one of which is an involution, and then proceed using Lemma 2 or 3. Since the resulting graphs are 4-regular, this result is a bit weaker than that of Theorem 3. Since for every fixed $k \geq 3$, these groups have (T), the corresponding finite Schreier graphs are expanders.

Similarly, one can ask whether $\mathrm{SL}(k, \mathbb{Z})$ are $(2, 2 \times 2)$-generated for $k \geq 3$, so that one can use Lemma 1 in this setting. It turns out that the group $\mathrm{SL}(3, \mathbb{Z})$ is not $(2, 2 \times 2)$-generated, as the following simple argument by Humphries [20] shows (see also [21]): If $\mathrm{SL}(3, \mathbb{Z}) = \langle \alpha, \beta, \gamma\rangle$, then the involutions α, β, γ have 2-dimensional (-1)–eigenspaces $V_\alpha, V_\beta, V_\gamma$. If $\alpha\beta = \beta\alpha$, then $V_\alpha = V_\beta$. Therefore, $\dim(W) \geq 1$, where $W = V_\alpha \cap V_\beta \cap V_\gamma$. Since all three involutions fix W, this implies that they cannot generate $\mathrm{SL}(3, \mathbb{Z})$.

On the other hand, it was proved in [53] that the groups $\mathrm{SL}(k, \mathbb{Z})$ are $(2, 2 \times 2)$-generated when $k \geq 14$. The authors present an explicit triple of involutions to prove the result. Taking appropriate quotients, this produces Hamiltonian 3-regular expanders in $\mathrm{SL}(k, q)$ for every fixed $k \geq 14$, and all but finitely many primes q. Similar results also hold for other types (see [53]). We leave the details to the reader.

(9) Here is a straightforward way to obtain a weaker version of the theorems. Recall Fleischner theorem that the square of every connected graph is Hamiltonian [13] (see also [12, Section 10.3]). Now take a Cayley graph of a finite group G with $k = d(G)$ generators and square it. The result is also a Cayley graph of G with at most $2k^2 + k$ generators (we need to include all pairwise products of generators and their inverses, as well as the original generators). This immediately implies the existence of $O(\log |G|)$ Hamiltonian generating set in every finite group G. A similar construction implies existence of Hamiltonian expanders that are also Cayley graphs of $\mathrm{PSL}(2, p)$. We omit the details.

(10) Researching the literature, we discovered references [47,50], the latter of which seemed to contain Lemma 1. We found the proof very sketchy, as it uses a rather unclear topological argument. In fact, another version of this argument already appears in [47], stated in a different (and somewhat archaic) language. A posteriori, one can view our proof of Lemma 1 as a rigorous Combinatorial version of the very same argument. Similarly, Lemma 3 and its proof are essentially the same as in [46] (see Theorem 3.1). For the sake of consistency and completeness, we decided not to alter the exposition.

(11) In [3], Babai write: "*Even the following, less ambitious problem is open: does every finite group have a minimum Cayley graph with a Hamilton cycle?*" Our Theorem 2 is a step in this direction; it is sharp for simple groups, but off for other classes of finite groups.

Denote by $\zeta(G)$ the smallest size of a generating set, such that the corresponding Cayley graph contains a Hamiltonian path. Determining $\zeta(G)$ for various finite groups G is a problem implicit in [47]. Now Babai's question can be interpreted as to whether $\zeta(G) = d(G)$, the size of the smallest generating set. Lemma 4 is equivalent to the inequality $\zeta(G) \leq \zeta(H) + \zeta(G/H)$. Now Theorem 2 implies that $\zeta(G) \leq r(G) + 2m(G)$. In particular, for finite simple non-Abelian groups G, we have $\zeta(G) = d(G) = 2$. Similarly, it implies that $\zeta(\mathbb{Z}_2^r) = d(\mathbb{Z}_2^r) = r$, another sharp result.

Little is known for general classes of groups. We suggest general nilpotent groups as the first interesting case. Let G be a finite nilpotent group, and let $G = G_0 \supset G_1 \supset \cdots \supset G_\ell = 1$ be the lower central series $G_i = [G, G_{i-1}]$, and let $H_i = G_i/G_{i-1}$. It is easy to see that $d(G) = d(G/[G, G]) = d(H_1)$, while our bounds give only $\zeta(G) \leq \sum_i \zeta(H_i) = \sum_i d(H_i)$. In a different direction, let H_p be Sylow p-subgroups of G. From the theorem of Witte [59], we have $\zeta(G) \leq \sum_p \zeta(H_p) = \sum_p d(H_p)$, while $d(G) = \max_p d(H_p)$. We believe one should be able to close this gap.

To conclude, consider the case in which our bound $\zeta(G)$ is quite far from $d(G)$. Indeed, consider $G_n = (A_n)^{n!/8}$. When n is large enough, these groups are 2-generated, i.e. have $d(G_n) = 2$ [23] (see also [4]). Theorem 2 gives a bound $\zeta(G_n) \leq n!/4$, and this is the best bound we can prove. Improving this bound is an interesting challenge for the reader. Similarly, Philip Hall's group $G = A_5^{19}$ [19], with $d(G) = 2$, is a beautiful (but computationally unapproachable) potential counterexample to Lovász conjecture. On the other hand, Cayley graph of A_5^2 generated by two elements one of which is an involution is known to have a Hamiltonian cycle.[3]

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[3] This is due to Bill Cook and Frank Ruskey, who discovered this independently, upon my request (personal communication).

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