

# CONCISE PRESENTATIONS OF DIRECT PRODUCTS

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ABSTRACT. Direct powers of perfect groups admit more concise presentations than one might naively suppose. If  $H_1(G, \mathbb{Z}) = H_2(G, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ , then  $G^n$  has a presentation with  $O(\log n)$  generators and  $O(\log n)^3$  relators. If, in addition, there is an element  $g \in G$  that has infinite order in every non-trivial quotient of  $G$ , then  $G^n$  has a presentation with  $d(G) + 1$  generators and  $O(\log n)$  relators. The bounds that we obtain on the deficiency of  $G^n$  are not monotone in  $n$ ; this points to potential counterexamples for the Relation Gap Problem.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

If two groups are presented as  $A = \langle X \mid R \rangle$  and  $B = \langle Y \mid S \rangle$ , then their direct product is given by the presentation with generators  $X \sqcup Y$  and relators  $R, S$  and  $\{[x, y] : x \in X, y \in Y\}$ . Similarly, if  $A_i = \langle X_i \mid R_i \rangle$  with  $|X_i| = k_i$  and  $|R_i| = l_i$ , then the obvious presentation of  $A_1 \times \cdots \times A_n$  has  $\sum k_i$  generators and  $\sum l_i + \sum_{i < j} k_i k_j$  relators. In particular, the direct product  $A^n$  of  $n$  copies of  $A = \langle X \mid R \rangle$  with  $|X| = k$  and  $|R| = l$  has a presentation with  $kn$  generators and  $nl + k^2 n(n-1)/2$  relators. In the absence of further hypotheses, one cannot do better than these naive bounds. For example, one cannot generate  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  with fewer than  $n$  generators, and the number of relators needed to present  $\mathbb{Z}^n$  is at least the rank of  $H_2(\mathbb{Z}^n, \mathbb{Z}) \cong \mathbb{Z}^n \wedge \mathbb{Z}^n$ , which is  $n(n-1)/2$ . But when  $H_1(G, \mathbb{Z})$  and  $H_2(G, \mathbb{Z})$  vanish, one can construct much more concise presentations of  $G^n$  – that is the main theme of this note.

We shall see that, in addition to the vanishing of homology, the existence of finite quotients of  $G$  plays a key role in determining how concise a presentation of  $G^n$  can be. The various possibilities are summarised in the following theorem, in which we use the standard notation  $d(\Gamma)$  for the minimal number of generators of  $\Gamma$  and we define  $\rho(\Gamma)$  to be the minimum number of relators in any finite presentation of  $\Gamma$ . All of the results concerning the growth of  $d(G^n)$  are taken from [17]; they draw on earlier results of Hall [8], Wiegold [13, 14, 15] and others. The estimates on  $\rho(G^n)$  are new (or trivial).

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1991 *Mathematics Subject Classification.* 20F05, 20J06.

*Key words and phrases.* Group presentations, direct products, homology of groups, relation gap. The author is supported by a Wolfson Research Merit Award from the Royal Society.

We use the standard notation  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  for functions that are bounded above and below by positive multiples of  $g(n)$ , and for brevity we write  $H_i G$  in place of  $H_i(G, \mathbb{Z})$ . Throughout,  $G^n$  denotes the direct product of  $n$  copies of  $G$ .

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $G$  be a finitely presented group.*

- (1) *If  $H_1 G \neq 0$ , then  $d(G^n) = \Theta(n)$  and  $\rho(G^n) = \Theta(n^2)$ .*
- (2) *If  $H_1 G = 0$  and  $H_2 G \neq 0$ , then  $d(G^n) = O(\log n)$  and  $\rho(G^n) = \Theta(n)$ .*
- (3) *If  $H_1 G = H_2 G = 0$ , then  $d(G^n) = O(\log n)$  and  $\rho(G^n) = O(\log n)^3$ .*
- (4) *If  $H_1 G = H_2 G = 0$  and  $G$  has a non-trivial finite quotient, then  $d(G^n) = \Theta(\log n)$  and there are constants  $c_0, c_1$  such that  $c_0 \log n \leq \rho(G^n) \leq c_1 (\log n)^3$ .*
- (5) *If  $H_1 G = H_2 G = 0$  and there is an element  $g \in G$  that has infinite order in every non-trivial quotient of  $G$ , then  $d(G^n) \leq d(G) + 1$  for all  $n$ , and  $\rho(G^n) = O(\log n)$ .*

*In all cases, the upper bounds on  $d(G^n)$  and  $\rho(G^n)$  can be satisfied simultaneously.*

I see no reason to expect that  $\rho(G^n)$  is a monotone function of  $n$  for all finitely presented perfect groups  $G$ , and this is intriguing in the context of the celebrated *Relation Gap Problem* [9]. Recall that the *deficiency* of a finite group presentation  $\langle A \mid R \rangle$  is  $|R| - |A|$ , and the deficiency  $\text{def}(G)$  of a group  $G$  is defined<sup>1</sup> to be the least deficiency among all finite presentations of  $G$ . Our constructions suggest that the following problem might have a positive answer. If it does, then  $\Gamma^m$  would be a counterexample to the Relation Gap Problem: see remark 2.8 for an explanation and variations.

**Problem 1.2.** *Does there exist a finitely presented perfect group  $\Gamma$  and a positive integer  $m$  such that  $\text{def}(\Gamma^m) > \text{def}(\Gamma^{m+1})$  or  $\rho(\Gamma^m) > \rho(\Gamma^{m+1})$ ?*

## 2. PROOFS

We shall need some basic facts about universal central extensions of groups.

A *central extension* of a group  $G$  is a group  $\tilde{G}$  equipped with an epimorphism  $\pi : \tilde{G} \rightarrow G$  whose kernel is central in  $\tilde{G}$ . Such an extension is *universal* if given any other central extension  $\pi' : E \rightarrow G$  of  $G$ , there is a unique homomorphism  $f : \tilde{G} \rightarrow E$  such that  $\pi' \circ f = \pi$ . The standard reference for this material is [10] pp. 43–47. The properties that we need here are these:  $G$  has a universal central extension  $\tilde{G}$  if (and only if)  $H_1(G, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ ; there is a short exact sequence

$$1 \rightarrow H_2(G, \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \tilde{G} \rightarrow G \rightarrow 1 ;$$

and if  $G$  has no non-trivial finite quotients then neither does  $\tilde{G}$ .

The following result is Proposition 3.5 of [2].

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<sup>1</sup>there are two conventions in the literature: many authors take this definition to be  $-\text{def}(G)$ .

**Lemma 2.1.** *Let  $G = \langle X \mid R \rangle$  be a perfect group, let  $F$  be the free group on  $X$  and for each  $x \in X$  let  $c_x \in [F, F]$  be a word such that  $x = c_x$  in  $G$ . Then the following is a presentation of the universal central extension of  $G$ :*

$$(2.1) \quad \tilde{G} = \langle X \mid x^{-1}c_x, [r, x] (\forall r \in R, x \in X) \rangle,$$

and the identity map  $X \rightarrow X$  extends uniquely to an epimorphism  $\tilde{G} \rightarrow G$  with kernel isomorphic to  $H_2(G, \mathbb{Z})$ .

**Corollary 2.2.** *If  $H_1(G, \mathbb{Z}) = H_2(G, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ , then (2.1) is a presentation of  $G$ .*

It will be convenient to use functional notation for words. Thus, given a word  $u$  in the symbols  $x_1^{\pm 1}, \dots, x_k^{\pm 1}$ , we write  $u(\underline{x})$  to emphasize the underlying alphabet and we write  $u(\underline{y})$  for the word obtained by replacing each occurrence of each  $x_i$  with  $y_i$ , where  $y_1^{\pm 1}, \dots, y_k^{\pm 1}$  is a second (ordered) alphabet.

**Proposition 2.3.** *Let  $G = \langle x_1, \dots, x_k \mid r_1, \dots, r_l \rangle$ , let  $F$  be the free group on the  $x_i$ , suppose that  $H_1(G, \mathbb{Z}) = H_2(G, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ , and for each  $x_i$  fix  $c_i(\underline{x}) \in [F, F]$  such that  $x_i = c_i(\underline{x})$  in  $G$ . Then the following is a presentation of  $G \times G$ :*

$$(2.2) \quad \langle x_1, \dots, x_k, y_1, \dots, y_k \mid r_1, \dots, r_l, y_i^{-1}c_i(\underline{y}), [x_i y_i^{-1}, y_j], 1 \leq i, j \leq k \rangle.$$

*Proof.* First observe that the last family of relations can be written as  $x_i^{-1}y_j x_i = y_i^{-1}y_j y_i$ , from which it follows that  $x_i^{-1}u x_i = y_i^{-1}u y_i$  for all words  $u$  in the free group on  $\{y_1, \dots, y_k\}$  and each  $i = 1, \dots, k$ . Therefore, in the group presented, the transcription  $r_j(\underline{y})$  of each relation  $r_j(\underline{x})$  is central in the subgroup  $G_1 := \langle y_1, \dots, y_k \rangle$ , because  $y_i = y_i^{r_j(\underline{x})} = y_i^{r_j(\underline{y})}$ . Thus  $G_1$  (which is clearly normal) satisfies the relations that were used in Lemma 2.1 to define the universal central extension  $\tilde{G}$ . And  $\tilde{G} = G$ , because  $H_2(G, \mathbb{Z}) = 0$ .

At this stage we know that the group given by presentation (2.2) has the form  $G_1 \rtimes G_2$ , with  $G_1 \cong G_2 \cong G$ , where  $G_1$  is the subgroup generated by the  $y_i$  and  $G_2$  is the subgroup generated by the  $x_i$ . The action  $\phi : G_2 \rightarrow \text{Aut}(G_1)$  defining the semidirect product is by inner automorphisms,  $x_i \mapsto \text{ad}_{y_i}$ . Because this action factors  $G_2 \rightarrow G_1 \rightarrow \text{Inn}(G_1)$ , we have  $G_1 \rtimes G_2 \cong G_1 \times G_2$ ; indeed an isomorphism  $\phi : G_1 \times G_2 \rightarrow G_1 \rtimes G_2$  is given by  $\phi(y_i) = y_i$  and  $\phi(x_i) = y_i^{-1}x_i$ .  $\square$

At first blush, this proposition seems to gain us little or nothing compared to the naive presentation of  $G \times G$ : we have traded the  $l$  obvious relations of  $G_1$  for the  $k$  relations  $y_i^{-1}c_i(\underline{y})$ . The real benefit comes when we iterate the construction and use the fact that the number of generators that  $G^n$  requires grows strikingly slowly (an old observation of Philip Hall [8]). To exploit this we need:

**Lemma 2.4.** *Let  $G = \langle x_1, \dots, x_k \mid r_1, \dots, r_l \rangle$  and suppose  $H_1 G = H_2 G = 0$ . If  $G^N$  requires at most  $k$  generators and  $2^n \leq N$ , then  $G^{2^n}$  has a presentation with  $k$  generators and  $n(k^2 + 2k) + l$  relations.*

*Proof.* As in the previous proof, we construct a presentation of  $G^2$  with  $2k$  generators  $b_1, \dots, b_{2k}$  and  $k^2 + k + l$  relations. We then make Tietze moves to add a new generating set  $a_1, \dots, a_k$ , together with  $k$  relations expressing the  $a_i$  as words in the generators  $b_i$ . There are words  $u_i$  in the generators  $a_j$  such that  $b_i = u_i$  in  $G \times G$ . We make further Tietze moves, removing the generators  $b_i$  and replacing each occurrence of  $b_i$  in the relators by  $u_i$ . Thus we obtain a presentation of  $G \times G$  with  $k$  generators and  $k^2 + 2k + l$  relators.

Repeating the argument with  $G \times G$  in place of  $G$ , we obtain a presentation for  $G^4$  with  $k$  generators and  $2(k^2 + 2k) + l$  relators. And continuing in this manner (provided that we stay in the range where  $G^{2^n}$  needs only  $k$  generators), we obtain a presentation for  $G^{2^n}$  with  $k$  generators and  $n(k^2 + 2k) + l$  relators.  $\square$

**Corollary 2.5.** *If  $G$  and  $N$  are as in the lemma and  $m \leq N/2$ , then  $G^m$  has a presentation with  $k$  generators and  $(k^2 + 2k)(\log_2 m + 1) + l + k$  relators.*

*Proof.* Let  $n$  be the least integer such that  $m \leq 2^n$  and write  $G^{2^n} = G^m \times G^{2^n - m}$ . The lemma tells us that  $G^{2^n}$  has a presentation with  $k$  generators and  $n(k^2 + 2k) + l$  relators. Moreover, as  $2^n - m < N$ , the second factor in the given decomposition is a  $k$ -generator group, and can therefore be killed by the addition of at most  $k$  relations. To complete the proof, note that  $n - 1 < \log_2 m$ .  $\square$

It is an open question as to whether every finitely generated perfect group is the normal closure of one element. If it is, then the  $k$  relations added to kill  $G^{2^n - m}$  in the above proof could be replaced by a single relation.

We shall need the following result of Wiegold and Wilson [17]; the proof presented here is new but has much in common with the original.

**Proposition 2.6.** *Let  $G$  be a perfect group. If  $d(G) = r$ , then  $d(G^m) \leq r(1 + \lceil \log_2(m + 1) \rceil)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $M = \lceil \log_2(m + 1) \rceil$ , the least integer with  $m < 2^M$ . The proof uses binary expansions  $j = \sum_{i=0}^{M-1} \varepsilon_i(j) 2^i$  of integers  $j = 1, \dots, m$ . Given a generating set  $\{a_1, \dots, a_k\}$  for  $G$ , for  $i = 0, \dots, M - 1$  we define

$$a_{r,i} = (a_r^{\varepsilon_i(1)}, a_r^{\varepsilon_i(2)}, \dots, a_r^{\varepsilon_i(m)}).$$

For each pair of integers  $1 \leq j < j' \leq m$ , there is some  $i$  such that  $\varepsilon_i(j) \neq \varepsilon_i(j')$ , and for that  $i$  we have  $p_{j,j'}(a_{r,i}) \in \{(a_r, 1), (1, a_r)\}$ , where  $p_{jj'} : G^m \rightarrow G \times G$  is the coordinate projection to the  $j$  and  $j'$  factors. The image under  $p_{jj'}$  of the diagonal element  $\alpha_r := (a_r, \dots, a_r)$  is  $(a_r, a_r)$ . Thus the restriction of  $p_{jj'}$  to the subgroup  $S < G^m$  generated by the set  $\{\alpha_r, a_{r,i} \mid r = 1, \dots, k; i = 0, \dots, M - 1\}$  is surjective. It follows that  $S$  contains the  $(m - 1)$ -st term of the lower central series of  $G^m$  (see [4] p.643). But  $G^m$  is perfect, so each term of the lower central series is the whole group, and therefore  $S = G^m$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.7.** *If  $G$  is a finitely presented group with  $H_1G = H_2G = 0$ , then  $G^m$  has a finite presentation with at most  $O(\log m)$  generators and  $O(\log m)^3$  relators.*

*Proof.* The preceding proposition shows that  $d(G^m) = O(\log m)$ . We fix a constant  $k$  so that  $G$  can be generated by  $k$  elements and  $G^m$  can be generated by  $k\lceil\log_2 m\rceil$  elements, for all positive integers  $m$ . Suppose  $G = \langle x_1, \dots, x_k \mid r_1, \dots, r_l \rangle$ . Since  $G^2$  only needs  $k$  generators, as in Lemma 2.4 we obtain a presentation of  $G^2$  with  $k$  generators and  $k^2 + 2k + l$  relators. From Proposition 2.3 we then get a presentation of  $G^4 = G^2 \times G^2$  with  $2k$  generators and  $k^2 + k + (k^2 + 2k + l) = 2k^2 + 3k + l$  relators. Applying Proposition 2.3 again we get a presentation of  $G^8$  with  $4k$  generators and  $(2k)^2 + 2k + (2k^2 + 3k + l) = 6k^2 + 5k + l$  relators. Since  $G^8$  only requires  $3k$  generators, as in the proof of Lemma 2.4 we can convert this to a presentation with  $3k$  generators and  $6k^2 + 8k + l$  relators.

Repeating this argument, we obtain a presentation of  $G^{16}$  with  $6k$  generators and  $(3k)^2 + 3k + (6k^2 + 8k + l) = 15k^2 + 11k + l$  relators, which we convert to one with  $4k$  generators and  $15k^2 + 15k + l$  relators. And, proceeding by induction, we get a presentation of  $G^{2^n}$  with  $nk$  generators and  $\sigma_n k^2 + \tau_n k + l$  relators, where  $\sigma_n - 1 = n(n-1)(2n-1)/6$  is the sum of squares up to  $(n-1)^2$  and  $\tau_n = n^2 - 1$ .

Given  $m$ , we let  $n = \lceil\log_2 m\rceil$ , write  $G^{2^n} = G^m \times G^{2^{n-m}}$ , take the presentation of  $G^{2^n}$  constructed above and kill the factor  $G^{2^{n-m}}$  by adding relations to kill a generating set of cardinality  $k\lceil\log_2(2^n - m)\rceil$ , which is at most  $k(n-1)$ . Thus we obtain a presentation of  $G^m$  with  $kn = O(\log m)$  generators and  $\sigma_n k^2 + \tau_n k + l + k(n-1) = O(\log m)^3$  relators.  $\square$

**Proof of Theorem 1.1** All of the results that we need concerning the growth of  $d(G^n)$  can be found in [17]; they draw on earlier results of Hall [8], Wiegold [13, 14, 15] and others. Thus we focus on the estimates for  $\rho(G^n)$ .

A simple induction using the Künneth formula shows that if  $H_1G \neq 0$  then the number of generators needed for  $H_2G^n$  is at least  $n(n-1)/2$ , so one needs at least this number of relations to present  $G^n$ . The complementary upper bound is provided by the naive construction in the first paragraph of the Introduction. This proves (1).

If  $G$  is perfect, then by the Künneth formula  $H_2G^n$  is a direct sum of  $n$  copies of  $H_2G$ , and therefore  $d(H_2G^n)$  grows linearly if  $H_2G \neq 0$ . This provides the lower bound for (2). To establish a complementary upper bound, we consider the universal central extension  $\tilde{G}$ . Theorem 2.7 tells us that  $\tilde{G}^n$  has a presentation with at most  $O(\log_2 n)$  generators and  $O(\log n)^3$  relations. The kernel of  $\tilde{G} \rightarrow G$  is isomorphic to  $H_2G$ , so we need only add a further  $nd(H_2G)$  relations to pass from  $\tilde{G}^n$  to the quotient  $G^n$ .

(3) is Theorem 2.7. The bounds on the number of relations in (4) follow from (3) and the simple observation that since  $H_1G^n = 0$ , the number of relators in any presentation is at least as great as the number of generators.

If  $G$  is perfect and  $g \in G$  has infinite order in every non-trivial quotient of  $G$ , then  $G^n$  is generated by the diagonal copy of  $G$  together with  $(g, g^2, \dots, g^n)$ , by Theorem 4.4 of [17]; hence  $d(G^n) \leq d(G) + 1$ , as asserted in (5). The required bound on  $\rho(G^m)$  is a special case of Corollary 2.5.  $\square$

### Relation Gap Problem.

**Remark 2.8.** If one expresses a finitely presented group  $G$  as a quotient of a free group  $F \cong F/R$ , then the action of  $F$  by conjugation on  $M = R/[R, R]$  makes  $M$  a  $\mathbb{Z}F$ -module (and a  $\mathbb{Z}G$ -module). It is obvious that this module requires at most  $d_F(R)$  generators, where  $d_F(R)$  is the least number of elements (relations of  $G$ ) that one needs to generate  $R$  as a normal subgroup of  $F$ . Despite much effort, there is no example known where  $M$  is proved to require fewer than  $d_F(R)$  generators – the putative difference is the *relation gap*.

An elementary calculation shows that if  $N < G$  is normal and perfect, then the relation module for  $F \rightarrow G/N$  requires no more generators than  $M$  does, but one suspects that in some cases  $G/N$  is finitely presented and requires more relations than  $G$ . For example, if one could prove that there is a finitely presented perfect group  $\Gamma$  such that  $\text{def}(\Gamma^n) > \text{def}(\Gamma^m)$  for some  $n < m$ , then one could take a finite presentation realising the deficiency of  $\Gamma^m$  and add relations to kill a direct factor  $\Gamma^{m-n}$ ; the resulting presentation of  $\Gamma^n$  would have a relation gap of at least  $\text{def}(\Gamma^n) - \text{def}(\Gamma^m)$ .

Similarly, if  $\rho(\Gamma^n) > \rho(\Gamma^m)$  for some  $n < m$ , then by taking a presentation of  $\Gamma^m$  with  $\rho(\Gamma^m)$  relators and passing to  $\Gamma^n$  by killing a direct factor  $\Gamma^{m-n}$ , we would obtain a presentation with a relation gap. More generally, it would suffice to prove that a specific map  $F \rightarrow \Gamma^n$  from a finitely generated free group factored as  $F \rightarrow \Gamma^m \rightarrow \Gamma^n$ , where the second map is the quotient by a direct factor and the kernel of the first map requires fewer normal generators than the composite. The special role that powers of the form  $G^{2^r}$  play in the proofs of this section is intriguing in this regard.

## 3. EXAMPLES

**3.1. Profinitely trivial examples.** In [3] Fritz Grunewald and I constructed a family of infinite super-perfect groups  $B_p$  that have no non-trivial finite quotients. The presentation given there is

$$B_p = \langle a, b, \alpha, \beta \mid ba^pb^{-1} = a^{p+1}, \beta\alpha^p\beta^{-1} = \alpha^{p+1}, [bab^{-1}, a]\beta^{-1}, [\beta\alpha\beta^{-1}, \alpha]b^{-1} \rangle.$$

A 3-generator, 3-relator presentation of  $B_p$  can be obtained from this by a simple Tietze move removing the generator  $\beta$  and the third relation, replacing the occurrences of  $\beta$  in the second and fourth relations by the word  $[bab^{-1}, a]$ .

**Lemma 3.1.** *Let  $Q$  be a quotient of  $H = \langle a, b \mid ba^p b^{-1} = a^{p+1} \rangle$ . If the image of  $a$  in  $Q$  has finite order, then the image of  $[bab^{-1}, a]$  is trivial.*

*Proof.* If the image  $\bar{a}$  of  $a$  has finite order, then the images of  $a^p$  and  $a^{p+1}$  in  $Q$  must have the same order, since they are conjugate. But the order of  $\bar{a}^r$  is  $m/c$ , where  $m$  is the order of  $\bar{a}$  and  $c = (m, r)$  is the highest common factor. Since  $p$  and  $p + 1$  are coprime, it follows that  $\bar{a}^p$  generates  $A = \langle \bar{a} \rangle$  and the image of  $b$  conjugates  $\bar{a}$  to a power of  $\bar{a}$ . In particular, the image of  $[bab^{-1}, a]$  in  $Q$  is trivial.  $\square$

We need the following strengthening of the fact that  $B_p$  has no non-trivial finite quotients.

**Proposition 3.2.**  *$a \in B_p$  has infinite order in every non-trivial quotient of  $B_p$ .*

*Proof.* If the image of  $a$  has finite order in a quotient  $Q$ , then the image of  $[bab^{-1}, a]$  is trivial, by the lemma. The relations  $\beta = [bab^{-1}, a]$  and  $\beta\alpha^p\beta^{-1} = \alpha^{p+1}$  then force  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$  to have trivial image in  $Q$ , whence  $b = [\beta\alpha\beta^{-1}, \alpha]$  does too. So  $Q = 1$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.3.** *For all integers  $p, m$ , the direct product of  $m$  copies of  $B_p$  has a presentation with at most 4 generators and  $24\lceil \log_2 m \rceil - 1$  relations.*

*Proof.* By Theorem 1.1(5) (which is from [17]) or Remark 3.4(1), we know that  $B_p^n$  requires at most 4 generators. To estimate the number of relations needed, first, as in Proposition 2.3, we present  $B_p \times B_p$  with 6 generators and 15 relations. Then, as in the proof of Lemma 2.4, we reduce this to a presentation with 4 generators and 19 relations. Continuing the argument of Lemma 2.4, we get a 4-generator presentation of  $B_p^4$  with  $16 + 4 + 19 + 4 = 43$  relations, then a 4-generator presentation of  $B_p^8$  with  $16 + 4 + 43 + 4 = 67$  relations, a 4-generator presentation of  $B_p^{16}$  with  $16 + 4 + 67 + 4 = 91$  relations, and a 4-generator presentation of  $B_p^{2^n}$  with  $24n - 5$  relations. As in Lemma 2.4, we conclude that  $B_p^m$  has a 4-generator presentation with at most  $24\lceil \log_2 m \rceil - 1$  relations.  $\square$

**Remarks 3.4.** (1) I do not know if the number of relations needed to present  $B_p^m$  is  $\Omega(\log m)$ .

(2) In [1], Baumslag and Miller constructed a 4-generator finitely presented group  $G_p$  that admits a surjection  $G_p \rightarrow G_p \times G_p$ . The group  $B_p$  is a quotient of  $G_p$ , and therefore  $B_p^n$  is a quotient of  $G_p$  for all positive integers  $n$ .

**3.2. Infinite simple groups.** The Burger-Mozes groups are infinite simple groups that arise as the fundamental groups of compact non-positively squared 2-complexes [5]. Such a complex  $X$  is a classifying space for its fundamental group  $\Gamma = \pi_1 X$ ,

so  $H_2\Gamma = H_2X$ . These complexes have many more 2-cells than 1-cells, so  $H_2X$  is a free-abelian group of non-zero rank. By combining parts (2) and (5) of Theorem 1.1, we see that  $\Gamma^n$  has a finite presentation with at most  $d(\Gamma) + 1$  generators but the number of relations needed to present  $\Gamma^n$  grows linearly.

Rattaggi [12] refined the original construction of Burger and Mozes to produce examples with relatively small presentations. In particular he constructed an example with 3 generators and 62 relations.

Richard Thompson's group  $T$  provides a further example of a 3-generator infinite simple group [11] (see [6], for example). Ghys and Sergiescu [7] proved that  $H_2(T, \mathbb{Z}) \neq 0$ , so again  $T^n$  needs at most 4 generators but the number of relations required to present  $T^n$  grows linearly with  $n$ .

**3.3. Finite groups.** Super-perfect finite groups are covered by Theorem 1.1(4). It would be particularly interesting to improve the estimate  $\rho(G^n) = O(\log n)^3$  in this case, where one has so much more structure.

To close, we follow our construction in the case of the binary icosahedral group  $\tilde{A}_5 \cong \mathrm{SL}(2, 5)$ . Since it is the universal central extension of  $A_5$ , we have  $d(\tilde{A}_5^n) = d(A_5^n)$ . Famously, Philip Hall [8] calculated the range of  $n$  in which  $d(A_5^n) = 2, 3$ . By following our argument in this case we get, for example, that  $\tilde{A}_5^{16}$  has a 2-generator presentation with 36 relators, while  $\tilde{A}_5^{1024}$  has a 3-generator presentation with 118 relators.

**Acknowledgment.** The exposition in this article benefited from the perceptive comments of a diligent referee.

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