

## THE SYMMETRIC GENUS OF 2-GROUPS

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**Abstract.** Let  $G$  be a finite group. The *symmetric genus*  $\sigma(G)$  is the minimum genus of any Riemann surface on which  $G$  acts faithfully. We show that if  $G$  is a group of order  $2^m$  that has symmetric genus congruent to 3 (mod 4), then either  $G$  has exponent  $2^{m-3}$  and a dihedral subgroup of index 4 or else the exponent of  $G$  is  $2^{m-2}$ . We then prove that there are at most 52 isomorphism types of these 2-groups; this bound is independent of the size of the 2-group  $G$ . A consequence of this bound is that almost all positive integers that are the symmetric genus of a 2-group are congruent to 1 (mod 4).

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**1. Introduction.** A finite group  $G$  can be represented as a group of automorphisms of a compact Riemann surface. In other words,  $G$  acts on a Riemann surface. The *symmetric genus*  $\sigma(G)$  is the minimum genus of any compact Riemann surface on which  $G$  acts faithfully.

The origins of this parameter can be traced back over a century to the work of Hurwitz, Poincaré, Burnside and others. We use the modern terminology introduced in [16]. There is now a substantial body of work on the symmetric genus parameter.

A natural problem is to determine the positive integers that occur as the symmetric genus of a group (or a particular type of group). Indeed, whether or not there is a group of symmetric genus  $n$  for each value of the integer  $n$  remains a challenging open question; see the recent, important article [4]. Here, we restrict our attention to 2-groups. The 2-groups are interesting in this context because of the well-known conjecture that, among the finite groups, almost all groups are 2-groups.

The only 2-groups of even genus are the classical 2-groups of genus 0 [11, Theorem 9]. In other words, if  $G$  is a 2-group with positive symmetric genus, then  $\sigma(G)$  is odd. The 2-groups with positive genus are our focus here, and we show that the 2-groups with symmetric genus congruent to 3 modulo 4 are special indeed. In particular, we show that a group  $G$  of order  $2^m$  acting on a Riemann surface of genus  $g \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  must contain an element of order  $2^{m-3}$  or larger. Further, if  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$ , then  $G$  contains a dihedral subgroup of index 4. This yields the following result.

**THEOREM 1.** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$ . If  $\sigma(G) \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , then either  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$  and  $G$  has a dihedral subgroup of index 4 or else  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-2}$ .*

Thus, if the symmetric genus  $\sigma(G) \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , then  $G$  is a group of one of two types. First, it may be that  $G$  has exponent  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-2}$ , that is,  $G$  has a cyclic subgroup of index 4 but no cyclic subgroup of index 2. The families of 2-groups with

this property were classified, long ago, by Burnside [3] and Miller [13, 14]. There are two abelian groups and 25 non-abelian groups of this type of order  $2^m$ , as long as  $m \geq 6$ . It is easy to see that the two abelian groups have symmetric genus 1.

The other possibility for a group  $G$  with  $\sigma(G) \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  is that  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$ , and further,  $G$  has a dihedral subgroup of index 4. These 2-groups are our main focus here, and we obtain a complete classification of the 2-groups of this type. We show that if  $m \geq 7$ , there are exactly 27 isomorphism types of these 2-groups (There are fewer for small orders.). The important thing here is that this number of isomorphism types is independent of the size of the 2-group  $G$ .

With this classification and the earlier one of Burnside and Miller, our Theorem 1 gives the following.

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$ . If  $\sigma(G) \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , then there are at most 52 possible isomorphism types for the group  $G$ .*

Of the 52 possible groups of each order, relatively few actually have genus congruent to 3 (mod 4). We do not attempt to classify those families with genus congruent to 3 (mod 4), but such infinite families exist. A consequence of [4, Theorem 3.1] is that every group in Miller's family  $M_5$  (see [12, Table 2]) has genus congruent to 3 (mod 4). Also, each group in the infinite family  $H_6$  (defined in Table 2) has genus congruent to 3 (mod 4).

The upper bound of Theorem 2 allows us to establish some interesting results using the standard notion of density. We consider the general problem of determining whether there is a 2-group of symmetric genus  $g$ , for each value of  $g$ . Let  $T$  be the set of integers  $g \geq 2$  for which there is a 2-group of symmetric genus  $g$ ; we know that  $T$  only contains odd integers. Suppose  $T_3$  is the subset of  $T$  consisting of the integers congruent to 3 (mod 4). Then  $T_3$  is infinite, due to the genus formulas for the families  $M_5(m)$  and  $H_6(m)$ . Our main results concerning density are the following.

**THEOREM 3.** *The set  $T_3$  has density 0 in the set of positive integers.*

**THEOREM 4.** *Almost all positive integers that are the symmetric genus of a 2-group are congruent to 1 (mod 4). Further, the density  $\delta(T)$  is at most  $1/4$ .*

Theorem 4 has an interesting interpretation in connection with the conjecture that among the finite groups, almost all groups are 2-groups. If this conjecture holds (as it almost certainly does), then our results would imply that almost all groups have symmetric genus congruent to 1 (mod 4).

Not surprisingly, Theorems 3 and 4 agree with the companion results [12] about the strong symmetric genus, a closely related parameter. The general approach in [12] is along similar lines, but, in fact, the proofs there are easier. This is, however, one instance where work on one parameter suggests the companion results about a related parameter.

**2. Preliminaries.** The groups of symmetric genus 0 are the classical, well-known groups that act on the Riemann sphere (possibly reversing orientation) [8, Section 6.3.2]. The groups of symmetric genus 1 have also been classified, at least in a sense. These groups act on the torus and fall into 17 classes, corresponding to quotients of the 17 Euclidean space groups [8, Section 6.3.3]. Each class is characterized by a presentation, typically a partial one.

For each value of the genus  $g \geq 2$ , there are only a finite number of groups with symmetric genus  $g$ . This is essentially Hurwitz's classical bound for the size of the automorphism group of a Riemann surface. We use the standard well-known approach to group actions on surfaces of genus  $g \geq 2$ . Let the finite group  $G$  act on the (compact) Riemann surface  $X$  of genus  $g \geq 2$ . Then represent  $X = U/K$ , where  $K$  is a Fuchsian surface group and obtain a non-Euclidean crystallographic (NEC) group  $\Gamma$  and a homomorphism  $\phi : \Gamma \rightarrow G$  onto  $G$  such that  $K = \text{kernel } \phi$ . Associated with the NEC group  $\Gamma$  are its signature and canonical presentation. It is basic that each period and each link period of  $\Gamma$  divide  $|G|$ . Further, the non-Euclidean area  $\mu(\Gamma)$  of a fundamental region for  $\Gamma$  can be calculated directly from its signature [15, p. 235]. Then the genus of the surface  $X$  on which  $G$  acts is given by

$$g = 1 + |G| \cdot \mu(\Gamma)/4\pi. \quad (1)$$

There are four families of non-abelian 2-groups that possess a cyclic subgroup of index 2. A good reference for these groups is [7, Section 5.4]. These families can be constructed using the non-trivial automorphisms of a cyclic 2-group. The automorphism group is well-known; for  $n \geq 3$ , we have

$$\text{Aut}(\mathbb{Z}_{2^n}) = \langle -1 \rangle \times \langle 5 \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{n-2}}. \quad (2)$$

These power automorphisms are detailed in [7, Lemma 4.1, p. 189]. Three of these families of 2-groups will be needed here, and we describe these three.

For  $m \geq 2$ , let  $D(m)$  be the group with generators  $x, y$  and defining relations

$$x^{2^{m-1}} = y^2 = 1, yxy = x^{-1}. \quad (3)$$

The group  $D(m)$  is the dihedral group of order  $2^m$ . Each dihedral group has symmetric genus 0.

For  $m \geq 4$ , let  $QD(m)$  be the group with generators  $x, y$  and defining relations

$$x^{2^{m-1}} = y^2 = 1, yxy = x^{-1+2^{m-2}}. \quad (4)$$

The group  $QD(m)$  of order  $2^m$  is called a *quasi-dihedral* group (or *semi-dihedral* group) [7, p. 191]. This group has symmetric genus 1 [10, Theorem 2].

For  $m \geq 4$ , let  $QA(m)$  be the group with generators  $x, y$  and defining relations

$$x^{2^{m-1}} = y^2 = 1, y^{-1}xy = x^{1+2^{m-2}}. \quad (5)$$

The group  $QA(m)$  is a non-abelian group of order  $2^m$  [7, p. 190]; we call this group *quasi-abelian* [10, p. 237]. This group also has symmetric genus 1 [10, Theorem 3].

The fourth family consists of the *dicyclic* groups [6, pp. 7, 8]; each dicyclic group has symmetric genus 1 [10, p. 236].

The three automorphisms of order 2 of the maximal cyclic group will be called inversion, the quasi-dihedral action and the quasi-abelian action; these actions are given in (3), (4) and (5), respectively. Inversion is also used to construct a dicyclic group, but the element of the group that gives rise to the inner automorphism which is inversion has order 4.

Two additional families of 2-groups will be important here. Each of these groups has a dihedral subgroup of index 2. First, for  $m \geq 4$ , let  $CD(m)$  be the group with

generators  $x, y, z$  and defining relations

$$x^{2^{m-2}} = y^2 = z^4 = (xy)^2 = 1, xz = zx, yz = zy, z^2 = x^{2^{m-3}}. \tag{6}$$

This group is the central product of the dihedral group  $D(m - 1)$  and a cyclic group of order 4. We call  $CD(m)$  a  $CD$  group. Each of these groups is also toroidal, and  $\sigma(CD(m)) = 1$  [11, Theorem 5].

For  $m \geq 5$ , let  $HD(m)$  be the group with generators  $x, y, z$  and defining relations

$$x^{2^{m-2}} = y^2 = z^2 = (xy)^2 = (yz)^2 = 1, zxz = x^{-1+2^{m-3}}. \tag{7}$$

This interesting group of order  $2^m$  has a dihedral subgroup  $\langle x, y \rangle$  of index 2 as well as a quasi-dihedral subgroup  $\langle x, z \rangle$  of index 2. We call  $HD(m)$  a *hyperdihedral* group [9, p. 113]. Each group in this family acts on the torus, that is,  $\sigma(HD(m)) = 1$  [11, Theorem 4].

Each of the groups  $HD(m)$  and  $CD(m)$  contains a dihedral subgroup of index 2 and has exponent  $2^{m-2}$ . Among the 2-groups with exponent  $2^{m-2}$ , the only other group with a dihedral subgroup of index 2 is the direct product  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times D(m - 1)$ . For  $m \geq 4$ , this group has generators  $x, y, z$  and defining relations

$$x^{2^{m-2}} = y^2 = z^2 = (xy)^2 = 1, xz = zx, yz = zy. \tag{8}$$

The following classification is in [9, Theorem 9]; this result will be important here.

**THEOREM A.** *Let  $G$  be group of order  $2^m$  with a dihedral subgroup  $M$  of index 2, with  $m \geq 5$ . If  $G$  has no element of order  $2^{m-1}$ , then  $G$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times M$ ,  $HD(m)$  or  $CD(m)$ .*

We established in [11, Theorem 9] that the only 2-groups of even genus are those that act on a Riemann sphere and have genus 0. Important in the proof of the following are the 2-groups with a maximal cyclic subgroup as well as the groups  $HD(m)$  and  $CD(m)$ .

**THEOREM B.** *Let  $G$  be a 2-group with positive symmetric genus. Then  $\sigma(G)$  is odd.*

**3. 2-groups of odd genus.** Here, we consider a 2-group  $G$  acting on a Riemann surface of genus  $g \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$  and obtain a refinement of [11, Theorem 7] in this case.

**THEOREM 5.** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$  that acts on a Riemann surface  $X$  of genus  $g \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Then  $G$  contains an element of order  $2^{m-3}$  or larger. If  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$ , then, further,  $G$  contains a dihedral subgroup of index 4.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $G$  acts on the Riemann surface  $X$  of genus  $g \geq 2$  where  $g \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . Represent  $X = U/K$ , where  $K$  is a Fuchsian surface group and obtain an NEC group  $\Gamma$  and a homomorphism  $\phi : \Gamma \rightarrow G$  onto  $G$  such that  $K = \text{kernel } \phi$ . The NEC group  $\Gamma$  has signature

$$(p; \pm; [\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_r]; \{C_1, \dots, C_k\}),$$

where each period cycle  $C_i$  is either empty or contains the link periods  $n_{i1}, \dots, n_{is_i}$ . Each link period is the order of a product of involutions in the presentation for  $\Gamma$ . For more information about signatures, see [15].

Since  $K$  is a surface group, each period  $\lambda_i$  and each link period  $n_{ij}$  must be the order of an element of  $G$ . The non-Euclidean area is given by

$$\mu(\Gamma)/2\pi = \varepsilon p - 2 + k + \sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_i}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{n_{ij}}\right),$$

where  $\varepsilon = 1$  or  $2$  [15, p. 235]. Now write  $g = 4t + 3$  for some integer  $t$ . Then using (1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} 3 + 4t &= 1 + 2^{m-1} \left( \varepsilon p - 2 + k + \sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_i}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{n_{ij}}\right) \right), \\ 1 + 2t &= 2^{m-2} \left( \varepsilon p - 2 + k + \sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{\lambda_i}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \sum \left(1 - \frac{1}{n_{ij}}\right) \right). \end{aligned}$$

It follows that the sum

$$\sum \left(\frac{2^{m-2}}{\lambda_i}\right)(\lambda_i - 1) + \sum \left(\frac{2^{m-3}}{n_{ij}}\right)(n_{ij} - 1)$$

must be an odd integer. But this clearly would not be the case if  $Exp(G) \leq 2^{m-4}$ . Hence,  $Exp(G) \geq 2^{m-3}$ .

Suppose that  $Exp(G) = 2^{m-3}$ . In this case, an odd number of the link periods must equal to  $2^{m-3}$ . Then suppose that the specific link period  $n_{ij} = 2^{m-3}$ . Now in the group  $\Gamma$ , there are generating reflections  $c_{i,j-1}$  and  $c_{i,j}$  with  $n_{i,j} = o(c_{i,j-1} \cdot c_{i,j})$ . It follows that  $\langle \bar{c}_{i,j-1}, \bar{c}_{i,j} \rangle \cong D(m-2)$  in  $G$ , and hence,  $G$  has a dihedral subgroup of index 4 in this case. □

**Proof of Theorem 1.** By the previous result,  $Exp(G)$  must be at least  $2^{m-3}$ . First,  $G$  is not cyclic, since a cyclic group has symmetric genus 0. Suppose then that  $G$  contained an element of order  $2^{m-1}$ . If  $G$  were abelian, then  $G$  would be isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{m-1}}$ , a group of genus 0. Thus,  $G$  must be non-abelian and either dihedral, dicyclic, quasi-dihedral or quasi-abelian [7, Theorem 4.4, p. 193]; but each of these groups has genus 0 or 1. Hence,  $Exp(G)$  is either  $2^{m-2}$  or  $2^{m-3}$ . □

Thus, if  $\sigma(G) \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ , then  $G$  is a group of one of two types. First, the families of 2-groups with exponent  $2^{m-2}$  were classified, about a century ago, by Burnside [3] and Miller [13, 14]. There are exactly 27 groups of this type of order  $2^m$ , as long as  $m \geq 6$ ; two of these are abelian. First, if  $G$  is abelian, then  $G$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_4 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{m-2}}$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{m-2}}$ . But each of these groups has symmetric genus 1 [8, pp. 291, 292]; these groups are in classes (a) and (h), respectively. The non-abelian groups of this type were studied in [12]. In particular, Table 1 of [12] gives a presentation for each of the 25 non-abelian groups.

**4. Groups with dihedral subgroups of index 4.** Here, we study the families of 2-groups that have dihedral subgroups of index 4 but no cyclic subgroups of index 4. There are 27 groups of this type of order  $2^m$ , for each  $m \geq 7$ .

We use the following notation in all cases. Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$  with a dihedral subgroup of index 4 such that  $Exp(G) = 2^{m-3}$ . Assume that the dihedral subgroup  $M \cong D(m-2)$  has generators  $x$  and  $y$  satisfying the relations (3), with  $H = \langle x \rangle$  a cyclic subgroup of index 8. Then,  $G$  has a subgroup  $L$  of index 2 that

**Table 1.** Groups with CD subgroup of index 2.

Name	$s^{-1}xs =$	$s^{-1}ys =$	$s^{-1}zs =$	$s^2 =$
$J_1$	$x^{-1+2^{m-4}}$	$y$	$z$	1
$J_2$	$x^{-1+2^{m-4}}$	$y$	$z$	$z$
$J_3$	$x^{-1+2^{m-4}}$	$y$	$z^{-1}$	1
$J_4$	$x$	$y$	$z$	1
$J_5$	$x$	$y$	$z$	$z$
$J_6$	$x$	$y$	$z^{-1}$	1
$J_7$	$x$	$x^{2^{m-4}}y$	$z^{-1}$	1

contains the dihedral subgroup  $M$ . By Theorem A,  $L$  is isomorphic to  $CD(m - 1)$ ,  $HD(m - 1)$  or  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times M$ . For each of these three possibilities for the subgroup  $L$ , we determine the number of isomorphism types for  $G$ .

To construct each group  $G$ , we use a standard, well-known technique [6, p. 5]. To the group  $L$ , we adjoin a new element  $s$ , with conjugation by  $s$  transforming the elements of  $L$  according to an automorphism of order 2. We identify  $s^2$  with a central element  $u$  of order  $j$ . Then the larger group  $G$  has order  $2|L|$ . The defining relations for  $G$  consist of the relations for  $L$ , the relations defining the action of  $s$  on each generator of  $L$  and the relation  $s^2 = u$ . This general construction suffices in almost all cases.

**PROPOSITION 1.** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$ , with  $m \geq 7$  and  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$ . If  $G$  contains a subgroup  $L \cong CD(m - 1)$ , then  $G$  is isomorphic to one of seven groups; each group is an extension of  $L$  with an added generator  $s$  and added relations listed in Table 1.*

*Proof.* The subgroup  $L \cong CD(m - 1)$  has generators  $x, y$  and  $z$  satisfying (6). Then the centre  $Z(L) = \langle z \rangle$  and  $M$  is the unique dihedral subgroup of  $L$  with index 2. The group  $L$  contains two cyclic subgroups of maximal order. These subgroups are  $\langle x \rangle$ , which is contained in  $M$ , and  $\langle xz \rangle$ , which is contained in the quasi-dihedral subgroup  $\langle xz, y \rangle$ . Thus,  $\langle z \rangle, H$  and  $M$  are characteristic in  $L$ , and these three subgroups are normal in  $G$ . Let  $C$  be the centralizer of  $H$  in  $G$ . Clearly,  $\langle x, z \rangle \subseteq C$ , but  $C \neq G$ , since  $y$  is not in  $C$ . Hence,  $[G : C]$  is 2 or 4. In either case,  $G/C$  is isomorphic to a subgroup of the automorphism group  $\text{Aut}(H)$ , and  $\text{Aut}(H)$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_{2^{m-5}}$ , where the  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  factor is generated by the inversion  $\alpha(x) = x^{-1}$  [7, p. 189].

**CASE I.** Suppose first that  $[G : C] = 4$ . Then we must have  $C = \langle x, z \rangle$ . In this case,  $G/C \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ , with one  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  factor generated by inversion and the other  $\mathbb{Z}_2$  factor generated by the automorphism  $\beta(x) = x^{-1+2^{m-4}}$  (the quasi-dihedral action) [7, p. 189]. Hence, there is an element  $s \in G - L$  such that  $s^{-1}xs = \beta(x) = x^{-1+2^{m-4}}$ . Then, easily,  $s^{-2}xs^2 = x$ , so that  $s^2$  is in the centralizer  $C$ . Now we have  $G = \langle x, y, z, s \rangle$ .

Since  $\langle z \rangle$  is normal in  $G$ , we must have either  $s^{-1}zs = z$  or  $s^{-1}zs = z^{-1}$ . Also, since the dihedral subgroup  $M = \langle x, y \rangle$  is normal,  $s^{-1}ys = x^\ell y$  for some integer  $\ell$ .

Assume first that  $s^{-1}zs = z$ . Then  $s^2$  commutes with  $z$  so that  $s^2$  is in  $Z(\langle s, x, z \rangle) = \langle x^{2^{m-4}}, z \rangle = \langle z \rangle$ . By replacing  $s$  with  $sz$ , if necessary, we may assume that either  $s^2 = 1$  or  $s^2 = z$ . In either case,  $s^2$  commutes with  $y$ . Since  $M$  is normal,  $s^{-1}ys = x^\ell y$  for some integer  $\ell$ . Now  $y = s^{-2}ys^2 = s^{-1}x^\ell ys = x^{2^{m-4}\ell}y$  and so  $\ell$  is even. Write  $\ell = 2k$ , and then replace  $y$  by  $x^k y$ , and we get the same relations with either  $s^{-1}ys = y$  or  $s^{-1}ys = x^{2^{m-4}}y$ . In the latter case, replace  $y$  by  $x^{2^{m-5}}y$  and we get the relation  $s^{-1}ys = y$ . This gives the two groups  $J_1$  and  $J_2$ , with  $s^2 = 1$  and  $s^2 = z$ , respectively.

Next, assume that  $s^{-1}zs = z^{-1}$ . Now  $s^2 \in Z(\langle s, x, z \rangle) = \langle z^2 \rangle$  and so  $s^2 = 1$  or  $s^2 = z^2$ . In both cases, by the same argument as before,  $s^{-1}ys = y$ . Then with  $s^2 = 1$ ,

**Table 2.** Groups with hyperdihedral subgroup of index 2.

Name	$s^{-1}xs =$	$s^{-1}ys =$	$s^{-1}zs =$	$s^2 =$
$H_1$	$x$	$y$	$z$	1
$H_2$	$x$	$y$	$zx^{2^{m-4}}$	1
$H_3$	$x$	$yx^{2^{m-4}}$	$z$	1
$H_4$	$x$	$yx^{2^{m-4}}$	$zx^{2^{m-4}}$	1
$H_5$	$x^{1+2^{m-5}}$	$y$	$z$	$yz$
$H_6$	$xyz$	$z$	$y$	1
$H_7$	$x^{1+2^{m-5}}yz$	$zx^{2-2^{m-5}}$	$yx^{2+2^{m-5}}$	$x^2$
$H_8$	$x^{1+2^{m-5}}yz$	$zx^{2+2^{m-5}}$	$yx^{2-2^{m-5}}$	$x^2$
$H_9$	$x^{1+2^{m-5}}yz$	$zx^{2^{m-5}}$	$yx^{-2^{m-5}}$	1
$H_{10}$	$x^{1+2^{m-5}}yz$	$zx^{-2^{m-5}}$	$yx^{2^{m-5}}$	1

we have the group  $J_3$ . The group  $G$  with  $s^2 = z^2$  is isomorphic to  $J_3$  by the map  $\psi : G \rightarrow J_3$  defined by  $x \mapsto x, y \mapsto x^{-1}y, z \mapsto z$  and  $s \mapsto sx^{1+2^{m-5}}z$ .

CASE II. Suppose that  $[G : C] = 2$ . Since inversion is the only non-trivial action on  $H$  by any element of  $G$ , we may choose  $s \in G - L$  so that  $s \in C$  and  $sx = xs$ . Now  $s^2 \in \langle x, z \rangle$ , since  $s^2 \in L \cap C$ . It is clear that  $s^2 = x^{2k}$  or  $s^2 = x^{2k}z$ , since  $o(s) \leq o(x)$ . We can replace  $s$  by  $(x^{-k}s)$  and assume without loss of generality that  $s^2 = 1$  or  $s^2 = z$ . Furthermore, since  $\langle z \rangle$  is normal in  $G$ , we know that  $s^{-1}zs = z$  or  $s^{-1}zs = z^{-1}$ . Finally, since  $M$  is normal in  $G$ , we have  $s^{-1}ys = x^t y$  for some integer  $t$ . Now  $y = s^{-2}ys^2 = s^{-1}x^t ys = x^{2t}y$ , and  $t = 0$  or  $t = 2^{m-4}$ .

Suppose that  $s^{-1}zs = z$ . There are two possibilities for  $s^2$  and two possibilities for the action of  $s$  on  $y$ . Assume first that  $s^{-1}ys = y$ . Then with  $s^2 = 1$  and  $s^2 = z$ , we obtain the groups  $J_4$  and  $J_5$ , respectively. The group  $G$  with  $s^2 = 1$  and  $s^{-1}ys = x^{2^{m-4}}y$  is isomorphic to  $J_4$  by the map  $\theta : G \rightarrow J_4$  defined by  $x \mapsto x, y \mapsto y, z \mapsto z$  and  $s \mapsto szx^{-2^{m-5}}$ . The group  $G$  with  $s^2 = z$  and  $s^{-1}ys = x^{2^{m-4}}y$  is isomorphic to  $J_5$  by the map  $\varphi : G \rightarrow J_5$  defined by  $x \mapsto x, y \mapsto y, z \mapsto z^{-1}$  and  $s \mapsto sx^{-2^{m-5}}$ .

Suppose that  $s^{-1}zs = z^{-1}$ . It is easy to see that this forces  $s^2 = 1$ , and we have two groups,  $J_6$  with  $s^{-1}ys = y$  and  $J_7$  with  $s^{-1}ys = x^{2^{m-4}}y$ . These are the final two groups of this type.

It is not hard to check that in each of the seven presentations, the action of  $s$  does define an automorphism of  $L$ , and it follows that  $G$  is a group of order  $2^m$  by the general construction of [6, p. 5].

No two of these seven groups are isomorphic. These groups can be distinguished using three group invariants. First, the centre and the abelian quotient invariants suffice to distinguish all but  $J_3, J_6$  and  $J_7$ ; these two invariants agree for these three groups. These groups have different numbers of involutions; these counts are not difficult, just from the presentations. □

Next, we consider the second type of group, one with a hyperdihedral subgroup of index 2. We omit some details.

**PROPOSITION 2.** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$ , with  $m \geq 7$  and  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$ . If  $G$  contains a subgroup  $L \cong \text{HD}(m - 1)$ , then  $G$  is isomorphic to one of 10 groups; each group is an extension of  $L$  with an added generator  $s$  and added relations listed in Table 2.*



*Proof.* The subgroup  $L$  has generators  $x, y$  and  $z$  satisfying (7). Then  $L$  has two cyclic subgroups of maximal order, namely,  $\langle x \rangle$  and  $\langle xyz \rangle$ . The proof splits into two cases, depending upon whether or not these subgroups are normal in  $G$ .

CASE I. Suppose  $\langle x \rangle$  is normal in  $G$ . Thus,  $G/C_G(x)$  has order 4 or 8.

Assume first that  $|G/C_G(x)| = 4$ . We can find an element  $s$  in  $G - L$  that centralizes  $x$ . Since  $s^2 \in C_L(x)$ , we see that  $s^2 = x^k$  and  $k$  must be even. Since  $\langle x, s \rangle$  is abelian, choose  $s$  so that  $s^2 = 1$ . A consideration of the possible actions of  $s$  on  $y$  and of  $s$  on  $z$  gives four possible presentations and the groups  $H_1$  to  $H_4$  in Table 2.

Suppose that  $|G/C_G(x)| = 8$ , and let  $s$  be any element of  $G - L$ . Then the automorphism of  $\langle x \rangle$  given by conjugation by  $s$  has order 4. By multiplying  $s$  by the appropriate element of  $L$ , we may suppose that  $s^{-1}xs = x^{1+2^{m-5}}$ . It follows that we must have  $s^{-1}ys = yx^k$  and also  $s^{-1}zs = zx^k$ , with  $k = 0$  or  $k = 2^{m-4}$ . The two choices for  $k$  yield two presentations, but both lead to the group  $H_5$ .

CASE II. Suppose that  $\langle x \rangle$  is not normal in  $G$ . Any element  $s$  in  $G - L$  must interchange the subgroups  $\langle x \rangle$  and  $\langle xyz \rangle$ , and hence  $s^{-1}xs = x^k yz$ , where  $k$  is odd. Therefore,  $s^{-1}x^2s = (x^k yz)^2 = (x^2)^{k(1+2^{m-5})}$  and  $\langle x^2 \rangle$  is normal in  $G$ . It follows that  $k \equiv 1, -1, 1 + 2^{m-5}$  or  $-1 + 2^{m-5} \pmod{2^{m-4}}$ . By choosing a suitable element  $s$  in  $G - L$ , we have either  $s^{-1}xs = xyz$  or  $s^{-1}xs = x^{1+2^{m-5}} yz$ . Either way, we may assume that  $s^2 = x^{2\ell}$ , where  $\ell = 1$  or  $\ell$  is even, and also that  $s^{-1}ys = zx^{2t}$ .

Suppose that  $s^{-1}xs = xyz$ . If  $s^2 = x^2$ , we can derive a contradiction. Therefore,  $s^2 = x^{4k}$  for some integer  $k$ . By replacing  $s$  with the appropriate element, we have  $s^2 = 1$  and  $1 = x^{-4t+2^{m-4}}$ . Consequently,  $G$  either has relations  $s^{-1}ys = zx^{2^{m-4}}$  and  $s^{-1}zs = yx^{2^{m-4}}$  or else  $s^{-1}ys = z$  and  $s^{-1}zs = y$ . We now have two complete presentations; each defines the group  $H_6$  in Table 2.

Suppose that  $s^{-1}xs = x^{1+2^{m-5}} yz$ . We also know that  $s^{-1}ys = zx^{2t}$  and  $s^2 = x^{2\ell}$ , where  $\ell = 1$  or  $\ell$  is even. In either case, we have  $s^{-1}zs = yx^{2t-2^{m-4}}$ .

First, suppose that  $s^2 = x^2$ . It can be shown that  $s^{-1}ys = zx^{2\pm 2^{m-5}}$  and  $s^{-1}zs = yx^{2\mp 2^{m-5}}$ . This leads to groups  $H_7$  and  $H_8$  in Table 2. Finally, if  $s^2 = x^{4k}$ , the same type of calculation gives the final two groups,  $H_9$  and  $H_{10}$ , in Table 2.

In seven of the presentations, the action of  $s$  defines an automorphism of  $L$ , and the general construction of [6, p. 5] shows that we have a group of order  $2^m$ . The general construction will also handle the groups  $H_7$  and  $H_8$ , if we first replace  $s$  by  $s_1 = sxy$ . This gives alternate presentations of  $H_7$  and  $H_8$ . Finally, by eliminating the redundant generator  $z$  from the presentation for  $H_5$ , we see that  $H_5$  is isomorphic to a semi-direct product of  $D(m - 2)$  by  $\mathbb{Z}_4$ .

No two of these 10 groups are isomorphic. The first five groups can be distinguished using the centre, the abelian quotient invariants and the fact that  $H_2$  and  $H_3$  are isomorphic to  $J_6$  and  $J_3$ , respectively. These invariants also distinguish the first five groups from the second five groups. Among the remaining five groups,  $H_7$  is the only one not generated by involutions and only  $H_9(m)$  has a subgroup isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times D(m - 2)$ . The groups  $H_6$  and  $H_{10}$  can be distinguished from  $H_8$  because the quotients of each by  $\langle x^4 \rangle$  are different groups of order 32. The group  $\langle x^4 \rangle$  is contained in the intersection of all of the cyclic subgroups of maximal order. Finally, the third centre of  $H_6$  is an abelian subgroup of order 32, and the third centre of  $H_{10}$  is a non-abelian subgroup of order 32. □



**Table 3.** Groups with  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times D(m - 2)$  of index 2.

Name	$s^{-1}xs =$	$s^{-1}ys =$	$s^{-1}zs =$	$s^2 =$
$A_1$	$x^{1+2^{m-4}}$	$y$	$z$	1
$A_2$	$x^{1+2^{m-4}}$	$y$	$z$	$z$
$A_3$	$x^{1+2^{m-4}}$	$zy$	$z$	1
$A_4$	$x^{1+2^{m-4}}$	$zy$	$z$	$z$
$A_5$	$x^{1+2^{m-4}}$	$y$	$zx^{2^{m-4}}$	1
$A_6$	$x^{1+2^{m-4}}$	$x^{2^{m-5}}zy$	$zx^{2^{m-4}}$	1
$A_7$	$x$	$y$	$z$	1
$A_8$	$x$	$y$	$z$	$z$
$A_9$	$x$	$yz$	$z$	1
$A_{10}$	$x$	$yz$	$z$	$z$
$A_{11}$	$x$	$x^{2^{m-4}}y$	$z$	1
$A_{12}$	$x$	$x^{2^{m-4}}yz$	$z$	$z$
$A_{13}$	$x^{-1}z$	$y$	$z$	1
$A_{14}$	$x^{-1}z$	$y$	$z$	$x^{2^{m-4}}$
$A_{15}$	$x^{-1}z$	$y$	$z$	$z$
$A_{16}$	$x^{-1}z$	$y$	$z$	$x^{2^{m-4}}z$
$A_{17}$	$x^{-1+2^{m-5}}z$	$y$	$zx^{2^{m-4}}$	1

Now we consider the third type of index 2 subgroup. Again, we provide an outline of the proof but omit quite a few details.

**PROPOSITION 3.** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$ , with  $m \geq 7$  and  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$ . If  $G$  contains a subgroup  $L \cong \mathbb{Z}_2 \times D(m - 2)$ , then  $G$  is isomorphic to one of 17 groups; each group is an extension of  $L$  with an added generator  $s$  and added relations listed in Table 3.*

*Proof.* The subgroup  $L$  has generators  $x, y$  and  $z$  satisfying (8). The centre  $Z(L) = \langle x^{2^{m-4}}, z \rangle$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times \mathbb{Z}_2$ . There are two maximal cyclic subgroups of  $L$ , namely  $\langle x \rangle$  and  $\langle zx \rangle$ . The proof splits into two cases, depending upon whether or not these subgroups are normal in  $G$ .

**CASE I.** Suppose that  $\langle x \rangle$  is normal in  $G$ . Now  $C_L(x) = \langle x, z \rangle$  and it follows that  $G/C_G(x)$  has order 2 or order 4. We consider these two possibilities in two subcases.

**Subcase a.** Suppose that  $G/C_G(x)$  has order 4. Then we can find an element  $s$  in  $G - L$  such that  $s^{-1}xs = x^{1+2^{m-4}}$ . It is easy to see that either  $s^{-1}zs = z$  or  $s^{-1}zs = zx^{2^{m-4}}$ . Further, by replacing  $s$  by an element of the form  $x^{-l}s$  if necessary, we may assume that either  $s^2 = 1$  or  $s^2 = z$ .

Since  $y$  acts on  $x$  by inversion, so does  $s^{-1}ys$ . Therefore,  $s^{-1}ys = x^k y$  or  $s^{-1}ys = x^k yz$ . First, suppose that  $s^{-1}zs = z$ . Then since  $y = s^{-2}ys^2 = x^{2k+k2^{m-4}}y$ , we see that  $k = 0$  or  $k = 2^{m-4}$ , and there are four possible actions of  $s$  on  $y$ . With the two possibilities for  $s^2$ , there are eight presentations. With  $k = 0$ , we obtain the four groups  $A_1$  through  $A_4$  in Table 3. Each of the four presentations with  $k = 2^{m-4}$  leads to groups isomorphic to one of these four.

Now suppose that  $s^{-1}zs = zx^{2^{m-4}}$ . First, it is clear that  $s^2 = z$  is not possible and so  $s^2 = 1$ . Again, it follows that  $s^{-1}ys = x^k y$  or  $s^{-1}ys = x^k yz$ . These two relations (with appropriate values for  $k$ ) lead to groups  $A_5$  and  $A_6$ , respectively.

**Subcase b.** Suppose that  $G/C_G(x)$  has order 2. Then we can find an element  $s$  in  $G - L$  that  $s^{-1}xs = x$ . Also,  $s^2 \in C_L(x) = \langle x, z \rangle$ , and therefore  $s^2 = x^\ell$  or  $s^2 = x^\ell z$  for

some integer  $\ell$ . As before, we can get  $s^2 = 1$  or  $s^2 = z$ . It is also easy to see that either  $s^{-1}zs = z$  or  $s^{-1}zs = zx^{2^{m-4}}$ . If  $s^{-1}zs = zx^{2^{m-4}}$ , then with some work, we are back in subcase (a) and so  $s^{-1}zs = z$ .

As before,  $s^{-1}ys = x^k y$  or  $s^{-1}ys = x^k yz$  and  $k = 0$  or  $k = 2^{m-4}$ . So, there are four possible actions of  $s$  on  $y$  and with the two possibilities for  $s^2$ , again there are eight presentations. In this subcase, there are six different groups, the groups  $A_7$ – $A_{12}$ .

CASE II. Suppose that  $\langle x \rangle$  is not normal in  $G$ . Any element  $s$  in  $G - L$  conjugates  $\langle x \rangle$  to  $\langle xz \rangle$ . As before,  $\langle x^2 \rangle$  is normal in  $G$ . Choosing  $s$  carefully, we get  $s^{-1}xs = x^{-1+\ell}z^{2^{m-5}}z$  for  $\ell$  equal to 0, 1, 2 or 3. As before,  $s^{-1}zs = z$  or  $s^{-1}zs = zx^{2^{m-4}}$ .

If  $s^{-1}zs = z$ , without loss of generality,  $s^{-1}xs = x^{-1}z$  and we have  $s^2 \in C_{\langle x, z \rangle}(s) = \langle x^{2^{m-4}}, z \rangle$ . We only need to consider two actions of  $s$  on  $y$ ,  $s^{-1}ys = y$  and  $s^{-1}ys = yz$ . With the relation  $s^{-1}ys = y$ , we obtain the groups  $A_{13}$ – $A_{16}$  in Table 3. The other action  $s^{-1}ys = yz$  yields the same four groups.

Finally, suppose that  $s^{-1}zs = zx^{2^{m-4}}$ . By replacing generators, if needed, we may assume that  $s^{-1}xs = x^{-1+2^{m-5}}z$  and  $s^{-1}ys = y$ , and there are two presentations, depending on the value of  $s^2$ . Both presentations yield  $A_{17}$ . This completes the listing of the groups in Table 3.

In each of the 17 presentations, the action of  $s$  defines an automorphism of  $L$ , and consequently, in each case, we obtain a group of order  $2^m$  by the general construction of [6, p. 5].

Finally, we need to check that no two of these 17 groups are isomorphic. First, the centre and the abelian quotient invariants distinguish  $A_1, A_2, A_5, A_7, A_8$  and  $A_{11}$ . Further, these two invariants separate the other 11 into two sets, the pair  $A_6$  and  $A_{17}$  and the remaining nine. Case I and case II groups cannot be isomorphic. This distinguishes  $A_6$  from  $A_{17}$  and helps with the others. Of these nine groups, only  $A_{12}$  (case I) and  $A_{16}$  (case II) are not generated by involutions. This leaves seven groups to consider. Then using the second centre and separating groups by the two cases distinguishes  $A_{15}$  and divides the others into three pairs,  $A_3$  and  $A_9, A_4$  and  $A_{10}$ , and the pair  $A_{13}$  and  $A_{14}$ . In the groups  $A_3$  and  $A_4$ , the centralizer of a maximal order cyclic subgroup that is normal has index 4, whereas in  $A_9$  and  $A_{10}$ , it has index 2. Finally, to separate the pair  $A_{13}$  and  $A_{14}$ , we use quotient groups by the three central subgroups of order 2. Two of the corresponding subgroups give isomorphic quotients. However, the group  $A_{13}$  has a third quotient group isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}_2 \times D(m - 2)$ , but the corresponding quotient of  $A_{14}$  is isomorphic to  $CD(m - 1)$ . These are the quotients by  $\langle z \rangle$  in our presentations. □

**THEOREM 6.** *Let  $G$  be a group of order  $2^m$ , with  $m \geq 7$ . If  $G$  has a dihedral subgroup of index 4 such that  $\text{Exp}(G) = 2^{m-3}$ , then  $G$  is isomorphic to one of 27 groups, independent of  $m$ .*

*Proof.* Theorem A and Propositions 1–3 show that there are at most 34 groups. Table 4 gives seven isomorphisms among these three types of groups.

Finally, it is necessary to show that there are no further isomorphisms among the remaining 27 groups. A careful consideration of the centre and the abelian quotient invariants for these groups distinguishes nine of the groups and separates the others into three sets, the trio  $J_3, J_6$  and  $J_7$ , the set of nine  $A_i$ s considered in the proof of Proposition 3, and a final set of six,  $A_6$  and the set of five  $H_i$ s considered in the proof of Proposition 2. Since the groups of each type have been classified, the only possible

**Table 4.** Isomorphisms of groups.

Map	Image of x	Image of y	Image of z	Image of s
$\phi : H_1 \rightarrow A_1$	$x$	$y$	$ys$	$z$
$\phi : H_2 \rightarrow A_5$	$x$	$y$	$ys$	$z$
$\phi : H_2 \rightarrow J_6$	$xs$	$y$	$yzs$	$s$
$\phi : H_3 \rightarrow J_3$	$x$	$y$	$z$	$zX^{2^{m-5}}$
$\phi : H_4 \rightarrow J_1$	$x$	$y$	$s$	$zX^{2^{m-5}}$
$\phi : H_9 \rightarrow A_{17}$	$xy$	$xy$	$xyz$	$sy$
$\phi : J_4 \rightarrow A_{11}$	$x$	$y$	$sX^{2^{m-5}}$	$z$

remaining isomorphism is between  $A_6$  and some  $H_j$ . But it is not hard to see that the group  $A_6$  does not have a hyperdihedral subgroup of index 2. This completes the classification.  $\square$

Now Theorem 1, the classification of Burnside and Miller, and the classification of Theorem 6 combine to establish Theorem 2.

Of the 52 possible 2-groups of each order, relatively few actually have genus congruent to 3 (mod 4). Some have symmetric genus 1, and some have higher genus  $\sigma(G) \equiv 1 \pmod{4}$ . For example, among the groups of order 128, there are 10 groups with genus congruent to 3 (mod 4); the symmetric genus of each group was calculated using MAGMA.

Among the 52 infinite families, there are some containing groups with genus congruent to 3 (mod 4). In [4], Conder and Tucker define the following group of order  $16n$ .

$$V_n = \langle x, y \mid x^4 = y^4 = [x^2, y] = [y^2, x] = 1, (xy)^{2n} = x^2 \rangle.$$

They prove that  $\sigma(V_n) = 4n - 1$  for all  $n > 1$  [4, Theorem 3.1]. This gives examples of order  $2^m$  with genus congruent to 3 (mod 4), for all  $m \geq 7$ . A little bit of work suffices to show that

$$V_{2^{m-4}} \cong M_5(m),$$

one of Miller’s 2-groups from [13]. The family  $H_6$  is another family of groups with genus congruent to 3 (mod 4). We omit the proof.

**PROPOSITION 4.** *Suppose that  $G$  is the group  $H_6(m)$  of order  $2^m$ , where  $m \geq 7$ . Then  $G$  has symmetric genus  $\sigma(G) = 2^{m-4} - 1$ .*

**5. Density.** Now we consider the general problem of determining whether there is a 2-group of symmetric genus  $g$  for each value of  $g$ , and describe our results using the standard notion of density.

Let  $T$  be the set of integers  $g \geq 2$  for which there is a 2-group of symmetric genus  $g$ . By Theorem B, all the integers in  $T$  are odd. For an integer  $n$ , let  $f(n)$  denote the number of integers in  $T$  that are less than or equal to  $n$ . Then the natural density  $\delta(T)$  of  $T$  in the set of positive integers is

$$\delta(T) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{n}.$$

Also, let  $T_3$  be the subset of  $T$  consisting of the integers congruent to 3 (mod 4), with the companion “counting” function denoted by  $f_3$ .

Although the set  $T_3$  is infinite, the upper bound of Theorem 2 suffices to prove that the density of  $T_3$  in the set of positive integers is zero.

**Proof of Theorem 3.** First, among the 2-groups of order 64 or less, there are exactly 11 groups with genus congruent to 3 (mod 4). Assume  $n = 2^m$ , with  $m \geq 7$ , and let  $G$  be a 2-group with genus  $n$  or less such  $\sigma(G) \equiv 3 \pmod{4}$ . From the basic lower bound for the genus of a 2-group, we have

$$|G| \leq 32(\sigma(G) - 1) \leq 32(n - 1) < 2^{m+5},$$

so that  $|G| \leq 2^{m+4}$ . For each of the possible  $m - 2$  orders in the range 128, 256, ...,  $2^{m+4}$ , there are at most 52 groups with genus congruent to 3 (mod 4), by Theorem 2. Thus,  $f_3(n) = f_3(2^m) \leq 52(m - 2) + 11$ , counting the 11 groups of small order. Hence,  $\delta(T_3) = 0$ .  $\square$

Together, Theorems B and 3 clearly imply Theorem 4.

Another interesting interpretation of our results is possible by considering group counting functions, together with the abundance of 2-groups. Here, see the recent survey article [5], together with [1] and the book [2].

For the positive integer  $n$ , the *group number* of  $n$ , denoted by  $gnu(n)$ , is the number of distinct abstract groups of order  $n$  [5]. The values of  $gnu(n)$  are given for all  $n < 2,048$  in the Appendix of [5].

Let  $F$  be a family of finite groups. For a positive integer  $n$ , let  $f(n)$  denote the number of groups in the family  $F$  that have order  $n$  or less, and let  $t(n)$  be the total number of groups of these orders. Then the natural *group density*  $\Delta(F)$  of the family  $F$  in the collection of finite groups is

$$\Delta(F) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{t(n)}.$$

For small  $n$ , values of the counting function  $t$  may be obtained by summing values of the *gnu* function, of course.

Now let  $F_2$  be the family of finite 2-groups, with companion counting function  $f_2$ . As is well understood, the number of 2-groups simply overwhelms the number of other groups. In fact, the following conjecture is well-known.

CONJECTURE. The group density of the 2-groups is 1, that is,  $\Delta(F_2) = 1$ .

We call this conjecture the density of 2-groups (D2G) conjecture. If the D2G conjecture holds, then in this sense, almost all finite groups are 2-groups.

Theorem 2 can now be given another interpretation. Let  $F_1$  be the family of finite groups, each of which has symmetric genus congruent to 1 (mod 4). Now the following clearly holds; for a detailed proof of a very similar result, see [12, Theorem 9].

THEOREM 7. *If the D2G conjecture holds, then  $\Delta(F_1) = 1$ .*

Among the finite groups, then, almost all groups would have symmetric genus congruent to 1 (mod 4) (assuming that the D2G conjecture holds). On the other hand,

there is the conjecture that for every integer  $g \geq 0$ , there is a group  $G$  with symmetric genus  $\sigma(G) = g$  [4, p. 273].

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