# TRANSITIVE PERMUTATION GROUPS OF DEGREE $p=2 q+1, p$ AND $q$ BEING PRIME NUMBERS. III 

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Introduction. Let $p$ be a prime number such that $q=\frac{1}{2}(p-1)$ is also a prime number. Let $\Omega$ be the set of symbols $1, \cdots, p$, and let $\mathbb{N}$ be a nonsolvable transitive permutation group on $\Omega$. In a previous paper [6] the following theorem has been established: If $\mathbb{E}$ is not triply transitive, then $\mathbb{E}$ is isomorphic to either $L F(2,7)$ with $p=7$ or $L F(2,11)$ with $p=11$, where $L F(2, l)$ denotes the linear fractional group over the field of $l$ elements. Now the purpose of this work is to improve this theorem as follows, namely, the following theorem will be proved.

Theorem. If $\mathbb{H}$ is not quadruply transitive, then $\mathbb{H}$ is isomorphic to $L F(2,5)$ with $p=5$ or $L F(2,7)$ with $p=7$ or $L F(2,11)$ with $p=11$.

Hence, in particular, if $p>11$, then $\mathbb{B}$ is quadruply transitive.
The main idea of the proof given below is quite similar to that of [5], [6]. Therefore we use the same notation as in [6]. First of all, in order to prove the theorem, likewise in [6, Introduction], we can assume that (i) $p>11$; (ii) $\mathcal{E}$ is simple; (iii) let $\mathfrak{P}$ be a Sylow $p$-subgroup of $\mathscr{B}$ and let $N s \mathfrak{P}$ be the normalizer of $\mathfrak{P}$ in $\mathbb{H}$. Then $N s \mathfrak{P}$ has order $p q$; and (iv) let $\mathfrak{Q}$ be a Sylow $q$-subgroup of $\mathbb{E}$. Then $\mathfrak{Q}$ has order $q$ and the cycle structure of a permutation $(\neq 1)$ of $\mathfrak{Q}$ consists of two $q$-cycles. Let $C s \mathfrak{Q}$ and $N s \mathfrak{Q}$ be the centralizer and the normalizer of $\mathfrak{Q}$ and $\mathfrak{S}$, respectively. Then $C s \mathfrak{Q}=\mathfrak{Q}$. Let the order of $N s \mathfrak{Q}$ be equal to $q r$. Then $r$ divides $q-1$. Let $\Re$ be a Sylow $q$ complement of $N s \mathfrak{Q}$. Then $\Re$ is cyclic of order $r$. We put $q-1=r s$.
$X_{0}, X_{0}^{0}$ and $X_{00}$ denote irreducible characters of the symmetric group S over $\Omega$, whose values are given by $\alpha(S)-1$, $\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\{\alpha(S)-1\}\{\alpha(S)-2\}}$ $-\beta(S)$ and $\frac{1}{2} \alpha(S)\{\alpha(s)-3\}+\beta(S)$, respectively, where $\alpha(S)$ and $\beta(S)$ denote the number of symbols of $\Omega$ fixed by $S$ and the number of transpositions in the cycle structure of $S$, respectively. Moreover, $(X, Y)(X, Y=A, B, C, D)$ denotes an irreducible character of $\mathbb{E}$ which has $p$-type $X$ and $q$-type $Y$. By a theorem of Frobenius [6, Proposition A] $\mathcal{E}$ is quadruply transitive, if and only if $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on $\left(\mathscr{H}\right.$ and $X_{00}$ restricted on (H) are irreducible. Now (H) will be assumed to be triply transitive [ 6 , Theorem] but not quadruply transitive. Then it will be shown that $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{E}$ is irreducible (Lemma 7) and that the decomposition of $X_{00}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{)}$ into its irreducible components has the following form:

[^0]$$
X_{00}=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(D, C)_{i}
$$
where $(D, C)_{i}$ 's $(i=1, \cdots, s)$ are $q$-exceptional characters of © $\mathbb{H}$ and have degree $r p$ (Lemma 6). Herein we get $s>1$, because we have supposed that $\mathbb{B})$ is not quadruply transitive. Furthermore, by a theorem of Brauer [6, Proposition B]
\[

$$
\begin{equation*}
(D, C)_{1}(G)=\frac{1}{s}\left[\frac{1}{2} \alpha(G)\{\alpha(G)-3\}+\beta(G)\right] \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

\]

is a rational integer for every $q$-regular element $G$ of $₫$, which imposes a strong restriction on the cycle structure of permutations of $\mathbb{E}$ because of $s>1$.

Now using a theorem of Frame [6, Proposition G] we show that a representation corresponding to $(D, C)_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s)$ can be realized in the real number field (Lemma 8), which implies that $r$ is even (Lemma 9). Hence let $I$ be the involution in $\Re$.

Finally we apply an idea somewhat similar to Fryer [3]. Namely, we identify $\Omega$ with $G F(p)$, the field of $p$ elements. Let $P$ be an element $(\neq 1)$ of $\mathfrak{F}$. Then we will find convenient analytic representations for $P$ and $I$ (Lemma 10). By means of these analytic representations we can verify the existence of a permutation of $(B)$ (a word of $P$ and $I$ ) which contradicts (*). But our present method requires the inspection of many words, though all of them have the form $I P^{a}$, where $a$ is an integer.

1. Decompositions of $X_{0}$ restricted on (B) and $X_{00}$ restricted on $\mathcal{H}$.

Lemma 1. There are only four possible cases of the decomposition of $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on (\$) into the irreducible characters of (\$):
(i) $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{B}$ is irreducible.
(ii) $X_{0}^{0}=(A, B)+(D, A)$, where the degrees of $(A, B)$ and $(D, A)$ are equal to $(q-2) p+1$ and $p$, respectively.
(iii) $\quad X_{0}^{0}=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(A, C)_{i}+(B, A)+\sum_{i=1}^{s-2}(B, D)_{i}$, where the degrees of $(A, C)_{i} \quad(i=1, \cdots, s), \quad(B, A)$ and $(B, D)_{i} \quad(i=1, \cdots, s-2)$ are equal to $(r-1) p+1$ with $\delta_{q}=-1[6$, Proposition B], $2 p-1$ and $p-1$, respectively.
(iv) $X_{0}^{0}=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(A, C)_{i}+(D, A)+\sum_{i=1}^{s-1}(B, D)_{i}$, where the degrees of $(A, C)_{i} \quad(i=1, \cdots, s), \quad(D, A)$ and $(B, D)_{i} \quad(i=1, \cdots, s-1)$ are equal to $(r-1) p+1$ with $\delta_{q}=-1, p$ and $p-1$, respectively.

Proof. (Cf. [5], Lemma 5.) Since $X_{0}^{0}(P)=1$, by a theorem of Brauer [6, Proposition B] an irreducible character of $(5)$ of $p$-type $A$ or $p$-type $C$ with $\delta_{p}=1$ must appear as an irreducible part of $X_{0}$ restricted on $(\uplus$. Then inspecting the degree table in [6] we see that no irreducible character of $p$-type $C$ with $\delta_{p}=1$ can appear. Now if it is ( $A, D$ ), then we get (i). If it is ( $A, B$ ), then it is easy to see that we get (ii). Hence let us assume that is has type
$(A, C) . S$ ce $X_{0}$ is a rational character, the whole family of the characters of $q$ type $C$ will appear as irreducible parts of $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on $\mathbb{B}$. Now inspecting the degree table in [6] we see that $\delta_{q}=-1$ and that they have degree $(r-1) p+1$ and multiplicity 1 . Thus we have that

$$
X_{0}^{0}(X)=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(A, C)_{i}(X)+\cdots
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\left(\mathbb{B}\right.$, where the part $\ldots$ does not contain $(A, C)_{i}$ $(i=1, \cdots, s)$ any more. By a theorem of Brauer [6, Proposition B] we have that $\sum_{i=1}^{s}(A, C)_{i}(P)=s$. Therefore irreducible characters of $\mathbb{E}$ of $p$-type $B$ or $p$-type $C$ with $\delta_{p}=-1$ must appear in the part $\cdots$ with the sum of multiplicities at least $s-1$. But the sum of degrees of the part $\ldots$ equals $(s-1)$ $(p-1)+p$. Hence, checking up the degree table in [6] we see that no character of $p$-type $C$ with $\delta_{p}=-1$ can appear, and that only characters of type $(B, D)$ with degree $p-1$ except just one character $(B, A)$ with degree $2 p-1$ or ( $D, A$ ) with degree $p$ can appear.

Let $\mathfrak{S}$ be the maximal subgroup of $\mathscr{B}$ leaving the symbol 1 of $\Omega$ fixed. Let $Y_{0}$ be the character of $\mathfrak{F}$ whose values are given by $\alpha(X)-2$ for every permutation $X$ of $\mathfrak{S}$. Then since $\mathfrak{S}$ is doubly transitive by a previous result [6, Theorem], $Y_{0}$ is an irreducible character of $\mathfrak{E}$. Let $Y_{0}^{*}$ be the character of $\mathbb{H}$ induced by $Y_{0}$. Then by a theorem of Frobenius [6, Formula (11)] we have that

$$
Y_{0}^{*}(X)=X_{0}(X)+X_{0}^{0}(X)+X_{00}(X)
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $(\mathbb{E})$.
Now let us assume that some ( $B, D$ ) appears in the part $\ldots$ with multiplicity $v>1$. Then by (\#) and by the reciprocity theorem of Frobenius we have that

$$
(B, D)(X)=v Y_{0}(X)+\cdots
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\mathfrak{G}$. For $X=1$ this gives that $p-1=v(p-2)$ $+\cdots$, which is obviously a contradiction. Thus if $(B, A)$ appears, then we get (iii). If ( $D, A$ ) appears, then we get (iv).

Lemma 2. There are only four possible cases of the decomposition of $X_{00}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{S})$ into the irreducible characters of $\mathbb{B}$ :
(i) $X_{00}$ restricted on $(\mathcal{)}$ is irreducible.
(ii) $X_{00}=(A, B)+(B, D)$, where the degrees of $(A, B)$ and $(B, D)$ are equal to $(q-2) p+1$ and $p-1$, respectively.
(iii) $X_{00}=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(A, C)_{i}+\sum_{i=1}^{s}(B, D)_{i}$, where the degrees of $(A, C)_{i}$ $(i=1, \cdots, s)$ and $(B, D)_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s)$ are equal to $(r-1) p+1$ with $\delta_{q}=-1$ and $p-1$, respectively.
(iv) $X_{00}=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(D, C)_{i}$, where the degree of $(D, C)_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s)$ is equal to $r p$ with $\delta_{q}=-1$.

Proof. (Cf. [5, Lemma 6].) Let $Q$ be an element of $\mathbb{E}$ or order $q$. Since $X_{00}(Q)=-1$, by a theorem of Brauer [6, Proposition B] an irreducible character of $\left(\mathbb{S}\right.$ of $q$-type $B$ or $q$-type $C$ with $\delta_{q}=-1$ must appear as an irreducible component of $X_{000}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{H}$. If it has $q$-type $B$, then we see from the degree table in [6] that it is an $(A, B)$ with degree $(q-2) p+1$ or a $(D, B)$ with degree $(q-1) p$. If it is a $(D, B)$, then we get (i). If it is an $(A, B)$, then we get (ii). Now let us assume that is has $q$-type $C$ with $\delta_{q}=-1$. Then since $X_{00}$ is a rational character, the whole family of the $q$-exceptional characters of $\mathcal{E}$ must appear as irreducible components of $X_{00}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{E}$. Again by inspecting the degree table in [6], we see that they are of type $(A, C)$ with degree $(r-1) p+1$ or $(D, C)$ with degree $r p$. If they are of type ( $D, C$ ), we get (iv). Hence let us assume that they are of type $(A, C)$. Then from the degree table in [6] we see that they have multiplicity 1 . Thus we obtain that

$$
X_{00}(X)=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(A, C)_{i}(X)+\cdots
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\left(\$\right.$, where the part $\cdots$ does not contain $(A, C)_{i}$ ( $i=1, \cdots, s$ ) any more. By a theorem of Brauer [ 6 , Proposition B] we have that $\sum_{i=1}^{s}(A, C)_{i}(P)=s$. Therefore irreducible characters of $B S$ of $p$-type $B$ or $p$-type $C$ with $\delta_{p}=-1$ must appear in the part $\ldots$ with the sum of multiplicities at least $s$. But the sum of degrees of the part ... equals $s(p-1)$. Hence from the degree table in [6] we see that only characters of type ( $B, D$ ) with degree $p-1$ can appear. The rest of the proof is the same as in Lemma 1.

Lemma 3. Neither of $X_{0}$ restricted on (s) nor $X_{00}$ restricted on (s) contains ( $B, D$ ) of degree $p-1$ as its irreducible component.

Proof. (Cf. [5, Lemma 7].) By (\#) and by the reciprocity theorem of Frobenius we have that

$$
(B, D)(X)=Y_{0}(X)+L(X)
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\mathfrak{W}$, where $L$ is a linear character of $\mathfrak{W}$. Since (S) is triply transitive by a previous result [6, Theorem]. By a theorem of Frobenius [6, Proposition A] $X_{0}$ is orthogonal to both $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on (S) and $X_{00}$ restricted on $\left(\mathscr{5}\right.$. Hence we have that $(B, D) \neq X_{0}$. Let $1_{@}$ and $1_{\mathscr{p}}$ be principal characters of $\mathscr{H}$ and $\mathfrak{F}$, respectively. Let $1_{\mathscr{\Phi}}^{*}$ be the character of $\mathscr{E}$ induced by $1_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Then we have that

$$
1_{5}^{*}=X_{0}+1_{\leftrightarrow} .
$$

Thus ( $B, D$ ) restricted on $\mathfrak{W}$ does not contain $1_{\mathfrak{p}}$ as its irreducible component. Thus we have that $L \neq 1_{\mathfrak{p}}$. Let $L^{*}$ be the character of $\mathbb{E}$ induced by $L$. Then by the reciprocity theorem of Frobenius we have that

$$
L^{*}(X)=(B, D)(X)+M(X)
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\mathbb{G}$, where $M$ is a linear character of $\mathbb{G}$. Since $L \neq 1_{\mathfrak{S}}$, we have that $M \neq 1_{\mathbb{G}}$. Since © is assumed to be simple, this is a contradiction.
From Lemmas 1, 2 and 3 we get
Lemma 4. Case (iv) of Lemma 1 and Cases (ii) and (iii) of Lemma 2 cannot occur. Similarly, Case (iii) of Lemma 1 cannot occur if $s>2$.

Lemma 5. Case (iii) of Lemma 1 cannot occur.
Proof. Let us assume that this case occurs. Then by Lemmas 2, 3 and 4 we obtain that $s=2$ and that $X_{00}$ restricted on $\mathscr{E}$ is irreducible. Let $\Omega$ be the subgroup of $\mathcal{E}$ consisting of all the permutations in $\mathcal{B}$ each of which fixes each of the symbols 1 and 2 of $\Omega$. Let $1_{\Omega}$ be the principal character of $\Omega$ and $1 *$ be the character of © induced by $1_{\Omega}$. Then by a theorem of Frobenius [6, Formula (8)] we have that

$$
\begin{equation*}
1_{\stackrel{*}{*}(X)=1_{\Theta}(X)+2 X_{0}(X)+X_{0}^{0}(X)+X_{00}(X), ~(X)} \tag{**}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\mathbb{G}$. Thus the norm of $1_{\Omega}^{*}$ is nine.
Let $(\Omega)_{2}$ be the set of all the ordered pairs $(x, y)$ such that $x$ and $y$ are different symbols of $\Omega$. We represent © as a permutation group $\pi(\mathbb{E})$ on $(\Omega)_{2}$. Since $\mathbb{E}$ is assumed to be simple, this permutation representation of $\mathbb{E}$ is faithful. The character of $\pi(\mathbb{O})$ is equal to $1_{\Omega}^{*}$. It is known [ 2,8207 ] that the number of orbits of $\Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi(\mathbb{(})$ equals the norm of $1_{\Omega}^{*}$. Put $\Gamma=\Omega-\{1,2\} .(\Gamma)_{2}$ is to be understood likewise, $(\Omega)_{2}$. Then it is easy to see that $(\Gamma)_{2}$ is divided into three orbits $\Gamma_{i}(i=1,2,3)$ of $\Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi(\mathcal{G})$. Since ${ }^{(G)}$ is triply transitive on $\Omega$ by a previous result [ 6 , Theorem], $\Omega$ is transitive on $\Gamma$. Hence each $\Gamma_{i}(i=1,2,3)$ contains an ordered pair of the form ( $3,{ }^{*}$ ). Furthermore, since $\mathbb{H}$ is triply transitive, we can choose $\Re$ so that $\Re$ fixes the symbols 1,2 and 3 of $\Omega$ individually. Let us consider the act of $\mathfrak{R}$ on the set of ordered pairs of the form (3, *) of $\Gamma_{i}(i=1,2,3)$. Then it is easy to see that the length of $\Gamma_{i}(i=1,2,3)$ is equal to $(p-2) r x_{i}$ with $x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}=4$. This implies that just one of $x_{i}(i=1,2,3)$ is equal to 2 and the other two are equal to 1 . Then by a theorem of Frame [6, Proposition $F$ ] the number

$$
F=\frac{\{p(p-1)\}^{7}(p-2)^{4}(p-2)^{3} r^{3} 2}{(p-1)^{4} \frac{1}{2} p(p-3)\{(r-1) p+1\}^{2}(2 p-1)}
$$

is a rational integer. Dividing $F$ by $p^{6} q^{3}$ we obtain that

$$
F_{1}=\frac{(p-2)^{7} r^{2} 8}{\{(r-1) p+1\}^{2}(2 p-1)}
$$

is a rational integer. Since $(p-2,2 p-1)=3$ and since $r$ is prime to 3 , we can put $2 p-1=3^{a} A$ with $1 \leqq a \leqq 7$ and $(A, 3)=1$. Since $(p-3,2 p-1)$ divides 5 , we can put $A=5^{b} B$ with $0 \leqq b \leqq 2$ and $(B, 5)=1$. Then we have that $B=1$ and $2 p-1=3^{a} 5^{b}$. Since $2 p \equiv 2(\bmod 4), a$ must be even: $a=2 a_{1}$. If $b=2 b_{1}$ is even, then we have that

$$
2 p-2=4 q=\left(3^{a_{1}} 5^{b_{1}}+1\right)\left(3^{a_{1}} 5^{b_{1}}-1\right)
$$

which is obviously a contradiction. Thus $b$ is odd and hence $b=1$. This implies that $p=23$ or 1823 , which is a contradiction to a result of Parker and Nikolai [7].

Lemma 6. Case (iv) of Lemma 2 occurs.
Proof. Let us assume that $X_{00}$ restricted on $\mathbb{B}$ is irreducible. If $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{S}$ is irreducible, too, then by a theorem of Frobenius [6, Proposition A] $\mathbb{B}$ is quadruply transitive on $\Omega$ against the assumption. Hence Case (ii) of Lemma 1 must occur. Let $N s \Omega$ be the normalizer of $\Omega$ in $\mathbb{B}$. Let $1_{N s \Omega}$ be the principal character of $N s \Omega$ and let $1_{N s \Omega}^{*}$ be the character of $\mathbb{B}$ induced by $1_{N s \Omega}$. Then by a theorem of Frobenius [6, formula (9)] we have that (\#\#)

$$
1_{N s \Omega}^{*}(X)=1_{\Leftrightarrow}(X)+X_{0}(X)+X_{00}(X)
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\mathbb{E}$. Thus by (**) and (\#\#) the norms of $1_{\Omega}^{*}$ and $1_{N s, R}^{*}$ are equal to 8 and 3 , respectively.

Let $\{\Omega\}_{2}$ be the family of all the subsets of $\Omega$ each of which consists of two different symbols of $\Omega$. We represent $(\mathcal{B}$ as a permutation group $\pi\{\Theta\}$ on $\{\Omega\}_{2}$. Since $\mathbb{E}$ is simple, this permutation representation of $\mathbb{E}$ is faithful. The character of $\pi\{\leftrightarrow \in\}$ is equal to $1_{N s \Omega}^{*}$. It is known [2, §207] that the number of orbits of $N s \Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi\{\mathscr{G}\}$ equals the norm of $1_{N s \Omega}^{*} .\{\Gamma\}_{2}$ is to be understood likewise, $\{\Omega\}_{2}$. Then it is easy to see that $(\Gamma)_{2}$ is divided into two orbits $\Gamma_{1}$ and $\Gamma_{2}$ of $\Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi(\Theta)$ and that $N s \Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi\{\mathbb{( J \}}\}$ is transitive on $\{\Gamma\}_{2}$. Then by the proof of Lemma 4 of [6] the lengths of $\Gamma_{1}$ and $\Gamma_{2}$ are equal to each other and hence it is equal to $\frac{1}{2}(p-2)(p-3)$. By a theorem of Frame [6, Proposition F], the number

$$
F=\frac{\{p(p-1)\}^{6}(p-2)^{4} \frac{1}{4}(p-2)^{2}(p-3)^{2}}{(p-1)^{4} \frac{1}{2} p(p-3) p\{(q-2) p+1\}}
$$

is a rational integer. Since $(p-2,(q-2) p+1)=1$, dividing $F$ by

$$
p^{4} 4 q^{2}(p-2)^{6}
$$

we obtain that

$$
F_{1}=\frac{(p-3)}{2\{(q-2) p+1\}}
$$

is a rational integer, which is obviously a contradiction.
As we already have noticed in the introduction, using a theorem of Brauer [6, Proposition B] we get the following important formula from Lemma 6:

$$
\begin{equation*}
(D, C)_{1}(G)=\frac{1}{s}\left[\frac{1}{2} \alpha(G)\{\alpha(G)-3\}+\beta(G)\right] \tag{}
\end{equation*}
$$

for every $q$-regular element $G$ of (s).
Now let us consider $\pi\{\leftrightarrow\}$. The character of $\pi\{\mathbb{H}\}$ is equal to $1_{N s i}^{*}$. By ( \# \# ) and by Lemma 6 the decomposition of $1_{N s s}^{*}$ into its irreducible components has the following form:

$$
\begin{equation*}
1_{N s,}^{*}=1_{\Theta}+X_{0}+\sum_{i=1}^{s}(D, C)_{i} . \tag{i}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, let $\Delta$ be an orbit of $N s \Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi\{\Leftrightarrow\}$ with length $x$. Let $C(\Delta)$ be the commuter of $\pi\{\Theta\}$ as the permutation matrix group corresponding to $\Delta$. Using Schur's lemma we can reduce $C(\Delta)$ to a diagonal form:

$$
\begin{gathered}
p-1 \text { times } r p \text { times } \quad r p \text { times } \\
\left\{a, b, \cdots, b, c_{1}, \cdots, c_{1}, \cdots, c_{s}, \cdots, c_{s}\right\},
\end{gathered}
$$

where $a, b$ and $c_{i}(i=1, \ldots, s)$ are algebraic integers. Then using a method Wielandt [8, §29] we see that $a$ and $b$ are rational integers, and furthermore we obtain the following three equalitities:

$$
\begin{equation*}
a=x \tag{ii}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=a+b(p-1)+r p \sum_{i=1}^{s} c_{i} \tag{iii}
\end{equation*}
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2} p(p-1) a=a^{2}+b^{2}(p-1)+r p \sum_{i=1}^{s}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2} . \tag{iv}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 7. $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on $(\xi)$ is irreducible.
Proof. Let us assume that $X_{0}$ restricted on $\mathbb{E}$ is reducible. Then Case (ii) of Lemma 1 occurs. Using (i) and $\left({ }^{* *}\right)$ we see that the norms of $1_{N s i}^{*}$ and
$1_{\$}^{*}$ are equal to $s+2$ and $s+7$, respectively. It is known that the number of orbits of $\Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi(\mathbb{B})$ and of $N s \Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi\{\mathbb{M}\}$ is equal to the norms of $1_{\Omega}^{*}$ and of $1_{N S}^{*} R$, respectively [ $2, \S 207$ ]. Hence it is easy to see that $(\Gamma)_{2}$ is divided into $s+1$ orbits $\Gamma_{1}, \cdots, \Gamma_{s+1}$ of $\Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi(\Theta)$. Let $x_{i}$ be the length of $\Gamma_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s+1)$. Since $\mathbb{H}$ is triply transitive by a previous result [6, Theorem], $\Re$ is transitive on $\Gamma$. Hence each $\Gamma_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s+1)$ contains an ordered pair of the form ( $3,{ }^{*}$ ). Furthermore, since $\mathscr{B}$ is triply transitive, we can choose $\Re$ so that $\Re$ fixes the symbols 1,2 and 3 of $\Omega$ individually. Let us consider the act of $\Re$ on the set of ordered pairs of the form ( $3,{ }^{*}$ ) of $\Gamma_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s+1)$. Then it is easy to see $x_{i}=(p-2) r y_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s+1)$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{s+1} y_{i}=2 s \tag{v}
\end{equation*}
$$

Similarly, $\{\Gamma\}_{2}$ is divided into $s$ orbits $\Gamma(1), \cdots, \Gamma(s)$ of $N s \Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi\{\mathbb{( S )}\}$. By (v) there exist at least two different $j$ 's $(1=s=+1)$ such that $y_{j}=1$. Now let us assume that there exist just two such $j$ 's. Then the other $s-1 y_{j}^{\prime}$ 's must be equal to 2 . Now by a theorem of Frame [6, Proposition F] the number

$$
F=\frac{\{p(p-1)\}^{s+5}(p-2)^{4}(p-2)^{s+1} r^{s+1} 2^{s-1}}{(p-1)^{4} p\{(q-2) p+1\} p^{s} r^{s}}
$$

is a rational integer. Since $(p-2,(q-2) p+1)=1$, dividing $F$ by

$$
p^{4} q^{s+1}(p-2)^{s+5}
$$

we obtain that

$$
F_{1}=\frac{2^{2 s} r}{(q-2) p+1}
$$

is a rational integer. Since $(q-2) p+1=(p-2) s r-2$, we have that $(r,(q-2) p+1)=2$. This implies that $(q-2) p+1=2^{A}$. If $A=2 B$ is even, then we obtain that $(q-2) p=\left(2^{B}+1\right)\left(2^{B}-1\right)$, which implies that $2^{B}+1$ $>p$. This contradicts that $p=2 q+1$. But this is a contradiction, because of $q \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. Thus $A$ must be odd. Then we obtain that $(q-2) p+2$ $\equiv 0(\bmod 3)$. In fact, if $q \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$, then $p \equiv 2 q+1=0(\bmod 3)$, and if $q=3$, then $p=7$. Therefore we can assume that there must exist at least three different $j$ 's $(1 \leqq j \leqq s+1)$ such that $y_{j}=1$. Then one of such $\Gamma_{j}$ 's can be considered as an orbit, say $\Gamma(j)$, of $N s \Re$ as a subgroup of $\pi\{\circledast\}$. Then the length of $\Gamma(j)$ equals $\frac{1}{2}(p-2) r$. In particular, this implies that $r$ is even. By a previous result [4, Theorem 2] we can assume that $r \geqq 4$. Now in the preceding consideration put $\Delta=\Gamma(j)$. Then we have (ii), (iii) and (iv) with $x=\frac{1}{2}(p-2) r$. From (ii) and (iii) we obtain that $-r-b$
$\equiv 0(\bmod p)$ and that $4 b=y r$ with an odd integer $y$. Then we can put $b=z p$ $-r$ with an integer $z$ and we obtain that $4 z p-4 r=y r$. Thus we can put $4 z=w r$ with an odd integer $w$, and we obtain that $y=w p-4$. Now from (iv) we obtain that $(4 b)^{2}=r^{2}(w p-4)^{2} \leqq 4 p(p-2) r$, which implies that $r(w p-4)^{2} \leqq 4 p(p-2)$. Thus we see that $w$ must be positive. If $w \geqq 3$, then we have that $(3 p-4)^{2} \leqq 4 p(p-2) / r \leqq p(p-2)$, which implies that $4 p^{2}$ $+8 \leqq 11 p$. This is a contradiction. Thus we must have that $w=1$ and $4 b=r p-4 r=r(p-4)$. Put this value of $b$ into (iv) and multiply by 16. Then we obtain that

$$
4 p(p-1)(p-2) r=4(p-2)^{2} r^{2}+r^{2}(p-4)^{2}(p-1)+16 p r \sum_{i=1}^{s}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2}
$$

Dividing it by $r$ we obtain that
(vi) $4 p(p-1)(p-2)=4(p-2)^{2} r+r(p-4)^{2}(p-1)+16 p \sum_{i=1}^{s}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2}$.

From (vi) we see that $r \equiv 0(\bmod 4)$ and $r \neq 0(\bmod 8)$. Put $r=4 r_{1}$ with an odd natural number $r_{1}$. Then dividing (vi) by 8 we obtain that

$$
q p(p-2)=2 r_{1}(p-2)^{2}+r_{1} q(p-4)^{2}+2 p \sum_{i=1}^{s}\left|c_{i}\right|^{2}
$$

If $r_{1} \geqq 3$, then we obtain that $p(p-2) /(p-4)^{2} \geqq 3$, which implies that $11 p \geqq p^{2}+24$. This is a contradiction. Thus $r_{1}$ must be equal to 1 and $r=4$.

Now let us consider the irreducible character ( $D, A$ ) of $(\mathcal{H}$ of degree $p$ in $X_{0}^{0}$ restricted on $\Theta$. Since $X_{0}^{0}$ is rational, $(D, A)$ is rational, too. By (\#) we have that

$$
(D, A)(X)=Y_{0}(X)+Z(X)
$$

for every permutation $X$ of $\mathfrak{W}$, where $Z$ is a (reducible) rational character of $\mathfrak{S}$ of degree 2 (cf. 5 , Lemma 9 ). If $Z$ is irreducible, by a theorem of Brauer [6, Proposition B] $Z$ must have $q$-type $C$. But then $Z$ cannot be rational. Thus $Z$ is a sum of two linear characters of $\mathfrak{S}: Z=L_{1}+L_{2}$. If $L_{1}=L_{2}$, then let $L_{1}^{*}$ be the character of $\mathbb{B}$ induced by $L_{1}$. Then by the reciprocity theorem of Frobenius, we have that $L_{1}^{*}=2(D, A)+\cdots$. Since the degree of $L_{1}^{*}$ is equal to $p$, this is obviously a contradiction. Thus we obtain that $L_{1} \neq L_{2}$. Furthermore, since $1_{\text {है }}^{*}=1_{\aleph}+X_{0}$, we have that $L_{1} \neq 1_{\mathfrak{ß}} \neq L_{2}$ and that $L_{1}$ and $L_{2}$ must be algebraically conjugate. Let the field of characters $L_{i}(i=1,2)$ be the field of $m$ th roots of unity. Then the degree of this field equals $\phi(m)=2$. Thus we obtain that $m=3$ or $m=4$. Let $\mathfrak{S}^{\prime}$ be the commutator subgroup of $\mathfrak{S}$. Then the index of $\mathfrak{S}^{\prime}$ in $\mathfrak{S}$ is divisible by $m$. By Sylow's theorem we have that $\mathfrak{F}=\mathfrak{F}^{\prime} N s \mathfrak{Q}$. Thus the order of $N s \mathfrak{Q}$ which
equals $4 q$ is divisible by $m$. Thus we obtain that $m=4$. This implies that $\mathfrak{G}$ contains a subgroup $\mathfrak{M}$ of index 2 . Let $\boldsymbol{e}$ be the character of $\mathfrak{E}$ whose kernel is $\mathfrak{M}$. Let $e^{*}$ be the character of $\mathbb{E}$ induced by $e$. Using a theorem of Brauer and Tuan [6, Proposition C] we see that $e^{*}=(D, A)_{1}$ is an irreducible character of $\mathbb{H}$, which is different from $(D, A)$ because of $L_{i} \neq e(i=1,2)$. Then the first $q$-block $B_{1}(q)$ of $\mathbb{H}$ contains four characters $1_{\mathscr{H}},(D, A),(D, A)_{1}$ and ( $A, B$ ). Since $r=4$, by a theorem of Brauer [1] we must have the following degree equation in $B_{1}(q)$.

$$
1+p+p=r p+(q-2) p+1
$$

This is absurd. Thus $X_{0}$ restricted on $(\mathbb{\$}$ must be irreducible.
By Lemmas 6 and $7{ }^{0}$ we have that

$$
X_{00}(G)-X_{0}(G)=2 \beta(G)-1=\sum_{i=1}^{s}(D, C)_{i}(G)-X_{0}(G)
$$

for every permutation $G$ of $\mathbb{B}$. Thus we obtain the following equality:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{G \in \oiint}\{\beta(G)\}^{2}=\frac{1}{4}(s+2) g \tag{vii}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $g$ is the order of $(G)$.
2. $q$-exceptional characters $(D, C)_{i}(i=1, \cdots, s)$.

Lemma 8. A representation corresponding to $(D, C)_{i}(i=1, \ldots, s)$ can be realized in the real number field.

Proof. Let $e_{q}$ be a primitive $q$ th root of unity and let $Q$ be the rational number field. Then by a theorem of Brauer [1] all the ( $D, C)_{i}$ 's $(i=1, \cdots, s)$ are $Q\left(e_{q}\right)$-conjugate. Thus all the $(D, C)_{i}$ 's $(i=1, \cdots, s)$ have the same quadratic signature [6, Introduction]. Now by a theorem of Frame [6, Proposition G] we can count the number $R$ of real orbits of $N s \Omega$ as a subgroup of $\pi\{\Theta\}$ in the following way:

$$
\begin{aligned}
R & =\frac{1}{g} \sum_{G \in \circlearrowleft}\left[\frac{1}{2} \alpha\left(G^{2}\right)\left\{\alpha\left(G^{2}\right)-1\right\}+\beta\left(G^{2}\right)\right] \\
& =\frac{1}{g} \sum_{G \in \circlearrowleft}\left[\frac{1}{2}\{\alpha(G)+2 \beta(G)\}\{\alpha(G)+2 \beta(G)-1\}+2 \delta(G)\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\delta(G)$ denotes the number of 4-cycles in the cycle structure of $G$ as a permutation of $(\oiint$. Then using (vii) we obtain that

$$
R=\frac{1}{2} s+2+\frac{2}{g} \sum_{G \in M} \delta(G) .
$$

On the other hand, we have that $R=2+\epsilon s$, where $\epsilon=1,0$ or -1 , according as $(D, C)_{i}$ 's $(i=1, \cdots, s)$ have the quadratic signature 1,0 or -1 , respectively. Comparing with two expressions of $R$ we obtain that $\epsilon=1$.

Lemma 9. $r$ is even.
Proof. Let $Q$ be an element of $\mathscr{H}$ of order $q$. Since by Lemma $8(D, C)_{i}$ 's are real characters, we obtain that $(D, C)_{i}(Q)=(D, C)_{i}\left(Q^{-1}\right)(i=1, \cdots, s)$. Then using a theorem of Brauer [6, Proposition B] we see that $X(Q)$ $=X\left(Q^{-1}\right)$ for every irreducible character $X$ of $\mathbb{H}$. Thus $Q$ and $Q^{-1}$ are conjugate in $₫($. Therefore $r$ is even.

Now let $P$ be an element $(\neq 1)$ of $\mathfrak{B}$. Let $Q$ be an element in $N s \mathfrak{B}$ of order $q$. Let $I$ be an involution such that $I Q I=Q^{-1}$, whose existence is secured by Lemma 9 .
3. Analytic representations for $P$ and $I$. Now we identify $\Omega$ with $G F(p)$. Then we choose $x^{\prime}=x+1$ as an analytic representation for $P$. We can put $Q^{-1} P Q=P^{a^{2}}$, that is, $P Q=Q P^{a^{2}}$, where $a$ is a certain primitive root modulo $p$. Since $P$ is transitive on $G F(p)$, we can assume that $Q$ fixes the element 0 of $G F(p)$. Let $f(x)$ be an analytic representation for $Q$. Then we have that $f(x+1)=f(x)+a^{2}$. From this we see that $x^{\prime}=a^{2} x$ is an analytic representation for $Q$. Then $Q$ transfers squares and nonsquares in $G F(p)$ to squares and nonsquares in $G F(p)$, respectively. Since $I Q I=Q^{-1}, I$ fixes the element 0 of $G F(p)$. Since $Q$ is transitive on the set of nonzero squares in $G F(p)$, we can assume that $I$ fixes the element 1 of $G F(p)$. Let $g(x)$ be an analytic representation for $I$. Then using $I Q=Q^{-1} I$ we obtain that $a^{2} g(x)$ $=g\left(a^{-2} x\right)$. Taking $x=1$ we obtain that $a^{2}=g\left(a^{-2}\right)$ and recurrently $a^{2 i}$ $=g\left(a^{-2 i}\right)$. Similarly we obtain that $g\left(a^{-2 i-1}\right)=a^{2} g\left(a^{-2 i+1}\right)$. From these equalities we see that

$$
x^{\prime}= \begin{cases}1 / x & \text { if } x \text { is a nonzero square in } G F(p), \\ a^{2} / x & \text { if } x \text { is a nonsquare in } G F(p)\end{cases}
$$

is an analytic representation for $I$.
Now we notice that because of $p=2 q+1,-1$ is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$ and every square in $G F(p)$ other than 0 and 1 is a square of some primitive root modulo $p$. Thus replacing $Q$ by its suitable power, we see that $a$ can be any primitive root modulo $p$. Therefore we obtain the following lemma.

Lemma 10. Take $x^{\prime}=x+1$ as an analytic representation for $P$. Then

$$
x^{\prime}= \begin{cases}1 / x & \text { if } x \text { is a nonzero square in } G F(p), \\ b / x & \text { if } x \text { is a nonsquare in } G F(p)\end{cases}
$$

is an analytic representation for $I$, where $b(\neq 0,1)$ is any square in $G F(p)$.

Let us consider the permutation $I P^{c}$ in $\mathcal{M}$, where $c$ is a nonzero square in $G F(p)$. Using Lemma 10 the analytic representation of $I P^{c}$ can be described as follows: (I) $x^{\prime}=(1+c x) / x$ if $x \neq 0$ is a square in $G F(p)$; (II) $x^{\prime}$ $=(b+c x) / x$ if $x$ is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$; (III) $0^{\prime}=c$. Similarly, the analytic representation of $\left(I P^{c}\right)^{2}$ can be described as follows: (IV) $x^{\prime}$ $=\{x+c(1+c x)\} /(1+c x)$ if $x \neq 0$ and $1+c x$ are squares in $G F(p)$, where $1+c x \neq 0$ because $c$ and $x$ are squares in $G F(p)$ and -1 is a nonsquare in $G F(p) ;(\mathrm{V}) x^{\prime}=\{b x+c(1+c x)\} /(1+c x)$ if $x \neq 0$ is a square in $G F(p)$ and if $1+c x$ is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$; (VI) $x^{\prime}=\{x+c(b+c x)\} /(b+c x)$, if $x$ and $b+c x$ are nonsquares in $G F(p)$; (VII) $x^{\prime}=\{b x+c(b+c x)\} /(b+c x)$, if $x$ is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$ and if $b+c x \neq 0$ is a square in $G F(p)$; (VIII) $0^{\prime}$ $=1 / c$; (IX) $(-b / c)^{\prime}=c$.
4. The case where 2 is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Let $m$ be a square in $G F(p)$. Then we denote by $\sqrt{ } m$ the quadratic residual solution, namely, the solution which is a square in $G F(p)$, of the equation $x^{2}=m$.

Since $p \equiv-1(\bmod 3)$, using the quadratic reciprocity law we see that 3 is a square in $G F(p)$.

Lemma 11. We can assume that 13 is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$.
Proof. Let us assume that 13 is a square in $G F(p)$. Take $b=-2$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{3}$ with $c=3$. At first we show that $\alpha\left(I P^{3}\right)=2$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=1+3 x$. Hence we obtain that $x$ $=\frac{1}{2}(3 \pm \sqrt{ } 13)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}(3+\sqrt{ } 13)(3-\sqrt{ } 13)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}$ $=3 x-2$, which implies that $x=2$. Next we show that $\beta\left(I P^{3}\right)=0$. In order to do this we have only to show that any element of $G F(p)$ which is fixed by $\left(I P^{3}\right)^{2}$ is already fixed by $I P^{3}$. Herein we want to notice that the solutions $x^{\prime}=x$ of (IV) and of (VII) are coincident with those of (I) and (II), respectively. In fact, let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (IV). Then we get $x+c x^{2}=x$ $+c(1+c x)$. Dividing this by $c$ we obtain that $x^{2}=1+c x$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (VII). Then we get $b x+c x^{2}=b x+c(b+c x)$. Dividing this by $c$ we obtain that $x^{2}=b+c x$. Therefore we need consider only (V) and (VI). Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $x+3 x^{2}=-2 x$ $+3(1+3 x)$, which implies that $(x-1)^{2}=2$. This is a contradiction, because we have assumed that 2 is a nonsquare in $\operatorname{GF}(p)$. The same holds on (VI).

Now from ( ${ }^{*}$ ) we obtain that $D C_{1}\left(I P^{3}\right)=-1 / s$, which must be an integer. But since we have assumed that $s>1$, this is a contradiction.

Lemma 12. We can assume that 5 is a nonsquare and 7 is a square in $G F(p)$.
Proof. At first let us assume that 5 is a square and 7 is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Take $b=-2$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P$ with $c=1$. Likewise,
in Lemma 11 we can show that $\alpha(I P)=2$ and $\beta(I P)=0$. In fact let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=1+x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \sqrt{ } 5)$. Since $\frac{1}{9}(1+\sqrt{ } 5)(1-\sqrt{ } 5)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=-2$ $+x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}(1 \pm \sqrt{ }(-7))$. Since $\frac{1}{1}(1+\sqrt{ }(-7)$ $(1-\sqrt{ }(-7))=2$, just one of the solutions is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Now let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $x+x^{2}=-2 x+1+x$, which implies that $(x+1)^{2}=2$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI). Therefore using (*) we obtain the same contradiction as in Lemma 11.

Next let us assume that both 5 and 7 are squares or nonsquares in $G F(p)$. Then we get $\alpha(I P)=1$ and $\beta(I P)=0$. In order to get a contradiction from $\left(^{*}\right)$ we only have to know that $I P$ is $q$-regular. Now $I P$ is really $q$-regular, because the cycle structure of $I P$ contains a 3 -cycle ( $0,1,2$ ).

Lemma 13. If 13 is a nonsquare and if 7 is a square in $G F(p)$, then there exists a permutation in $G$ contradicting ( ${ }^{*}$ ).

Proof. Take $b=4$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{c}$ with $c^{2}=12$ in $G F(p)$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{c}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{c}\right)=0$. In fact, let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=-1+c x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2} c \pm 2$. Since $\left(\frac{1}{2} c+2\right)\left(\frac{1}{2} c-2\right)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=4+c x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2} c \pm \sqrt{ } 7$. Since $\left(\frac{1}{2} c+\sqrt{ } 7\right)\left(\frac{1}{2} c-\sqrt{ } 7\right)=-4$, just one of the solutions is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Now let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $x+c x^{2}=4 x+c+12 x$, which implies that $\{x-(5 c / 8)\}^{2}=91 / 16=7.13 / 16$. By assumption this is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).
5. The case where 2 is a square in $G F(p)$. The idea of the proof in this case is almost the same as in §4. The elements 2 and 3 are squares in $\operatorname{GF}(p)$. At first we show that the elements $5,7,11,13$ and 17 can be assumed as squares in $G F(p)$. Then the key lemma (Lemma 19), which is also quite elementary, shows that under these circumstances we can assume that all the elements in $G F(p)$ are squares in $G F(p)$, which is obviously an absurdity.

Lemma 14. We can assume that 17 is a square in $G F(p)$.
Proof. Let us assume that 17 is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Take $b=4$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{c}$ with $c^{2}=8$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{c}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{c}\right)=0$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=c x+1$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2} c \pm \sqrt{ } 3$. Since $\left(\frac{1}{2} c+\sqrt{ } 3\right)\left(\frac{1}{2} c-\sqrt{ } 3\right)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=c x+4$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2} c \pm \sqrt{ } 6$. Since $\left(\frac{1}{2} c+\sqrt{ } 6\right)\left(\frac{1}{2} c-\sqrt{ } 6\right)=-4$, just one of the solutions is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $c x^{2}-3 x=c+8 x$,
which implies that $\{x-(11 c / 16)\}^{2}=153 / 32=9.17 / 32$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).

Lemma 15. We can assume that 13 is a square in $G F(p)$.
Proof. Let us assume that 13 is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Take $b=3$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{2}$ with $c=2$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{2}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{2}\right)=0$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=1+2 x$. Hence we obtain that $x=1 \pm \sqrt{ } 2)$. Since $(1+\sqrt{ } 2)(1-\sqrt{ } 2)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=3+2 x$. Hence we obtain that $x=-1$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $2 x^{2}+x=3 x+2(1+2 x)$, which implies that $\{x-(3 / 2)\}^{2}=13 / 4$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).

Lemma 16. We can assume that 5 is a square in $G F(p)$.
Proof. Using Lemma 15 , let 13 be a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that 5 is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Take $b=4$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{3}$ with $c=3$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{3}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{3}\right)=0$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=3 x+1$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}(3 \pm \sqrt{ } 13)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}(3+\sqrt{ } 13)(3-\sqrt{ } 13)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=3 x+4$. Hence we obtain that $x=-1$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $3 x^{2}$ $+x=4 x+3(1+3 x)$, which implies that $(x-2)^{2}=5$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).

Lemma 17. We can assume that 11 is a square in $G F(p)$.
Proof. Using Lemma 16 let 5 be a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that 11 is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Take $b=3$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{c}$ with $c^{2}=6$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{c}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{c}\right)=0$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=1+c x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}(c \pm \sqrt{ } 10)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}(c+\sqrt{ } 10)(c-\sqrt{ } 10)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=3+c x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}(c \pm 3 \sqrt{ } 2)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}(c+3 \sqrt{ } 2)(c-3 \sqrt{ } 2)=-3$, just one of the solutions is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $c x^{2}+x=3 x+c(1+c x)$, which implies that $\{x-(2 c / 3)\}^{2}$ $=11 / 3$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).

Lemma 18. We can assume that 7 is a square in $G F(p)$.
Proof. Using Lemmas 15 and 16 let 5 and 13 be squares in $G F(p)$. Take $b=2$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{c}$ with $c^{2}=5$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{c}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{c}\right)=0$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=1+c x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}(c \pm 3)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}(c+3)(c-3)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=2+c x$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}(c \pm \sqrt{ } 13)$. Since
$\frac{1}{4}(c+\sqrt{ } 13)(c-\sqrt{ } 13)=-2$, just one of the solutions is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get

$$
x+c x^{2}=2 x+c(1+c x)
$$

which implies that $\{x-(3 c / 5)\}^{2}=14 / 5$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).

Lemma 19. We can assume that every element in $G F(p)$ is a square in $G F(p)$.
Proof. Let $l$ be the least prime number which is a quadratic nonresidue modulo $p$. Then by Lemmas $14-18, l$ is greater than 17 . Let us assume that $l \equiv 1(\bmod 3)$. Then take $b=9$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{c}$ with $c^{2}$ $=l-16$, where, by assumption, $l-16$ is a square in $G F(p)$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{c}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{c}\right)=0$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (I). Then we get $x^{2}=c x+1$. Since, by assumption, $c^{2}+4=l-12$ is a square in $G F(p)$, we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}\left(c \pm(l-12)^{1 / 2}\right)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}\left(c+(l-12)^{1 / 2}\right)\left(c-(l-12)^{1 / 2}\right)$ $=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=c x+9$. Since we have assumed that $l \equiv 1(\bmod 3), l+20$ is divisible by 3 . If $(l+20) / 3>l$, then $l<10$. Thus $(l+20) / 3$ is less than $l$ and therefore it is a square in $G F(p)$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}\left(c \pm(l+20)^{1 / 2}\right)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}\left(c+(l+20)^{1 / 2}\right)\left(c-(l+20)^{1 / 2}\right)$ $=-9$, just one of the solutions is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $x+c x^{2}=9 x+c(1+c x)$, which implies that $x-\{(l-8) c / 2(l-16)\}^{2}=l(l-12) / 4(l-16)$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).

Now let us assume $l \equiv 2(\bmod 3)$. Then take $b=4$ in Lemma 10 and consider $I P^{c}$ with $c^{2}=l-9$, where, by assumption, $l-9$ is a square in $G F(p)$. We show that $\alpha\left(I P^{c}\right)=2$ and $\beta\left(I P^{c}\right)=0$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in ( I ). Then we get $x^{2}=c x+1$. Since, by assumption, $c^{2}+4=l-5$ is a square in $G F(p)$, we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}\left(c \pm(l-5)^{1 / 2}\right)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}\left(c+(l-5)^{1 / 2}\right)$ $\cdot\left(c-(l-5)^{1 / 2}\right)=-1$, just one of the solutions is a square in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (II). Then we get $x^{2}=4+c x$. Since we have assumed that $l \equiv 2(\bmod 3), l+7$ is divisible by 3 . If $(l+7) / 3>l$, then $l<3$. Thus $(l+7) / 3$ is less than $l$ and therefore it is a square in $G F(p)$. Hence we obtain that $x=\frac{1}{2}\left(c \pm(l+7)^{1 / 2}\right)$. Since $\frac{1}{4}\left(c+(l+7)^{1 / 2}\right)\left(c-(l+7)^{1 / 2}\right)=-4$, just one of the solutions is a nonsquare in $G F(p)$. Let us assume that $x^{\prime}=x$ in (V). Then we get $x+c x^{2}=4 x+c(1+c x)$, which implies that $\{x-(l-6) c / 2(l-9)\}^{2}=l(l-8) / 4(l-9)$. This is a contradiction. The same holds on (VI).

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