1. First, if k = 0 then p = 2 and there are no quadratic nonresidues modulo 2. Therefore the statement is vacuously true. Therefore we may assume p > 2.

Let  $p=2^k+1$  and a be such that  $\left(\frac{a}{p}\right)=-1$ . Then by Euler's criterion we have

$$-1 = \left(\frac{a}{p}\right)$$

$$\equiv a^{(p-1)/2} \pmod{p}$$

$$\equiv a^{2^{k}/2} \pmod{p}$$

$$\equiv a^{2^{k-1}} \pmod{p},$$

where we have used that  $p = 2^k + 1$  for the second congruence.

We must show that a has order  $\varphi(p) = p - 1 = 2^k$ . First we show that  $a^{2^k} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Indeed:

$$a^{2^k} = (a^{2^{k-1}})^2 \equiv (-1)^2 = 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Second, we must show that there is no  $\ell$  with  $0 < \ell < p-1 = 2^k$  such that  $a^\ell \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ , so that  $2^k$  is the least positive integer with  $a^{2^k} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . To do this, we suppose by way of a contradiction that a has order  $\ell$  modulo p, and  $0 < \ell < 2^k$ . By Theorem 8.1, we must have that  $\ell$  divides  $\varphi(p) = 2^k$ . Since  $2^k$  is a power of a prime, all of its divisors are of the form  $2^j$  for  $0 \le j \le k$ . Therefore  $\ell = 2^j$  for some  $0 \le j < k$  (the strict inequality is because we assume  $\ell = 2^j < 2^k$ ). If a has order  $\ell = 2^j$ , we have that

$$a^{\ell} = a^{2^j} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}.$$

Now to obtain the contradiction, it suffices to raise both sides of this equation to the power  $2^{k-j-1}$ , noting that  $k-j-1 \ge 0$  since j < k. On the left hand side we obtain

$$(a^{\ell})^{2^{k-j-1}} = (a^{2^j})^{2^{k-j-1}} = a^{2^j \cdot 2^{k-j-1}} = a^{2^{k-1}},$$

and on the right hand side we get

$$1^{2^{k-j-1}} = 1$$

Therefore, if  $a^{2^j} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  with 0 < j < k, it follows that

$$a^{2^{k-1}} \equiv 1 \pmod{p},$$

which is a contradiction to Euler's criterion, since p > 2 so  $-1 \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .

2. (a) Here a = 8 and p = 11, so  $\frac{p-1}{2} = 5$ . The set S from Gauss's Lemma is  $S = \{8, 16, 24, 32, 40\}$ .

We compute the remainder of each of these integers when we divide by 11:

$$S_{remainders} = \{8, 5, 2, 10, 7\}.$$

Then in the notation of the theorem, n is the number of elements of  $S_{remainders}$  that are greater than  $\frac{p}{2} = \frac{11}{2} = 5.5$ . There are three such numbers (7, 8 and 10). Therefore

$$\left(\frac{8}{11}\right) = (-1)^3 = -1.$$

Note on the proof of Gauss's Lemma: In the notation of the proof, we have  $r_1 = 2$ ,  $r_2 = 5$  (the small remainders) and  $s_1 = 7$ ,  $s_2 = 8$  and  $s_3 = 10$  (the big remainders). If we look at the list  $r_1, r_2, p - s_1, p - s_2, p - s_3$ , this is the list of integers 2, 5, 4, 3, 1, and indeed we have each integer between 1 and  $\frac{p-1}{2} = 5$ , exactly once. The congruence that proves the theorem is

$$5! = 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 1$$

$$= 2 \cdot 5 \cdot (11 - 7) \cdot (11 - 8) \cdot (11 - 10)$$

$$\equiv 2 \cdot 5 \cdot (-7) \cdot (-8) \cdot (-10) \pmod{11}$$

$$= (-1)^3 2 \cdot 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 8 \cdot 10$$

$$\equiv (-1)^3 24 \cdot 16 \cdot 40 \cdot 8 \cdot 32 \pmod{11}$$

$$= (-1)^3 (3 \cdot 8)(2 \cdot 8)(5 \cdot 8)(1 \cdot 8)(4 \cdot 8)$$

$$= (-1)^3 8^5 5!$$

Canceling  $5! = 120 \equiv 10 \pmod{11}$  from both sides (we can do this because it is a unit), we get

$$1 \equiv (-1)^3 8^5 \pmod{11}$$

or

$$8^5 \equiv (-1)^3 \pmod{11},$$

and  $8^5 \equiv \left(\frac{8}{11}\right) \pmod{11}$  by Euler's Criterion.

(b) Here a = 7 and p = 13, so  $\frac{p-1}{2} = 6$ . The set S from Gauss's Lemma is  $S = \{7, 14, 21, 28, 35, 42\}$ .

We compute the remainder of each of these integers when we divide by 13:

$$S_{remainders} = \{7, 1, 8, 2, 9, 3\}.$$

Then in the notation of the theorem, n is the number of elements of  $S_{remainders}$  that are greater than  $\frac{p}{2} = \frac{13}{2} = 6.5$ . There are three such numbers (7, 8 and 9). Therefore

$$\left(\frac{7}{13}\right) = (-1)^3 = -1.$$

3. Note that for this statement to be correct we must assume  $n \ge 1$ . (If n = 0, then p = 2 and  $\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = 1$ .)

We use Quadratic Reciprocity since both 3 and p are odd primes. First, we check if  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right)$  and  $\left(\frac{p}{3}\right)$  have the same or opposite signs:

$$\left(\frac{3}{p}\right)\left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = (-1)^{\frac{3-1}{2}\frac{p-1}{2}} = (-1)^{\frac{2^{2n}}{2}} = (-1)^{2^{2n-1}} = 1,$$

since  $2^{2n-1}$  is even. So they have the same sign and  $\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right)$ .

Now it is a matter of deciding if p is a square modulo 3 or not. Thankfully, there are only two choices for p modulo 3: Either  $p \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ , in which case it is a square, or  $p \equiv 2 \pmod{3}$ , in which case it is not a square. (We get that 2 is not a square modulo 3 by computing all the square:  $1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$  and  $2^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{3}$ .) We have

$$p = 2^{2n} + 1 = (2^2)^n + 1$$

$$= 4^n + 1$$

$$\equiv 1^n + 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$\equiv 1 + 1 = 2 \pmod{3}.$$

Therefore any prime p with  $p = 2^{2n} + 1$  is congruent to 2 modulo 3 and therefore not a square modulo 3. We conclude that

$$\left(\frac{3}{p}\right) = \left(\frac{p}{3}\right) = -1.$$

Answer to bonus question: If k = 1, then p = 3 is a prime. Suppose now that k is odd, we will show that  $2^k + 1$  cannot be a prime. Indeed, in that case, if k = 2n + 1, say, we have

$$2^{k} + 1 = 2^{2n+1} + 1$$

$$= 2 \cdot 2^{2n} + 1$$

$$= 2 \cdot 4^{n} + 1$$

$$\equiv 2 \cdot 1^{n} + 1 \pmod{3}$$

$$= 2 + 1 \equiv 0 \pmod{3}.$$

In other words, if k is odd then  $2^k + 1$  is divisible by 3, and therefore cannot be a prime except if it is equal to 3.

In problem 1, there is no restriction on k because the result applies when p=3 as well (2 is the only quadratic nonresidue, and it is a primitive root of 3). In problem 3, there is a restriction on k (k=2n is even) because the result does not apply when p=3 (the Legendre symbol becomes  $\left(\frac{3}{3}\right)$ , which is 0, not -1).