

Suppose that there is a prime  $q$  dividing  $m$  which is greater than  $(n^{1/4} + 1)^2$ . If there exists a point  $P$  of  $E$  such that (i)  $mP = O$ ; and (ii)  $(m/q)P$  is defined and not equal to  $O$ , then  $n$  is prime.

**Proof** (compare with the proof of Proposition 6.3.1). If  $n$  is not prime, then there is a prime  $p \leq \sqrt{n}$  which divides  $n$ . Let  $E'$  be the elliptic curve given by the same equation as  $E$  but considered modulo  $p$ , and let  $m'$  be the order of the group  $E'$ . By Hasse's Theorem, we have  $m' \leq p+1+2\sqrt{p} = (\sqrt{p}+1)^2 \leq (n^{1/4} + 1)^2 < q$ , and hence  $\text{g.c.d.}(q, m') = 1$ , and there exists an integer  $u$  such that  $uq \equiv 1 \pmod{m'}$ . Let  $P' \in E'$  be the point  $P$  considered modulo  $p$ . Then in  $E'$  we have  $(m/q)P' = uq(m/q)P' = umP' = O$ , by (i), since  $mP'$  is obtained using the same procedure as  $mP$ , only working modulo  $p|n$  rather than modulo  $n$ . But this contradicts (ii), since if  $(m/q)P$  is defined and  $\neq O$  modulo  $n$ , then the same procedure working modulo  $p$  rather than modulo  $n$  will give  $(m/q)P' \neq O$ . This completes the proof.

This proposition leads to an algorithm for proving that an integer  $n$  (which we may suppose is already known to be a “probable prime”) is definitely prime. We proceed as follows. We randomly select three integers  $a, x, y$  modulo  $n$  and set  $b \equiv y^2 - x^3 - ax \pmod{n}$ . Then  $P = (x, y)$  is an element of  $E$ , where  $E$  is given by  $y^2 = x^3 + ax + b$ . We use Schoof's algorithm (or another method for counting the number of points on an elliptic curve) to find a number  $m$  which, if  $n$  is prime, is equal to the number of points on the elliptic curve  $E$  over  $\mathbf{F}_n$ . If we cannot write  $m$  in the form  $m = kq$ , where  $k \geq 2$  is a small integer and  $q$  is a “probable prime” (i.e., it passes a test as in §V.1), then we choose another random triple  $a, x, y$  and start again. Suppose we finally obtain an elliptic curve for which  $m$  has the desired form. Then we use the formulas in §VI.1 (working modulo  $n$ ) to compute  $mP$  and  $kP$ . If we ever obtain an undefined expression — either in computing a multiple of  $P$  or in applying Schoof's algorithm — then we immediately find a nontrivial factor of  $n$ . We may assume that this doesn't happen. If  $mP \neq O$ , then we know that  $n$  is composite (because if  $n$  were prime, then the group  $E$  would have order  $m$ , and any element of  $E$  would be killed by multiplication by  $m$ ). If  $kP = O$  (which is highly unlikely), we are out of luck, and must start again with another triple. But if  $mP = O$  and  $kP \neq O$ , then by Proposition 6.3.2 we know that  $n$  is prime, provided that the large factor  $q$  of  $m$  is really a prime (we only know it to be a “probable prime”). This reduces the problem to proving primality of  $q$ , which has magnitude at most about  $n/2$ . We then start over with  $n$  replaced by  $q$ . Thus, we obtain a recursive procedure with  $t$  repetitions of the primality test, where  $t$  is no more than about  $\log_2 n$ . When we're done, we have obtained a number  $q_t$  which we know to be prime, from which it follows that the previous  $q_{t-1}$  was really a prime (not just a “probable prime”), from which it follows that the same is true of  $q_{t-2}$ , and so on, until  $q_1 = q$ , and finally  $n$  itself is truly a prime. This concludes the description of the elliptic curve primality test.