

Pre- and post-quantum Diffie–Hellman from groups, actions, and isogenies

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Key exchange

Let's talk about cryptographic **key exchange**.

The **problem**: two parties, “Alice” and “Bob”, want to establish a **shared secret** over a **public channel**.

Solution: **Diffie–Hellman key exchange** (1976).

- Originally set in $\mathbb{G}_m(\mathbb{F}_q)$, but works in any cyclic group.
- Current state of the art: **elliptic curves**.
- Elliptic-curve DH security depends on problems that are classically hard but quantumly easy.

How can we **replace Diffie–Hellman** for a **post-quantum world**?

Classical Diffie–Hellman

The group setting for Diffie–Hellman

Consider a **finite cyclic group**

$$\mathcal{G} = \langle P \rangle \cong \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}.$$

The most important operation is **scalar multiplication**:

$$[m]P := P + P + \cdots + P \quad (m \text{ copies of } P),$$

for $P \in \mathcal{G}$ and m in \mathbb{Z} , with $[-m]P := [m](-P)$.

Inverting it is the **Discrete Logarithm Problem (DLP)** in \mathcal{G} :

given P and $Q = [x]P$, compute x .

Classic Diffie–Hellman key exchange

Phase 1

Alice samples a secret $a \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$;
Computes $A := [a]P$ and publishes A

Bob samples a secret $b \in \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$;
computes $B := [b]P$ and publishes B

Breaking keypairs (e.g. recovering a from A) is the [DLP](#).

Phase 2

Alice computes $S = [a]B$.
Bob computes $S = [b]A$.

The protocol correctly computes a **shared secret** because

$$A = [a]P \qquad B = [b]P \qquad S = [ab]P$$

Recovering the secret S given only the public data P, A, B is the **Computational Diffie–Hellman Problem** ([CDHP](#)).

Static and ephemeral DH

Ephemeral: Alice & Bob use keypairs unique to this session.
*Ephemeral DH is essentially **interactive**.*

Static: Alice and/or Bob use long-term keypairs, which may be re-used across sessions. *Static DH can be **non-interactive**.*

Static DH security requires public key validation:

i.e. checking public keys are **legitimate KeyPair()** outputs.
So far, this just means checking the key is in \mathcal{G} , which is easy.

Complex protocols may **mix ephemeral & static**.

*Example: **X3DH** initializes conversations in Signal & WhatsApp using **four** DH() calls, mixing ephemeral and longer-term keys.*

Conventional CDHP and DLP Hardness

Currently, our best algorithm for solving **CDHP** is to solve **DLP**.

Generic algorithms solve **DLP** instances in $O(\sqrt{\#\mathcal{G}})$:

— Shanks' Baby-step giant-step, Pollard ρ , etc...

Pohlig–Hellman–Silver: when the structure of \mathcal{G} is known, solve **DLP** instances in $O(\sqrt{\#(\text{largest prime subgroup of } \mathcal{G})})$.

Faster DLP algorithms exist for many **concrete groups**:

- $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathbb{F}_p^\times$: subexponential **DLP**. Number Field Sieve: $L_p(1/3)$.
- $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathbb{F}_{p^n}^\times$ with p very small: quasipolynomial **DLP**.

Today's **hardest DLP** instances come from **elliptic curves**.

Elliptic curves

Elliptic curves are a convenient source of groups that can **replace multiplicative groups** in asymmetric crypto.

Classic “**short**” Weierstrass model:

$$\mathcal{E}/\mathbb{F}_p : y^2 = x^3 + ax + b \quad \text{with} \quad a, b \in \mathbb{F}_p, 4a^3 + 27b^2 \neq 0.$$

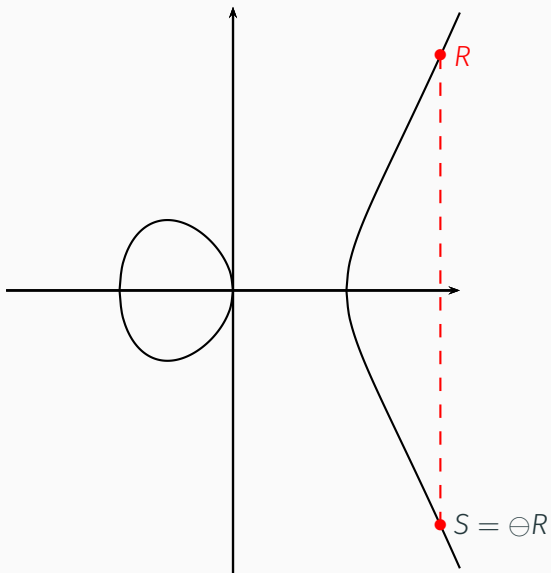
The **points** on \mathcal{E} are

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p) = \{(\alpha, \beta) \in \mathbb{F}_p^2 : \beta^2 = \alpha^3 + a \cdot \alpha + b\} \cup \{\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{E}}\}$$

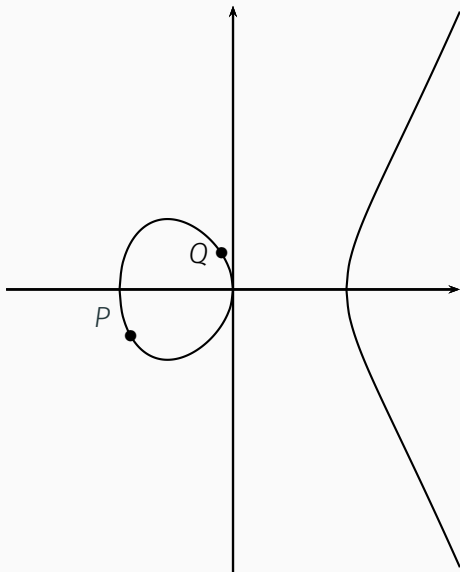
where $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{E}}$ is the unique “**point at infinity**”.

$\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ is an algebraic group, with $\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{E}}$ the identity element.

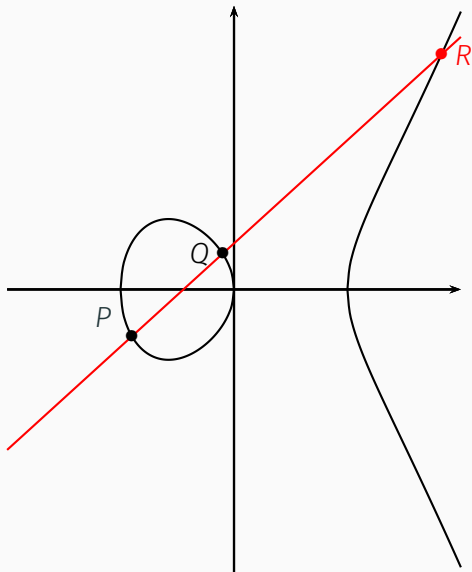
Elliptic curve negation: $\ominus R = S$



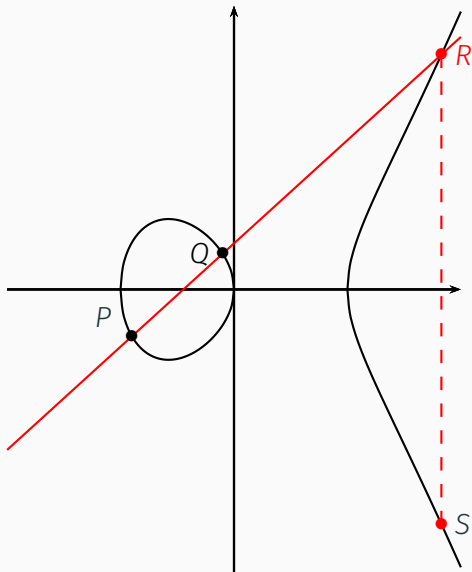
Elliptic curve addition: $P \oplus Q = ?$



Elliptic curve addition: $P \oplus Q \oplus R = 0$



Elliptic curve addition: $P \oplus Q = \ominus R = S$



Elliptic curve group operations

If $P = Q$, the **chord** through P and Q degenerates to a **tangent**.

The important thing is that elliptic curve group operations, being geometric, have **algebraic expressions**.

\implies They can be computed as a series of \mathbb{F}_p -operations, which can in turn be reduced to a series of machine instructions.

In particular, **negation**: $\ominus(x, y) = (x, -y)$ and $\ominus\mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{E}} = \mathcal{O}_{\mathcal{E}}$. *Up to “sign”, group elements are encoded by x-coordinates.*

The Elliptic Curve Discrete Logarithm Problem (ECDLP)

Amazing fact: for subgroups \mathcal{G} of **general**¹ **elliptic curves**, we still do not know how to solve discrete logs significantly faster than by using **generic black-box group algorithms**.

In particular: currently, for prime-order $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$, we can do no better than $O(\sqrt{\#\mathcal{G}})$.

Apart from improvements in distributed computing, and a constant-factor speedup of about $\sqrt{2}$, there has been **absolutely no progress** on general ECDLP algorithms. *Ever.*

Current world record for prime-order ECDLP: in a 112-bit group, which is a *long* way away from the 256-bit groups we use today!

¹That is, for all but a very small and easily identifiable subset of curves.

The quantum menace

Shor's quantum algorithm solves DLPs in **polynomial time**.

Global effort: replacing group-based public-key cryptosystems with **post-quantum** alternatives.

NIST has started a standardization process (“non-competition”) for postquantum public-key cryptosystems.

The process has **many** candidate **Key Encapsulation Mechanisms**, but **no direct Diffie–Hellman replacements** because most major postquantum settings (lattices, codes, multivariate, hashes) don't have *exact* DH equivalents.

Modern Diffie–Hellman

Modern Elliptic Curve Diffie–Hellman (ECDH)

Classic ECDH is just classic DH with $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_q)$ in place of $\mathbb{G}_m(\mathbb{F}_q)$:

$$A = [a]P \qquad B = [b]P \qquad S = [ab]P$$

Miller (1985) suggested ECDH using **only x-coordinates**:

$$\begin{aligned} A &= x([a]P) & B &= x([b]P) & S &= x([ab]P) \\ &= \pm[a]P & &= \pm[b]P & &= \pm[ab]P \end{aligned}$$

We compute $x(Q) \mapsto x([m]Q)$ with **differential addition chains** such as the **Montgomery ladder**.

We have **replaced** $\mathcal{G} \subset \mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_q)$ with a **quotient set** $\mathcal{G}/\langle \pm 1 \rangle \subset \mathbb{F}_q$.

Example: **Curve25519** (Bernstein 2006), the benchmark for conventional DH (and now standard in TLS 1.3).

Modern ECDH: where is the group?

Modern x-only ECDH is interesting: it highlights the fact that **Diffie–Hellman does not explicitly require a group operation.**

$$A = [a]P$$

$$B = [b]P$$

$$S = [ab]P$$

Formally, we have **an action of \mathbb{Z} on a set \mathcal{X}** (here, $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{G}/\langle\pm 1\rangle$).

In fact, the quotient structure $\mathcal{G}/\langle\pm 1\rangle$ is important: it facilitates

- **security proofs** by relating **CDHPs** in \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{G}
- **efficient evaluation** of the \mathbb{Z} -action on \mathcal{X} : \oplus on \mathcal{G} induces an operation $(\pm P, \pm Q, \pm(P - Q)) \mapsto \pm(P + Q)$ on \mathcal{X} , which we can use to compute $(m, x(P)) \mapsto x([m]P)$ using differential addition chains.

Towards postquantum
Diffie–Hellman:
Hard Homogeneous Spaces

Starting point for postquantum DH: an obscure framework proposed by Couveignes in 1997, *Hard Homogeneous Spaces*.

Old DH \mathbb{Z} acts on a group \mathcal{G}

Modern DH \mathbb{Z} acts on a set \mathcal{X} (via a group \mathcal{G})

HHS-DH a group \mathfrak{G} acts on a set \mathcal{X} .

(We use the symbol \mathfrak{G} for groups written multiplicatively, and \mathcal{G} for groups written additively.)

Homogeneous Spaces

Let \mathfrak{G} be a finite commutative group acting on a set \mathcal{X} .

This means: for each $\mathfrak{g} \in \mathfrak{G}$ and $P \in \mathcal{X}$, there is a $\mathfrak{g} \cdot P \in \mathcal{X}$, and

$$\mathfrak{a} \cdot (\mathfrak{b} \cdot P) = \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} \cdot P \quad \forall \mathfrak{a}, \mathfrak{b} \in \mathfrak{G}, \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{X}.$$

\mathcal{X} is a **principal homogeneous space** (PHS) under \mathfrak{G} if

$$P, Q \in \mathcal{X} \implies \exists! \mathfrak{g} \in \mathfrak{G} \text{ such that } Q = \mathfrak{g} \cdot P.$$

So: $\varphi_P : \mathfrak{g} \mapsto \mathfrak{g} \cdot P$ is a bijection $\mathfrak{G} \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ for each $P \in \mathcal{X}$.

Example: \mathfrak{G} = a vector space, \mathcal{X} = the underlying affine space.

Examples of Homogeneous Spaces

A PHS is like a copy of \mathfrak{G} with the identity $1_{\mathfrak{G}}$ forgotten.

Each map $\varphi_P : \mathfrak{g} \mapsto \mathfrak{g} \cdot P$ endows \mathcal{X} with the structure of \mathfrak{G} , with P as the identity element, via

$$(\mathfrak{a} \cdot P)(\mathfrak{b} \cdot P) = \varphi_P(\mathfrak{a})\varphi_P(\mathfrak{b}) := \varphi_P(\mathfrak{ab}) = (\mathfrak{ab}) \cdot P.$$

Each choice of P yields a different group structure on \mathcal{X} .

DH in a group again

Expressing DH in a group as functions `KeyPair` and `DH`:

Algorithm 1: Key generation for a group $\mathcal{G} = \langle P \rangle$

```
1 function KeyPair()  
2    $x \leftarrow \text{Random}(\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})$   
3    $Q \leftarrow [x]P$  // Scalar multiplication  
4   return (Q, x) // (Public, private)
```

Algorithm 2: Compute a Diffie–Hellman shared secret

```
1 function DH( $m \in \mathbb{Z}, Q \in \mathcal{G}$ )  
2    $S \leftarrow [m]Q$  // Scalar multiplication  
3   return S // Shared secret
```

We define analogous functions `KeyPair` and `DH` for a PHS:

Algorithm 3: Key generation for a PHS $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{X})$

```
1 function KeyPair( )
2    $x \leftarrow \text{Random}(\mathcal{G})$ 
3    $Q \leftarrow x \cdot P$  // Group action
4   return (Q, x) // (Public, private)
```

Algorithm 4: Compute a Diffie–Hellman shared secret

```
1 function DH( $m \in \mathcal{G}, Q \in \mathcal{X}$ )
2    $S \leftarrow m \cdot Q$  // Group action
3   return S // Shared secret
```

A Diffie–Hellman analogue

We have an **obvious analogy** between Group-DH and HHS-DH:

$$A = [a]P$$

$$B = [b]P$$

$$S = [ab]P$$

$$A = \mathfrak{a} \cdot P$$

$$B = \mathfrak{b} \cdot P$$

$$S = \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} \cdot P$$

Security: need PHS analogues of **DLP** and **CDHP** to be hard.

Hard Homogeneous Spaces

Vectorization (**VEC**: breaking public keys):

Given P and Q in \mathcal{X} , compute the (unique) $g \in \mathfrak{G}$ s.t. $Q = g \cdot P$.

$$P \xrightarrow{\quad g \quad} Q$$

Parallelization (**PAR**: recovering shared secrets):

Given P, A, B in \mathcal{X} with $A = a \cdot P, B = b \cdot P$, compute $S = (ab) \cdot P$.

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} P & \xrightarrow{\quad a \quad} & A & & \\ & \searrow \quad b \quad & & \searrow \quad b \quad & \\ & & B & \xrightarrow{\quad a \quad} & S \end{array}$$

Hard homogeneous spaces

A **Hard Homogeneous Space (HHS)** is a PHS where **VEC** and **PAR** are computationally infeasible.

We will give an example of a conjectural HHS later.

We have a lot **intuition** and folklore about **DLP** and **CDHP**.

- Decades of algorithmic study
- Conditional polynomial-time equivalences

What carries over to **VEC** and **PAR**?

Warning: HHS-DH is **not a true generalization** of Group-DH.

For group-DH in a group \mathcal{G} of order N :

- Group-DH scalars are elements of $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$
- The group operation in $\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ is $+$, not the \times of Group-DH.
- Scalars do *not* form a group under \times .

Homogeneous spaces from cyclic groups

However, there is a hack relating important **special cases**.

Given a cyclic \mathcal{G} of order N , we have a PHS

$$\text{Exp}(\mathcal{G}) = (\mathfrak{G}, \mathcal{X}) := ((\mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z})^\times, \{P \in \mathcal{G} : \mathcal{G} = \langle P \rangle\})$$

Action: $(\mathfrak{a}, P) \mapsto [\mathfrak{a}]P$.

Now if N is prime (or almost), then

- $\text{VEC}(\mathfrak{G}, \mathcal{X}) \iff \text{DLP}(\mathcal{G})$
- $\text{PAR}(\mathfrak{G}, \mathcal{X}) \iff \text{CDHP}(\mathcal{G})$

How hard are hard homogeneous spaces?

Obviously, if we can solve **VECS**

$$(P, Q = \mathbf{x} \cdot P) \mapsto \mathbf{x},$$

then we can solve **PARS**

$$(P, A = \mathbf{a} \cdot P, B = \mathbf{b} \cdot P) \mapsto S = \mathbf{ab} \cdot P.$$

Let's focus on **VEC** for a moment.

We can solve any **DLP** classically in time $O(\sqrt{N})$ using Pollard's ρ or Shanks' Baby-step giant-step.

We can solve **VEC** in time $O(\sqrt{N})$ using the same algorithms!

Generic DLP: Shanks' BSGS in \mathcal{G}

Algorithm 5: Baby-step giant-step in \mathcal{G}

Input: g and h in \mathcal{G}

Output: x such that $h = g^x$

```
1  $\beta \leftarrow \lceil \sqrt{\#\mathcal{G}} \rceil$ 
2  $(s_i) \leftarrow (g^i : 1 \leq i \leq \beta)$ 
3 Sort/hash  $((s_i, i))_{i=1}^\beta$ 
4  $t \leftarrow h$ 
5 for  $j$  in  $(1, \dots, \beta)$  do
6   if  $t = s_i$  for some  $i$  then
7     return  $i - j\beta$ 
8    $t \leftarrow g^\beta t$ 
9 return  $\perp$  // Only if  $h \notin \langle g \rangle$ 
```

Generic vectorization: Shanks' BSGS in $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{X})$

Algorithm 6: Baby-step giant-step in $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{X})$

Input: P and Q in \mathcal{X} , and a generator \mathbf{g} for \mathcal{G}

Output: x such that $Q = \mathbf{g}^x \cdot P$

```
1  $\beta \leftarrow \lceil \sqrt{\#\mathcal{G}} \rceil$ 
2  $(P_i) \leftarrow (\mathbf{g}^i \cdot P : 1 \leq i \leq \beta)$ 
3 Sort/hash  $((P_i, i))_{i=1}^\beta$ 
4  $T \leftarrow Q$ 
5 for  $j$  in  $(1, \dots, \beta)$  do
6   if  $T = P_i$  for some  $i$  then
7     return  $i - j\beta$ 
8    $T \leftarrow \mathbf{g}^\beta \cdot T$ 
9 return  $\perp$  // Only if  $Q \notin \langle \mathbf{e} \rangle \cdot P$ 
```

Why is this post-quantum?

Shor's algorithm solves **DLP** in polynomial time, but **not VEC**.

VEC is an instance of the abelian **hidden shift problem**.

Solve using (variants of) Kuperberg's algorithm in quantum **subexponential** time $L_N(1/2)$.

⇒ **upper bound for quantum VEC hardness** is $L_N(1/2)$.

⇒ **upper bound for quantum PAR hardness** is $L_N(1/2)$.

In a sense, BSGS and Pollard ρ are actually **PHS algorithms** (with \mathfrak{G} acting on itself), not group algorithms!

Quantum equivalence of **VEC** and **PAR**

Galbraith–Panny–S.–Vercauteren (2019): Unconditional quantum polynomial equivalence **PAR** \iff **VEC**.

VEC \implies **PAR**: obvious. **PAR** \implies **VEC**: quantum **PAR** circuit $(P, \mathbf{a} \cdot P, \mathbf{b} \cdot P) \mapsto \mathbf{ab} \cdot P$ gives \mathcal{X} an implicit group structure.

1. We can compute a basis $\{\mathbf{g}_1, \dots, \mathbf{g}_r\}$ for \mathfrak{G} using Kitaev/Shor (if not already known)
2. The map $\mu : (x_1, \dots, x_r, y) \mapsto (\prod_i \mathbf{g}_i^{x_i}) \cdot \mathbf{a}^y \cdot P$ is a homomorphism $(\mathbb{Z}^r \times \mathbb{Z}) \rightarrow \mathcal{X}$ (implicit group).
3. Evaluate $(y, \mathbf{a} \cdot P) \mapsto \mathbf{a}^y \cdot P$, hence μ , using $\Theta(\log n)$ **PARS**
4. Computing $\ker \mu = \{(x_1, \dots, x_r, y) : \mathbf{g}_1^{x_1} \cdots \mathbf{g}_r^{x_r} \mathbf{a}^y = 1_{\mathfrak{G}}\}$ is a hidden subgroup problem (Shor again);
5. Any $(a_1, \dots, a_r, 1)$ in $\ker \mu$ gives a representation $\mathbf{a} = \prod_i \mathbf{g}_i^{a_i}$.

Classical limits of the analogy

Curiously, in the **classical** setting we *don't* have **PAR** \implies **VEC**.

Compare with classical **CDHP** \implies **DLP**, where we have a standard **black-box field** approach:

1. Reduce to prime order case (Pohlig–Hellman algorithm);
2. View \mathcal{G} as a representation of \mathbb{F}_p via $\mathcal{G} \ni \mathfrak{g}^a \leftrightarrow a \in \mathbb{F}_p$;
 - for $+$, use group operation $(\mathfrak{g}^a, \mathfrak{g}^b) \mapsto \mathfrak{g}^a \mathfrak{g}^b = \mathfrak{g}^{a+b}$
 - for \times , use \mathcal{G} -DH oracle $(\mathfrak{g}, \mathfrak{g}^a, \mathfrak{g}^b) \mapsto \mathfrak{g}^{ab}$
3. den Boer, Maurer, Wolf: conditional polynomial reduction.

Does not work for **PAR** \implies **VEC** because $(P, \mathfrak{a} \cdot P, \mathfrak{b} \cdot P) \mapsto \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} \cdot P$
oracle yields a group structure on \mathcal{X} , not a field structure.

Classical limits: Pohlig–Hellman

The **Pohlig–Hellman** algorithm exploits subgroups of \mathcal{G} to solve **DLP** instances in time $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{\text{largest prime factor of } \#\mathcal{G}})$.

Simplest case: $\#\mathcal{G} = \prod_i \ell_i$, with the ℓ_i prime.

To find x such that $\mathbf{h} = \mathbf{g}^x$, for each i we

1. compute $\mathbf{h}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{h}^{m_i}$ and $\mathbf{g}_i \leftarrow \mathbf{g}^{m_i}$, where $m_i = \#\mathcal{G}/\ell_i$;
2. compute x_i such that $\mathbf{h}_i = \mathbf{g}_i^{x_i}$ (**DLP** in order- ℓ_i subgroup)

We then recover x from the (x_i, ℓ_i) using the CRT.

Problem: the HHS analogue of Step 1 is supposedly hard!

(Computing $Q_i = \mathbf{g}^i \cdot P$ where $Q = \mathbf{g} \cdot P$ is an instance of **PAR**.)

No Pohlig–Hellman

Funny: We don't know how to use the structure of \mathcal{G} to accelerate algorithms for **VEC** or **PAR** in $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{X})$.

Surprise: classical acceleration **shouldn't exist** in general.

Why?

- Choose p from a family of primes such that the largest prime factor of $p - 1$ is in $o(p)$.
- Now take a black-box group \mathcal{G} of order p .
- **Shoup's theorem:** $\text{DLP}(\mathcal{G})$ is in $\Theta(\sqrt{p})$.
- The Group-DH \rightarrow HHS-DH “hack” above yields a HHS $(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{X}) = \text{Exp}(\mathcal{G}) = ((\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z})^\times, \mathcal{G} \setminus \{0\})$.
- Now $\#\mathcal{G} = p - 1$, whose prime factors are in $o(p)$, so classical subgroup **DLPs** and **VECs** are in $o(\sqrt{p})$; a HHS Pohlig–Hellman analogue would **contradict Shoup**.

Isogeny-based key exchange: A concrete HHS

Couveignes' isogeny HHS

Couveignes suggested a **concrete example** of an HHS, based on isogeny classes of elliptic curves.

Comparison with **DLP**-based elliptic curve crypto:

	Pre-quantum <i>Conventional ECC</i>	Post-quantum <i>Isogeny HHS</i>
<i>Universe</i>	One elliptic curve \mathcal{E}	One isogeny class \mathcal{X}
<i>Elements</i>	Points P and Q in \mathcal{E}	Curves \mathcal{E} and \mathcal{F} in \mathcal{X}
<i>Relations</i>	DLP : $Q = [x]P$	Isogeny: $\phi : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$

Endomorphism rings of elliptic curves

An **isogeny** is just a nonzero homomorphism of elliptic curves. *Geometrically, isogenies = nonconstant algebraic mappings.*

Existence of isogenies between curves is an **equivalence relation**, so we can talk about **isogeny classes** of curves.

An **endomorphism** is a homomorphism from a curve to itself.

The endomorphisms of a given curve form a **ring**.

Isogeny classes decompose into subclasses of curves with isomorphic endomorphism rings.

Couveignes' HHS: Class groups acting on isogeny classes

A Well-understood PHS from **complex multiplication** theory.

The group: $\mathfrak{G} = \text{Cl}(O_K)$, the group of ideal classes of a quadratic imaginary field K

The space: $\mathcal{X} =$ the set of $(\mathbb{F}_q$ -isomorphism classes of) elliptic curves \mathcal{E}/\mathbb{F}_q with $\text{End}(\mathcal{E}) \cong O_K$.

The action: Ideals in O_K correspond to **isogenies**, which take us from one curve to another.

We have $\#\mathfrak{G} = \#\mathcal{X} \sim \sqrt{|\Delta|}$, where $\Delta = \text{disc}(O_K) \sim q$.

Why is this a HHS? When $\#\mathfrak{G} \sim \sqrt{q}$,

- The best known classical solution to **VEC** is in $O(q^{1/4})$.
- The best known quantum solution to **VEC** is in $L_q(1/2)$.

The **action** of an ideal (class) $\mathfrak{a} \subset O_K$ on a curve (class) $\mathcal{E} \in \mathcal{X}$:

Suppose \mathfrak{a} is an integral ideal.

1. We can identify $\text{End}(\mathcal{E})$ with O_K , so $\mathfrak{a} \subset \text{End}(\mathcal{E})$.
2. Then \mathcal{E} has a subgroup $\mathcal{E}[\mathfrak{a}] = \{P \in \mathcal{E} : \psi(P) = 0 \quad \forall \psi \in \mathfrak{a}\}$
3. We can compute a *quotient isogeny* $\phi : \mathcal{E} \rightarrow \mathcal{E}/\mathcal{E}[\mathfrak{a}]$. We let $\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathcal{E}$ be the quotient curve $\mathcal{E}/\mathcal{E}[\mathfrak{a}]$;

This is all well-defined up to isomorphism.

$\mathfrak{a} = (\phi)$ principal $\implies \phi \in \text{End}(\mathcal{E})$, so $\mathfrak{a} \cdot \mathcal{E} = \mathcal{E}$.

So: action extends to fractional ideals, factors through $\text{Cl}(O_K)$.

We need to be able to compute this action efficiently for random-looking \mathfrak{a} in $\text{Cl}(O_K)$.

Bad news: Computing the isogenous $\mathfrak{a} \cdot E$ **directly**, by computing the quotient isogeny, is **exponential** in $N(\mathfrak{a})$.

Couveignes suggested using LLL to compute an equivalent $\prod_i \mathfrak{l}_i^{e_i} \sim \mathfrak{a}$ with each $N(\mathfrak{l}_i)$ small, then act with the \mathfrak{l}_i in serial.

Each small ideal \mathfrak{l}_i acts as an isogeny of degree $\ell_i = \text{Norm}(\mathfrak{l}_i)$, called an ℓ_i -isogeny.

What happened?

1997: Couveignes submitted to Crypto; rejected.

Later published in French, in an obscure special SMF issue.

QUELQUES MATHÉMATIQUES DE LA CRYPTOLOGIE À CLÉS PUBLIQUES

par

Jean-Marc Couveignes

Résumé. — Cette note présente quelques développements mathématiques plus ou moins récents de la cryptologie à clés publiques.

Abstract (A few mathematical tools for public key cryptography)

I present examples of mathematical objects that are of interest for public key cryptography.

1997: Couveignes submitted to Crypto; rejected.

Later published in French, in an obscure special SMF issue.

≅ **Unknown/Forgotten.**

2006: Rostovtsev and Stolbunov independently rediscover isogeny-based key exchange.

The (minor) essential difference:

Couveignes samples a secret \mathfrak{a} in $\text{Cl}(O_K)$ and smooths to $\prod_i \mathfrak{r}_i^{e_i}$;

Rostovtsev–Stolbunov sample a smooth product $\prod_i \mathfrak{r}_i^{e_i}$ directly, and hope this distribution is very close to uniform on $\text{Cl}(O_K)$.

Moving to isogeny graphs

Rostovtsev and Stolbunov sample exponent vectors (e_1, \dots, e_r) as secret keys, corresponding to ideal products $\prod_i \mathfrak{l}_i^{e_i}$.

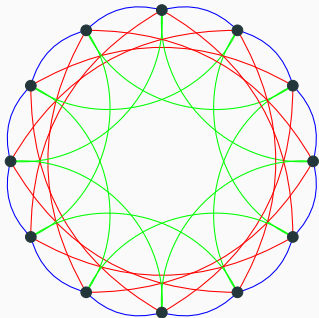
- Act e_1 times by \mathfrak{l}_1 , then
- act e_2 times by \mathfrak{l}_2 , then
- ...

Actions expressed as **random walks** in **isogeny graphs**.

For each prime ℓ , restrict to ℓ -**isogeny graphs**:

- vertices = \mathcal{X} ,
- edges = isogenies of degree ℓ
(*corresponding to actions of ideals \mathfrak{l} of norm ℓ*).

Isogeny graphs



1. A walk of length e_1 in the ℓ_1 -isogeny graph, then
2. A walk of length e_2 in the ℓ_2 -isogeny graph, then
3. A walk of length e_3 in the ℓ_3 -isogeny graph,
4. More walks ...

From Rostovtsev–Stolbunov to SIDH and back

Plain Rostovtsev–Stolbunov: **totally impractical** key exchange.

This prompted Jao & De Feo's **SIDH** (Supersingular Isogeny DH)

- Uses only tiny-degree isogenies (fast)
- between curves with quaternionic endomorphism rings
- forming isogeny graphs that are expanders

SIDH is cool, but it has some **disadvantages**:

1. **Static** key exchange (long term keys) is **unsafe**
2. The API doesn't match Diffie–Hellman
(*e.g. Alice and Bob's public keys don't have the same type*).

Our idea: go back and **improve Rostovtsev–Stolbunov**.

De Feo–Kieffer–S. (Asiacrypt 2018):

algorithmic improvements and **security proofs**.

- Use **ordinary** curves, following Couveignes and Stolbunov.
- Faster isogeny steps when $\mathcal{E}[\ell; j]$ has rational points.
- **Problem:** no efficient algorithm to construct ordinary \mathcal{E} with a point of degree ℓ for hundreds of very small ℓ .

Towards practical isogeny key exchange

Castryck et al. (Asiacrypt 2018): **CSIDH**.

- Solves the parametrization problem by using **supersingular** curves over \mathbb{F}_p .
- Supersingular curves are easy to construct.
Order $p + 1$, so choose p s.t. $\ell \mid (p + 1)$ for lots of small ℓ .

⇒ **Practical isogeny-based Diffie–Hellman.**

Keysize = $\log_2 p$	Classical queries	Quantum queries*
512	128	62
1024	256	94
1792	448	129

**Claimed by CSIDH authors. Precise quantum query counts and costs are the subject of current research and debate.*

Conclusions

- In CSIDH, isogeny-based crypto now has a **practical postquantum drop-in replacement** for Diffie–Hellman.
Can also be used for OT; no practical signatures though.
- Couveignes’ **Hard Homogeneous Spaces** framework helps to model postquantum DH protocols on an abstract level, without understanding the mechanics of isogenies
- Pre- and post-quantum DH have the same “API”, but **HHS-DH does not respect Group-DH intuition.**

The Maurer reduction: how does it work?

We want to **solve a DLP** instance $h = g^x$ in \mathcal{G} of prime order p ,
given a DH oracle for \mathcal{G} (so we can compute $g^{F(x)}$, \forall poly F):

1. Find an \mathcal{E}/\mathbb{F}_p s.t. $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ has **polynomially smooth order**²
and compute a generator (x_0, y_0) for $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$.
Pohlig–Hellman: solve DLPs in $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ in polynomial time.
2. Use Tonelli–Shanks to compute a g^y s.t. $g^{y^2} = g^{x^3+ax+b}$.
If this fails: replace $h = g^x$ with $hg^\delta = g^{x+\delta}$ and try again...
Now (g^x, g^y) is a point in $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{G})$; we still don't know x or y .
3. Solve the DLP instance $(g^x, g^y) = [e](g^{x_0}, g^{y_0})$ in $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{G})$ for e .
4. Compute $(x, y) = [e](x_0, y_0)$ in $\mathcal{E}(\mathbb{F}_p)$ and return x .

²This is the tricky part! *Seems to work in practice for cryptographically useful p , even in not in theory for arbitrary p .*