SIGNITC: Supersingular Isogeny Graph Non-Interactive Timed Commitments

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Abstract

Non-Interactive Timed Commitment schemes (NITC) allow to open any commitment after a specified delay $t_{\rm fd}$. This is useful for sealed bid auctions and as primitive for more complex protocols. We present the first NITC without repeated squaring or theoretical black box algorithms like NIZK proofs or one-way functions. It has fast verification, almost arbitrary delay and satisfies IND-CCA hiding and perfect binding. Our protocol is based on isogenies between supersingular elliptic curves making it presumably quantum secure, and all algorithms have been implemented as part of SQISign or other well-known isogeny-based cryptosystems. Additionally, it needs no trusted setup and can use known primes for SQISign or its higher dimensional variants.

Keywords: Non-interactive timed commitments, post-quantum, isogeny walks, Deuring correspondence.

1 Introduction

The concept of time-lock puzzles [37] has been around for more than twenty years and timed commitments [8] developed shortly after. We will use the rather new definition of Non-Interactive Timed Commitment schemes (NITC) by Katz, Loss, and Xu [31] from the year 2020. These protocols satisfy binding or non-malleability properties and efficient verification just like usual commitment schemes, but a commitment can be opened by anyone after some delay $t_{\rm fd}$. So hiding only lasts for this time $t_{\rm fd}$ and there are additional algorithms: one to verify that a commitment can be opened by others and another one to open the commitment forcefully in time at least $t_{\rm fd}$. A possible application is a sealed bid auction, where all bids can be revealed after time $t_{\rm fd}$ even if some of the bidders refuse to open their commitment. Other applications include e-voting, fair coin tossing or contract signing [8].

Our approach uses random walks in the isogeny graph of supersingular elliptic curves to construct a NITC, hence the name Supersingular Isogeny Graph Non-Interactive Timed Commitments or SIGNITC¹ for short. The main idea is that computing isogenies of large or non-smooth degree is slow, but if we know the endomorphism ring of the starting curve, we can find a smooth shortcut. So we use a secret isogeny to a curve with known endomorphism ring for fast

¹pronounced like "signets"

commitment and verification, but the forced decommitment has to compute the delay isogeny and thus it needs time at least $t_{\rm fd}$.

The advantage of isogeny-based cryptography is that it is presumably quantum secure and relatively slow compared to other fields of post-quantum cryptography. Since we need a delay, this is a good thing. The field has undergone thorough scrutiny due to the candidates SIKE [30] and SQISign [22] in NIST competitions for post-quantum protocols and is still very active. The protocol only uses (known) isogeny-based cryptography, so we do not need to know several fields and this facilitates correct and secure implementations. This also means that we have no theoretical black box algorithms like zero-knowledge proofs, succinct non-interactive arguments (SNARGs) of knowledge or one-way functions. In addition, all needed calculations have already been implemented as subroutines in other cryptosystems. To our knowledge this is the first quantum secure NITC scheme with explicit algorithms. The only drawbacks are that some algorithms are still quite involved and that we need to differ slightly from the original definitions for hiding and binding.

Related Work Thyagarajan et al. [39] present an approach based on class groups using non-interactive zero-knowledge (NIZK) proofs. Katz et al. [31] and Chvojka and Jager [16] use protocols based on repeated squaring in a group of unknown order and NIZK proofs. Finally, Ambrona et al. [3] avoid NIZK proofs but still use repeated squaring. None of these is quantum secure.

NITC schemes are related to verifiable delay functions (VDF) [9] in the sense that both have fast verification and a function that needs a long time to evaluate. The main difference is the handling of secrets. For VDFs finding the correct response for a given challenge has to be slow for everyone. For NITC schemes however someone has to compute the commitment and therefore already knows the output of the slow task, namely finding the message to a given commitment. So we can construct NITC schemes from VDFs, but the contrary is difficult or impossible, depending on the protocol.

VDFs have direct applications to blockchains and there are already several approaches. Many are based on repeated squaring for the delay. A new publication [7] suggests that this might not be sequential. So contrary to current belief, repeated squaring could be parallelizable, disqualifying it as a delay function. Additionally, this is not quantum secure. There are even some isogeny-based candidates for VDFs, but they all still have some flaws. The pairing-based approach [21] is not quantum secure. Chavez-Saab et al. [14] use SNARGs and their verification time increases for larger delays. Finally, there is one base on Kani's criterion for abelian surfaces [24], but the authors state that it is not clear how to implement it. A different approach based on endomorphism rings [2] has the problem that the generation of a challenge also gives (a significant advantage in finding) the response. So it is closer to a NITC scheme and gave the initial idea for this article. Burdges and De Feo [11] introduced isogeny-based delay encryption, but they use the same delay as the pairing-based VDF.

Structure of this Article The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. First we give a definition of NITC schemes and discuss their properties. Next we recall the necessary definitions and fix the notations of isogeny-based cryptography. Readers familiar with one of these topics can briefly skim through

the respective sections as we aimed to use standard notations. The sole difference is a slight variation in Definitions 5.11 and 5.14 of IND-CCA and BND-CCA security games. In Section 4 we present our protocol in full detail. Its security and its properties are discussed in Section 5. Finally, we give a short conclusion and outlook.

2 Non-Interactive Timed Commitments

In this section we recall NITC schemes and their properties. In their paper Katz et al. [31] gave the first formal definition of this concept.

Definition 2.1 (NITC [31]). A $(t_{com}, t_{cv}, t_{dv}, t_{fd})$ non-interactive timed commitment scheme (NITC) is a tuple TC = (PGen, Com, ComVrfy, DecVrfy, FDecom) of five algorithms with the following behavior:

- The randomized parameter generation algorithm PGen takes as input the security parameter 1^κ and outputs a common reference string crs.
- The randomized commit algorithm Com takes as input a string crs and a message m. It outputs a commitment C and proofs π_{com}, π_{dec} in time at most t_{com}.
- The deterministic commitment verification algorithm ComVrfy takes as input a string crs, a commitment C and a proof π_{com}. It outputs accept (if C could be forcefully decommitted) or reject in time at most t_{cv}.
- The deterministic decommitment verification algorithm DecVrfy takes as input a string crs, a commitment C, a message m and a proof π_{dec}. It outputs accept or reject in time at most t_{dv}.
- The deterministic forced decommitment algorithm FDecom takes as input a string crs and a commitment C. It outputs a message m or invalid in time at least $t_{\rm fd}$.

We require that for all κ , all **crs** output by PGen (1^{κ}) , all m and all $\mathbf{C}, \pi_{\text{com}}, \pi_{\text{dec}}$ output by Com (\mathbf{crs}, m) , it holds that

$$\texttt{ComVrfy}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C}, \pi_{\mathrm{com}}) = \mathbf{accept} = \texttt{DecVrfy}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C}, m, \pi_{\mathrm{dec}})$$

and $\texttt{FDecom}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C}) = m$.

To be relevant for applications a NITC also needs to satisfy three further properties. First we give a definition of *practicality* and then recall definitions for *hiding* and *binding* in our notation. There is no benefit in verification algorithms if we can verify faster by using FDecom. There are applications for protocols where Com is as slow as FDecom, but efficiently creating commitments even for long delays is desirable. Definition 2.2 tries to represent this. A more precise definition is difficult as one may wish for an absolute gap for small delays and relative gap for large delays.

Definition 2.2 (Practicality). A NITC scheme is practical, if verification is much faster than forcefully opening the commitment, so $t_{cv}, t_{dv} \ll t_{fd}$. If in addition the commitment is also much faster than forced decommitment, i.e. $t_{com} \ll t_{fd}$, we call it perfectly practical.

We present two IND-CCA security games and define hiding in terms of the probability that an adversary \mathcal{A} wins the games. In both cases the adversary has access to an oracle for FDecom and a query is considered to have only a small computational cost. The first game is the one used by Katz et al. [31].

Definition 2.3 (IND-CCA original [31]). For a NITC scheme TC and an algorithm \mathcal{A} , define the game IND-CCA^{\mathcal{A}}_{TC} as follows:

- 1. Compute $\mathbf{crs} \leftarrow \mathsf{PGen}(1^{\kappa})$.
- 2. Run $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{crs})$ in a preprocessing phase with access to $\mathsf{FDecom}(\mathbf{crs}, \cdot)$.
- 3. When \mathcal{A} outputs (m_0, m_1) , choose a uniform bit $b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$ and then compute $(\mathbf{C}_b, \pi_{\text{com}}, \pi_{\text{dec}}) \leftarrow \text{Com}(\mathbf{crs}, m_b)$. Give $(\mathbf{C}_b, \pi_{\text{com}})$ to \mathcal{A} , who continues to have access to FDecom (\mathbf{crs}, \cdot) except that it may not query the oracle on the given commitment \mathbf{C}_b .
- 4. When A outputs a bit b', it wins iff b' = b.

The commitment **C** in our approach is a tuple and not a single value. Because of that we can only satisfy a slightly weaker variation of the IND-CCA security game. The new Definition 5.11 is given and discussed in Section 5.2. Hiding is defined with respect to an IND-CCA game. This allows us to evaluate the security of our NITC in terms of both the original and our adapted definition. Broadly speaking hiding guarantees that it is impossible to infer information about the message from the commitment. In our case hiding should hold at least for the time $t_{\rm fd}$ it takes to open a commitment by force, so for all $t_o < t_{\rm fd}$ in the following definition.

Definition 2.4 (Hiding [31]). A NITC scheme TC is (t_p, t_o, ε) -CCA-secure if for all adversaries \mathcal{A} running in time at most t_p in the preprocessing phase and time at most t_o in the subsequent online phase,

$$\Pr\left[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins IND-CCA}_{\mathsf{TC}}^{\mathcal{A}}\right] \leq \frac{1}{2} + \varepsilon.$$

Similar to hiding, binding is defined in terms of the probability that \mathcal{A} wins a BND-CCA security game. Again, we have to modify it slightly and the new Definition 5.14 is given in Section 5.2.

Definition 2.5 (BND-CCA original [31]). For a NITC scheme TC and an algorithm \mathcal{A} , define the game BND-CCA^{\mathcal{A}}_{TC} as follows:

- 1. Compute $\mathbf{crs} \leftarrow \mathsf{PGen}(1^{\kappa})$.
- 2. Run $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{crs})$ with access to $\mathtt{FDecom}(\mathbf{crs}, \cdot)$.
- 3. A outputs $(m, \mathbf{C}, \pi_{\text{com}}, \pi_{\text{dec}}, m', \pi'_{\text{dec}})$ and wins iff $\texttt{ComVrfy}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C}, \pi_{\text{com}}) =$ accept and either:
 - $m \neq m'$, yet DecVrfy(crs, C, m, π_{dec}) and DecVrfy(crs, C, m', π'_{dec}) both output accept;
 - $\text{DecVrfy}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C}, m, \pi_{\text{dec}}) = \mathbf{accept} \ but \ \text{FDecom}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C}) \neq m.$

Binding makes sure that a commitment can not be opened to two different messages and that FDecom gives the correct messages for valid commitments.

Definition 2.6 (Binding [31]). A NITC scheme TC is (t, ε) -BND-CCA-secure if for all adversaries \mathcal{A} running in time t,

 $\Pr\left[\mathcal{A} \text{ wins BND-CCA}_{\mathsf{TC}}^{\mathcal{A}}\right] \leq \varepsilon.$

3 Isogeny-based Cryptography

In this section we provide the necessary basics for isogeny-based cryptography, quaternion algebras and the Deuring correspondence. We also discuss some computational problems in this area.

3.1 Elliptic Curves and the Quaternion Algebra

Elliptic curves have ties to different fields resulting in several equivalent definitions. We will mostly follow the notation of Silverman [38], but restrict ourselves to aspects relevant for this paper.

Definition 3.1 (Elliptic Curve). An elliptic curve is a pair (E, ∞) , where E is a curve of genus one and $\infty \in E$. It is defined over a field K, if it is defined over K as a curve and $\infty \in E(K)$.

We can define an addition of points on the curve making (E, +) an additive group where ∞ is the neutral element. This permits scalar multiplication written as $[m]: E \to E$ and torsion subgroups $E[m] := \{P \in E \mid [m]P = \infty\}$.

Definition 3.2 (Isogeny). Let E and E' be elliptic curves. Then a morphism $\varphi: E \to E'$ such that $\varphi(\infty) = \infty$ is called an isogeny. If a non-zero isogeny $\varphi: E \to E'$ exists, then E and E' are called isogenous.

In fact, every isogeny between two curves is also a group homomorphism. The isogenies from a curve E into itself form the endomorphism ring End E. Isogenies can be written as rational maps and their degree is defined by this map. Thus, the degree $\deg(\varphi \circ \varphi') = \deg \varphi \deg \varphi'$ is multiplicative. In addition, each isogeny $\varphi: E \to E'$ has a unique dual isogeny $\hat{\varphi}: E' \to E$ such that the composition $\hat{\varphi} \circ \varphi = [\deg \varphi]$ is the multiplication by the degree. The isogenies of degree 1 are the isomorphisms, and each isomorphism class can be labelled by the so-called *j*-invariant. This allows to construct the ℓ -isogeny graph that has those *j*-invariants as vertices and isogenies of degree ℓ as edges.

Definition 3.3 (Supersingularity). Let K be a field of characteristic p > 0and E an elliptic curve defined over K. The curve E is supersingular if the torsion group E[p] is trivial. Equivalently, this means that the endomorphism ring End E is an order in a quaternion algebra.

For the rest of this paper p > 3 will be a large prime. This allows us to write every elliptic curve in short Weierstraß form as $E: y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$ with $j(E) = 108(4A)^3/(4A^3 + 27B^2)$. For supersingular curves there is always a representation with A, B, j in \mathbb{F}_{p^2} . The Galois conjugate curve $E^p: y^2 = x^3 + A^p x + B^p$ has $j(E^p) = j^p$. There are only $\lfloor p/12 \rfloor + \varepsilon$ supersingular elliptic curves for fields with characteristic p where $\varepsilon \in \{0, 1, 2\}$. Hence, the subset $J_{SS} \subset \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$ of supersingular j-invariants has cardinality at least $\lfloor p/12 \rfloor$. We have already seen in Definition 3.3 that supersingular curves are related to quaternion algebras. We are interested in the quaternion algebra $\mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}$ ramified at p and infinity with \mathbb{Q} -basis $\{1, i, j, k\}$ such that

$$i^2 = -1$$
, $j^2 = -p$, $k = ij = -ji$

The (reduced) norm of an element $\alpha = a_0 + a_1 \mathbf{i} + a_2 \mathbf{j} + a_3 \mathbf{k} \in \mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}$ is given by $\operatorname{nrd}(\alpha) = \alpha \bar{\alpha}$ for $\bar{\alpha} = a_0 - a_1 \mathbf{i} - a_2 \mathbf{j} - a_3 \mathbf{k}$. The bilinear form $f(\alpha, \beta) = (\alpha \bar{\beta} + \beta \bar{\alpha})/2$ satisfies $f(\alpha, \alpha) = \alpha \bar{\alpha} = \operatorname{nrd}(\alpha)$, and two elements $\alpha, \beta \in \mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}$ are called orthogonal if $f(\alpha, \beta) = 0$. An order in $\mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}$ is a lattice that is also a subring, and it is maximal if its discriminant equals p. Now an elliptic curve E is supersingular if and only if End E is isomorphic to a maximal order \mathcal{O} in $\mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}$.

Theorem 3.4 (Deuring Correspondence [25]). The isomorphism classes of supersingular elliptic curves correspond to the isomorphism classes of invertible left O-ideals in the quaternion algebra, for a fixed maximal order O.

This so-called Deuring correspondence also gives us that an ℓ -isogeny φ starting at E corresponds to a left ideal I_{φ} of norm ℓ in $\mathcal{O} \cong \operatorname{End} E$, and the image curve has an endomorphism ring isomorphic to the right order $\mathcal{O}_R(I_{\varphi}) =$ $\{\alpha \in \mathcal{B}_{p,\infty} \mid I_{\varphi} \alpha \subseteq I_{\varphi}\}$ of I_{φ} , see [40, Ch. 42] for more details.

3.2 Application to Cryptography

Many isogeny-based protocols rely on secret walks in isogeny graphs of supersingular elliptic curves. The fact that the endomorphism ring is non-commutative gives rise to presumably quantum secure protocols. Moreover, the graphs have fast mixing properties, meaning that we reach an almost uniform distribution on the graph after a short random walk [20].

Taking n steps in the ℓ -isogeny graph corresponds (up to isomorphism) to an isogeny $\varphi \colon E \to E'$ of degree $d = \ell^n$. For our purposes the degree of such isogenies will always be coprime to the characteristic p of the field and the isogeny φ is determined by a point K of order d on the staring curve E. This point generates the kernel of φ and we write $E' \cong E/\langle K \rangle$. In this case the d-torsion group E[d] has d^2 elements and can be generated by two points P, Qof order d on E. This allows us to efficiently choose and describe a random walk by two integers a, b such that K = [a]P + [b]Q. We can even use this to define a random walk starting on a different curve. For an isogeny $\psi \colon E \to E''$ with degree coprime to the degree of φ the pushforward $[\psi]_*\varphi$ is determined by the kernel $\langle \psi(K) = [a]\psi(P) + [b]\psi(Q) \rangle$ and starts at the codomain E'' of ψ . Note that although every supersingular elliptic curve has a representation in $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$.

Now we list some computational tasks that are relevant for isogeny-based cryptosystems. First we present tasks that can be solved efficiently and have a polynomial or even constant complexity.

Task 1: Compute isogenies given their kernels.

Task 2: Given two elliptic curves E, E', an isogeny $\varphi \colon E \to E'$ as well as the corresponding order $\mathcal{O} \cong \operatorname{End} E$ and ideal I_{φ} , compute $\mathcal{O}' \cong \operatorname{End} E'$.

- **Task 3:** Given two elliptic curves E, E', and the corresponding orders $\mathcal{O} \cong$ End $E, \mathcal{O}' \cong$ End E', compute a connecting ideal I corresponding to an isogeny $\varphi_I : E \to E'$.
- **Task 4:** Given a left ideal I of a maximal order $\mathcal{O} \subset \mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}$, find an equivalent ideal $J = I\beta$ (for $\beta \in \mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}^*$) with specific norm (usually small or smooth).
- **Task 5:** Given $\mathcal{O} \cong \operatorname{End} E$, translate between isogenies $\varphi \colon E \to E'$ and their corresponding left \mathcal{O} -ideals I_{φ} .

Depending on the degree, Task 1 can be solved using Vélu's formulae [41] or the $\sqrt{\text{élu}}$ algorithm [6]. For Task 2 we can compute \mathcal{O}' as $\mathcal{O}_R(I_{\varphi})$ and the connecting ideal I in Task 3 satisfies $\mathcal{O} = \mathcal{O}_L(I)$, where the left order $\mathcal{O}_L(I)$ is defined analogously to the right order $\mathcal{O}_R(I) = \mathcal{O}'$. Task 4 is solved by the KLPT algorithm [32] and Task 5 is addressed by subroutines of SQISign [22]. The right orders of the equivalent ideals from Task 4 only agree up to isomorphism, and if we translate them with Task 5 the codomains of the resulting isogenies only agree up to Galois conjugacy.

Note that these are not very specific and might have significantly different running times for special cases or when given additional information. For example, Task 1 is more efficient for smooth degrees than for non-smooth ones of similar size (see Section 5.1) and Task 5 can be done faster when given extra information.

In general, Task 5 only requires corresponding generators $\mathcal{O} = \langle \alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_3 \rangle \cong$ $\langle \alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_3 \rangle = \text{End } E$. Given an ideal *I*, the kernel of the corresponding isogeny φ_I is the set of points $K \in E$ such that $\alpha(K) = \infty$ for all $\alpha \in \operatorname{End} E$ corresponding to an element of I. Given an isogeny $\varphi \colon E \to E'$ with kernel $\langle K \rangle$, the corresponding ideal I_{φ} is the set of elements $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}$ such that the corresponding $\alpha \in \text{End } E$ satisfies $\alpha(K) = \infty$. If we know the norm or degree d (coprime to the characteristic p) of the ideal or isogeny, we can (pre)compute the action of the generators $(\alpha_0, \ldots, \alpha_3)$ of End E on the torsion group E[d] and write it as 2×2 matrices (A_0, \ldots, A_3) with respect to a basis (P, Q) of E[d]. Also, it suffices to find one point or one quaternion to generate the kernel or the ideal, respectively. Finding a generator is then reduced to finding a solution to a system of linear equations modulo d. If we additionally know two non-trivial endomorphisms θ, η such that $\langle K, \theta(K) \rangle = E[d]$ and the corresponding quaternions θ, η are orthogonal, we can solve $[a]K + [b]\theta(K) = \eta(K)$ to get $I_{\varphi} = \mathcal{O}\alpha + \mathcal{O}d$ for $\alpha = a + b\theta - \eta$. This can be done by writing $K = [s]P + [t]Q \in E[d]$ as a vector $(s,t)^{\top}$ and θ,η as matrices in terms of (A_0,\ldots,A_3) in order to solve this as a matrix equation as in [15, Algorithm 23].

To create a delay we need moderately hard problems, which are still polynomial in complexity but might take a considerable time to compute. In Section 5.1 we show that Task 1 can be made sufficiently slow. The following hard problems have a conjectured exponential complexity (see Section 5.1) and are equivalent [42]. They are the basis for encryption or signature schemes like CSIDH [13] or SQISign [22]. In our case they ensure that there are no shortcuts for the forced decommitment.

Problem 3.5 (Isogeny Path Problem). Given two (isogenous) supersingular elliptic curves E, E' and a prime ℓ , find a path from E to E' in the ℓ -isogeny graph.

Problem 3.6 (Endomorphism Ring Problem). Given a supersingular elliptic curve E, find four endomorphisms that generate End E as a lattice.

Problem 3.7 (Maximal Order Problem). Given a supersingular elliptic curve E, find four quaternions in $\mathcal{B}_{p,\infty}$ that generate a maximal order $\mathcal{O} \cong \operatorname{End} E$.

Remark 3.8. Knowledge of endomorphism rings can break the hard problems. If we know both endomorphism rings the first hard problem becomes polynomial using Tasks 3 - 5. If we know an isogeny from a curve with known endomorphism ring to our curve the third hard problem becomes polynomial by Task 2. Using Task 5 a solution for the third problem can be translated into a solution for the second hard problem.

Finding supersingular elliptic curves can basically be done in two ways. We can reduce an elliptic curve in characteristic 0 modulo a prime and check if the resulting curve is supersingular, or take a random isogeny starting at one of these curves. In both cases the endomorphism ring of the final curve can be computed either via reduction or by transport along the isogeny. But as discussed in Remark 3.8 this weakens the hard problems. Hence, many cryptosystems require curves with unknown endomorphism ring. This in turn forces them to use a multi-party computation or a trusted authority in their setup to ensure that no single participant knows a complete path from a curve with known endomorphism ring to the one used. See [4] for more information. Note that the present cryptosystem has the advantage of not relying on a curve with unknown endomorphism ring.

4 The Protocol

Now we can combine the previous two sections and present our construction. First we give a high-level overview and discuss some challenges. Then we look at the algorithms and choices for the parameters.

4.1 Overview

At the heart of our protocol is an isogeny φ_T of degree d_T , which takes time $t_{\rm fd}$ to evaluate and hence causes the delay. Its domain is a public supersingular elliptic curve E_s with secret $\mathcal{O}_s \cong \operatorname{End} E_s$ and its kernel is generated by a publicly known point K_T on E_s . We use the *j*-invariant j_T of the codomain E_T of φ_T to hide the message $m \in M$. Therefore, an adversary needs to compute E_T (or rather $j_T = j(E_T)$) in order to break hiding or to open the commitment by force. We can choose how long the commitment should be kept secret by setting the degree d_T accordingly. This gives us hiding. Since E_s and K_T are part of the commitment, the codomain $E_T \cong E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$ is fixed (up to isomorphism) and we have perfect binding.

For verification to be faster than forced opening, we need a more efficient way to compute j_T . The starting curve E_0 has a known endomorphism ring, which allows us to compute elements of End $E_0 \cong \mathcal{O}_0$ efficiently using precomputations. During the commitment we choose a smooth secret isogeny $\varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_s$ and an isogeny $\varphi'_T \colon E_0 \to E'_T$ of degree d_T . We set the delay isogeny $\varphi_T = [\varphi_s]_\star \varphi'_T$, the composition $\psi = \varphi_T \circ \varphi_s$ and use the precomputations to find the corresponding ideals I_s, I'_T, I_T, I_{ψ} . Now we translate these ideals into isogenies that are efficiently computable using so-called IdealToIsogeny algorithms. Note that we can also use higher dimensional isogenies for this step. For the 1-dimensional variant we compute another isogeny $\tilde{\psi}: E_0 \to E_T$ of smooth degree (Tasks 4 & 5 from Section 3.2). This is visualized in Figure 1.

We give φ_s and φ'_T to the verifier as part of the decommitment proof, so Com and DecVrfy can compute E_T as the codomain of $\tilde{\psi}$ (or the result of the higher dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithm)². An adversary only knows E_s , but not φ_s or φ'_T and hence can neither compute $\mathcal{O}_s \cong \operatorname{End} E_s$ nor the ideals I_s, I'_T, I_T, I_{ψ} . Therefore, it has no efficient way to compute shortcuts. This gives us the preferred difference in speed between verification and forced opening.

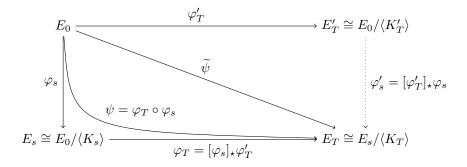


Figure 1: Walk in the isogeny graph with (efficiently computable) smooth degrees $\deg(\varphi_s), \deg(\tilde{\psi})$ and large and/or non-smooth degree $\deg \varphi_T$.

To efficiently verify the validity of a commitment, we need to map the *j*-invariant j_T into the group of messages M. This map has to satisfy the following property. Otherwise the commitment might leak information about j_T .

Definition 4.1 (Inverse Resistant Functions). A function $f: X \to Y$ is λ -inverse resistant, if for all $y \in Y$ the preimage $f^{-1}(y) \subseteq X$ has at least 2^{λ} elements.

This definition is other than one-way functions, since finding an element in the preimage is allowed as long as the probability to find the original input is sufficiently small. It also differs from hash functions, which are mostly considered to be collision resistant. A simple projection with a sufficiently large preimage set satisfies this definition but is neither a one-way function nor a proper hash function.

4.2 Algorithms

As seen in Definition 2.1 we have five algorithms PGen, Com, ComVrfy, DecVrfy and FDecom. In this subsection we give pseudocode for each algorithm and discuss their (relative) speed and some subroutines. The IdealToIsogeny algorithms used in Com and DecVrfy are discussed in Section 4.2.6.

²In practice, they only compute \tilde{E}_T isomorphic to E_T or its Galois conjugate E_T^p .

4.2.1 Parameter Generation

The parameter generation PGen defines the security of the whole protocol and fixes the delay $t_{\rm fd}$. It sets all general parameters like the characteristic p of the finite fields, the starting curve E_0 , $\mathcal{O}_0 \cong \operatorname{End} E_0$, the degrees d_s and d_T , as well as the message group (M, \oplus) and the inverse resistant function $F: J_{SS} \to M$. It also provides some precomputations that improve the speed of the commitment and the decommitment verification. These precomputations include bases of the d_s - and d_T -torsion groups of E_0 , and matrices that correspond to the action of two endomorphisms θ and η on $E_0[d_s]$ and $E_0[d_T]$. The quaternions corresponding to θ and η are orthogonal and $\langle R, \theta(R) \rangle = E_0[d]$ for all $R \in E_0[d]$ of maximal order. This permits efficient translation of isogenies into ideals as in [15, Algorithm 23]. It may also include additional information to improve the translation of these ideals into suitable isogenies. For the 1-dimensional approach this can be a smooth integer $d_t \approx p^3$ and matrices that correspond to the action of End E_0 on $E_0[d_t]$. Its output is the common reference string **crs**.

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Algorithm 1 Parameter generation algorithm PGen
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Require: Security parameter 1^{\kappa}
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Ensure: $\mathbf{crs} = (\mathbf{crs}_0, \mathbf{crs}_s, \mathbf{crs}_T, \mathbf{crs}_{\mathtt{ItI}})$

Ensure: $\mathbf{crs}_0 = (p, E_0, \operatorname{End} E_0, \mathcal{O}_0, \theta, \eta, M, F)$

Ensure: $\operatorname{crs}_s = (d_s, P_s, Q_s, A_\theta, A_\eta), \operatorname{crs}_T = (d_T, P'_T, Q'_T, e, B_\theta, B_\eta)$

- 1: Choose prime p of right size
- 2: Choose supersingular elliptic curve E_0 with known $\mathcal{O}_0 \cong \operatorname{End} E_0$
- 3: Find corresponding bases $\mathcal{O}_0 = \langle \alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_3 \rangle$ and End $E_0 = \langle \alpha_0, \dots, \alpha_3 \rangle$
- 4: Choose a group (M, ⊕) with efficient membership testing as message space
 5: Choose an efficient, inverse resistant function F: J_{SS} → M oblivious to Galois conjugacy, i.e. F(j) = F(j^p)
- 6: Choose smooth $d_s \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $E_0[d_s] \subseteq E_0(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})$
- 7: Find $P_s \in E_0[d_s]$ of maximal order $\operatorname{ord}(P_s) = d_s$
- 8: Choose $e, d_T \in \mathbb{N}$ such that d_T is coprime to d_s and $E_0[d_T] \subseteq E_0(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}})$
- 9: Find $P'_T \in E_0[d_T]$ of maximal order $\operatorname{ord}(P'_T) = d_T$
- 10: Find endomorphisms $\theta, \eta \in \text{End } E_0$ such that the corresponding quaternions θ, η are orthogonal and $\langle P_s, \theta(P_s) \rangle = E_0[d_s], \langle P'_T, \theta(P'_T) \rangle = E_0[d_T]$
- 11: Set $\mathbf{crs}_0 = (p, E_0, \operatorname{End} E_0, \mathcal{O}_0, \theta, \eta, M, F), Q_s = \theta(P_s) \text{ and } Q'_T = \theta(P'_T)$
- 12: Compute the action of θ, η on $E_0[d_s]$ as matrices $A_{\theta}, A_{\eta} \in \operatorname{Mat}_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{Z}/d_s\mathbb{Z})$ with respect to the basis (P_s, Q_s)
- 13: Set $\mathbf{crs}_s = (d_s, P_s, Q_s, A_\theta, A_\eta)$
- 14: Compute the action of θ, η on $E_0[d_T]$ as matrices $B_{\theta}, B_{\eta} \in \operatorname{Mat}_{2 \times 2}(\mathbb{Z}/d_T\mathbb{Z})$ with respect to the basis (P'_T, Q'_T)
- 15: Set $\mathbf{crs}_T = (d_T, P'_T, Q'_T, e, B_\theta, B_\eta)$
- 16: Compute $crs_{1\pm 1}$ \triangleright Depends on chosen IdealToIsogeny algorithm

 \triangleright Fixes delay $t_{\rm fd}$

17: return $\mathbf{crs} = (\mathbf{crs}_0, \mathbf{crs}_s, \mathbf{crs}_T, \mathbf{crs}_{\mathsf{ItI}})$

A detailed description can be found in Algorithm 1. The speed is dominated by finding generators of $E_0[d_T]$ and computing the action of θ and η . The bottlenecks are checking the order and linear independency of two points in $E_0(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}})$ and decomposing the images of this basis under the endomorphisms in terms of this basis.

4.2.2 Commitment

The commitment algorithm Com takes as input a message $m \in M$ and outputs a tuple $(\mathbf{C}, \pi_{\mathrm{com}}, \pi_{\mathrm{dec}})$. First it chooses a random isogeny $\varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_s$ of smooth degree d_s and a second random isogeny $\varphi'_T \colon E_0 \to E'_T$ of large and/or non-smooth degree d_T . These can be extended to a SIDH-square with the pushforwards $\varphi_T = [\varphi_s]_*\varphi'_T \colon E_s \to E_T$ and $\varphi'_s = [\varphi'_T]_*\varphi_s \colon E'_T \to E_T$, see Figure 1. Let $j_T = j(E_T)$ denote the *j*-invariant of E_T . Then it computes $F(j_T)$ and $u = m \oplus F(j_T) \in M$.³ The commitment itself $\mathbf{C} = (E_s, K_T, u)$ is again a tuple of a supersingular elliptic curve E_s , a point K_T on E_s that generates the kernel of φ_T and $u \in M$. While the commitment proof π_{com} is empty, the decommitment proof π_{dec} allows to reconstruct the secret isogenies φ_s, φ'_T and to use the same method for computing $F(j_T)$ as in the commitment algorithm. If Com uses heuristic algorithms (like KLPT) for finding special elements $\beta \in I$ or $\gamma \in \mathcal{O}_0$, i.e. equivalent ideals $J = I\beta$ or endomorphisms $\gamma \in \mathrm{End}\, E_0$, these can be added to π_{dec} to make DecVrfy deterministic.

To compute $F(j_T)$ efficiently, we need a faster method than computing φ_T directly. Since φ_s and φ'_T are isogenies with domain E_0 there are efficient ways to compute the corresponding ideals I_s and I'_T . The ideal I_{ψ} corresponding to $\psi = \varphi_T \circ \varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_T$ can then be computed as $I_{\psi} = I_s I_T = I_s([I_s]_*I'_T) = I_s \cap I'_T$ by Lemma 3 from SQISign [22]. Now we use one of the IdealToIsogeny algorithms discussed in Section 4.2.6 to efficiently compute a curve \tilde{E}_T isomorphic to E_T or its Galois conjugate E_T^p and $F(j_T) = F(j(\tilde{E}_T))$.

The individual steps are given in Algorithm 2. In SQISign [15] the authors state that converting between ideals and isogenies is the bottleneck of their computation. Therefore, we assume that the slowest part of this algorithm is computing IdealToIsogeny. We use (efficient) IdealToIsogeny algorithms based on those of SQISign or their improvements using higher dimensions. So the commitment algorithm Com is efficient and for properly chosen d_T it is faster than computing the delay isogeny φ_T (over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$). A more detailed discussion can be found in Section 5.3.

4.2.3 Commitment Verification

Algorithm 3 shows the commitment verification ComVrfy. It is fast since it only needs to check if the three parts of the commitment are of the correct form. Namely, E_s is an elliptic curve, K_T is a point on that curve and u is an element of the group M. All of these membership tests can be done efficiently. If we want to assure that forced opening does not take too long, we can also check if $K_T \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}^2$. This sets an upper bound for the degree d_T of φ_T as $E_s(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}) = E_s[p^e - (-1)^e]$ (if $|E_0(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})| = (p+1)^2$) and hence $d_T | p^e - (-1)^e$.

Remark 4.2. If we want to make sure that forcefully opening C takes not much longer than t_{fd} , we can check ord $K_T \mid d_T$. Remark 5.18 discusses how this affects the speed.

³Here \ominus means the addition of the inverse in the group (M, \oplus) such that $m \ominus m$ is the neutral element in M and in particular $u \oplus F(j) = m \ominus F(j) \oplus F(j) = m$.

Algorithm 2 Commitment algorithm Com

Require: Common reference string **crs**, message $m \in M$

- **Ensure:** $(\mathbf{C}, \pi_{\text{com}}, \pi_{\text{dec}}) = ((E_s, K_T, u), (), (s, t, \mathbf{r}))$
- 1: Choose random $s \in [0, d_s)$ and compute $K_s = P_s + [s]Q_s \in E_0[d_s]$
- 2: Compute $E_s \cong E_0/\langle K_s \rangle$ via Vélu's formulae
- 3: Set $v = (1, s)^{\top}$ and $A = (v, A_{\theta}v) \in \operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/d_s\mathbb{Z})$
- 4: Compute $(a_1, a_2)^{\top} = A^{-1}A_{\eta}v$ and ideal $I_s = \mathcal{O}_0(a_1 + a_2\theta \eta) + \mathcal{O}_0d_s$ corresponding to isogeny $\varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_s$ with kernel $\langle K_s \rangle$
- 5: Choose random $t \in [0, d_s)$ and set $w = (1, t)^\top \quad \triangleright$ We use d_s for efficiency
- 6: Set $B = (w, B_{\theta}w) \in \operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/d_T\mathbb{Z})$ and compute $(b_1, b_2)^{\top} = B^{-1}B_{\eta}w$
- 7: Compute ideal $I'_T = \mathcal{O}_0(b_1 + b_2\theta \eta) + \mathcal{O}_0d_T$ corresponding to isogeny $\varphi'_T : E_0 \to E'_T$ with kernel $\langle K'_T = P'_T + [t]Q'_T \rangle$
- 8: Compute ideal $I_{\psi} = I_s \cap I'_T$ corresponding to isogeny $\psi = [\varphi_s]_{\star} \varphi'_T \circ \varphi_s$
- 9: Use IdealToIsogeny to get E_T isomorphic to $E_T \cong E_s / \langle \varphi_s(K'_T) \rangle$ or E_T^p , and the random elements **r** used to find it (Go back to step 5 if it fails)
- 10: Compute $K_T = \varphi_s(P'_T + [t]Q'_T) \in E_s[d_T]$ 11: Compute $\tilde{j}_T = j(\tilde{E}_T)$ and $u = m \ominus F(\tilde{j}_T) \in M$ $\triangleright F(\tilde{j}_T) = F(j(E_T))$ 12: Set $\mathbf{C} = (E_s, K_T, u)$ $\triangleright Commitment$ 13: Set $\pi_{com} = ()$ $\triangleright Commitment proof (empty)$ 14: Set $\pi_{dec} = (s, t, \mathbf{r})$ $\triangleright Decommitment proof$ 15: return $(\mathbf{C}, \pi_{com}, \pi_{dec})$

Algorithm 3 Commitment verification algorithm ComVrfy

Require: Common reference string **crs**, commitment **C** and proof π_{com} 1: Check if E_s is an elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} , $K_T \in E_s$ and $u \in M$ *Optional: check* $K_T \in \mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}^2 \Rightarrow Check$ upper bound for degree of φ_T 2: return (accept/reject)

4.2.4 Decommitment Verification

The decommitment verification $\operatorname{DecVrfy}$ (Algorithm 4) is similar to the commitment algorithm. It first reconstructs φ_s, φ'_T from π_{dec} and verifies $\varphi_s: E_0 \to E_s$ and $K_T = \varphi_s(P'_T + [t]Q'_T)$. Then it computes the ideals I_s, I'_T and $I_{\psi} = I_s \cap I'_T$ corresponding to φ_s, φ'_T and $\psi = \varphi_T \circ \varphi_s$, respectively. Now it checks that the rest of π_{dec} is of the expected form and uses it to run IdealToIsogeny as a deterministic algorithm to efficiently find \widetilde{E}_T . Finally, it computes $\widetilde{j}_T = j(\widetilde{E}_T)$ and checks if $u \oplus F(\widetilde{j}_T) = m$. As stated above, we assume the slowest part of this algorithm to be the computation of IdealToIsogeny. Again, this is still faster than forced decommitment (cf. Section 5.3).

4.2.5 Forced Decommitment

In terms of the number of tasks the forced decommitment algorithm is rather simple. It just computes E_T as codomain of the isogeny φ_T given by the point K_T that generates its kernel. From there it recovers the message $m = u \oplus$ $F(j(E_T))$. Computing an isogeny φ_T can be made slow if its degree d_T is

Algorithm 4 Decommitment verification algorithm DecVrfy

Require: Common reference string **crs**, commitment **C Require:** Message m, decommitment proof π_{dec}

- 1: Compute $K_s = P_s + [s]Q_s \in E_0[d_s]$ and check $E_s \cong E_0/\langle K_s \rangle$
- 2: Compute $K'_T = P'_T + [t]Q'_T \in E_0[d_T]$ and check $\varphi_s(K'_T) = K_T$
- 3: Set $v = (1, s)^{\top}$ and $A = (v, A_{\theta}v) \in \operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/d_s\mathbb{Z})$
- 4: Compute $(a_1, a_2)^{\top} = A^{-1}A_{\eta}v$ and ideal $I_s = \mathcal{O}_0(a_1 + a_2\theta \eta) + \mathcal{O}_0d_s$ corresponding to isogeny $\varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_s$ with kernel $\langle K_s \rangle$
- corresponding to isogeny $\varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_s$ with Kerner $\langle \mathbf{K}_{s'} \rangle$ 5: Set $w = (1, t)^\top$ and $B = (w, B_\theta w) \in \operatorname{GL}_2(\mathbb{Z}/d_T\mathbb{Z})$ 6: Compute $(b_1, b_2)^\top = B^{-1}B_\eta w$ and ideal $I'_T = \mathcal{O}_0(b_1 + b_2\theta \eta) + \mathcal{O}_0d_T$ corresponding to isogeny $\varphi'_T \colon E_0 \to E'_T$ with kernel $\langle K'_T \rangle$ 7: Compute ideal $I_{\psi} = I_s \cap I'_T$ corresponding to isogeny $\psi = [\varphi_s]_* \varphi'_T \circ \varphi_s$
- 8: Check that the elements in \mathbf{r} are of the correct form
- 9: Use \mathbf{r} to recompute IdealToIsogeny as deterministic algorithm to get codomain E_T isomorphic to $E_T \cong E_s / \langle K_T \rangle$ or E_T^p

 $\triangleright F(\widetilde{j}_T) = F(j(E_T))$ 10: Compute $\tilde{j}_T = j(\tilde{E}_T)$ and check $u \oplus F(\tilde{j}_T) = m$ 11: return (accept/reject)

sufficiently large and/or non-smooth (cf. Theorem 5.8), especially when the calculations have to be done in a field extension $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$. This allows us to make Algorithm 5 (almost) arbitrarily slow.

Algorithm 5 Forced decommitment algorithm FDecom **Require:** Common reference string **crs**, commitment **C Ensure:** Message m

1: Compute $E_T \cong E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$ via Vélu's formulae or $\sqrt{\text{élu}}$ algorithm

2: Compute $j_T = j(E_T)$ and $m = u \oplus F(j_T)$

3: return m

Ideal to Isogeny Algorithms 4.2.6

Explicitly computing the Deuring correspondence (Task 5 in Section 3.2) and in particular translating ideals into isogenies is part of SQISign [22]. There have been several improvements of this step including the application of higher dimensional isogenies. All approaches sample random elements until they find ones with special properties. This might fail, but their respective publications provide heuristics for parameters such that they succeed with high probability.

Using 1-dimensional isogenies we can do something similar to SQISign. We use an algorithm like KLPT [32, 36] to find an equivalent ideal $I_{\psi} \sim I_{\psi}$ of norm $\widetilde{d}_{\psi} \approx p^3$ a power of 2. Then we translate \widetilde{I}_{ψ} into its corresponding isogeny $\widetilde{\psi} \colon E_s \to \widetilde{E}_T$ using the methods of SQIsign [15] with the improvements of [23]. This allows us to efficiently compute the *j*-invariant $\tilde{j}_T = j(\tilde{E}_T)$ such that $F(j_T) = F(j_T)$. Note that SQISign uses ideals with norm of size $p^{15/4} > p^3 \approx \widetilde{d}_{\psi}$ and is still considered efficient. If we use Algorithm 6, we need SQISign-friendly primes, but $\mathbf{crs}_{\mathtt{ItI}}$ in Algorithm 1 can be empty.

Algorithm 6 1-dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithm (SQIsign)

Require: Common reference string crs , left \mathcal{O}_0 -ideal I_{ψ}	
Ensure: $(\widetilde{E}_T, \mathbf{r}) = (\widetilde{E}_T, \beta_{\psi})$	
1: Compute equivalent ideal $\widetilde{I}_{\psi} = I_{\psi} \beta_{\psi} / \operatorname{nrd}(I)$) with smooth norm $\widetilde{d}_{\psi} \approx p^3$
using KLPT-like alogorithms	\triangleright Optional: require $\widetilde{d}_{\psi} \mid d_t$
2: Compute corresponding isogeny $\widetilde{\psi} \colon E_0 \to \widetilde{E}_T$	of degree \widetilde{d}_{ψ} as in SQIsign
3: return $(\widetilde{E}_T, \beta_{\psi})$	

If we go to higher dimensional isogenies we can find efficiently computable representations of φ_T or ψ , i.e. embeddings into higher dimensional isogenies. The degree of these representations is usually a power of 2 that divides p+1 and hence much smaller than p^3 . This makes the higher dimensional variants more efficient. For example, IdealToIsogeny from SQIsign2D-West [5] allows to evaluate ψ using I_{ψ} and a chain of (2, 2)-isogenies. The IdealToIsogeny algorithm from [35] can use I_s , φ_s and $I_T = I_s^{-1}I_sI_T = I_s^{-1}I_{\psi}$ to find a representation of φ_T via (2, 2)-isogenies. There are other 2-dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithms (e.g. [33]) and 4- or 8-dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithms like in SQIsignHD [19]. For higher dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithms the slowest part is usually evaluating the higher dimensional isogenies, but we can choose the degree d_T of the delay isogeny φ_T such that computing the higher dimensional isogeny is faster than computing φ_T . We present one approach based on SQIsign2D-West in Algorithm 7. It needs $\operatorname{crs}_{ItI} = (g, P_g, Q_g)$ where the points $P_g, Q_g \in E_0(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})$ form a basis of the 2^g -torsion of E_0 .

Algorithm 7 2-dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithm (SQIsign2D-West) Require: Common reference string crs, left \mathcal{O}_0 -ideal I_{ψ}

Ensure: $(\widetilde{E}_T, \mathbf{r}) = (\widetilde{E}_T, (\beta_1, \beta_2, a_1, a_2, f, \gamma_1, \gamma_2))$

- 1: Find equivalent ideals $I_1 = I_{\psi}\beta_1/\operatorname{nrd}(I_{\psi}), I_2 = I_{\psi}\beta_2/\operatorname{nrd}(I_{\psi})$ of odd and coprime norms $d_1, d_2 \approx \sqrt{p}$ and $a_1, a_2 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $a_1d_1 + a_2d_2 = 2^f$, $f \leq g$ and $\gcd(a_1d_1, a_2d_2) = 1$
- 2: Find $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \text{End} E_0$ of degrees $a_1(2^g a_1)$ and $a_2(2^g a_2)$, respectively, using FullRepresentInteger
- 3: Set $\mathbf{r} = (\beta_1, \beta_2, a_1, a_2, f, \gamma_1, \gamma_2)$
- 4: Construct $(2^g, 2^g)$ -isogenies $\Phi_i \colon E_0 \times E_0 \to E_i \times E'_i$ with kernels $\langle ([a_i]P_g, \gamma_i(P_g)), ([a_i]Q_g, \gamma_i(Q_g)) \rangle$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$
- 5: Compute $\varphi_i(P_g), \varphi_i(Q_g)$ for isogenies $\varphi_i \colon E_0 \to E_i$ of degrees a_i as $\Phi_i(P, \infty) = (\varphi_i(P), *)$ for $i \in \{1, 2\}$
- 6: Compute $\gamma = \widehat{\psi}_2 \circ \psi_1 \in \text{End} E_0$ corresponding to $\gamma = \beta_2 \overline{\beta_1} / \operatorname{nrd}(I_{\psi})$
- 7: Compute $P_f = [2^{g-f}]P_g$ and $Q_f = [2^{g-f}]Q_g$
- 8: Construct $(2^f, 2^f)$ -isogeny $\Psi: E_1 \times E_2 \to \widetilde{E}_T \times E'$ with kernel $\langle ([d_1]\varphi_1(P_f), \varphi_2 \circ \gamma(P_f)), ([d_1]\varphi_1(Q_f), \varphi_2 \circ \gamma(Q_f)) \rangle$
- 9: Compute E_T via codomain of Ψ
- 10: return (E_T, \mathbf{r})

The main idea of Algorithm 7 is to find equivalent ideals $I_1, I_2 \sim I_{\psi}$ of norms d_1, d_2 and isogenies φ_1, φ_2 of degrees a_1, a_2 in order to construct a 2dimensional isogeny Ψ of degree $a_1d_1 + a_2d_2 = 2^f$ that represents ψ . It uses **FullRepresentInteger** from [23] to find $\gamma_1, \gamma_2 \in \text{End} E_0$ with degrees $a_i(2^g - a_i)$. They are formally split into an isogeny φ_i of degree a_i and another isogeny of degree $2^g - a_i$. Then Kani's Lemma allows to compute φ_1, φ_2 and Ψ . A more detailed description is given in [5, Section 3.2].

4.3 Parameter Sizes and other Choices

The algorithms above do not specify all properties of the parameters. Therefore, we now discuss the necessary and some optional choices. For example, the hiding property sets requirements on the size of some parameters and we also propose some choices for implementing this protocol. In Appendix A we give an example how explicit numbers may look like.

The delay $t_{\rm fd}$ should be large, but it has to be polynomial in κ (or log p). On one hand the main idea of NITC schemes is that we can forcefully open a commitment (in polynomial time) with FDecom, if someone refuses to open it themselves. On the other hand generic algorithms to solve Problems 3.5 - 3.7 could be faster than FDecom and therefore violate hiding, if $t_{\rm fd}$ was superpolynomial. In particular, we need $t_{\rm fd} < d_s^{1/4}$ due to Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7 of Section 5.1 for quantum security and $t_{\rm fd} \gg t_{\rm cv}, t_{\rm dv}$.

4.3.1 Prime *p*, Starting Curve E_0 and Isogenies φ_s and φ_T

The starting curve could be any supersingular elliptic curve E_0 with a known efficient representation of \mathcal{O}_0 . For our protocol we choose E_0 to be the curve $E_0: y^2 = x^3 + x$ with $(p+1)^2$ points over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} and $\mathcal{O}_0 = \langle 1, i, \frac{i+j}{2}, \frac{1+k}{2} \rangle_{\mathbb{Z}}$ for $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$. In this case the endomorphisms [i]: $(x, y) \mapsto (-x, iy), \phi: (x, y) \mapsto$ (x^p, y^p) (Frobenius map), θ and η correspond to i, j, j + $\frac{1+k}{2}$ and i, respectively⁴. This also allows for more efficient KLPT variants and higher dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithms. In order to satisfy the hiding property, pand d_s would have a certain size. It has to be infeasible to precompute \mathcal{O}_s for all possible E_s or to find an isogeny from E_0 to E_s in time less than $t_{\rm fd}$ in the online phase. Therefore, we choose $p \approx 2^{2\kappa}$, $2^{\kappa} \leq d_s \leq 2^{2\kappa}$ and $d_s \leq p$. In Section 5 we give a more detailed justification of these numbers.

Usually, we would want d_s and d_T to be smooth numbers both dividing p+1in order to have fast evaluation of the corresponding isogenies. So d_s should be smooth and divide p+1 (or p^2-1). However, evaluating φ_T does not need to (in fact should not) be fast, since it is only evaluated by FDecom. Therefore, d_T can contain larger prime factors and does not need to divide p+1 (or p^2-1). It is chosen such that computing an isogeny of degree d_T takes at least time $t_{\rm fd}$ (and preferably not much longer). Note that we can choose d_T as a large composite number with many prime factors to have more confidence in sequentiality. Since $P_T = \varphi_s(P'_T)$ and $Q_T = \varphi_s(Q'_T)$ have to generate $E_s[d_T]$, we need the degree d_s of φ_s to be coprime to d_T . Computing $K_T = \varphi_s(P'_T + [t]Q'_T)$ can be slow if $t \approx d_T$, since computing $[t]Q'_T$ takes $O(\log t)$ operations. Thus, we just take $0 \le t < d_s$.

For a supersingular curve with $(p+1)^2$ points over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} we have $(p^e - (-1)^e)^2$ points over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$ and the largest fully $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$ -rational torsion group is the $(p^e - (-1)^e)$ -torsion. If d_T is large or contains prime factors that do not divide $p + (-1)^e$

⁴This is not a typo. We have $\eta = [i]$.

1, this means that we need to go to extensions of \mathbb{F}_{p^2} to find a basis for the d_T -torsion group of E_0 or E_s . Higher extensions and larger p slow down the computations, therefore we want to minimize the degree of the extension and the size of p to increase efficiency. The size of p affects almost all computations, whereas the size of e only influences computations related to the K_T or φ_T . Both Com and DecVrfy have to compute K_T , but not φ_T . Thus, for longer delays it can be beneficial to make d_T less smooth rather than making it larger. This can increase the delay without increasing the extension degree e, i.e. without slowing down Com and DecVrfy.

For an implementation we can choose a prime $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$ such that p + 1 contains a smooth factor $d_s = 2^{\kappa}$. This ensures that the first isogeny $\varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_s$ can be evaluated efficiently. After choosing a prime, we find an extension degree e such that $p^e - (-1)^e$ contains a suitable factor d_T that is coprime to d_s . For example, we can use Assumption 5.4 to choose d_T odd with prime factorization $d_T = \prod q_i^{e_i}$ such that $\sum e_i \sqrt{q_i} > t_{\rm fd}$. Hence, the size of d_T and e depend on the target delay $t_{\rm fd}$ and the smoothness of d_T . If d_T is a prime, both d_T and e can potentially be small. But if d_T is smooth it has to be large and requires a large extension degree e. The primes used in SIKE allow to choose d_s (and d_T) this way. So there are already known primes with the right properties for different security levels. For $d_s \approx p$, the delay $t_{\rm fd}$ can be almost as large as $p^{1/4}$ instead of $p^{1/8}$. This could be a good trade-off for large delays.

Remark 4.3. If we use the 1-dimensional IdealToIsogeny Algorithm 6, we need additional \mathbb{F}_{p^4} -rational torsion and have to use SQISign-friendly primes. In that case the maximal power of 2 that divides p + 1 is often smaller than \sqrt{p} . This in turn requires using more involved methods (like [15, Algorithm 14]) for finding isogenies of degree d_s . Using higher dimensional isogenies as in Algorithm 7, however, only requires $p = c2^k - 1$ with c as small as possible.

4.3.2 Message Space M and Function F

We choose M to be a finite group $M = \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ for an integer $N \in \mathbb{N}$. This gives us very efficient membership testing and group operations. The size of N depends on the needed length of a message m and the prime p. If N is larger than $\lfloor p/12 \rfloor + 2$, then $F: J_{SS} \to M$ can not be surjective and therefore $u = m \ominus F(j_T)$ might leak information about the message m.

As mentioned before, computing j_T from $F(j_T)$ has to be infeasible or at least slow. In order to satisfy hiding we choose the function F to be λ -inverse resistant with $\lambda = \frac{3}{2}\kappa \approx \log p^{3/4}$. In addition, it has to be fast since Com and DecVrfy have to compute $F(j_T)$. An easy way to accomplish this is to take a function that is not injective. The larger the kernel of F, i.e. smaller N, the more information is lost. A simple projection $\mathbb{F}_{p^2} \supset J_{SS} \to \mathbb{F}_p$ onto one of the components or even their sum will leak information, since there is a subset of j-invariants that already are in \mathbb{F}_p . If we use a simple map like $(a, b) \mapsto b \mod N$ or $(a, b) \mapsto a + b \mod N$, we thus need to use $N \ll p$.

The right orders of equivalent ideals are only isomorphic and the corresponding shortcut isogenies have codomains with *j*-invariants that agree only up to Galois conjugacy. It is easier to choose F oblivious to Galois conjugacy than to ensure equality of orders or *j*-invariants. For an implementation we can identify $J_{SS} \subset \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$ with a subset of $\mathbb{F}_p[\mathbf{i}] \cong \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$ and choose

$$F: J_{SS} \to M = \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}, \quad a + bi \mapsto a + |b| \mod N.$$

Since we choose $p \equiv 3 \mod 4$ we have $(a + bi)^p = a - bi$ and $F(j) = F(j^p)$. Also, F should be $\frac{3}{2}\kappa$ -inverse resistant, so we take $N \leq \lfloor p^{1/4}/12 \rfloor$. Then we can expect every element in M to be the image of about $p^{3/4} \approx 2^{3\kappa/2}$ elements in J_{SS} . There is no direct way of finding the supersingular *j*-invariants. Hence, one would have to compute the preimage in \mathbb{F}_{p^2} (about $12p^{7/4}$ elements) and check if they are *j*-invariants of supersingular elliptic curves. This is sufficiently inverse resistant in practice.

Remark 4.4 (Publicly Verifiable). To make the scheme publicly verifiable, we can add an encryption $\operatorname{Enc}_{j_T}(\pi_{\operatorname{dec}})$ of π_{dec} to the commitment such that j_T is the key for the decryption $\operatorname{Dec}_{j_T}(\operatorname{Enc}_{j_T}(\pi_{\operatorname{dec}})) = \pi_{\operatorname{dec}}$. This allows FDecom to provide the decommitment proof π_{dec} and everyone could use DecVrfy to verify the output of FDecom instead of computing it themselves.

5 Security

We show that our protocol satisfies the Definition 2.1 of a NITC scheme by Katz et al. [31] and prove the three properties practicality, hiding and binding. These proofs are based on assumptions for the relative speed of some algorithms.

Our algorithms have the correct input and output arguments, and for all κ and $m \in M$ every set of honestly generated ($\kappa, m, \operatorname{crs}, \mathbf{C}, \pi_{\operatorname{com}}, \pi_{\operatorname{dec}}$) satisfies verification ComVrfy(crs, $\mathbf{C}, \pi_{\operatorname{com}}$) = accept = DecVrfy(crs, $\mathbf{C}, m, \pi_{\operatorname{dec}}$) and forced decommitment FDecom(crs, \mathbf{C}) = m. This makes it a NITC scheme.

5.1 Relative Running Times

Computing isogenies of prime degree q can be done using Vélu's formulae in time O(q), or the $\sqrt{\acute{e}lu}$ algorithm [6] in time $\sqrt{q}(\log q)^{2+o(1)}$ or $\widetilde{O}(\sqrt{q})$ for short. Here \widetilde{O} may also contain additional logarithmic terms $\widetilde{O}(n) = O(n \operatorname{poly}(\log n))$. The crossover point for optimized algorithms is at $q \approx 100$, and we denote the time it takes to compute an isogeny of prime degree q with $\operatorname{eval}_{\operatorname{prime}}(q)$. Remember that our timings are the number of operations rather than real-world times.

Remark 5.1. If the kernel ker φ of an isogeny $\varphi \colon E \to E'$ or a point $P \in E$ in its domain is only $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$ -rational, we need the same number of operations to find the codomain $E/\ker \varphi$ or to evaluate $\varphi(P)$, but they could be operations in $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$ instead of \mathbb{F}_{p^2} . The point K_T of the commitment might only be defined over extension fields and we need to compute $\varphi_s(K'_T) = K_T$. Therefore, we only considered the number of operations and do not distinguish between operations in \mathbb{F}_{p^2} and more costly operations in extension fields $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2e}}$. The majority of operations of FDecom may be in extension fields, but for Com, ComVrfy and DecVrfy most operations can be done in \mathbb{F}_{p^2} . So our timings are rather conservative.

Lemma 5.2. There is a (small) constant c_p such that evaluating an isogeny of prime degree q takes time $eval_{prime}(q) \leq c_p q$.

Now let us look at an isogeny φ with a kernel that is generated by a point K'_0 of order q^k . We can decompose $\varphi = \varphi_k \circ \cdots \circ \varphi_1$ into isogenies φ_i of degree q. In each step we compute the points $K_i = [q^{k-i}]K'_{i-1}$ generating the kernel of φ_i and $K'_i = \varphi_i(K'_{i-1})$ generating the kernel of $\varphi'_i = \varphi_k \circ \cdots \circ \varphi_{i+1}$. So every step takes time $\operatorname{eval}_{\operatorname{prime}}(q)$ plus the time it takes to compute the point multiplication. Generalizing this to isogenies of arbitrary composite degree gives us bounds for the time $\operatorname{eval}(d)$ it takes to compute an isogeny of degree d. If we ignore the multiplications for the lower bound we get the following lemma.

Lemma 5.3. Let $d = \prod_{i=1}^{r} q_i^{e_i}$ be the prime factorization of the degree d. There is a (small) constant $c_c \ge 1$ such that the time eval(d) it takes to evaluate an isogeny of degree d is bounded by

$$\sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i \operatorname{eval}_{\operatorname{prime}}(q_i) \le \operatorname{eval}(d) \le c_c \sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i \operatorname{eval}_{\operatorname{prime}}(q_i).$$

This allows us to choose d_T such that $eval(d_T) \ge t_{fd}$. If we assume that Vélu's formulae and the $\sqrt{\acute{e}lu}$ algorithm are close to optimal in computing prime degree isogenies we can use the following assumption to choose values for d_T .

Assumption 5.4. Let $d = \prod_{i=1}^{r} q_i^{e_i}$ be the prime factorization of the degree d. We assume that $\sqrt{q_i} \leq \operatorname{eval}_{\operatorname{prime}}(q_i)$ and hence $\sum_{i=1}^{r} e_i \sqrt{q_i} \leq \operatorname{eval}(d)$.

Combining these results we get an upper bound for the computation time of isogenies of smooth degree.

Lemma 5.5. An isogeny of degree d with prime factorization $d = \prod_{i=1}^{r} q_i^{e_i}$ and $q_i < B$ (B-smooth) can be evaluated in time $O(\frac{B}{\log B} \log d)$.

Proof. We use Lemmas 5.3 and 5.2 to write

$$\operatorname{eval}(d) \le c_c \sum_{i=1}^r e_i \operatorname{eval}_{\operatorname{prime}}(q_i) \le c_c c_p \sum_{i=1}^r e_i q_i.$$

Since $q_i < B$ for all $1 \le i \le r$, we get $q_i \le \log q_i \frac{B}{\log B}$ and

$$\operatorname{eval}(d) \le c_c c_p \sum_{i=1}^r e_i \log q_i \frac{B}{\log B} = c_c c_p \frac{B}{\log B} \log d.$$

According to Eisenträger et al. [27] the fastest (currently known) algorithms for solving the (equivalent) general Isogeny Path Problem, general Endomorphism Ring Problem or general Maximal Order Problem (cf. Section 3.2) over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} take time $\tilde{O}(p^{1/2})$ for classical computations and $\tilde{O}(p^{1/4})$ with a quantum computer. Since E_0 and E_s are known to be connected by a d_s -isogeny there is also a meet-in-the-middle or claw-finding attack in classical time $\tilde{O}(d_s^{1/2})$ and $\tilde{O}(d_s^{1/4})$ when applying Grover's Algorithm [29].

Assumption 5.6 (General Isogeny Assumption). We assume that the fastest algorithms to solve the general Isogeny Path Problem, the general Endomorphism Ring Problem or the general Maximal Order Problem over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} need at least $p^{1/2}$ or $p^{1/4}$ operations for classical or quantum algorithms, respectively.

Assumption 5.7 (Special Isogeny Assumption). We assume that the fastest algorithms to find an isogeny between two d-isogenous curves over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} with d < p take at least $d^{1/2}$ or $d^{1/4}$ operations for classical or quantum algorithms, respectively.

With these assumptions we can prove that computing the codomain of an isogeny can be made almost arbitrarily slow.

Theorem 5.8. Let E be a supersingular elliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} with unknown $\mathcal{O} \cong \operatorname{End} E$, but d'-isogenous to a curve E_0 with known endomorphism ring. Let further K be a point on E of order d, such that computing the corresponding isogeny takes at least time t, according to Lemma 5.3. Then for $t < \min\{d'^{1/4}, p^{1/4}\}$ and under Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7, computing $E_K \cong E/\langle K \rangle$ takes at least time t.

Proof. The isogeny $\varphi: E \to E_K$ with kernel $\langle K \rangle$ has degree d. Efficiently calculating a shortcut isogeny $\tilde{\varphi}: E \to E_K$ or an efficient higher dimensional representation requires knowledge of $\mathcal{O} \cong \text{End } E$. Finding the endomorphism ring End E or the order $\mathcal{O} \cong \text{End } E$ without an isogeny $\varphi': E_0 \to E$, or finding an isogeny $\tilde{\varphi}$ without $\mathcal{O} \cong \text{End } E$ are hard problems. By Assumption 5.6 finding End E or \mathcal{O} takes time at least $p^{1/4} > t$. Finding an isogeny φ' needs at least time $d'^{1/4} > t$ by Assumption 5.7 if d' < p or $p^{1/4} > t$ by Assumption 5.6 if $d' \geq p$. Therefore, computing $E_K \cong E/\langle K \rangle$ takes at least time t.

The algorithm FDecom only has crs and $\mathbf{C} = (E_s, K_T, u)$ as input. In order to compute $m = u \oplus F(j_T)$ it has to calculate the *j*-invariant j_T of the secret curve $E_T \cong E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$. Theorem 5.8 gives us the following corollary:

Corollary 5.9. For $t_{\rm fd} < d_s^{1/4}$ and under the Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7, the forced decommitment FDecom takes at least time $t_{\rm fd}$.

Note that the restriction $t_{\rm fd} < d_s^{1/4}$ is based on the quantum timings in Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7. For classical algorithms $t_{\rm fd} < d_s^{1/2}$ would be sufficient, but since our protocol should be quantum secure we chose the more general bound including quantum algorithms.

5.2 Hiding and Binding

For hiding we use the same (non-malleability) Definition 2.4 as Katz et al. [31]. First we show why we need an adapted security game. In Definition 2.3 the adversary \mathcal{A} sends two messages m_0, m_1 and receives the commitment $\mathbf{C}_b = (E_s, K_T, u_b)$ corresponding to message m_b for a uniform $b \in \{0, 1\}$. It is allowed to query an oracle for FDecom(·) except for FDecom(crs, \mathbf{C}_b).

Lemma 5.10. An adversary A can break hiding with the original security game from Definition 2.3.

Proof. Since $m_{1-b} \ominus m_b \oplus u_b = u_{1-b}$, querying FDecom(crs, (E_s, K_T, u_{\pm})) with $u_+ = (m_0 \ominus m_1) \oplus u_b$ and $u_- = \ominus (m_0 \ominus m_1) \oplus u_b$ gives m_{1-b} and a random message m'. For |M| = 2 we have $u_+ = u_-$ and get m_{1-b} . For |M| > 2 however, we can assume $m_0 \neq m' \neq m_1$. This allows \mathcal{A} to output the correct b' = b with high probability.

Even worse, if we replace K_T by any other point K' such that $\langle K' \rangle = \langle K_T \rangle$, e.g. $K' = [\ell] K_T$ for ℓ coprime to d_T , or apply an isomorphism such that $E'/\langle K' \rangle \cong E_T \cong E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$ then $\texttt{FDecom}(\mathbf{crs}, (E', K', u_b))$ will return m_b . \Box

Thus, it is reasonable to disallow queries of the form $\texttt{FDecom}(\texttt{crs}, (E', K', \cdot))$ for $E'/\langle K' \rangle \cong E_T \cong E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$. Since F is oblivious to Galois conjugacy, we also disallow queries with $E'/\langle K' \rangle \cong E_T^p$ and use the adapted security game in Definition 5.11.

Definition 5.11 (IND-CCA adapted). For a NITC scheme TC and an algorithm \mathcal{A} , define the game IND-CCA^{\mathcal{A}}_{TC} as follows:

- 1. Compute $\mathbf{crs} \leftarrow \mathsf{PGen}(1^{\kappa})$.
- 2. Run $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{crs})$ in a preprocessing phase with access to $\mathtt{FDecom}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C})$ for valid commitments $\mathbf{C} = (E, K, u)$ with $\mathrm{ord} K \mid d_T$.
- 3. When \mathcal{A} outputs (m_0, m_1) , choose a uniform bit $b \leftarrow \{0, 1\}$ and then compute $(\mathbf{C}_b, \pi_{\text{com}}, \pi_{\text{dec}}) \leftarrow \text{Com}(\mathbf{crs}, m_b)$. Give $(\mathbf{C}_b, \pi_{\text{com}})$ to \mathcal{A} , who continues to have access to FDecom $(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C})$ for valid commitments $\mathbf{C} = (E, K, u)$ with ord $K \mid d_T$ except that it may not query the oracle on (E', K', \cdot) for $E'/\langle K' \rangle$ isomorphic to $E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$ or its Galois conjugate where $\mathbf{C}_b = (E_s, K_T, u_b)$.
- 4. When A outputs a bit b', it wins iff b' = b.

This is still in the spirit of the original definition, since it prohibits the "decryption" of the commitment in question. In our case the security arises from the secret isogeny $\varphi_s \colon E_0 \to E_s$ and the delay isogeny $\varphi_T \colon E_s \to E_T$ with kernel $\langle K_T \rangle$, and the "key" is $F(j_T)$ for $j_T = j(E_T)$. Such queries would enable \mathcal{A} to find $F(j_T)$ and would hence basically allow to query $\mathsf{FDecom}(\mathsf{crs}, (E_s, K_T, u_b))$ by proxy, which is forbidden in the original definition.

Remark 5.12. The restriction of oracle queries to valid commitments $\mathbf{C} = (E, K, u)$ with ord $K \mid d_T$ ensures that the oracle can be simulated in polynomial time. This is a reasonable restriction, as FDecom in the original definition can output **invalid** for malformed inputs. We can even check ord $K \mid d_T$ in ComVrfy as mentioned in Remark 4.2.

Theorem 5.13. For a $\frac{3}{2}\kappa$ -inverse resistant function F and under the Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7, SIGNITC is (t_p, t_o, ε) -CCA-secure (satisfies hiding) with security game from Definition 5.11 for $t_p \ll 2^{\kappa}$ polynomial in κ , $t_o < t_{\rm fd}$ and $\varepsilon = 2^{-\kappa}$.

Proof. The precomputation phase can only provide a negligible advantage for an adversary \mathcal{A} . The computation of $\operatorname{Com}(\operatorname{crs}, m)$ includes choosing random $K_s = P_s + [s]Q_s \in E_0[d_s]$ and $K_T = P_T + [t]Q_T \in E_s[d_T]$ with $s, t \in [0, d_s)$. Since $2^{\kappa} \leq d_s$, it is infeasible to precompute (and store) a significant subset of all possibilities in time $t_p \ll 2^{\kappa}$ polynomial in κ .

In the online phase \mathcal{A} sends two messages m_0, m_1 and receives the output (E_s, K_T, u_b) of $\operatorname{Com}(\operatorname{crs}, m_b)$ for a uniform $b \in \{0, 1\}$. The adversary \mathcal{A} knows that $F(j_T)$ is equal to $F_0 = \ominus u_b \oplus m_0$ or $F_1 = \ominus u_b \oplus m_1$. Since F is a $\frac{3}{2}\kappa$ -inverse resistant function, there are at least $2^{3\kappa/2}$ *j*-invariants *j* such that $F(j) = F_i$ for

each $i \in \{0, 1\}$ and none of them is more likely than the other. To verify one of them, \mathcal{A} would have to compute $E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$, but this is equivalent to computing $\texttt{FDecom}(\texttt{crs}, (E_s, K_T, u_b))$. Under Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7 we get that it can not be done in time t_o less than t_{fd} by Corollary 5.9.

We can choose the smallest prime $\ell \mid d_T$ and find E, K such that $j = j(E/\langle K \rangle)$ is one of the $\ell + 1$ neighbors of j_T in the ℓ -isogeny graph. Then we can compute the $\ell + 1$ neighbors j_k of j and check if $F(j_k)$ matches F_0 or F_1 . If we have only one match, then this gives $F(j_T)$. If we have more matches, then we have to try again with a different j. To increase our confidence in a candidate, we can repeat this for more or all $\ell + 1$ neighbors of j_T , since $F(j_T)$ has to be a match for a neighbor for all of them. The easiest way to find such E and K is to take $E = E_s$ and $K = [\ell]K_T$. If we need more neighbors, we can also compute the isogeny $\varphi_{\ell} \colon E_s \to E$ of degree ℓ with kernel $\langle [\frac{d_T}{\ell}]K_T \rangle$ and take $E = E_s/\langle [\frac{d_T}{\ell}]K_T \rangle$. For the point K we take one of the points in E such that $[\ell]K = \varphi_{\ell}(K_T)$. The problem with this approach is that computing $E, K, E/\langle K \rangle$ and $\ell + 1$ isogenies of degree ℓ is slower than computing $E_s/\langle K_T \rangle$. As discussed above, we assume that this can not be done in time t_o less than $t_{\rm fd}$.

If we query the oracle on (E, K, 0) instead of computing $E/\langle K \rangle$, then we only get $F(j) = 0 \oplus F(j)$ instead of $j = j(E/\langle K \rangle)$. Since F is an $\frac{3}{2}\kappa$ -inverse resistant function, there are at least $2^{3\kappa/2}$ indistinguishable candidates for each j. In this case the best approach is to find $\ell + 1$ pairs (E_k, K_k) such that $j_k = j(E_k/\langle K_k \rangle)$ are the $\ell + 1$ neighbors of j_T in the ℓ -isogeny graph. Then we query the oracle on all of them to get $F(j_k)$ for $1 \leq k \leq \ell + 1$. Now we have to match them with the neighbors of the (at least) $2^{3\kappa/2}$ candidates for j_T from each F_0 and F_1 . To have confidence in a candidate, its neighbors have to match with several or all $F(j_k)$. If $F_0 \neq F_1$, then their preimages are disjoint and there are at least $2 \cdot 2^{3\kappa/2}$ candidates for j_T . We can only spend less than $t_o < t_{\rm fd} < d_s^{1/4} \leq 2^{\kappa/2}$ operations on these comparisons. Therefore, the probability to find j_T is less than $t_o 2^{-3\kappa/2} < 2^{-\kappa}$.

When we replace E_s and K_T by a curve E' and point K' such that $E'/\langle K'\rangle$ is unrelated to $E_s/\langle K_T\rangle$, the query $\texttt{FDecom}(\texttt{crs}, (E', K', u_b))$ gives completely unrelated results. In conclusion, in the online phase the advantage over guessing is less than $2^{-\kappa}$ under Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7.

The new security game for binding in Definition 5.14 only restricts oracle access to valid commitments in order to allow efficient simulations as mentioned in Remark 5.12.

Definition 5.14 (BND-CCA adapted). For a NITC scheme TC and an algorithm \mathcal{A} , define the game BND-CCA^{\mathcal{A}}_{TC} as follows:

- 1. Compute $\mathbf{crs} \leftarrow \mathsf{PGen}(1^{\kappa})$.
- 2. Run $\mathcal{A}(\mathbf{crs})$ with access to $\mathsf{FDecom}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C})$ for valid commitments $\mathbf{C} = (E, K, u)$ with $\operatorname{ord} K \mid d_T$.
- 3. A outputs $(m, \mathbf{C}, \pi_{\text{com}}, \pi_{\text{dec}}, m', \pi'_{\text{dec}})$ and wins iff $\operatorname{ComVrfy}(\mathbf{crs}, \mathbf{C}, \pi_{\text{com}}) =$ accept and either:
 - $m \neq m'$, yet DecVrfy(crs, C, m, π_{dec}) and DecVrfy(crs, C, m', π'_{dec}) both output accept;

• DecVrfy(crs, C, m, π_{dec}) = accept but FDecom(crs, C) $\neq m$.

The proof for binding works with the original Definition 2.6 and the new security game from Definition 5.14. With our protocol we even achieve perfect binding.

Theorem 5.15. SIGNITC is $(\infty, 0)$ -BND-CCA-secure (satisfies binding) with security game from Definition 5.14.

Proof. If the commitment **C** is accepted by ComVrfy, then it contains an elliptic curve E_s , a point K_T on E_s and an element u of an additive group M. Since DecVrfy verifies $u \oplus F(j_T) = m$ for $j_T = j(E_s/\langle K_T \rangle)$, we have that acceptance of both (crs, **C**, m, π_{dec}) and (crs, **C**, m', π'_{dec}) by DecVrfy implies $m \oplus F(j_T) =$ $u = m' \oplus F(j_T)$ and hence m = m'. The speedup does not change this, because it can only change j_T by Galois conjugacy and F is oblivious to that. Similarly, if DecVrfy accepts (crs, **C**, m, π_{dec}) then $u = m \oplus F(j_T)$. FDecom computes $F(j_T)$ from E_s and K_T and thus outputs the correct message $m = u \oplus F(j_T)$.

5.3 Practicality

We show that Com, ComVrfy and DecVrfy can be computed efficiently and that we achieve a perfectly practical NITC scheme. We chose $p \approx 2^{2\kappa}$, $2^{\kappa} \leq d_s \leq 2^{2\kappa}$, $d_s \leq p$ and $t_{\rm fd} < d_s^{1/4}$ to get κ bits of classical and $\kappa/2$ bits of quantum security for the precomputation phase in hiding. In this subsection "efficiently" means an expected running time of at most poly(log p) operations for probabilistic algorithms.

Lemma 5.16. The commitment Com takes time $t_{\text{com}} \in \text{poly}(\log p)$.

Proof. The number of operations on E_0 for computing $K_s = P_s + [s]Q_s$ and $K'_T = P'_T + [t]Q'_T$ is linear in $\log d_s$ since $0 \le s, t < d_s$. By Lemma 5.5 we can find $E_s \cong E_0/\langle K_s \rangle$ and $K_T = \varphi_s(K'_T)$ via Vélu's formulae in time $O(\log d_s)$ since d_s is a power of 2 and hence smooth. We adapted Algorithm 23 from [15] to compute I_s and I'_T from K_s and K'_T using each one inversion and a few additions and multiplications modulo d_s or d_T , respectively. The IdealToIsogeny algorithms are in poly $(\log p)$. Finding the isogenies can be done efficiently with the algorithms from SQIsign [15] or SQIsign2D-West [5] for Algorithms 6 or 7, and the evaluation of the resulting chains of 2- or (2, 2)-isogenies is also efficient. Finally, we have to compute $\tilde{j}_T = j(\tilde{E}_T)$ and $u = m \ominus F(\tilde{j}_T)$. Since we chose F and the group operation in M to be efficiently computable and $d_s \le p$, we get that the algorithm takes time $t_{\rm com} \in \operatorname{poly}(\log p)$.

Lemma 5.17. The maximal number of operations t_{cv} for algorithm ComVrfy is a small constant.

Proof. The algorithm has to complete three tasks. First it has to check if E_s is an elliptic curve. To do that, it suffices to check that the discriminant is non-zero. For curves in short Weierstraß form $E: y^2 = x^3 + Ax + B$ this is just $4A^3 \neq -27B^2$. To check if K_T is a point on E_s it can simply compute if K_T satisfies the curve equation. Finally, membership testing for $u \in M$ is efficient by definition of M. For $M = \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ this means checking if u is an integer (and if $0 \leq u < N$). So all this can be done in very few operations and their number is independent of the size of d_s , d_T , p and κ .

Remark 5.18. If we also check ord $K_T \mid d_T$ as suggested in Remark 4.2, we need to compute $[d_T]K_T$. This takes $O(\log d_T)$ operations, but for sufficiently non-smooth $d_T = \prod q_i^{e_i}$ we can assume that $\log d_T \ll \sum e_i \sqrt{q_i}$, i.e. scalar multiplication by d_T is faster than evaluating an isogeny of degree d_T . In this case ConVrfy is still faster than FDecom.

Lemma 5.19. The decommitment verification algorithm DecVrfy takes time $t_{dv} \in poly(\log p)$.

Proof. The decommitment verification has the same steps as the commitment. There are only three differences: Firstly, it gets s, t from π_{dec} instead of choosing them and hence does not need to try again for bad choices of t. Secondly, it has to compare the E_s and K_T it computes to the ones in the commitment and m to the decommitment. And thirdly, it computes IdealToIsogeny as deterministic algorithm using \mathbf{r} from π_{dec} . This makes its version of IdealToIsogeny faster. Since these differences are computationally insignificant we get that the algorithm also takes time $t_{dv} \in poly(\log p)$.

Note that the running times of Com, ComVrfy and DecVrfy are not dominated by d_T . Even for low security levels like $\kappa = 128$ we get that $\log p \ll p^{1/8} \lesssim d_s^{1/4}$. Since $t_{\rm fd}$ can be almost as large as $d_s^{1/4}$, the previous Lemmas 5.16, 5.17 and 5.19 show that we can choose $t_{\rm fd}$ such that $t_{\rm com}, t_{\rm cv}, t_{\rm dv} \ll t_{\rm fd}$. This gives us the following theorem:

Theorem 5.20. SIGNITC is perfectly practical under Assumptions 5.6 and 5.7.

Assumption 5.4 allows us to choose $d_T = \prod_{i=1}^r q_i^{e_i}$ more explicitly such that $t_{\text{com}}, t_{\text{cv}}, t_{\text{dv}} \ll \sum_{i=1}^r e_i \sqrt{q_i}$ (and $\log d_T \ll \sum e_i \sqrt{q_i}$ if we want to check ord $K_T \mid d_T$ in ComVrfy).

Conclusion

We showed that SIGNITC is a perfectly practical NITC that satisfies hiding and perfect binding. It is the first NITC without repeated squaring or black box algorithms, it needs no trusted setup and all subroutines have already been implemented for other cryptosystems. Since it uses only isogeny-based cryptography, it is presumably quantum secure. Since repeated squaring might not be a good candidate for creating a delay anymore, this could also be an interesting starting point for isogeny-based delay in other settings.

Finally, we list some open topics for further research. The most obvious one is to implement this protocol to get some benchmarks for (relative) realworld timings and to choose some specific parameters. Another open question is how this can be optimized. A recent paper [12] introduces new algorithms that can potentially improve the precomputations in PGen. We only looked at the number of operations regardless of the field extensions. Since working in higher extension fields can significantly slow down the computations, it might be beneficial to represent our isogenies other than with one point in a (possibly large) extension field. Other optimizations might include different ways to find a corresponding ideal given an isogeny, and improvements to KLPT like [36].

Choosing the best IdealToIsogeny algorithm for SIGNITC is another open question. KLPT and similar methods used in SQISign give ideals of norm $d \ge p^3$

so the *d*-torsion is not \mathbb{F}_{p^4} -rational. Computing an isogeny corresponding to such an ideal is the bottleneck in SQISign and there are already several approaches to improve this step. SQISign computes them in blocks and AprèsSQI [17] tries to reduce the number of blocks. In [28] they try to reduce the needed extension degree and give some general speedups. Other approaches [5, 19, 26, 33, 34, 35] use higher dimensional isogenies to avoid (higher) extension fields or to lift smoothness requirements on the norm *d* of the equivalent ideal. We only need to know (the *j*-invariant of) the codomain and do not need to evaluate the isogeny on any points. So it would be interesting to see if these approaches can improve Algorithms 6 and 7.

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A Example Parameters

This is an example of how realistic parameters might look like. These are all based on estimates and assumptions. An implementation is needed to choose definitive parameters. We give three sets of parameters. One for the 1-dimensional IdealToIsogeny Algorithm 6 using a SQISign-friendly prime and two for the 2-dimensional IdealToIsogeny Algorithm 7 with primes for higher dimensional versions of SQISign.

A.1 1-dimensional IdealToIsogeny

For a security of NIST level I with $\kappa=128$ we can take the SQI sign-friendly prime $p=p_{1973}^I$ with

and $\log_2 p_{1973}^I \approx 251.9$ from the specifications of SQIsign [15]. The \mathbb{F}_{p^4} -rational torsion is

 $p^{2} - 1 = 2^{76} \cdot 3^{36} \cdot 7^{4} \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 23^{2} \cdot 37 \cdot 59^{2} \cdot 89 \cdot 97 \cdot 101^{2} \cdot 107 \cdot 109^{2} \cdot 131 \cdot 137$ $\cdot 197^{2} \cdot 223 \cdot 239 \cdot 383 \cdot 389 \cdot 491^{2} \cdot 499 \cdot 607 \cdot 743^{2} \cdot 1033 \cdot 1049 \cdot 1193$ $\cdot 1913^{2} \cdot 1973 \cdot 32587069 \cdot 275446333 \cdot 1031359276391767$

and we choose $d_s = 2^{150}$. As mentioned in Remark 4.3, we have to use a method similar to [15, Algorithm 14] to produce isogenies of degree d_s as the maximal power of 2 that divides p+1 is 2^{75} . For Algorithm 6 we use the same additional \mathbb{F}_{p^4} -torsion

 $\begin{array}{c} 3^{36} \cdot 7^4 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 23^2 \cdot 37 \cdot 59^2 \cdot 89 \cdot 97 \cdot 101^2 \cdot 107 \cdot 109^2 \cdot 131 \cdot 137 \cdot 197^2 \cdot 223 \\ \cdot 239 \cdot 383 \cdot 389 \cdot 491^2 \cdot 499 \cdot 607 \cdot 743^2 \cdot 1033 \cdot 1049 \cdot 1193 \cdot 1913^2 \cdot 1973 \end{array}$

for translating as in SQIsign. For the group $M = \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$ we need N smaller than 1036363420827959282, e.g. $N = 2^{59}$. The delay has to be $t_{\rm fd} \leq 194368031998$. Using Sage for computing isogenies we can choose

$$d_T = 7^4 \cdot 11 \cdot 13 \cdot 37 \cdot 89 \cdot 97 \cdot 107 \cdot 131 \cdot 137 \cdot 223 \cdot 239 \cdot 383 \cdot 389 \cdot 499 \cdot 607$$
$$\cdot 1033 \cdot 1049 \cdot 1193 \cdot 1973 \cdot 32587069 \cdot 275446333$$

for a delay of roughly 1 minute and we estimate that $d_T = 1031359276391767$ will cause a delay of roughly 1 day. Both divide p-1 so we only need extension degree e = 2 and can work in \mathbb{F}_{p^4} or even in \mathbb{F}_{p^2} using quadratic twists.

A.2 2-dimensional IdealToIsogeny

For a security of NIST level I with $\kappa = 128$ we have several options. We could choose the prime $p = 2^{216}3^{137} - 1$ from the SIKEp434 parameter set [30], but for 2-dimensional IdealToIsogeny algorithms primes of the form $p = c2^k - 1$ with c as small as possible are preferable. We can choose $p = 79 \cdot 2^{247} - 1$ as in [35] or we take the prime $p = 5 \cdot 2^{248} - 1$ from SQIsign2D-West [5].

[35] or we take the prime $p = 5 \cdot 2^{248} - 1$ from SQIsign2D-West [5]. For $p = 5 \cdot 2^{248} - 1$ we choose $d_s = 2^{248}$ and $N \le 574673255585861476$ for the group $M = \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$, e.g. $N = 2^{58}$. The delay has to be $t_{\rm fd} < 2^{62}$ and we can choose $d_T = 5 \cdot 7 \cdot 3631 \cdot 2857849$ for e = 3.

For $p = 79 \cdot 2^{247} - 1$ we choose $d_s = 2^{247}$ and $N \le 963446845306433641$ for the group $M = \mathbb{Z}/N\mathbb{Z}$, e.g. $N = 2^{59}$. The delay has to be $t_{\rm fd} \le 3877950241171266237$ and we can choose $d_T = 7 \cdot 13 \cdot 19 \cdot 79 \cdot 21313$ for e = 3.

Estimating the actual delay is difficult due to the field extensions. Finding primes p such that p + 1 contains a large power of 2 and $p^2 - 1$ contains some primes of size at most 2^{60} would allow for different delays within \mathbb{F}_{p^4} . This is related to the search for SQISign-friendly primes, e.g. [1, 10, 15, 18, 22].

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