# Avoiding Trusted Setup in Isogeny-based Commitments 

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#### Abstract

In 2021, Sterner proposed a commitment scheme based on supersingular isogenies. For this scheme to be binding, one relies on a trusted party to generate a starting supersingular elliptic curve of unknown endomorphism ring. In fact, the knowledge of the endomorphism ring allows one to compute an endomorphism of degree a power of a given small prime. Such an endomorphism can then be split into two to obtain two different messages with the same commitment. This is the reason why one needs a curve of unknown endomorphism ring, and the only known way to generate such supersingular curves is to rely on a trusted party or on some expensive multiparty computation. We observe that if the degree of the endomorphism in play is well chosen, then the knowledge of the endomorphism ring is not sufficient to efficiently compute such an endomorphism and in some particular cases, one can even prove that endomorphism of a certain degree do not exist. Leveraging these observations, we adapt Sterner's commitment scheme in such a way that the endomorphism ring of the starting curve can be known and public. This allows us to obtain isogeny-based commitment schemes which can be instantiated without trusted setup requirements.


Keywords: Supersingular isogenies, Post-Quantum Cryptography, IsogenyBased Cryptography, commitment schemes.

## 1 Introduction

A commitment scheme allows to commit to a message while keeping its content hidden until a desired moment. Such schemes play an important role in Cryptography, namely in proofs of knowledge 17|14 and electronic vote [16|13]. The two security requirements for commitment schemes are the binding and the hiding property. The binding property ensures that a message can not be changed after it has been committed to. The hiding property ensures that it must be impossible to learn any information about the message from its commitment. The most currently used commitment scheme is the Pedersen commitment [28], whose binding property is due to the uniqueness of the discrete
logarithm, and the hiding property is based on the discrete logarithm problem. The discret logarithm problem can be solved with a quantum computer by using Shor's quantum algorithm [31, which also solves the integer factorization problem. Hence, the Pedersen scheme is not quantum safe, as well as protocols whose security is based on the discrete logarithm problem and integer factorization problem. Some alternatives to protocols whose security is based on discrete logarithm problem and integer factorization problem are lattice-based protocols, code-based protocols, isogeny-based protocols etc. In this paper, we are interested in isogeny-based commitments. The existing isogeny-based commitment scheme is proposed by Sterner [33]. This commitment scheme is constructed from CGL hash function [9, a hash function constructed with supersingular isogeny graph.

In 2006, Charles, Goren and Lauter [9] introduced a new method for constructing hash functions (the CGL hash function), which uses expander graphs. The method consists of constructing a path defined by the message in a graph, from a public fixed starting vertex to a vertex whose label is the hash of the message. One concrete example of expander graph used for CGL hash function is the supersingular $\ell$-isogeny graph 30, whose vertices are isomorphism classes of supersingular elliptic curves and edges are isogenies of degree $\ell$ up to composition by authomorphisms, where $\ell$ is a small prime. The collision resistance of CGL hash function is based on the problem of computing $\ell$-power degree endomorphisms of the starting curve. The pre-image resistance is based on the hardness of the supersingular $\ell$-isogeny path problem, which consists of computing an isogeny of degree a power of $\ell$ between two random supersingular elliptic curves. This problem is believed to be hard, even for a quantum computer. The best known algorithm for solving it has complexity $O\left(p^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)$ for classical computers [21] and $O\left(p^{\frac{1}{4}}\right)$ for quantum computers [5], where $p$ is the characteristic the base field.

Sterner's commitment scheme 33 can be summarized as follows. The space of messages is $\mathcal{M}=\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{*}$. For $m \in \mathcal{M}$, the commitment for $m$ is $\operatorname{CGL}(m \| r)$, where $r$ is sampled at random from $\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{r}}$ for some integer $k_{r}$. The hiding property is based on the fact that $k_{r}$ should be greater than the mixing constant of the supersingular $\ell$-isogeny graph in play. For such value of $k_{r}\left(\right.$ say $\left.k_{r}>2 \log _{\ell} p\right)$ and some message of length $k_{m}, \ell^{k_{m}+k_{r}}>2 \log _{\ell} p$ is large enough so that we can efficiently compute an endomorphism of degree $\ell^{2\left(k_{r}+k_{m}\right)}>p^{4}$ when the endomorphism of the starting curve is known [20|25]. Such an endomorphism represents a collision in the $\ell$-isogeny graph, which compromises the binding property of this scheme. In order to avoid this, one uses a curve with unknown endomorphism ring. Unfortunately, all existing methods for efficiently constructing supersingular elliptic curves [7|26] allow the person generating the curve to efficiently recover its endomorphism ring. To solve this issue, the author suggests to delegate the generation of the starting curve to a trusted third party. Basso et al. [3] introduced a multiparty computation method for implementing such a trusted party. Such method requires a lot of resources.

In this work, we propose two approaches to avoid the trusted setup. These two approaches share the same idea which can be summarized as follows. We modify Sterner's commitment scheme so that the message space consists of messages of fixed length $k_{m}$ and the random string $r$ used to compute the commitment to $m$ is of length $k_{r}$ where $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ are such that either endomorphisms of degree $\ell^{2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)}$ do not exist, or they exist but finding them is hard.

- The first approach consists of using as starting curve, the curve $E_{6}: y^{2}=$ $x^{3}+6 x^{2}+x$ for which we can easily avoid endomorphisms of small degree in the setting of this commitment scheme. In fact it was shown in [27] that in a specific setting, some relatively short isogenies never have the same co-domain, hence there are no collisions. With this approach, we obtain a perfect binding and computationally hiding commitment scheme.
- The second approach consists of using a uniformly random supersingular elliptic curve as starting curve. Such an elliptic curve can be generated by using the CGL hash function to hash a long nothing-up-my-sleeve string. We then take $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ so that existing algorithms to compute an endomorphism of given degree cannot be used to efficiently compute an endomorphism of degree $\ell^{2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)}$. We obtain a computationally binding and computationally hiding commitment scheme.

We stress that going from messages of arbitrary size (as it is the case in [33]) to messages of bounded size does not have a significant impact on protocols using commitment schemes. In fact, even the Pedersen commitment [28] uses $\mathbb{Z} / q \mathbb{Z}$ as message space, for some prime $q$. This is also the case in bit-commitment 15 used in electronic vote [16] and coin flipping [6]. Moreover, the definition of commitment scheme given in [14 consider the message space to be a finite set.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: In Section 2, we give some preliminaries on commitment schemes, isogenies and quaternion algebras; and we describe the CGL hash function. Sterner's commitment scheme is presented in Section 3. In Section 4. we present the first approach of our construction and in Section 5 we discuss the smallest $\ell$-power degree endomorphism that can be efficiently computed, together with the second approach. We conclude the paper in Section 6

## 2 Commitment Schemes, Isogenies and Quaternion Algebras

In this section, we recall some background about commitment schemes, elliptic curves and isogenies.

### 2.1 Commitment Schemes

A commitment scheme consists of two probabilistic polynomial-time algorithms KeyGen and Commit and a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm Open described as follows.

- KeyGen $\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ takes the security parameter as input and outputs the public parameters pp needed for the protocol, as well as the message space $\mathcal{M}$.
- Commit(pp, $m, r$ ) : Given the public parameters pp, a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and a uniformly random string $r$ sampled from a space $\mathcal{R}$, outputs a value $c$ which is the commitment to $m$.
- Open(pp, $m, r, c$ ): Given the public parameters pp, a message $m$, a string $r$ and a value $c$, verifies if $c$ is a valid commitment for $m$ and $r$. It returns a boolean $b \in\{0,1\}$.

The hiding and the binding properties are modeled by the following games.

```
Hidinggame \(_{\mathrm{b}}(\mathcal{A})\)
    \(\mathrm{pp} \leftarrow \operatorname{KeyGen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)\)
    \(\left(\mathrm{m}_{0}, \mathrm{~m}_{1}\right) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathrm{pp})\)
    \(r \stackrel{\$}{\leftarrow} \mathcal{R}\)
    \(\mathrm{c} \leftarrow \operatorname{Commit}\left(\mathrm{pp}, \mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{b}}, \mathrm{r}\right)\)
    \(b^{\prime} \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathrm{c})\)
    return \(b^{\prime}\)
Bindinggame \((\mathcal{A})\)
    \(\mathrm{pp} \leftarrow \operatorname{KeyGen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)\)
    \(\left(\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{m}^{\prime}, \mathrm{r}^{\prime}, \mathrm{c}\right) \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathrm{pp})\)
    return \(\left(m \neq m^{\prime}\right) \&\left(\operatorname{Open}(p p, m, c, r)==\left(p p, m^{\prime}, c, r^{\prime}\right)==1\right)\)
```

The hiding game is modelled like an indistinguishability game. An adversary chooses two distinct messages $m_{0}$ and $m_{1}$ and submits to an oracle. In the Hidinggame ${ }_{0}$, one commits to $m_{0}$ while in the game Hidinggame ${ }_{1}$ one commits to $m_{1}$. The adversary wins the game if it can correctly guess in which game he is (Hidinggame ${ }_{0}$ or Hidinggame ${ }_{1}$ ). In the binding game, the adversary wins if it can find two distinct messages from the message space with the same commitment.

For the security analysis, we use the following definition of negligible function from [23].

Definition 1. A function $\varepsilon: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow[0,1]$ is negligible if for all $c \geq 0$, there exists $k_{c} \geq 0$ such that $\varepsilon(k)<\frac{1}{k^{c}}$ for all $k>k_{c}$.

The security of a commitment scheme depends on the ability of an adversary to win the hiding game or the binding game. This ability is evaluated using its advantage against these games.

Definition 2. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a commitment scheme and $\lambda$ a security parameter. The hiding advantage and the binding advantage for an adversary $\mathcal{A}$, are respectively defined by

$$
A d v_{\mathcal{C}}^{h i d}(\mathcal{A})=\mid \operatorname{Pr}\left(\text { Hidinggame }_{1} \text { returns } 1\right)-\operatorname{Pr}\left(\text { Hidinggame }_{0} \text { returns } 1\right) \mid
$$

and

$$
A d v_{\mathcal{C}}^{b i n d}(\mathcal{A})=\operatorname{Pr}[\mathcal{A} \text { wins the binding game }]
$$

We say that $\mathcal{C}$ is information-theoretically (resp. computationally) hiding if for all adversary (resp. PPT adversary) $\mathcal{A}$, there is a negligible function negl, such that $\operatorname{Adv}_{\mathcal{C}}^{\text {hid }}(\mathcal{A}) \leq \operatorname{negl}(\lambda)$. Furthermore, $\mathcal{C}$ has perfect hiding if $\operatorname{Adv} v_{\mathcal{C}}^{\text {hid }}(\mathcal{A})=0$ for any adversary.

The information-theoretical binding, the computational binding and the perfect binding are defined similarly, replacing $A d v_{\mathcal{C}}^{h i d}(\mathcal{A})$ by $A d v_{\mathcal{C}}^{b i n d}(\mathcal{A})$.

A black box way to build a commitment scheme is to use a hash function as follows. Let $H:\{0,1\}^{*} \rightarrow\{0,1\}^{t}$ be a hash function. For a given message $m$, the algorithm Commit returns $c=H(m \| r)$ where $r$ is a random string. In the opening phase, the message $m$ is reveled together with the string $r$. The algorithm Open consists to verify if $c=H(m \| r)$ holds. The isogeny based construction 33] follows this idea, using the CGL hash function, an isogeny based hash function introduced by Charles, Goren and Lauter [9]. To understand the isogeny based commitment scheme, we give a little background on isogenies.

### 2.2 Elliptic Curves and Isogenies

In this section, we recall some useful notions on elliptic curves and isogenies. Any interested reader can refer to Silverman's book [32] or Washington's book [36] for more details.

Definition 3. Let $K$ be a field. An elliptic curve defined over $K$ is a projective regular algebraic curve of genus one defined over $K$.

Any elliptic curve defined over $K$ has a Weierstrass affine equation $E: y^{2}+a_{1} x y+$ $a_{3} y=x^{3}+a_{2} x^{2}+a_{4} x+a_{6}$. If the characteristic of $K$ is different from 2 and 3 , then this equation can be reduced to an equation of the form $y^{2}=x^{3}+b_{4} x+b_{6}$ with $\Delta(E)=4 b_{4}^{3}+27 b_{6}^{2} \neq 0$. The $j$-invariant of a curve $E: y^{2}=x^{3}+b_{4} x+b_{6}$ is defined by $j(E)=1728 \frac{4 b_{4}^{3}}{4 b_{4}^{3}+27 b_{6}^{2}}=1728 \frac{4 b_{4}^{3}}{\Delta(E)}$, and characterizes the isomorphism class of $E$. This means that any other elliptic curve isomorphic to $E$ has the same $j$-invariant. Any elliptic curve has an abelian group structure. Any rational map which preserves the group structure of elliptic curves is called isogeny. More formally, we have the following definition.

Definition 4. Let $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ be two elliptic curves. An isogeny between $E$ and $E^{\prime}$ is a rational map $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ such that $\varphi\left(O_{E}\right)=O_{E^{\prime}}$.

Any isogeny $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ is a group homomorphism and is defined by $\varphi(x, y)=$ $\left(\frac{u_{1}(x)}{v_{1}(x)}, y \frac{u_{2}(x)}{v_{2}(x)}\right)$. This formulation allows us to define the degree of an isogeny.

Definition 5. Let $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ be an isogeny defined by $\varphi(x, y)=\left(\frac{u_{1}(x)}{v_{1}(x)}, y \frac{u_{2}(x)}{v_{2}(x)}\right)$ where $u_{1}(x)$ and $v_{1}(x)$ are co-prime polynomials. The degree of $\varphi$ is the integer $\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)=\max \left\{\operatorname{deg}\left(u_{1}\right), \operatorname{deg}\left(v_{1}\right)\right\}$. If the derivative $\left(\frac{u_{1}}{v_{1}}\right)^{\prime}(x)$ is not identically 0 , we say that $\varphi$ is separable.

For any isogeny $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$, there is a unique isogeny (up to isomorphism) $\bar{\varphi}: E^{\prime} \rightarrow E$, the dual isogeny of $\varphi, \operatorname{such}$ that $\varphi \circ \bar{\varphi}=[\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)]$ and $\bar{\varphi} \circ \varphi=[\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)]$, where $[\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)]$ denotes the multiplication by $\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)$. When $\varphi$ is a separable as it will be the case in this article, we have $\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)=\# \operatorname{Ker} \varphi$. The kernel of any isogeny $\varphi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ is a finite subgroup of $E$. Conversely, given a finite subgroup $G$ of an elliptic curve $E$, there exists a unique isogeny (up to composition by an isomorphism) of kernel $G$. This isogeny can be computed and evaluated using Vélu's formulas [34. We denote the codomain curve of this isogeny by $E / G$. Two isogenies with a same domain are said to be equivalent if they have the same kernel. This implies that they have isomorphic codomains. If an isogeny $\varphi$ is decomposed as $\varphi=\varphi_{1} \circ \varphi_{2}$, then we have $\operatorname{deg}(\varphi)=\operatorname{deg}\left(\varphi_{1}\right) \operatorname{deg}\left(\varphi_{2}\right)$. Hence, for a prime $\ell$, an isogeny of degree $\ell^{e}$ can be viewed as a sequence of $e$ isogenies of degree $\ell$. Such a sequence of is a path in the $\ell$-isogeny graph.

Definition 6. Let $p$ an $\ell$ be two distinct primes. The $\ell$-isogeny graphs in characteristic $p$ is the graph whose vertices are isomorphism classes of elliptic curves defined over the algebraic closure $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_{p}$ of the field $\mathbb{F}_{p}$ and edges are equivalence classes of isogenies of degree $\ell$ defined over $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_{p}$.

The vertices of the $\ell$-isogeny graph are labeled by $j$-invariants of elliptic curves. Given a prime $p$, the $\ell$-isogeny graph in characteristic $p$ has two sub-graphs, the sub-graph of which vertices are isomorphism classes of supersingular elliptic curves and that of which vertices are isomorphism classes of ordinary elliptic curves. The first sub-graph is a component called the supersingular $\ell$-isogeny graph and denoted by $G_{\ell}(p)$. In characteristic $p$, the $j$-invariant of any supersingular elliptic curve (supersingular $j$-invariant for short) is an element of $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$. The nature of an elliptic curve (ordinary or supersingular) is given by the structure of its endomorphism ring.

Given an elliptic curve $E$, an endomorphism of $E$ is an isogeny from $E$ to $E$. Such isogenies form a ring $\operatorname{End}(E)$, where multiplication is the natural maps composition. When $E$ is defined over a field of characteristic $p, E$ is said to be ordinary if $\operatorname{End}(E)$ is isomorphic to an order in an imaginary quadratic field, and supersingular if $\operatorname{End}(E)$ is isomorphic to a maximal order in the quaternion algebras $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$ ramified at $p$ and $\infty$.

### 2.3 Quaternion Algebra

In this section, we present a little background on quaternion algebras that will allow us to understand the computation of endomorphisms of supersingular elliptic curves in Section 5.1. For more details about this notion, the reader can refer to John Voight's book [35].

Definition 7. A quaternion algebra over a field $K$ is a $K$-algebra of which the underlying $K$-vector space is generated by $\{1, i, j, k\}$ where $i, j$ and $k$ satisfy $i^{2}=a ; j^{2}=b$ and $k=i j=-j i$ for some $a, b \in K \backslash\{0\}$. Such quaternion algebra is noted by $\left(\frac{a, b}{K}\right)$.

In this paper, we are interested in quaternion algebras over $\mathbb{Q}$. Let $p$ be a prime. We denote by $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$ the quaternion algebra ramified ${ }^{4}$ only at $p$ and $\infty$, which is defined by

$$
\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}=\left(\frac{-q,-p}{\mathbb{Q}}\right)
$$

where $q$ is in $\{1,2\}$ or is a prime congruent to 3 modulo 4 . One defines the norm and trace of a quaternion $x=x_{1}+i x_{2}+j x_{3}+k x_{4}$ by $\operatorname{Nrd}(x)=x \bar{x}$ and $\operatorname{Trd}(x)=x+\bar{x}$ respectively, where $\bar{x}=x_{1}-\left(i x_{2}+j x_{3}+k x_{4}\right)$ is the conjugate of $x$.

The principal link between supersingular elliptic curves and quaternion algebras is that the endomorphism ring of any supersingular elliptic curve defined over a field of characteristic $p$ is isomorphic to a maximal order in $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$. Conversely, any maximal order in $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$ is isomorphic to the endomorphism ring of a supersingular elliptic curve.
Definition 8. An order in $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$ is a $\mathbb{Z}$-sub module $\mathcal{O}$ of $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$ such that $\mathcal{O} \otimes \mathbb{Q}=$ $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty} . \mathcal{O}$ is said to be maximal if it is not contained in another order.

Using the correspondence between maximal orders in $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$ and endomorphism ring of supersingular elliptic curves, the degree of an endomorphism corresponds to the norm of the associated quaternion. Hence, finding an endomorphism of $E$ of degree $d$ is equivalent to finding a quaternion of norm $d$ in the maximal order of $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$ isomorphic to $\operatorname{End}(E)$. Now we describe the CGL hash function.

### 2.4 Supersingular $\ell$-isogeny Graph and CGL Hash Function

In characteristic $p$, the number of supersingular $j$-invariants is $N_{p}=\left[\frac{p}{12}\right]+\epsilon$, where $\epsilon \in\{0,1,2\}$.

Let $\ell \neq p$ be a prime. The graph $G_{\ell}(p)$ is a connected $(\ell+1)$-regular graph, with the Ramanujan property[30]. It is an example of expander graph which can be used to build a hash function (9). This hash function is constructed as follows.
Setup:

- Fix a prime $p$ and a starting supersingular elliptic curve $E$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$;
- Fix a small prime $\ell \neq p$ and a point $P_{0} \in E[\ell]$ of order $\ell$, where $E[\ell]$ is the $\ell$-torsion subgroup of $E$;
- Define a canonical order in the set of points of order $\ell$ in any supersingular elliptic curve;
- The message space is $\mathcal{M}=\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{*}$.


## Hashing:

Let $m=\left(m_{1}, \ldots, m_{k}\right) \in \mathcal{M}$.

1. Set $E_{0}=E$;
2. for $i=1,2, \ldots, k$

[^0](a) Avoiding the point $P_{i-1}$, order the $\ell$ remaining points of order $\ell$ and successively label them with the bits from 0 to $\ell-1$;
(b) Set $S_{i-1}$ to be the point corresponding to $m_{i}$ and compute the isogeny $\varphi_{i}: E_{i-1} \rightarrow E_{i}$ of kernel $\left\langle S_{i-1}\right\rangle ;$
(c) Set $P_{i}=\varphi_{i}\left(P_{i-1}\right) \in E_{i}$;
3. Return $j\left(E_{k}\right)$

We denote this algorithm by $\operatorname{CGL}\left(E, \ell, P_{0}, m\right)$. A more efficient algorithm can be found in 19.

We now describe the isogeny-based commitment scheme following Sterner's construction 33].

## 3 Sterner's Isogeny-based Commitment Scheme

Sterner's isogeny-based commitment scheme is described as follows.
$\operatorname{Key} \operatorname{Gen}\left(1^{\lambda}\right)$ : Given a security parameter $\lambda$, fix a prime $p$ of bit length depending on $\lambda$; a small prime $\ell$; a positive integer $k_{r}$ and a supersingular elliptic curve $E / \mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$, together with a point $P_{0} \in E[\ell]$ of order $\ell$. The public parameters are pp $:=\left\{p, \ell, E, k_{r}, P_{0}\right\}$ and the message space is $\mathcal{M}=\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{*}$.

Commit (pp, $m, r$ ) : Given the public parameters, a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and a random $r \in\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{r}}$, return $c=\operatorname{CGL}\left(E, \ell, P_{0}, m \| r\right)$.

Open(pp, $m, r, c$ ) : Given the public parameters; a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$; a string $r \in\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{r}}$ and a commitment $c$, return 1 if $c=\operatorname{CGL}\left(E, \ell, P_{0}, m \| r\right)$ and 0 otherwise.

Remark 9. In the original paper, to commit to a message $m$, one first computes $E_{m}=E(\operatorname{CGL}(E, \ell, m))$, followed by $c=\operatorname{CGL}\left(E_{m}, \ell, r\right)$. The paper says that the computations are done in such a way that there is no backtracking. It is not clear how these computations explicitly avoid backtracking. In fact, when one calls the CGL hash function on $m$, one gets $E_{m}$ and nothing else. Explicitly avoiding backtracking when computing $c=\operatorname{CGL}\left(E_{m}, \ell, r\right)$ requires the knowledge of the last isogeny step in the computation of $E_{m}=E(\operatorname{CGL}(E, \ell, m))$. Hence the correct way to proceed is to concatenate the message $m$ and the string $r$ before giving them as inputs to the hash function.

Now we move to the security properties of Sterner's commitment scheme.

### 3.1 Hiding Property

In the context of the commitment scheme described above, the hiding game involves finding two isogenies $\varphi_{0}: E \rightarrow E_{0}$ and $\varphi_{1}: E \rightarrow E_{1}$ of $\ell$-power degree and a distinguisher $\mathcal{D}$ such that, for a given curve $E^{\prime}$ computed from a (hidden) random cyclic isogeny $\psi: E_{b} \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ of degree $\ell^{k_{r}}$ such that $\psi \circ \varphi_{b}$ is a cyclic isogeny for a random $b \in\{0,1\}, \mathcal{D}$ can distinguish which curve has been used as domain of the isogeny $\psi$. When $k_{r}$ is such that there exists an isogeny of degree $\ell^{k_{r}}$ between any pair of supersingular elliptic curves defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$, the
advantage of any distinguisher is less than $\left(\frac{\ell+1}{2 \sqrt{\ell}}\right)^{-k_{r}}$ [33]. Such value of $k_{r}$ is formally defined as follows.

Definition 10. Let $G$ be a d-regular connected graph. The mixing constant of $G$ is the smallest value $k_{G} \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $k \geq k_{G}$, for all pair of vertices $\left(j_{1}, j_{2}\right)$, there is a path of length $k$ between $j_{1}$ and $j_{2}$.

For the $\ell$-isogeny graph in characteristic $p$, we denote the mixing constant by $k_{\ell, p}$. The hiding property of the above commitment scheme is given by the following theorem from [33, Theorem 4.2].

Theorem 11. Let $\mathcal{C}$ be the isogeny based commitment scheme described above, and $k_{r}$ the length of the random path used in $\mathcal{C}$. If $k_{r} \geq k_{\ell, p}$, then $\mathcal{C}$ is informationtheoretically hiding.

By [33, Lemma 3.5], $k_{\ell, p}$ is lower bounded by $\log _{\ell}\left(\frac{N_{p}}{\ell+1}\right)+1$. Hence, we should take $k_{r}>\log _{\ell}(p)$ to expect $\mathcal{C}$ to be hiding.

### 3.2 Binding Property

In the context of the above isogeny based commitment scheme, the binding game involves finding two distinct cyclic isogenies $\varphi_{0}: E \rightarrow E_{0}$ and $\varphi_{1}: E \rightarrow E_{1}$ of $\ell$-power degree and two other cyclic isogenies $\psi_{0}: E_{0} \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ and $\psi_{1}: E_{1} \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ of degree $\ell^{k_{r}}$ such that $\psi_{0} \circ \varphi_{0}$ and $\psi_{1} \circ \varphi_{1}$ are cyclic isogenies. This is exactly a collision in the supersingular $\ell$-isogeny graph, and is equivalent to finding an endomorphism of $E$ which has $\ell$-power degree. This fact is formalized in 33, Theorem 4.6], where the author shows that the scheme $\mathcal{C}$ is computationally binding, assuming the hardness of the following Problem 12

Problem 12 (Supersingular $\ell$-power Endomorphism Problem). Given a prime $p$, a supersingular elliptic curve E over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$ and a small prime $\ell$, compute a non-trivial cyclic endomorphism of E whose degree is $\ell^{e}$, where $e$ is a positive integer.

When the endomorphism ring of $E$ is known, solving this problem consists of solving a norm equation in the maximal order $\mathcal{O} \cong \operatorname{End}(E)$ of the quaternion algebra $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$. This can be done by [20, Algorithm 13] and [25, Algorithm 8]. So for this commitment scheme to be binding, ideally, we need a starting curve with unknown endomorphism ring. Since all existing efficient methods for constructing a supersingular elliptic curve [10] allow the one constructing the curve to recover its endomorphism ring [7|26], one needs a trusted party to generate the starting curve. One method to implement such trusted party is given by 3]. This method involves a multiparty computation, and require a lot of resources to be performed. In this paper, we modify this commitment scheme in such a way that the trusted setup is avoided.

In the original version of the Sterner's scheme presented at the beginning of this Section, the message space is $\mathcal{M}=\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{*}$, and the starting curve
is required to have a hidden endomorphism ring. The first major modification we bring is that we allow a starting curve of known endomorphism ring. In this situation, we have a binding issue: Knowing the endomorphism ring, one can compute a cycle in $G_{\ell}(p)$ using [20, Algorithm 13] and [25, Algorithm 8]. In order to fix this issue, we modify the message space: we take $\mathcal{M}=\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{m}}$ where $k_{m}$ is a fixed integer. We then need to take $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ (the length of the random string) so that an endomorphism of degree lower than $\ell^{2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)}$ does not exists or is hard to compute. The first approach consists of using as starting curve, the curve $E_{6}: y^{2}=x^{3}+6 x^{2}+x$ where endomorphisms of small degree do not exist ${ }^{5}$

## 4 Committing from the Curve $\boldsymbol{E}_{6}$

Here we use the curve $E_{6}: y^{2}=x^{3}+6 x^{2}+x$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$ where $p \equiv$ $15(\operatorname{Mod} 16)$. Contributing to the security analysis of SIDH/SIKE, Onuki 27] investigated on the existence of endomorphism of degree $\ell^{e}<p$ on this curve.

Theorem 13 ([27]). Let $\ell$ be a prime number that does not split in $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-1}]$, $\phi=\left(\phi_{1}, \ldots, \phi_{n}\right)$ and $\psi=\left(\psi_{1}, \ldots, \psi_{m}\right)$ two distinct paths of respective lengths $n$ and $m$ from $E_{6}$ to the same curve $E$ in $G_{\ell}(p)$ without backtracking. Then one of the following holds:

- $\ell^{n+m} \geq \frac{p+1}{16}$;
- $\ell=2$ and either $\phi$ or $\psi$ has a form $\phi^{\prime} \circ \phi_{0}$ where $\phi_{0}: E_{6} \rightarrow E(1728)$ is of degree 2 and $E(1728)$ has $j$-invariant 1728.

It follows that there does not exist a cycle of length less than $\frac{p+1}{16}$ in the $\ell$-isogeny graph which begins with $E_{6}$ when $\ell \neq 2$. In the case where $\ell=2$, the first edge of such a cycle is the 2 -isogeny whose codomain is the curve of $j$-invariant 1728 . The adjustment of $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ can then be done so that $\ell^{2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)}<\frac{p+1}{16}$. We describe the protocol as follows.

### 4.1 Description of the Commitment Scheme

Our idea is to use the curve $E_{6}$ as starting curve, and take $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ such that $k_{m}+k_{r}<\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$. We designate this scheme by $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}$ and described it as follows.

KeyGen $\left(1^{\lambda}\right):$ Given a security parameter $\lambda$, fix a prime $p \equiv 15(\bmod 16)$, two positive integers $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ (The size of $p, k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ will be given later in Section 4.4). Let $\ell$ be a small prime equal to 2 or congruent to 3 modulo 4 and $P_{0} \in E_{6}[\ell]$. When $\ell=2$, the point $P_{0}$ is such that $j\left(E_{6} /\left\langle P_{0}\right\rangle\right)=1728$. The public parameters are $\mathrm{pp}:=\left\{p, \ell, k_{m}, k_{r}, E_{6}, P_{0}\right\}$ and the message space is $\mathcal{M}=\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{m}}$.

Commit (pp, $m, r$ ) : Given the public parameters, a message $m \in \mathcal{M}$ and a random $r \in\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{r}}$, return $c=\operatorname{CGL}\left(E_{6}, \ell, P_{0}, m \| r\right)$.

[^1]Open(pp, $m, r, c$ ) : Given the public parameters, a message $m \in \mathcal{M}, r \in$ $\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{r}}$ and a commitment $c$, return $c==\operatorname{CGL}\left(E_{6}, \ell, P_{0}, m \| r\right)$.

For the rest of this section, $p$ is a prime congruent to 15 modulo 16 and $\ell$ is a small prime equal to 2 or congruent to 3 modulo 4 . We now analyse the security properties of the new commitment scheme.

### 4.2 Binding Property

Our scheme is constructed to be perfectly binding. In fact, since $k_{m}+k_{r}<$ $\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$, Theorem 13 shows that the only cycles starting from $E_{6}$ and of length smaller than $\log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$ have the isogeny $E_{6} \rightarrow E(1728)=E_{6} /\left\langle P_{0}\right\rangle$ as their first step. Since this isogeny is never the first step in the computation of the commitment $c=\operatorname{CGL}\left(E_{6}, \ell, P_{0}, m \| r\right)$, then there exists no distinct messages $m_{0}, m_{1} \in \mathcal{M}$, no random strings $r_{0}, r_{1} \in\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{r}}$ such that $\operatorname{CGL}\left(E_{6}, \ell, P_{0}, m_{0} \| r_{0}\right)=\operatorname{CGL}\left(E_{6}, \ell, P_{0}, m_{1} \| r_{1}\right)$. Meaning that $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}$ is perfectly binding by design. In the next paragraph, we discuss the hiding property.

### 4.3 Hiding Property

Since the mixing constant of $\ell$-isogeny graph is lower bounded by $\log _{\ell}\left(N_{p}\right)-$ $\log _{\ell}(\ell+1)+1$ [33, Lemma 3.5], we have $k_{r}<k_{\ell, p}$, which does not satisfy the conditions of Theorem 11. Moreover, considering the context of the hiding game, if c is the commitment for a message $m_{b}$ following the scheme in Section 4.1, the probability to be the commitment of $m_{1-b}$ is 0 . This is justified by Lemma 14 , where we consider the following set for each tuple $(d, E, \psi)$ where $d$ is a positive integer and $\psi: E_{6} \rightarrow E$ is a cyclic isogeny.
$\log _{d}(E, \psi)=\left\{\begin{array}{c}j\left(E^{\prime} / \mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}\right) ; \text { there exist a cyclic isogeny } \phi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime} \text { of degree } d \\ \text { such that } \phi \circ \psi \text { is a cyclic isogeny }\end{array}\right\}$.
Lemma 14. Let $\varphi_{0}: E_{6} \rightarrow E_{0}$ and $\varphi_{1}: E_{6} \rightarrow E_{1}$ be two non equivalent cyclic isogenies of degree $\ell^{k_{m}}$ and let $k_{r}$ be an integer such that $k_{m}+k_{r}<\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$. Then $\operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{0}, \varphi_{0}\right) \cap \operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)=\emptyset$ in the following cases:

1. $\ell \neq 2$
2. $\ell=2$ and neither $\varphi_{0}$ nor $\varphi_{1}$ is a path containing the curve of $j$-invariant 1728;

Proof. Let us suppose that $\operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{0}, \varphi_{0}\right) \cap \log _{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right) \neq \emptyset$, and let $E$ such that $j(E) \in \operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{0}, \varphi_{0}\right) \cap \operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)$. Then there exists two cyclic isogenies $\psi_{0}: E_{0} \rightarrow E$ and $\psi_{1}: E_{1} \rightarrow E$ of degree $\ell^{k_{r}}$ such that $\psi_{0} \circ \varphi_{0}$ and $\psi_{1} \circ \varphi_{1}$ are cyclic isogenies. We then have two distinct paths $\psi_{0} \circ \varphi_{0}: E_{6} \rightarrow E$ and $\psi_{1} \circ \varphi_{1}: E_{6} \rightarrow E$ in the $\ell$-isogeny graph, both of length $k_{m}+k_{r}$. This contradicts Theorem 13 , since $\ell^{2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)}<\frac{p+1}{16}$.

Hence our scheme is not information theoretically hiding. We prove that our scheme is computationally hiding assuming that Problem 15 is hard.

Problem 15. Let $k_{m}, k_{r} \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ such that $k_{m}+k_{r}<\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$. Find two cyclic isogenies $\varphi_{0}: E_{6} \rightarrow E_{0}$ and $\varphi_{1}: E_{6} \rightarrow E_{1}$ of degree $\ell^{k_{m}}$ and a PPT distinguisher which distinguishes between the following distributions:

1. $E^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{0}, \varphi_{0}\right)$;
2. $E^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)$.

Theorem 16. The scheme $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}$ is computationally hiding under the hardness of Problem 15.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{A}=\left(A_{1}, A_{2}\right)$ be a polynomial time adversary against the hiding game, described as follows: $A_{1}$ returns two massages $m_{0}$ and $m_{1}$. After a uniformly random one of the two messages has been committed to, $A_{2}$ takes the commitment and distinguishes which of them has been committed to.

We describe an adversary $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ for Problem 15 as follows: $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ queries $\mathcal{A}$ to obtain the two messages $m_{0}, m_{1}$ returned by $A_{1}$ and computes the corresponding isogenies $\varphi_{0}: E_{6} \rightarrow E_{0}$ and $\varphi_{1}: E_{6} \rightarrow E_{1}$. Afterward, uses the distinguisher $A_{2}$ to obtain $b$ such that $m_{b}$ has been committed to. $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ returns the distribution $E^{\prime} \in \operatorname{lsog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{b}, \varphi_{b}\right) . \mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ has the same success probability as $\mathcal{A}$.

Given two curves $E_{0}$ and $E_{1}$, to the best of our knowledge the best approach to distinguish among the distributions in Problem 15 is the strategy which consists of trying to compute an isogeny $E_{b} \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ of degree $\ell^{k_{r}}$ using vOW algorithm [12], for each $b \in\{0,1\}$. This approach has running time of $O\left(\frac{N^{3 / 2}}{w^{1 / 2} m}\right)$, where $w$ is the size of the memory, $m$ is the number of processors and $N=(\ell+1) \ell^{k_{r} / 2-1} \approx \ell^{k_{r} / 2}[1$. So for our scheme to be secured, we need to carefully choose $k_{r}$, according to $\ell$ and the security parameter $\lambda$. In the following section, we provide further details for the parameters selection.

### 4.4 Concrete Setup

The analysis of vOW [1] allows us to suggest some values for $k_{r}$, according to some security parameters $\lambda$. We summarize these values in Table 1. For any

| $\lambda$ | 128 |  | 160 |  | 192 |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\ell$ | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 3 |
| $k_{r}$ | 216 | 137 | 273 | 172 | 305 | 192 |

Table 1. Some secure values for $k_{r}$
security level, the length $k_{m}$ is such that $k_{m}+k_{r}=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)\right\rfloor$. For giving the size of $p$ as function of $\lambda$, we consider the MIM attack [1] instead of vOW attack. Then we need $k_{r}=2 \lambda$. Taking $k_{m} \approx n \lambda$ for some rational $n$, we need a prime $p$ such that $\log _{\ell}(p+1) \approx 2(n+2) \lambda+\log _{\ell}(16)$.

We hence get rid of the trusted setup, but at the cost of having a prime whose size is linear in the size of the messages. In the original scheme [33], the size of the prime is $2 \lambda$. The relatively large size of $p$ in our variant is due to the smallness of the upper bound $\log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$. In the next section, we suggest a more compact variant of our construction, which instead of aiming for perfectly binding commitment scheme, goes for computationally binding one by using a uniformly random supersingular curve (of non secret endomorphism ring) as starting curve.

## 5 Committing from a Uniformly Random Supersingular Curve

This approach is similar to that presented in Section 4.1. The difference is that we use a publicly generated uniformly random supersingular curve, and we exploit lower bounds on the degree of prime power degree endomorphisms that can be efficiently computed.

### 5.1 Computing short $\ell$-power Degree Endomorphisms

In this section, our goal is to discuss the shortest $\ell$-power degree endomorphism that can be efficiently computed using existing algorithms. Our motivation comes from the fact that the commitment scheme $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}$ in Section 4 requires $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ such that $k_{m}+k_{r}<\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$, in order to avoiding the existence of endomorphisms of degree $\ell^{2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)}$ in the starting curve. The smallness of the upper bound $\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)$ leads to a relatively large size of $p$. In order to increase this upper bound (and then reduce the size of $p$ ), we allow the existence of endomorphism of degree $\ell^{2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)}$, but ensure that these endomorphisms are hard to compute.

We recall that computing an endomorphism of a curve $E$ of degree $d$ implies solving a norm equation in a maximal order which is isomorphic to the endomorphism ring of $E$. The method for solving the norm equation in maximal order depends on whether the order is a special extremal order [24] or not. A part of the following discussion about special extremal orders is already done in [2] for slightly different purpose.

Let $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}=\left(\frac{-q,-p}{\mathbb{Q}}\right)=\mathbb{Q}+i \mathbb{Q}+j \mathbb{Q}+k \mathbb{Q}$ be the quaternion algebra ramified at $p$ and $\infty$, where $i^{2}=-q, j^{2}=-p$ and $i j=-j i=k$. A special $p$-extremal maximal order [24] is a maximal order containing $j$. Examples of $p$-extremal maximal orders are those containing $\mathbb{Z}\langle i, j\rangle=\mathbb{Z}+i \mathbb{Z}+j \mathbb{Z}+k \mathbb{Z}$ as subring. For such a maximal order $\mathcal{O}$, if $R=\mathcal{O} \cap \mathbb{Q}[i]=\mathbb{Z}[\omega]$ is the ring of integers of $\mathbb{Q}[i]$, then the restriction of the norm to $R+R j$ is given by

$$
\operatorname{Nrd}\left(x_{1}+y_{1} \omega+\left(x_{2}+y_{2} \omega\right) j\right)=f\left(x_{1}, y_{1}\right)+p f\left(x_{2}, y_{2}\right),
$$

where $f$ is a principal quadratic form of same discriminant as $R$ [24]. We have

$$
f(x, y)=x^{2}+\operatorname{Trd}(\omega) x y+\operatorname{Nrd}(\omega) y^{2} .
$$

In the following example, for several congruence classes of $p$, we exhibit the quaternion algebra $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$, a special $p$-extremal order $\mathcal{O}$, the corresponding quadratic ring $R$ and the form of $f(x, y)$.
Example 17. 1. For $p \equiv 3 \bmod 4: \mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}=\left(\frac{-1,-p}{\mathbb{Q}}\right) ; \mathcal{O}=\left\langle 1, i, \frac{1+k}{2}, \frac{i+j}{2}\right\rangle ; R=$ $\mathbb{Z}[i] ;$

$$
f(x, y)=x^{2}+y^{2}
$$

2. For $p \equiv 5 \bmod 8: \mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}=\left(\frac{-2,-p}{\mathbb{Q}}\right) ; \mathcal{O}=\left\langle 1, i, \frac{1+j+k}{2}, \frac{i+2 j+k}{4}\right\rangle ; R=\mathbb{Z}[i]$;

$$
f(x, y)=x^{2}+2 y^{2}
$$

3. For $p \equiv 1 \bmod 4: \mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}=\left(\frac{-q,-p}{\mathbb{Q}}\right)$, where $q \equiv 3 \bmod 4$ is a prime such that

$$
\begin{gathered}
\left(\frac{-p}{q}\right)=1 ; \mathcal{O}=\left\langle 1, \frac{1+i}{2}, j, \frac{c i+k}{q}\right\rangle, \text { where } c^{2} \equiv-p \bmod q ; R=\mathbb{Z}\left[\frac{1+i}{2}\right] ; \\
f(x, y)=x^{2}-x y+\frac{1+q}{4} y^{2}
\end{gathered}
$$

Any curve whose endomorphism ring is isomorphic to one of $p$-extremal maximal orders given in Example 17 is said to be special. For such a curve, the best method to find an endomorphism of $\ell$-power degree consists of solving the equation

$$
f(x, y)+p f(z, t)=\ell^{e}
$$

for some $e$. Algorithm 13 in [20] consists of taking $e$ large enough so that the quantity $\ell^{e}-p f(z, t)$ is positive for sufficiently many pairs $(z, t)$ and the equation

$$
f(x, y)=\ell^{e}-p f(z, t)
$$

can be solved by Cornacchia's algorithm [11]. When $\ell$ is split in $R$, this equation may have a solution for $z=t=0$ and ${ }^{6}$ When $\ell$ is not split in $R$, this equation does not have a solution for $\ell^{e}<p$. The solution returned by [20, Algorithm 13] is such that $\ell^{e} \approx p^{2}$.

For a random curve of known endomorphism ring isomorphic to $\mathcal{O}$, we don't have a nice norm form as in the above case. So it is not clear how to use the same approach to solve the norm equation. The method given by [25, Algotithm 8, Page 75] consists of solving the norm equation in the Einsler order $\mathcal{O}_{0} \cap \mathcal{O}$, where $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ is one of extremal orders given in Example 17. From [18, Proposition 1], we have $\mathcal{O}_{0} \cap \mathcal{O}=\mathbb{Z}+I$ where $I$ is an ideal connecting $\mathcal{O}_{0}$ and $\mathcal{O}$. One can always choose the idea $I$ such that its norm is prime [24]. Let $N=N r d(I)$ be prime. One computes $\mu \in \mathbb{Z}+I$ of $\ell$-power norm as follows:

[^2]1. Compute $(C: D) \in \mathbb{P}^{1}(\mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z})$ such that $\mu_{0}=(C+\omega D) j \in \mathbb{Z}+I$;
2. Compute $\lambda \in \mathbb{Z} / N \mathbb{Z}$ and $\mu_{1} \in \mathcal{O}_{0}$ such that $\mu=\frac{1}{2}\left(\lambda \mu_{0}+N \mu_{1}\right)$ is of norm $\ell^{e}$ for some $e \in \mathbb{N}$.

The existence of $(C: D)$ in Step 1 can be justified by [25, Proposition 3.3.1].
The idea in Step 2 is to find $\mu_{1}$ of the form $\mu_{1}=x+y \omega+(z+t \omega) j \in R+R j$.
We then have $\mu=\frac{1}{2}[N(x+y \omega)+(N z+\lambda C+(N t+\lambda D) \omega) j]$ and $N r d(\mu)=\ell^{e}$ is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{4}\left[N^{2} f(x, y)+p f(N z+\lambda C ; N t+\lambda D)\right]=\ell^{e} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Modulo $N$, we have $p \lambda^{2} f(C, D)=4 \ell^{e}$. Since $\ell$ is a quadratic non-residue modulo $N$, we can adjust the parity of $e$ so that $\left(\frac{p f(C, D)}{N}\right)=\left(\frac{4 \ell^{e}}{N}\right)$ and take

$$
\lambda=\sqrt{\frac{4 \ell^{e}}{p f(C, D)}}(\bmod N)
$$

Equation 1 is equivalent to

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y)=\frac{4 \ell^{e}-p f(N z+\lambda C ; N t+\lambda D)}{N^{2}} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Using the optimisation strategy presented in 29], this equation can be solved by choosing $e$ such that $4 \ell^{e} \approx p N^{3} \sqrt{\Delta_{\mathbb{Q}(\omega)}}$. Since $N$ is slightly greater than $\sqrt{p}, \ell^{e}$ is slightly greater than $p^{\frac{5}{2}}$. If we could generate many pairs $(C: D)$, we could use the strategy in [2, Section 4.1] to have a superpolynomial time version of this algorithm where the lower bound $p^{\frac{5}{2}}$ is reduced to $p^{\frac{5}{2}-\epsilon}$ with running time in $O\left(N^{\epsilon}\right)$ where $N^{\epsilon}$ is the number of pairs $(C: D)$ generated. However, the pair $(C, D)$ given by [25, Proposition 3.3.1] is unique up to scalar multiplication, according to [25, Proposition 2.3.12]. So $p^{\frac{5}{2}}$ (as found in [25]) is the lower bound on the degrees of endomorphisms that can be efficiently computed, assuming the supersingular curve in play was generated uniformly at random.

Recently, some improvements 4|22 have been made on algorithms to find isogenies of fixed degree between supersingular elliptic curves $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$. The algorithm given in [22] improves that given in [4]. More precisely, given two maximal orders $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{O}_{2}$ in $\mathcal{B}_{p, \infty}$, Algorithm 5 in [22] allows to compute an ideal of any norm $d$ connecting $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{O}_{2}$, assuming that such an ideal exists. This algorithm runs in time $O\left(\sqrt{\operatorname{Nrd}\left(\beta_{1}\right) N r d\left(\gamma_{1}\right)}\right)$ where $\beta_{1} \in \mathcal{O}_{1}$ and $\gamma_{1} \in \mathcal{O}_{2}$ are the smallest (in terms of norm) non scalar endomorphisms of $E_{1}$ and $E_{2}$ respectively. For a generic maximal order $\mathcal{O}$, the norm of the smallest elements in $\mathcal{O}$ is upper-bounded by $O\left(p^{2 / 3}\right) 22$. Hence the expected running time of this algorithm is $O\left(p^{2 / 3}\right)$ when both maximal orders are generic, and $O\left(p^{1 / 3}\right)$ when either $\mathcal{O}_{1}$ or $\mathcal{O}_{2}$ is one of the extremal maximal orders in Example 17. This algorithm could be used to find an endomorphisms of given degree $d$ on a curve $E$ of known endomorphism ring $\mathcal{O}$ by setting $\mathcal{O}_{1}=\mathcal{O}_{2}=\mathcal{O}$. We note that, if $\beta$ is a non scalar endomorphism of smallest norm in $\mathcal{O}$, this algorithm cannot
return a non scalar endomorphism if $d<\operatorname{Nr} d(\beta)$. When $\mathcal{O}$ is one of the above extremal maximal orders, this method runs in polynomial time and can return an endomorphism of any degree when it exists.

A more efficient method could be to use Algorithm 3 in [22, which allows to compute an endomorphism of given trace and degree if such an endomorphism exists in $\mathcal{O}$. One could exploit this algorithm by picking a random trace $t$ and finding an endomorphism of our given norm $d$ and trace $t$. The resulting algorithm has expected running time $O(\sqrt{N r d(\beta)} \cdot \operatorname{polylog}(d p))$.

Another way for computing a degree $\ell^{e}$ endomorphism of a curve $E$ could be as follows, assuming that its endomorphism ring $\operatorname{End}(E) \cong \mathcal{O}$ is known.

1. Compute an isogeny $\phi: E \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ of degree $\ell^{e / 2}$;
2. Compute the endomorphism ring $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$ of $E^{\prime}$;
3. Use Algorithm 5 in [22] to compute an ideal $I$ of norm $\ell^{e / 2}$ connecting $\mathcal{O}$ to $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$;
4. Compute the isogeny $\phi_{I}$ of kernel ideal $I$;
5. If $\phi_{I}$ is equivalent to $\phi$ then go back to 2 and consider a maximal order $\mathcal{O}^{\prime \prime}$ conjugated to $\mathcal{O}^{\prime}$ that is not isomorphic to $\operatorname{End}\left(E^{\prime p}\right)$;
6. Return $\alpha=\bar{\phi} \circ \phi_{I}$.

If $E$ is a randomly generated curve, this approach has expected exponential running time as Algorithm 5 in [22] runs in expected time $O\left(p^{3 / 2}\right)$. Furthermore, the loop in this algorithm might not stop. For example if $E=E_{6}$ as defined in Section 4 and $\ell^{e}<\frac{p+1}{16}$, there is no non equivalent isogeny to $\phi$ if $\phi$ corresponds to a path whose the first edge does not connect $E_{6}$ to $E(1728)$.

According to the above discussion, we can use a generic curve with no small endomorphism for our protocol. The obtained variant is described as follows.

### 5.2 Description of the Scheme

The scheme $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}$ described in Section 4 uses the curve $E_{6}: y^{2}=x^{3}+6 x^{2}+x$ as starting curve. The message space is $\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{m}}$ and the space of random messages is $\{0,1, \ldots, \ell-1\}^{k_{r}}$, where $k_{m}+k_{r}=\left\lfloor\frac{1}{2} \log _{\ell}\left(\frac{p+1}{16}\right)\right\rfloor$. In this Section, we bring the following modification to this scheme.

- The starting curve $E$ is a uniformly random supersingular elliptic curve with no endomorphism of small degree. Such an elliptic curve can be generated by using the CGL hash function to hash a long nothing-up-my-sleeve string. To verify that the curve $E$ has no endomorphism of small degree, one can compute a Minkowski reduced basis of $\operatorname{End}(E)$.
- The message space and the space of random strings are unchanged, but values of $k_{m}$ and $k_{r}$ are such that $2\left(k_{m}+k_{r}\right)=\left\lfloor 2 \log _{\ell}(p)\right\rfloor$.

Apart form these modifications, everything else is unchanged (see Section 4.1). We designate this new variant by $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}(E)$. We now provide security arguments for this variant.

### 5.3 Binding Property

For the binding property of $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}(E)$, we have the following problem which is a variant of Problem 12.

Problem 18. Given a prime $p$, a uniformly random supersingular elliptic curve $E$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$, a small prime $\ell$ and a positive fixed integer $e \leq 2 \log _{\ell}(p)$, compute a cyclic endomorphism of $E$ which has degree $\ell^{e}$.

Theorem 19. The commitment scheme $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}(E)$ is computationally binding, assuming the hardness of Problem 18 .

The proof of the above theorem is straightforward. Following the discussion in Section 5.1, existing efficient algorithms for computing an endomorphism of $\ell$-power degree can not return an endomorphism whose degree is smaller than $p^{\frac{5}{2}}$. So to the best of our knowledge, there is no known efficient algorithm for solving Problem 18.

### 5.4 Hiding Property

For the hiding property, we introduce the following problem.
Problem 20. Let $E$ be a random supersingular elliptic curve and $k_{m}, k_{r} \in \mathbb{N}^{*}$ such that $k_{m}+k_{r}=\lfloor\log p\rfloor$. Find two distinct cyclic isogenies $\varphi_{0}: E \rightarrow E_{0}$ and $\varphi_{1}: E \rightarrow E_{1}$ of degree $\ell^{k_{m}}$ and a distinguisher which distinguishes between the following distributions:

1. $E^{\prime}$ sampled uniformly at random from $\operatorname{Isog}_{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{0}, \varphi_{0}\right)$;
2. $E^{\prime}$ sampled uniformly at random from $E^{\prime} \in \log _{\ell^{k_{r}}}\left(E_{1}, \varphi_{1}\right)$.

Theorem 21. Let $E$ be a supersingular elliptic curve. The scheme $\mathcal{C}_{k_{m}, k_{r}}(E)$ is computationally hiding under the hardness of Problem 20.

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Theorem 16
The best known strategy against Problem 20 is the same as that against Problem 15 which consists of trying to compute an isogeny $E_{b} \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ of degree $\ell^{k_{r}}$ using vOW algorithm [12], for each $b \in\{0,1\}$. We can hence use the values of $k_{r}$ given in Table 1 to avoid such attacks. Furthermore, taking $k_{r}=2 \lambda$ and $k_{m}=n \lambda$ as in Section 4.4, we can use a prime $p$ of $\operatorname{size} \log _{\ell}(p) \approx(n+2) \lambda$, instead of $\log _{\ell}(p+1) \approx 2(n+2) \lambda+\log _{\ell}(16)$ as in the previews variant. .

## 6 Conclusion

In this work, we have investigated the problem of constructing an isogeny based commitment without trusted setup. We have suggested two approaches to solve this problem. These two approaches share the same idea that consists of modifying Sterner's commitment scheme by using a starting curve of known endomorphism ring and a finite set as message space. In the first approach, the starting
curve is a curve that does not have endomorphisms of relatively small $\ell$-power degree and the size of messages is bounded in such a way that associated isogenies never have the same co-domain, and hence never lead to endomorphisms on the starting curve. Doing so, we obtain a perfectly binding and computationally hiding commitment scheme. However, this approach requires a field of characteristic $p$ significantly larger than that used for the initial scheme. In order to limit the efficiency loss in our first proposal, we suggest a second variant where instead of choosing the starting curve and the degree of the isogenies in such a way that certain endomorphisms do not exist, we choose them in such a way that these endomorphisms may exist but computing them is hard. This leads to a scheme where we half the size of the prime $p$, compared to our first proposal. We prove that the resulting scheme is computationally hiding and computationally binding.

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[^0]:    $\overline{{ }^{4} \text { We refer the reader to [35, Chapter 13] for details about ramification place }}$

[^1]:    ${ }^{5}$ Such an endomorphism exists, but can be easily avoided in our setting

[^2]:    ${ }^{6}$ This may not be the case. The probability that this holds is $\frac{1}{h_{\Delta_{\omega}}}$, where $h_{\Delta_{\omega}}$ is the class number of $R$.

