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SiGamal: A supersingular isogeny-based PKE

Tomoki Moriya[1,a)] Hiroshi Onuki[1] Tsuyoshi Takagi[1]

Abstract: We propose two new supersingular isogeny-based public key encryptions: SiGamal and C-SiGamal. These public key encryptions are developed by giving an additional point of the order 2^r to CSIDH. SiGamal seems similar to ElGamal encryption, while C-SiGamal is a compressed version of SiGamal. We prove that SiGamal and C-SiGamal obtain IND-CPA security without using hash functions under a new assumption: the P-CSSDDH assumption. This assumption comes from the expectation that no efficient algorithm can distinguish between a random point and a point that is the image of a public point under a hidden isogeny. Finally, we experimented group actions in SiGamal and C-SiGamal. In our experimentation, the computational costs of group actions in SiGamal-512 with a 256-bit plaintext message space are about 2.62 times that of a group action in CSIDH-512.

Keywords: isogeny-based cryptography, isogenies, CSIDH, public key encryption

1. Preliminaries

1.1 Basic mathematical concepts

Here, we explain the basic mathematical concepts behind isogeny-based cryptography.

1.1.1 Elliptic curves.

Let $\mathbb{L}$ be a field, and let $\mathbb{L}'$ be an algebraic extension field of $\mathbb{L}$. First, an *elliptic curve* E defined over $\mathbb{L}$ is a nonsingular algebraic curve that is defined over $\mathbb{L}$ and has genus one. Denote by $E(\mathbb{L}')$ the $\mathbb{L}'$-rational points of the elliptic curve E. Here, $E(\mathbb{L}')$ is an abelian group (III. 2 in [17]). Next, a *supersingular elliptic curve* E over a finite field $\mathbb{L}$ of characteristic p is defined as an elliptic curve that satisfies $\#E(\mathbb{L}) \equiv 1 \pmod p$, where $\#E(\mathbb{L})$ is the cardinality of $E(\mathbb{L})$. Furthermore, let $\mathbb{L}$ be a field whose characteristic is odd. Then, an elliptic curve E defined by the following equation is called a *Montgomery curve*:

$$E\colon bY^2Z = X^3+aX^2Z+XZ^2 \quad (a, b \in \mathbb{L} \text{ and } b(a^2-4) \neq 0).$$

Let E and E' be elliptic curves defined over $\mathbb{L}$. Define an *isogeny* $\phi\colon E \to E'$ over $\mathbb{L}'$ as a rational map over $\mathbb{L}'$ that is a nonzero group homomorphism from $E(\overline{\mathbb{L}})$ to $E'(\overline{\mathbb{L}})$, where $\overline{\mathbb{L}}$ is the algebraic closure of $\mathbb{L}$. A separable isogeny satisfying $\#\ker\phi = \ell$ is called an *ℓ-isogeny*. Denote by $\mathrm{End}_{\mathbb{L}'}(E)$ the endomorphism ring of E over $\mathbb{L}'$, and represent it as $\mathrm{End}_p(E)$ when $\mathbb{L}'$ is a prime field $\mathbb{F}_p$. Note also that an isogeny $\phi\colon E \to E'$ defined over $\mathbb{L}'$ is called an *isomorphism* over $\mathbb{L}'$ if it has the inverse isogeny over $\mathbb{L}'$.

If G is a finite subgroup of $E(\overline{\mathbb{L}})$, then there exists an isogeny $\phi\colon E \to E'$ such that its kernel is G and E' is unique up to an $\overline{\mathbb{L}}$-isomorphism (Proposition III.4.12 in [17]). This isogeny can be efficiently calculated by using Vélu formulas [19]. We denote a representative of E' by E/G.

Next, we define the *j-invariant* of a Montgomery curve $E\colon bY^2Z = X^3+aX^2Z+XZ^2$ ($a, b \in \mathbb{L}$ and $b(a^2-4) \neq 0$) by the following equation:

$$j(E) \coloneqq \frac{256(a^2-3)^3}{a^2-4}.$$

It is known that the j-invariants of two elliptic curves are the same if and only if the elliptic curves are $\overline{\mathbb{L}}$-isomorphic.

Finally, we define $E[k]$ ($k \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}$) as the k-torsion subgroup of $E(\overline{\mathbb{L}})$. For an endomorphism ϕ of E, we sometimes denote $\ker\phi$ by $E[\phi]$.

1.1.2 Ideal class groups.

Let $\mathbb{L}$ be a number field, and $\mathcal{O}$ be an order in $\mathbb{L}$. A *fractional ideal* $\mathfrak{a}$ of $\mathcal{O}$ is a non-zero $\mathcal{O}$-submodule of $\mathbb{L}$ that satisfies $\alpha\mathfrak{a} \subset \mathcal{O}$ for some $\alpha \in \mathcal{O}\setminus\{0\}$. Moreover, an *invertible fractional ideal* $\mathfrak{a}$ of $\mathcal{O}$ is defined as a fractional ideal of $\mathcal{O}$ that satisfies $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b} = \mathcal{O}$ for some fractional ideal $\mathfrak{b}$ of $\mathcal{O}$. The fractional ideal $\mathfrak{b}$ can be represented as $\mathfrak{a}^{-1}$. If a fractional ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ is contained in $\mathcal{O}$, then it is called an *integral ideal* of $\mathcal{O}$. Let $\mathcal{I}(\mathcal{O})$ be a set of integral ideals of $\mathcal{O}$.

Next, let $I(\mathcal{O})$ specifically be a set of invertible fractional ideals of $\mathcal{O}$. $I(\mathcal{O})$ is then an abelian group derived from multiplication of ideals with the identity $\mathcal{O}$. Let $P(\mathcal{O})$ be a subgroup of $I(\mathcal{O})$ defined by $P(\mathcal{O}) = \{\mathfrak{a} \mid \mathfrak{a} = \alpha\mathcal{O} \text{ (for some } \alpha \in \mathbb{L}^\times)\}$. We call the abelian group $\mathrm{cl}(\mathcal{O})$ defined by $I(\mathcal{O})/P(\mathcal{O})$ the *ideal class group* of $\mathcal{O}$. Denote by $[\mathfrak{a}]$ an element of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathcal{O})$ that is an equivalence class of $\mathfrak{a}$.

1.1.3 Notation.

The $\mathbb{F}_p$-endomorphism ring $\mathrm{End}_p(E)$ of a supersingular elliptic curve E defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$ is isomorphic to an order in an imaginary quadratic field [5]. Denote by $\mathcal{EL}_p(\mathcal{O})$ the set of $\mathbb{F}_p$-isomorphism classes of any elliptic curve E whose $\mathbb{F}_p$-endomorphism ring $\mathrm{End}_p(E)$ is isomorphic to $\mathcal{O}$.

[1] Department of Mathematical Informatics, The University of Tokyo, Japan
[a)] tomoki_moriya@mist.i.u-tokyo.ac.jp

1.2 A group action of an ideal class group

In this subsection, we explain an important group action that is a main part of our proposed encryption system. First, Waterhouse gave the following theorem.

Theorem 1.1 (Theorem 4.5 in [20])**.** *Let $\mathcal{O}$ be an order of an imaginary quadratic field and E be an elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$. If $\mathcal{Ell}_p(\mathcal{O})$ contains the $\mathbb{F}_p$-isomorphism class of supersingular elliptic curves, then the action of the ideal class group $\mathrm{cl}(\mathcal{O})$ on $\mathcal{Ell}_p(\mathcal{O})$,*

$$\begin{aligned}\mathrm{cl}(\mathcal{O}) \times \mathcal{Ell}_p(\mathcal{O}) &\longrightarrow \mathcal{Ell}_p(\mathcal{O})\\ ([\mathfrak{a}], E) &\longmapsto E/E[\mathfrak{a}],\end{aligned}$$

is free and transitive, where $\mathfrak{a}$ is an integral ideal of $\mathcal{O}$, and $E[\mathfrak{a}]$ is the intersection of the kernels of elements in $\mathfrak{a}$.

In general, we cannot efficiently compute the group action in Theorem 1.1. Castryck, Lange, Martindale, Panny, and Renes, however, proposed a method for computing this group action efficiently in a special case [2]. They focused on the action of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ on $\mathcal{Ell}_p(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$, where π_p is the p-Frobenius map over elliptic curves. In [2], they proved the following theorem.

Theorem 1.2 (Proposition 8 in [2])**.** *Let p be a prime satisfying $p \equiv 3 \pmod 8$. Let E be a supersingular elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$. Then, $\mathrm{End}_p(E) \cong \mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]$ holds if and only if there exists $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ such that E is $\mathbb{F}_p$-isomorphic to a Montgomery curve $E_a\colon Y^2Z = X^3 + aX^2Z + XZ^2$, where π_p is the p-Frobenius map. Moreover, if such an a exists then it is unique.*

In other words, a Montgomery curve that belongs to an $\mathbb{F}_p$-isomorphism class $E/E[\mathfrak{a}]$ is unique. Denote this Montgomery curve by $[\mathfrak{a}]E$.

Let the prime p be $4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, where the $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Let integral ideals $\mathfrak{l}_i$ $(i = 1, \ldots, n)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]$ be $(\ell_i, \pi_p - 1)$, and integral ideals $\overline{\mathfrak{l}_i}$ $(i = 1, \ldots, n)$ in $\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]$ be $(\ell_i, \pi_p + 1)$. Because $\pi_p^2 + p = 0$ over supersingular elliptic curves defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$, it is easy to check that $[\mathfrak{l}_i]^{-1} = [\overline{\mathfrak{l}_i}]$ over such elliptic curves. The actions of $[\mathfrak{l}_i]$ and $[\overline{\mathfrak{l}_i}]$ are efficiently computed by Theorem 1.1 and Vélu formulas on Montgomery curves [11]. Therefore, an action of $[\mathfrak{l}_1]^{e_1} \cdots [\mathfrak{l}_n]^{e_n} \in \mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ can be efficiently computed, where $e_1, \ldots, e_n$ are integers whose absolute values are small. According to the discussion in [2], from some heuristic assumptions, it holds that

$$\#\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]) \approx \#\{[\mathfrak{l}_1]^{e_1} \cdots [\mathfrak{l}_n]^{e_n} \mid e_1, \ldots, e_n \in \{-m, \ldots, m\}\},$$

where m is the smallest number that satisfies $2m+1 \geq \sqrt[2n]{p}$, and we call m a key bound. Therefore, it suffices to consider the action of $[\mathfrak{l}_1]^{e_1} \cdots [\mathfrak{l}_n]^{e_n}$, instead of the action of a random element of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$. Algorithm 1 specifies this sequence of group actions.

In this paper, we extend this computational method for our proposed protocol. In our protocol, we use a prime p that satisfies $p = 2^r \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, where $r \geq 3$ and the $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Therefore, we need the following theorem.

Algorithm 1 Evaluation of a class group action [2]

Require: $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ such that E_a is supersingular, and a list of integers $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$
Ensure: a' such that $[\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n}]E_a = E_{a'}$

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while some e_i ≠ 0 do
    Sample a random x ∈ F_p
    x(P) ← x
    Set s ← +1 if x^3 + ax^2 + x is a square in F_p, else s ← −1
    Let S = {i | sign(e_i) = s}
    if S = ∅ then
        Go to line 2
    end if
    k ← ∏_{i∈S} ℓ_i, x(P) ← x(((p + 1)/k)P)
    for all i ∈ S do
        x(Q) ← x((k/ℓ_i)P)
        if Q ≠ (0 : 1 : 0) then
            Compute an ℓ_i-isogeny φ: E_a → E_{a'} with ker φ = ⟨Q⟩
            a ← a', x(P) ← x(φ(P)), k ← k/ℓ_i, e_i ← e_i − s
        end if
    end for
end while
return a
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Theorem 1.3 (Proposition 3 in [1])**.** *Let $p > 3$ be a prime that satisfies $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$, and let E be a supersingular elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$. If $\mathrm{End}_p(E) \cong \mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]$ holds, then there exists $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ such that E is $\mathbb{F}_p$-isomorphic to $E_a\colon Y^2Z = X^3 + aX^2Z + X^2Z$. Moreover, if such an a exists then it is unique.*

From Theorem 1.3, even if we use a prime $p = 2^r \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, we can compute the action of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ in the same way as that proposed in [2] (*i.e.*, Algorithm 1).

Moreover, we consider mapping points in E to $[\mathfrak{a}]E$ by an isogeny whose kernel is $E[\mathfrak{a}]$. Because we use isogenies to compute $[\mathfrak{a}]E$, it is easy to map a point $P \in E$ to $[\mathfrak{a}]E$. In general, however, the image of P is not unique, since there are various isogenies $E \to E[\mathfrak{a}]$ whose kernels are $E[\mathfrak{a}]$. Especially, in general, the image of P over an isogeny $E \to [\mathfrak{a}]E \to [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E$ and that of P over an isogeny $E \to [\mathfrak{b}]E \to [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E$ are not same. The following theorem guarantees that the image of P is unique up to $\{\pm 1\}$.

Theorem 1.4. *Let E be a supersingular elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$. Let $\Phi_{[\mathfrak{a}],(F)}$ denote an isogeny $\phi\colon F \to [\mathfrak{a}]F$ such that $\ker\phi = F[\mathfrak{a}]$. If the following isogenies are defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$, then they satisfy the following equations:*

$$\Phi_{[\mathfrak{b}],([\mathfrak{a}]E)} \circ \Phi_{[\mathfrak{a}],(E)} = [\pm 1] \circ \Phi_{[\mathfrak{a}],([\mathfrak{b}]E)} \circ \Phi_{[\mathfrak{b}],(E)}.$$

To prove Theorem 1.4, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 1.1. *Let E_1 and E_2 be supersingular elliptic curves defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$. Let G be a finite subgroup of $E(\overline{\mathbb{F}_p})$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$ (i.e., $\pi_p(G) = G$). Let $\phi\colon E_1 \to E_2$ and $\psi\colon E_1 \to E_2$ be separable isogenies defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$. If $\ker\phi = \ker\psi = G$, then $\phi = \psi$, or $\phi = [-1] \circ \psi$.*

Proof. From Theorem 9.6.18 in [6], there are unique isogenies $\lambda_1\colon E_2 \to E_2$ and $\lambda_2\colon E_2 \to E_2$ defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$ such that $\psi = \lambda_1 \circ \phi$ and $\phi = \lambda_2 \circ \psi$. Furthermore, from the uniqueness of isogenies in Theorem 9.6.18 in [6], it holds

that $\lambda_1 = \lambda_2^{-1}$. Therefore, λ_2 is an automorphism of E_2 defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$.

Next, from Theorem III.10.1 in [17], if $j(E_2) \neq 0$ and $j(E_2) \neq 1728$, then there are no automorphisms other than $[\pm 1]$. Therefore, we have $\lambda_2(x, y) = (x, \pm y) = [\pm 1](x, y)$. Since E_2 is supersingular, if $j(E_2) = 0$, then $p \equiv 2 \pmod 3$, and if $j(E_2) = 1728$, then $p \equiv 3 \pmod 4$. Therefore, from Theorem III.10.1 in [17], even if $j(E_2) = 0$ or $j(E_2) = 1728$, there are no automorphisms defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$ other than $[\pm 1]$, and we have $\lambda_2(x, y) = (x, \pm y) = [\pm 1](x, y)$. □

Now, we can prove Theorem 1.4.

Proof of Theorem 1.4. From Lemma 1.1, it suffices to show that

$$\ker\left(\Phi_{[\mathfrak{b}],([\mathfrak{a}]E)} \circ \Phi_{[\mathfrak{a}],(E)}\right) = \ker\left(\Phi_{[\mathfrak{a}],([\mathfrak{b}]E)} \circ \Phi_{[\mathfrak{b}],(E)}\right).$$

Indeed, this holds from Proposition 3.12 in [20]. □

As shown in above, the image of $P \in E$ under the isogeny defined by the integral ideal $\mathfrak{a}$ in $\mathrm{End}(E)$ is unique up to $[\pm 1]$. We denote this equivalence class of two points by $\mathfrak{a}P$. Note that, even if $[\mathfrak{a}] = [\mathfrak{a}']$, it does not always hold that $\mathfrak{a}P = \mathfrak{a}'P$. In fact, when $[\mathfrak{a}][\bar{\mathfrak{a}}] = [1]$, we have $\mathfrak{a}\bar{\mathfrak{a}}P = N(\mathfrak{a})P$, where $N(\mathfrak{a})$ is the norm of $\mathfrak{a}$.

All elements of $\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ appearing in this paper are defined by $(\alpha)\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n} P$, where α is an integer. An equivalence class $(\alpha)\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n} P$ is a class of images of αP under the isogeny defined by $\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n}$.

1.3 CSIDH

CSIDH (Commutative Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman) is a Diffie-Hellman-type key exchange protocol [2]. It is based on actions of the ideal class group $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ on $\mathcal{Ell}_p(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$.

The exact protocol is as follows. Suppose that Alice and Bob want to share a shared key denoted by $\mathrm{SK}_{\mathrm{shared}}$.

Setup Let p be a prime that satisfies $p = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, where $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Then, let p and $E_0 \colon Y^2Z = X^3 + XZ^2$ be public parameters.

Key generation Randomly choose an integer vector $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ from $\{-m, \ldots, m\}^n$. Define $[\mathfrak{a}] = [\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n}] \in \mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$. Then, calculate the action of $[\mathfrak{a}]$ on E_0 and the Montgomery coefficient $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ of $[\mathfrak{a}]E_0 \colon Y^2Z = X^3 + aX^2Z + XZ^2$. The integer vector $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ is the secret key, and $a \in \mathbb{F}_p$ is the public key.

Key exchange Alice and Bob have pairs of keys, $([\mathfrak{a}], a)$ and $([\mathfrak{b}], b)$, respectively. Alice calculates the action $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$. Bob calculates the action $[\mathfrak{b}][\mathfrak{a}]E_0$. Denote the Montgomery coefficient of $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$ by $\mathrm{SK}_{\mathrm{Alice}}$ and that of $[\mathfrak{b}][\mathfrak{a}]E_0$ by $\mathrm{SK}_{\mathrm{Bob}}$.

From the commutativity of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ and Theorem 1.2, $\mathrm{SK}_{\mathrm{Alice}} = \mathrm{SK}_{\mathrm{Bob}}$ holds. This value is the shared key $\mathrm{SK}_{\mathrm{shared}}$.

CSIDH is secure under the following assumption.

Definition 1.1 (Commutative Supersingular Decisional Diffie-Hellman assumption (CSSDDH assumption))**.** *Let p be a prime that satisfies $p = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, where $\ell_1, \ldots \ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Let E_0 be the elliptic curve $Y^2Z = X^3 + XZ^2$, and $[\mathfrak{a}]$, $[\mathfrak{b}]$, and $[\mathfrak{c}]$ be random elements of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$. Set λ as the bit length of p.*

The CSSDDH assumption holds if, for any efficient algorithm (e.g., any probabilistic polynomial time (PPT) algorithm) $\mathcal{A}$,

$$\left| \Pr\left[b = b^* \;\middle|\; \begin{array}{l} [\mathfrak{a}], [\mathfrak{b}], [\mathfrak{c}] \leftarrow \mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]),\ b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\}, \\ F_0 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0,\ F_1 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{c}]E_0, \\ b^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(E_0, [\mathfrak{a}]E_0, [\mathfrak{b}]E_0, F_b) \end{array} \right] - \frac{1}{2} \right| < \mathrm{negl}(\lambda).$$

Remark 1.1. *In the above definition, we sample elements of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ by taking $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ uniformly from $\{-m, \ldots, m\}^n$ that represents $[\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n}] \in \mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$. This is not a uniform sampling method from $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$. For instance, refer to [13].*

1.4 Pohlig-Hellman algorithm [15]

Pohlig and Hellman proposed an algorithm in 1978 to solve the discrete logarithm problem [15]. The Pohlig-Hellman algorithm indicates that, if a cyclic group G has smooth order, then the discrete logarithm problem over G can be efficiently solved. In this subsection, we explain this algorithm to solve the discrete logarithm problem over $\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z}$.

Let μ be an element of $\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z}$, and P be a generator of $\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z}$. Let $\mu_0, \ldots, \mu_{r-1}$ be numbers in $\{0, 1\}$ that satisfy $\mu = \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \mu_j 2^j$. For given P and μP, we want to compute μ efficiently.

Step 0: First, we compute $2^{r-1} \cdot \mu P$. If $\mu_0 = 0$, then $2^{r-1} \cdot \mu P = 0$, while if $\mu_0 = 1$, then $2^{r-1} \cdot \mu P \neq 0$. Therefore, we can obtain the value of μ_0 by computing $2^{r-1} \cdot \mu P$.

Step i ($1 \leq i \leq r-1$): Define $\mu^{(i)} = \mu - \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \mu_j 2^j$. From the definition of $\mu_0, \ldots, \mu_{r-1}$, it is obviously true that $\mu^{(i)} = \sum_{j=i}^{r-1} \mu_j 2^j$. We thus compute $\mu^{(i)}P = \mu P - \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} \mu_j 2^j P$. Furthermore, we compute $2^{r-i-1} \cdot \mu^{(i)}P$. If $\mu_i = 0$, then $2^{r-i-1} \cdot \mu^{(i)}P = 0$, while if $\mu_i = 1$, then $2^{r-i-1} \cdot \mu^{(i)}P \neq 0$. Therefore, we can obtain the value of μ_i by computing $2^{r-i-1} \cdot \mu^{(i)}P$.

As a result, from the $r-1$ steps above, we obtain the value of μ.

1.5 Public key encryption

In this subsection, we introduce the definition and security of public key encryption.

1.5.1 Definition of public key encryption

Definition 1.2 (Public key encryption (PKE))**.** *An algorithm $\mathcal{P}(\lambda)$ is called a public key encryption protocol (i.e., a PKE protocol) if it consists of the following algorithms that can be computed efficiently (e.g., PPT algorithms):* KeyGen, Enc, Dec.

KeyGen: *Given a security parameter λ as input, output public keys* **pk**, *secret keys* **sk**, *and a plaintext message space $\mathcal{M}$.*

Enc: *Given a plaintext $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$ and* $\mathbf{pk}$*, output a ciphertext c.*

Dec: *Given c and* $\mathbf{sk}$*, output a plaintext $\tilde{\mu}$.*

Definition 1.3 (Correctness)**.** *If a public key encryption protocol $\mathcal{P}(\lambda)$ holds for any plaintexts μ, i.e.,*

$$\mathsf{Dec}(\mathsf{Enc}(\mu, \mathbf{pk}), \mathbf{sk}) = \mu,$$

then $\mathcal{P}(\lambda)$ is correct.

1.5.2 Security of public key encryption

Here, we introduce some security definitions.

Definition 1.4 (OW-CPA secure)**.** *Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a public key encryption with a plaintext message space $\mathcal{M}$. We say that $\mathcal{P}$ is OW-CPA secure if, for any efficient adversary $\mathcal{A}$,*

$$\Pr\left[\mu = \mu^* \;\middle|\; \begin{array}{l}(\mathbf{pk}, \mathbf{sk}) \leftarrow \mathsf{KeyGen}(\lambda),\ \mu \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{M},\\ c \leftarrow \mathsf{Enc}(\mathbf{pk}, \mu),\ \mu^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{pk}, c)\end{array}\right] < \mathrm{negl}(\lambda),$$

where $\mu \xleftarrow{\$} \mathcal{M}$ means that μ is uniformly and randomly sampled from $\mathcal{M}$.

Definition 1.5 (IND-CPA secure)**.** *Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a public key encryption with a plaintext message space $\mathcal{M}$. We say that $\mathcal{P}$ is IND-CPA secure if, for any efficient adversary $\mathcal{A}$,*

$$\left|\Pr\left[b = b^* \;\middle|\; \begin{array}{l}(\mathbf{pk}, \mathbf{sk}) \leftarrow \mathsf{KeyGen}(\lambda),\ \mu_0, \mu_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{pk}),\\ b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\},\ c \leftarrow \mathsf{Enc}(\mathbf{pk}, \mu_b),\\ b^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}(\mathbf{pk}, c)\end{array}\right] - \frac{1}{2}\right| < \mathrm{negl}(\lambda).$$

Definition 1.6 (IND-CCA secure)**.** *Let $\mathcal{P}$ be a public key encryption with a plaintext message space $\mathcal{M}$. We say that $\mathcal{P}$ is IND-CCA secure if, for any efficient adversary $\mathcal{A}$,*

$$\left|\Pr\left[b = b^* \;\middle|\; \begin{array}{l}(\mathbf{pk}, \mathbf{sk}) \leftarrow \mathsf{KeyGen}(\lambda),\ \mu_0, \mu_1 \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{O(\cdot)}(\mathbf{pk}),\\ b \xleftarrow{\$} \{0,1\},\ c \leftarrow \mathsf{Enc}(\mathbf{pk}, \mu_b),\\ b^* \leftarrow \mathcal{A}^{O(\cdot)}(\mathbf{pk}, c)\end{array}\right] - \frac{1}{2}\right| < \mathrm{negl}(\lambda),$$

where $O(\cdot)$ is a decryption oracle that outputs $\mathsf{Dec}(\mathbf{sk}, c^*)$ for all $c^* \neq c$.

1.5.3 A natural ElGamal-like PKE based on CSIDH

Here, we explain a natural way to construct a PKE based on CSIDH without using hash functions.

KeyGen: Let p be a prime that satisfies $p = 4 \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, where $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Let E_0 be an elliptic curve $Y^2Z = X^3 + XZ^2$. Alice takes random elements $[\mathfrak{a}] = [\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n}] \in \mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ and then computes $E_1 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{a}]E_0$. Alice publishes (E_0, E_1) as public keys and keeps $(e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ as a secret key. Let $\{0,1\}^{\log_2 p}$ be a plaintext message space $\mathcal{M}$.

Enc: Let μ be a plaintext in $\mathcal{M}$. Bob takes random elements $[\mathfrak{b}] = [\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1'} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n'}]$ in $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ and computes a point $E_3 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{b}]E_0$, $E_4 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{b}]E_1$. Let the Montgomery coefficient of E_4 be S. Then, Bob computes $c \coloneqq \mu \oplus S$ and sends (E_3, c) to Alice as a ciphertext.

Dec: Alice computes $[\mathfrak{a}]E_3$ and gets the Montgomery coefficient of $[\mathfrak{a}]E_3$, which is S. Alice then computes $c \oplus S$ as a plaintext.

It is trivial that $c \oplus S = \mu$, and this key encryption protocol is thus correct.

Theorem 1.5. *This key exchange protocol is not IND-CPA secure.*

Proof. Let (E_3, c) be a ciphertext of a plaintext μ_b, where $b = 0, 1$. An adversary $\mathcal{A}$ computes $\mu_0 \oplus c$ and $\mu_1 \oplus c$. Note that the probability that a random elliptic curve defined over $\mathbb{F}_p$ becomes supersingular is exponentially small. If $\mu_{b'} \oplus c$ represents a supersingular elliptic curve, then $b = b'$ holds with high probability. Therefore, $\mathcal{A}$ can guess b, and the protocol is not IND-CPA secure. □

By using an entropy-smoothing hash function H, however, we can construct an IND-CPA secure protocol under the CSSDDH assumption (Definition 1.1). In this protocol, the ciphertext is $(E_3, \mu \oplus H(S))$ instead of $(E_3, \mu \oplus S)$. Refer to §3.4 in [16] for the details.

2. SiGamal

In this section, we explain the first proposed protocol: SiGamal.

2.1 Encryption protocol of SiGamal

In this subsection, we explain the precise protocol of SiGamal.

KeyGen: Let p be a prime that satisfies $p = 2^r \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, where $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Let E_0 be the elliptic curve $Y^2Z = X^3 + XZ^2$, and P_0 be a random point in $E_0(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order 2^r. Alice takes random elements $\mathfrak{a} = (\alpha)\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n} \in \mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ and computes $E_1 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{a}]E_0$ and $P_1 \coloneqq \mathfrak{a}P_0$, where α is a uniformly random element of $(\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Alice then publishes (E_0, P_0) and (E_1, P_1) as public keys, and keeps $(\alpha, e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ as a secret key. Let $\{0,1\}^{r-2}$ be a plaintext message space.

Enc: Let $\mu \in \{0,1\}^{r-2}$ be a plaintext. Bob embeds μ in $(\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ via $\mu \mapsto 2\mu + 1 \in (\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Bob takes random elements $\mathfrak{b} = (\beta)\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1'} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n'} \in \mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$, where β is a uniformly random element of $(\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$. Next, Bob computes a point $(2\mu+1)P_1$, $E_3 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{b}]E_0$, $P_3 \coloneqq \mathfrak{b}P_0$, $E_4 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{b}]E_1$, and $P_4 \coloneqq \mathfrak{b}((2\mu+1)P_1)$. Bob then sends (E_3, P_3, E_4, P_4) to Alice as a ciphertext.

Dec: Alice computes $\mathfrak{a}P_3$ and solves the discrete logarithm problem over $\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z}$ for $\mathfrak{a}P_3$ and P_4 by using the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm. Let M be the solution of this computation. If the most significant bit of M is 1, then Alice changes M to $2^r - M$. Finally, Alice computes $(M-1)/2$ as a plaintext $\tilde{\mu}$.

Remark 2.1. *In the above protocol, any point is described by its x-coordinate. For instance, to be precise, Bob sends $(E_3, x(P_3), E_4, x(P_4))$ to Alice.*

Remark 2.2. *In this paper, we construct SiGamal based on CSIDH key exchange [2]. Similarly, we can construct SiGamal based on SIDH key exchange [7] according to [9]. In that case, we take a prime p satisfying $p = 2^r 3^{e_A} 5^{e_B} - 1$, where $3^{e_A} \approx 5^{e_B}$.*

Moreover, we can construct SiGamal based on CSURF [1]. In the CSURF algorithm, we need to compute 2-

isogenies. Therefore, we embed a plaintext μ to a subgroup of order ℓ^r, where ℓ is an odd prime.

Theorem 2.1. *SiGamal is correct.*

Proof. By Theorem 1.4, $\mathfrak{a}P_3$ is $\mathfrak{b}P_1$ or $-\mathfrak{b}P_1$. Therefore, Alice gets $2\mu+1$ or $2^r-(2\mu+1)$. Since the bit length of μ is less than $r-2$, the most significant bit of $2\mu+1$ is always 0. Thus, if the most significant bit of M is 1, then $M = 2^r-(2\mu+1)$. Therefore, after adjusting this, Alice gets $2\mu+1$ as M. Hence, $\tilde{\mu}=\mu$, and SiGamal is correct. □

2.2 Security of SiGamal

In this subsection, we prove the security of SiGamal.

First, we define new assumptions: the P-CSSCDH assumption and the P-CSSDDH assumption. These assumptions are based on the idea that it is hard to compute the image of a fixed point over a hidden isogeny. In [4], [18], problems of computing images over isogenies in SIDH settings are considered hard to solve. Moreover, Petit provided a method to compute an isogeny between two given elliptic curves in an SIDH setting by using image points of sufficiently large degree under the isogeny [14]. Because the isogeny problem is hard, a problem of computing image points in the SIDH setting is considered hard. When we translate these problems into those in the CSIDH setting, the P-CSSCDH assumption and the P-CSSDDH assumption are one of natural constructions of assumptions. Therefore, we consider these new assumptions below to be correct.

Definition 2.1 (Points-Commutative Supersingular Isogeny Computational Diffie-Hellman assumption (P-CSSCDH assumption))**.** *Let p be a prime that satisfies $p = 2^r\cdot\ell_1\cdots\ell_n-1$, where $\ell_1,\dots\ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Let E_0 be the elliptic curve $Y^2Z=X^3+XZ^2$, P_0 be a uniformly random point in $E_0(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order 2^r, and $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ be random elements of $\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$. Set λ as the bit length of p.*

The P-CSSCDH assumption holds if, for any efficient algorithm $\mathcal{A}$,

$$\Pr\left[\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0 = P^* \;\middle|\; \begin{array}{l} P_0 \xleftarrow{\$} E_0(\mathbb{F}_p)_{\text{order } 2^r},\ \mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}\leftarrow\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]),\\ P^*\leftarrow\mathcal{A}(E_0,P_0,[\mathfrak{a}]E_0,\mathfrak{a}P_0,[\mathfrak{b}]E_0,\mathfrak{b}P_0,[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0)\end{array}\right] < \mathrm{negl}(\lambda).$$

Definition 2.2 (Points-Commutative Supersingular Isogeny Decisional Diffie-Hellman assumption (P-CSSDDH assumption))**.** *Let p be a prime that satisfies $p = 2^r\cdot\ell_1\cdots\ell_n-1$, where $\ell_1,\dots\ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Let E_0 be the elliptic curve $Y^2Z=X^3+XZ^2$, P_0 be a uniformly random point in $E_0(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order 2^r, and $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{b}$ be random elements of $\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ whose norms are odd. Furthermore, let Q be a uniformly random point of order 2^r in $([\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0)(\mathbb{F}_p)$. Set λ as the bit length of p.*

The P-CSSDDH assumption holds if, for any efficient algorithm $\mathcal{A}$,

$$\left|\Pr\left[b=b^* \;\middle|\; \begin{array}{l} P_0\xleftarrow{\$}E_0(\mathbb{F}_p)_{\text{order } 2^r},\ \mathfrak{a},\mathfrak{b}\leftarrow\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p]),\ b\xleftarrow{\$}\{0,1\},\\ Q\xleftarrow{\$}([\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0)(\mathbb{F}_p)_{\text{order } 2^r},\ R_0\coloneqq\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0,\ R_1\coloneqq Q,\\ b^*\leftarrow\mathcal{A}(E_0,P_0,[\mathfrak{a}]E_0,\mathfrak{a}P_0,[\mathfrak{b}]E_0,\mathfrak{b}P_0,[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0,R_b)\end{array}\right]-\frac{1}{2}\right| < \mathrm{negl}(\lambda).$$

Remark 2.3. *An equivalence class $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ is uniquely determined from*

$$E_0, P_0, [\mathfrak{a}]E_0, \mathfrak{a}P_0, [\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mathfrak{b}P_0, [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0.$$

Now, we prove this fact.

Let $\mathfrak{a}$, $\mathfrak{a}'$, $\mathfrak{b}$, and $\mathfrak{b}'$ be elements of $\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ such that $[\mathfrak{a}]=[\mathfrak{a}']$, $[\mathfrak{b}]=[\mathfrak{b}']$, $\mathfrak{a}P_0=\mathfrak{a}'P_0$, $\mathfrak{b}P_0=\mathfrak{b}'P_0$, and the norms of $\mathfrak{a}$, $\mathfrak{a}'$, $\mathfrak{b}$, and $\mathfrak{b}'$ are coprime to the order of P_0. Now, we prove that $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0=\mathfrak{a}'\mathfrak{b}'P_0$. From the definition of an ideal class group, there exist $\alpha,\beta\in\mathbb{Q}(\pi_p)^\times$ such that $\mathfrak{a}=\mathfrak{a}'\alpha$ and $\mathfrak{b}=\mathfrak{b}'\beta$. Then, $\alpha(P_0)=\pm P_0$ holds, because the norms of $\mathfrak{a}$ and $\mathfrak{a}'$ are coprime to the order of P_0, and $\mathfrak{a}P_0=\mathfrak{a}'P_0$. Similarly, $\beta(P_0)=\pm P_0$. Therefore, $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0=\mathfrak{a}'\mathfrak{b}'\alpha\beta P_0=\mathfrak{a}'\mathfrak{b}'P_0$.

Remark 2.4. *In the above definitions, we sample elements of $\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ by taking $(\alpha,e_1,\dots,e_n)$ uniformly from $(\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times\times\{-m,\dots,m\}^n$ that represents $\alpha\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1}\cdots\mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n}\in\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$.*

Next, we prove the security of SiGamal under the above assumptions.

Theorem 2.2. *If the P-CSSCDH assumption holds, then SiGamal is OW-CPA secure.*

Proof. Assume that SiGamal is not OW-CPA secure. In that case, there exists an efficient algorithm (adversary) $\mathcal{A}'$ that, with high probability, outputs a hidden plaintext μ from

$$(E_0,P_0,[\mathfrak{a}]E_0,\mathfrak{a}P_0),([\mathfrak{b}]E_0,\mathfrak{b}P_0,[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0,(2\mu+1)\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0).$$

Now, we construct a new algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that outputs $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ from

$$(E_0,P_0),([\mathfrak{a}]E_0,\mathfrak{a}P_0),([\mathfrak{b}]E_0,\mathfrak{b}P_0),[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$$

with high probability (*i.e.*, $\omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right)$). Taking a random point Q of order 2^r from $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$, we compute

$$\mu\coloneqq\mathcal{A}'((E_0,P_0,[\mathfrak{a}]E_0,\mathfrak{a}P_0),([\mathfrak{b}]E_0,\mathfrak{b}P_0,[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0,Q)).$$

Here, $Q=(2\mu+1)\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ holds with high probability. Note that $2\mu+1$ belongs to $(\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$. From Q and μ, we compute $\frac{1}{2\mu+1}Q$. That is, algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ outputs $\frac{1}{2\mu+1}Q$, which is $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ with high probability.

It is obvious that $\mathcal{A}$ is an efficient algorithm. Therefore, the P-CSSCDH assumption does not hold. □

Theorem 2.3. *If the P-CSSDDH assumption holds, then SiGamal is IND-CPA secure.*

Proof. Assume that SiGamal is not IND-CPA secure. In that case, there exists an efficient algorithm (adversary) $\mathcal{A}'$ judging whether a given ciphertext was encrypted from μ_0 or μ_1. Denote the advantage of $\mathcal{A}'$ (*i.e.*, the left side of the inequality in Definition 1.5) by $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda)$. Note that $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda)=\omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right)$.

Now, we construct a new algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that outputs b, with a probability of $\omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right)+\frac{1}{2}$, from

$$E_0,P_0,[\mathfrak{a}]E_0,\mathfrak{a}P_0,[\mathfrak{b}]E_0,\mathfrak{b}P_0,[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0,R_b,$$

where $R_0 = \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ and $R_1 = Q$. Taking $\tilde{b} \in \{0,1\}$ uniformly at random, we compute $(2\mu_{\tilde{b}}+1)R_b$. Let

$$b^* \coloneqq \mathcal{A}'((E_0, P_0, [\mathfrak{a}]E_0, \mathfrak{a}P_0), ([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mathfrak{b}P_0, [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0, (2\mu_{\tilde{b}}+1)R_b)).$$

If $\tilde{b} = b^*$, then $\mathcal{A}$ outputs 0, while if $\tilde{b} \neq b^*$, $\mathcal{A}$ outputs 1.

Next, we discuss the probability that $\mathcal{A}$ outputs the correct b. If $b = 0$, then $b^* = \tilde{b}$ with a probability of $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda)+\frac{1}{2}$ or $-\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda)+\frac{1}{2}$. If $b = 1$, then the adversary $\mathcal{A}'$ cannot get any information about $\mu_{\tilde{b}}$, since $(2\mu_{\tilde{b}}+1)R_b$ is a uniformly random point. Therefore, if $b = 1$, $b^* \neq \tilde{b}$ with a probability of $\frac{1}{2}$. Consequently, the probability that $\mathcal{A}$ outputs the correct b is

$$\frac{1}{2}\left(\pm\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda)+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}\right) = \pm\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda)+\frac{1}{2} = \omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right)+\frac{1}{2}.$$

Therefore, as algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is an efficient algorithm, the P-CSSDDH assumption does not hold. □

Note that SiGamal is not IND-CCA secure, because anyone can easily compute a ciphertext of a plaintext $3\mu+1$: $([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mathfrak{b}P_0, [\mathfrak{b}]E_1, 3(2\mu+1)\mathfrak{b}P_1)$ from the ciphertext of a plaintext μ: $([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mathfrak{b}P_0, [\mathfrak{b}]E_1, (2\mu+1)\mathfrak{b}P_1)$.

Remark 2.5. *In the SiGamal protocol, Bob can omit to send $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$ in the ciphertext $([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mathfrak{b}P_0, [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0, (2\mu+1)\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0)$. Note that Bob sends only the x-coordinate of $(2\mu+1)\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$. When Bob omits to send $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$, it is hard to compute the ciphertext of a plaintext $3\mu+1$ from that of a plaintext μ, because the elliptic curve $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$ is hidden. The question of whether SiGamal with hidden $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$ is IND-CCA secure is an open problem.*

Remark 2.6. *SiGamal is attacked by computing a group element $[\mathfrak{a}]$ from E_0 and $[\mathfrak{a}]E_0$. This attacking method is same as that for CSIDH. Therefore, the security level of SiGamal is same as that of CSIDH in the same security parameter.*

3. C-SiGamal (Compressed-SiGamal)

In this section, we explain the second proposed protocol: C-SiGamal, which is a compressed version of SiGamal. The bit length of a ciphertext in C-SiGamal is half that of a ciphertext in SiGamal, but the protocol of C-SiGamal is a little bit more complicated than that of SiGamal.

3.1 Encryption protocol of C-SiGamal

In this subsection, we explain the precise protocol of C-SiGamal.

Let E_a be a supersingular elliptic curve $Y^2Z = X^3 + aX^2Z + XZ^2$. Let P_{E_a} be a point in E_a such that $P_{E_a} = \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n \tilde{P}_{E_a}$, where $\tilde{P}_{E_a}$ is the point in $E_a(\mathbb{F}_p)$ that has the largest x-coordinate in $\{-2, -3, \ldots, -p+1\}$ among points whose orders are divisible by 2^r. We use this point to construct C-SiGamal.

The protocol of C-SiGamal is as follows.

KeyGen: Let p be a prime that satisfies $p = 2^r \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_n - 1$, where $\ell_1, \ldots, \ell_n$ are small distinct odd primes. Let E_0 be the elliptic curve $Y^2Z = X^3 + XZ^2$, and P_0 be a random point in $E_0(\mathbb{F}_p)$ of order 2^r. Alice takes random elements $\mathfrak{a} = (\alpha)\mathfrak{l}_1^{e_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e_n} \in \mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ and computes $E_1 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{a}]E_0$ and $P_1 \coloneqq \mathfrak{a}P_0$. Alice then publishes (E_0, P_0) and (E_1, P_1) as public keys, and keeps $(\alpha, e_1, \ldots, e_n)$ as a secret key. Let $\{0,1\}^{r-2}$ be a plaintext message space.

Enc: Let μ be a plaintext. Bob takes random elements $\mathfrak{b} = (\beta)\mathfrak{l}_1^{e'_1} \cdots \mathfrak{l}_n^{e'_n}$ in $\mathcal{I}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ and computes $E_3 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{b}]E_0$, $P_3 \coloneqq \mathfrak{b}P_0$, $E_4 \coloneqq [\mathfrak{b}]E_1$, and $P_4 \coloneqq \mathfrak{b}P_1$. Bob computes $(2\mu+1)P_{E_4}$ and gets μ^* satisfying $(2\mu+1)P_{E_4} = \mu^*P_4$ by using the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm. Bob then computes $P'_3 \coloneqq \mu^*P_3$ and sends (E_3, P'_3) to Alice as a ciphertext.

Dec: Alice computes $E_4 = [\mathfrak{a}]E_3$ and $\mathfrak{a}P'_3$. Alice then solves the discrete logarithm problem over $\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z}$ for $\mathfrak{a}P'_3$ and P_{E_4} by using the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm. Let M be the solution of this computation. If the most significant bit of M is 1, then Alice changes M to $2^r - M$. Finally, Alice computes $(M-1)/2$ as a plaintext $\tilde{\mu}$.

Theorem 3.1. *C-SiGamal is correct.*

Proof. The proof of this theorem is similar to that of Theorem 2.1. □

3.2 Security of C-SiGamal

In this subsection, we prove the security of C-SiGamal.

Theorem 3.2. *If the P-CSSCDH assumption holds, then C-SiGamal is OW-CPA secure.*

Proof. Assume that C-SiGamal is not OW-CPA secure. In that case, there is an efficient algorithm (adversary) $\mathcal{A}'$ that, with high probability, outputs a hidden plaintext μ from

$$(E_0, P_0, [\mathfrak{a}]E_0, \mathfrak{a}P_0), ([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mu^*\mathfrak{b}P_0).$$

Now, we construct a new algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that outputs $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ from

$$(E_0, P_0), ([\mathfrak{a}]E_0, \mathfrak{a}P_0), ([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mathfrak{b}P_0), [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$$

with high probability (*i.e.*, $\omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right)$). Taking a random element ν in $(\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ and the point $P_{[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0}$ in $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$, we compute

$$\mu \coloneqq \mathcal{A}'((E_0, P_0, [\mathfrak{a}]E_0, \mathfrak{a}P_0), ([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \nu\mathfrak{b}P_0)).$$

Here, $(2\mu+1)P_{[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0} = \nu\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ holds with high probability. Then, we compute $\frac{2\mu+1}{\nu}P_{[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0}$. That is, algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ outputs $\frac{2\mu+1}{\nu}P_{[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0}$, which is $\mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ with high probability.

It is obvious that $\mathcal{A}$ is an efficient algorithm. Therefore, the P-CSSCDH assumption does not hold. □

Theorem 3.3. *If the P-CSSDDH assumption holds, then C-SiGamal is IND-CPA secure.*

Proof. Assume that C-SiGamal is not IND-CPA secure. In that, there exists an efficient algorithm (adversary) $\mathcal{A}'$ judging whether a given ciphertext was encrypted from μ_0 or μ_1. Denote the advantage of $\mathcal{A}'$ (*i.e.*, the left side of

Table 1 Comparison of key sizes of CSIDH, SiGamal, and C-SiGamal

	CSIDH	SiGamal	C-SiGamal
sizes of plaintexts	–	$r-2$	$r-2$
Alice's public key	$2\log_2 p$	$4\log_2 p$	$4\log_2 p$
a ciphertext	$2\log_2 p$	$4\log_2 p$	$\mathbf{2\log_2 p}$

the inequality in Definition 1.5) by $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda)$. Note that $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda) = \omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right)$.

Now, we construct a new algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ that outputs b, with a probability of $\omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right) + \frac{1}{2}$, from

$$E_0, P_0, [\mathfrak{a}]E_0, \mathfrak{a}P_0, [\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mathfrak{b}P_0, [\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0, R_b,$$

where $R_0 = \mathfrak{a}\mathfrak{b}P_0$ and $R_1 = Q$. Taking the point $P_{[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0}$ in $[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0$ and $\tilde{b} \in \{0,1\}$ uniformly at random, we compute a point $(2\mu_{\tilde{b}}+1)R_b$ and a value $\mu_{\tilde{b}}^* \in (\mathbb{Z}/2^r\mathbb{Z})^\times$ such that $\mu_{\tilde{b}}^* P_{[\mathfrak{a}][\mathfrak{b}]E_0} = (2\mu_{\tilde{b}}+1)R_b$. Then, let

$$b^* \coloneqq \mathcal{A}'((E_0, P_0, [\mathfrak{a}]E_0, \mathfrak{a}P_0), ([\mathfrak{b}]E_0, \mu_{\tilde{b}}^* \mathfrak{b}P_0)).$$

If $\tilde{b} = b^*$, then $\mathcal{A}$ outputs 0, while if $\tilde{b} \neq b^*$, $\mathcal{A}$ outputs 1.

Next, we discuss the probability that $\mathcal{A}$ outputs the correct b. If $b = 0$, then $b^* = \tilde{b}$ with a probability of $\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda) + \frac{1}{2}$ or $-\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda) + \frac{1}{2}$. If $b = 1$, then the adversary $\mathcal{A}'$ cannot get any information about $\mu_{\tilde{b}}$, because $(2\mu_{\tilde{b}}+1)R_b$ is a uniformly random point and $\mu_{\tilde{b}}^*$ is a uniformly random value. Therefore, if $b = 1$, then $b^* \neq \tilde{b}$ with a probability of $\frac{1}{2}$. Consequently, the probability that $\mathcal{A}$ outputs the correct b is

$$\frac{1}{2}\left(\pm\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda) + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \pm\frac{1}{2}\mathrm{Adv}_{\mathcal{A}'}(\lambda) + \frac{1}{2} = \omega\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{poly}(\lambda)}\right) + \frac{1}{2}.$$

As algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is an efficient algorithm, the P-CSSDDH assumption does not hold. □

Finally, note that C-SiGamal is not IND-CCA secure for the same reason that SiGamal is not.

3.3 Comparison the key size of each protocol

In this subsection, we compare key sizes of CSIDH, SiGamal, and C-SiGamal. The result of comparison is shown in Table 1, where p is a prime in the setting of each protocol, and r is an exponent of a prime factor 2 of $p+1$.

From this table, the bit length of a ciphertext in SiGamal is twice that of a ciphertext in CSIDH; however that of a ciphertext in C-SiGamal is the same as that of a ciphertext in CSIDH. Therefore, though C-SiGamal is more complicated than SiGamal, the cost of sending ciphertexts in C-SiGamal is as small as that in CSIDH.

4. Experimentation

In this section, we show the results of our experimentation to estimate computational costs of our proposed protocols. In our experimentation, we fixed security levels of all protocols to the security level of CSIDH-512. In other words, we chose primes that satisfy their bits are about 512 in all experimentations.

Table 2 Computational costs of group actions

parameters	(p_{128}, P_{128})	(p_{256}, P_{256})	CSIDH-512
bit lengths of p	522	515	512
M	511,531	866,000	328,301
S	158,849	302,400	116,953
a	480,134	838,330	332,933
total	662,617	1,149,836	438,510

4.1 Parameters

In this subsection, we propose two parameters for SiGamal and C-SiGamal: (p_{128}, P_{128}) for the case when the plaintext message space is $\{0,1\}^{128}$, and (p_{256}, P_{256}) for the case when the plaintext message space is $\{0,1\}^{256}$. Let the bit lengths of p_{128} and p_{256} be about 512 to adapt the security level of SiGamal and C-SiGamal to that of CSIDH-512.

4.1.1 (p_{128}, P_{128})

Let p_{128} be a prime $2^{130} \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_{60} - 1$, where ℓ_1 through ℓ_{59} are the smallest distinct odd primes, and ℓ_{60} is 569. The bit length of p_{128} is 522. Set a key bound m_{128} over p_{128} as 10. Finally, let a point P_{128} of order 2^{130} in $E_0(\mathbb{F}_{p_{128}})$ be $\ell_1 \cdots \ell_{60}\tilde{P}_{128}$, where $\tilde{P}_{128}$ is a point whose x-coordinate is 331.

4.1.2 (p_{256}, P_{256})

Let p_{256} be a prime $2^{258} \cdot \ell_1 \cdots \ell_{43} - 1$, where ℓ_1 through ℓ_{42} are the smallest distinct odd primes, and ℓ_{43} is 307. The bit length of p_{256} is 515. Set a key bound m_{258} over p_{258} as 32. Finally, let a point P_{256} of order 2^{258} in $E_0(\mathbb{F}_{p_{256}})$ be $\ell_1 \cdots \ell_{43}\tilde{P}_{256}$, where $\tilde{P}_{256}$ is a point whose x-coordinate is 199.

4.2 Computational costs of SiGamal and C-SiGamal

Here, we show the results of our experimentation about SiGamal and C-SiGamal. The protocols of SiGamal and C-SiGamal consist of group actions, scalar multiplications, and the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm. Computational complexity of scalar multiplications is $O(r)$, and that of the Pohlig-Hellman algorithm is $O(r^2)$. Their computational costs affect little on all computational costs of SiGamal and C-SiGamal.

We implemented group actions of $\mathrm{cl}(\mathbb{Z}[\pi_p])$ over p_{128}, p_{256}, and as a reference value, p_0. Here, p_0 is a prime proposed in the original CSIDH paper [2]: a prime $4\ell_1 \cdots \ell_{74} - 1$ such that $\ell_1 \ldots \ell_{73}$ are the smallest distinct odd primes and $\ell_{74} = 587$, and a key bound m_0 is 5. We implemented algorithms of group actions in SiGamal over p_{128} and p_{256} and Algorithm 1 over p_0 according to [11]. Then, for each case we measured the average computational cost over 50,000 trials. Refer to Appendix A.1 in [12] for the computational costs of each formula for the Montgomery curves. The results are listed in Table 2, in which we denote field multiplication by **M**, field squaring by **S**, and field addition, subtraction, or doubling by **a**. The quantity "total" means the total number of **M**, where $1\mathbf{S} = 0.8\mathbf{M}$ and $1\mathbf{a} = 0.05\mathbf{M}$.

Remark 4.1. *There are techniques for improving the efficiency of group actions in CSIDH, such as SIMBA [10], optimal addition chains for scalar multiplications [3],*

Table 3 Computational costs of SiGamal and C-SiGamal (numbers of **M**)

parameters	(p_{128}, P_{128})		(p_{256}, P_{256})	
a bit length of μ	128		256	
protocols	SiGamal	C-SiGamal	SiGamal	C-SiGamal
key generation	663,411		1,154,035	
encryption	1,327,899	1,434,944	2,306,317	2,703,339
decryption	761,058	768,602	1,538,498	1,545,253

and key space optimization [8]. These techniques can be adapted to SiGamal and C-SiGamal.

Next, we implemented protocols of SiGamal and CSiGamal. The result is shown in Table 3. As shown in this table, the computational costs of the encryption algorithms of C-SiGamal over p_{128} are about 108% than that of two group actions, and those over p_{256} are about 117% than that of two group actions. Moreover, that of the decryption algorithms of SiGamal and C-SiGamal over p_{128} are about 116% than that of one group action, and those over p_{256} are about 134% than that of one group action.

From Table 2, the computational cost of a group action over (p_{256}, P_{256}) is about 2.62 times that of a group action of CSIDH-512. Therefore, SiGamal and C-SiGamal need more computation than CSIDH. However, when we use CSIDH for secure communication, we need to use hash functions since a shared key in CSIDH is a supersingular elliptic curve. If these hash functions are attacked, the communication is less secure, even if CSIDH is not broken. In fact, ElGamal like encryption based on CSIDH in the subsection 1.5.3 is not IND-CPA secure without using hash functions. On the other hand, when we use SiGamal or C-SiGamal, the security of communication is guaranteed by the security of SiGamal or C-SiGamal. Moreover, bit lengths of shared keys in CSIDH are determined by the security parameter (*i.e.*, the bit length of the prime p) and hash functions, while bit lengths of plaintexts in SiGamal and C-SiGamal are determined by r. Because the only condition that r satisfies is $r < \log_2 p$, bit lengths of plaintexts in SiGamal and C-SiGamal are determined relatively freely. Summary, SiGamal and C-SiGamal are less efficient than CSIDH; however, SiGamal and C-SiGamal is superior to CSIDH in terms of security and functionality.

5. Conclusion

We have proposed new isogeny-based public key encryptions: SiGamal and C-SiGamal. We developed SiGamal by giving CSIDH additional points of order 2^r, where $r-2$ is the bit length of a plaintext. The protocol of SiGamal is similar to that of ElGamal encryption, while C-SiGamal is a compressed version of SiGamal. These protocols do not use hash functions.

In addition, we have proved that, if the new P-CSSCDH assumption holds, then SiGamal and C-SiGamal are OW-CPA secure, and if the new P-CSSDDH assumption holds, then SiGamal and C-SiGamal are IND-CPA secure.

Finally, we experimented group actions in SiGamal and C-SiGamal and measured their computational costs. The computational costs of these group actions in SiGamal and C-SiGamal with $r = 258$ are about 2.62 times that of a group action in CSIDH-512.

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