# An efficient key recovery attack on SIDH 

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#### Abstract

We present an efficient key recovery attack on the Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman protocol (SIDH). The attack is based on Kani's "reducibility criterion" for isogenies from products of elliptic curves and strongly relies on the torsion point images that Alice and Bob exchange during the protocol. If we assume knowledge of the endomorphism ring of the starting curve then the classical running time is polynomial in the input size (heuristically), apart from the factorization of a small number of integers that only depend on the system parameters. The attack is particularly fast and easy to implement if one of the parties uses 2 -isogenies and the starting curve comes equipped with a non-scalar endomorphism of very small degree; this is the case for SIKE, the instantiation of SIDH that recently advanced to the fourth round of NIST's standardization effort for post-quantum cryptography. Our Magma implementation breaks SIKEp434, which aims at security level 1, in about ten minutes on a single core.


Keywords: isogeny-based cryptography, SIDH, elliptic curves, genus 2 curves

## 1 Introduction

We present a new and powerful key recovery attack on the Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman key exchange protocol (SIDH), proposed in 2011 by Jao and De Feo [25] and considered the flagship of isogeny-based cryptography. Its instantiation SIKE [24] recently advanced to the fourth round of the post-quantum cryptography standardization process, currently run by NIST 33.

The attack is based on a "reducibility criterion" from 1997 due to Kani [26, Thm. 2.6] for determining whether an isogeny emanating from a product of two elliptic curves takes us again to a product of elliptic curves, rather than to the Jacobian of a genus 2 curve as one would expect. This heavily outperforms previous attack strategies, such as the ones discussed in [11, §5], 37, 31, 36, both in theory and in practice. Run on a single core, the appended Magma code [2] breaks the Microsoft SIKE challenges \$IKEp182 and \$IKEp217 from 32

[^0]in about 55 s and 85 s , respectively. A run on the SIKEp434 parameters, previously believed to meet NIST's quantum security level 1, took roughly 10m, again on a single core. We also ran the code on random instances of SIKEp503 (level 2), SIKEp610 (level 3) and SIKEp751 (level 5), which on average took about 20m, 55 m and 3 h 15 m , respectively.

For the sake of exposition, we concentrate on the concrete set-up of SIKE and comment on more general parameter choices as we see fit. Our attack targets Bob's private key, which is a secret $3^{b}$-isogeny $\varphi: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow E$ between two supersingular elliptic curves $E_{\text {start }}, E$. The starting curve $E_{\text {start }}$ is a system parameter and is endowed with two independent points $P_{0}, Q_{0} \in E_{\text {start }}$ of order $2^{a}$; the exponents $a, b$ are system parameters too. Bob's public key consists of the codomain $E$ and the image points $\varphi\left(P_{0}\right), \varphi\left(Q_{0}\right)$. As explained in Section 4, it follows from Kani's criterion that for any isogeny $\gamma: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow C$ of degree $2^{a}-3^{b}$ (assume for now that this is positive) the $\left(2^{a}, 2^{a}\right)$-isogeny from $C \times E$ with kernel generated by $\left(\gamma\left(P_{0}\right), \varphi\left(P_{0}\right)\right),\left(\gamma\left(Q_{0}\right), \varphi\left(Q_{0}\right)\right)$ must again land on a product of elliptic curves. The idea behind our attack is that landing on a product is extremely unlikely if $E, \varphi\left(P_{0}\right), \varphi\left(Q_{0}\right)$ do not constitute a valid public key triple. In other words, we can use Kani's criterion as a decision tool. An easy search-to-decision reduction then allows to recover $\varphi$. The details of this reduction can be found in Section 6.

The main bottleneck is finding and evaluating the auxiliary isogeny $\gamma$; once this is done, the decision algorithm amounts to computing a length- $a$ chain of $(2,2)$-isogenies, which is very efficient (Richelot isogenies). Our focus lies on the cases where $E_{\text {start }}$ is one of

$$
\begin{equation*}
y^{2}=x^{3}+x, \quad y^{2}=x^{3}+6 x^{2}+x \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

which are supersingular in characteristic $p \equiv 3 \bmod 4$. The former was the starting curve of SIKE when it was submitted to the first round of the NIST standardization effort. The use of the latter curve was proposed from the second round onwards. Both curves come equipped with an explicit endomorphism $2 \mathbf{i}$ satisfying $2 \mathbf{i} \circ 2 \mathbf{i}=[-4]$. As discussed in Section 5 this feature often lends itself to a very simple construction of $\gamma$, apart from the cost of factoring $2^{a}-3^{b}$ (precomputable). In practice, the success probability is high enough for setting our search-to-decision reduction in motion, where now polynomially many integers of size $O\left(2^{a}\right)$ must be factored; concretely, these integers are all of the form $2^{a-j}-3^{b-i}$. As the reader can tell from the above timings, the resulting attack on SIKE is devastating.

While the endomorphism $2 \mathbf{i}$ is sufficient for a practical break of SIKE in all security levels, the asymptotic time complexity is only sub-exponential; more precisely, modulo the said factorizations, we expect it to run in time $L_{p}(1 / 4)$, see Section 10. In order to reach a polynomial runtime (heuristically and again modulo factorization), one must also resort to non-scalar endomorphisms of other very small degrees. Such endomorphisms may not exist on $E_{\text {start }}$, but in view of the work of Love and Boneh [29] one can easily find explicit isogenies to curves on which they do occur. The KLPT algorithm from [27] then allows to transform
a degree $2^{a}-3^{b}$ isogeny emanating from such a curve into the desired instance of $\gamma: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow C$. In fact, for this approach, it is not required that $E_{\text {start }}$ is among (1): any starting curve curve whose endomorphism ring is known will do.

Remark 1. If the endomorphism ring of $E_{\text {start }}$ is unknown, then one can still construct $\gamma$ efficiently in case $2^{a}-3^{b}$ happens to be smooth. This event is highly unlikely, but as explained in Section 11 one can create more leeway by extending $\varphi$ and by guessing how it acts on small-order torsion; as was pointed out to us by De Feo and Wesolowski (independently), the resulting attack runs heuristically in time $L_{p}(1 / 2+\epsilon)$.

We finally note that our attack also breaks instantiations of SIDH that make other torsion choices for Alice and Bob. Indeed, the strategy can be used for the recovery of a secret $\ell_{\mathrm{B}}^{b}$-isogeny from $\ell_{\mathrm{A}}^{a}$-torsion point information for any small primes $\ell_{\mathrm{A}}, \ell_{\mathrm{B}}$, as long as $\ell_{\mathrm{B}}^{b}=O\left(\ell_{\mathrm{A}}^{a}\right)$; in particular, when applied to SIKE this also allows to find Alice's private key. It can even handle non-prime-power torsion, as used in for example B-SIDH [9. Our claims on the asymptotic runtime still apply, but away from $\ell_{A}=2$ implementing the attack is more cumbersome because one can no longer rely on fast Richelot isogenies; see Section 11 for a more elaborate discussion.

## Follow-up work

After a first version of this paper was posted online, several improvements and extensions have made an appearance; for the sake of chronology, the remainder of this paper is free of references to these follow-up works, but let us give a quick overview. It was observed by Maino and Martindale [30. 1 Oudompheng [34, Petit (personal communication) and Wesolowski 45] that Kani's machinery also allows for a direct key recovery, which is considerably faster than our decisional approach. Various other speed-ups were found in an effort led by Oudompheng and Pope to reimplement the attack in SageMath [35], 40], and in a parallel effort by Steel to fine-tune our Magma implementation. Notably, the Magma kernel was updated with improved $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$-arithmetic, resulting in a faster execution of our code (the initial timings were slower by factors 4 to 8 , roughly). In the case of a starting curve with known endomorphism ring, Wesolowski rigorously proved, assuming the generalized Riemann hypothesis, that the auxiliary isogeny $\gamma$ can be constructed in polynomial time, without any need for factorizations 45]. The most remarkable follow-up work is due to Robert [38], who showed how to get rid, unconditionally, of all endomorphism ring assumptions by working with abelian eightfolds rather than surfaces (using an idea that is reminiscent of the Zarhin trick). He also crushed the hope for secure higher-dimensional variants of SIDH. Fouotsa, Moriya and Petit have proposed an interesting (yet impractical) variant of SIDH that aims at thwarting the current attacks [18].

[^1]
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## 2 Impact and non-impact on isogeny-based cryptosystems

Our attack also impacts various cryptographic schemes that build on SIDH, or make use of similar hardness assumptions, such as B-SIDH [9], SHealS [19] and $k$-SIDH 11. As discussed in Section 11, even in the case of a starting curve with unknown endomorphism ring, our attack lowers the security of all these schemes. Here, an interesting target is Séta 13, which allows much leeway for an attacker, coming from largely imbalanced torsion levels ${ }^{2}$ On the other hand, we stress that the attack relies crucially on the torsion point images exchanged by Alice and Bob, as well as on the knowledge of the degree of the secret isogeny. In particular, it cannot be adjusted in an obvious way to attack primitives that do not reveal this information, such as CRS/CSIDH [10], [39], 7] and SQISign [12], and the general supersingular isogeny path problem remains unaffected 44. We forward the reader to an online project, initiated by De Feo, which attempts at organizing the most popular isogeny-based cryptographic protocols and their best classical and quantum attacks [14].

## 3 Concrete set-up

Concretely, we will describe an algorithm which, upon input of
(i) an SIDH prime $p$, i.e., $p=2^{a} 3^{b} f-1$ for integers $a \geq 2, b, f \geq 1$ with $2^{a} \approx 3^{b}$,
(ii) an elliptic curve $E_{0} / \mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$ with $\# E_{0}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}\right)=(p+1)^{2}$,
(iii) generators $P_{0}, Q_{0}$ of $E_{0}\left[2^{a}\right]$,
(iv) a $3^{\beta}$-isogeny $\tau: E_{0} \rightarrow E_{\text {start }}$ for some $\beta \geq 0$, where $E_{\text {start }}$ is one of the two curves (1) that have served as starting curves in SIKE,
(v) the codomain $E / \mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$ of a secret cyclic $3^{b}$-isogeny $\varphi: E_{0} \rightarrow E$,
(vi) the generators $P=\varphi\left(P_{0}\right)$ and $Q=\varphi\left(Q_{0}\right)$ of $E\left[2^{a}\right]$,
returns the isogeny $\varphi$. For simplicity we assume that $\varphi$ is uniquely determined, which is true with overwhelming probability. If $2^{a-1}>3^{b / 2}$ then this is guaranteed by [43, Lem. 3.1]. A note on input (iv): when attacking SIKE, at the initial stage we will have $\beta=0$ and $E_{0}=E_{\text {start }}$, so the reader can keep this setting in mind for now. But our search-to-decision reduction will involve a recursion during which the value of $\beta$ will grow, whence this more general formulation. Moreover, we also want to cope with larger values of $\beta$ when discussing other starting curves with a known endomorphism ring.

[^2]
## 4 Decision via Kani's reducibility criterion

We first study the following decision variant: we assume to be given (i), (ii), (iii) and an elliptic curve $E / \mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$ satisfying $\# E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}\right)=(p+1)^{2}$, along with generators $P, Q$ of $E\left[2^{a}\right]$. The goal is to decide whether or not
(D) there is a $3^{b}$-isogeny $\varphi: E_{0} \rightarrow E$ such that $\varphi\left(P_{0}\right)=P$ and $\varphi\left(Q_{0}\right)=Q$.

We impose two technical conditions that will be discussed in more detail later on:

- We suppose that $2^{a}>3^{b}$.
- Let $c=2^{a}-3^{b}$. We assume that we can compute the images $P_{c}=\gamma\left(P_{0}\right)$ and $Q_{c}=\gamma\left(Q_{0}\right)$ under an arbitrary $c$-isogeny $\gamma: E_{0} \rightarrow C$ to some codomain curve $C$.

We let $x \in \mathbb{Z}$ denote a multiplicative inverse of $3^{b}$ modulo $2^{a}$. Note that $-x$ is then a multiplicative inverse of $c$ modulo $2^{a}$.

## 4.1 $\left(2^{a}, 2^{a}\right)$-subgroups built from torsion point information

If (D) holds then we can consider the isogeny

$$
\psi=[-1] \circ \varphi \circ \hat{\gamma}: C \rightarrow E
$$

where we note that $\psi\left(P_{c}\right)=-c P$ and $\psi\left(Q_{c}\right)=-c Q$. For all $R, S \in C\left[2^{a}\right]$ we have that

$$
e_{2^{a}}(x \psi(R), x \psi(S))=e_{2^{a}}(R, S)^{x^{2} c 3^{b}}=e_{2^{a}}(R, S)^{-1}
$$

or in other words the group homomorphism

$$
\left.[x] \circ \psi\right|_{C\left[2^{a}\right]}: C\left[2^{a}\right] \rightarrow E\left[2^{a}\right]
$$

is a so-called "anti-isometry" with respect to the $2^{a}$-Weil pairing. This implies that the group

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\left(P_{c}, x \psi\left(P_{c}\right)\right),\left(Q_{c}, x \psi\left(Q_{c}\right)\right)\right\rangle=\left\langle\left(P_{c}, P\right),\left(Q_{c}, Q\right)\right\rangle \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is maximally isotropic with respect to the $2^{a}$-Weil pairing on the product $C \times E$ (equipped with the product polarization). Indeed,

$$
e_{2^{a}}\left(\left(P_{c}, x \psi\left(P_{c}\right)\right),\left(Q_{c}, x \psi\left(Q_{c}\right)\right)\right)=e_{2^{a}}\left(P_{c}, Q_{c}\right) e_{2^{a}}\left(x \psi\left(P_{c}\right), x \psi\left(Q_{c}\right)\right)=1
$$

because the Weil pairing on $C \times E$ is just the product of the Weil pairings of the corresponding components.

Therefore it concerns the kernel of a $\left(2^{a}, 2^{a}\right)$-isogeny of principally polarized abelian surfaces. By writing this isogeny as a composition of $(2,2)$-isogenies, it can be viewed as a walk of length $a$ in the (2,2)-isogeny graph of superspecial principally polarized abelian surfaces over $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_{p}$, all of whose vertices are defined
over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$. These vertices come in two types: about $p^{2} / 288$ products of supersingular elliptic curves and about $p^{3} / 2880$ Jacobians of superspecial genus 2 curves, see e.g. [3]. Therefore it is to be expected that most isogenies in the chain are between Jacobians of genus 2 curves, and such isogenies can be computed efficiently using "classical" formulae due to Richelot [42]. But the first step is clearly an exception to this: with overwhelming probability, this is a "gluing" step, mapping the product $C \times E$ to a Jacobian (more precisely, by Theorem 1 below this can only fail if $C \cong E$ ). Formulae for this gluing step were derived in [23] and are recalled in Section 8 .

### 4.2 Kani's theorem

What is the role of the isogeny $\gamma$ in all this? Its aim is to force us into the exceptional situation where the last step of the chain is split, i.e., the codomain of our $\left(2^{a}, 2^{a}\right)$-isogeny is again a product of elliptic curves. In that case the anti-isometry $\left.x \psi\right|_{C\left[2^{a}\right]}$ and the group $(2)$ are called "reducible". This event is characterized by the theorem of Kani [26, Thm. 2.6]:

Definition 1. Let $C, E$ be two elliptic curves and $N \geq 2$ an integer. Let $\psi$ : $C \rightarrow E$ be a separable isogeny and let $H_{1}, H_{2} \subset \operatorname{ker} \psi$ be subgroups such that $H_{1} \cap H_{2}=\{0\}, \# H_{1} \cdot \# H_{2}=\operatorname{deg} \psi$ and $\# H_{1}+\# H_{2}=N$. Then the triplet $\left(\psi, H_{1}, H_{2}\right)$ is called an isogeny diamond configuration of order $N$ between $C$ and $E$.

Theorem 1. Let $\left(\psi, H_{1}, H_{2}\right)$ be an isogeny diamond configuration of order $N \geq$ 2 between two elliptic curves $C$ and $E$. Let $d=\operatorname{gcd}\left(\# H_{1}, \# H_{2}\right)$, let $n=N / d$ and let $k_{i}=\# H_{i} / d$ for $i=1,2$. Then $\psi$ factors uniquely over $[d]$, i.e. $\psi=\psi^{\prime} \circ[d]$ and there is a unique reducible anti-isometry $\iota: C[N] \rightarrow E[N]$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\iota\left(k_{1} R_{1}+k_{2} R_{2}\right)=\psi^{\prime}\left(R_{2}-R_{1}\right) \text { for all } R_{i} \in[n]^{-1} H_{i} \quad(i=1,2) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, if $N \leq p$ then every reducible anti-isometry $C[N] \rightarrow E[N]$ is of this form.

Remark 2. Kani allows for inseparable isogenies in Definition 1, in which case $\# H_{i}$ should be interpreted as the degree of the corresponding subgroup scheme. When doing so, the condition $N \leq p$ in Theorem 1 can be discarded; this was merely added to ensure that $\psi$ is separable.

In our case, the kernel of $\psi$ is a group of order $c 3^{b}$, so it admits two (unique) subgroups $H_{1}, H_{2}$ of respective orders $c$ and $3^{b}$. We clearly have that $H_{1} \cap H_{2}=$ $\{0\}$ and

$$
\# H_{1}+\# H_{2}=2^{a}, \quad \# H_{1} \cdot \# H_{2}=\operatorname{deg} \psi
$$

so the triplet $\left(\psi, H_{1}, H_{2}\right)$ is an isogeny diamond configuration of order $2^{a}$. Then Kani's theorem implies that our anti-isometry $\left.x \psi\right|_{C\left[2^{a}\right]}$ is reducible. Indeed, let us check condition (3) explicitly: we need to verify that

$$
x \psi\left(c R_{1}+3^{b} R_{2}\right)=\psi\left(R_{2}-R_{1}\right)
$$

for all points $R_{1}, R_{2}$ such that $2^{a} R_{1} \in H_{1}$ and $2^{a} R_{2} \in H_{2}$ (note that $d=1$ in our case). But this is easy: since $\psi\left(R_{1}\right)$ and $\psi\left(R_{2}\right)$ are $2^{a}$-torsion points, we can rewrite the left hand side as

$$
\begin{aligned}
x c \psi\left(R_{1}\right)+x 3^{b} \psi\left(R_{2}\right) & =3^{-b}\left(2^{a}-3^{b}\right) \psi\left(R_{1}\right)+3^{-b} 3^{b} \psi\left(R_{2}\right) \\
& =\psi\left(R_{2}\right)-\psi\left(R_{1}\right) \\
& =\psi\left(R_{2}-R_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

as wanted $\left(\right.$ recall that $\left.x 3^{b} \equiv-x c \equiv 1 \bmod 2^{a}\right)$.

### 4.3 Decision strategy

Our decision strategy amounts to testing whether or not quotienting out $C \times E$ by (2) takes us to a product of elliptic curves, as depicted in Figure 1. As we have just argued, if (D) holds, then we pass the test. For now, we content ourselves


Fig. 1. Decision strategy based on Kani's reducibility criterion.
with the loose heuristic that if (D) does not hold, then the test should fail with overwhelming probability because the proportion of products of elliptic curves among all vertices in the graph is only about $10 / p$. We can actually be a bit more precise about this heuristic in the cases that are relevant for our attack, namely the "wrong guesses" in our search-to-decision reduction: see Remark 4.

## 5 Constructing and evaluating the auxiliary isogeny $\gamma$

The assumption that we can (efficiently) compute the image points $P_{c}$ and $Q_{c}$ under a degree- $c$ isogeny is non-trivial, and this is where we need the factorization
of $c=2^{a}-3^{b}$. It is also here that we rely on the special nature of $E_{\text {start }}$ : both options come with an endomorphism $2 \mathbf{i}$ satisfying $2 \mathbf{i} \circ 2 \mathbf{i}=[-4]$. Indeed, on $E_{\text {start }}: y^{2}=x^{3}+x$ we have the automorphism i: $(x, y) \mapsto(-x, \sqrt{-1} y)$ and we simply let $2 \mathbf{i}=[2] \circ \mathbf{i}$. For $E_{\text {start }}: y^{2}=x^{3}+6 x^{2}+x$ we can obtain $2 \mathbf{i}$ as the composition of its outgoing 2 -isogeny to $y^{2}=x^{3}+x$, the automorphism $\mathbf{i}$ on the latter curve, and the dual of the said 2-isogeny.

### 5.1 Construction

There is a reasonable chance that the prime factorization of $c$ only involves prime factors that are congruent to $1 \bmod 4$; this chance is inversely proportional to $\sqrt{a}$ by a theorem of Landau (see Section 10 for a more detailed discussion). As far as we are aware, the only known way to find out is by factoring $c$ explicitly. Once this factorization is done and all prime factors are indeed congruent to 1 $\bmod 4$, we can efficiently write $c=u^{2}+4 v^{2}=(u+2 \mathbf{i} v)(u-2 \mathbf{i} v)$. Then

$$
\gamma_{\text {start }}=[u]+[v] \circ 2 \mathbf{i}
$$

is an easy-to-evaluate degree- $c$ endomorphism of $E_{\text {start }}$.
Remark 3. The method for finding $u$ and $v$ is classical: e.g., in the squarefree case, one computes

$$
\prod_{\text {primes } \ell \mid c} \operatorname{gcd}\left(z_{\ell}+\mathbf{i}, \ell\right)
$$

using Euclid's algorithm over the Gaussian integers; here $z_{\ell}$ is any integer such that $z_{\ell}^{2} \equiv-1 \bmod \ell$. The outcome is among $\pm(u+2 \mathbf{i} v), \pm \mathbf{i}(u+2 \mathbf{i} v)$.

Then in order to find $\gamma$, we use the isogeny $\tau$ from input (iv). Let $\tilde{\tau}: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow$ $C$ be the isogeny with kernel $\gamma_{\text {start }}\left(\tau\left(E_{0}\left[3^{\beta}\right]\right)\right)=\gamma_{\text {start }}(\operatorname{ker} \hat{\tau})$. Then $\tilde{\tau} \circ \gamma_{\text {start }} \circ \tau$ : $E_{0} \rightarrow C$ is a $3^{2 \beta} c$-isogeny vanishing on $E_{0}\left[3^{\beta}\right]$, so it factors over $\left[3^{\beta}\right]$ and we can let

$$
\gamma=\frac{\tilde{\tau} \circ \gamma_{\mathrm{start}} \circ \tau}{3^{\beta}}
$$

It remains to see that $\gamma$ is easy to evaluate on our $2^{a}$-torsion points $P_{0}$ and $Q_{0}$. For this, we first discuss a special case.

### 5.2 Evaluation: case $\beta \leq b$

This is the only relevant case when attacking SIDH with base curve $E_{0}=E_{\text {start }}$, as in the case of SIKE: while $\beta$ will grow during our search-to-decision reduction, it will never grow beyond $b$. But then we always have that $\operatorname{ker} \hat{\tau} \subset E_{0}\left[3^{b}\right] \subset$ $E\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}\right)$. So we can explicitly write down a generator $T \in E_{0}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}\right)$ of $\operatorname{ker} \hat{\tau}$ and compute the isogeny $\tilde{\tau}$ with kernel $\left\langle\gamma_{\text {start }}(T)\right\rangle$. Evaluating $\gamma$ in our $2^{a}$-torsion points $P_{0}$ and $Q_{0}$ is then simply done by feeding them to $\tilde{\tau} \circ \gamma_{\text {start }} \circ \tau$ and scalarmultiplying the outcome with a multiplicative inverse of $3^{\beta}$ modulo $2^{a}$. (In fact, this evaluation will naturally simplify in the context of our search-to-decision reduction.)

### 5.3 Evaluation: general case

If $\beta>b$ then we cannot simply evaluate $\gamma_{\text {start }}$ in a generator of $\operatorname{ker} \hat{\tau}$, unless we base-change to a potentially very large and costly extension of $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$. But note that the isogeny $\tilde{\tau}$ is precisely the pushforward isogeny $\left[\gamma_{\text {start }}\right]_{*} \hat{\tau}$ that was studied in [12, §4]. This suggests the following alternative method for computing $\tilde{\tau}$. Note that the specific choice of $E_{\text {start }}$ comes with an explicit isomorphism

$$
\iota: \operatorname{End}\left(E_{\text {start }}\right) \rightarrow \mathcal{O}_{\text {start }}
$$

where $\mathcal{O}_{\text {start }}$ is a maximal order in the quaternion algebra $B_{p, \infty}=\langle 1, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{i} \mathbf{j}\rangle_{\mathbb{Q}}$ with $\mathbf{i}^{\mathbf{2}}=-1$ and $\mathbf{j}^{2}=-p$. Then:

1. First, one converts the isogeny $\hat{\tau}: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow E_{0}$ into a left ideal $I_{\hat{\tau}} \subset \mathcal{O}_{\text {start }}$ of norm $3^{\beta}$, e.g. following [20, Alg. 3]. In fact, in the main use cases of this general method, a large component of the isogeny $\hat{\tau}$ will arise from its corresponding left $\mathcal{O}_{\text {start }}$-ideal; so in those cases this step can be simplified.
2. Next, one computes the left ideal $I_{\tilde{\tau}}=\left[\left(\iota\left(\gamma_{\text {start }}\right)\right)\right]_{*} I_{\hat{\tau}}$ using the formula from [12, Lem. 3]; this ideal again has norm $3^{\beta}$.
3. Finally, one converts the ideal $I_{\tilde{\tau}}$ into a length- $\beta$ chain of 3-isogenies emanating from $E_{\text {start }}$, e.g. using [20, Alg. 2]. Then $\tilde{\tau}$ is the composition of these 3 -isogenies.

Then, here too, evaluating $\gamma$ in $P_{0}$ and $Q_{0}$ is done by applying $\tilde{\tau} \circ \gamma_{\text {start }} \circ \tau$ and scalar-multiplying with an inverse of $3^{\beta}$ modulo $2^{a}$.

### 5.4 Away from the endomorphism 2i

We conclude by remarking that there are many other candidate-ways for constructing the isogeny $\gamma$. Just to give one similar example, decompositions of the form $c=u^{2}+3 v^{2}$ are useful as soon as one knows an explicit path to $y^{2}=x^{3}+1$, because this curve comes equipped with an endomorphism $\omega$ such that $\omega^{2}=-3$. This type of examples will reappear in Section 10. A different kind of example is the case where $c$ is very smooth: in that case one can construct the desired $c$-isogeny $\gamma: E_{0} \rightarrow C$ as a composition of small degree isogenies without knowing a path to some special-featured curve. Even though this event is highly unlikely, there are tricks to create more leeway; see Section 11 for a more elaborate discussion.

## 6 Key recovery algorithm: basic version

We resume with the set-up from Section 3. The previous sections suggest the following iterative approach to full key recovery. We assume for simplicity that $\beta=0$, so that the base curve $E_{0}$ coincides with $E_{\text {start }}$. Recall that this is the case in SIKE. In the general case, one should just replace the maps $\hat{\kappa}_{1}: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{0}$, $\widehat{\kappa_{2} \kappa_{1}}: E_{2} \rightarrow E_{0}, \ldots$ below with their compositions with $\tau$.

### 6.1 Iteration

For the first iteration, choose $\beta_{1} \geq 1$ minimal such that there exists some $\alpha_{1} \geq 0$ for which

$$
c_{1}=2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-3^{b-\beta_{1}}
$$

is of the form $u_{1}^{2}+4 v_{1}^{2}$. Write $\varphi=\varphi_{1} \circ \kappa_{1}$ with $\kappa_{1}$ a $3^{\beta_{1}}$-isogeny. To an attacker, there are a priori $3^{\beta_{1}}$ options for $\kappa_{1}$ (this assumes knowledge of an "incoming isogeny", otherwise there are $4 \cdot 3^{\beta_{1}-1}$ options). For each of these options, we can run our decision algorithm on
(ii) the curve $E_{1}=\kappa_{1}\left(E_{0}\right)$,
(iii) the generators $P_{1}=\kappa_{1}\left(2^{\alpha_{1}} P_{0}\right)$ and $Q_{1}=\kappa_{1}\left(2^{\alpha_{1}} Q_{0}\right)$ of $E_{1}\left[2^{a-\alpha_{1}}\right]$,
(iv) the $3^{\beta_{1}}$-isogeny $\hat{\kappa}_{1}: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{0}$,
(v) the codomain $E$; if the guess is correct then it is connected to $E_{1}$ via the unknown isogeny $\varphi_{1}$ of degree $3^{b-\beta_{1}}$,
(vi) the generators $2^{\alpha_{1}} P, 2^{\alpha_{1}} Q$ of $E\left[2^{a-\alpha_{1}}\right]$
where the numbering (ii)-(vi) is chosen to be consistent with our set-up from Section 3. According to our heuristic assumption discussed in Section 4.3, we expect that only the correct guess for $\kappa_{1}$ will pass the test; see also Remark 4 below.

Let us discuss in more detail what "running the test" amounts to in this case. First, one must compute the images $P_{c_{1}}, Q_{c_{1}}$ of $P_{1}, Q_{1}$ under the isogeny

$$
\begin{equation*}
\gamma_{1}=\frac{\tilde{\hat{\kappa}}_{1} \circ \gamma_{\text {start }} \circ \hat{\kappa}_{1}}{3^{\beta_{1}}} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\tilde{\hat{\kappa}}_{1}: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow C_{1}$ is the isogeny with kernel $\gamma_{\text {start }}\left(\operatorname{ker} \kappa_{1}\right)$, with $\gamma_{\text {start }}=$ $\left[u_{1}\right]+2 \mathbf{i} \circ\left[v_{1}\right]$. Observe that this simplifies: all one should do is compute

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{c_{1}}=2^{\alpha_{1}} \tilde{\hat{\kappa}}_{1} \gamma_{\text {start }}\left(P_{0}\right), \quad Q_{c_{1}}=2^{\alpha_{1}} \tilde{\hat{\kappa}}_{1} \gamma_{\text {start }}\left(Q_{0}\right) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Once these points have been computed, one checks whether the quotient of $C_{1} \times E$ by the $\left(2^{a-\alpha_{1}}, 2^{a-\alpha_{1}}\right)$-subgroup

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\langle\left(P_{c_{1}}, 2^{\alpha_{1}} P\right),\left(Q_{c_{1}}, 2^{\alpha_{1}} Q\right)\right\rangle \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

is again a product of elliptic curves. This is done by computing the corresponding chain of (2,2)-isogenies. With overwhelming probability, the first $a-\alpha_{1}-1$ steps in this chain amount to one gluing step followed by $a-\alpha_{1}-2$ Richelot isogenies between Jacobians of genus 2 curves. An easy " $\delta=0$ test" then checks whether or not the last step splits (see Section 8 for algorithmic details).

If the test fails, then we try again with a different guess for $\kappa_{1}$. We remark that, even in the case of a wrong guess, the subgroup (6) is always maximally isotropic with respect to the Weil pairing, so this is not the way in which one can detect having taken the wrong direction: one really has to perform the gluing and its successive Richelot walk. (The failure of detecting wrong steps using the Weil pairing is well-known, see e.g. [21, §7.2]; with some imagination, our attack can be viewed as a refinement of this approach.) If the test passes, then very likely we have found the correct instance of $\kappa_{1}$.

Remark 4. If a wrong guess for $\kappa_{1}$ passes the test, then in view of Kani's theorem the points $P_{c_{1}}, Q_{c_{1}}$ must be connected to $2^{\alpha_{1}} P, 2^{\alpha_{1}} Q$ via an anti-isometry coming from an isogeny $\psi: C_{1} \rightarrow E$ fitting in an isogeny diamond configuration of order $2^{a-\alpha_{1}}$. It is easy to see that the natural candidate for $\psi$, namely the degree $3^{b+\beta_{1}}\left(2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-3^{b-\beta_{1}}\right)$-isogeny

$$
\varphi \circ \hat{\kappa}_{1} \circ \hat{\gamma}_{1}: C_{1} \rightarrow E,
$$

does not fit in such an isogeny diamond. Indeed, if it would, then we would have

$$
\begin{equation*}
3^{b+\beta_{1}}\left(2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-3^{b-\beta_{1}}\right)=k\left(2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-k\right) \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

for some natural number

$$
\begin{equation*}
k \in\left[1,2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-1\right] . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Modulo $2^{a-\alpha_{1}}$ the equation (7) implies $3^{2 b} \equiv k^{2}$, so that $k$ is congruent to one of

$$
3^{b}, \quad-3^{b}, \quad 3^{b}+2^{a-\alpha_{1}-1}, \quad-3^{b}+2^{a-\alpha_{1}-1}
$$

In particular, $k$ and $2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-k$ must be of the form $\pm 3^{b}+\lambda 2^{a-\alpha_{1}-1}$. On the other hand, (7) implies that either $k$ or $2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-k$ is divisible by $3^{b+\beta_{1}}$. This can only happen if the corresponding $\lambda$ is non-zero and divisible by $3^{b}$, but then (unless we are in the trivial boundary case $\alpha_{1}=a, \beta_{1}=b$ ) we necessarily fall outside the interval (8): a contradiction.

Remark 5. We did not manage to fully rule out the existence of instances of $\psi$ other than $\varphi \circ \hat{\kappa}_{1} \circ \hat{\gamma}_{1}$. However, at least heuristically, the odds are strongly against this. Indeed, loosely speaking, these instances would need to act on $C_{1}\left[2^{a-\alpha_{1}}\right]$ in essentially the same way as $\varphi \circ \hat{\kappa}_{1} \circ \hat{\gamma}_{1}$ does, and a variation on [43, Lem. 3.1] shows that there is typically no room for another such isogeny.

Once we have found the correct $\kappa_{1}$ we continue from $E_{1}$. That is, we let $\beta_{2}>\beta_{1}$ be minimal such that there is some $\alpha_{2} \geq 0$ for which $c_{2}=2^{a-\alpha_{2}}-3^{b-\beta_{2}}$ is of the form $u_{2}^{2}+4 v_{2}^{2}$. Now one tries to recover the $3^{\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}}$-component $\kappa_{2}: E_{1} \rightarrow E_{2}$ such that $\varphi_{1}=\varphi_{2} \circ \kappa_{2}$. In this case, for each guess for $\kappa_{2}$ one computes

$$
P_{c_{2}}=2^{\alpha_{2}} \widetilde{\widetilde{\kappa_{2} \kappa_{1}}} \gamma_{\text {start }}\left(P_{0}\right), \quad Q_{c_{2}}=2^{\alpha_{2}} \widetilde{\widetilde{\kappa_{2} \kappa_{1}}} \gamma_{\text {start }}\left(Q_{0}\right)
$$

with $\widetilde{\widehat{\kappa_{2} \kappa_{1}}}: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow C_{2}$ the isogeny with kernel $\gamma_{\text {start }}\left(\operatorname{ker} \kappa_{2} \kappa_{1}\right)$ and $\gamma_{\text {start }}=$ $\left[u_{2}\right]+2 \mathbf{i} \circ\left[v_{2}\right]$. One then checks whether

$$
\left\langle\left(P_{c_{2}}, 2^{\alpha_{2}} P\right),\left(Q_{c_{2}}, 2^{\alpha_{2}} Q\right)\right\rangle \subset C_{2} \times E
$$

is reducible or not. By continuing in this way, one eventually retrieves all of $\varphi$.

### 6.2 Step sizes

The gaps between the consecutive integers $0, \beta_{1}, \beta_{2}, \beta_{3}, \ldots, \beta_{r}=b$ should be as small as possible, because this reduces the number of possible guesses in each iteration. More concretely, the expected number of $(2,2)$-chains that need to be computed is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2}\left(3^{\beta_{1}}+3^{\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}}+3^{\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}}+\ldots+3^{b-\beta_{r-1}}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

A necessary condition on each $\beta_{i}$ is that $b-\beta_{i}$ is odd, except in the last iteration where we have $\beta_{r}=b$. Indeed, if $b-\beta_{i}>0$ is even then

$$
c_{i}=2^{a-\alpha_{i}}-3^{b-\beta_{i}} \equiv 3 \bmod 4
$$

cannot be of the form $u_{i}^{2}+4 v_{i}^{2}$. Therefore the best we can hope is that the sequence grows by steps of two, in which case the estimate (9) becomes about $9 b / 4$. Asymptotically, this hope is too good to be true, but for the concrete SIKE parameters experiment shows that this optimal estimate lies close to reality, with the only exceptions corresponding to small $\beta_{i}$. This makes sense: as $\beta_{i}$ grows, the amount of leeway (i.e., the number of candidate $\alpha_{i}$ 's) grows as well, and moreover the probability of success increases as $c_{i}$ is allowed to get smaller. Example: for the parameters of SIKEp434 where we have $a=216$ and $b=137$, one quickly finds suitable $\alpha_{i}$ for every even $\beta_{i}$ in $\{0,1, \ldots, b\} \backslash\{4\}$.

### 6.3 Rephrasing in terms of Bob's secret key

In practice, SIDH comes with public generators $P_{\mathrm{Bob}}, Q_{\mathrm{Bob}}$ of $E_{0}\left[3^{b}\right]$ and Bob's secret isogeny $\varphi$ is encoded as the integer

$$
\mathrm{sk}_{\mathrm{Bob}} \in\left[0,3^{b}\right)
$$

for which $\operatorname{ker} \varphi=\left\langle P_{\mathrm{Bob}}+\operatorname{sk}_{\mathrm{Bob}} Q_{\mathrm{Bob}}\right\rangle$. Upon expanding

$$
\mathrm{sk}_{\mathrm{Bob}}=k_{1}+k_{2} 3^{\beta_{1}}+\ldots+k_{r} 3^{\beta_{r-1}}, \quad k_{i} \in\left[0,3^{\beta_{i}-\beta_{i-1}}-1\right)
$$

(where we let $\beta_{0}=0$ ), we observe that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{ker} \kappa_{1}=\left\langle 3^{b-\beta_{1}} P_{\mathrm{Bob}}+k_{1} 3^{b-\beta_{1}} Q_{\mathrm{Bob}}\right\rangle \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

So the first iteration amounts to

- guessing $k_{1}$,
- determining the $3^{\beta_{1}}$-isogeny $\tilde{\hat{\kappa}}_{1}: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow C_{1}$ with kernel $\gamma_{\text {start }}\left(\operatorname{ker} \kappa_{1}\right)$, with ker $\kappa_{1}$ as in (10),
- computing the points $P_{c_{1}}, Q_{c_{1}} \in C_{1}$ as in (5),
- checking whether or not the subgroup (6) is reducible.

After finding $k_{1}$, we proceed with

$$
\text { ker } \kappa_{2}=\left\langle 3^{b-\beta_{2}} P_{\mathrm{Bob}}+\left(k_{1}+k_{2} 3^{\beta_{1}}\right) 3^{b-\beta_{2}} Q_{\mathrm{Bob}}\right\rangle
$$

in order to determine $k_{2}$ via trial-and-error, and so on. So the attack determines sk $_{\text {Bob }}$ digit by digit. If all the gaps are of size two, then this amounts to determining one base-9 digit of $\mathrm{sk}_{\mathrm{Bob}}$ at a time.

### 6.4 Walking backwards

As was pointed out to us by De Feo, it may be simpler to reconstruct Bob's secret isogeny $\varphi$ starting from its tail. That is: using the same $c_{1}=2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-3^{b-\beta_{1}}$, one instead writes $\varphi=\kappa_{1} \circ \varphi_{1}$ and one makes a guess for $\hat{\kappa}_{1}$. Now writing

$$
E_{1}=\hat{\kappa}_{1}(E), P_{1}=\hat{\kappa}_{1}\left(2^{\alpha_{1}} P\right), Q_{1}=\hat{\kappa}_{1}\left(2^{\alpha_{1}} Q\right)
$$

letting $\gamma_{\text {start }}$ be our degree- $c_{1}$ endomorphism on $E_{0}=E_{\text {start }}$, and writing

$$
P_{c_{1}}=2^{\alpha_{1}} \gamma_{\text {start }}\left(P_{0}\right), Q_{c_{1}}=2^{\alpha_{1}} \gamma_{\text {start }}\left(Q_{0}\right)
$$

one now should check whether the subgroup

$$
\left\langle\left(P_{c_{1}}, y P_{1}\right),\left(Q_{c_{1}}, y Q_{1}\right)\right\rangle \subset E_{0} \times E_{1}
$$

is reducible, with $y$ a multiplicative inverse of $3^{\beta_{1}}$ modulo $2^{a-\alpha_{1}}$. The advantage of this approach is that one can work (and keep working throughout the iteration) with $\gamma_{\text {start }}$ directly, i.e., one avoids the need for transformations of the kind (4).

## $7 \quad$ Speed-ups

We can speed up key recovery as follows:

### 7.1 Take $\alpha_{i}$ as large as possible

If for a given $\beta_{i}$ there indeed exists some $\alpha_{i} \geq 0$ such that $c_{i}=2^{a-\alpha_{i}}-3^{b-\beta_{i}}$ is positive and free of prime factors congruent to $3 \bmod 4$, then usually $\alpha_{i}$ is not the unique integer with that property, so there is some freedom. The larger we choose $\alpha_{i}$, the smaller will be the length $a-\alpha_{i}$ of our chain of (2,2)-isogenies. Therefore, it is more efficient to take larger $\alpha_{i}$ 's.

### 7.2 Use a precomputed table

We have precomputed a table which for all $s \in\{1,3,5, \ldots, 239\}$ stores the smallest integer $t(s)$ such that $2^{t(s)}-3^{s}$ is a product of primes congruent to 1 modulo 4. It also stores corresponding values for $u$ and $v$. The table is available as uvtable.m and can be used as follows: for every candidate- $\beta_{i}$ such that $b-\beta_{i}$ is odd, one checks whether or not $t\left(b-\beta_{i}\right) \leq a$. If not, then we proceed to the next candidate. If yes, then we can use this instance of $\beta_{i}$, and we choose $a-t\left(b-\beta_{i}\right)$ as a corresponding value for $\alpha_{i}$. This makes sure that $\alpha_{i}$ is as large as possible, and moreover we have $u_{i}, v_{i}$ readily available, without the need for factoring. Our table is sufficiently large to be used for each of the proposed parameter sets for SIKE, up to SIKEp751 targeting NIST's security level 5.

### 7.3 Extend Bob's secret isogeny where useful

Imagine that some candidate- $\beta_{i}$ does not admit an integer $\alpha_{i} \geq 0$ such that $2^{a-\alpha_{i}}-3^{b-\beta_{i}}$ is a product of primes congruent to $1 \bmod 4$ (e.g., because $b-\beta_{i}>0$ is even). But imagine that $\beta_{i}-1$ does. Then one can prolong Bob's secret isogeny with an arbitrary 3-isogeny $\varphi^{\prime}$ and let $P^{\prime}=\varphi^{\prime}(P)$ and $Q^{\prime}=\varphi^{\prime}(Q)$. Treating $\varphi^{\prime} \circ \varphi$ as the new secret isogeny, the relevant expression now becomes $2^{a-\alpha_{i}}-3^{b+1-\beta_{i}}$, and we know that there exists some $\alpha_{i} \geq 0$ for which this is a product of primes congruent to $1 \bmod 4$. We can now use our attack to determine Bob's secret key modulo $3^{\beta_{i}}$ and proceed.

In practice, this means that most step sizes drop from 2 to 1 , or in other words that we are determining one base-3 digit of sk siob at a time. The only possibly larger step occurs at the beginning of the iteration. For instance, in the case of SIKEp751, the smallest $\beta_{1}$ such that $2^{a}-3^{b-\beta_{1}}>0$ is $\beta_{1}=6$, so we cannot hope for a smaller first gap. This implies a rather costly start of the algorithm: of the 3 h 15 m that we spent on breaking SIKEp751, almost 2 hours were needed for determining the first 6 out of 239 ternary digits of $\mathrm{sk}_{\mathrm{Bob}}$.

Remark 6. If $2^{a}$ is considerably smaller than $3^{b}$, then it probably makes more sense to attack Alice's private key instead of Bob's, using chains of $(3,3)$ isogenies; see Section 11. Of course, if $2^{a}$ gets much smaller than $3^{b}$, then one enters the regime of the torsion-point attacks from [36, ,37].

Remark 7. There is a $1 / 4$ probability that the random isogeny $\varphi^{\prime}$ matches with the dual of the last degree- 3 component of $\varphi$. In this case, the wrong guesses are also at distance $3^{b-\beta_{i}}$ from $E$, so this creates false positives, leaving us clueless about which is the correct guess. However, this is easy to fix: if multiple guesses pass the test, then all one needs to do is change $\varphi^{\prime}$, and then we have identified the dual direction once and for all. If this happens, then it will be discovered when trying to determine the ternary digit at position $\beta_{2}=\beta_{1}+1$ (and this does not affect the correctness of the first $\beta_{1}$ digits, as these were determined without the use of $\varphi^{\prime}$ ).

## 8 Computing chains of (2,2)-isogenies

In this section we explain how to determine whether or not a $\left(2^{a}, 2^{a}\right)$-subgroup $\left\langle\left(P_{c}, P\right),\left(Q_{c}, Q\right)\right\rangle$ of a product of elliptic curves $C \times E$ is reducible. Throughout, we avoid dealing with certain exceptional cases, e.g. every genus 2 curve $H$ : $y^{2}=h(x)=c_{6} x^{6}+c_{5} x^{5}+\ldots+c_{0}$ encountered is assumed to satisfy $c_{6} \neq 0$, so that it has two places $\infty_{1}, \infty_{2}$ at infinity, and all points on its Jacobian $J_{H}$ that we deal with are assumed to be representable as $\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)+\left(\alpha_{2}, \beta_{2}\right)-\infty_{1}-\infty_{2}$ with $\alpha_{1} \neq \alpha_{2}$, so that they have a Mumford representation of the form $\left[x^{2}+\right.$ $\left.u_{1} x+u_{0}, v_{1} x+v_{0}\right]$. Moreover, all our chains of (2,2)-isogenies are assumed to start off by gluing $C \times E$ into a Jacobian, after which we never run into a product of elliptic curves again, except possibly at the $a$-th and last step. The exceptions to these assumptions are expected to occur with probability $O\left(p^{-1}\right)$, so we see no need to discuss nor implement them.

### 8.1 Gluing elliptic curves into a Jacobian

In the first step we want to glue the curves $C$ and $E$ into the Jacobian of a genus 2 curve $H$ via the (2,2)-subgroup $\left\langle\left(2^{a-1} P_{c}, 2^{a-1} P\right),\left(2^{a-1} Q_{c}, 2^{a-1} Q\right)\right\rangle$. We also need to push the points $\left(P_{c}, P\right),\left(Q_{c}, Q\right)$ through the corresponding isogeny. The relevant equations are as follows. We refer to [23, Prop. 4] and its proof for further details.

Proposition 1. Let $C / K: y^{2}=\left(x-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(x-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(x-\alpha_{3}\right)$ and $E: y^{2}=(x-$ $\left.\beta_{1}\right)\left(x-\beta_{2}\right)\left(x-\beta_{3}\right)$ be elliptic curves over a field $K$ of characteristic different from two. Write $\Delta_{\alpha}$ for the discriminant of $\left(x-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(x-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(x-\alpha_{3}\right)$ and $\Delta_{\beta}$ for the discriminant of $\left(x-\beta_{1}\right)\left(x-\beta_{2}\right)\left(x-\beta_{3}\right)$. Furthermore, define

$$
\begin{aligned}
a_{1}= & \left(\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{2}\right)^{2} /\left(\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}\right)+\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}\right)^{2} /\left(\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}\right)+\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}\right)^{2} /\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{3}\right), \\
b_{1}= & \left(\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}\right)^{2} /\left(\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{2}\right)+\left(\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}\right)^{2} /\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}\right)+\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{3}\right)^{2} /\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}\right), \\
a_{2}= & \alpha_{1}\left(\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}\right)+\alpha_{2}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{3}\right)+\alpha_{3}\left(\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}\right) \\
b_{2}= & \beta_{1}\left(\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{2}\right)+\beta_{2}\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}\right)+\beta_{3}\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}\right), \\
A= & \Delta_{\beta} a_{1} / a_{2}, \quad B=\Delta_{\alpha} b_{1} / b_{2}, \\
h(x)= & -\left(A\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}\right)\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}\right) x^{2}+B\left(\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}\right)\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{3}\right)\right) \\
& \cdot\left(A\left(\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{2}\right)\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}\right) x^{2}+B\left(\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}\right)\left(\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}\right)\right) \\
& \cdot\left(A\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}\right)\left(\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{2}\right) x^{2}+B\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{3}\right)\left(\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}\right)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then the (2,2)-isogeny with domain $C \times E$ and kernel

$$
\left\langle\left(\left(\alpha_{1}, 0\right),\left(\beta_{1}, 0\right)\right),\left(\left(\alpha_{2}, 0\right),\left(\beta_{2}, 0\right)\right)\right\rangle
$$

has as codomain the Jacobian of a genus 2 curve $H$ defined by $y^{2}=h(x)$. The degree-2 morphisms of the dual isogeny are given by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\varphi_{1}: H & \rightarrow C \\
(x, y) & \mapsto\left(s_{1} / x^{2}+s_{2},\left(\Delta_{\beta} / A^{3}\right)\left(y / x^{3}\right)\right) \\
\varphi_{2}: H & \rightarrow E \\
(x, y) & \mapsto\left(t_{1} x^{2}+t_{2},\left(\Delta_{\alpha} / B^{3}\right) y\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& s_{1}=-(B / A)\left(a_{2} / a_{1}\right) \\
& s_{2}=\frac{1}{a_{1}}\left(\frac{\alpha_{1}\left(\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{2}\right)^{2}}{\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}}+\frac{\alpha_{2}\left(\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}\right)^{2}}{\beta_{1}-\beta_{3}}+\frac{\alpha_{3}\left(\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}\right)^{2}}{\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}}\right) \\
& t_{1}=-(A / B)\left(b_{2} / b_{1}\right) \\
& t_{2}=\frac{1}{b_{1}}\left(\frac{\beta_{1}\left(\beta_{3}-\beta_{2}\right)^{2}}{\alpha_{3}-\alpha_{2}}+\frac{\beta_{2}\left(\beta_{1}-\beta_{3}\right)^{2}}{\alpha_{1}-\alpha_{3}}+\frac{\beta_{3}\left(\beta_{2}-\beta_{1}\right)^{2}}{\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The morphisms $\varphi_{i}$ extend to the Jacobian $J_{H}$ by mapping

$$
\left[\sum_{j} P_{j}\right] \rightarrow \sum_{j} \varphi\left(P_{j}\right)
$$

and they combine into a (2,2)-isogeny $\Phi: J_{H} \rightarrow C \times E$, the dual of which is our isogeny of interest. To compute the image of a point $\left(P_{c}, P\right) \in C \times E$ under this dual isogeny, it suffices to compute some $[D] \in \Phi^{-1}\left\{\left(P_{c}, P\right)\right\} \subset J_{H}$ and then double it. Indeed, then we have

$$
2[D]=\hat{\Phi} \Phi([D])=\hat{\Phi}\left(P_{c}, P\right)
$$

as wanted.
Let $D=P_{H}+Q_{H}-\infty_{1}-\infty_{2}$ represent a point on $J_{H}$. As mentioned, we assume that its Mumford representation is of the form $\left[x^{2}+u_{1} x+u_{0}, v_{1} x+v_{0}\right]$. To avoid the need for field extensions, let us express $\varphi_{i}\left(P_{H}+Q_{H}\right)$ for $i=1,2$ directly in terms of $u_{0}, u_{1}, v_{0}, v_{1}$. Note that the divisor $\infty_{1}+\infty_{2}$ maps to $\infty$, both under $\varphi_{1}$ and under $\varphi_{2}$, so it suffices to concentrate on $P_{H}+Q_{H}$.

The calculation is easiest for $\varphi_{2}$, where the line connecting $\varphi_{2}\left(P_{H}\right)$ and $\varphi_{2}\left(Q_{H}\right)$ has slope

$$
\lambda_{2}=-\frac{\left(\Delta_{\alpha} / B^{3}\right) v_{1}}{t_{1} u_{1}}
$$

and then $\varphi_{2}\left(P_{H}+Q_{H}\right)$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(\lambda_{2}^{2}+\sum_{i=1}^{3} \beta_{i}-t_{1}\left(u_{1}^{2}-2 u_{0}\right)-2 t_{2},-\lambda_{2}\left(\cdots-t_{2}+\left(u_{0} v_{1}-u_{1} v_{0}\right) \frac{t_{1}}{v_{1}}\right)\right) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $\cdots$ denoting a copy of the first coordinate. To derive formulae for $\varphi_{1}$, note that this map is of a very similar kind, except for the transformation

$$
\tilde{\sim}:(x, y) \mapsto\left(1 / x, y / x^{3}\right)
$$

by which it is preceded. Let $\tilde{u_{0}}, \tilde{u}_{1}, \tilde{v_{0}}, \tilde{v}_{1}$ be the Mumford coordinates of $\tilde{P}_{H}+\tilde{Q}_{H}$, then an easy calculation shows:

$$
\tilde{u}_{0}=\frac{1}{u_{0}}, \quad \tilde{u}_{1}=\frac{u_{1}}{u_{0}}, \quad \tilde{v}_{0}=\frac{u_{1} v_{0}-u_{0} v_{1}}{u_{0}^{2}}, \quad \tilde{v}_{1}=\frac{u_{1}^{2} v_{0}-u_{0} v_{0}-u_{0} u_{1} v_{1}}{u_{0}^{2}} .
$$

Thus the formulae for the coordinates of $\varphi_{1}\left(P_{H}+Q_{H}\right)$ are the same as in 11), except for swapping the $\alpha_{i}$ 's and the $\beta_{i}$ 's and for substituting $\tilde{u_{0}}, \tilde{u}_{1}, \tilde{v}_{0}, \tilde{v}_{1}$ for $u_{0}, u_{1}, v_{0}, v_{1}$.

This gives us 4 equations in the unknowns $u_{0}, u_{1}, v_{0}, v_{1}$ :

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x\left(\varphi_{1}\left(P_{H}+Q_{H}\right)\right)=x\left(P_{c}\right),  \tag{12}\\
y\left(\varphi_{1}\left(P_{H}+Q_{H}\right)\right)=y\left(P_{c}\right), \\
x\left(\varphi_{2}\left(P_{H}+Q_{H}\right)\right)=x(P), \\
y\left(\varphi_{2}\left(P_{H}+Q_{H}\right)\right)=y(P)
\end{array}\right.
$$

Together with the equation

$$
\begin{aligned}
2 v_{0}^{2}-2 v_{0} v_{1} u_{1}+v_{1}^{2}\left(u_{1}^{2}-2 u_{0}\right)= & 2 c_{0}+\left(-u_{1}\right) c_{1}+\left(u_{1}^{2}-2 u_{0}\right) c_{2} \\
& +\left(-u_{1}^{3}+3 u_{0} u_{1}\right) c_{3}+\left(u_{1}^{4}-4 u_{1}^{2} u_{0}+2 u_{0}^{2}\right) c_{4}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& +\left(-u_{1}^{5}+5 u_{1}^{3} u_{0}-5 u_{1} u_{0}^{2}\right) c_{5} \\
& +\left(u_{1}^{6}-6 u_{1}^{4} u_{0}+9 u_{1}^{2} u_{0}^{2}-2 u_{0}^{3}\right) c_{6}
\end{aligned}
$$

expressing that $[D] \in J_{H}$, this system is expected to have 4 solutions, all of which are defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$. (In practice, we found these solutions by clearing denominators in 12 , running a Gröbner basis computation, and discarding solutions having zeroes among their coordinates, because they are most likely parasite solutions that were created when clearing denominators.) Taking any of these solutions and doubling the corresponding point on $J_{H}$ produces the desired image of $\left(P_{c}, P\right)$.

### 8.2 Richelot isogenies

By assumption, the next $a-2$ steps are (2,2)-isogenies between Jacobians of genus 2 curves. Such maps are called Richelot isogenies and they are classical; for a contemporary exposition, including explicit formulae, we refer to Smith's thesis [42, Ch. 8]. Starting from a hyperelliptic curve $H: y^{2}=h(x)$ and a (2,2)subgroup

$$
\left\langle\left[g_{1}(x), 0\right],\left[g_{2}(x), 0\right]\right\rangle, \quad g_{1}(x)=x^{2}+g_{11} x+g_{10}, \quad g_{2}(x)=x^{2}+g_{21} x+g_{20}
$$

of its Jacobian, one lets $g_{3}(x)=h(x) /\left(g_{1}(x) g_{2}(x)\right)=g_{32} x^{2}+g_{31} x+g_{30}$. One then computes

$$
\delta=\operatorname{det}\left(\begin{array}{lll}
g_{10} & g_{11} & 1 \\
g_{20} & g_{21} & 1 \\
g_{30} & g_{31} & g_{32}
\end{array}\right)
$$

and $h^{\prime}(x)=g_{1}^{\prime}(x) g_{2}^{\prime}(x) g_{3}^{\prime}(x)$ where

$$
g_{i}^{\prime}(x)=\delta^{-1}\left(\frac{d g_{j}}{d x} g_{k}-g_{j} \frac{d g_{k}}{d x}\right) \text { for }(i, j, k)=(1,2,3),(2,3,1),(3,1,2)
$$

Then the codomain of our Richelot isogeny is the Jacobian of $H^{\prime}: \mathbf{y}^{2}=h^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})$. We use different notation for the coordinates because pushing a point through this isogeny is done via the "Richelot correspondence", which is the curve $X \subset H \times H^{\prime}$ defined by

$$
X: g_{1}(x) g_{1}^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})+g_{2}(x) g_{2}^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})=y \mathbf{y}-g_{1}(x) g_{1}^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})(x-\mathbf{x})=0
$$

It naturally comes equipped with two projection maps $\pi: X \rightarrow H, \pi^{\prime}: X \rightarrow H^{\prime}$. The isogeny is then

$$
J_{H} \rightarrow J_{H^{\prime}}:[D] \mapsto\left[\pi_{*}^{\prime} \pi^{*} D\right] \quad \text { (pullback along } \pi \text { and pushforward along } \pi^{\prime} \text { ). }
$$

This means that in order to compute the image of a point $\left[x^{2}+u_{1} x+u_{0}, v_{1} x+\right.$ $\left.v_{0}\right] \in J_{H}$, one should eliminate the variables $x, y$ from the system

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
x^{2}+u_{1} x+u_{0}=0 \\
y=v_{1} x+v_{0} \\
y^{2}=h(x), \\
g_{1}(x) g_{1}^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})+g_{2}(x) g_{2}^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})=0 \\
y \mathbf{y}=g_{1}(x) g_{1}^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})(x-\mathbf{x})
\end{array}\right.
$$

We expect the last two equations of its reduced Gröbner basis (with respect to the lexicographic order with $\mathbf{x} \prec \mathbf{y} \prec y \prec x)$ to be of the form

$$
\mathbf{y}=v_{3}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{3}+v_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{2}+v_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}+v_{0}^{\prime}, \quad \mathbf{x}^{4}+u_{3}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{3}+u_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{2}+u_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}+u_{0}^{\prime}=0
$$

and then $\left[\mathbf{x}^{4}+u_{3}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{3}+u_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{2}+u_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}+u_{0}^{\prime}, v_{3}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{3}+v_{2}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}^{2}+v_{1}^{\prime} \mathbf{x}+v_{0}^{\prime}\right]$ are non-reduced Mumford coordinates for the image on $J_{H^{\prime}}$.

### 8.3 Split or not?

We now want to check whether or not the $a$-th (2,2)-isogeny takes us back to a product of elliptic curves. This is easy: we proceed as if we are dealing with a Richelot isogeny (just the codomain computation, no points need be pushed through anymore). It can be shown that the determinant $\delta$ vanishes if and only if the codomain is a product of elliptic curves instead of the Jacobian of a genus 2 curve. Therefore the final and deciding step in our computation simply amounts to verifying whether or not $\delta=0$.

## 9 Magma code

This paper comes with the following auxiliary Magma files, which are available at https://homes.esat.kuleuven.be/~wcastryc/.

- richelot_aux.m contains auxiliary functions, mainly for computing chains of $(2,2)$-isogenies, where the functions FromProdtoJac and FromJactoJac are implementations of the methods described in Section 8
- uvtable.m contains precomputed values of $u$ and $v$ as described in Section 7.2 ,
- runs of SIKE_challenge1.m, resp. SIKE_challenge2.m, load the first two files and break \$IKEp182, resp. \$IKEp217, by running the algorithm from Section 6, incorporating the speed-ups from Section 7
- a run of SIKEp434.m generates random input for the SIKEp434 parameters and runs the algorithm from Section 6, again incorporating the speed-ups from Section 7 to attack SIKEp503, SIKEp610 and SIKEp751 one simply replaces the line a $:=216 ; \mathrm{b}:=137$; by

```
a := 250; b := 159;, a := 305; b := 192;, a := 372; b := 239;,
```

respectively.
The reader can execute these files in order to confirm the approximate timings mentioned in Section 1. We ran them in Magma V2.27-5 on an Intel Xeon CPU E5-2630v2 at 2.60 GHz .

## 10 Achieving (heuristic) polynomial runtime

As $x \rightarrow \infty$, the number of integers $c$ in the interval $[0, x]$ that admit a decomposition of the form $c=u^{2}+4 v^{2}$ is asymptotic to

$$
\frac{0.5731 \ldots}{\sqrt{\ln x}} x
$$

by (a variation on) a theorem of Landau, see 41. We can use this to estimate the probability that our strategy from Section 5 succeeds in constructing an isogeny $\gamma: E_{0} \rightarrow C$ of degree $c=2^{a}-3^{b}$ : it is about $0.5731 / \sqrt{a \ln 2} \approx 0.6884 / \sqrt{a}$.

Let us now revisit the first iteration of our key recovery algorithm from Section 6, where we choose $\beta_{1} \geq 1$ such that there exists an $\alpha_{1} \geq 0$ for which $c_{1}=2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-3^{b-\beta_{1}}$ is of the form $u_{1}^{2}+4 v_{1}^{2}$. In view of Landau's theorem, we expect that we should try in the order of $\sqrt{a}$ pairs $\left(\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}\right)$ before we succeed. So the smallest $\beta_{1}$ is expected to be of magnitude $\sqrt[4]{a}$. While this is good enough for breaking the concrete parameter sets of SIKE, the asymptotic runtime is $L_{p}(1 / 4)$ rather than polynomial: indeed, there are $3^{\beta_{1}}$ options for $\kappa_{1}$ to guess from.

Remark 8. The first iteration dominates the overall runtime. Indeed, once suitable $\alpha_{1}, \beta_{1}$ are found, the expression $2^{a-\alpha_{1}}-3^{b-\beta_{1}}$ can be recycled in the remaining iterations by extending Bob's secret isogeny, as explained in Section 7.3 .

To achieve a polynomial time complexity, we extend the attack from sums of squares to more general quadratic forms and hope that there is a prime number $n \leq a$ such that $c_{1}$ can be written as $u_{1}^{2}+n v_{1}^{2}$. Heuristically, this happens with overwhelming probability. We can loosely argue this as follows. Based on a generalization of Landau's theorem, see again [41], for every $n$ the success probability remains inversely proportional to $\sqrt{a}$. If the events of being of the form $u_{1}^{2}+n v_{1}^{2}$ are "sufficiently independent" as $n$ varies, and if the implicit constants do not decay too quickly, then the probability of failure overall is in the order of

$$
\left(1-\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}\right)^{\pi(a)} \approx\left(1-\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}\right)^{a / \ln a}
$$

which decreases as $e^{-\sqrt{a} / \ln a}$ (here $\pi$ is the prime-counting function). In particular, we expect that we can simply take $\beta_{1}=1$ in this case.

Once such a decomposition $u_{1}^{2}+n v_{1}^{2}$ is found, we proceed as follows. The techniques from Love and Boneh [29] allow for the polynomial-time construction of an isogeny $\nu: E_{\text {start }} \rightarrow N_{\text {start }}$, where $N_{\text {start }}$ is an elliptic curve possessing an endomorphism $\sqrt{n} \mathbf{i}$ satisfying $\sqrt{n} \mathbf{i} \circ \sqrt{n} \mathbf{i}=[-n]$. Thus we can consider the degree- $c$ endomorphism $\gamma_{\text {start }}=\left[u_{1}\right]+\sqrt{n} \mathbf{i} \circ\left[v_{1}\right]$ on $N_{\text {start }}$. This endomorphism can be transformed into the desired degree- $c$ isogeny $\gamma: E_{0} \rightarrow C$ along $\nu \circ \tau$ : $E_{0} \rightarrow N_{\text {start }}$, as outlined in Section 5

Remark 9. In general, when compared to the method from Remark 3, it becomes more cumbersome to test whether or not an integer of the form $c=2^{a}-3^{b}$ admits
a decomposition $u^{2}+n v^{2}$ (and find corresponding $u, v$ ). Again we need to factor

$$
c=\ell_{1} \ell_{2} \cdots \ell_{s}
$$

where for simplicity we assume that $c$ is squarefree, i.e., the $\ell_{i}$ are pairwise distinct primes. Then a necessary condition is that $-n$ is a quadratic residue modulo each $\ell_{i}$. In this case we can decompose $\ell_{i} \mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-n}]=\mathfrak{l}_{i} \overline{\mathfrak{l}}_{i}$ into a product of two prime ideals of norm $\ell_{i}$. We then look for a relation of the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
1=\prod_{i=1}^{s}\left[\mathfrak{r}_{i}\right]^{\sigma_{i}}, \quad \sigma_{i} \in\{ \pm 1\} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

in the ideal-class group of $\mathbb{Z}[\sqrt{-n}]$. If we succeed, then the ideal

$$
\prod_{i=1}^{s} \mathfrak{l}_{i}^{\delta_{\sigma_{i}, 1} \bar{l}_{i}^{\delta_{\sigma_{i},-1}}}
$$

(with $\delta_{., \text {. }}$ the Kronecker delta) is a principal ideal of norm $c$, hence generated by $u+\sqrt{-n} v$ for integers $u, v$ of the desired form. All ideal-class group arithmetic can be done in polynomial time, see e.g. [22], because $n \leq a$. The identity (13) is of knapsack type, but we nevertheless expect being able to decide if it exists (and find it) in polynomial time, because the expected value of $s$ is $\log \log c \approx \log a$ by the Hardy-Ramanujan theorem.

## 11 Generalizations

In this final section, we move away from the SIKE set-up and discuss how to attack more general instantiations of SIDH.

### 11.1 Arbitrary torsion

There is no theoretical obstruction to attacking Alice's public key instead of Bob's. In this case one will end up computing a chain of (3,3)-isogenies, which is more convoluted, but still doable using the machinery from 4] ; see also [17]. The formulae are still practical and recovering Alice's private key can then be done bit by bit (except possibly for some offset of the kind discussed in Section 7.3). Altogether, we expect having to compute approximately $a$ chains of $(3,3)$-isogenies of length at most $b$ in order to retrieve Alice's private key. The expression $\Delta$ in the formulae from [4] plays a similar role as $\delta$ in the Richelot isogeny formulae, in the sense that $\Delta=0$ occurs if and only if the codomain of the $(3,3)$-isogeny is the product of two elliptic curves, see [6]. Therefore, verifying whether the final $(3,3)$-isogeny splits is just as easy.

More generally, one can attack SIDH when set up using arbitrary small primes $\ell_{\mathrm{A}}, \ell_{\mathrm{B}}$ instead of just 2,3 , or even more general smooth torsion as in B-SIDH. Inherently, this changes nothing to our attack, except that now one must compute $(\ell, \ell)$-isogenies for primes $\ell \geq 5$. For isogenies between Jacobians of genus

2 curves, we refer to the work of Cosset and Robert [8, whose formulae are a lot more involved than those to compute (2,2)- and (3,3)-isogenies, but they are polynomial in $\ell$ and likely practical enough to complete the attack. The gluing of elliptic curves and splitting of Jacobians is succinctly explained by Kuhn in [28]; for a more elaborate and practical exposition, see also [15, §1.4]. Away from $\ell=2,3$ we are not aware of a straightforward decision algorithm to verify whether an $(\ell, \ell)$-subgroup of a given Jacobian of a genus 2 curve results in a product of elliptic curves: the easiest way seems to try and compute an $(\ell, \ell)$ isogeny to a Jacobian as in [8] and see if the theta constants fail to create a genus 2 curve. Alternatively, one can write down a system of equations expressing that our Jacobian is " $(\ell, \ell)$-split" (i.e., $(\ell, \ell)$-isogenous to a product of elliptic curves) via our given subgroup, and verify whether this system is consistent, see [15].

### 11.2 Other starting curves with a known endomorphism ring

Setting up SIDH with another starting curve $E_{0}$ with known endomorphism ring does not prevent the attack. Indeed, in view of [16, 44], such a curve can always be assumed to come equipped with an explicit $3^{\beta}$-isogeny $\tau: E_{0} \rightarrow E_{\text {start }}$ for some $\beta \geq 0$, where $E_{\text {start }}$ is any of the curves from (1). Therefore we fall under the set-up from Section 3 .

### 11.3 Base curves whose endomorphism ring is unknown

We now discuss the scenario of a base curve $E_{0}$ without known endomorphism ring. In particular, no path to $E_{\text {start }}$ is known. As indicated in Section 5.4, if $c=2^{a}-3^{b}$ is smooth then it remains possible to construct the auxiliary isogeny $\gamma$. In fact, if we no longer exploit special features of $E_{0}$, then it makes more sense to let $\gamma$ emanate from $E$ rather than $E_{0}$, leading us to considering $\gamma \circ \varphi: E_{0} \rightarrow C$. This isogeny has degree $c 3^{b}$ and can again be used to decide whether or not $(\mathrm{D})$ is true: this should be the case if and only if the subgroup $\left\langle\left(P_{0}, x \gamma(P)\right),\left(Q_{0}, x \gamma(Q)\right)\right\rangle \subset E_{0} \times C$ is reducible, with $x$ a multiplicative inverse of $3^{b}$ modulo $2^{a}$.

Remark 10. Computing $\gamma$ works as follows. Write $c$ as a product of small primes $\ell_{1} \ell_{2} \cdots \ell_{s}$ and for each $i=1, \ldots, s$ let $r_{i}$ denote the multiplicative order of $-p$ modulo $\ell_{i}$. Because $p^{2}$-Frobenius acts as $[-p]$, we can find a non-trivial point in $E_{0}\left[\ell_{1}\right] \subset E_{0}\left(\mathbb{F}_{p^{2 r_{1}}}\right)$ and the subgroup it generates is defined over $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$. So this is the kernel of an $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$-rational degree- $\ell_{1}$ isogeny $\gamma_{1}: E_{0} \rightarrow C_{1}$ that can be computed and evaluated using formulae of Vélu type. By repeating this construction, we eventually obtain $\gamma$ as a composition $\gamma_{s} \circ \gamma_{s-1} \circ \ldots \circ \gamma_{1}$ where each $\gamma_{i}$ is an $\mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$-rational $\ell_{i}$-isogeny.

Turning this decision method into a key recovery algorithm works along the lines of Section 6. First, we look for the smallest $\beta \geq 1$ for which there exists an integer $\alpha \geq 0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
c=2^{a-\alpha}-3^{b-\beta} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

is smooth (this is an optimistic goal!). Then, for each guess for the first degree-$3^{\beta}$-component $\kappa_{1}$ of $\varphi$, we run our test to see whether or not there exists a degree- $3^{b-\beta}$-isogeny $\kappa_{1}\left(E_{0}\right) \rightarrow E$ mapping $2^{\alpha} \kappa_{1}\left(P_{0}\right)$ to $2^{\alpha} P$ and $2^{\alpha} \kappa_{1}\left(Q_{0}\right)$ to $2^{\alpha} Q$. There are $3^{\beta}$ possible guesses, so clearly $\beta$ should be small enough for this to be feasible.

Once $\kappa_{1}$ is found, we can proceed by steps of degree 3 as in Section 7.3. Since smoothness is such a rare event, it actually makes sense to recycle the expression (14) all along. Then we can also recycle our auxiliary isogeny $\gamma$, i.e., it only has to be computed once, including pushing through torsion points. Concretely: when guessing $\kappa_{2}$, we extend $\gamma$ with an extra degree-3 isogeny $\varphi^{\prime}: C \rightarrow E^{\prime}$ and we test if we took the right direction by checking whether or not there is a degree $c 3^{b-\beta}$-isogeny mapping $2^{\alpha} \kappa_{2} \kappa_{1}\left(P_{0}\right)$ to $2^{\alpha} \varphi^{\prime} \gamma(P)$ and $2^{\alpha} \kappa_{2} \kappa_{1}\left(Q_{0}\right)$ to $2^{\alpha} \varphi^{\prime} \gamma(Q)$. Iterating this process will recreate the entire isogeny chain.

In summary: as soon as we can find a small $\beta \geq 1$ with a corresponding $\alpha \geq 0$ such that 14 is smooth, then our attack applies. The likelihood of finding a smooth $c$ of this form is very small, but there are at least two methods for creating more leeway for an attacker:

- We can extend Bob's secret isogeny $\varphi: E_{0} \rightarrow E$ by an arbitrary isogeny $\varepsilon: E \rightarrow F$ of some smooth degree $e$ and work with $\varepsilon \circ \varphi$ instead of $\varphi$. This allows us to look for a smooth integer of the form $c=2^{a-\alpha}-e 3^{b-\beta}$ and construct a corresponding degree- $c$ isogeny $\gamma: F \rightarrow C$.
- A second tweak can be obtained by any algorithm that can efficiently solve the following problem for a fixed $d$ :
- Let $H / \mathbb{F}_{p^{2}}$ be a genus 2 curve with superspecial Jacobian $J$, and $d>1$ an integer. Is there a $(d, d)$-isogeny $\Psi: J \rightarrow A$ such that $A$ is a product of elliptic curves?
Indeed, this allows us to work with expressions of the form $c=d 2^{a-\alpha}-$ $e 3^{b-\beta}$. Each test then amounts to computing a $\left(2^{a-\alpha}, 2^{a-\alpha}\right)$-isogeny, using the torsion point data as before, and then checking if the resulting Jacobian is $(d, d)$-split. Verifying whether a given Jacobian is $(d, d)$-split is likely to be most efficient by means of a computation similar to those in [15], 28]. Alternatively, one can exhaust over all $O\left(d^{3}\right)$ outgoing $(d, d)$-isogenies.
E.g., consider $a=110$ and $b=67$ as in \$IKEp217, along with the identity
$59 \cdot 67 \cdot 107 \cdot 443^{2} \cdot 487 \cdot 1049 \cdot 2711 \cdot 8297=109 \cdot 2^{110-35}-119 \cdot 3^{67-20}$.
Assuming that we do not know a path from $E_{0}$ to $E_{\text {start }}$, we could still try to recover Bob's key by computing
- one-time isogenies $E \xrightarrow{\varepsilon} F \xrightarrow{\gamma} C$, dominated in cost by a 2711-isogeny and a 8297-isogeny over extension fields of respective degrees 2710 and 2074,
- computing all $3^{20}$-isogenous neighbours of the base curve, gluing them together by means of a $\left(2^{75}, 2^{75}\right)$-isogeny and checking which one of the resulting Jacobians is $(109,109)$-split.

The second step immediately reveals the first 20 ternary digits of Bob's secret key and we can then easily find the remaining digits as explained above.

Remark 11. It was pointed out to us by De Feo and Wesolowski that the above considerations lead to an algorithm which, heuristically, runs in time $L_{p}(1 / 2+\epsilon)$. To see this, it suffices to pick $\alpha, \beta$ in the order of $\sqrt{a}$. Then, by letting $d, e$ range over random integers in $\left[1,2^{\sqrt{a}}\right]$, we can think of $c$ as a random integer of size roughly $2^{a}$. Following well-known heuristics [5] after about

$$
\sqrt{a}^{\sqrt{a}}=L_{p}(1 / 2+\epsilon)
$$

tries we expect to find an instance of $c$ that is $2^{\sqrt{a}}$-smooth. Using these values of $c, d, e$, the remainder of the attack is expected to run in time $L_{p}(1 / 2)$.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Right before posting our paper online, we learned that the authors of 30 had started pursuing related ideas.

[^2]:    ${ }^{2}$ Séta is now fully broken in view of Robert's work 38.

