A survey on algorithms for computing isogenies on low genus curves

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Acknowledgments: B. Smith.

I. Motivations

• Number Theory:

- computing algebraic integrals: AGM, etc.
- classification of curves into isogeny classes (e.g., over a finite field, two curves have the same cardinality).
- etc.

Computational Number Theory:

► *g* = 1:

- First life (1985–1997): crucial role in point counting in Schoof-Elkie-Atkin (SEA), Couveignes, Lercier; still needed for *p* large; AGM for *p* small (*p*-adic methods à la Mestre, Satoh, Kedlaya).
- Second life (1996–): Kohel, Fouquet/M. (cycles and volcanoes); Couveignes/Henocq, Bröker and Stevenhagen (CM curves using *p*-adic method).
- ► g ≥ 2: try to extend these previous successes (e.g., modular polynomials).

Motivations (cont'd): cryptologic applications

- *g* = 1 (1999–):
 - speedup for computing [k]P when an "easy" endomorphism is known (Koblitz; Gallant/Lambert/Vanstone + several followers).
 - Special purposes: Smart; Brier & Joye.
 - ▶ isogeny graph: $(E_1, E_2) \in \mathscr{E}$ iff E_1 and E_2 are isogenous
 - Galbraith: finding a path between two curves seems difficult;
 - Jao/Miller/Venkatesan: the graph is an expander graph;
 - Galbraith/Hess/Smart: send DL from a hard curve to a weak one;
 - cryptosystems: Teske (hide an easy DLP among harder ones); Rostovtsev/Stolbunov; etc.
 - hash function: Charles/Goren/Lauter use graph of 2-isogenies of supersingular elliptic curves.
- *g* ≥ 2:
 - speedups in exponentiations: Kohel/Smith, Takashima, Galbraith/Lin/Scott, etc.
 - *g* = 3: sending DL on Jac(*H*) to a weaker one on Jac(*Q*) (Smith).

II. Isogenies in theory

Def. An isogeny is a surjective homomorphism of finite kernel between two abelian varieties: $\varphi : \mathscr{A} \to \mathscr{A}'$.

Right away, we will concentrate on jacobians of curves; for simplicity, $g \le 3$.

Endomorphism: Jac' = Jac.

The case g = 1

Thm. If *F* is a finite subgroup of $E(\overline{\mathbf{K}})$, then there exists *I* and \tilde{E} s.t.

$$I: E \to \tilde{E} = E/F, \quad \ker(I) = F.$$

Thm. (dual isogeny) There is a unique $\hat{I} : \tilde{E} \to E, \ell = \deg I$ s.t.

$$(*) \qquad \hat{I} \circ I = [\ell]$$



⇒ *I* is a factor of [ℓ], hence *I* can provide factors of ψ_{ℓ} ⇒ key to SEA.

Higher genus

g = 2: Jac(H)/ $F \rightarrow$ Jac(H') or $E_1 \times E_2$ (cannot be determined by looking at F only?).

g = 3: $\operatorname{Jac}(H)/F \to \operatorname{Jac}(H')$ or $\operatorname{Jac}(C)$ or $E_1 \times E_2 \times E_3$.

If *F* has suitable properties, then (*) stands also for some ℓ . Typical example is ℓ prime and $F \sim (\mathbb{Z}/\ell\mathbb{Z})^g$.

First examples and illustrations

1. Separable:

$$k](x,y) = \left(\frac{\phi_k}{\psi_k^2}, \frac{\omega_k}{\psi_k^3}\right)$$

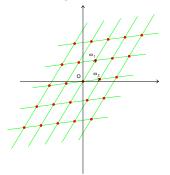
where ψ_k is some division polynomial (i.e., coding the *k*-torsion). Generalized to division ideals in higher genus.

2. Complex multiplication: [i](x,y) = (-x,iy) on $E: y^2 = x^3 - x$. Every integer k can be written as $k = k_0 + Ik_1$ where $I^2 \equiv -1 \mod p$ and $|k_0|, |k_1| \approx \sqrt{p}$ \Rightarrow fast way of evaluating [k]P.

3. Inseparable: $\varphi(x, y) = (x^p, y^p)$, $\mathbf{K} = \mathbb{F}_p$.

In the sequel: only separable isogenies.

The classical case: isogenies for curves over $\ensuremath{\mathbb{C}}$



If $E = \mathbb{C}/L$ and $E' = \mathbb{C}/L'$ and there exists an α s.t. $\alpha L' \subset L$, then *E* and *E'* are isogenous.

Modular polynomial: there exists a bivariate polynomial $\Phi_m(X, Y) \in \mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$ such that if L/L' is cyclic of index *m* then

$$\Phi_m(j(L), j(L')) = \Phi_m(j(E), j(E')) = 0.$$

Examples

Ex.
$$E: Y^2 = X^3 + bX, F = \langle (0,0) \rangle; \tilde{E}: Y^2 = X^3 - 4bX,$$

 $I: (x,y) \mapsto \left(\frac{x^3 + bx}{x^2}, y\frac{x^2 - b}{x^2}\right).$
 $\hat{I}(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4b}{x},$
 $\hat{I} \circ I = 2^2[2] = \frac{x^4 - 2x^2b + b^2}{x(x^2 + b)}.$

Later on: how we can effectively compute such formulas.

A typical isogeny pair: $\tilde{E} = \mathbb{C}/(\omega_1/\ell, \omega_2)$ is ℓ -isogenous to $E = \mathbb{C}/(\omega_1, \omega_2)$. Take as finite subgroup:

$$F = \{O_E\} \cup \left\{ (\mathscr{O}(r\omega_1/\ell), \frac{1}{2} \mathscr{O}(r\omega_1/\ell)), 1 \le r \le \ell - 1 \right\}.$$

[remember that Weierstrass \wp parametrizes E.]

Complex multiplication

 $E = \mathbb{C}/L(1, \tau)$ with quadratic τ in some $\mathbf{K} = \mathbb{Q}(\sqrt{-D})$.

For α an integer in **K**, Weierstrass \wp gives:

$$\mathcal{P}(\alpha z) = \frac{N(\mathcal{P}(z))}{D(\mathcal{P}(z))}$$

with $deg(N) = deg(D) + 1 = Norm(\alpha)$.

Take D = 7 and $E: Y^2 = X^3 - 35X - 98$, $\omega = (-1 + \sqrt{-7})/2$:

$$[\omega](x) = \frac{(x^2 + (4 + \omega)x + 21\omega + 7)(-1 + \omega)}{4x + 16 + 4\omega}.$$

CM generalizes to other genera: theory ok, computations doable in genus 2.

Two strategies for building isogenies

Starting from a kernel:

- given Jac(C) and F, find the module(s) of Jac(C') = Jac(C)/F, and then C' [this could be non-trivial];
- compute *I*.

Using modular polynomials: try to mimic the classical case of

- find the roots $\{j'\}$ of $\Phi_\ell(X, j(E)) = 0$;
- for each j', find E' of invariant j';
- compute I.

En route: examine each of these, starting from the (easy) case of g = 1.

III. Computing modular polynomials A) when g = 1

Traditionnal modular polynomial: constructed via lattices and curves over \mathbb{C} (plus modular forms and functions). Remember that

$$j(q) = \frac{1}{q} + 744 + \sum_{n \ge 1} c_n q^n.$$

Then $\Phi_{\ell}^{T}(X, Y)$ is such that $\Phi_{\ell}^{T}(j(q), j(q^{\ell}))$ vanishes identically. This polynomial has a lot of properties: symmetrical $\mathbb{Z}[X, Y]$, degree in *X* and *Y* is $\ell + 1$ (hence $(\ell + 1)^2$ coefficients), etc. and moreover

Thm. [P. Cohen] the height of $\Phi_{\ell}^{T}(X, Y)$ is $O((\ell+1)\log\ell)$. \Rightarrow total size is $\tilde{O}(\ell^{3})$.

Example:

$$\Phi_2^T(X,Y) = X^3 + X^2 \left(-Y^2 + 1488 Y - 162000\right) + X \left(1488 Y^2 + 40773375 Y + 8748000000\right)$$
$$+Y^3 - 162000 Y^2 + 8748000000 Y - 157464000000000.$$

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Choosing another modular equation

Why? Always good to have the smallest polynomial so as not to fill the disks too rapidly...

Key point: any function on $\Gamma_0(\ell)$ (or $\Gamma_0(\ell)/\langle w_\ell \rangle$) will do. In particular, if

$$f(q) = q^{-\nu} + \cdots$$

then there will exist a polynomial $\Phi_{\ell}[f](X, Y)$ s.t.

 $\Phi_\ell[f](j(q),\!f(q))\equiv 0.$

This polynomial will have $(v+1)(\ell+1)$ coefficients, and height $O(v\log \ell)$, still in $\tilde{O}(\ell^3)$.

$\operatorname{Choosing} f$

Atkin:

• canonical choice f(q) using some power of $\eta(q)/\eta(q^{\ell})$ where $\eta(q) = q^{1/24} \prod_{n \ge 1} (1-q^n)$. E.g.

$$\Phi_2^c(J,F) = F^3 + 48F^2 + 768F - JF + 4096.$$

 a difficult method (the laundry method) for finding (conjecturally) the *f* with smallest ν (that can rewritten as θ-functions with characters).

Müller: for (small) integer r, use

$$\frac{T_r(\eta\eta_\ell)}{\eta\eta_\ell}$$

where T_r is the Hecke operator

$$(T_r|f)(\tau) = f(r\tau) + \frac{1}{r} \sum_{k=0}^{r-1} f\left(\frac{\tau+k}{r}\right).$$

Alternatively: one may use some linear algebra on functions obtained via Hecke operators.

Computing $\Phi_{\ell}[f]$ given f

- Atkin (analysis by Elkies): use *q*-expansion of *j* and *f* with O(vℓ) terms, compute power sums of roots of Φ_ℓ[*f*], write them as polynomials in *J* and go back to coefficients of Φ_ℓ[*f*](*X*,*J*) via Newton's formulas; use CRT on small primes. Õ(ℓ³M(*p*)); used for ℓ ≤ 1000 fifteen years ago.
- Charles+Lauter (2005): compute Φ^T_ℓ modulo p using supersingular invariants mod p, Mestre méthode des graphes, ℓ torsion points defined over 𝔽_po(ℓ) and interpolation. Õ(ℓ⁴M(p))
- Enge (2004); Dupont (2004): use complex floating point evaluation and interpolation. Õ(ℓ³)

Write

$$\Phi_{\ell}^{T}(X,J) = X^{\ell+1} + \sum_{u=0}^{\ell} c_{u}(J)X^{u}$$

where $c_u(J) \in \mathbb{Z}[J]$, $\deg(c_u(J)) \leq \ell + 1$. All computations are done using precision $H = O(\ell \log \ell)$.

1. for $\ell + 1$ values of z_i do:

1.1 Compute floating point approximations to the $\ell + 1$ roots $f_r(z_i)$ of $\Phi_{\ell}[f](X, j(z_i))$ to precision *H*;

1.2 Build $\prod_{r=1}^{\ell+1} (X - f_r(z_i)) = X^{\ell+1} + \sum_{u=0}^{\ell} c_u(j(z_i)) X^u$; $O(\mathsf{M}(\ell) \log \ell)$ ops.

2. Perform $\ell + 1$ interpolations for the c_u 's: $O((\ell + 1)M(\ell)\log \ell)$ ops.

All 1.2 + 2 has cost $O(\ell M(\ell)(\log \ell)M(H)) = \tilde{O}(\ell^3)$.

Examples

Data for $T_r(\eta \eta_\ell)/\eta \eta_\ell$ (courtesy Enge)

l	r	Н	$\deg(J)$	eval(s)	interp(s)	tot (d)	Mb gz
3011	5	7560	200				368
3079	97	9018	254	7790	640	23	547
3527	13	9894	268	799	1440	3	746
3517	97	10746	290	12400	1110	42	850
4003	13	11408	308	1130	2320	4	1127
5009	5	13349	334	880	3110	3	1819
6029	5	16418	402	1550	6370	7	3251
7001	5	19473	466	2440	11700	13	5182
8009	5	22515	534	3500	20000	22	7905
9029	5	25507	602	5030	33100	35	11460
10079	5	28825	672	7690	56300	61	16152

An algebraic alternative: Charlap/Coley/Robbins

Over some K, write

$$\psi_{\ell}(X) = \prod_{1 \leq r, s \leq \ell-1} (X - \mathcal{O}((r\omega_1 + s\omega_2)/\ell)).$$

The factor we build is:

$$D(x) = \prod_{1 \le r \le \ell-1} (X - \wp(r\omega_1/\ell))$$

and all its coefficients are in $\mathbf{K}[\sigma]$ where $\sigma = \sum_{r \in \mathcal{O}} (r\omega_1/\ell)$.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \mathbf{K}[x]/(\psi_{\ell}(x)) \\ & | & \ell-1 \\ \mathbf{K}[x]/(M_{\sigma}(x)) \\ & | & \ell+1 \\ \mathbf{K}[x] \end{array}$$

If σ is rational over **K**, then D(x) will have rational coefficients.

CCR (cont'd)

Another modular equation: $M_{\sigma}(x) = \Phi_{\ell}(x, j(E))$. It has the same properties as the traditional one (e.g., factorization patterns) and can be used as is in SEA. To find \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} , we need two more polynomials + some tedious matching of roots.

The first values are:

$$\begin{split} U_3(X) &= X^4 + 2AX^2 + 4BX - A^2/3, \\ V_3(X) &= X^4 + 84AX^3 + 246A^2X^2 + (-63756A^3 - 432000B^2)X \\ &\quad +576081A^4 + 3888000B^2A, \\ W_3(X) &= X^4 + 732BX^3 + (171534B^2 + 25088A^3)X^2 \\ &\quad +(11009548B^3 + 1630720BA^3)X - 297493504/27A^6 \\ &\quad -437245479B^4 - 139150592B^2A^3, \end{split}$$

$$U_5(X) = X^6 + 20AX^4 + 160BX^3 - 80A^2X^2 - 128ABX - 80B^2.$$

B) Modular polynomials when g = 2

- Gaudry + Schost: the algebraic alternative is generic (Ξ_{ℓ})
 - total degree is $d = (\ell^4 1)/(\ell 1);$
 - number of monomials is $O(\ell^{12})$;
 - can do ℓ = 3: 50k but a lot of computing time (weblink still active);
 - use its factorization patterns à la Atkin to speedup cardinality computations.

• The classical modular approach:

- Poincaré \rightarrow Siegel (dim 2g);
- replace *j* by (*j*₁,*j*₂,*j*₃) ⇒ triplet of modular polynomials, coefficients are rational fractions in *j_i*'s;
- Dupont (experimental conjectures proven more recently by Bröker+Lauter): stuck at ℓ = 2 with 26.8 Mbgz (just the beginning of ℓ = 3); uses evaluation/interpolation again.

C) Modular polynomials when g = 3

Gaudry + Schost $\Rightarrow d = (\ell^{2g} - 1)/(\ell - 1).$

And then: ?????

IV. Computing the isogeny

A) the case g = 1: Vélu's formulas

Vélu suggests to use

$$x_{I(P)} = x_P + \sum_{Q \in F^*} (x_{P+Q} - x_Q)$$

and derives equations for \tilde{E} and *I* in terms of symmetric functions in the x_Q , the abscissas of points in *F*. (Plus more properties, like the isogeny is strict.)

How does an isogeny look like?

Extending Vélu, Dewaghe (for $E: Y^2 = X^3 + AX + B$):

$$D(x) = \prod_{Q \in F^*} (x - x_Q) = x^{\ell - 1} - \sigma x^{\ell - 2} + \cdots$$

Fundamental proposition. The isogeny I can be written as

$$I(x,y) = \left(\frac{N(x)}{D(x)}, y\left(\frac{N(x)}{D(x)}\right)'\right),$$
$$\frac{N(x)}{D(x)} = \ell x - \sigma - (3x^2 + A)\frac{D'(x)}{D(x)} - 2(x^3 + Ax + B)\left(\frac{D'(x)}{D(x)}\right)'$$
$$= \ell x - \sigma - 2\sqrt{x^3 + Ax + B}\left(\sqrt{x^3 + Ax + B}\frac{D'(x)}{D(x)}\right)'.$$



1. Compute the h_i 's of

$$\frac{N(x)}{D(x)} = x + \sum_{i>1} \frac{h_i}{x^i}$$

in $O(\ell^2)$ operations using

$$(3x^{2}+A)\left(\frac{N(x)}{D(x)}\right)' + 2(x^{3}+Ax+B)\left(\frac{N(x)}{D(x)}\right)'' = 3\left(\frac{N(x)}{D(x)}\right)^{2} + \tilde{A}.$$

2. deduce power sums p_i of D(x) in $O(\ell)$ operations using also \tilde{A} and \tilde{B} ;

- 3. use fast Newton in $O(M(\ell))$ to get D(x).
- \Rightarrow very fast for small ℓ 's.

Bostan/M./Salvy/Schost

Prop. $O(M(\ell))$ method to get the h_i 's given \tilde{A} , \tilde{B} , σ .

Some ideas: there exists a series S(x) s.t.

$$\frac{N(x)}{D(x)} = \frac{1}{S\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}\right)^2}.$$

$$S(x) = x + \frac{\tilde{A} - A}{10}x^5 + \frac{\tilde{B} - B}{14}x^7 + O(x^9) \in x + x^3\mathbf{K}[[x^2]]$$

is such that

$$(Bx^6 + Ax^4 + 1)S'(x)^2 = 1 + \tilde{A}S(x)^4 + \tilde{B}S(x)^6.$$

Use fast algorithm for solving this differential equation.

Rem. See *Math. Comp.* paper that includes survey of known methods for isogeny computations.

The case of finite fields of small characteristic

- **Couveignes:** formal groups; Artin-Schreier towers; time $\tilde{O}(\ell^2)$ but bad dependancy on p (see on-going work of L. De Feo).
- Lercier/Joux (2006): medium *p* using *p*-adic lifting.
- Lercier/Sirvent (2008): small *p* using *p*-adic lifting + BMSS ⇒ complexity of O(M(ℓ)) in all cases.

B) The case g = 2

Probably not complete list:

- Gaudry+Schost: Jac(C) → E₁ × E₂ for a (2,2)-isogeny of kernel Z/2Z × Z/2Z.
- $\ell = 2$ (AGM): Richelot, Humbert.
- ℓ ≥ 3: Dolgachev/Lehavi; general result for F = (ℤ/ℓℤ)²; completely explicit for ℓ = 3; more work needed for ℓ > 3. Some hope?

C) And for g = 3?

Again, lack of general formulas:

- ℓ = 2 (AGM): Donagi/Livné (+ negative results for g > 3); explicit methods by Lehavi + Ritzenthaler.
- Smith (Eurocrypt 2008):
 - ▶ φ : Jac(H) → Jac(C) where H is hyperelliptic and C smooth plane quartic;
 - intricate construction but relatively simple formulas in the end: uses Recilla's trigonal construction + theorem of Donagi and Livné;
 - works for 18.57% of smooth plane quartics;
 - nice crypto application (DL in Jac(C) easier than in Jac(H)).

V. Conclusions

- g = 1: morally solved.
- *g* > 1:
 - scattered results;
 - curves are not so frequent and/or easy in higher genus;
 - objects are exponentially big: even with sophisticated computer algebra techniques, this sounds difficult.