Supersingular Non-Superspecial Abelian Surfaces in Cryptography

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Abstract We consider the use of supersingular abelian surfaces in cryptography. Several generalisations of well-known cryptographic schemes and constructions based on supersingular elliptic curves to the 2-dimensional setting of superspecial abelian surfaces have been proposed. The computational assumptions in the superspecial 2-dimensional case can be reduced to the corresponding 1-dimensional problems via a product decomposition by observing that every superspecial abelian surface is non-simple and separably isogenous to a product of supersingular elliptic curves. Instead, we propose to use supersingular non-superspecial isogeny graphs where such a product decomposition does not have a computable description via separable isogenies. We study the advantages and investigate security concerns of the move to supersingular non-superspecial abelian surfaces.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Isogeny-based cryptography is a subfield of cryptography whose protocols' security is based on the hardness of finding isogenies between given elliptic curves (or, more generally, abelian varieties). The first isogeny-based protocol appeared in 1997 in unpublished work of [15] and was independently rediscovered by Rostovtsev and Stolbunov in 2006 [40] — this protocol used complex multiplication on ordinary elliptic curves to construct a key establishment protocol \grave{a} la [19]. This CRS protocol is of theoretical interest, but is not efficient enough in practice, even in state-of-the-art implementations, (e.g., [16]).

The first documented use of supersingular elliptic curves for isogeny-based cryptography is the hash function of [13] in 2006, and in 2011, Jao and De Feo proposed Supersingular Isogeny Diffie-Hellman (SIDH) [24], which underlies SIKE [3]. SIKE has now been broken by a series of papers released over the summer of 2022 [10, 29, 39]. However, not all isogeny-based cryptosystems have been affected by these results; CSIDH [12] and SQISign [17] are two notable cryptosystems that are unaffected. Supersingular elliptic curves are studied in this context because they have a number of convenient features that are exploited for efficiency and security purposes. In particular:

- 1. For any primes $\ell \neq p$, the supersingular ℓ -isogeny graph $\mathcal{G}_{\ell,p}$ is a Ramanujan graph [35, 36];
- 2. Any supersingular curve in characteristic p is isomorphic to one defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} ;
- 3. If E/\mathbb{F}_{p^2} is supersingular then $\#E(\mathbb{F}_{p^2}) \in \{p^2+1, p^2\pm p+1, p^2\pm 2p+1\}$ moreover, it is easy to construct curves E/\mathbb{F}_{p^2} with a given number of \mathbb{F}_{p^2} -rational points [7]; and,
- 4. If E/\mathbb{F}_{p^2} is supersingular then $\operatorname{End}(E)$ is non-commutative.

Respectively, these properties guarantee that

- 1. Random walks in $\mathcal{G}_{\ell,p}$ mix rapidly, ensuring that even relatively short walks yield nearly uniform outputs;
- An isomorphism class of supersingular elliptic curves in characteristic p—represented by its j-invariant—requires only 2 log₂ p bits to encode, leading to small communication requirements and key sizes in isogeny-based key establishment protocols;
- 3. By choosing an appropriate form of the prime p, we can force certain torsion subgroups of E to be \mathbb{F}_{p^2} -rational. This allows isogenies of corresponding large prime-power degrees to be computed using (relatively efficient) arithmetic in \mathbb{F}_{p^2} , using Vélu's formulas [43].
- 4. Quantum attacks using Kuperberg's algorithm [28, 38] do not generally apply (although some schemes, like CSIDH [12], are still susceptible [5, 25, 4]).

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Just as classical elliptic curve cryptography based on discrete logarithms naturally generalises to hyperelliptic curve cryptography, isogeny-based supersingular elliptic curve cryptography can naturally be generalised by considering (Jacobians of) hyperelliptic curves of genus 2. The primary benefit of working in genus 2 is that a smaller finite field can be used for the same security level, leading to faster field arithmetic and more compact representation of field elements. Takashima [41] first proposed the genus 2 variant of the CGL hash function by replacing supersingular elliptic curves with superspecial abelian surfaces and 2-isogenies with Richelot isogenies. Flynn and Ti [20] then studied the superspecial Richelot isogeny graph and discovered the presence of non-trivial collisions in the genus 2 hash function that arose from (ℓ^2, ℓ, ℓ) -isogenies that they named ℓ -diamonds. In the same paper, Flynn and Ti also proposed the generalisation of SIDH to genus 2 which they named G2SIDH. They proposed the use of superspecial abelian surfaces and (2,2) and (3,3)-isogenies as the natural generalisations of the primary components in SIDH. This has also been broken by generalising the attack on SIDH. Castryck, Decru, and Smith [11] improved on Takashima's proposed hash function by avoiding the diamonds found by Flynn and Ti.

In the above cases of genus 2 cryptography, the schemes work in the graph of superspecial abelian surfaces. In this paper, we propose moving away from superspecial abelian surfaces towards (connected components of) supersingular non-superspecial abelian surfaces. Supersingular non-superspecial abelian surfaces are actually isogenous to superspecial abelian surfaces, so a priori there are no apparent difference between working on either types. However, supersingular non-superspecial abelian surfaces are only isogenous to superspecial abelian surfaces via inseparable isogenies. Since all of the cryptosystems mentioned above use (2, 2) or (3, 3)-isogenies — and are co-prime to p — the effect is that the superspecial and supersingular non-superspecial graphs are not connected to each other

Bearing this in mind, in this paper, we propose moving to the supersingular non-superspecial graph because of the lack of reducible surfaces there. This would provide the following advantages:

- 1. Implementations of genus 2 isogeny-based protocols in the superspecial graph must have either a branch condition (making constant-time implementations difficult) or termination condition (leading to possible protocol failures) to handle reducible surfaces; these are not necessary in the supersingular non-superspecial graph;
- 2. Side-channel attacks which exploit the existence of reducible surfaces in the secret isogeny path can be prevented; and,
- 3. The attack of [14] does not apply (unless p-isogenies can be efficiently computed).

At the same time, we will examine the concerns of such a move by examining the size of the isogeny graph, and its structure.

2 PRELIMINARIES

We fix a prime p and denote the finite field with p elements by \mathbb{F}_p and its algebraic closure by $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$. We call an elliptic curve $E/\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ either *ordinary* or *supersingular*, depending on whether the p-torsion group of E satisfies $E[p] \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$ or $E[p] \cong 0$, respectively. In fancier language, we say that the p-torsion group scheme of E is either $E \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mu_p$, or the *local-local Barsotti-Tate* (BT₁) group scheme $E[P] \cong \mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z} \oplus \mu_p$.

In two dimensions we find more than just these two possibilities. Consider an abelian surface $A/\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$, then the p-torsion group scheme A[p] of A is isomorphic to one of the four possible group schemes given in Table 1.

A[p]	Туре	Codim. in \mathcal{M}_2
L^2	ordinary	0
$L \oplus I_{1,1}$	non-ordinary	1
$I_{2,1}$	supersingular non-superspecial	2
$I_{1,1} \oplus I_{1,1}$	superspecial	3

Table 1: Strata of the coarse moduli space of abelian surfaces over a finite field, see [37].

Here $I_{2,1}$ is another certain BT₁ group scheme. The codimension of the associated strata in the coarse moduli space of abelian surfaces is given as well. We also call a genus 2 curve ordinary, non-ordinary, supersingular non-superspecial, or superspecial if its Jacobian is of that type.

Since the correct generalisation of the term "supersingular" depends on the *slopes of the Newton-polygon* corresponding to an abelian variety (see [32]), we have that superspecial abelian surfaces are in particular supersingular. Hence, we make the explicit distinction into "supersingular non-superspecial" and "superspecial" abelian surfaces. From Table 1 we see that supersingular non-superspecial and superspecial abelian surfaces are classified inside the complete supersingular stratum by whether their *p*-torsion group scheme is simple or not.

There is a similar distinction of the *p*-torsion group schemes in higher dimension, but there we find even more possible types and the correspondence between supersingularity and group scheme types becomes fuzzy. Here we will restrict only to dimension 2, also because every abelian surface is given as either the product of two elliptic curves or as the Jacobian of a genus 2 hyperelliptic curve. This simple description of abelian surfaces lends itself to better applicability to computations and cryptography. This does not hold in dimension 3 and higher and we would have to consider more complicated models for curves in general.

2.1 SUPERSPECIAL ABELIAN VARIETIES

Ignoring any (principal) polarisation, there exists only one superspecial abelian surface. That is, every superspecial abelian surface A is isomorphic to a product of (any pair of) supersingular elliptic curves E_1 and E_2 , i.e. $A \cong E_1 \times E_2$, see [31, Theorem 2]. Hence we can fix any supersingular elliptic curve E and view $A = E \times E$ as our "canonical" (unpolarised) abelian surface.

It is only when considering data in the form of tuples of abelian surfaces along with some (principal) polarisation \mathcal{L} on A of the form (A, \mathcal{L}) that we can effectively distinguish them. It is also true that Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves naturally admit a principal polarisation, hence it is useful to keep track of polarisations. This fact generalises also to dimension 3 and higher. In our case of dimension 2, every principally polarised superspecial abelian surface is then either the Jacobian of some superspecial genus 2 curve, or isomorphic to a product of two supersingular elliptic curves (in which case we say that *the polarisation splits*). In both cases the principal polarisation arises in a canonical way via the Jacobian construction of the underlying genus 2 curve, or the product of the two genus-1 curves, respectively.

The following exposition for general dimension follows [23]. Fix a prime p. Denote by $B_{p,\infty}$ the definite (i.e. ramified at infinity) quaternion algebra ramified at p. Let k be an algebraically closed field of characteristic p, and let E be a supersingular elliptic curve defined over k. Then $\operatorname{End}(E) \cong O_E$ is a maximal order of $B_{p,\infty}$ and the endomorphism algebra is simply $\operatorname{End}(E) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q} \cong B_{p,\infty}$.

Let A be an abelian variety. Let the map $T_x: A \to A$ denote translation by $x \in A$. For a line bundle $\mathcal{L} \in \hat{A}$ on A, denote by $\varphi_{\mathcal{L}}$ the morphism

$$\varphi_{\mathcal{L}}: A \to \hat{A},$$

$$x \mapsto T_x^* \mathcal{L} \otimes \mathcal{L}^{-1}.$$

As we mentioned, for any unpolarised superspecial abelian variety A over k of genus $g \ge 2$ we have $A \cong E^g$ for some supersingular elliptic curve E. Let $\mathcal P$ be the line bundle corresponding to the divisor $E^{g-1} \times \{0\} + E^{g-2} \times \{0\} \times E + \dots + \{0\} \times E^{g-1}$. Then $\mathcal P$ defines a principal polarisation on A. Let $\mathrm{NS}(A) < \mathrm{Pic}(A)$ be the Neron–Severi group of A (divisor classes on A up to algebraic equivalence), and denote by $M_g(O_E)$ the ring of $g \times g$ -matrices over O_E . Note that $\mathrm{End}(A) \cong M_g(O_E)$. Consider the following morphism mapping the line bundle $\mathcal L$ to an endomorphism

$$j: \mathrm{NS}(A) \to \mathrm{End}(A),$$

$$\mathcal{L} \mapsto \varphi_{\mathcal{D}}^{-1} \circ \varphi_{\mathcal{L}}.$$

Lemma 1. The image of NS(A) by j is

$$\left\{H\in M_{g}(O_{E})\,|\,H^{\dagger}=H\right\},\,$$

the Hermitian matrices in $M_g(O_E)$. Extending to $NS^0(A) = NS(A) \otimes_{\mathbb{Z}} \mathbb{Q}$, this induces a Jordan algebra structure on $NS^0(A)$. Denote by HN(.) the Hauptnorm (see [6]) on $NS^0(A)$. Then $\deg \varphi_{\mathcal{L}} = (L^g/g!)^2 = HN(j(\mathcal{L}))^2$, where L is the divisor corresponding to \mathcal{L} . We have that \mathcal{L} is ample if and only if $j(\mathcal{L})$ is positive definite.

Proof. This follow from [23, Proposition 2.8] and [30].

Note that in our case, the Hauptnorm on $NS^0(A)$ corresponds to the usual *reduced norm* on $M_g(O_E)$. Ample line bundles in NS(A) give polarisations on A, and so by Lemma 1 there is a bijection

{principal polarisations on
$$A$$
} \leftrightarrow { $H \in GL_{\varrho}(O_E) \mid H^{\dagger} = H, H > 0$ }.

Note that $GL_g(O_E)$ acts on the set of all positive definite Hermitian matrices in $M_g(O_E)$ by conjugation. If we consider our objects up to automorphism we obtain the bijection

$$\begin{cases} \text{Principal polarisations on } A \text{ up to automor-} \\ \text{phism.} \end{cases} \longleftrightarrow \begin{cases} \text{Conjugacy classes of positive definite Hermi-} \\ \text{tian matrices in } \text{GL}_g(O_E). \end{cases}$$

Lemma 2 ([27, Proposition 31]). Let $A \cong E^g$ be a superspecial abelian variety, and let H and H' correspond to the principal polarisations \mathcal{L} and \mathcal{L}' , respectively. Let $\phi: A \to A$ be an isogeny with maximal Weil isotropic kernel of degree ℓ^{gn} (with respect to the principal polarisation \mathcal{L}). Then $\phi^*\mathcal{L}' = \ell^n\mathcal{L}$ if and only if $M^\dagger H'M = \ell^n H$ for a matrix $M \in M_g(O_E)$, and then M corresponds to ϕ .

Theorem 1. Fix any maximal order O of $B_{p,\infty}$. There is an equivalence of categories

$$\begin{cases} \textit{Objects: Isomorphism classes of principally polarised superspecial abelian varieties over} \\ \textit{k of genus } g \geq 2. \\ \textit{Morphisms: Isogenies with maximal Weil} \\ \textit{isotropic kernels of degree ℓ^{gn}}. \end{cases} \longleftrightarrow \begin{cases} \textit{Objects: Conjugacy classes of positive definite} \\ \textit{Hermitian matrices in $GL_g(O)$}. \\ \textit{Morphisms: Conjugation by $M_g(O)$ sending} \\ \textit{one class to an ℓ^n-multiple of the other.} \end{cases}.$$

Proof. This follows from Lemmas 1 and 2.

2.2 ENDOMORPHISMS OF SUPERSPECIAL ABELIAN SURFACES

The Deuring correspondence gives a bijection between supersingular elliptic curves and maximal orders of $B_{p,\infty}$. Similarly, the discussion in Section 2.1 shows that there exists a bijection between principally polarised superspecial abelian surfaces and conjugacy classes of positive definite Hermitian matrices in $GL_2(O)$, where O is a maximal order of $B_{p,\infty}$. Note, though, that unlike in dimension 1 where the Deuring correspondence gives us a canonical identification of curves and maximal orders, in dimension 2 all of our data is relative to a maximal order O (which we have to fix beforehand). Computationally, this requires us to determine the endomorphism ring of our initially chosen supersingular elliptic curve. Changing data between different representations (relative to different maximal orders) is also non-trivial. And yet, reducing the superspecial isogeny path problem from higher dimension to dimension 1 by finding reducible abelian varieties in the superspecial graph still has lower computational complexity than applying the usual path finding algorithms directly, see [14] and especially Remark 2 ibid.

2.3 SUPERSINGULAR NON-SUPERSPECIAL ABELIAN SURFACES

Fix a prime p and let $k = \overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$. Let α_p by the finite group scheme $\alpha_p = \operatorname{Spec} k[x]/(x^p)$. Consider a supersingular abelian surface A over k. Then by [31, Corollary 7], there exists an exact sequence

$$0 \to \alpha_p \xrightarrow{\iota_t} E \times E \xrightarrow{\psi} A \to 0,$$

i.e. we have an inseparable isogeny $\psi: E \times E \to (E \times E)/\iota_t(\alpha_p) = A$. The possible embeddings $\iota_t: \alpha_p \to E \times E$ are parametrised by an *embedding parameter* $t \in \mathbb{P}^1(k)$. By [31], A is superspecial if $t \in \mathbb{P}^1(\mathbb{F}_{p^2})$ and A is supersingular non-superspecial if $t \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$. Let πO be the prime ideal over p in $O = \operatorname{End}(E)$ (for some generator $\pi \in O$).

Theorem 2 ([23, Proposition 2.14]). Let A be a supersingular non-superspecial abelian surface with $t \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$. Then the set of principal polarisations on A is naturally bijective to

$$P_A = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} pa & c \\ \overline{c} & pb \end{pmatrix} \middle| a, b \in \mathbb{Z}; a, b > 0; c \in \pi O; p^2 ab - c\overline{c} = p \right\}.$$

The set P_A describes principal polarisations on A pulled back to $E \times E$. Hence the number of principal polarisations on A up to equivalence is given by counting the equivalence classes in P_A under the pullback of $\operatorname{End}(A)$ by ψ in $\operatorname{End}(E \times E) = M_2(O)$. The pullback of $\operatorname{End}(A)$ in $\operatorname{End}(E \times E)$ has different representations, depending on whether $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^4} \setminus \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$ or $t \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^4}$. The number h of principal polarisations \mathcal{L} on A up to equivalence is then as follows.

Theorem 3 ([21, Theorem 1.1, Theorem 1.2]).

1. If $t \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^4}$, then

$$h = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p = 2, \\ \frac{p^2(p^4 - 1)(p^2 - 1)}{5760} & \text{for any } p \ge 3. \end{cases}$$

When p is odd, we have $Aut(A, \mathcal{L}) = \{\pm 1\}$ for any principal polarisation.

2. If $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^4} \setminus \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$, then

$$h = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p = 2, \\ \frac{p^2(p^2 - 1)^2}{2880} & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 1 \pmod{5} \text{ or } p = 5, \\ 1 + \frac{(p - 3)(p + 3)(p^2 - 3p + 8)(p^2 + 3p + 8)}{2880} & \text{if } p \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}. \end{cases}$$

If $p \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}$, there is a unique principal polarisation \mathcal{L} on A such that $\operatorname{Aut}(A, \mathcal{L}) \cong \mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$, and for all the other principal polarisations we have $\operatorname{Aut}(A, \mathcal{L}) = \{\pm 1\}$.

2.4 CDS HASH

Constructing an isogeny-based hash function has its origins in 2006 when Charles, Goren and Lauter proposed using random walks in the 2-isogeny graph of supersingular elliptic curves as the basis of a hash function.

To compute the hash function, a base supersingular elliptic curve E_0 is chosen along with a 2-isogeny $\phi_{-1}: E_{-1} \to E_0$. Then each bit of the input to the hash function is used to determine the next step in the random walk since there are only two choices left after omitting the isogeny that goes back to the previous vertex. Exploiting the fact that the supersingular 2-isogeny graph is Ramanujan, they were able to prove that this hash function is secure if the input is sufficiently long $(O(\sqrt{p})$ -bits).

The genus 2 variant of the CGL hash function was first hinted at by Takashima [41] which is to be performed in the supersingular (2,2)-isogeny graph. Recall that abelian surfaces are either Jacobians genus two hyperelliptic curves, or products of elliptic curves. Takashima studied (2,2)-isogeny sequences on abelian surfaces, though not necessarily on supersingular abelian surfaces. This has applications to a genus-two hash function as the generalisation of the CGL hash function to genus-two is obvious in the writings of Takashima [41].

This hash function was broken in [20] when they discovered that the (2,2)-isogeny graph has 2-diamonds that admits non-trivial collisions in the hash function. Consider a starting vertex given by J_0 and a final vertex given by J_N . We assume that the vertices are both irreducible, i.e. they are Jacobians of hyperelliptic curves. Let $\phi: J_0 \to J_N$ be the isogeny between J_0 and J_N , then if $\ker(\phi)$ has rank 3 or 4, then we have either an 2-diamond or a cycle as a result. Since input bits are processed during the walk, one cannot tell if a cycle or an 2-diamond has occurred.

This vulnerability is patched in [11] by using Lagrangian subgroups (instead of just isotropic subgroups) to avoid non-trivial collisions in the hash function. They were able to do so by keeping track of isogeny extensions and making sure that they only chose "good" extensions that did not result in ℓ -diamonds. A final technicality that they had to overcome was the potential of encountering a reducible abelian surface in the superspecial graph. The probability of this occurrence after a random walk is O(1/p) since there are a total of $\Theta(p^3)$ abelian surfaces, and only $O(p^2)$ of them are reducible.

The authors suggested three methods for dealing with encounters with reducible surfaces. The first is to ignore encounters with reducible surfaces. The second proposes to deterministically find a neighbouring irreducible surface to connect to. The final option involves gluing the 2-torsion points of the constituent elliptic curves to produce explicit (2,2)-isogenies to a non-reducible surface $[11, \S 6.3]$. However, the authors elected not to include the latter two options and are willing to accept the O(1/p) risk of encountering reducible surfaces.

3 EFFECTS OF REDUCIBLE SURFACES IN THE SUPERSPECIAL GRAPH

We see that the immediate benefit obtained in moving to the supersingular non-superspecial graph is the omission of reducible surfaces. This serves to rule out exceptions in the graph that the cryptosystem does not prepare for. This lack of preparation would result in hash failures in CDS hash.

Implementing branches that take into account the occurrences of reducible surfaces may give rise to attacks on the protocol.

3.1 ATTACK ON CDS HASH WITH REDUCIBLE SURFACES

As stated above, the CDS hash did not implement their proposed method for dealing with reducible surfaces. This oversight could lead to hash failures in the cryptosystems. One could implement the techniques outlined in [11] which is to form explicit (ℓ,ℓ) -isogenies by gluing along the constituent elliptic curve's ℓ -torsion to avoid hash failures. Indeed, this technique is used when a reducible surface is encountered along the hash path.

The obvious repercussion of this is that we no longer have a constant time implementation of the hash function. This opens up the CDS hash function to simple side-channel timing attacks that can detect if reducible surfaces exists in the path corresponding to the secret key.

Given two principally polarised abelian surfaces A_1 and A_2 , an adversary can devise an attack based on this observation. Suppose that there is one reducible surface detected between A_1 and A_2 , the adversary will compute all neighbours of A_1 and A_2 to find the reducible surface lying between the two surfaces. This situation is illustrated as such:

$$A \xrightarrow{\phi_0} E \times E' \xrightarrow{\phi_1} A' \tag{1}$$

In the context of the CDS hash, the isogeny $\phi: A \to A'$ would be decomposable as a non-backtracking sequence of n (2, 2)-isogenies. By [20, Section 4.1], a standard meet-in-the-middle attack solves this problem in time $\tilde{O}(\sqrt[2]{p^3})$. However, an attacker who knows that there is a reducible surface $E \times E'$ on the path from A to A' can potentially

reduce the time required. With notation as in Equation (1), suppose that ϕ_0 , ϕ_1 correspond to (2, 2)-isogeny paths of length n_0 , n_1 respectively, and suppose without loss of generality that $n_0 \le n_1$. The attacker enumerates all (2, 2)-isogeny paths of length n_0 starting from A, until he arrives at a reducible surface $\hat{A} \cong \hat{E} \times \hat{E}'$ — under the heuristic assumption that reducible surfaces are uniformly distributed in the superspecial graph, with overwhelming probability there is only one such surface, and it is in fact $E \times E'$. Then the attacker launches the standard meet-in-the-middle attack from \hat{A} to A'.

The first step of this attack requires time $\tilde{O}(2^{3n_0})$, while the second requires $\tilde{O}(2^{\frac{3n_1}{2}})$. In the optimal situation in which $n_0 = \frac{1}{3}n$ and $n_1 = \frac{2}{3}n$, this attack has complexity $\tilde{O}(2^n) = \tilde{O}(\sqrt[3]{p^3})$.

If more reducible surfaces are detected, such that we have

$$A \xrightarrow{\phi_0} E_1 \times E_1' \xrightarrow{\phi_1} E_2 \times E_2' \xrightarrow{\phi_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{\phi_{m-1}} E_m \times E_m' \xrightarrow{\phi_m} A'$$

where each ϕ_j is a path of length n_j , then the meet-in-the-middle attack has complexity $\tilde{O}(2^{n_{j^*}} + \sum_{j \neq j^*} 2^{n_j})$ where $j^* = \arg\max_i \{n_i\}$.

Remark 1. This attack affects a vanishingly small proportion of the input, and it is exceedingly unlikely for a path to contain more than one reducible surface. However, it should be noted that these weak paths still exist, and would result in a lack of security. Removing them is as easy as beginning with a different base curve (a supersingular non-superspecial base curve).

3.2 THE ATTACK OF COSTELLO AND SMITH

The paper by Costello and Smith [14] address the superspecial isogeny problem in arbitrary genus g; in particular, given two principally polarised superspecial abelian surfaces A, A' of dimension g defined over $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ and a prime $\ell \neq p$, they propose two algorithms to find a chain of $(\ell, \ell, \dots, \ell)$ -isogenies from A to A'. Their classical algorithm [14, Theorem 1] runs in expected time $\tilde{O}(p^{g-1})$ (with success probability $2^{-(g-1)}$) while their quantum algorithm [14, Theorem 2] runs in time $\tilde{O}(\sqrt{p^{g-1}})$. This is a dramatic improvement over the performance of naïve meet-in-the-middle algorithms: There are $\Theta(p^{\frac{g(g+1)}{2}})$ in the superspecial graph, so the naïve classical algorithm takes time $\tilde{O}(p^{\frac{g(g+1)}{4}})$.

This should be seen as finding distinguished points on the graph, where the distinguished points in this case are vertices that are reducible. This is a generalisation of the algorithm by Delfs and Galbraith [18] which worked by finding supersingular elliptic curves defined over \mathbb{F}_p in the isogeny graph of supersingular elliptic curves.

Note that supersingular non-superspecial surfaces are actually isogenous to reducible surfaces as well, but these isogenies are inseparable, and it is not known how to compute them efficiently (see [34]) — thus the attack of Costello and Smith cannot be applied in the non-superspecial case.

3.3 MOVING TO THE SUPERSINGULAR NON-SUPERSPECIAL GRAPH

The attack on weak keys in Section 3.1 illustrates the choice that genus 2 cryptography practitioners have to make when using superspecial surfaces: A constant time implementation or the chance of protocol failures. Avoiding reducible surfaces by moving to the supersingular non-superspecial graph would remove that choice. Furthermore, this move would not degrade the security of the cryptosystems as we shall see in the following sections.

For the remainder of this section, we discuss the advantages of moving to the supersingular non-superspecial graph; in particular, moving to the supersingular non-superspecial graph removes reducible surfaces from consideration.

CONSTANT TIME ALGORITHMS WITH NO FAILURE CONDITIONS.

Indeed, the first two advantages are linked. Practitioners that employ genus 2 cryptosystems on the superspecial graph would have to choose between having a constant time implementation (by not preparing for reducible surfaces), or eliminating protocol failures (by preparing for reducible surfaces). Moving to the supersingular non-superspecial graph allows the user to have their cake and eat it too.

4 SUPERSINGULAR ISOGENY GRAPHS

In this section we will elaborate on the superspecial and supersingular non-superspecial isogeny graphs. We are interested in their number of vertices, their connectedness properties, their field of definition, and their overall structure.

It is reasonable to model that a timing attack will reveal which of n_0 and n_1 is larger, and the proof in the case $n_0 > n_1$ is analogous.

4.1 THE NUMBER OF SUPERSPECIAL CURVES

Recall the discussion about superspecial abelian surfaces in Section 2.1. It gives us a way of counting the number of isomorphism classes of principally polarised superspecial abelian surfaces via the following observation made by Ibukiyama, Katsura, and Oort [23].

Let *B* be the definite quaternion algebra over \mathbb{Q} with discriminant *D* and let *O* be a maximal order of *B*. Write $D = D_1D_2$ for two positive integers D_1, D_2 and set $L_n(D_1, D_2)$ the set of left *O*-lattices in B^n which are equivalent to $(O \otimes \mathbb{Z}_p)^n$ at *p* if *p* does not divide D_2 , and otherwise to the other local equivalence class if *p* divides D_2 . Denote by $H_n(D_1, D_2)$ the number of global equivalence classes in $L_n(D_1, D_2)$. In particular, for a prime number *p*, denote by $H_n(p, 1)$ the class number of the *principal genus* and by $H_n(1, p)$ the class number of the *non-principal genus*.

Let k be a algebraically closed field of characteristic p. As we saw, every principally polarised superspecial abelian surface A over k arises from choosing a principal polarisation on a product $E \times E$ for a supersingular elliptic curve E over k. Let $B_{p,\infty} = \operatorname{End}(E) \otimes \mathbb{Q}$ the endomorphism algebra of E, which is the definite quaternion algebra ramified at p. Then the number of principally polarisations on $E \times E$ up to automorphisms is equal to $H_2(p,1)$ for $B_{p,\infty}$.

On the other hand, as a principally polarised abelian variety, either $A = E_1 \times E_2$ for two supersingular elliptic curves E_1 and E_2 , or A = Jac(C) for a superspecial genus 2 curve C. Hence the number of isomorphism classes of superspecial genus 2 curves over k is given by $H_p = H_2(p, 1) - h_p(h_p + 1)/2$, where $h_p = H_1(p, 1)$ is the number of isomorphism classes of supersingular elliptic curves over k, see [23, Corollary 2.12]. The number H_p is finite and behaves like $\Theta(p^3)$; every superspecial genus 2 curve can be defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^2} , see [22, Theorem 1].

This settles the question about the number of superspecial curves, but what about the supersingular non-superspecial ones? We will look at that in the next section.

4.2 THE NUMBER OF SUPERSINGULAR NON-SUPERSPECIAL CURVES

Consider the 3-dimensional coarse moduli space $\mathcal{M}_2(k)$ of isomorphism classes of genus 2 curves over a finite field k or characteristic p. Recall Table 1, which describes the stratification of the coarse moduli space of abelian surfaces in characteristic p. It induces a similar stratification of $\mathcal{M}_2(k)$ via the correspondence of genus 2 curves and principally polarised abelian surfaces that are not products of elliptic curves.

In Section 4.1 we have seen that the number of superspecial abelian surfaces is finite, which matches the codimension 3 of the superspecial stratum in Table 1. On the other hand, the stratum containing the supersingular non-superspecial points is 1-dimensional and hence over $k = \overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ there exist infinitely many isomorphism classes of supersingular non-superspecial genus 2 curves.

Since we require three *absolute invariants* (see Cardona, Quer, Nart, and Pujolàs [9, 8]) to describe a point in $\mathcal{M}_2(k)$, for $k = \mathbb{F}_q$ the codimension-2 supersingular locus has $\Theta(q)$ elements, see also [44] for some exact results in small characteristic.

4.3 SUPERSINGULAR NON-SUPERSPECIAL ISOGENY GRAPHS

Recall now the discussion of Section 2.3, specifically Theorem 3. Fix one supersingular non-superspecial abelian surface A, say corresponding to a choice of the embedding parameter $t \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$. Then Theorem 3 tells us the number of principal polarisations \mathcal{L} on A. Let us consider data in the form of tuples (A, \mathcal{L}) for our chosen abelian surface A and varying principal polarisations \mathcal{L} on A. All these tuples (A, \mathcal{L}) can be seen as the Jacobian of some supersingular non-superspecial genus 2 curve $H_{(A, \mathcal{L})}$ (with the canonical principal polarisation corresponding to \mathcal{L}).

Fix some prime ℓ coprime to p. Then the vertices of the (ℓ,ℓ) -isogeny graph containing any (A,\mathcal{L}) ranges exactly over the abelian surfaces (A,\mathcal{L}) of possible principal polarisations \mathcal{L} on A. It is defined over the field of definition of t. We show this here for all $t \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ (i.e. including the superspecial case where $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$) using a similar argument as in [22].

Lemma 3. Let A be a supersingular abelian surface corresponding to an embedding parameter $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$. Let \mathcal{L} be a principal polarisation of A. Then \mathcal{L} is defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^r} , \mathcal{L} contains an effective divisor rational over \mathbb{F}_{p^r} , and (A, \mathcal{L}) is \mathbb{F}_{p^r} -rational.

Proof. We begin by stating a standard argument. Suppose we are given an abelian variety X defined over a field k, and a finite flat sub-group scheme G < X defined over k. Let n = e(G) be the exponent of G, such that $[n]: X \to X$ is an fppf-morphism killing G. Then, by fppf-descent along the X[n]-torsor X/G over X/X[n], the quotient X/G and the natural map $\varphi: X \to X/G$ are defined over k. Moreover, φ is an isogeny with kernel G.

We apply this to the "gluing kernel embedding" $\iota_t : \alpha_p \to E \times E$ of Section 2.3 which we used to define the isogeny $\psi : E \times E \to (E \times E)/\iota_t(\alpha_p) = A$. Denote by F the Frobenious endomorphism on E, and write t = a/b

for $a, b \in \mathbb{F}_{p^r}$. Then we have isomorphisms

$$\alpha_p \xrightarrow{a} E[F] \xrightarrow{b^{-1}} \alpha_p$$

defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^r} . By above argument, A is then defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^r} . The short exact sequence

$$0 \to \operatorname{Pic}^0(A) \to \operatorname{Pic}(A) \to \operatorname{NS}(A) \to 0$$

implies that the set of line bundles inducing a fixed principal polarisation on A is a $\operatorname{Pic}^0(A)$ -torsor. The \mathbb{F}_{p^r} -Frobenius endomorphism on A acts on this torsor, and hence by Lang's theorem, contains \mathbb{F}_{p^r} -rational points. If \mathcal{L} is a principal polarisation, there is a unique effective divisor in its linear system and hence it is also defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^r} . \square

The complete (ℓ, ℓ) -isogeny graph is furthermore connected in a certain sense: It decomposes into a collection of connected components. Individually, each such component consists of all the tuples (A, \mathcal{L}) for a fixed abelian surface A along with possible principal polarisations \mathcal{L} on A. We show this by using a similar strong approximation argument as in [33, Lemma 7.9] or [27, Theorem 42].

Lemma 4. Let A be a supersingular abelian surface corresponding to an embedding parameter $t \in \overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$. Let \mathcal{L} be a principal polarisation on A. Let ℓ be a prime coprime to p. Then the component of the (ℓ, ℓ) -isogeny graph containing (A, \mathcal{L}) is connected, i.e. every other vertex (A, \mathcal{L}') can be reached by a sequence of (ℓ, ℓ) -isogenies.

Proof. Fix a supersingular elliptic curve E such that $A \cong E \times E$. Consider two principally polarised supersingular abelian surfaces (A, \mathcal{L}) and (A, \mathcal{L}') . Let H and H', respectively, be the corresponding Hermitian matrices which exist by Theorem 1. Then, by strong approximation (recall that ℓ is coprime to p), there exists a matrix $M \in M_g(O_E)$ such that $M^{\dagger}HM = \ell^n H'$ for some large enough n. This corresponds to a chain of (ℓ, ℓ) -isogenies between the pair of surfaces (A, \mathcal{L}) and (A, \mathcal{L}') , see Lemma 2.

Hence, by Theorem 3, for a curve corresponding to $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^4} \setminus \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$ we get a component of the (ℓ, ℓ) -isogeny graph with $\Theta(p^6)$ vertices, and for $t \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^4}$ we get a component with $\Theta(p^8)$ vertices.

4.4 ISOGENY GRAPH STRUCTURE

In dimension one, for ordinary elliptic curves, we find volcanoes whose *crater* is a cyclic graph and whose length is related to $\#Cl(O_K)$, where O_K is the ring of integers of some imaginary quadratic number field K. In particular, let D be the discriminant of O_K and denote by t the trace of Frobenius of any of the elliptic curves E/\mathbb{F}_q in the volcano. Then the depth of the volcano is given by $\operatorname{ord}_{\ell}(v)$, where $4q = t^2 - v^2D$.

These ordinary elliptic curve volcanoes can be *oriented* via the following observation: Over a fixed finite field \mathbb{F}_q , the depth of a volcano is finite. At the *floor*, all cyclic subgroups correspond to ascending isogenies, whereas on the crater we either have horizontal or descending isogenies. By using correctly the subgroup structure, we can make sure that we either ascend or descend the volcano and so reach the crater or the floor. Using this information, it is possible to compute explicitly the endomorphism ring $\operatorname{End}(E)$ of each elliptic curve E in the volcano.

In dimension two, isogeny graphs of ordinary abelian surfaces assemble into a similar volcano structure. On the other extreme, superspecial abelian surfaces form connected graphs which, unlike the supersingular isogeny graphs of elliptic curves, are not *Ramanujan graphs* in general but still *expander graphs*. They are in fact Ramanujan graphs only for a few small ground field primes and isogeny degrees, see [27], and [1].

By restricting to the supersingular isogeny graph we do not end up with the same "orientability" concerns as in the case of ordinary elliptic curve volcanoes. The supersingular non-superspecial isogeny graph arranges into an infinite number of components, one for each supersingular non-superspecial abelian surface A corresponding to $t \notin \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$. Each of these components is made up of vertices corresponding to tuples (A, \mathcal{L}) for the finite set of possible principal polarisations \mathcal{L} on A, and defined over the field of definition of t. Interestingly, supersingular isogeny graphs can also be studied from a completely different angle, see [2] for a discussion of the underlying *Bruhat-Tits tree* structure in one dimension.

4.5 CONSTRUCTING SUPERSINGULAR NON-SUPERSPECIAL CURVES

We can use the following proposition to generate a starting curve H which is known to lie in the supersingular non-superspecial component of size $\Theta(p^6)$, for primes $p \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{5}$. Additionally, there are several methods to construct supersingular non-superspecial genus 2 curves using a complex multiplication method [42].

Proposition 1 ([23], Proposition 1.13). Let $H: y^2 = x^5 - 1$ be a hyperelliptic curve over \mathbb{F}_{p^r} , where $p \neq 5$, then H is 1. ordinary if $p \equiv 1 \pmod{5}$,

- 2. supersingular non-superspecial if $p \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{5}$,
- 3. superspecial if $p \equiv 4 \pmod{5}$.

We can also answer in which component of the supersingular non-superspecial isogeny graph the Jacobian of the specific curve *H* of Proposition 1 lies.

Lemma 5. Let $p \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{5}$, then the Jacobian of the curve $H: y^2 = x^5 - 1$ is a principally polarised supersingular non-superspecial abelian surfaces corresponding to an embedding parameter $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^4} \setminus \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$.

Proof. The geometric automorphism group of H is $\mathbb{Z}/10\mathbb{Z}$, and so the result follows from Proposition 1 and Theorem 3.

Hence, if we choose a prime $p \equiv 2, 3 \pmod{5}$, the curve $H: y^2 = x^5 - 1$ lies in a connected component of the supersingular non-superspecial isogeny graph which is defined over \mathbb{F}_{p^4} , with $\Theta(p^6)$ vertices.

4.6 EXAMPLES

We start with an example graph for the curve $H: y^2 = x^5 - 1$ over \mathbb{F}_{7^4} . The (2, 2)-isogeny graph in Figure 1 has 40 vertices, see also Theorem 3.

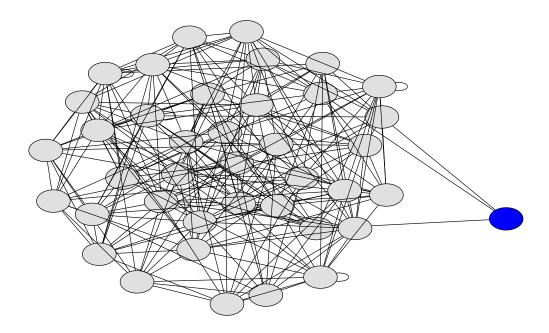


Figure 1: The curve $H: y^2 = x^5 - 1$ sitting in the (2, 2)-isogeny graph whose edges are given by (2, 2)-isogenies defined over \mathbb{F}_{7^4} . The vertex corresponding to the curve H is drawn in blue. Multiple edges are collapsed into one.

Let us also look at an example of a larger graph. One can check that the curve

$$H: y^2 = 10x^6 + 2x^5 + 3x^4 + 9x^3 + 5x^2 + 5x + 4$$

over \mathbb{F}_{11} with absolute invariants (0, 6, 8) is supersingular non-superspecial. The (2, 2)-isogeny graph containing H is given in Figure 2. It has 605 vertices and is defined over \mathbb{F}_{11^4} , hence we know that the Jacobian of H must correspond to an embedding parameter $t \in \mathbb{F}_{11^4} \setminus \mathbb{F}_{11^2}$.

5 HASH FUNCTIONS IN SUPERSINGULAR NON-SUPERSPECIAL COM-PONENTS

In this section we discuss parameter choices and security of genus 2 isogeny-based hashing in supersingular non-superspecial components, and compare against the corresponding superspecial protocol of Castryck, Decru, and Smith [11].

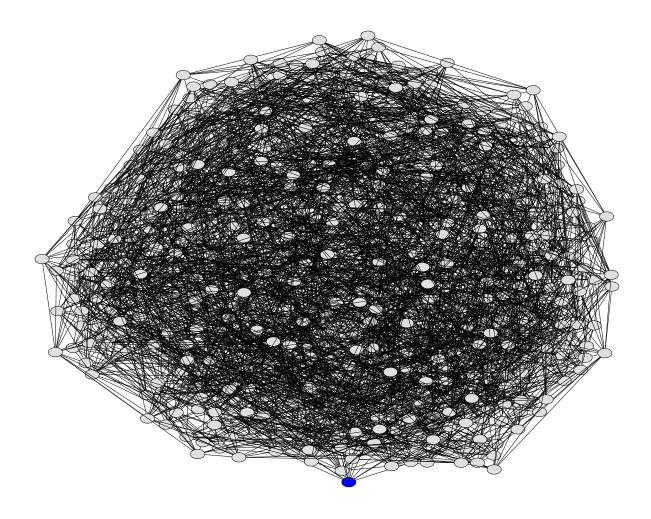


Figure 2: The curve H sitting in the (2, 2)-isogeny graph whose edges are given by (2, 2)-isogenies defined over \mathbb{F}_{11^4} . The vertex corresponding to the curve H is drawn in blue. Multiple edges are collapsed into one.

By Lemma 5 and the work of Section 4.3, for any primes $p \equiv \pm 2 \pmod{5}$ and $\ell \neq p$, the hyperelliptic curve $H: y^2 = x^5 - 1$ is in the supersingular non-superspecial component whose edges are (ℓ, ℓ) -isogenies defined over

The techniques of [11, Propositions 1 and 3] yield a hash function in a straightforward fashion: Given a message $m = m_{n-1}m_{n-2}\cdots m_0 \in \{0,1\}^{3n}$, we construct a "good" sequence of n (2, 2)-isogenies by processing $m_0, m_1, \ldots, m_{n-1}$ in sequence; in particular, associate to each binary string of length three one of the eight kernels given in [11, Proposition 3], and follow the kernel corresponding to m_0 , then m_1 , and so on until m_{n-1} . Together this path corresponds to an $(2^n, 2^n)$ -isogeny with codomain H'; we set the output of our hash function to be the absolute invariants of H'.

This hash function is preimage resistant and collision resistant, respectively, under the assumption that each of the follow computational problems is hard.

Problem 4. Given a prime p and two supersingular non-superspecial genus 2 curves $H/\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$, $H'/\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ whose embedding parameter t satisfies $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^4} \setminus \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$, find a $(2^n, 2^n)$ -isogeny $\phi \colon J_H \to J_{H'}$.

Problem 5. Given a prime p and a supersingular non-superspecial curve $H/\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ whose embedding parameter tsatisfies $t \in \mathbb{F}_{p^4} \setminus \mathbb{F}_{p^2}$, find: 1. $A(2^n, 2^n)$ -isogeny $\phi \colon H \to H'$

- 2. $A(2^{n'}, 2^{n'})$ -isogeny $\phi': H \to H''$

such that $\ker \phi \neq \ker \phi'$ and $J_{H'}$ is $\overline{\mathbb{F}}_p$ -isomorphic to $J_{H''}$.

These problems are precisely analogous to [11, Problems 1 and 2].

²These sequences are constructed to avoid the "trivial cycles" that arise from ℓ-diamonds (see [20]), which were present in the hash function of [41].

As there are $\Theta(p^6)$ vertices in this supersingular non-superspecial component, generic classical algorithms yield preimages or collisions in time $\tilde{O}(p^3)$. Much the same is true in the quantum setting; though some generic algorithms boast complexity $\tilde{O}(p^2)$ for Problems 4 and 5, Jaques and Schanck [26] suggest that these algorithms do not outperform the classical square-root algorithms in practice due to overhead introduced by the required data structures. Thus to achieve λ bits of (classical or quantum) security, we should take $\log_2 p \approx \frac{\lambda}{3}$. This is half the bit length of the required characteristic in the superspecial graph [11, §8], and one-third the bit length of the required in the supersingular graph in genus 1 [13]. The output of the hash function is a triple of elements of \mathbb{F}_{p^4} , so this has total bit length 2λ — the same as [13] and [11].

6 CONCLUSION AND OPEN QUESTIONS

We have shown that it is sensible to work in supersingular non-superspecial isogeny graphs. Doing so circumvents several problems we find in the superspecial graph which stem from the fact that there we encounter two types of vertices: Jacobians of genus 2 curves and reducible surfaces in the form of products of elliptic curves. On the other hand, in supersingular non-superspecial graphs we find only Jacobians as vertices and do not need to make explicit distinctions for different vertex types. Finally, we leave the reader with several open research problems in the area:

- 1. Determine exactly the expansion coefficients of the various supersingular genus 2 graphs (superspecial and supersingular non-superspecial components), as mentioned in Section 4.4. One possible approach would be to study Hecke operators acting on automorphic forms of Hermitian quaternionic lattices corresponding to the principal polarisations of supersingular non-superspecial abelian surfaces, c.f. [35, 1].
- 2. Determine efficient parameters and good starting curves for cryptographic schemes based on supersingular non-superspecial isogeny graphs.
- 3. Work out efficient algorithms for computing (ℓ, ℓ) -isogenies for $\ell > 3$.

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