

Towards practical and fast Quantum Cryptography

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We present a new protocol for practical quantum cryptography, tailored for an implementation with weak coherent pulses. The key is obtained by a very simple time-of-arrival measurement on the *data line*; an interferometer is built on an additional *monitoring line*, allowing to monitor the presence of a spy (who would break coherence by her intervention). Against zero-error attacks (the analog of photon-number-splitting attacks), this protocol performs as well as standard protocols with strong reference pulses: the key rate decreases only as the transmission t of the quantum channel. We present also two attacks that introduce errors on the monitoring line: the intercept-resend, and a coherent attack on two subsequent pulses. Finally, we sketch several possible variations of this protocol.

I. INTRODUCTION

Quantum cryptography [1], or quantum key distribution (QKD), is probably the most mature field in quantum information, both in theoretical and in experimental advances. On the theoretical side, almost all QKD protocols have been proven to provide unconditional security in some regime; on the practical side, QKD has already reached the stage of commercial prototypes. Still, much work is needed. A big task consists in bringing both theory and applications in contact again: practical QKD systems do not fulfill all the requirements of unconditional security proofs (or, if you prefer, these proofs are still too abstract to cope with a practical system). Here, we address a different question: we aim for the *most practical* QKD system. Instead of looking for a new implementations of known protocols, we choose to start from scratch by inventing a new protocol. There are two basic requirements:

- The protocol must be easily implementable, say with the smallest number of standard telecom devices. Note that this requirement, as a side benefit, may simplify security studies: we have learnt in the recent years that any optical component can be regarded as a "Trojan horse" because of its imperfections [2].
- The security of the system must be guaranteed by quantum physics, thence in some way quantum coherence must play a role.

The goal of this paper is to illustrate this program by presenting such a system. the key is created in a *data line* that is probably the simplest one can think of — just measure the time of arrival of weak pulses. The intervention of a spy is checked interferometrically in a *monitoring line*. In Section II, we define precisely the protocol and stress its advantages. In Section III, we present a quantitative study of security. Finally, Section

IV presents a number of possible variations on the main idea.

II. THE PROTOCOL

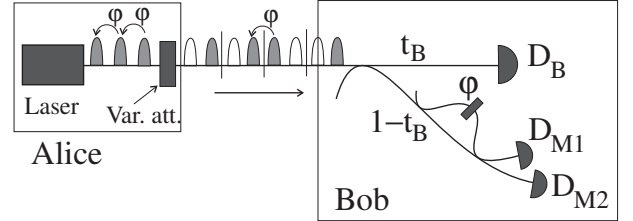


FIG. 1. Scheme of the protocol. Bob reads the raw key in detector D_B , the monitoring line checks for the breaking of quantum coherence due to an eavesdropper. See text for details

A. The source

Alice uses a mode-locked laser, producing pulses of mean photon-number μ that are separated by a fixed and well-defined time τ ; with a variable attenuator, she can block some of the pulses (note that a more economical source would just consist of a cw laser followed by the variable attenuator). Each logical bit is encoded in a two-pulse sequence according to the following rules:

$$|0_A\rangle = |\sqrt{\mu} e^{i(2k-1)\varphi}\rangle_{2k-1} |0\rangle_{2k}, \quad (1)$$

$$|1_A\rangle = |0\rangle_{2k-1} |\sqrt{\mu} e^{i(2k)\varphi}\rangle_{2k}. \quad (2)$$

For instance, the eight-pulse sequence drawn in Fig. 1 codes for the four-bit string 0100 (read in temporal order, that is, from right to left). For small μ , the states $|0_A\rangle$ and $|1_A\rangle$ have a large overlap because of their vacuum component. Since the laser is mode-locked, there is a phase coherence between any two non-empty pulses.

Leaving a more general discussion for Section IV, we focus on the case where bit number k is 1 and bit number $k + 1$ is 0, like bits number 2 and 3 of 1. Then *across the bit-separation* there is a phase coherence:

$$|\sqrt{\mu} e^{i(2k)\varphi}\rangle_{2k} |\sqrt{\mu} e^{i(2k+1)\varphi}\rangle_{2k+1}. \quad (3)$$

Note that the choice of the value of φ is arbitrary, so from now on we set $\varphi = 0$.

B. The "data line"

The pulses now propagate to Bob, on a quantum channel characterized by a transmission $t = 10^{-\alpha d/10}$ (a typical value for α in optical fibers is 0.2 dB/km). Bob's setup first splits the pulses using a non-equilibrated beam-splitter with transmission coefficient t_B . The pulses that are transmitted are used to establish the raw key (*data line*). To obtain the bit value, Bob has to distinguish unambiguously between the two non-orthogonal states

$$|0_B\rangle = |\alpha\rangle_{2k-1} |0\rangle_{2k}, \quad (4)$$

$$|1_B\rangle = |0\rangle_{2k-1} |\alpha\rangle_{2k} \quad (5)$$

with $\alpha = \sqrt{\mu t t_B}$ — we have omitted the phase due to the free propagation, which is the same for all pulses. As well-known, unambiguous discrimination between two pure states can succeed with probability $p_{ok} = 1 - |\langle 0_B | 1_B \rangle|$; in the present case, the overlap is $|\langle 0_B | 1_B \rangle| = e^{-|\alpha|^2}$, and consequently $p_{ok} = 1 - e^{-\mu t t_B}$. Now, there is an obvious way to achieve this result: photon counting with a perfect detector, because p_{ok} is just the probability that the detector will detect something. The realistic situation where the detector has a finite efficiency η can be modelled by an additional beam-splitter with transmittivity η followed by a perfect detector; in this case, η appears in the exponent as well. In conclusion, the optimal unambiguous discrimination between $|0_B\rangle$ and $|1_B\rangle$ is achieved by the most elementary strategy, simply try to detect where the photons are. Later, Bob must announce Alice which items he has detected: this is how Alice and Bob establish their raw key. Note that no error is expected on this line, if the switch is perfect and in the absence of dark counts of the detector: a bit-flip is impossible because it would correspond to a photon jumping from a time-bin to another.

Note that the simplicity of Bob's data line has concrete practical advantages. There are no lossy and active elements. Hence, the transmission range can be increased and no random number generator is needed.

As for the data line, our protocol is similar to the one of Debuisschert and Boucher [3]. However there, the security was obtained by the overlap in time between the pulses coding for different bits. Here, we use rather the monitoring line described in the next paragraph.

C. The "monitoring line"

The pulses that are reflected at Bob's beam-splitter go to an interferometer that is used for monitoring Eve's presence (*monitoring line*). Here is where quantum coherence plays a role. Let α_j be the amplitude of pulse j entering the interferometer: in particular, $|\alpha_j|^2$ is either 0 or $\mu t (1 - t_B)$; and if both α_j and α_{j+1} are non-zero, then $\alpha_{j+1} = \alpha_j$. After the interferometer, the pulses that reach the detectors at time $j + 1$ is given by

$$|D_{M1}\rangle = \left| i \frac{\alpha_j + \alpha_{j+1}}{2} \right\rangle \quad (6)$$

$$|D_{M2}\rangle = \left| \frac{-\alpha_j + \alpha_{j+1}}{2} \right\rangle. \quad (7)$$

Now, if either α_j or α_{j+1} are zero, then $|D_{M1}|^2 = |D_{M2}|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \mu t (1 - t_B)$; i.e., conditioned to the fact that a photon takes the monitoring line, the probabilities of detecting it in either detector is $\frac{1}{2}$. However, if both α_j and α_{j+1} are non-zero, then $|D_{M1}|^2 = \mu t (1 - t_B)$ and $|D_{M2}|^2 = 0$: only detector D_{M1} can fire. Consider then again the case where bit number k is 1 and bit number $k + 1$ is 0: as we said above, in this case the two consecutive pulses $2k$ and $2k + 1$ are non-empty. This means that, *if coherence is not broken*, detector D_{M2} cannot fire at time $2k + 1$. If Eve happens to break the coherence by reading the channel, it could be detected this way.

Actually, it turns out that, as just described, the protocol is insecure: Eve can make a *coherent* measurement of the number of photons in the two pulses across the bit-separation. With such an attack, she would not break the coherence, thus introduce no errors in the monitoring line, and obtain almost full information (see next Section for more details). There are several ways of countering this attack: here, we make use of *decoy sequences*, inspired by the idea of "decoy states" introduced by Hwang [4] and by Lo and co-workers [5], but different in its implementation. The principle is the following: with probability f , Alice leaves both the $(2k - 1)$ -th and the $2k$ -th pulses non-empty. A decoy sequence does not encode a bit value (in contrast to the decoy states of [4,5] that still encode a state, but in a different way): thence, if the item is detected in the data line, it will be discarded in public discussion. However, if a detection takes place in the monitoring line at time $2k$, then it must be in detector D_{1M} because of coherence. Now Eve can no longer pass unnoticed: if she attacks coherently across the bit separation, then she breaks the coherence of the decoy sequences; if she attacks coherently within each bit, then she breaks the coherence across the separation; finally, if she makes a coherent attack on a larger number of pulses, then she breaks the coherence in fewer positions but gets much less information.

Thus, errors are rare: they appear only in the monitoring line, and just for a fraction of the whole cases. Still, one can estimate the error (thence, the coherence of the channel) in a reasonable time, if the bit rate is high.

D. Summary of the protocol

Let's summarize the protocol before moving to a more quantitative study of security:

1. Alice prepares "bit 0" with probability $\frac{1-f}{2}$, "bit 1" with probability $\frac{1-f}{2}$ and the decoy sequence with probability f . This is repeated a large number of times.
2. At the end of the exchange, Alice reveals the items $\{k_d\}$ corresponding to a decoy sequence. Bob removes all the detections at times $2k_d - 1$ and $2k_d$ from his raw key, and he looks whether detector D_{2M} has ever fired at times $2k_d$. This way, Alice and Bob estimate the break of coherence of decoy pulses.
3. On the remaining fraction of sent bits $1 - f$, Bob reveals the times $2k + 1$ in which he had a detection in D_{2M} . Alice verifies if some of these items correspond to a bit sequence "1,0"; thus, Alice and Bob estimate the break of coherence across the bit-separation.
4. Finally, Bob reveals the items that he has detected in the data line. Alice and Bob run error correction and privacy amplification on these bits and end up with a secret key.

Should one say in one sentence where the improvement lies, here it is: *one can define a very simple data line and protect it quantum-mechanically.*

At this point, two important remarks can be done. First, this protocol cannot be analyzed in terms of qubits. This is obvious, because any bits and coherence are checked on differently defined pairs. In particular, there is not a "natural" single-photon version of the protocol (simply replace non-empty coherent state with one-photon Fock states would be dramatic, since all the sequences would become orthogonal). The second remark is the answer to a possible question. With the idea of a simple data line for key creation, and a "complementary" line for monitoring, one may implement a version of the BB84 protocol: Alice and Bob agree to produce the key using only the Z basis; sometimes Alice prepares one of the eigenstates of the X basis that acts as a decoy state. Which are the advantages of our protocol? We are going to see that our protocol is much more robust against attacks at zero errors (the analog of photon-number-splitting attacks).

III. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF SECURITY

For a reasonable comparison with experiment, we must introduce the following parameters

- The visibility V of the monitoring interferometer, whence the probability that D_{2M} fires in a time corresponding to a coherence is $\frac{1-V}{2}$ instead of zero. We suppose that Eve can take advantage of these imperfections: for instance, if the reduced visibility is due to $\varphi \neq 0$ in the interferometer, Eve can systematically correct for this error by displacing the pulses, and then reproduce V by adding errors in a way that is profitable for her.
- The imperfections of the three Bob's detectors, supposed to be identical for simplicity: the quantum efficiency η and the probability per gate of a dark count p_d . Typical values are $\eta = 10\%$, $p_d = 10^{-5}$. These imperfections are not given to Eve (see Section IV on the possibility that Eve forces a detection, thus effectively setting $\eta = 1$ for some pulses).

For simplicity in writing, we make all the quantitative analysis in the limit of small mean photon-number in Bob's channel, that is $\mu t \ll 1$.

A. Parameters Alice-Bob on the data line

First, we compute the parameters of Alice-Bob on the data line. Bob's detection rate in D_B , once decoy sequences are removed, is

$$R_B = [\mu T + (1 - \mu T)p_d](1 - f) \quad (8)$$

where $T = t t_B \eta$. In other words, R_B times the number of two-pulse sequences sent by Alice is the length of the raw key.

If we assume that the switch prepares really empty pulses when it is closed, the error expected in this line is only due to the dark counts of the detectors:

$$Q = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1 - \mu T)p_d(1 - f)}{R_B} \quad (9)$$

because dark counts may make the detector fire at both times with equal probability. The mutual information Alice-Bob in bits per sent photon is thence

$$I(A : B) = R_B [1 - H(Q)]. \quad (10)$$

In what follows, we shall concentrate on attacks by Eve that do not modify Q . Before moving to that, let's have a look at the monitoring line as well.

B. About the monitoring line

In the presence of dark counts and reduced visibility, the meaningful detection probabilities in D_{M1} and D_{M2} , neglecting double counts are the following [6]:

$$\text{Time } 2k, \text{ decoy seq. : } R_{1,2}^d = R_{M1,2}^d f \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Time } 2k+1, \text{ seq. "1,0" : } R_{1,2}^{10} = R_{M1,2}^{10} \frac{1-f}{4} \quad (12)$$

where, denoting $\tilde{T} = t(1-t_B)\eta$, we have defined

$$R_{M1,2}^x = \mu\tilde{T} \frac{1 \pm V_x}{2} + \left(1 - \mu\tilde{T} \frac{1 \pm V_x}{2}\right) p_d. \quad (13)$$

Contrary to the errors due to dark counts, the departure from perfect visibility will be entirely attributed to Eve. This is why we consider *a priori* different values V_d and V_{10} for the visibility in the two cases: as we shall see, Eve's attacks may be different.

C. Eve's attacks

If Bob's detector has dark counts, $I(B : E)$ is smaller than $I(A : E)$ for a prepare-and-measure scheme, because even if Eve knows perfectly what Alice has sent, she cannot know whether Bob has detected a photon or has had a dark count. Thus in our case, the Csiszar-Körner bound [7] that gives an estimate of the extractable secret key rate becomes

$$\begin{aligned} R &\geq I(A : B) - \min \{I(A : E), I(B : E)\} \\ &= I(A : B) - I(B : E). \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

Therefore, we have to compute the mutual information Bob-Eve.

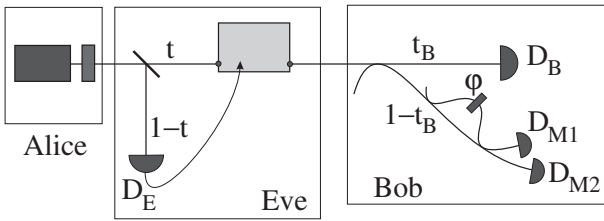


FIG. 2. Scheme with Eve.

The kind of attacks by Eve that we consider is sketched in Fig. 2. We can give Eve all the losses in the line, that is, we can suppose that Eve removes a fraction $1-t$ of the photons, and forwards the remaining fraction t to Bob on a lossless line. We are going to study:

- An attack in which Eve can gain information without introducing errors. This is related to the losses on the line; it is the analog of the usual photon-number-splitting attack [8,9], but is a different attack and less powerful.

- Eve can immediately know if the previous attack was successful or not; in the case it wasn't, we consider further the possibility of attacks that introduce errors in the monitoring line (but still no errors in the data line). Specifically, we study a usual intercept-resend strategy, and a more clever attack which is performed coherently on two subsequent pulses across the bit-separation.

1. Eve's attack without errors

In the case of BB84 and many other protocols, Eve can exploit multi-photon pulses in a lossy line to perform the *photon-number-splitting attack* [8,9]: she counts the photons in each pulse, and whenever this number is larger than one, she keeps one photon in a quantum memory and forwards the remaining photons to Bob on a lossless line. As such, this attack is not error-free in the present protocol: **counting the photons in each pulse breaks the coherence between successive pulses, thus introducing errors in the monitoring line** — actually, because of the peculiar encoding of the bits, this attack reduces here to the intercept-resend, see below.

More subtle is the analysis of a practical version of the attack using *cascaded beam-splitters* [10]: Eve uses a highly unbalanced BS, with transmission $1-\varepsilon$ and reflection ε ; if she has a detection, she forwards the remaining photons to Bob; otherwise, she begins anew, and so on until the losses that she introduces reach the transmission t of the quantum channel. The advantage of this strategy is that, in the presence of two or more photons, it is very rare that more than one photon is coupled into Eve's detector. Indeed, this beam-splitting attack approximates a photon-counting. In our case, this strategy will introduce errors in the monitoring line as well: it does not modify the relative phase, but the relative intensity between subsequent pulses, thus leading to an unbalancing of the interferometer. The full analysis of such a strategy will be studied in a further work.

In summary, both the ideal photon-number-splitting and its approximate implementation through cascaded beam-splitters do not rank among the zero-error attacks against our protocol. In fact, Eve can only perform the basic *beam-splitting attack*: she removes a fraction $1-t$ of the photons, and transmits the remaining fraction t to Bob on a lossless line. With the fraction that she has kept, the best thing Eve can do is just to measure them (recall the argument about optimal unambiguous state discrimination). This way, she detects $\mu(1-t)$ photons per pulse. When Eve has a detection in D_E , she knows the bit that Alice has sent. Then she lets the remaining part of the pulse travel to Bob on the lossless line

(the grey box of Fig. 2 is simply a line). Bob detects something exactly as if Eve had not been there. So

$$I(B : E|D_E) = I(A : B). \quad (15)$$

In summary, Eve knows a fraction $\mu(1-t)$ of the key just because of the losses in the quantum channel: this fraction must always be subtracted in privacy amplification.

It is instructive to compute the optimal value of μ under the assumption that Eve introduces no errors, and neglecting dark counts ($Q = 0$). In BB84, this value is $\mu_{BB84} = t$, giving $R_{BB84} = \frac{1}{4}\eta t^2$ [11]. Here, Alice and Bob must maximize R given in (14); using (10) and (15), this reads

$$R = \mu t t_B \eta (1-f) (1 - \mu(1-t)). \quad (16)$$

The optimization $dR/d\mu = 0$ is readily done and yields

$$\mu_{opt} = \frac{1}{2(1-t)} \quad (17)$$

whence

$$R_{opt} = \frac{1}{4(1-t)} t t_B \eta (1-f). \quad (18)$$

This is an important improvement over BB84: μ_{opt} is large and is basically constant with decreasing t (long quantum channels); as a consequence, the secret-key rate decreases only *linearly* (and not quadratically) with t . This is the same improvement that can be obtained by using decoy states [5] or a strong reference pulse [12]; note however that the hardware is much simpler here.

When Eve's detector D_E does not fire, which happens with probability $1 - \mu(1-t)$, Eve must perform some attack on the pulses flying to Bob if she wants to gain some information. These attacks will certainly introduce errors, either in the data line or in the monitoring line. In the following, we present two such attacks (Fig. 3): a basic intercept-resend (I-R), and a photon-number-counting attack performed coherently on two subsequent pulses across the bit-separation (2c-PNC).

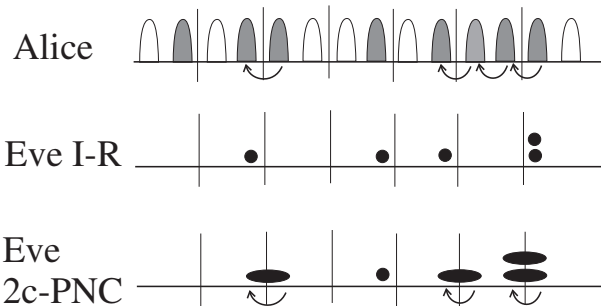


FIG. 3. Comparison of two attacks that introduce errors. In the I-R attack, Eve prepares a sequence of localized Fock states, thus breaking the coherence everywhere. In the 2c-PNC attack, Eve prepares a sequence of Fock states that are delocalized across the separation of bits: only the coherence of decoy sequences is broken. Note that arrows denote only coherence between subsequent pulses, the one checked by the interferometer; however, on the original sequence, all the non-empty pulses are coherent with one another, while in the sequences after Eve's attack only the indicated coherence remains.

2. Eve's attack with errors (I): *intercept-resend*

Let's begin with the *intercept-resend* (I-R) strategy. Eve *simply detects the pulse* flying to Bob: *her detector will fire* with probability μt , *and in this case she prepares a single-photon in the good time-bin and forwards it to Bob*. Obviously, *both R_B and Q are unchanged* under this strategy.

Note that R_B will be the sum of three terms: *Eve has detected and Bob detects too*; *Eve has detected and Bob has a dark count*; *Eve has not detected and Bob has a dark count*. Now, Eve can distinguish the last one from the two first, and she knows that in the last case she has no information on Alice's and Bob's bits. So

$$I(B : E|IR) = [R_B - (1 - \mu t)p_d(1 - f)][1 - H(Q')] \quad (19)$$

where

$$Q' = \frac{\frac{1}{2}(1 - t_B\eta)p_d}{t_B\eta + (1 - t_B\eta)p_d} \quad (20)$$

is the fraction of Bob's detection on which she has the wrong result.

Of course, the *I-R attack breaks all the coherences* (see Fig. 3), and will therefore introduce errors in the monitoring line. Specifically, whenever Eve has performed the I-R attack,

$$V_{d|IR} = V_{10|IR} = 0. \quad (21)$$

3. Eve's attack with errors (II): *2-coherent PNC*

In the absence of decoy sequences, Eve may obtain information without introducing errors in the monitoring line, by counting the number of photons coherently between two pulses, not within each bit but across the separation line (see Fig. 3). This attack does not break the phase between these pulses. Of course, if Eve finds $n > 0$ photons, on the spot she does not know to which bit the photon belongs; but she will learn it later, by listening to Bob's list of accepted bits [13]. Actually, in some very rare case Eve still does not get any information: if Eve

prepares $n > 0$ photons in two successive two-pulse sequences, and Bob accepts a detection in the bit common to both sequences, Eve has no idea of his result. However, since such cases are rare, we make the conservative assumption that Eve always gets full information. Thus

$$I(B : E|2cPNC) = I(B : E|IR). \quad (22)$$

Eve has introduced errors in the monitoring line *only* in the items corresponding to decoy sequences:

$$V_{d|2c} = 0, \quad V_{10|2c} = 1. \quad (23)$$

4. Collecting everything

We can now collect all that we know from this analysis of security. The parameters describing Alice and Bob are those listed in paragraph III A above. Let p_{IR} and p_{2c} be the probabilities that Eve performs the I-R attack, resp. the 2c-PNC attack. Recall that she performs these attacks only when her detector D_E did not fire, so $p_{IR} + p_{2c} \leq 1 - \mu(1 - t)$. Then:

$$I(B : E) = \mu(1 - t) R_B [1 - H(Q)] + (p_{IR} + p_{2c}) R'_B [1 - H(Q')] \quad (24)$$

with the notation $R'_B = R_B - (1 - \mu t)p_d(1 - f)$ and with Q' given in (20). This is the expression that must be inserted into (14) to obtain the extractable secret key rate (in other terms, this is the quantity to be corrected by privacy amplification).

On the monitoring line, Alice and Bob measure (11) and (12), whence they extract V_d and V_{10} that inform them about Eve's attacks according to

$$V_d = 1 - p_{IR} - p_{2c}, \quad (25)$$

$$V_{10} = 1 - p_{IR}. \quad (26)$$

Note in particular that, if Alice and Bob find $V_d = V_{10}$, they can conclude that Eve has not used the 2c-PNC attack — by the way, this is why we presented the analysis of the I-R strategy, obviously worse than 2c-PNC from Eve's standpoint: in a practical experiment, $V_d = V_{10}$ is very likely to hold (after all, Eve is not there...). Therefore, formulae for the I-R attack will be useful in the analysis of experimental data.

IV. VARIATIONS AND OPEN QUESTIONS

A. Variations

Here are a few ideas of variations in the protocol, that may have some additional benefit and require further study:

- Alice may change during the protocol the definition of the pulses that define a bit. If there is a convenient fraction of decoy sequences, Eve has no way of distinguishing a priori which pairs of successive pulses encode a bit. This way, the effect of the 2c-PNC attack becomes equally distributed among decoy and "1,0" sequences, i.e. $V_d = V_{10} = 1 - p_{IR} - \frac{1}{2}p_{2c}$. Moreover, whenever Eve attacks the bit instead of attacking across the bit-separation, she cannot gain any information.
- In fact, nothing forces to define bits by subsequent pulses: Alice and Bob can decide later, adding a sort of "sifting" phase to the protocol. This means that Alice can now send whatever pulse sequence, she is no longer restricted to those that define a bit or a decoy sequence. It is not clear whether this modification helps, if the hardware is kept unchanged: Alice and Bob still check only the coherence between subsequent pulses; moreover, sifting means additional losses and additional information revealed publicly.
- Instead of introducing decoy sequences as we did above, one may study the effect of decoy pulses with different intensities, as proposed by Hwang and by Lo and co-workers to protect the BB84 protocol against the photon-number-splitting attack [4,5].

B. Possible loopholes

The difficulty in assessing the security of practical QKD, is the huge number of imperfections that may hide loopholes for security. These imperfections exist in all implementations and for all protocols, but their effect and the corresponding protection may vary. Here we present some of these.

- About Trojan-horse and similar realistic attacks [2]: Alice's setup must be protected against Trojan-horse attacks, with the suitable filters, isolators etc. In Bob's setup nothing is variable; however, one must prevent the possible light emission from avalanche photodiodes to become available to Eve: if the firing of a detector can be seen from outside Bob, the protocol becomes immediately insecure.
- After a detection, Bob's detectors are blind during some time. In particular, if Eve happens to know when Bob's detector D_{M2} has fired, she can attack strongly the subsequent pulses because no error will be detected then, and gain one bit (just one, because when D_B has fired, then it has a dead time as well). For the security of the protocol, Eve must have no way of assessing the firing of a detector,

and Bob must announce publicly this information only after the detector is ready again. This may imply some suitable synchronization in the software, or more simply, to shut D_B as long as D_{M2} has not recovered. The nuisance depends of course on the ratio between the raw bit rate and the dead time.

- In all this paper, we have considered only the case where Eve does not change Bob's detection rates in the data line and in the monitoring line. By sending out stronger pulses, Eve might force the detection of those items on which she has full information; but in turn, she would increase the rate of double counts among Bob's detectors. This effect must be quantified, and the number of double, or even triple, counts must be monitored during the experiment.

V. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we have presented a new protocol for quantum cryptography whose realization is much simpler than that of previously described ones. Specifically, Bob's station is such that losses are minimized and no dynamical component is needed.

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