

# Quantum Criptograhya

With a look at Quantum Key Distribution

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# The Qubit

The *bit* is the fundamental concept of classical computation - it can be either 0 or 1.

In a quantum world, where *superposition of states* is a thing, we use an analogous concept - the *quantum bit*, or **qubit**.

A qubit can be in any *linear combination* of two base states.

# The Qubit

A classical bit is like a coin - either *head* or *tail*.

A qubit can be both *head* or *tail* at the same time - until observed.

Observing a qubit makes it *decay* in one of the base states. Hence, measurement *changes* the real world.

# Making a Quantum Computer

Making a qubit is hard - for example, nuclear spin can be maintained for long, but it's hard to measure.

A good quantum computer has to be *well isolated*, but its qubits have to be *accessible* in order to be manipulated.

# A Mathematical Representation

## Qubit

Given two states  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  a qubit is defined as

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha |0\rangle + \beta |1\rangle \quad \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$$

For our purposes, it's safe to assume  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Some Linear Algebra

A qubit can be thought as a *vector* in a 2-dimensional vector space. The states  $|0\rangle$  and  $|1\rangle$  are the basis of this space.

One example could be

$$|0\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad |1\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \implies |\psi\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix}$$

Some operations

- *Dot product*:  $\langle\psi|\varphi\rangle$
- *Tensor product*:  $|\psi\rangle \otimes |\varphi\rangle = |\psi\rangle |\varphi\rangle$

Note that  $\langle\psi| = |\psi\rangle^T$ .

# Measuring

When measuring a qubit, we can get:

- A 0 with probability  $|\alpha|^2$
- A 1 with probability  $|\beta|^2$

Since they are probabilities, it has to be

$$|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1$$

Or, in other words, the qubit's state must be *normalized*.



# Definition

## Mathematical Representation of a Qubit

A qubit is a *unit vector* in a *two-dimensional complex vector field*.

For example

$$|\psi\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |1\rangle$$

is a qubit that, when measured, gives either 0 or 1 fifty-percent of the time.

# Multiple qubits

We can combine multiple qubits. For example, a 2-qubit system has four *computational basis*

$$|\psi\rangle = \alpha_{00} |00\rangle + \alpha_{01} |01\rangle + \alpha_{10} |10\rangle + \alpha_{11} |11\rangle$$

In this system, a qubit can be in a superposition on 4 states.

In general, if we have  $n$  qubits, then the system can be in a superposition of  $2^n$  states.

# Gates

How do we modify qubits? With *quantum gates*.

## Quantum Gate

A quantum gate is a *complex matrix* which must be unitary.

For example, the **NOT** gate is defined as

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \implies X \begin{bmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta \\ \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

It's called a **NOT** gate because it inverts the probabilities of measuring 0 and 1.

# More gates

Other important gates are:

- The **Z** gate, which flips the sign of the  $|1\rangle$  state

$$Z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The **H** gate, or *Hadamard* gate, used to bring the qubit in a superposition

$$H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Can we copy a qubit?

If we measure a qubit we destroy its superposition - but can we copy the qubit itself?

The answer is **no**. It is impossible to make a copy of an unknown quantum state.

# Proof/1

It's a proof by absurd.

Suppose it exists a copying machine that copies a qubit  $|\psi\rangle$  into another qubit  $|s\rangle$ . The initial state of this machine is

$$|\psi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle$$

So there is a unitary evolution  $U$  that actually does the copying procedure, ideally

$$|\psi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle \xrightarrow{U} |\psi\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle$$

Now, given two particular states  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\varphi\rangle$ , we have

$$U(|\psi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle) = |\psi\rangle \otimes |\psi\rangle$$

$$U(|\varphi\rangle \otimes |s\rangle) = |\varphi\rangle \otimes |\varphi\rangle$$

# Proof/2

Taking the inner product of these two equations gives us

$$\langle\psi|\varphi\rangle = (\langle\psi|\varphi\rangle)^2$$

But  $x = x^2$  has only two solutions - 0 and 1, which means

$$\langle\psi|\varphi\rangle = 0 \vee \langle\psi|\varphi\rangle = 1$$

So  $|\psi\rangle = |\varphi\rangle$  or  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\varphi\rangle$  are orthogonal.

Hence we can only clone orthogonal states, making general quantum cloning impossible.

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# Why do we care about this?

Because quantum computers could be capable of a lot of things.

Namely, efficiently perform some tasks that *are not feasible on a classical computer*.

In particular, **public key cryptography** is based on the infeasibility of some problems, such as prime factorization or discrete logarithm.

# Fast prime factorization

For example, finding the prime factorization of an  $n$ -bit integer requires

$$\exp \Theta \left( n^{\frac{1}{3}} \log^{\frac{2}{3}} n \right)$$

operations using the *number field sieve*.

A quantum algorithm can accomplish the same task using

$$O \left( n^2 \log n \log \log n \right)$$

operations - so it's *exponentially faster*.

The demonstration is quite lengthy, but can be found in [NC10] or in [DW99].

# Private Key Cryptography

In a private key cryptosystem, if Alice and Bob wish to exchange information they both must have a *matching key*, used to encrypt and decrypt the message.

As long as the keys are truly secret, this method is provably secure.

The problem is the *secure distribution* of the keys.

# Quantum Key Distribution (QKD)

It's a *provably secure* protocol by which *private keys* can be created between two parties over a *public channel*, exchanging qubits.

An external observer (Eve) cannot gain any information from the qubits transmitted without disturbing the state, because

- 1 Qubits cannot be copied (no-cloning theorem)
- 2 Measurement changes the data itself

# Some algorithms

There are some algorithms for Quantum Key Distribution, such as:

- ① BB84 protocol
- ② B98 protocol
- ③ EPR protocol
- ④ Modified Lo-Chau protocol

# The BB84 Protocol/1

Suppose Alice and Bob want to distill a shared secret key

Alice has two strings  $a$  and  $b$  of  $(4 + \delta)n$  bits. She encodes them as a block of  $(4 + \delta)n$  qubits

$$|\psi\rangle = \bigotimes_{k=1}^{(4+\delta)n} |\psi_{a_k b_k}\rangle$$

where  $a_k$  is the  $k^{\text{th}}$  bit of  $a$  (similarly for  $b$ ).

# The BB84 Protocol/2

So every qubit is one of these four states

$$|\psi_{00}\rangle = |0\rangle$$

$$|\psi_{10}\rangle = |1\rangle$$

$$|\psi_{01}\rangle = |+\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|\psi_{11}\rangle = |-\rangle = \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}}$$

We can think of these as qubits encoded in one of two basis -  $X$  or  $Z$  - based on the value of the bit  $b_k$ :

- $b_k = 0 \implies 0 \rightarrow |0\rangle, 1 \rightarrow |1\rangle$
- $b_k = 1 \implies 0 \rightarrow |+\rangle, 1 \rightarrow |-\rangle$

# The BB84 Protocol/3

If Eve is eavesdropping, then Bob receives a “disturbed” version of the qubits.

When Bob receives the qubits, he announces it and then measures each qubit in basis  $X$  or  $Z$ , based on a  $(4 + \delta)n$  bits string  $b'$ , created randomly. Let's call the measurement result  $a'$ .



# The BB84 Protocol/4

Alice publicly transmits  $b$ , and Alice and Bob discard any bits where Bob measured a different basis than Alice prepared.

With high probability, there are at least  $2n$  bit left (if not, abort). Let's keep only the first  $2n$  bits.

Alice chooses a subset of  $n$  bits as a check, and tells Bob which bits she selected.

They both compare these, and if more than an acceptable number of bits disagree the protocol is aborted. Otherwise, they have the key!

# The BB84 Protocol - summary

- ① Alice prepares  $(4 + \delta)n$  random data bits -  $a$
- ② Alice randomly chooses  $(4 + \delta)n$  random base bits -  $b$
- ③ She encodes each data bit  $a_i$  as  $(|0\rangle, |1\rangle)$  if  $b_i = 0$ , or as  $(|+\rangle, |-\rangle)$  if  $b_i = 1$
- ④ She sends the qubits to Bob
- ⑤ Once received, Bob measures each qubit in a random base ( $X$  or  $Z$ )
- ⑥ Alice announces  $b$
- ⑦ Alice and Bob keep only the bits measured in the same bases, and max  $2n$  bits
- ⑧ Alice chooses  $n$  bits as a check and tells Bob which ones she selected
- ⑨ They both compare these bits, and if they match then the remaining bits are the key

# But does any of this work?

Yes, Quantum Key Distribution has already been tested in real life.  
For example

- In 2015 the University of Geneva and Corning Inc. achieved a secret key rate of 12.7kbit/s over 307km [K<sup>+</sup>15]
- In 2017 the Institute for Quantum Computing and the University of Waterloo (Canada) achieved quantum key distribution between a ground transmitter and a moving aircraft [P<sup>+</sup>17]

# Quick demo

```
Terminal
iex -S mix
Erlang/OTP 23 [erts-11.2.2] [source] [64-bit] [smp:4:4] [ds:4:4:10] [async-threads:1] [hipe] [dtrace]

Interactive Elixir (1.11.4) - press Ctrl+C to exit (type h() ENTER for help)
iex(1)> Sim.start(100)
BOB :: Started
ALICE :: Started
:ok
ALICE :: Given n = 100, generated k = 500 random bits
ALICE :: Protocol finished, key of length 100 received
BOB :: Protocol finished, key of length 100 received
ALICE :: 1011100000010001001000100010010010011111010000100110010110001110110110001000101011010011010
BOB :: 1011100000010001001000100010010010011111010000100110010110001110110110001000101011010011010
iex(2)> Sim.start_with_eve(100)
BOB :: Started
ALICE :: Started
:ok
ALICE :: Given n = 100, generated k = 500 random bits
EVE :: Intercepting qubits...
EVE :: Measured the qubits
BOB :: Protocol aborted
ALICE :: Protocol aborted
iex(3)> 
```

Code available at <https://github.com/micheleberetta98/qkd-sim>

# References and further reading



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Quantum computation and shor's factoring algorithm, 1999.



Boris Korzh et al.

Provably secure and practical quantum key distribution over 307 km of optical fiber, 2015.



Michale Nielsen and Isaac Chuang.

*Quantum Computation and Quantum Information.*  
Cambridge University Press, 2010.



Cristopher Pugh et al.

Airborne demonstration of a quantum key distribution receiver payload, 2017.