# Quantum Criptograhy 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 - that is, 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 mantained 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  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Notation

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.

## So what is a qubit?

#### Mathematical Representation of a Qubit

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

For example

$$|\psi
angle = rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|0
angle + rac{1}{\sqrt{2}}|1
angle$$

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

# More 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:

ullet 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

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

## A multi-qubit gate: CNOT

A controlled-not or **CNOT** gate is a two-qubit input gate, the control qubit and the target qubit.

The target qubit is flipped if the control qubit is set to 1. Its matrix is

$$U_{CN} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

And its effect is such that

$$|A,B\rangle \rightarrow |A,B\oplus A\rangle$$

Where  $\oplus$  is addition modulo two.



## 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

$$|\psi\rangle\otimes|{\it s}\rangle$$

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

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

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

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

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

Qubits cannot be copied (no-cloning theorem)

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

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

$$|\psi\rangle = \bigotimes_{k=1}^{(4+\delta)n} |\psi_{\mathsf{a}_k \mathsf{b}_k}\rangle$$

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

So every qubit is one of these four states

$$\begin{split} |\psi_{00}\rangle &= |0\rangle & |\psi_{10}\rangle = |1\rangle \\ |\psi_{01}\rangle &= |+\rangle &= \frac{|0\rangle + |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} & |\psi_{11}\rangle = |-\rangle &= \frac{|0\rangle - |1\rangle}{\sqrt{2}} \end{split}$$

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

• 
$$b_k = 0 \implies 0 \rightarrow |0\rangle, 1 \rightarrow |1\rangle$$

• 
$$b_k = 1 \implies 0 \rightarrow \ket{+}, 1 \rightarrow \ket{-}$$

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'.

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

- 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  $b_i = 1$
- She sends the qubits to Bob
- Once received, Bob measures each qubit in a random base (X or Z)
- 6 Alice announces b
- ② Alice and Bob keep only the bits measured in the same bases, and  $\max 2n$  bits
- Alice chooses n bits as a check and tells Bob which ones she selected
- 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+15]
- In 2017 the Institute for Quantum Compuing and the University of Waterloo (Canada) achieved quantum key distribution between a ground transmitter and a moving aircraft [P+17]

#### Quick demo

```
→ qkdsim git:(master) 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
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
iex(2)> Sim.start with eve(100)
BOB :: Started
ALICE :: Started
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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