

# **Introduction to Quantum Information Processing**

## **Lecture 20**

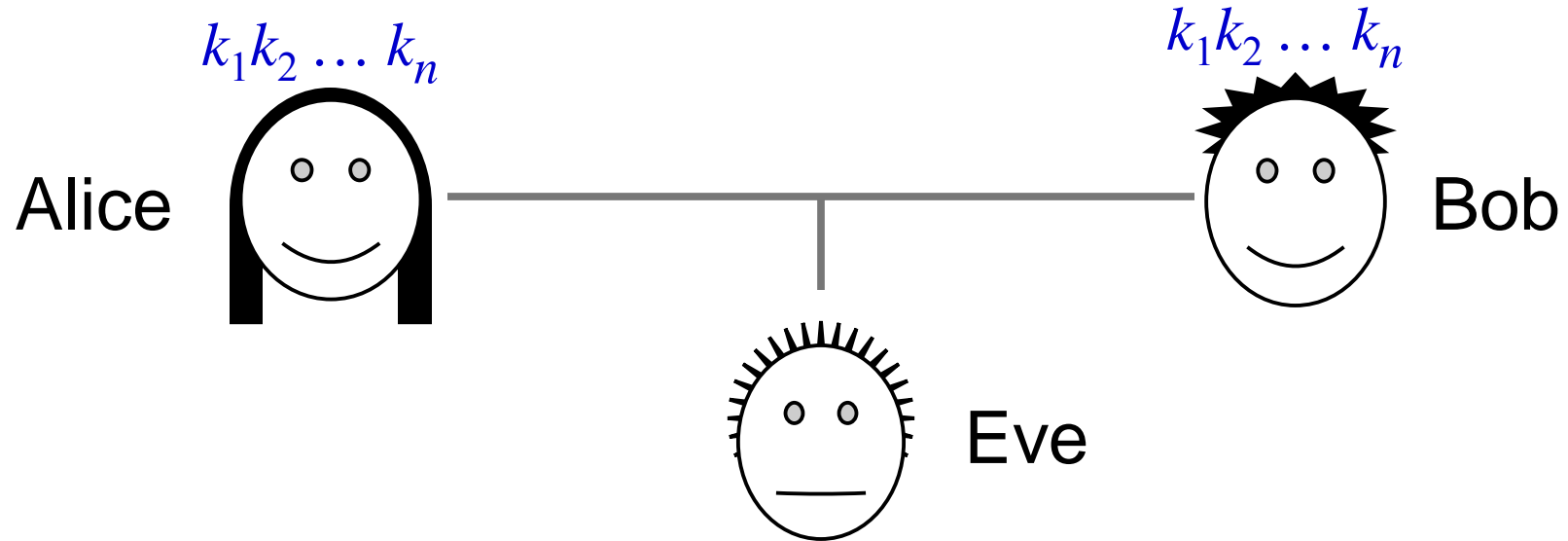
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# Overview of Lecture 20

- Cryptography: the key distribution problem
- The BB84 quantum key distribution protocol
- The bit commitment problem

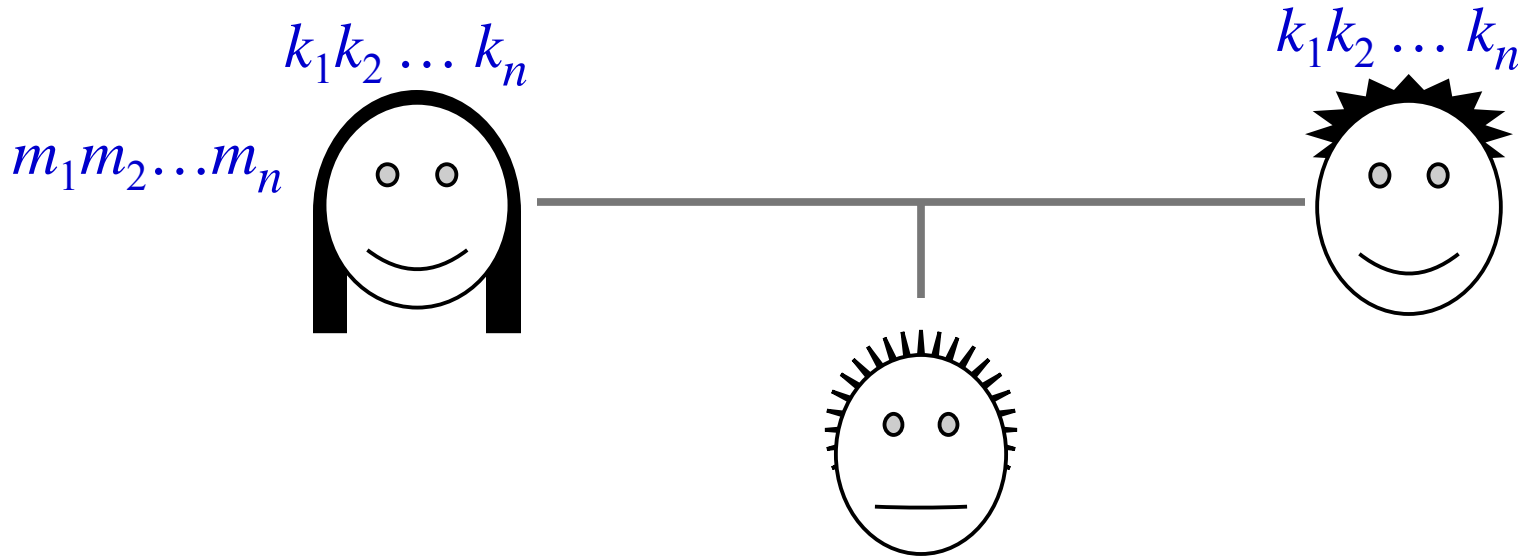
# quantum key distribution

# Private communication



- Suppose Alice and Bob would like to communicate privately in the presence of an eavesdropper Eve
- A provably secure (classical) scheme exists for this, called the **one-time pad**
- The one-time pad requires Alice & Bob to share a **secret key**:  $k \in \{0,1\}^n$ , uniformly distributed (secret from Eve)

# Private communication



## One-time pad protocol:

- Alice sends  $c = m \oplus k$  to Bob
- Bob receives computes  $c \oplus k$ , which is  $(m \oplus k) \oplus k = m$

This is secure because, what Eve sees is  $c$ , and  $c$  is uniformly distributed, regardless of what  $m$  is

# Key distribution scenario

- For security, Alice and Bob must never reuse the key bits
  - E.g., if Alice encrypts both  $m$  and  $m'$  using the same key  $k$  then Eve can deduce  $m \oplus m' = c \oplus c'$
- Problem: how do they distribute the secret key bits in the first place?
  - Presumably, there is some trusted preprocessing stage where this is set up (say, where Alice and Bob get together, or where they use a trusted third party)
- **Key distribution problem:** set up a large number of secret key bits

# Key distribution based on computational hardness

- The **RSA** protocol can be used for key distribution:
  - Alice chooses a random key, encrypts it using Bob's ***public key***, and sends it to Bob
  - Bob decrypts Alice's message using his ***secret (private) key***
- The security of **RSA** is based on the presumed computational difficulty of factoring integers
- More abstractly, a key distribution protocol can be based on any ***trapdoor one-way function***
- Most such schemes are breakable by quantum computers

# Quantum key distribution (QKD)

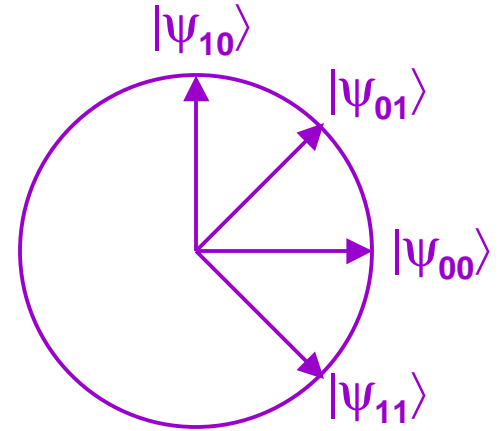
- A protocol that enables Alice and Bob to set up a secure\* secret key, provided that they have:
  - A *quantum channel*, where Eve can read and modify messages
  - An *authenticated classical channel*, where Eve can read messages, but cannot tamper with them (the authenticated classical channel can be simulated by Alice and Bob having a *very short* classical secret key)
- There are several protocols for QKD, and the first one proposed is called “**BB84**” [Bennett & Brassard, 1984]:
  - BB84 is “easy to implement” physically, but “difficult” to prove secure
  - [Mayers, 1996]: first true security proof (quite complicated)
  - [Shor & Preskill, 2000]: “simple” proof of security

\* Information-theoretic security



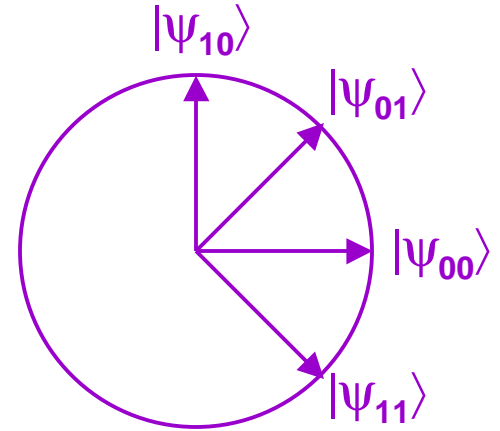
# BB84

- First, define:
  - $|\psi_{00}\rangle = |0\rangle$
  - $|\psi_{10}\rangle = |1\rangle$
  - $|\psi_{11}\rangle = |-\rangle = |0\rangle - |1\rangle$
  - $|\psi_{01}\rangle = |+\rangle = |0\rangle + |1\rangle$
- Alice begins with two random  $n$ -bit strings  $a, b \in \{0,1\}^n$
- Alice sends the state  $|\psi\rangle = |\psi_{a_1b_1}\rangle|\psi_{a_2b_2}\rangle \cdots |\psi_{a_nb_n}\rangle$  to Bob
- **Note:** Eve may see these qubits (and tamper with them)
- After receiving  $|\psi\rangle$ , Bob randomly chooses  $b' \in \{0,1\}^n$  and measures each qubit as follows:
  - If  $b'_i = 0$  then measure qubit in basis  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$ , yielding outcome  $a'_i$
  - If  $b'_i = 1$  then measure qubit in basis  $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$ , yielding outcome  $a'_i$

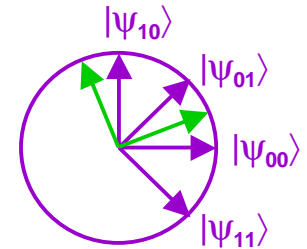


# BB84

- **Note:**
  - If  $b'_i = b_i$  then  $a'_i = a_i$
  - If  $b'_i \neq b_i$  then  $\Pr[a'_i = a_i] = \frac{1}{2}$
- Bob informs Alice when he has performed his measurements (using the public channel)
- Next, Alice reveals  $b$  and Bob reveals  $b'$  over the public channel
- They discard the cases where  $b'_i \neq b_i$  and they will use the **remaining bits** of  $a$  and  $a'$  to produce the key
- **Note:**
  - If Eve did not disturb the qubits then the key can be just  $a$  ( $= a'$ )
  - The **interesting** case is where Eve may tamper with  $|\psi\rangle$  while it is sent from Alice to Bob



# BB84



- **Intuition:**

- Eve cannot acquire information about  $|\psi\rangle$  without disturbing it, which will cause **some** of the bits of  $a$  and  $a'$  to disagree
- It can be proven\* that: **the more information Eve acquires about  $a$ , the more bit positions of  $a$  and  $a'$  will be different**

- From Alice and Bob's remaining bits,  $a$  and  $a'$  (where the positions where  $b'_i \neq b_i$  have already been discarded):
  - They take a random subset and reveal them in order to estimate the fraction of bits where  $a$  and  $a'$  disagree
  - If this fraction is not too high then they proceed to distill a key from the bits of  $a$  and  $a'$  that are left over (around  $n/4$  bits)

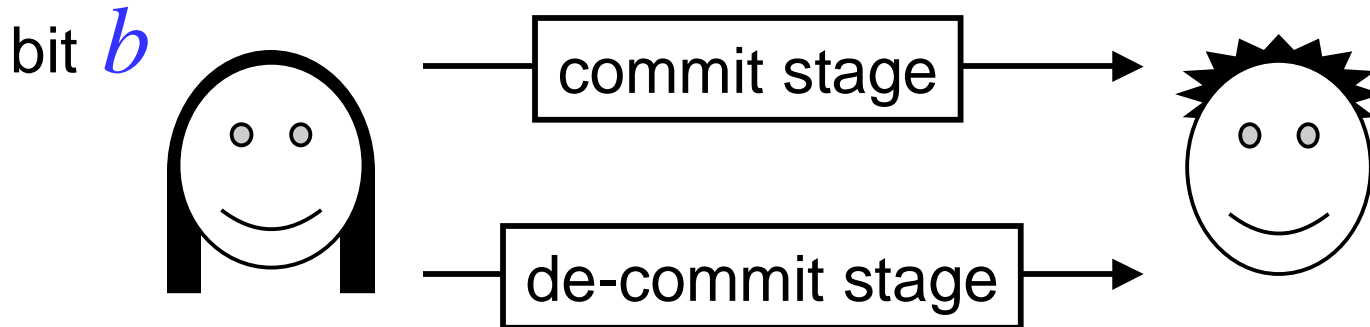
\* To prove this rigorously is nontrivial

# BB84

- If the error rate between  $a$  and  $a'$  is below some threshold (around 11%) then Alice and Bob can produce a good key using techniques from classical cryptography:
  - **Information reconciliation** (“distributed error correction”): to produce shorter  $a$  and  $a'$  such that (i)  $a = a'$ , and (ii) Eve doesn’t acquire much information about  $a$  and  $a'$  in the process
  - **Privacy amplification**: to produce shorter  $a$  and  $a'$  such that Eve’s information about  $a$  and  $a'$  is very small
- There are already commercially available implementations of BB84, though assessing their true security is a subtle matter (since their physical mechanisms are not ideal)

# the story of bit-commitment

# Bit-commitment



- Alice has a bit  $b$  that she wants to **commit** to Bob:
- After the **commit** stage, Bob should know nothing about  $b$ , but Alice should not be able to change her mind
- After the **de-commit** stage, either:
  - Bob should learn  $b$  and accept its value, or
  - Bob should reject Alice's de-commitment messages, if she deviates from the protocol

# Simple physical implementation

- **Commit:** Alice writes  $b$  down on a piece of paper, locks it in a safe, sends the safe to Bob, but keeps the key
- **De-commit:** Alice sends the key to Bob, who then opens the safe
- Desirable properties:
  - **Binding:** Alice cannot change  $b$  after **commit**
  - **Concealing:** Bob learns nothing about  $b$  until **de-commit**

**Question:** why should anyone care about bit-commitment?

**Answer:** it is a useful primitive operation for other protocols, such as zero-knowledge proofs of language-membership

# Complexity-theoretic implementation

Based on a **one-way function**  $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}^n$  and a **hard-predicate**  $h: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$  for  $f$

**Commit:** Alice picks a random  $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ , sets  $y = f(x)$  and  $c = b \oplus h(x)$  and then sends  $y$  and  $c$  to Bob

**De-commit:** Alice sends  $x$  to Bob, who verifies that  $y = f(x)$  and then sets  $b = c \oplus h(x)$

This is (i) perfectly binding and (ii) computationally concealing, based on the hardness of predicate  $h$



# Quantum implementation

- Inspired by the success of QKD, one can try to use the properties of quantum mechanical systems to design an information-theoretically secure **bit-commitment** scheme
- One simple idea:
  - To **commit** to **0**, Alice sends a random sequence from  $\{|0\rangle, |1\rangle\}$
  - To **commit** to **1**, Alice sends a random sequence from  $\{|+\rangle, |-\rangle\}$
  - Bob measures each qubit received in a random basis
  - To **de-commit**, Alice tells Bob exactly which states she sent in the commitment stage (by sending its index 00, 01, 10, or 11), and Bob checks for consistency with his measurement results
- A paper appeared in 1993 proposing a quantum bit-commitment scheme and a proof of security

# Quantum implementation

- Not only was the 1993 scheme shown to be insecure, but it was later shown that no such scheme can exist
- To understand the impossibility proof, recall the **Schmidt decomposition**:

Let  $|\psi\rangle$  be **any** bipartite quantum state:

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{\substack{x \in X \\ y \in Y}} \alpha_{x,y} |x\rangle |y\rangle$$

Then there exist orthonormal states

$|\mu_1\rangle, |\mu_2\rangle, \dots, |\mu_m\rangle$  and  $|\varphi_1\rangle, |\varphi_2\rangle, \dots, |\varphi_m\rangle$  such that

$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{z \in Z} \beta_z |\mu_z\rangle |\varphi_z\rangle$$



# Quantum implementation

- **Corollary:** if  $|\psi_0\rangle, |\psi_1\rangle$  are such that  $\text{Tr}_1 |\psi_0\rangle\langle\psi_0| = \text{Tr}_1 |\psi_1\rangle\langle\psi_1|$  then there exists a unitary  $U$  (acting on the first register) such that  $(U \otimes I)|\psi_0\rangle = |\psi_1\rangle$

- **Proof:**

$$|\psi_0\rangle = \sum_{z \in Z} \beta_z |\mu_z\rangle |\phi_z\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad |\psi_1\rangle = \sum_{z \in Z} \beta_z |\mu'_z\rangle |\phi_z\rangle$$

$$\text{Let } U|\mu_z\rangle = |\mu'_z\rangle \blacksquare$$

- Protocol can be “purified” so that Alice’s commit states are  $|\psi_0\rangle$  &  $|\psi_1\rangle$  (where she sends the second register to Bob)
- By applying  $U$  to her register, **Alice can change her commitment** from  $b = 0$  to  $b = 1$  (by changing  $|\psi_0\rangle$  to  $|\psi_1\rangle$ )

**THE END**