

The Future of Communication

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PTQCI Summer School Quantum Communication & Space

Instituto Superior Técnico - Pólo de Oeiras



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Society is protected by cryptography

- Cryptography is an important pillar of the information age, and for our civilization as a whole.
- It secures nearly all modern communication ranging from highly critical fields such as the exchange of classified government documents, to seemingly benign aspects as the confidentiality of a personal financial transaction.

□ All critical infrastructure, the underpinning of our society, is protected by cryptography. This includes...



Public-key cryptography: Overview

A day without safe cryptography



https://cloudsecurityalliance.org/group/quantum-safe-security/





How cryptography works today





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Public-key cryptography: Overview

The RSA system:

>Bob starts by selecting two large prime numbers p and q, which he multiplies so as to create a number n.

>Bob also chooses a number $3 \le e < n$ such that e and n have no common factor. He calculates d such that

 $e^{d} = 1 \pmod{(p-1)(q-1)}$

Once this is done, he may discard the prime numbers p and q. He publishes the pair (e, n) as his public key and secretly keeps the pair (d, n) as his private key.



Public-key cryptography: Overview

The RSA system:

Encryption goes as follows: Alice calculates its e-th power and reduces the result modulo n

 $c = m^e \mod (n)$

- Upon reception: Bob can decrypt the message using his private key by computing c^d mod n.
- > The properties of modular exponentiation imply that:

 $c^d \mod n = m^{ed} \mod n = m$



Public-key cryptography: Overview The RSA system:

> For example, with e = 17 and n = 3763, Alice can send a ciphertext as

follower									X		
101101103.	plaintext:	ju	st	th	ef	ac	to	rs	ma	am	
	numbers:	10, 21	19, 20	20, 8	5, 6	1, 3	20, 15	18, 19	13, 1	1, 13	
	together:	1021	1920	2008	506	103	2015	1819	1301	113	
	to the 17th										
	power:	3397	2949	2462	3290	1386	2545	2922	2866	2634	

Bob knows the decryption exponent *d* and the public modulus *n*, so he can decipher the message by raising the ciphertext to the d-th power modulo *n*.

plaintext:	ju	st	th	ef	ac	to	rs	ma	am
split apart:	10, 21	19, 20	20, 8	5,6	1, 3	20, 15	18, 19	13, 1	1, 13
power:	1021	1920	2008	506	103	2015	1819	1301	113
to the 1713th									
ciphertext:	3397	2949	2462	3290	1386	2545	2922	2866	2634



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Public-key cryptography: Overview

Twenty Years of Attacks on the RSA Cryptosystem

Dan Boneh

Dan Boneh is an assistant professor of computer science at Stanford University. His e-mail address is dabo@cs.stanford.edu. sufficient) padding algorithm may pad a plaintext M by appending a few random bits to one of the ends prior to encryption. Adding randomness to the encryption process is necessary for proper security.

FEBRUARY 1999

NOTICES OF THE AMS



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Public-key cryptography: Overview

Possible Attacks on RSA

- •Guessing *d*. ...
- •Cycle Attack. ...
- •Common Modulus. ...
- •Faulty Encryption. ...
- •Low Exponent. ...
- •Factoring the Public Key.

✓The prizes for RSA-576 and RSA-640 have been awarded. The remaining prizes have been retracted since the challenge became inactive in 2007.



RSA number	Decimal digits	Binary digits	Cash prize offered	Factored on	on Factored by	
RSA-100	100	330	US\$1,000 ^[4]	April 1, 1991 ^[5]	Arjen K. Lenstra	
RSA-110	110	364	US\$4,429 ^[4]	April 14, 1992 ^[5]	Arjen K. Lenstra and M.S. Manasse	
RSA-120	120	397	\$5,898 ^[4]	July 9, 1993 ^[6]	T. Denny et al.	
RSA-129 [**]	129	426	\$100 <u>USD</u>	April 26, 1994 ^[5]	Arjen K. Lenstra et al.	
RSA-130	130	430	US\$14,527 ^[4]	April 10, 1996	Arjen K. Lenstra et al.	
RSA-140	140	463	US\$17,226	February 2, 1999	Herman te Riele <i>et al.</i>	
RSA-150	150	496		April 16, 2004	Kazumaro Aoki et al.	
RSA-155	155	512	\$9,383[4]	August 22, 1999	Herman te Riele et al.	
RSA-160	160	530		April 1, 2003	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn	
<u>RSA-170</u> [*]	170	563		December 29, 2009	D. Bonenberger and M. Krone [***]	
RSA-576	174	576	\$10,000 USD	December 3, 2003	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn	
<u>RSA-180</u> [*]	180	596		May 8, 2010	S. A. Danilov and I. A. Popovyan, Moscow State University ^[7]	
RSA-190 [*]	190	629		November 8, 2010	A. Timofeev and I. A. Popovyan	
RSA-640	193	640	\$20,000 <u>USD</u>	November 2, 2005	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn	
RSA-200 [*] ?	200	663		May 9, 2005	Jens Franke et al., University of Bonn	
<u>RSA-210</u> [*]	210	696		September 26, 2013 ^[8]	Ryan Propper	
<u>RSA-704</u> [*]	212	704	\$30,000 <u>USD</u>	July 2, 2012	Shi Bai, Emmanuel Thomé and Paul Zimmermann	
<u>RSA-220</u> [*]	220	729		May 13, 2016	S. Bai, P. Gaudry, A. Kruppa, E. Thomé and P. Zimmermann	
RSA-230	230	762				
RSA-232	232	768				
RSA-768 [*]	232	768	\$50,000 <u>USD</u>	December 12, 2009	Thorsten Kleinjung et al.	
RSA-240	240	795				

Worldwide Effort

CISA Announces Post-Quantum Cryptography Initiative THE WHITE HOUSE

An official website of the United States government





Government and critical infrastructure organizations must take coordinated preparatory actions now to ensure a fluid migration to the new post-quantum cryptographic standard

Released: July 06, 2022

that the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) will publish in 2024.

National Security Memorandum on Promoting United States Leadership in **Quantum Computing While Mitigating Risks to Vulnerable Cryptographic**

MAY 04, 2022

Systems

Position Paper on Quantum Key Distribution

Due to current and inherent limitations, QKD can however currently only be used in practice in some niche use cases. For the vast majority of use cases where classical key agreement schemes are currently used it is not possible to use QKD in practice. Furthermore, QKD is not yet sufficiently mature from a security perspective. In light of the urgent need to stop relying only on quantum-vulnerable public-key cryptography for key establishment, the clear priorities should therefore be the migration to post-guantum cryptography and/or the adoption of symmetric keying.

Federal Office RÉPUBLIQUE for Information Security FRANÇAISE

French Cybersecurity Agency (ANSSI) Netherlands National Communications Security Agency (NLNCSA) Federal Office for Information Security (BSI)

Jan 26, 2024

- **1**

PRESS RELEASE | Publication 11 April 2024

General Intelligence and

Swedish National Communications Security Authority, Swedish Armed Forces

Security Service Ministry of the Interior and

Kinadom Relations



Commission publishes Recommendation on Post-Quantum

SWEDISH ARMED FORCES

Cryptography

Shaping Europe's digital future





This should lead to the deployment across the Union of Post-Quantum Cryptography technologies into existing public administration systems and critical infrastructures via hybrid schemes that may combine Post-Quantum Cryptography with existing cryptographic approaches or with Quantum Key Distribution.

Public-key cryptography: Overview

Not only the RSA it is in risk

Cryptographic function	Protocol	QC Attack	Impact	
Key exchange & Digital signatures	RSA, DH, ECC	Shor	Broken	
Data encription	DES, AES	Groover	Weakened	
Authentication	MAC, AEAD	Simon	Broken	



Public-key cryptography: Overview

Shor's algorithm is a polynomial-time quantum computer algorithm for integer factorization

Algorithms for Quantum Computation: Discrete Logarithms and Factoring

> Peter W. Shor AT&T Bell Labs Room 2D-149 600 Mountain Ave. Murray Hill, NJ 07974, USA

Abstract

A computer is generally considered to be a universal computational device; i.e., it is believed able to simulate any physical computational device with a cost in computation time of at most a polynomial factor. It is not clear whether this is still true when quantum mechanics is taken into consideration. Several researchers, starting with David Deutsch, have developed models for quantum mechanical computers and have investigated their computational properties. This paper gives Las Vegas algorithms for finding discrete logarithms and factoring integers on a quantum computer that take a number of steps which is polynomial in the input size, e.g., the number of digits of the integer to be factored. These two problems are generally considered hard on a classical computer and have been used as the basis of several proposed cryptosystems. (We thus give the first examples of quantum cryptanalysis.)

[1, 2]. Although he did not ask whether quantum mechan ics conferred extra power to computation, he did show tha a Turing machine could be simulated by the reversible unit tary evolution of a quantum process, which is a necessary prerequisite for quantum computation. Deutsch [9, 10] wa: the first to give an explicit model of quantum computation He defined both quantum Turing machines and quantum circuits and investigated some of their properties.

The next part of this paper discusses how quantum com putation relates to classical complexity classes. We will thus first give a brief intuitive discussion of complexity classes for those readers who do not have this background There are generally two resources which limit the ability of computers to solve large problems: time and space (i.e. memory). The field of analysis of algorithms consider: the asymptotic demands that algorithms make for these resources as a function of the problem size. Theoretica computer scientists generally classify algorithms as effi

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- Shor's algorithm is based on number theory for factoring. Suppose we want to find the prime factors (Q, R) of an integer P; i.e., $P = Q \times R$.
- Algorithm for finding the prime factors of an integer:
- 1. Choose a random number, say *a*
- 2. Calculate **a**^x **mod P** where x = 0, 1, 2, 3, ... For P=15, Q=3, R=5

7⁰ mod 15, 7¹ mod 15, 7² mod 15, 7³ mod 15, 7⁴ mod 15, 7⁵ mod 15, 7⁶ mod 15, 7⁷ mod 15, ... = 1, 7, 4, 13, 1, 7, 4, 13, ...,



Find the periodicity of the above number sequence. In this example, r = 4 because the four numbers 1, 7, 4 and 13 repeats; i.e., *a^x mod P* is a periodic function

4. If *r* is an odd number, start over. Otherwise, if *r* is an even number, then Q and R are given by

 $Q = gcd(a^{r/2} - 1, P)$ and $R = gcd(a^{r/2} + 1, P)$ where gcd is the greatest common divisor.



For our example

$$Q = \gcd(a^{r/2} - 1, P) = \gcd(7^2 - 1, 15) = \gcd(48, 15)$$

= 3, since 48/3 = 16 and 15/3 = 5
$$R = \gcd(a^{r/2} + 1, P) = \gcd(7^2 + 1, 15) = \gcd(50, 15)$$

= 5, since 50/5 = 10 and 15/5 = 3

There are efficient classical algorithms (Euclid's algorithm) for efficiently finding the *gcd*. Therefore, the factoring problem reduces to efficiently finding the period (r) of the function *a*^x *mod P*.



Period Finding

- The Quantum Fourier Transform (QFT) is useful when there is an underlying periodicity to the wavefunction.
- In the QFT, we do a Discrete Fourier Transform on the amplitudes of a quantum state.



An example for factoring 21 using 5 quibts on IBM quantum processors



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An example for factoring 21 using 5 quibts on IBM quantum processors

1. Problem: Find the factors of a prime number n

- 2. Order nding: nd the least positive integer $r \in \{0, 1, ..., N\}$ such that $a^r \mod(n)=1$.
- 3. where a is an integer smaller than n picked at random.
- 4. This is done on the quantum computer!

5. All the other operations can be done on a classical computer

Classical counterpart

- Compute gcd(a^r/2 + 1, n) and gcd(a^r/2 1, n), i.e., the greatest common divisor;
- For n = 21, a = 4, and r = 3 we have gcd(9, 21) = 3 and gcd (7, 21) = 7
- This is the factorization of the prime number!

Where we are today in terms of number of qubits?

Technology

Record-breaking quantum computer has more than 1000 qubits

Atom Computing has created the first quantum computer to surpass 1000 qubits, which could improve the accuracy of the machines

By Alex Wilkins

Technology

Record-breaking number of qubits entangled in a quantum computer

A group of 51 superconducting qubits have been entangled inside a quantum computer, not just in pairs but in a complex system that entangles each qubit to every other one

By Karmela Padavic-Callaghan

💾 12 July 2023

IBM Quantum

Optica Vol. 11, Issue 2, pp. 222-226 (2024) • https://doi.org/10.1364/OPTICA.513551

Lars Pause, Lukas Sturm, Marcel Mittenbühler, Stephan Amann, Tilman Preuschoff, Dominik Schäffner, Malte Schlosser, and Gerhard Birkl

The question is: In practice what really the numbers that we already factored?

We can factor the number 21 with the IBM quantum computer!

Neverthless, when we try to factorize number 35 using Shor's algorithm using a quantum computer... the algorithm failed because of accumulating errors

PHYSICAL REVIEW A 100, 012305 (2019)

Experimental study of Shor's factoring algorithm using the IBM Q Experience

Mirko Amico,¹ Zain H. Saleem,² and Muir Kumph³ ¹The Graduate School and University Center, The City University of New York, New York, New York 10016, USA ²Theoretical Research Institute of Pakistan Academy of Sciences, Islamabad 44000, Pakistan ³IBM T. J. Watson Research Center, Yorktown Heights, New York 10598, USA

(Received 2 March 2019; published 8 July 2019)

We study the results of a compiled version of Shor's factoring algorithm on the *ibmqx5* superconducting chip, for the particular case of N = 15, 21, and 35. The semiclassical quantum Fourier transform is used to implement the algorithm with only a small number of physical qubits, and the circuits are designed to reduce the number of gates to the minimum. We use the square of the statistical overlap to give a quantitative measure of the similarity between the experimentally obtained distribution of phases and the predicted theoretical distribution of phases for different values of the period. This allows us to assign a period to the experimental data without the use of the continued fraction algorithm. A quantitative estimate of the error in our assignment of the period is then given by the overlap coefficient.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevA.100.012305

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The question: largest integer factored?

Factoring integers with sublinear resources on a superconducting quantum processor

Bao Yan,^{1,2,*} Ziqi Tan,^{3,*} Shijie Wei,^{4,*} Haocong Jiang,⁵ Weilong Wang,¹ Hong Wang,¹ Lan Luo,¹ Qianheng Duan,¹ Yiting Liu,¹ Wenhao Shi,¹ Yangyang Fei,¹ Xiangdong Meng,¹ Yu Han,¹ Zheng Shan,¹ Jiachen Chen,³ Xuhao Zhu,³ Chuanyu Zhang,³ Feitong Jin,³ Hekang Li,³ Chao Song,³ Zhen Wang,^{3,†} Zhi Ma,^{1,‡} H. Wang,³ and Gui-Lu Long^{2,4,6,7,§}

We demonstrate the algorithm experimentally by factoring integers up to 48 bits with 10 superconducting qubits, the largest integer factored on a quantum device. We estimate that a quantum circuit with 372 physical qubits and a depth of thousands is necessary to challenge RSA-2048 using our algorithm

Nevertheless...

A comment on "Factoring integers with sublinear resources on a superconducting quantum processor"

Tanuj Khattar^{1, *} and Noureldin Yosri^{2, †}

we present an open-source implementation of the algorithm proposed by Yan et. al. and show that, even if we had a perfect quantum optimizer (instead of a heuristic like QAOA), the proposed claims don't hold true. Specifically, our implementation shows that the claimed sublinear lattice dimension for the Hybrid quantum+classical version of Schnorr's algorithm successfully factors integers only up to 70 bits!

In practice, for a 2048 bits long RSA key, a malicious party would have to factorize something like:

1 ²

Shor's algorithm could be used to break public-key cryptography schemes, such as

the widely used RSA scheme

This if we have sufficient number of qubits!!

doi:10.1103/PhysRevLett.127.140503

Factoring 2048-bit RSA Integers in 177 Days with 13 436 Qubits and a Multimode Memory

Élie Gouzien ©* and Nicolas Sangouard ©[†] Université Paris-Saclay, CEA, CNRS, Institut de Physique Théorique, 91191 Gif-sur-Yvette, Fran-(Dated: September 29, 2021)

We analyze the performance of a quantum computer architecture combining a small processor and a storage unit. By focusing on integer factorization, we show a reduction by several orders of magnitude of the number of processing qubits compared with a standard architecture using a planar grid of qubits with nearest-neighbor connectivity. This is achieved by taking advantage of a temporally and spatially multiplexed memory to store the qubit states between processing steps. Concretely, for a characteristic physical gate error rate of 10^{-3} , a processor cycle time of

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- Shor's algorithm could be used to break public-key cryptography schemes, such as
- the widely used RSA scheme
- This if we have sufficient number of qubits!!

How to factor 2048 bit RSA integers in 8 hours using 20 million noisy qubits

Craig Gidney¹ and Martin Ekerå²

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The New York Times

The Race to Save Our Secrets From the Computers of the Future

Quantum technology could compromise our encryption systems. Can America replace them before it's too late?

"This is potentially a completely different kind of problem than one we've ever faced," said Glenn S. Gerstell, a former general counsel of the National Security Agency and one of the authors of an expert <u>consensus report</u> on cryptology. "It may be that there's only a 1 percent chance of that happening, but a 1 percent chance of something catastrophic is something you need to worry about."

By Zach Montague Reporting from Washington

Oct. 22, 2023

They call it Q-Day: the day when a quantum computer, one more powerful than any yet built, could shatter the world of privacy and security as we know it.

It would happen through a bravura act of mathematics: the separation of some very large numbers, hundreds of digits long, into their prime factors.

That might sound like a meaningless division problem, but it would fundamentally undermine the encryption protocols that governments and corporations have relied on for decades. <u>Sensitive information</u> such as military intelligence, weapons designs, industry secrets and banking information is often transmitted or stored under digital locks that the act of factoring large numbers could crack open.

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When to Switch to Quantum Secure?

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Q = # years to first large quantum computer ... between 20 and 30 \Box X = # years it takes to switch ... between 10 and 20 \Box Y = # years data needs to be confidential ...?

Need to start the switching in the year S = 2024 + Q - X - Y

If Y is equal to 10 it is about time, if it is small than 10 you are still ok, if it is more than 10 you are already late !!!

Quantum cryptography

The most successful and commercially available application in quantum cryptography are the Quantum Key Distribution systems.

Other applications in the field of quantum cryptography are:

>Quantum Random Number Generators

>Quantum Bit Commitment;

>Quantum Oblivious Transfer;

Quantum cryptography

Starting from the simplest quantum cryptographic system:

Quantum random number generators

> Only physical processes can generate true random numbers;

They are in the field of data encryption, for example to create random cryptographic keys to encrypt data;

They are a more secure alternative to pseudorandom number generators (PRNGs), software programs commonly used in computers to generate pseudo-random numbers.

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Key Distribution)

In classical cryptography:

- one-time keys
- challenge-response data
- Public key cryptography Diffie-Hellman

Quantum cryptography. All QKD protocols assume a local TRNG

- Discrete-Variable QKD
- Continuous Variable QKD
- Entangled-based QKD protocols

For cryptographic purpose:

- An attacker that knows the whole sequence cannot guess the next bit with a probability better than one-half.
- The knowledge of a part of the sequence shall not permit an attacker to compute the previous values of the generator with better accuracy than guessing.

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Quantum random number generator

relies on a physical process whose **randomness** is guaranteed by laws of **Quantum Mechanics**.

Examples of such processes are:

- Path superposition and measurement
- Photon number statistics
- > Time of arrival statistics
- > Laser phase noise
- Shot-noise measurement

universidade de aveiro M. Herrero-Collantes et al, "Quantum random number generators", REVIEWS OF MODERN PHYSICS, 2017

The homodyne detection system

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M. Ferreira et al, "Characterization of a Quantum Random Number Generator Based on Vacuum Fluctuations", Applied Science, 2021

The homodyne detection system allows for the measurement of quadrutues:

$$\langle \hat{v} \rangle_x \propto \frac{1}{2} \int d\tau \langle \hat{a}_S^{\dagger}(\tau) \hat{a}_{LO}(\tau) + \hat{a}_{LO}^{\dagger}(\tau) \hat{a}_S(\tau) \rangle h(t-\tau)$$

$$\langle \hat{v} \rangle_p \propto \frac{\iota}{2} \int d\tau \langle \hat{a}_S^{\dagger}(\tau) \hat{a}_{LO}(\tau) + \hat{a}_{LO}^{\dagger}(\tau) \hat{a}_S(\tau) \rangle h(t-\tau)$$

The variance of the measured voltage is proportional to:

 $\sigma^2 \propto \langle \hat{n}_{LO} \rangle + \langle \hat{n}_S \rangle$

If \hat{a}_s is in a vacuum state:

$\sigma^2 \propto \langle \hat{n}_{LO} \rangle \rightarrow Shot \ noise$

M. Ferreira et al, "Characterization of a Quantum Random Number Generator Based on Vacuum Fluctuations", Applied Science, 2021
• Output proportional to the amplitude quadrature of the vacuum state, which follows a Gaussian distribution.

 Measurements contain simultaneously quantum and classical contributions.



Randomness extraction stage necessary to attain true random numbers



Shannon entropy

$$H_{q}(x) = n - \sum_{i=1}^{2^{n}} p_{i}^{e} \log_{2} p_{i}^{e}$$

- The homodyne measurement distribution is divided into a set of 2ⁿ equiprobable bins.
- > The binning consistently converges to a **4-bit** sequence.
- > A theoretical maximum of **1.99 bits** per sample can be extracted.
- Extraction ratio of **0.323** true random bits per raw bit





M. Ferreira et al, "Characterization of a Quantum Random Number Generator Based on Vacuum Fluctuations", Applied Science, 2021

✓ Real Devices: Unbalanced homodyne detection



✓ Real Devices: Unbalanced homodyne detection



≻ Excess LO Noise



An unbalanced detection results on an apparent entropy increase.



> Additional entropy contribution of **0.0554 bits** found due to imperfect detection balancing.

The first protocol for quantum cryptography was proposed

in 1984 by Charles H. Bennett, of IBM and Gilles Brassard.

QUANTUM CRYPTOGRAPHY: PUBLIC KEY DISTRIBUTION AND COIN TOSSING

Charles H. Bennett (IBM Research, Yorktown Heights NY 10598 USA) Gilles Brassard (dept. IRO, Univ. de Montreal, H3C 3J7 Canada)

When elementary quantum systems, such as polarized photons, are used to transmit digital information, the uncertainty principle gives rise to novel cryptographic phenomena unachieveable with traditional transmission media, e.g. a communications channel on which it is impossible in principle to eavesdrop without a high probability of disturbing the transmission in such a way as to be detected. Such a quantum channel can be used in conjunction with ordinary insecure classical channels to distribute random key information between two users with the assurance that it remains unknown to anyone else, even when the users share no secret information initially. We also present a protocol for coin-tossing by exchange of quantum messages, which is secure against traditional kinds of cheating, even by an opponent with unlimited computing power, but ironically can be subverted by use of a still subtler guantum phenomemon, the Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen paradox.

I. Introduction

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, principle impossible to counterfeit, and multiplexing two or three messages in such a way that reading one destroys the others. More recently [BBBW], quantum coding has been used in conjunction with public key cryptographic techniques to yield several schemes for unforgeable subway tokens. Here we show that quantum coding by itself achieves one of the main advantages of public key cryptography by permitting secure distribution of random key information between parties who share no secret information initially, provided the parties have access, besides the quantum channel, to an ordinary channel susceptible to passive but not active eavesdropping. Even in the presence of active eavesdropping, the two parties can still distribute key securely if they share some secret information initially, provided the eavesdropping is not so active as to suppress communications completely. We also present a protocol for coin tossing by exchange of quantum messages. Except where otherwise noted the protocols are provably secure even against an opponent with superior technology and unlimited computing power, barring fundamental violations of accepted physical laws.

Following Wootters and Zurek (1982) one can easily prove that

perfect copying is impossible in the quantum world:

A single quantum cannot be cloned

W. K. Wootters*

Center for Theoretical Physics, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas 78712, USA

W. H. Zurek

Theoretical Astrophysics 130-33, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California 91125, USA

If a photon of definite polarization encounters an excited atom, there is typically some nonvanishing probability that the atom will emit a second photon by stimulated emission. Such a photon is guaranteed to have the same polarization as the original photon. But is it possible by this or any other process to amplify a quantum state, that is, to produce several copies of a quantum system (the polarized photon in the present case) each having the same state as the original? If it were, the amplifying process could be used to ascertain the exact state of a quantum system: in the case of a photon, one could determine its polarization by first producing a beam of identically polarized copies and then measuring the Stokes parameters¹. We show here that the linearity of quantum mechanics forbids such replication and that this conclusion holds for all quantum systems.



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- > In the BB84 protocol two sets of polarization states called the \oplus and \otimes bases are used:
- The ⊕ basis: Binary 1 and 0 corresponds to photons with polarization angles of 0∘ and 90∘, respectively.
- 2. The \otimes basis: Binary 1 and 0 corresponds to photons with polarization angles of 45° and 135°, respectively.
 - ★ The two polarization states for the ⊕ basis can be represented in Dirac notation by |↓> and |↔>;
 - ♦ The two states for the \otimes basis are represented by | \land \rangle and | \searrow \rangle

Basis	Binary 1	Binary 0
\oplus	$\begin{array}{c} \uparrow\rangle\\ \theta = 0^{\circ} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} \leftrightarrow\rangle\\ \theta = 90^{\circ} \end{array}$
\otimes	$ \begin{array}{c} \swarrow\rangle\\ \theta = 45^{\circ} \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} \searrow\rangle\\ \theta = 135^{\circ} \end{array} $



A scheme for quantum cryptography according to the BB84 protocol is shown in the Figure:





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> In the BB84 protocol the following steps are taken:

A's data A's basis θ (°)	$egin{array}{c} 1 \ \oplus \ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \otimes \\ 135 \end{array}$	$egin{array}{c} 0 \ \oplus \ 90 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \otimes \\ 45 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \otimes \\ 45 \end{array}$	$egin{array}{c} 1 \ \oplus \ 0 \end{array}$	$egin{array}{c} 0 \ \oplus \ 90 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \otimes \\ 135 \end{array}$	$egin{array}{c} 1 \ \oplus \ 0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \otimes \\ 135 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ \otimes \\ 135 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \oplus \\ 0 \end{array}$
B's basis B's result	$\stackrel{\otimes}{1}$	$\otimes 0$	$\oplus \ 0$	$\oplus \\ 0$	${\otimes} 1$	\oplus 1	$\stackrel{\otimes}{0}$	\oplus 1	\oplus 1	$\stackrel{\otimes}{0}$	\oplus 1	\otimes 1
Same basis ? Sifted bits	n	у 0	у 0	n	у 1	у 1	n	n	у 1	у 0	n	n
Data check ? Private key		у	${f n} 0$		У	n 1			у	n 0		

Representative sequence of data choices according to the BB84 protocol. θ is the polarization angle according to the encoding scheme

BasisBinary 1Binary 0
$$\oplus$$
 $|\uparrow\rangle$ $|\leftrightarrow\rangle$ $\theta = 0^{\circ}$ $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ \otimes $|\swarrow\rangle$ $|\lor\rangle$ $\theta = 45^{\circ}$ $\theta = 135^{\circ}$



DV-QKD Polarization Encoding

- ✓ Explored in the original BB84
- Why? ✓ Polarization encoding with long-term temporal stability and low intrinsic QBER
 - ✓ Simpler security proofs
 - ✓ Degree-of-freedom most suitable for satellite-based QKD

Current Challenges

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- Optimization of coding/decoding for simpler implementations
- ✓ Co-existence between classical and quantum signals
- ✓ Integration of quantum networks with satellite-based links





DV-QKD Experimental Setup



- At the transmitter, two signals are generated: a reference and a quantum signal, co-propagated in the quantum channel in a WDM approach.
- At the receiver, the reference signal is used for synchronization, and the quantum signal is measured by two single photon detectors.

We have proposed, implemented and experimentally validated novel polarization encoding and polarization drift compensation schemes



Implementation of Polarization Generation/Control Methods



Polarization States Generation

Reversal Operator Basis Alignment



M. F. Ramos, N. A. Silva, N. J. Muga, A. N. Pinto, Full polarization random drift compensation method for quantum communication, Optics Express, 30(5):6907-6920, 2022.



The average QBER after 21 hours was 1.8%, with only one calibration at the beginning of the measurements.

S. T. Mantey, M. F. Ramos, N. A. Silva, A. N. Pinto and N. J. Muga, "Demonstration of an Algorithm for Quantum State Generation in Polarization-Encoding QKD Systems," OFC, San Diego, USA, March, 2022.





The experimental implementation has shown that the system is able to operate with an average QBER of 1.8%.

S. T. Mantey, M. F. Ramos, N. A. Silva, A. N. Pinto and N. J. Muga, Polarization Control Through Reversal Operator for QKD Systems, tb submitted to Optics Express, 2024.

Coexistence of Quantum and Classical Signal Transmission Over Turbulent FSO Channels



Fiber-wireless optical system that transmitted a 64-QAM 400 Gbps classical signal for high-rate data exchange and a 1 MHz quantum signal for QKD.

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de aveiro S. T. Mantey, M. A. Fernandes, G. M. Fernandes, N. A. Silva, F. P. Guiomar, P. Monteiro, A. N. Pinto, and N. J.

Muga, On the Coexistence of Quantum and Classical Signal Transmission Over Turbulent FSO Channels, to © 2018, Instituto de Telecomunicações

submitted to JLT, 2024.

> The world is connected by fiber systems:







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Why use continuous-variables for QKD?

The information is encoded on the quadratures of coherent states.

Discrete Variables QKD

Can achieve higher

transmission distances.

Continuous Variables QKD

Higher secret key rates for

metropolitan distances.



Off-the-shelf equipment

- Current optical fiber communication networks
- Commercial lasers
- Coherent detection





Coherent states modulation

Gaussian modulation

Optimum performance

Difficult to achieve in practice



Low-order

discrete modulation Simpler Implementation

Very-low amplitudes must be used to resemble Gaussian modulation

Far from the optimum performance of Gaussian modulation



Higher-order

discrete modulation



Low amplitudes must be used to resemble Gaussian modulation.

Can approximate the performance of Gaussian modulation

M-QAM can achieve better performances than M-APSK

M. Almeida, D. Pereira, M. Facão, A. N. Pinto, and N. A. Silva, "Reconciliation Efficiency Impact on Discrete Modulated CV-QKD Systems Key Rates," Journal of Lightwave Technology, vol. -, no. -, p. 1-9, 2023. M. Almeida, D. Pereira, N. J. Muga, M. Facão, A. N. Pinto, and N. A. Silva, "CV-QKD Security Limits Using Higher-Order Probabilistic Shaped Regular M-APSK Constellations," BRC Workshop de Comunicação e Computação Quântica WQuantum, Fortaleza, Brazil, May 2022 [Best paper award].

M. Almeida, D. Pereira, N. J. Muga, M. Facão, A. N. Pinto, and N. A. Silva, "Secret key rate of multi-ring M-APSK continuous variable quantum key distribution," Optics Express, vol. 29, no. 23, p. 38669, Nov. 2021.

M. Almeida, M. Facão, A. N. Pinto, and N. A. Silva, "Probabilistic shaped 128-APSK CV-QKD transmission system over optical fibres," Optics Letters, vol. 47, no. 15, p. 3948, July 2022.

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A CV-QKD protocol: GG02

The most widespread protocol for CV-QKD is known as GG02 and was proposed in 2002 by Frédéric Grosshans and Philippe Grangier

- > Alice draws N 2-dimensional samples from a random distribution and uses them to modulate a coherent source obtaining the N coherent states, that are sent through an insecure quantum channel of transmittance T and excess noise ε .
- Bob performs the measurement of the received states, after which Alice and Bob share N pairs of correlated variables
- Alice and Bob reveal the part of the transmitted randomly chosen. With these parameters they will perform the parameter estimation. The security bounds can be calculated for estimated parameters to obtain the length of the final key.



A CV-QKD protocol: GG02

The most widespread protocol for CV-QKD is known as GG02 and was proposed in 2002 by Frédéric Grosshans and Philippe Grangier

- > Alice and Bob need to correct the errors on the n = N m remaining values they share. In practice they use the shared values to establish a common bit string U with the help of classical error correcting codes
- After reconciliation Alice and Bob share two identical strings U that are not completely secret. With U and the length of the key it is possible to implement a process of privacy amplification using 2-universal hashing. This process is common to all QKD protocols and when applied in both entities, Alice and Bob obtain two identical copies of the secret key.





CV-QKD System Description

CV-QKD systems can be divided into a physical layer (preparation, transmission, measurement and digital signal processing) and a post-processing layer (parameter estimation, information reconciliation and privacy amplification).







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- Pilot signal at 0 Hz for frequency recovery and phase compensation
- Locally generated local oscillator
- Polarization diversity detection system
- True heterodyne detection



Input: 64-QAM probabilistic shaped

$$|lpha_{k,l}| = (k+il) \sqrt{(V_A)/\left(2\sum_{k,l}P_{k,l}\sqrt{k^2+l^2}
ight)}$$

$P_{k,l} = \exp\left(-\nu\left(k^2 + l^2\right)\right) / \sum_{k,l} P_{k,l}$ instituto de universidade telecomunicações

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Quantum Signal at ADC+DSP output



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The characterization of the receiver's noise is essential to assess the security of the CV-QKD system.





Typically, the receiver's noise characterization is provided at the beginning of an experiment where several datasets of quantum signal are obtained considering the same receiver's noise characterization.

Receiver's noise characterization		Quantum Signal	Quantum Signal	Quantum Signal	Quantum Cianal	
Shot-Noise	Thermal Noise	Quantum Signal	Quantum Signai	Quantum Signal	Quantum Signal	

In a continuous operating system, the receiver's noise characterization should be provided from time to time. Ideally, the receiver's noise is characterized for each measured quantum signal dataset.

	Receiver's noise	characterization		Receiver's noise		
	Shot-Noise	Thermal Noise	Quantum Signai	Shot-Noise	Thermal Noise	Quantum Signal
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Polarization drift over optical fibers



Solution:

Polarization diversity heterodyne detection

 \Rightarrow Passive equipment





Solution:

Constant modulus algorithm (CMA) equalization

 \Rightarrow Digital implementation



$$\mathbf{X}_{i}^{\mathrm{H}}(n) = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{X}_{\mathrm{P,B}_{\mathrm{H}}}(n), \hat{X}_{\mathrm{P,B}_{\mathrm{H}}}(n-1), \cdots, \hat{X}_{\mathrm{P,B}_{\mathrm{H}}}(n-N) \end{bmatrix},$$
$$\mathbf{X}_{i}^{\mathrm{V}}(n) = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{X}_{\mathrm{P,B}_{\mathrm{V}}}(n), \hat{X}_{\mathrm{P,B}_{\mathrm{V}}}(n-1), \cdots, \hat{X}_{\mathrm{P,B}_{\mathrm{V}}}(n-N) \end{bmatrix}.$$
$$\mathbf{X}_{o}^{\mathrm{H}}(n) = (\mathbf{h}_{\mathrm{H}}(n))^{H} \mathbf{u}_{i}(n),$$

here
$$\mathbf{X}_{o}^{\mathrm{V}}(n) = (\mathbf{h}_{\mathrm{V}}(n))^{H} \mathbf{u}_{i}(n),$$

- $\mathbf{u}_i(n) = \left[\mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{H}}(n); \mathbf{X}_i^{\mathrm{V}}(n) \right],$ $\mathbf{h}_{\mathrm{H}}(n) = \left[\mathbf{h}_{\mathrm{HH}}(n); \mathbf{h}_{\mathrm{HV}}(n) \right],$
- $\mathbf{h}_{V}(n) = [\mathbf{h}_{VH}(n); \mathbf{h}_{VV}(n)].$



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Extraction Key Rate



Extraction Key Rate

$$K = \frac{n}{N} \left(1 - \text{FER}\right) \left[\beta I_{BA} - \chi_{BE} - \Delta(n) \right] + \Delta(n) = 7\sqrt{\frac{\log_2(2/\overline{\epsilon})}{n}} + \frac{2}{n} \log_2(1/\epsilon_{PA})$$
$$I_{BA} = \log_2\left(1 + \text{SNR}\right) = \log_2\left(1 + \frac{2T\eta\langle n \rangle}{T\eta\xi + 2 + 2\xi_{\text{thermal}}}\right) \quad \chi_{BE} = \sum_{i=1}^2 G\left(\frac{\mu_i - 1}{2}\right) - \sum_{i=3}^5 G\left(\frac{\mu_i - 1}{2}\right)$$

Covariance Matrix Alice-Bob

$$\gamma_{\rm AB} = \begin{bmatrix} V \mathbb{I}_2 & \sqrt{T} Z \sigma_Z \\ \sqrt{T} Z \sigma_Z & (TV + 1 - T + T\epsilon) \mathbb{I}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$Z = 2\sqrt{T_{\rm ch}} \operatorname{Tr} \left(\tau^{1/2} \hat{a} \tau^{1/2} \hat{a}^{\dagger} \right) - \sqrt{2T_{\rm ch} \xi W}$$

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$$W = \sum_{k,l} P_{k,l} \left(\langle \alpha_{k,l} | \hat{a}_{\tau} \dagger \hat{a}_{\tau} | \alpha_{k,l} \rangle - | \langle \alpha_{k,l} | \hat{a}_{\tau} | \alpha_{k,l} \rangle |^2 \right)$$

And, the density matrix describing the average state sent by Alice

$$\tau = \sum_{k,l} P_{k,l} |\alpha_{k,l}\rangle \langle \alpha_{k,l}|$$

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Reconciliation Efficiency

Assures that the number of bits extracted is not higher than the value allowed by information reconciliation.







R

Channel's capacity

$$C \approx 2 I_{\mathrm{BA}} \approx 2 \log_2 \left(1 + \mathrm{SNR}\right)$$

Information Reconciliation





Frame Error Rate

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$$K \propto (1 - \text{FER}) \left(\beta I_{\text{BA}} - \chi_{\text{BE}} - \Delta(N^{\text{IR}})\right)$$

> Considering multidimensional and sign reconciliation:



- Multidimensional reconciliation of dimension 8 can extract keys for low SNR values.
- For short transmission distances, multidimensional reconciliation with dimension 4 shows higher performance.

Information Exchanged Alice - Bob

Amount of information exchanged from Alice to Bob and from Bob to Alice for each post processing step



Bandwidth Requirements on the Classical Channel

- In the link direction from Alice to Bob, no difference is found in the classical channel's bandwidth regarding the dimension of multidimensional reconciliation
- In the link direction from Bob to Alice, the step demanding the highest amount of information to be exchanged in the classical information channel is the reconciliation step, with the parameter estimation and the amplification privacy step orders requiring several of magnitude less information

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The information reconciliation step is mostly due to the exchange of the side information, of namely the rotation matrices for multidimensional reconciliation, corresponding to 97.26%, 98.61%, and 99.30% of the bandwidth demand for multidimensional reconciliation of dimension 2, 4, and 8, respectively. niversidade

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PAVING THE WAY WITH PORTUGUESE TECHNOLOGY



Two sites of MoD, 4.5km apart, were connected using a CV-QKD link Hardware security modules were used to encrypt the communication Fully Portuguese-developed technology

GNS

inercid at



June 30, 2021



Server: ParabénsIII Sugiro festejar nos pastéis de belémi You: boa iseia


QSCRIPT2 - Field Experimentation of the CV-QKD system with 64-QAM as part of the Portuguese Army Exercise ARTEX (ARmy Technological EXperimentation), in the Campo Militar de Santa Margarida







June 1, 2023

Field Demonstration of a cutting-edge quantum-link CV-QKD system at REPMUS & NATO Dynamic Messenger 2023 (DYMS23) Exercises in the Portuguese Navy



September 21, 2023

Quantum Communications Group



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Thank you for Your Attention

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