Quantum Key Distribution with Blind Polarization Bases

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We propose a new quantum key distribution scheme that uses the blind polarization basis. In our scheme the sender and the receiver share key information by exchanging qubits with arbitrary polarization angles without basis reconciliation. As only random polarizations are transmitted, our protocol is secure even when a key is embedded in a not-so-weak coherent-state pulse. We show its security against the photon number splitting attack and the impersonation attack.

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Quantum key distribution (QKD) [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6], whose security is guaranteed by the laws of physics, has attracted widespread attention as it is ultimately secure and does not require computational and mathematical complexity unlike its classical counterparts [7]. Since the seminal work of a QKD protocol (BB84) by Bennett and Brassard [1], there have been theoretical proposals, experimental realizations [2] and their security proofs [8]. Recently, the security was proved based on entanglement [9] for both the single-photon QKD [1] and the entangled-state QKD [8]. The continuous-variable QKD [2] has also been proved to be a promising protocol to send secret keys with high transmission rate.

The QKD is one of the most promising applications of quantum information science and the gap between theory and practice has become narrower. In practical single-photon QKD, the source sometimes inevitably produces more than one photon at a time. In this case, the QKD is vulnerable to the photon number splitting (PNS) attack in which an eavesdropper (Eve) splits photons from the many-photon field and keeps them. Eve measures her photons when the bases are announced via the classical channel. The PNS attack is not always the best strategy, for example, as the photon cloning attack can sometimes be more powerful. The two attacks were compared in [3].

Recently Boström and Felder [10] came up with a conceptually new type of quantum secret coding, which allows information to be transmitted in a deterministic secure way, based on entanglement and two-way communication. This direct quantum coding protocol, sometimes called the ping-pong protocol, has been extended to single-photon implementation [11] and its security was extensively studied [12].

In this Letter, we propose a new QKD scheme in which the basis reconciliation via a classical channel is not necessary as an advantage. In this QKD scheme, Alice chooses a random value of angle $\theta$ and prepares a photon state with the polarization of that angle. Bob also chooses another random value of angle $\phi$ and further rotates the polarization direction of the received photon state by $\phi$ and then returns to Alice. Alice encodes the message by rotating the polarization angle by $\pm \pi/4$ after compensating the angle by $-\theta$. Bob reads the photon state by measuring the polarization, after compensating the angle by $-\phi$. Alice and Bob shall choose random angles, $\theta$ and $\phi$, for each transmission of qubits. This will be continued until the desired number of bits are created.

The important advantages of our protocol are manifold: 1) The reconciliation of the polarization basis is not necessary. The strong point of our protocol is that the selected polarization angles $\theta$ and $\theta + \phi$ are not necessary to discuss with each other as Bob and Alice do not need to know the other’s polarization basis. Moreover, this may significantly increase the bit creation rate compared to the BB84 protocol and, in an ideal case, enables the direct quantum coding [13]. 2) In most other two-way QKD’s, the receiver sends a random qubit and the key sender randomly decides one of the two sets of unitary operations on it. The unitary operation then becomes the key in the two-way QKD. A problem with this scheme is that the key may be disclosed to an eavesdropper who sends a spy photon along with the receiver’s random photon traveling to the sender [14]. However, in our protocol, all codings are random, which makes it robust against such the attack. 3) Our coding may be implemented by laser pulses (the security is guaranteed even for relatively high-intensity laser pulses). This advantage is due to the fact that the polarizations are completely arbitrary which makes our protocol resistant to both the PNS attack and the attack based on two photon interference [15]. Meanwhile, one of the practical difficulties of the implementation of polarization QKD is the random fluctuation of the polarization due to birefringence in the fiber. However, as Muller et al. [16] pointed out, the time scale of the random fluctuations in fibers is tens of minutes which is long enough to enable polarization tracking to compensate them. The rate of errors caused by technical imperfections using today’s technology is of
the order of a few percent under which our protocol is considered to be secure.2

Protocol.- The procedure for the proposed QKD is as follows:

(a.1) Alice prepares a linearly polarized qubit in its initial state |ψ⟩ = |0⟩, where |0⟩ and |1⟩ represent two orthogonal polarizations of the qubit, and chooses a random angle θ.

(a.2) Alice rotates the polarization of the qubit by θ to bring the state of the qubit to |ψ₁⟩ = ˆUθ|ψ⟩ = cos θ|0⟩ − sin θ|1⟩, where ˆUθ is the unitary operator which rotates the polarization angle along the y axis and ˆσy is the Pauli-y operator. Alice sends the qubit to Bob.

(a.3) Bob chooses another random angle φ and rotates the polarization of the received qubit by φ: |ψ₂⟩ = ˆUφ|ψ₁⟩ = cos(θ + φ)|0⟩ − sin(θ + φ)|1⟩. Bob sends the qubit back to Alice.

(a.4) Alice rotates the polarization angle of the qubit by −θ and then encodes the message by further rotating the polarization angle of ±π/4: |ψ₃⟩ = ˆUy(±π/4)|ψ₂⟩ = ˆUy(±π/4)|ψ₁⟩. Alice sends the qubit to Bob. (Alice and Bob have predetermined that π/4 is, say, “0” and −π/4 is “1”.)

(a.5) Bob measures the polarization after rotating the polarization by −φ: |ψ₄⟩ = ˆUy(−φ)|ψ₃⟩ = ˆUy(±π/4)|ψ₀⟩. ˆUy(±π/4) and ˆUy(−π/4) are orthogonal to each other, which enables Bob to read the keys precisely.

By repeating the above protocol k times with different random phases, Alice and Bob share k bits of information. In order to verify the integrity of the shared key, the convention is to use a public channel to reveal some information to Eve. In the protocol (a.1)-(a.5), the information much by the intercept-and-resend attack as all three signal transmissions are of random polarizations. In our protocol, the random polarizations lie on the equator of the Poincaré sphere. The optimum estimation of a single-photon qubit in this case gives the fidelity 3/4[18] which is one when the estimation is perfect or zero when the original state is orthogonal to the estimation. (In this Letter, we will consider the fidelity as the amount of information as in[18,19].) The interference can be easily noticed during the protocol (a.6). Another possible attack is that Eve sends a spy pulse to Bob to find the random value φ of Bob’s operation. In order to do so, Eve should perform quantum tomography which requires an intense spy pulse. This should be able to be noticed easily.

A single-photon QKD is not very economical not only because it is difficult to have a reliable single-photon source but also because photons can easily be lost due to imperfect channel efficiency. In particular, our protocol has to travel three times between Alice and Bob so the loss may not be negligible. If a key is encoded on a coherent-state pulse, the protocol can be vulnerable against the PNS attack. We thus examine the security of our protocol against the PNS attack. A coherent-state pulse of its amplitude α (α ∈ ℜ) is |α⟩ = exp(−α²/2)∑∞ₙ=0 αⁿ/√n!|n⟩ where |n⟩ is the photon-number eigenstate. The mean photon number of the pulse is α². Let us assume that the channel efficiency is η for one trip either from Alice to Bob or vice versa. The amplitude then reduces to ηα from α. For convenience, η is taken to be real throughout the Letter.

(Attack 1) As usual, we assume that Eve is so superior that her action is limited only by the laws of physics. She replaces the lossy channel by a perfect one and puts a beam splitter of the amplitude transmittivity η in the middle. The reflected field, which is a coherent state with its amplitude √1−η²α, will be the source of information to Eve. In the protocol (a.1)-(a.5), the information

![FIG. 1: Schematic diagram for the experimental setup. PR: Polarization Rotator; M1, M2, M3, and M4: Mirrors; PD0 and PD1: Photodetectors; PBS: Polarization Beam Splitter.](image-url)
transmitted between Alice and Bob is of random polarization. From earlier works \[13, 14\], we know that the maximum information one can obtain from a set of identically prepared qubits whose polarization is completely unknown, depends on the number of qubits. Massar and Popescu \[13\] found that the maximum amount of information which can be extracted from \(n\) identical spin-1/2 particles is
\[
I(n) = (n + 1)/(n + 2)
\]
when the particle lies at any point on the Poincaré sphere. However, in our protocol, the photon polarizations lie on the equator of the Poincaré sphere. In this case, Derka et al. \[13\] found that the optimum state estimation from \(n\) qubits gives the maximal mean fidelity
\[
I(n) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n+1} \sum_{\ell=0}^{n-1} \sqrt{n\ell \binom{n}{\ell+1}}.
\] (1)

Let us first consider the maximum information Eve can get from the Alice→Bob channel in (a.2). The probability \(P(n)\) of there being \(n\) photons in the coherent state \(|\sqrt{1-\eta^2}\alpha\rangle\) is
\[
P_{a.2}(n) = \exp[-(1-\eta^2)\alpha^2] \frac{(1-\eta^2)\alpha^2/n!}{n}.
\] (2)

Then the maximum amount of information Eve can get from the channel in (a.2) is \(I_{a.2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_{a.2}(n)I(n)\). Eve has to take the PNS attack on the Bob→Alice channel in (a.3). As Bob has received the attenuated coherent state \(|\eta\alpha\rangle\), the amplitude of Eve’s state is \(\eta(1-\eta^2)^{1/2}\alpha\). Similarly, the amplitude of Eve’s state from tapping the Alice→Bob channel in (a.4) is \(\eta^2(1-\eta^2)^{1/2}\alpha\). We calculate the maximum information \(I_{a.3}\) and \(I_{a.4}\).

It is obvious \[14\] that the overall maximum information Eve can obtain is bounded by \(I_E = \min(I_{a.2}, I_{a.3}, I_{a.4})\), which is plotted in Figs. 2 (solid lines) for various cases. For the realistic channel efficiency \(\eta^2 = 0.5\), the pulse of its amplitude \(\alpha = 2.83\) gives the average number of photons delivered to Bob about 1 after the process (a.4). Figure 2 (a) shows that Eve’s information in this case is bounded by about 0.7, while Alice and Bob always have the perfect information, i.e. the amount of information \(I_{AB}\) between Alice and Bob is unity. Even though the probability of not having a photon is about 36.8% for a coherent-state pulse of its amplitude 1, as Alice and Bob discard the empty qubits, this should not lower the shared information.

As \(\alpha\) gets larger, we see that Eve’s information becomes unity in Fig. 2 (a). It is known that the rate of the secure key depends on the difference between \(I_{AB}\) and \(I_E\) \[24\]. As \(\alpha\) gets larger the rate will decrease. Another interesting result seen in Fig. 2 (b) is that the maximum bound for Eve’s information does not necessarily grow as the channel becomes less efficient. Eve’s information is bounded by the minimum of \(I_{a.2}, I_{a.3}\) and \(I_{a.4}\) which depend on the intensities of the qubit pulses during (a.2), (a.3) and (a.4), respectively. The intensity of the qubit pulse decreases as the number of its laps between Alice and Bob increases. \(I_E\) is thus determined by \(I_{a.4}\), proportional to the intensity of the qubit pulse, \((1-\eta^2)\eta^2\alpha^2\) which maximizes at \(\eta^2 = 2/3\). When \(\eta\) is small, as many photons are taken out during the initial transmission (a.2), there remain too few photons to give lesser information in the later stage (a.4). The information bound grows as \(\eta\) grows but it eventually converges to \(I_E = 0.5\) as \(\eta^2 \rightarrow 1\), shown in Fig. 2 (b).

(Attack 2) If Alice and Bob do not randomly check the intensities at (a.2) and (a.3), Eve only needs to make sure that the final amplitude, which Bob measures at (a.4), is \(\eta^2\alpha\). Then \(I_E\) is optimized when Eve extracts the same amount of information at each step of (a.2), (a.3) and (a.4) keeping the final amplitude which is measured by Bob. In this case, \(I_E = I_{a.2} = I_{a.3} = I_{a.4}\) and the amplitude of Eve’s field is always \(\sqrt{(1-\eta^2)/3}\alpha\). The amount of information is plotted in dotted lines (Fig. 2), where \(I_E\) monotonously grows as the channel becomes less efficient. For \(\eta^2 = 0.5\) and \(\alpha = 2.83\), \(I_E \approx 0.83\).

(Imposition Attack) Our protocol is vulnerable to an impersonation attack \[21\] where Eve1 impersonates Bob to Alice reading the key then sends it to Eve2. Receiving the key, Eve2, who impersonates Alice to Bob, relays it to Bob without being noticed. We suggest to

![Graph](image_url)
slightly modify the protocol against this impersonation attack on the quantum channel, leaving basic philosophy of the protocol the same. Let us consider that Alice, instead of one pulse, sends two coherent-state pulses of the polarization angles \( \theta_1 \) and \( \theta_2 \). Bob rotates the polarization angles of the pulses by \( \phi + (−1)^s \pi/4 \) and \( \phi + (−1)^s \pi/4 \), where the shuffling parameter \( s \in \{0, 1\} \) is randomly chosen by Bob and \( \oplus \) denotes addition modulo 2. Receiving the two pulses of their polarization angles \( \theta_1 + (−1)^s \pi/4 \) and \( \theta_2 + (−1)^s \pi/4 \), Alice rotates the polarization angles of the pulses by \( −\theta_1 + (−1)^s \pi/4 \) and \( −\theta_2 + (−1)^s \pi/4 \) respectively, where \( k \in \{0, 1\} \) is the key value. She blocks one of the qubits and sends the other to Bob. It is important for Alice to delay the first pulse if it is let go, so that impersonating Eve does not recognize which pulse was blocked. Here, we introduce the blocking factor \( b \) to denote the case to let the \( b^k \) qubit go. The qubit in state \( |ψ^s(1)\rangle = |ψ^1(2)\rangle = |φ + \pi/2\rangle \) and \( |ψ^0(2)\rangle = |ψ^1(1)\rangle = |φ\rangle \) for the key value \( k = 0 \), and \( |ψ^1(1)\rangle = |ψ^1(2)\rangle = |ψ^0(2)\rangle = |φ\rangle \) and \( |ψ^1(1)\rangle = |ψ^1(2)\rangle = |ψ^0(2)\rangle = |φ\rangle \) for \( k = 1 \). Upon receiving the qubit, Bob applies \( U_y(−\phi) \) on it and measures the polarization. Depending on blocking as well as shuffling, he obtains the measurement outcome \( sk^b = s + k + b \) as the pre-key bit value. Alice publicly announces her blocking factor \( b \) for Bob to be able to decode the original key bit \( k = s + b + l \). Alice and Bob verify the shared key by exchanging the hash value of the key. The shuffling parameter \( s \) is Bob’s private information, which introduces additional random flipping of the key. Eve’s impersonation without knowing \( s \) value should induce errors in shared key with the probability of 0.5 and be noticed during the comparison of the hash value. In implementation, two pulses of a key could be comfortably manipulated for their separation of about 100nsec while the distance between two keys may be in the order of 100µ sec. We have restricted our discussion only to the impersonation attack on the quantum channel. If such an attack is considered for the public channel as well, an authentication procedure has to be introduced.

Remarks.- We have considered a new QKD protocol which does not require reconciliation of polarization bases. All the operations are random and independent, which makes the protocol robust against eavesdropping attacks. The protocol is secure even for a not-so-weak coherent-state pulse, which may overlook a problem, a key has to travel three times between Alice and Bob. We have assumed for Alice and Bob to abolish the keys if hash comparison was negative and also ignored possible noise. The error rate due to noise is currently about a few percentage, under which Eve’s information is not more than the information shared by Alice and Bob. It should be possible to estimate a security threshold and proceed with standard classical protocols to distill a shorter secret key via privacy amplification.

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