Quantum cryptography: a practical information security perspective*

Kenneth G. Paterson, Fred Piper and Rüdiger Schack Department of Mathematics, Royal Holloway, University of London Egham, Surrey TW20 0EX, UK

16 December 2004

Abstract

Quantum Key Exchange (QKE, also known as Quantum Key Distribution or QKD) allows communicating parties to securely establish cryptographic keys. It is a well-established fact that all QKE protocols require that the parties have access to an authentic channel. Without this authenticated link, QKE is vulnerable to man-in-the-middle attacks. Overlooking this fact results in exaggerated claims and/or false expectations about the potential impact of QKE. In this paper we present a systematic comparison of QKE with traditional key establishment protocols in realistic secure communication systems.

1 Introduction

It is impossible to obtain information about a physical system without disturbing it in a random, uncontrollable way. This fundamental quantum-mechanical law guarantees the security of QKE protocols by enabling the communicating parties to put an upper bound on how much an eavesdropper can know about the key. QKE protocols such as BB84 [1] have been proved to be secure under the assumption that the known laws of quantum physics hold [2]. Given this assumption, QKE is secure even in the presence of an adversary with unlimited computational power. See [3] for an overview of QKE and other aspects of quantum cryptology. Following common usage, we will call *unconditionally secure* any protocol whose security does not depend on assumptions about the computational power of a potential adversary.

Although QKE requires the use of (currently expensive) special purpose hardware and/or networks, secure communications systems based on QKE appear to enjoy an advantage over most systems based on public key cryptography. For the latter would become insecure if progress in algorithms for integer factorization or discrete logarithms were made, and in particular if a quantum computer were built [4]. Because of this, unconditionally secure QKE is often portrayed as being the ideal solution to the problem of distributing cryptographic keys. We will now show that this view only tells part of the story and has led to exaggerated claims and/or false expectations about the advantages of systems using QKE (e.g., see [5]).

At least two other components are required in addition to the basic QKE protocol in order to make a secure communications system.

^{*}This paper was originally posted with the title *Why quantum cryptography*? It was published in Quantum Communication and Security, Proceedings, NATO Advanced Research Workshop, edited by M. Żukowski, S. Kilin and J. Kowalik, p. 175–180 (IOS Press, Amsterdam, 2007).

Firstly, QKE requires that the parties have access to an *authentic* channel (which need neither be quantum nor secret). Any QKE protocol that does not fulfill this requirement is vulnerable to a man-in-the-middle attack. For previous discussions of authentication in QKE, see [6, 7]. The authentication mechanism used to provide the authentic channel may or may not be unconditionally secure. We refer to the combination of authentication mechanism and QKE protocol as the *key exchange sub-system*. The key exchange sub-system will only be unconditionally secure if the authentication mechanism and QKE protocol are.

Secondly, the keys that are exchanged in the QKE protocol are in turn used to protect communication of data using an encryption algorithm. The encryption algorithm may or may not be unconditionally secure. The *overall* QKE-based communications system will only be unconditionally secure if the authentication mechanism, QKE protocol and encryption algorithm all are.

It is common for vendors of QKE-based systems to offer the option of combining an unconditionally secure key exchange sub-system with a conventional encryption algorithm such as 3DES or AES [8, 9]. Of course, an overall communications system constructed in this way cannot be unconditionally secure. We call such systems *hybrid* systems.

Typically, a QKE protocol forms only one component of a complete communications system. Such a system can (in general) only be as secure as its weakest component. Thus, in assessing the security offered by a system using QKE, one must examine the entire system and not rely just on a claim of unconditional security for the QKE protocol component.

These issues appear to be well-known in the quantum cryptography community. Yet to our knowledge there has been no systematic analysis, from the point of view of practical information security, of how these issues impact on the applicability of QKE. Similarly, little has been done to examine how QKE compares to more traditional approaches to establishing secure communications in terms of practicality, cost, and security levels (both those offered by the different approaches and those actually needed in applications).

The present paper intends to provide such an analysis. Our analysis is driven by an examination of the need to provide an authentication channel in QKE systems. In Sections 2 and 3, we show that an unconditionally secure key exchange sub-system making use of QKE requires the pre-establishment of a symmetric key between the communicating parties. We then examine the practical consequences of this in Section 4.

In what follows, we make a division between systems using *public-key authentication* and systems using pre-established *symmetric keys* for authentication. Furthermore, among the latter systems, we will distinguish between hybrid systems and unconditionally secure systems.

2 Systems using public key authentication

In such systems, public key cryptographic mechanisms, e.g., digital signatures, are used to provide the authentic channel needed for QKE. The key exchange sub-system, and hence the overall communications system, will be no more secure than the public key authentication mechanism on which it is based. For example, if RSA digital signatures are used for authentication, a system of this type would become insecure if quantum computers became available. Hence such a system does not offer unconditional security. Moreover, any system using QKE requires a quantum channel (e.g., an optical fiber) between the communicating parties. Commercial QKE products can use existing telecom fiber optics networks to provide the quantum channel [8, 9].

Nevertheless, a system of this type may still offer some security advantages over traditional (i.e. non QKE-based) approaches. In particular, in any successful attack on such a system, the public key authentication mechanism would have to be broken before or during the execution of the QKE protocol. This is in contrast to a system using only classical information and traditional key-establishment techniques, where the messages exchanged in order to establish a key can be stored by the adversary and analyzed at some point in the future, possibly using more advanced cryptanalytic techniques than are available at the time of key establishment.

It follows from the above that, if the authentication mechanism is unbroken at the time of key establishment, and if the one-time pad is used as the encryption algorithm, then transmitted data remain secure indefinitely. Thus, in order to guarantee the long-term security of communications, one would only need to be concerned about the capabilities of attackers today rather than in the future. This could be an attractive solution for protecting government secrets, for example. Similarly, if the authentication mechanism is unbroken at the time of key establishment, and if an encryption algorithm such as AES is used, then the data remain secure as long as that encryption algorithm remains secure. Such a system would also be resilient to attacks in which an adversary was able to learn the private keys of the communicating parties and then mounted a passive eavesdropping attack on subsequent exchanges. Naturally, such a system would not resist active attacks subsequent to private key compromise.

It should be mentioned that there exist proposals for quantum public key protocols, where the quantum state of a string of qubits (quantum bits) is used as a key [10]. Storage, distribution and manipulation of these quantum keys, however, require quantum information processing capabilities beyond the reach of current technology. Using public quantum keys for authentication is thus not an option now or in the foreseeable future.

3 Systems using symmetric key authentication

If the communicating parties already share a secret, symmetric key, then they can use that key to establish the authentic channel needed to support QKE. In essence, both parties attach cryptographic tags to their messages on that channel, the tags depending both on the message transmitted and on the shared key. Such an authentication mechanism can offer either conditional or unconditional security.

The classic approach to providing an unconditionally secure authentic channel is to make use of a message authentication code (MAC) due to Wegman and Carter [11]. In this approach, the parties use the Wegman-Carter MAC together with the pre-established key to authenticate all their messages. The key can be much shorter than the messages being authenticated. All currently existing authentication schemes which offer unconditional security are similar to the Wegman-Carter approach in that they depend on a pre-established symmetric key.

A key exchange system using QKE and symmetric key authentication differs from a traditional key exchange system using public key cryptography in two main respects. Firstly, as we have already mentioned, it requires a quantum channel between the communicating parties. Secondly, it requires the initial establishment and management of secret keys between the communicating parties. This is certainly feasible, even on a large scale; a good example is provided by GSM mobile communications systems. In a GSM system, a user's Subscriber Identity Module (SIM) contains a 128 bit symmetric key which is shared with the subscriber's network service provider. This key is used in an authentication protocol, one product of which is a fresh, symmetric data encryption key. In mid-2003, GSM systems were in operation in 205 countries, with more than 1 billion subscribers [12]. Such symmetric hierarchical systems pre-date the advent of public key cryptography and have a long and successful history of use in telecommunications and finance.

We now further subdivide our study of systems using pre-established symmetric keys for authentication.

3.1 Hybrid systems

QKE can be used as a component in a hybrid system, where the secret bits resulting from the QKE protocol are used as keying material in a symmetric encryption algorithm such as 3DES or AES. Such a hybrid communications system using QKE can offer security advantages over conventional alternatives. For example, it may provide unconditionally secure refresh of cryptographic keys if an unconditionally secure authentication mechanism is used. However, the security of the overall communications system will be limited by the security of the symmetric encryption algorithm used. The overall security offered by this approach is therefore only conditional.

3.2 Unconditionally secure systems

Here the communicating parties must establish an authentic channel with unconditional security and use an unconditionally secure encryption algorithm. An unconditionally secure encryption algorithm is provided only by the one-time pad. In order to achieve this level of security for encryption, as many key bits as there are message bits must be established by the QKE protocol. This may be a problem in some practical applications, as the key bit rates of current QKE systems are relatively small. In a traditional one-time pad system (not making use of QKE), the pre-established key must be at least as long as the data to be communicated. A QKE system has an advantage here in that the pre-established key can be relatively short, as it is used only to authenticate an initial run of the QKE protocol, with part of the keying material exchanged in that run being used to authenticate subsequent runs.

To summarize, by combining an unconditionally secure authentication scheme with a QKE protocol, one can produce a key exchange sub-system which enjoys a level of security that can be established unconditionally, assuming only the validity of the laws of quantum physics. If the one-time pad is used as the encryption algorithm, then the overall communications system can also be made unconditionally secure.

4 Discussion

It is likely that using QKE with public key authentication (and therefore not requiring pre-establishment of a symmetric key) has security benefits when the long-term security of data is of importance. There may also be some security advantages in using QKE in hybrid systems as described above.

However, QKE loses much of its appeal in these settings, as the overall system security is no longer guaranteed by the laws of quantum physics alone. To obtain an overall communication system with unconditional security, an unconditionally secure key exchange sub-system is required. From our analysis, it is evident that to obtain such a sub-system, a pre-established secret key is required. We note that this requirement is seldom emphasized by proponents of QKE. It is now also clear that QKE, when unconditionally secure, does not solve the problem of key distribution. Rather, it exacerbates it, by making the preestablishment of symmetric keys a requirement. The often-made comparison between the unconditional security of QKE and the conditional security offered by public key cryptography overlooks this requirement of QKE. The establishment and subsequent management of symmetric keys is a significant undertaking, and any comparison of QKE and public key cryptography should take this fact into account.

The pre-established symmetric keys needed to provide authentication in an unconditionally secure QKE protocol could instead be used directly in a symmetric encryption algorithm, or as the basis for a symmetric hierarchical system like that employed in GSM and many other systems. Thus a complete evaluation of the purported benefits of QKE should also compare the level of security offered by QKE to the level that can be achieved using conventional symmetric techniques alone.

For a well-designed symmetric encryption algorithm, the best attack should require the attacker to expend an amount of effort equivalent to that of an exhaustive key search in order to break the algorithm, even if large amounts of plaintext and ciphertext are available to the attacker. With the key lengths available today in algorithms like AES, an exhaustive

key search is simply not a realistic attack. Furthermore, all known attacks against such algorithms using quantum computers would be easily countered simply by doubling the key length. Thus the only applications where using an unconditionally secure QKE protocol appears justified are those for which the level of security offered by the best available symmetric encryption algorithm is judged insufficient because of the risk that the algorithm turns out not to be well-designed and there are advances made in the cryptanalysis of that algorithm. In such applications, the QKE protocol should only be used with the one-time pad for encryption, since any advance in cryptanalysis of symmetric algorithms may also compromise the encryption algorithm used in a hybrid QKE system. We suggest that this set of applications is in fact rather limited: we do not foresee many commercial uses where the expense associated with such a degree of security would be warranted. Adding to this the fact that conventional techniques have no requirements for special-purpose hardware or dedicated networks, we believe that the traditional symmetric approach has much to offer in comparison with unconditionally secure QKE. Whilst it is certainly worthwhile to study the impact that the advent of quantum computing might have on conventional cryptography, it is not true that large-scale quantum computing would bring about the death of all conventional cryptographic approaches. Rather, it would serve to enhance the value of long-established symmetric key management techniques.

Acknowledgment

We thank Burt Kaliski for useful discussions on the content of this paper.

References

- C. H. Bennett and G. Brassard, Quantum cryptography: public key distribution and coin tossing, in *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computers, systems* and signal processing (IEEE, Bangalore, India, 1984), p. 175.
- [2] D. Mayers, Unconditional security in quantum cryptography, Journal of the ACM 48, 351 (2001).
- [3] D. Gottesman and H.-K. Lo, From Quantum Cheating to Quantum Security, Physics Today 53 (11), 22 (2000).
- [4] See, e.g., the end of section II.B.2 of N. Gisin, G. Ribordy, W. Tittel and H. Zbinden, Quantum cryptography, Rev. Mod. Phys. 74, 145 (2002).
- [5] E. Klarreich, Can you keep a secret?, Nature **418**, 270 (2002).
- [6] C. H. Bennett, G. Brassard and A. K. Ekert, Scientific American 267 (3), 26 (1992).
- [7] M. Dušek, O. Haderka, M. Hendrych and R. Myška, Quantum identification system, Phys. Rev. A 60, 149 (1999).
- [8] idQuantique SA, Geneva, Switzerland, http://www.idquantique.com.
- [9] MagiQ Technologies, New York, USA, http://www.magiqtech.com.
- [10] D. Gottesman and I. Chuang, Quantum digital signatures, e-print quant-ph/0105032.
- [11] M. N. Wegman and J. L. Carter, New hash functions and their use in authentication and set equality, Journal of Computer and System Sciences 22, 265 (1981).
- [12] For further information about global deployment of GSM systems, see http://www.gsmworld.com/news/statistics/index.shtml.