

# Hacking commercial quantum cryptography systems by tailored bright illumination

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**The peculiar properties of quantum mechanics allow two remote parties to communicate a private, secret key, which is protected from eavesdropping by the laws of physics<sup>1-4</sup>. So-called quantum key distribution (QKD) implementations always rely on detectors to measure the relevant quantum property of single photons<sup>5</sup>. Here we demonstrate experimentally that the detectors in two commercially available QKD systems can be fully remote-controlled using specially tailored bright illumination. This makes it possible to tracelessly acquire the full secret key; we propose an eavesdropping apparatus built from off-the-shelf components. The loophole is likely to be present in most QKD systems using avalanche photodiodes to detect single photons. We believe that our findings are crucial for strengthening the security of practical QKD, by identifying and patching technological deficiencies.**

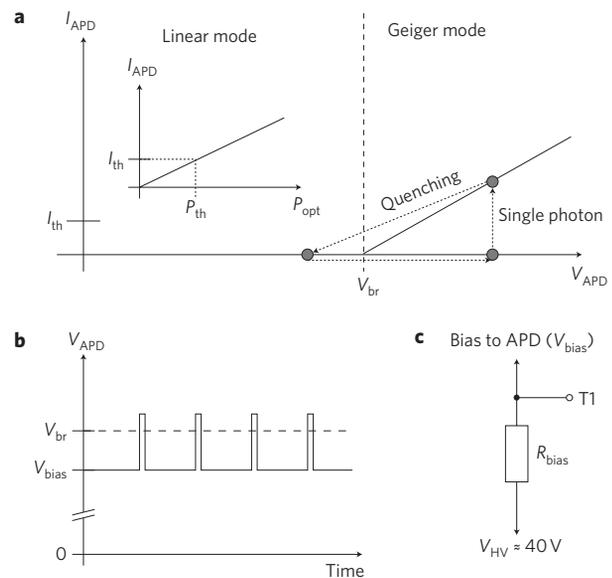
The field of quantum key distribution has evolved rapidly in recent decades. Today, quantum key distribution (QKD) implementations in laboratories can generate key over fibre channels with lengths up to 250 km (ref. 6), and a few QKD systems are even commercially available, promising enhanced security for data communication.

In all proofs for the security of QKD, assumptions are made for the devices involved. However, the components used for experimental realizations of QKD deviate from the models in the security proofs. This has led to iterations in which security threats caused by deviations have been discovered, and the loopholes have been closed either by modification of the implementation, or more general security proofs<sup>7-9</sup>. In other cases, information leaking to the eavesdropper has been quantified<sup>10,11</sup>.

Attacks exploiting the most severe loopholes are usually experimentally unfeasible with current technology. A prominent example is the photon number splitting attack<sup>12</sup>, which requires the eavesdropper Eve to perform a quantum non-demolition measurement of the photon number sent by Alice. The attack is still unfeasible, and has been nullified by improved QKD protocols<sup>13,14</sup>. In contrast, a more implementation-friendly attack is the time-shift attack<sup>15</sup> based on detector efficiency mismatch<sup>16</sup>. Experimentally however, this attack only gave a small information-theoretical advantage for Eve when applied to a modified version of a commercial QKD system<sup>17</sup>. In the attack, Eve captured partial information about the key in 4% of her attempts, such that she could improve her random (brute-force) search over all possible keys.

In this Letter, we demonstrate how two commercial QKD systems id3110 Clavis2 and QPN 5505, from the commercial vendors ID Quantique and MagiQ Technologies, can be fully

cracked. We show experimentally that Eve can blind the gated detectors in the QKD systems using bright illumination, thereby converting them into classical, linear detectors. The detectors are then fully controlled by classical laser pulses superimposed over the bright continuous-wave (c.w.) illumination. Remarkably, the detectors exactly measure what is dictated by Eve; with matching measurement bases Bob detects exactly the bit value sent by Eve, whereas

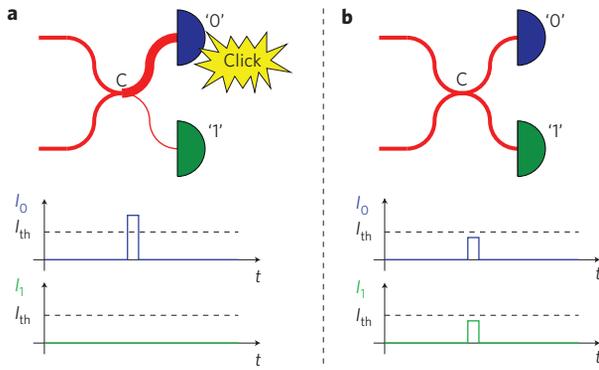


**Figure 1 | APD as a single-photon detector.** **a**, In Geiger mode, where the APD is reverse-biased above the breakdown voltage  $V_{br}$ , an absorbed single photon causes a large current  $I_{APD}$  through the APD. A detection signal called a 'click' occurs when  $I_{APD}$  crosses the threshold  $I_{th}$ . Afterwards,  $V_{APD}$  is lowered below  $V_{br}$  to quench the avalanche, before returning to Geiger mode. Below  $V_{br}$ , in the linear mode, the current  $I_{APD}$  is proportional to the incident optical power  $P_{opt}$ . Then  $I_{th}$  becomes an optical power threshold  $P_{th}$ . **b**, Commercial systems use gated detectors, with the APDs in Geiger mode only when a photon is expected, to reduce false detections called 'dark counts'. In practice, the APD is biased just below  $V_{br}$ , and periodical  $\sim 3$  V voltage pulses create Geiger mode time regions, so-called 'gates'. **c**, In both systems, the bias high-voltage supply  $V_{HV}$  has impedance  $R_{bias}$  ( $R_{bias} = 1$  k $\Omega$  in Clavis2 and 20 k $\Omega$  in QPN 5505) before  $V_{bias}$  is applied to the APD at the point T1. Therefore, any current through  $R_{bias}$  reduces  $V_{bias}$  (see Supplementary Section I for more details).

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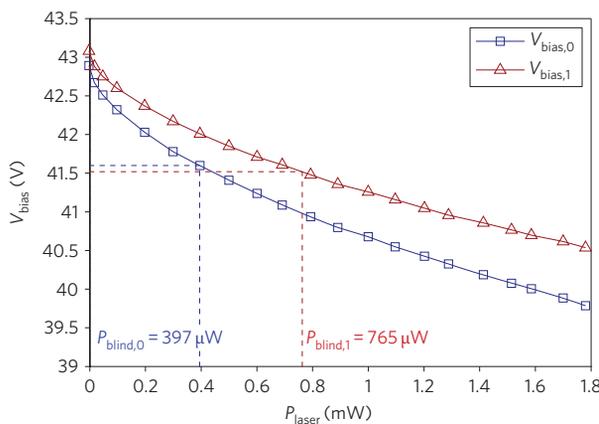
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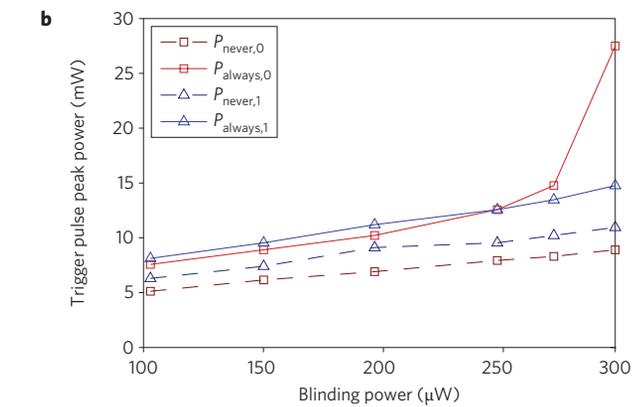
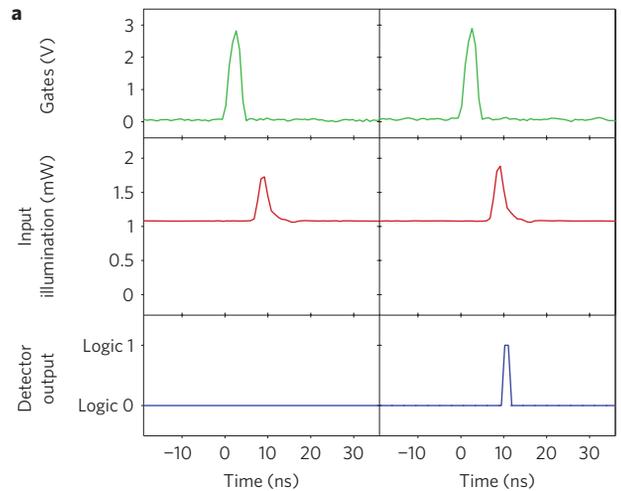
**Figure 2 | How Eve's trigger pulses are detected by Bob.** Schemes show the last 50/50 coupler (C) and Bob's detectors in a phase-encoded QKD system. Line thickness represents optical power.  $I_0/I_1$  is the current running through APD 0/1. **a**, Eve and Bob have selected matching bases, and Eve has detected the bit value 0. Therefore the trigger pulse from Eve interferes constructively and its full power hits detector 0. The current caused by Eve's pulse crosses the threshold current  $I_{th}$  and causes a click. **b**, Eve and Bob have selected opposite bases. The trigger pulse from Eve does not interfere constructively and half of its power hits each detector. This causes no click as the current is below the threshold  $I_{th}$  for each detector.

with incompatible bases the bit is undetected by Bob. Even the detectors' dark counts are completely eliminated (but can be simulated at will by Eve). Based on these experimental results we propose in detail how Eve can attack the systems with off-the-shelf components, obtaining a perfect copy of the raw key without leaving any trace of her presence.

Today most QKD systems use avalanche photodiodes (APDs) to detect single photons<sup>18</sup>. To detect single photons, APDs are operated in Geiger mode (Fig. 1). However, all APDs spend part of the time biased under the breakdown voltage, in the linear mode. During this period, the detector remains sensitive to bright light, with a classical optical power threshold  $P_{th}$ . If Eve has access to the APDs in the linear mode, she may eavesdrop on the QKD system with an intercept-resend (faked-state<sup>19,20</sup>) attack as follows. Eve uses a copy of Bob to detect the states from Alice in a random basis. Eve resends her detection results, but instead of sending pulses at the single photon level she sends bright trigger



**Figure 3 | Bias voltage at T1 versus c.w. laser power for Clavis2.** Detector 0 is blind (dark count rate exactly zero) at  $P_{laser} > 397 \mu W$ , and detector 1 is blind at  $P_{laser} > 765 \mu W$ . QPN 5505 has similar characteristics; due to the larger value of  $R_{bias}$ , its detector 0 goes blind at  $P_{laser} > 60 \mu W$  and detector 1 goes blind at  $P_{laser} > 85 \mu W$  (see Supplementary Section II for more details of QPN 5505 blinding).

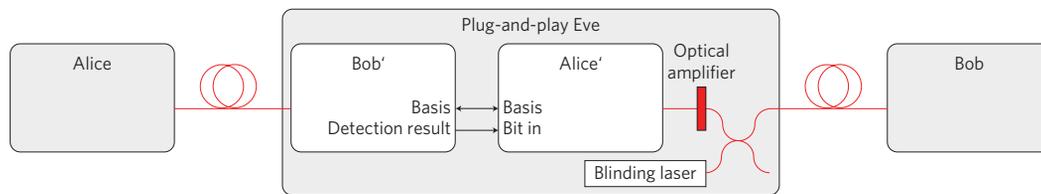


**Figure 4 | Detector control.** **a**, Electrical and optical signal oscillograms when detector 0 in Clavis2 is blinded by 1.08 mW c.w. illumination, and controlled by a superimposed 2.5-ns-long laser pulse timed slightly behind the gate (see Supplementary Section III for detailed measurement setup). The superimposed  $P_{never,0} = 647 \mu W$  (detector 1:  $P_{never,1} = 697 \mu W$ ) trigger pulse never causes a detection event, whereas the  $P_{always,0} = 808 \mu W$  ( $P_{always,1} = 932 \mu W$ ) trigger pulse always causes a detection event. **b**, Click thresholds versus the applied c.w. blinding illumination for the QPN 5505. When the blinding power increases,  $P_{always,0}$  diverges, perhaps because the bias voltage is approaching the punch-through voltage of the APD (see Supplementary Section II).

pulses, with a peak power just above  $P_{th}$ . Bob will only have a detection event if his active basis choice coincides with Eve's basis choice (Fig. 2), otherwise no detector clicks. This causes half of the bits to be lost, but in practice this is not a problem because transmittance from the output of Alice to Bob's detectors is much lower than 1/2. Also Bob's APDs rarely have a quantum efficiency over 50%, but the trigger pulses always cause clicks. For a Bob using passive basis choice, Eve launches the peak power at just above  $2P_{th}$ , because half of the power hits the conjugate basis detectors<sup>20</sup>. Then Bob's detector always clicks.

After the raw key exchange, Bob and Eve have identical bit values and basis choices. Because Alice and Bob communicate openly during sifting, error correction and privacy amplification<sup>5</sup>, Eve simply listens to this classical communication and applies the same operations as Bob to obtain the identical final key.

The attack is surprisingly general. All commercial QKD systems and the vast majority of research systems use APD-based detectors, which all operate their APDs part time in linear mode. Detectors with passively and actively quenched APDs can also be kept in linear mode through blinding<sup>20,21</sup>. The attack works equally well



**Figure 5 | Proposed plug-and-play Eve.** In the plug-and-play scheme<sup>24</sup>, the laser pulses travel from Bob to Alice and back to Bob, passing Bob's interferometer twice. Therefore, polarization drift in the fibre and drift in Bob's interferometer are automatically compensated. Eve consists of copies of Alice (Alice') and Bob (Bob'), which share bit and basis settings, a blinding laser, and an optical amplifier used to obtain the proper trigger pulse power. Owing to the plug-and-play principle, any environmental perturbations in the fibres Alice–Bob' and Alice'–Bob are automatically compensated. See Supplementary Section IV for a more detailed scheme.

on the Scarani–Acin–Ribordy–Gisin 2004 (SARG04)<sup>14</sup> and decoy-state BB84<sup>13</sup> protocols as well as the normal BB84 protocol<sup>4</sup>. With suitable modifications it applies to differential phase shift (DPS)<sup>22</sup>, and given the right set of detector parameters to coherent one-way (COW)<sup>23</sup> protocols.

Note that the threshold  $P_{th}$  should be sufficiently well defined for perfect eavesdropping. To be precise, let detector  $i$  always click from a trigger pulse of optical peak power  $\geq P_{always,i}$ , and never click from a trigger pulse of optical peak power  $\leq P_{never,i}$ . The requirement for Eve to be able to make any single detector click, while none of the other detectors clicks, can be expressed in terms of the click thresholds as

$$\max_i \{P_{always,i}\} < 2 \left( \min_i \{P_{never,i}\} \right) \quad (1)$$

When eavesdropping, simply applying trigger pulses between the gates populates carrier trap levels in the APD, thus raising the dark count probability and causing a too high quantum bit error rate (QBER). To avoid this, Bob's detectors were blinded<sup>20,21</sup>. The detectors are then insensitive to single photons and have no dark counts. Outside the gates the APD is biased below the breakdown voltage, and the current caused by illuminating the APD is increasing with respect to the incident optical power. A current through the APD will decrease the bias voltage over the APD due to the presence of  $R_{bias}$  (Fig. 1c) and the internal resistance of the APD. Figure 3 shows the bias voltage drop at the point T1 in Clavis2 under c.w. illumination.

The blinding is caused by the drop of  $V_{bias}$  such that the APD never operates in the Geiger mode, but rather is a classical photodiode at all times. The voltages  $V_{HV,0/1}$  of the high-voltage supplies do not change; the entire change of  $V_{bias}$  is due to the resistors  $R_{bias}$ . Although shorting this resistor seems like an easy countermeasure, at least for Clavis2 this does not prevent blinding. With higher illumination the electrical power dissipated in the APD generates substantial heat. Raised APD temperature increases its breakdown voltage by about  $0.1 \text{ V } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$  while  $V_{bias}$  remains constant, which also leads to blinding (at several times higher power level, 4–10 mW).

To demonstrate detector control in Clavis2, each detector was blinded with 1.08 mW optical power with a 2.5-ns-long trigger pulse superimposed slightly after the gate. Note that a shorter trigger pulse can be timed inside the gate. Figure 4a shows the response of detector 0 in Clavis2 to trigger pulses at the click thresholds.

Similarly, for the QPN 5505, the trigger pulse was timed with its leading edge about 5 ns after the gate. Figure 4b shows the click thresholds for the detectors when blinded with 100–300  $\mu\text{W}$  c.w. blinding illumination. In this case, for blinding power levels of 100–250  $\mu\text{W}$ , the detectors remain silent at a power level of  $\leq 0.61P_{always,1}$ .

For both systems the click thresholds fulfil equation (1), so perfect eavesdropping is possible. Further, both systems under investigation operate according to the plug-and-play

principle<sup>24</sup>, which allows an easily installable plug-and-play eavesdropper (Fig. 5).

A full eavesdropper based on bright-light detector control has previously been implemented and tested under realistic conditions on a 290-m experimental entanglement-based QKD system (Gerhardt, I. *et al.*, unpublished results). Because the attack is clearly implementable, building a full eavesdropper for a commercial cryptosystem would not further expose the problem. A better use of effort is to concentrate on thoroughly closing the vulnerability. An optical power meter at Bob's entrance with a classical threshold seems like an adequate countermeasure to prevent blinding. However, the power meter output should be included in a security proof. Furthermore, the click threshold at the transition between linear and Geiger mode may be very low, allowing practically non-detectable control pulses. How to design hack-proof detectors is unclear to us at this stage, and all future detectors clearly must be tested for side channels.

We believe that openly discovering and closing security loopholes is a necessary step towards practical and secure QKD, as it has been for multiple security technologies in the past. For example, RSA public key cryptography has been subject to extensive scrutiny, which has led to the discovery of effective attacks based on implementation loopholes<sup>25</sup>. In our view, quantum hacking is an indication of the mature state of QKD rather than its insecurity. Rather than demonstrating that practical QKD cannot become provably secure<sup>26</sup>, our findings clearly show the necessity of investigating the practical security of QKD. Any large loopholes must be eliminated, and remaining imperfections must be incorporated into security proofs.

Both ID Quantique and MagiQ Technologies were notified about the loophole before this publication. ID Quantique has implemented countermeasures. According to MagiQ Technologies the system QPN 5505 has been discontinued; newer models of their system have not been available for our testing.

Received 2 April 2010; accepted 11 July 2010;  
published online 29 August 2010

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### Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the Research Council of Norway (grant no. 180439/V30). The authors acknowledge the overall cooperation and assistance of the Max Planck Institute for the Science of Light, Erlangen, and G. Leuchs personally. L.L. and V.M. thank the Group of Applied Physics at the University of Geneva, ID Quantique and armasuisse Science and Technology for their hospitality, discussions, cooperation and loan of equipment. The Service of Radiology of the Cantonal Hospital of Geneva is thanked for their quick help in revealing the internal layers in the multilayer printed circuit board of a commercial detector.

### Author contributions

V.M. conceived the idea and planned the study. L.L. and V.M. conducted the Clavis2 experiment with the help of C. Wiechers, D.E. and C. Wittmann. L.L. and V.M. conducted the QPN 5505 experiment. L.L. and J.S. wrote the paper and Supplementary information, with input from all authors. J.S. and V.M. supervised the project.

### Additional information

The authors declare no competing financial interests. Supplementary information accompanies this paper at [www.nature.com/naturephotonics](http://www.nature.com/naturephotonics). Reprints and permission information is available online at <http://npg.nature.com/reprintsandpermissions/>. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to L.L.

## Supplementary information: Hacking commercial quantum cryptography systems by tailored bright illumination

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(Dated: August 16, 2010)

### I. DETECTOR DESIGN AND OPERATION PARAMETERS

#### A. Clavis2

Fig. 1 shows an equivalent detector circuit diagram. The APD is biased just below its breakdown voltage by the high voltage supply  $V_{HV,0} = -42.89$  V,  $V_{HV,1} = -43.08$  V. On top of this bias the APD is gated with 2.8 ns TTL pulses every 200 ns from the buffer DD1 to create Geiger mode gates. The gates are applied as PECL signals from the main controller board of Bob, and DD1 converts them to TTL levels (0 V and approximately +3 V). The anode of the APD is AC-coupled to a fast comparator DA1 with the thresholds  $V_{th,0} = 78$  mV and  $V_{th,1} = 82$  mV.

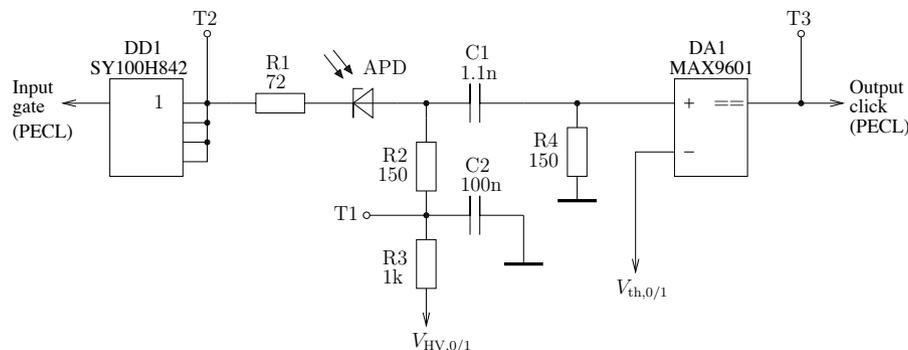


FIG. 1. Equivalent detector bias and comparator circuit in Clavis2 based on reverse engineering. Tap T1: analog tap of the APD bias voltage ( $V_{bias,0/1}$ ) with  $R3 = R_{bias} = 1$  k $\Omega$  in the Letter. T2: analog tap of the gates (Gates in Fig. 4a in the Letter). T3: digital tap of the comparator output (Detector output in Fig. 4a in the Letter).

#### B. QPN 5505

Fig. 2 shows the bias and the gates applied to the APDs, as well as the output in front of the comparator. We have not reverse-engineered the exact circuit performing the mixing of the gates and the bias. The signal shape at the APD output however, indicates that the anode of the APD is AC-coupled to the comparator input, just as in Clavis2.

In the QKD control software, the user can set APD temperature, bias voltage, gate voltage and comparator threshold. The QPN 5505 does not ship with any standard settings. In our experiment, we set the following values which seemed to achieve a good QKD performance: the APD temperature to  $-30$   $^{\circ}$ C, the bias voltage of detectors

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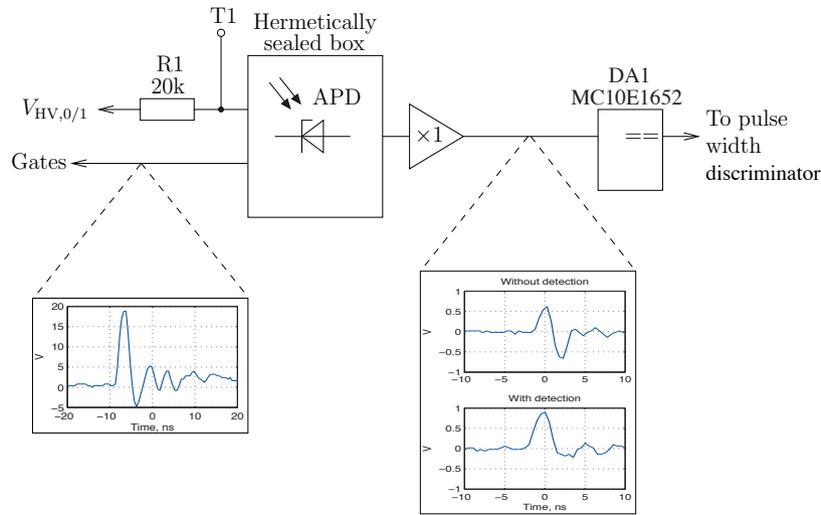


FIG. 2. Schematics of the detection circuit in QPN 5505 based on reverse engineering. Tap T1: analog tap of the APD bias voltage ( $V_{bias,0/1}$ ). The APD as well as parts of the circuit are inside a hermetically sealed box (HSB). The bias voltage from a high voltage supply is connected to the HSB through the resistor  $R1 = R_{bias} = 20\text{ k}\Omega$ . For the settings which we used,  $V_{HV,0} = 41.86\text{ V}$  and  $V_{HV,1} = 41.41\text{ V}$  as measured in the circuit. The gates were applied to the HSB with an amplitude about 10 times larger than the setting in the control software. We do not know how the gates are mixed with the bias because this is done inside the HSB, which we decided not to open. The output of the HSB goes to an analog repeater and then a comparator DA1 which converts the APD output into pulses of different length corresponding to click/no click event. In the experiment, we simply used the QKD software to measure the detector count.

0 and 1 to 41.5 V and 40.5 V, the APD gate voltages to 2 V and the comparator thresholds to 0.4 V. During normal QKD operation, gates are applied at a frequency of 607.5 kHz. With a transmission line consisting of a 10 m fibre pathcord, the detectors had a count rate of about 4000 counts/s each. The dark count rates for detectors 0 and 1 were about 120 counts/s and 210 counts/s. The QBER was about 5%, and the system steadily produced secret key.

II. DETECTOR CONTROL IN QPN 5505

Fig. 3 shows  $V_{bias}$  versus c.w. laser power. In the QPN 5505 in addition to the blinding two other effects were observed. When the illumination was increased above about  $550\text{ }\mu\text{W}$  (at which  $V_{bias}$  was about 33.5 V), the detectors restarted producing one click per gate. For illumination levels beyond 1 mW,  $V_{bias}$  did not drop significantly. We attribute the latter effect to the bias voltage reaching the punch-through voltage of the APD, below which its sensitivity to light decreases several orders of magnitude [1].

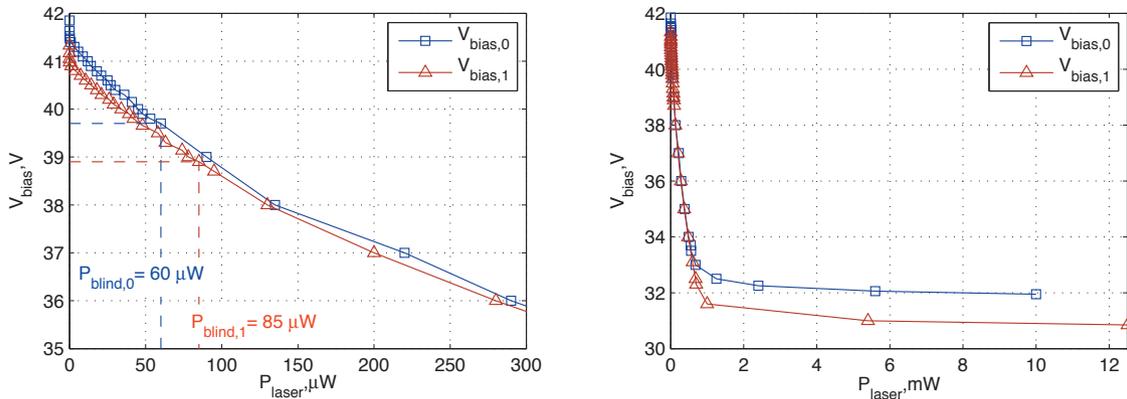


FIG. 3. Bias voltage at T1 versus c.w. laser power for QPN 5505.

### III. MEASUREMENT SETUPS

#### A. Clavis2

Fig. 4 shows the measurement setup used to control the detectors in Clavis2. The trigger signal is tapped directly from the PECL gate signal (before DD1 in Fig. 1).

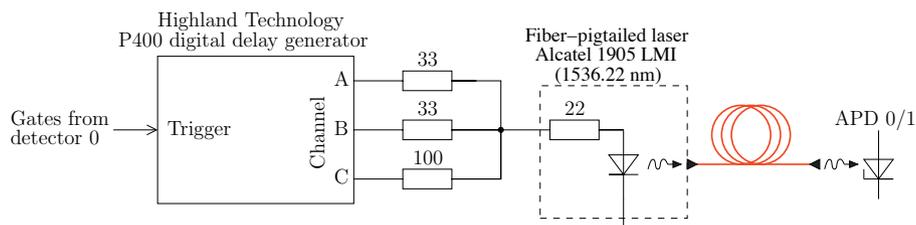


FIG. 4. The setup used in the Clavis2 experiment. A single laser diode produces both c.w. blinding illumination and trigger pulses superimposed to it, by applying DC and pulsed voltage from different channels of the digital delay generator. Since the laser is already biased above threshold when the voltage pulse is applied, the width of the emitted optical trigger pulse remains nearly constant while its peak power is being varied.

#### B. QPN 5505

Fig. 5 shows the measurement setup used to control the detectors in the QPN 5505. A clock signal from the main controller board of Bob was used as a trigger signal.

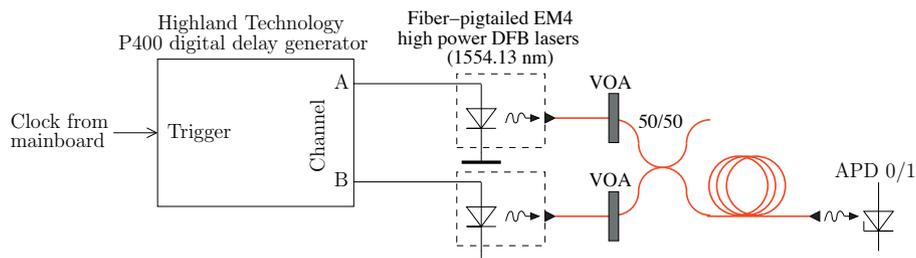


FIG. 5. The setup used in the QPN 5505 experiment. VOA, variable optical attenuator.

### IV. PLUG-AND-PLAY EVE

Plug-and-play QKD systems [2–4] have the feature of automatically compensating any polarization drift in the fibre as well as phase drift in Bob’s interferometer, and can as such be installed on any existing fibre line. For a full discussion of the plug-and-play architecture, see Ref [5].

The plug-and-play nature of both commercial systems we tested can be exploited to design a plug-and-play eavesdropper, see Fig. 6. The optical amplifier will have spontaneous emission which in turn causes noise in both phase and polarization of the trigger pulses. The click probability thresholds are however not at the limit of equation (1) in the Letter, so some noise can be tolerated. In the configuration shown in Fig. 6, the c.w. blinding illumination will enter a random arm in Bob’s interferometer. Since the loss differs in the two arms, this might cause fluctuations in the c.w. blinding illumination reaching Bob’s APDs. As the trigger pulse power thresholds are relatively independent of the c.w. blinding illumination (see Fig. 4b in the Letter) this might not pose a problem for Eve. A possible solution is that Eve uses two orthogonally polarized blinding lasers. This will keep the amount of illumination in each arm of Bob’s interferometer stable regardless of the polarization transformation in the line Eve–Bob.

The proposed eavesdropping scheme works during qubit transmission between Alice and Bob (i.e., the key-producing part of the hardware activity). In addition to the qubit transmission, Alice and Bob sometimes perform service procedures. E.g., a calibration routine to fine-tune gate timing of Bob’s detectors is performed in both systems we

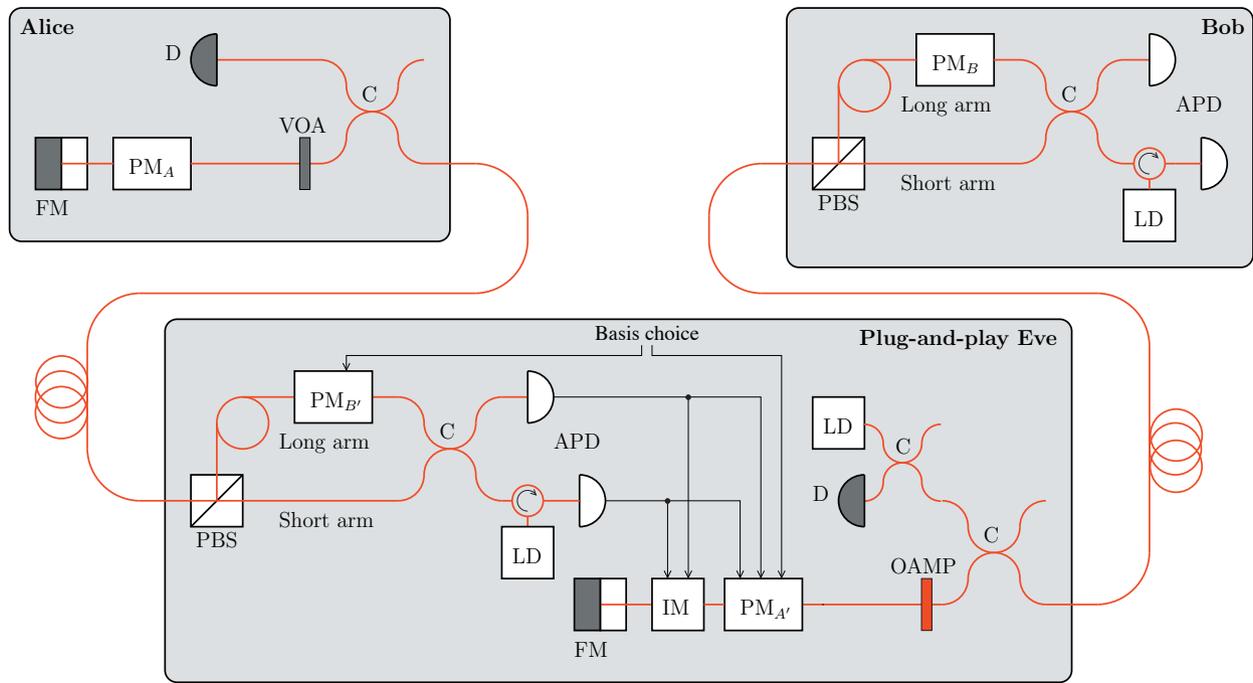


FIG. 6. Schematics of the proposed plug-and-play Eve: FM, Faraday mirror;  $PM_x$ , phase modulator; IM, intensity modulator; D, classical detector; VOA, variable optical attenuator; C, fibre coupler; PBS, polarizing beam splitter; LD, laser diode; APD, avalanche photo diode; OAMP, optical amplifier. Eve consists of a copy of Bob's apparatus, and a modified version of Alice's apparatus where the variable optical attenuator is replaced with an optical amplifier to amplify the pulses from Bob to the appropriate trigger pulse power. Also a c.w. blinding laser is coupled into the line to keep Bob blind. Eve uses the same random basis choice for her phase modulators,  $PM_{A'}$  and  $PM_{B'}$ . Her detected bit value is used to set the bit value for  $PM_{A'}$ . When Eve has a no detection event, IM prevents the pulse from being returned to Bob.

studied. Eve would have to tackle such service procedures in a non-obtrusive manner, depending on the particular QKD system model she eavesdrops on.

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[1] Epitaxx EPM 239 AA, EPM 239 BA low noise avalanche photodiode module for OTDRs. Data sheet (Epitaxx, Inc., 1999).  
 [2] Muller, A. *et al.* "Plug and play" systems for quantum cryptography. *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **70**, 793–795 (1997).  
 [3] Zbinden, H. *et al.* Interferometry with Faraday mirrors for quantum cryptography. *Electron. Lett.* **33**, 586–588 (1997).  
 [4] Ribordy, G., Gautier, J.-D., Gisin, N., Guinnard, O. & Zbinden, H. Automated 'plug & play' quantum key distribution. *Electron. Lett.* **34**, 2116–2117 (1998).  
 [5] Gisin, N., Ribordy, G., Tittel, W. & Zbinden, H. Quantum cryptography. *Rev. Mod. Phys.* **74**, 145–195 (2002).