Information-Theoretic Secret-Key Agreement: The Asymptotically Tight Relation Between the Secret-Key Rate and the Channel Quality Ratio

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Abstract. Information-theoretically secure secret-key agreement between two parties Alice and Bob is a well-studied problem that is provably impossible in a plain model with public (authenticated) communication, but is known to be possible in a model where the parties also have access to some correlated randomness. One particular type of such correlated randomness is the so-called satellite setting, where a source of uniform random bits (e.g., sent by a satellite) is received by the parties and the adversary Eve over inherently noisy channels. The antenna size determines the error probability, and the antenna is the adversary's limiting resource much as computing power is the limiting resource in traditional complexity-based security. The natural assumption about the adversary is that her antenna is at most Q times larger than both Alice's and Bob's antenna, where, to be realistic, Q can be very large.

The goal of this paper is to characterize the secret-key rate per transmitted bit in terms of Q. Traditional results in this so-called satellite setting are phrased in terms of the error probabilities ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E, of the binary symmetric channels through which the parties receive the bits and, quite surprisingly, the secret-key rate has been shown to be strictly positive unless Eve's channel is perfect ($\epsilon_E = 0$) or either Alice's or Bob's channel output is independent of the transmitted bit (i.e., $\epsilon_A = 0.5$ or $\epsilon_B = 0.5$). However, the best proven lower bound, if interpreted in terms of the channel quality ratio Q, is only exponentially small in Q. The main result of this paper is that the secret-key rate decreases asymptotically only like $1/Q^2$ if the per-bit signal energy, affecting the quality of all channels, is treated as a system parameter that can be optimized. Moreover, this bound is tight if Alice and Bob have the same antenna sizes.

Motivated by considering a fixed sending signal power, in which case the per-bit energy is inversely proportional to the bit-rate, we also propose a definition of the secret-key rate per second (rather than per transmitted bit) and prove that it decreases asymptotically only like $1/Q$.

1 Introduction

1.1 Motivation for Information-theoretic Security

In cryptography, one generally considers two types of security of cryptographic schemes. *Unconditional* or *information-theoretic* security means that not even an

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adversary with unbounded computing power can cause a violation of the security property, whereas *computational* security means that the violation of the security property is impossible for an adversary with (suitably) bounded computing power, but is usually possible for a computationally unbounded adversary. Information-theoretic security was first defined and considered in Shannon's ground-breaking paper [21].

While for the most part cryptographic research is focused on computational security, actually the state of the art in complexity theory is that no cryptographic scheme has been proven to be computationally secure for a general and realistic model of computation. Instead, the term "provable security" is often used for schemes for which a reduction from a commonly agreed conjectured hard problem (such as factoring large integers) is known: Any adversary breaking the cryptographic scheme could be transformed (by the reduction), with reasonable efficiency loss, into an algorithm solving the hard problem with noticeable probability. Therefore, under the assumption that the problem is indeed hard, the scheme is secure.

In summary, there are two main advantages of information-theoretic security:

- Information-theoretic security is stronger because, compared to computational security, the security holds against a larger class of adversaries.
- The security proof does not require an unproven computational assumption.

1.2   Circumventing Impossibility Results

Unfortunately, information-theoretic security is in many settings unachievable, often provably so, at least for practical settings. For instance, Shannon's famous impossibility result [21] states that perfectly secure encryption is impossible unless the secret key has at least as much entropy as the message. This result is often quoted as showing that information-theoretic security is not practical since exchanging a fresh truly random key for every message is generally completely impractical.

The significance of such an impossibility result depends on the generality of the conditions underlying the impossibility proof. For example, Shannon's impossibility result was stated (and proven) only under the restriction that the communication between sender and receiver is one-way. That this result also holds in the more realistic setting with interactive communication between sender and receiver was proved by Maurer only in 1993 [10]. It is therefore possible that a careful re-examination of impossibility results allows to circumvent them by a slight change of the model, where such a change should be as realistic as possible and should not destroy the practicality of schemes proven secure in the model.

One such attempt, proposed by Maurer [14] and investigated by many researchers in different contexts, is the so-called bounded-storage model. Here one assumes that the adversary's memory resources are bounded, but no assumption about the adversary's computing power is needed. Unfortunately, it seems very hard to argue that schemes proven secure in this model are practical for a reasonable bound on the adversary's memory capacity.

Other notable earlier attempts include the works of Wyner [24] and Csiszár and Körner [4], where all parties are connected by noisy channels (and only one-way communication between the two honest parties is allowed), and the work of Ozarow and Wyner [18], where the adversary is allowed to observe a bounded subset of the message's encoding. In these models, perfectly secure encryption is possible only when the adversary is at a disadvantage compared to the honest parties, which is rarely the case in practice.

A more promising approach in the context of secret-key agreement is the so-called *secret-key agreement by public discussion* model proposed by Maurer [15,10]. In this

model, two parties Alice and Bob wish to agree on a secret key by communicating over a public authenticated channel perfectly accessible to the adversary Eve. In this setting, without further assumptions, key agreement is provably impossible. However, by a slight modification of the model, namely by considering a setting where Alice, Bob, and Eve have access to correlated random variables X, Y, and Z, respectively, with joint probability distribution P_{XYZ}, secret-key agreement becomes possible, even if X and Y are almost not correlated and even if Z is strongly correlated with both X and Y.

Often one considers a setting where the experiment generating X, Y, and Z is repeated many times (independently), and one then considers the *secret-key rate*, the maximal rate (per realization of the random experiment) at which Alice and Bob can generate secret-key bits. Surprisingly, in this model, secret-key agreement (and thus perfectly secure encryption) is also possible in many cases where Eve starts with an advantage over Alice and Bob.

1.3   The Satellite Setting

A setting of particular interest is the so-called satellite setting: A satellite (or for instance a deep-space radio source) broadcasts a sequence of uniformly random bit that Alice, Bob, and Eve receive via antennas of different sizes.

In order to achieve a meaningfully large secret-key rate in this setting, one has to assume that the adversary's resources are bounded. While in computationally secure cryptography the bounded resource is the computing power, in the satellite model the natural bounded resource of the adversary is her antenna quality, that closely corresponds to the antenna size. Given that for most practical settings the honest parties' antenna sizes are more or less fixed, we specify in the following, for simplicity, this bound on Eve's antenna size as the maximal ratio Q between Eve's antenna size and the size of the smaller one of either Alice's or Bob's antennas. Analogously to the computational setting where the ratio between the adversary's and the honest parties' computing power must be assumed to be quite large, this antenna size ratio Q can be very large as well, in realistic settings. If the honest parties use for instance mobile phones, then it is very well imaginable that Q is in the order of magnitude of a million.

The satellite setting is modeled as a sequence of uniform random bits being generated and Alice, Bob, and Eve receiving them over independent binary symmetric channels with error probabilities ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E, respectively. Traditionally, the secret-key rate in the satellite model has then been specified in terms of the error probabilities ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E, respectively, capturing the fact that the antenna sizes clearly affect those error probabilities. However, it is natural to consider the signal strength of the satellite, i.e., the amount of energy it uses to broadcast each bit, as a design parameter we can control, implying that the error probabilities are no longer a priori fixed. Moreover, this highlights an interesting trade-off, as increasing the energy per bit means that the error probabilities of Alice, Bob, and Eve all decrease simultaneously, which is at the same time advantageous (Alice and Bob getting more information) and disadvantageous (Eve getting more information). As a consequence, the essential question in the satellite setting is: What is the best secret-key rate for given antenna sizes of the honest parties if we are willing to assume an upper bound on Eve's antenna size, but consider the signal strength as a design parameter to maximize over?

1.4   Contributions

Quite surprisingly, it has been shown by Maurer and Wolf [10,13] that in the satellite model secret-key agreement is possible even if Eve's channel is almost perfect, i.e., if ϵ_E is arbitrarily close to 0 but not exactly 0, and if Alice's and Bob's channels have arbitrarily high error probability but still some information (i.e., ϵ_A and ϵ_B are close to 0.5 but not exactly 0.5). However, the best proven lower bound, about the secret-key rate of the original repeater-code protocol in [10], when interpreted in terms of the ratio Q, is only exponentially small in Q. In contrast, the secret-key ratio as a function of Q has already been briefly considered by Maurer and Gander [6], who conjectured based on numerical results that the rate of the parity-check protocol (introduced in [15]) asymptotically decreases like $1/Q^2$, for a setting where Alice's and Bob's antennas are assumed to be of equal size.

As our main contribution, we prove that both the rate of the parity-check protocol and the optimal secret-key rate are indeed inversely proportional to Q^2 in Section 4. This matches the numerical results and the conjecture by Gander and Maurer. We point out that the lower bound on the secret-key rate is proved by showing that the parity-check protocol, which is an explicit and simple protocol, achieves this rate in the given setting, rather than providing a pure existence proof of a protocol achieving this rate. Secondly, we also generalize the secret-key rate as a function of the antenna ratio Q to the case where Alice and Bob can have antennas of different sizes, by specifying well motivated and relevant quantities for both lower and upper bounds.

In addition, we consider the setting where the power consumption of the satellite is bounded; for instance, by the size of its solar panels. Nevertheless, we can adjust the energy used to broadcast each bit by adjusting the bit-rate, i.e., the number of bits broadcast per second, while maintaining a fixed power consumption. Hence, the energy used to broadcast each bit is inversely proportional to the bit-rate. This motivates the study of the secret-key rate per second rather than the secret-key rate per bit. In order to investigate the secret-key rate per second, we introduce a novel quantity that approximates it in Section 5. We then show that this quantity decreases inversely proportional to Q, rather than Q^2. Note that this makes a significant difference, since Q must be assumed to be very large.

1.5   A Note on the Practicality of the Satellite Setting

While the satellite setting attempts to mimic a real-world scenario, it also abstracts away many practical issues which affect its immediate applicability. For instance, the satellite setting encodes some basic assumptions on the adversary that might not necessarily hold in practice, such as the assumption that Eve will quantize the signal she receives. Moreover, the setting basically assumes a passive adversary, by assuming that the adversary can neither influence the bits the honest parties receive from the satellite, nor tamper with their communication. While the former restriction could be translated into some sort of physical assumption, the authenticated communication is something that can easily be obtained in a separate step. We can allow Alice and Bob to start with a small shared secret-key, which they can then use to authenticate the channel with information-theoretic security [22]. In this case, the goal of a protocol is to amplify a short initial secret-key into a very long secret-key, like in quantum key distribution.

As a consequence, even if one could imagine proving stronger results that hold if the channels can be to a certain degree dependent, or consider a setting where the adversary tries to get an advantage by considering the actual analog signal she

receives, we nevertheless believe that proving theoretical results in our setting is meaningful. Showing that the secret-key rate under a channel quality constraint is reasonably large, and that the rate of a simple protocol asymptotically behaves like the secret-key rate in this setting can be seen as a step towards showing that the satellite setting is practical. In short, we feel that the problem studied in this paper is one of the most relevant and natural scientific problems extractable from the general setting.

1.6 Related Work

There have been considerable efforts to find good approximations for the secret-key rate, both in the satellite setting and for more general probability distributions, and also for settings with more than three parties.

The first bounds on the secret-key rate were proved by Maurer [10,12], and by Ahlswede and Csiszár [1], who studied the secret-key rate when only one-way communication from Alice to Bob is allowed. Later, Maurer and Wolf [11] and Renner, Skripsky, and Wolf [19] introduced improved upper bounds for general distributions, called the *intrinsic mutual information* and the *reduced intrinsic mutual information*, respectively. Csiszár and Narayan [5] extended the study of the secret-key rate to settings with more than three parties, and exhibited connections between information-theoretic secret-key agreement and the problem of *communication for omniscience*. Then, Gohari and Anantharam [7] showcased new lower and upper bounds on the secret-key rate for an arbitrary number of parties, which in particular are strict improvements over the previously known bounds for our setting.

There has been some recent interest in the secret-key rate in the finite blocklength setting, where the number of available realizations (X, Y, Z) is bounded. Tyagi and Watanabe [23] showcase a connection between the secret-key rate in this setting and binary hypothesis testing, and use it to obtain an upper bound on the secret-key rate for a bounded number of realizations. Later, Hayashi, Tyagi, and Watanabe [8] used this connection to better understand how the gap between the secret-key rate in the finite blocklength and asymptotic settings decreases as the number of available realizations increases, for certain probability distributions.

For the satellite setting, there exist better lower bounds on the secret-key rate due to the study of several *advantage distillation protocols*. The first such protocol, called the *repeater-code protocol*, was introduced and studied by Maurer [15,10]. An improved version of this protocol, called the *parity-check protocol*, was studied by Gander and Maurer [15,6]. Later, Liu, Van Tilborg, and Van Dijk [9] proposed another protocol that seems to outperform the parity-check protocol. However, the rate achieved by the proposed protocol was only numerically computed in a simulation where Eve follows a certain fixed strategy, which is not known to be optimal. Furthermore, finding a clean expression for the rate of this protocol that can be analyzed (as is done for the rate of the parity-check protocol) appears infeasible, and so it is very difficult to extract tangible rate lower bounds, even when assuming that the proposed strategy for Eve is optimal.

The scenario where Alice, Bob, and Eve receive the random bits in the satellite setting through Gaussian channels, instead of binary symmetric channels, was first considered by Maurer and Wolf [11]. Later, Naito et al. [17] showed that Alice and Bob can extract more secret-key rate in the Gaussian scenario than in the BSC scenario, as they are able to make use of soft-decoding.

2   Preliminaries

2.1   Notation

We denote random variables by uppercase letters such as X, Y, and Z. We may denote sequences of random variables $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N$ as X^N. We say that $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N$ are i.i.d. if all the X_i are independent random variables and they all have the same distribution. Most sets are denoted by uppercase calligraphic letters such as $\mathcal{S}$. The set of real numbers is denoted by $\mathbb{R}$ and for a natural number $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $[n]$ denotes the set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. Given a set $\mathcal{S}$, the size of $\mathcal{S}$ is denoted by $|\mathcal{S}|$. For a string $x \in \{0,1\}^*$, $|x|$ denotes the length of x. The (Hamming) weight of a string $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ is defined as $w(x) := |\{i : x_i = 1\}|$, where x_i is the i-th entry of x. We denote the logarithm to the base 2 by log and the natural logarithm by ln. The closed interval in $\mathbb{R}$ between two real numbers a and b is denoted by $[a, b]$.

Given an event A, we denote the probability that A happens by $\Pr[A]$, which is the sum of the probabilities of all outcomes in event A. Given two events A and B, the probability that A and B happen simultaneously is denoted by $\Pr[A, B]$. The conditional probability of A given B, provided $\Pr[B] > 0$, is $\Pr[A|B] := \frac{\Pr[A,B]}{\Pr[B]}$.

The probability distribution of a finite random variable X is denoted by P_X, and so $P_X(x)$ denotes the probability that X takes the value x. Given an event A, $P_{X|A}$ denotes the conditional probability distribution of X conditioned on A. For two finite random variables X and Y, $P_{X|Y}(\cdot, y)$ denotes the probability distribution of X conditioned on the event $Y = y$.

2.2   Information Theory

Throughout this paper we will make use of some fundamental concepts from information theory. We briefly define the required notions in this section; a more detailed exposition of this field can be found in [3].

Fix a finite random variable X with range $\mathcal{X}$. The *entropy of X*, denoted by $H(X)$, is defined as

$$H(X) := -\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} P_X(x) \log P_X(x).$$

Intuitively, the entropy measures the uncertainty about a given random variable. In fact, a finite random variable X with range $\mathcal{X}$ satisfies $0 \leq H(X) \leq \log|\mathcal{X}|$ with equality in the lower bound if and only if $P_X(x) = 1$ for some $x \in \mathcal{X}$, and with equality in the upper bound if and only if X is uniform over $\mathcal{X}$. We call

$$h(p) := -p \log(p) - (1-p) \log(1-p)$$

the *binary entropy function* and note that for a binary random variable X with $P_X(1) = p$ we have that $H(X) = h(p)$.

Given two finite random variables X and Y with ranges $\mathcal{X}$ and $\mathcal{Y}$, respectively, we define the *conditional entropy of X given Y*, denoted by $H(X|Y)$, as

$$H(X|Y) := \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P_Y(y) H(X|Y = y).$$

Given an event A, $H(X|Y, A)$ is defined as

$$H(X|Y, A) := \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} P_{Y|A}(y) H(X|Y = y, A).$$

We define the *mutual information between X and Y*, denoted by $I(X;Y)$, as

$$I(X;Y) \coloneqq H(X) - H(X|Y).$$

Intuitively, the mutual information measures how independent two random variables are, and we have $I(X;Y) = 0$ if and only if X and Y are independent. Given an event A, $I(X;Y|A)$ is defined as

$$I(X;Y|A) \coloneqq H(X|A) - H(X|Y,A).$$

Finally, if additionally Z is a finite random variable with range $\mathcal{Z}$, the *conditional mutual information between X and Y given Z*, denoted by $I(X;Y|Z)$, is defined as

$$I(X;Y|Z) \coloneqq \sum_{z \in \mathcal{Z}} P_Z(z) I(X;Y|Z=z).$$

We will be dealing with a simple instance of a *discrete memoryless channel*. A discrete memoryless channel with input X and output W is characterized by a conditional probability distribution $P_{W|X}$. The term *memoryless* stems from the fact that the channel's output depends only on the current input, and so is independent of previous channel utilizations. The *binary symmetric channel with error probability ϵ* is the discrete memoryless channel with input $X \in \{0,1\}$ and conditional probability distribution such that $P_{W|X}(b,b) = 1 - \epsilon$ and $P_{W|X}(1-b,b) = \epsilon$ for $b \in \{0,1\}$. Intuitively, the binary symmetric channel receives a bit as input and flips it with a certain error probability.

The *capacity* is a fundamental quantity associated to every channel. Informally, the capacity of a channel is the optimal rate at which one can communicate through the channel while ensuring that the decoding error probability goes to zero as the number of channel uses increases. Shannon [20] proved that the capacity of a channel $P_{W|X}$ is given by $\max_{P_X} I(X;W)$. In particular, it is easily shown that the capacity of the binary symmetric channel with error probability ϵ is $1 - h(\epsilon)$, where h is the binary entropy function.

3   Secret-Key Agreement by Public Discussion

In the following section, we revisit the basic models of information-theoretically secure secret-key agreement on which we will build in Sections 4 and 5.

3.1   The Source Model and the Secret-Key Rate

We study information-theoretic secret-key agreement, in which Alice and Bob want to agree on a shared secret-key, about which Eve has (almost) no information. To circumvent the trivial impossibility results, we consider the model introduced by Maurer [15,10], called *secret-key agreement by public discussion from common information*. In this model, we assume that in addition to a bidirectional authenticated noiseless channel, which Eve can listen in to but not tamper with, the parties also share some form of correlated randomness. More specifically, we will look at the setting where the correlated randomness of Alice, Bob, and Eve consists of several independent and identically distributed realizations of discrete random variables X, Y, and Z, respectively, distributed according to some joint probability distribution P_{XYZ}.

Remark 1. As already mentioned, the assumption that an authenticated channel exists between Alice and Bob is not a significant drawback in the model. We can allow Alice and Bob to start with a small shared secret-key, which they can then use to authenticate the channel with information-theoretic security [22]. In this case, the goal of a protocol is to amplify a short initial secret-key into a very long secret-key, analogous to quantum key distribution.

In this setting, the main quantity of interest is the maximal rate (per number of realizations of X, Y, and Z received) at which Alice and Bob can generate secret-key bits, about which Eve has almost no information, as a function of the probability distribution P_{XYZ}. We first define what we mean by a secret-key agreement protocol.

Definition 1. *Given a finite probability distribution P_{XYZ}, an (N, R, ϵ)-secret-key agreement protocol for P_{XYZ} is an interactive protocol for Alice and Bob, who receive $X^N = (X_1, \ldots, X_N)$ and $Y^N = (Y_1, \ldots, Y_N)$, respecitvely, as input. Then they generate a communication transcript $C^M = (C_1, \ldots, C_M)$ (where M is also a random variable) by sending messages over authenticated channels in an alternating manner. After the interaction is finished, Alice and Bob produce outputs S_A and S_B over the finite range $\mathcal{S}$, respectively.*

We require that if for $i \in [N]$, the random variables (X_i, Y_i, Z_i) are i.i.d. according to P_{XYZ}, then the following properties must hold:

1. *$H(S_A) \geq N(R - \epsilon)$;*
2. *$H(S_A) \geq \log|\mathcal{S}| - \epsilon$;*
3. *$\Pr[S_A = S_B] \geq 1 - \epsilon$;*
4. *$I(S_A; Z^N C^M) \leq \epsilon$.*

Intuitively, property 1 in Definition 1 states that, on average, Alice and Bob extract at least $R - \epsilon$ secret bits per realization of (X, Y, Z), i.e., the rate is at least $R - \epsilon$. Property 2 enforces that S_A is almost uniform over $\mathcal{S}$, property 3 implies that S_A and S_B should coincide with high probability, and property 4 means that Eve's information, which consists of Z^N and the transcript C^M, gives almost no information about the secret keys S_A and S_B. We are now ready to define the secret-key rate.

Definition 2. *Given a finite probability distribution P_{XYZ}, the* secret-key rate *for P_{XYZ} (abbreviated as the* secret-key rate *when the context is clear), denoted by $S(X; Y \| Z)$, is the supremum of all real numbers R such that for all $\epsilon > 0$ and large enough N there exists an (N, R, ϵ)-secret-key agreement protocol for P_{XYZ}.*

The secret-key rate was first studied by Maurer [15,10], while Csiszár and Körner [1] studied the *one-way* secret-key rate, where only one-way communication from Alice to Bob is allowed.

The following theorem states basic bounds for the secret-key rate. The lower bound was proved by Maurer [10,12] and Csiszár and Körner [1], while the upper bound was proved by Maurer [10].

Lemma 1 ([10, Theorem 2] and [12, Theorem 4]). *For all finite probability distributions P_{XYZ}, we have*

$$I(X; Y) - \min(I(X; Z), I(Y; Z)) \leq S(X; Y \| Z) \leq \min(I(X; Y), I(X; Y | Z)).$$

Note that our definition of the secret-key rate corresponds to the so-called strong secret-key rate, which Maurer and Wolf [16] have proven to be equivalent to the weak one initially considered in the lower bounds.

3.2 A Special Case: The Satellite Setting

Our focus will lie on the secret-key rate of a conceptually simple, but realistic and interesting, class of distributions P_{XYZ}, named the *satellite setting*.

Fix real numbers $\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E \in [0, 1/2]$ and consider the following experiment:

1. Sample a bit $R \in \{0, 1\}$ uniformly at random;
2. Send R to Alice, Bob, and Eve through independent binary symmetric channels with error probabilities ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E, respectively. The random variables X, Y, and Z are the output of these three channels.

This class of distributions was introduced by Maurer [15,10]. The satellite setting earned its name because a realistic implementation of such a scenario would consist of having a satellite orbiting the Earth which broadcasts random bits. On the ground, Alice, Bob, and Eve would be in possession of their own antennas, which they can use to listen to the satellite broadcasts. The quality of a party's antenna would then dictate how reliably they receive the random bits from the satellite. For instance, a better antenna leads to a smaller error probability.

An additional surprising benefit of this model is that secret-key agreement is possible whenever it is not trivially impossible, as stated in the following theorem of Maurer and Wolf [10,13].

Theorem 1 ([13, Theorem 2, adapted]). *We have $S(X;Y\|Z) > 0$ if and only if $\epsilon_E > 0$ and $\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B < 1/2$.*

This stands in stark contrast to the well-known fact that secret-key agreement with one-way communication from Alice to Bob (in the sense of [1]) is impossible whenever Eve's antenna is better than both Alice's and Bob's antennas, i.e., whenever $\epsilon_E < \epsilon_A$ and $\epsilon_E < \epsilon_B$.

While Theorem 1 assures that the secret-key rate is positive in all non-trivial settings, computing (or even approximating) it has proven to be a surprisingly difficult problem for most parameters ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E.

3.3 Advantage Distillation Protocols

The strategy used in [10,13] to prove Theorem 1 is based on the construction of an *advantage distillation protocol* in the satellite setting. In such a protocol, Alice and Bob, starting with random variables X^N and Y^N for N large enough, interact over several rounds of communication to obtain new random variables $\hat{X}$ and $\hat{Y}$ satisfying

$$I(\hat{X}; \hat{Y}) - I(\hat{X}; \hat{Z}) > 0,$$

where $\hat{Z}$ denotes Eve's total information at the end of the protocol. Intuitively, Bob ends up with more information about Alice than Eve does, and so the protocol "distills" an advantage for Alice and Bob over Eve. The existence of such a protocol implies that $S(X;Y\|Z) > 0$. In fact,

$$S(X;Y\|Z) \geq \frac{S(\hat{X}; \hat{Y}\|\hat{Z})}{N} \geq \frac{I(\hat{X}; \hat{Y}) - I(\hat{X}; \hat{Z})}{N} > 0,$$

where the second inequality follows from Lemma 1.

The first advantage distillation protocol was the *repeater-code protocol* [15,10]. Suppose, without loss of generality, that $\epsilon_A \geq \epsilon_B$. Then, the repeater-code protocol works as follows:

1. Alice samples $C \in \{0,1\}$ uniformly at random and sends $C \oplus X^N = (C \oplus X_1, \ldots, C \oplus X_N)$ to Bob over the authenticated channel;
2. Bob computes $C \oplus X^N \oplus Y^N = (C \oplus X_1 \oplus Y_1, \ldots, C \oplus X_N \oplus Y_N)$ and sets $A = 1$ if $C \oplus X^N \oplus Y^N = 0^N$ or $C \oplus X^N \oplus Y^N = 1^N$. Otherwise, Bob sets $A = 0$. Then, Bob sends A to Alice through the authenticated channel;
3. If $A = 1$, then Alice sets $\hat{X} = C$ and Bob sets $\hat{Y} = C \oplus X_1 \oplus Y_1$. Otherwise, if $A = 0$, then Alice and Bob set $\hat{X} = \hat{Y} = \perp$.

Eve's total information $\hat{Z}$ consists of $\hat{Z} = (Z^N, C \oplus X^N, A)$. Define $\beta := \Pr[X \neq Y] = \epsilon_A(1 - \epsilon_B) + (1 - \epsilon_A)\epsilon_B$ and $\alpha_{rs} := \Pr[X \oplus Y = r, X \oplus Z = s]$ for $r, s \in \{0,1\}$. It can be shown [10] that, for a fixed N,

$$\frac{I(\hat{X}; \hat{Y}) - I(\hat{X}; \hat{Z})}{N} = \frac{p_{a,N}}{N} \left(\sum_{w=0}^{N} \binom{N}{w} \frac{p_w}{p_{a,N}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{N-w}}\right) - h(\beta_N) \right), \quad (1)$$

where h is the binary entropy function and:

- $p_{a,N} := \Pr[A = 1] = \beta^N + (1 - \beta)^N$;
- $\beta_N := \Pr[\hat{X} \neq \hat{Y} | A = 1] = \frac{\beta^N}{\beta^N + (1-\beta)^N}$;
- $p_w := \alpha_{00}^{N-w}\alpha_{01}^{w} + \alpha_{10}^{N-w}\alpha_{11}^{w}$ is the probability that Bob accepts and $X^N \oplus Z^N$ is a specific codeword of Hamming weight w.

Maurer and Wolf [13] proved that, for all triples $(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$ such that $\epsilon_A < 1/2$, $\epsilon_B < 1/2$, and $\epsilon_E > 0$, we have

$$I(\hat{X}; \hat{Y}) - I(\hat{X}; \hat{Z}) > 0$$

provided N is large enough.

While the repeater-code protocol is good enough to prove that secret-key agreement is possible in the satellite setting, it guarantees only a very small lower bound on the secret-key rate, especially when ϵ_A and ϵ_B are much larger than ϵ_E. This issue motivated the search for better advantage distillation protocols in the satellite setting.

Gander and Maurer [15,6] studied an improved protocol, called the *parity-check protocol*. Again, we assume, without loss of generality, that $\epsilon_A \geq \epsilon_B$. The parity-check protocol with ℓ rounds works as follows:

1. Alice and Bob start with initially empty strings U_A and U_B, respectively;
2. Alice and Bob divide X^N and Y^N into pairs (X_{2i}, X_{2i+1}) and (Y_{2i}, Y_{2i+1}), respectively, for $i = 0, \ldots, \lfloor N/2 \rfloor$;
3. For each i, Alice sends $X_{2i} \oplus X_{2i+1}$ to Bob via the authenticated channel;
4. Bob sets $A_i = 1$ if $X_{2i} \oplus X_{2i+1} = Y_{2i} \oplus Y_{2i+1}$. Otherwise, Bob sets $A_i = 0$. Then, he sends A_i to Alice;
5. If $A_i = 1$, Alice adds X_{2i} to her string U_A and Bob adds Y_{2i} to his string U_B, and they discard X_{2i+1} and Y_{2i+1}, respectively (i.e., these bits are not added to U_A and U_B, respectively). If $A_i = 0$, Alice and Bob discard the bits (X_{2i}, X_{2i+1}) and (Y_{2i}, Y_{2i+1}), respectively;
6. If $\ell = 1$, then Alice and Bob stop the protocol. Alice sets $\hat{X} = U_A$ and Bob sets $\hat{Y} = U_B$;
7. If $\ell > 1$ and $|U_A| \geq 2^{\ell-1}$, Alice and Bob run the parity-check protocol with $\ell - 1$ rounds on the strings U_A and U_B. Otherwise, if $|U_A| < 2^{\ell-1}$, then Alice and Bob set $\hat{X} = \perp$ and $\hat{Y} = \perp$, respectively.

If $\hat{X}$ and $\hat{Y}$ are the outputs of the parity-check protocol with ℓ rounds, then each pair of bits $(\hat{X}_i, \hat{Y}_i)$ behaves like the output of a successful run of the repeater-code protocol with $N = L := 2^\ell$. Furthermore, all pairs $(\hat{X}_i, \hat{Y}_i)$ are independent of each other. It can then be shown that the parity-check protocol with ℓ rounds yields the lower bound

$$S(X;Y\|Z) \geq R_\ell \left(\sum_{w=0}^{L} \binom{L}{w} \frac{p_w}{p_{a,L}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{L-w}} \right) - h(\beta_L) \right),$$

where

$$R_\ell := \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{\mathrm{E}[|\hat{X}|]}{N} = 2^{-\ell} \prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} (\beta_{2^i}^2 + (1 - \beta_{2^i})^2), \tag{2}$$

and $\beta_{2^i} = \frac{\beta^{2^i}}{\beta^{2^i} + (1-\beta)^{2^i}}$ is the error probability between Alice's and Bob's bits after i rounds of the parity-check protocol.

The intuition behind Equation (2) is the following: Suppose there are N_i bits left after i rounds of the parity-check protocol. These N_i bits are partitioned into $\lfloor N_i/2 \rfloor$ pairs (if N_i is even, Alice and Bob discard a bit), and, in round $i + 1$, Alice and Bob keep a bit from a given pair with probability $\beta_{2^i}^2 + (1 - \beta_{2^i})^2$. Therefore, we have

$$\mathrm{E}[N_{i+1} \mid N_i \text{ bits after } i \text{ rounds}] \approx \frac{\beta_{2^i}^2 + (1 - \beta_{2^i})^2}{2} \cdot N_i,$$

where N_{i+1} is the random variable denoting the number of bits after $i + 1$ rounds of the parity-check protocol.

The lower bound obtained through the parity-check protocol is, for most choices of error probabilities in the satellite setting, much better than the lower bound given by the repeater-code protocol. Note that the parity-check protocol consists of the iterative application of the repeater-code protocol with length 2 to pairs of bits of X^N and Y^N. This protocol can be further improved in a natural way for some interesting choices of error probabilities in the satellite setting by modifying the length of the repeater-code protocol that is applied iteratively, and reutilizing discarded bits from failed runs of the repeater-code protocol which are "almost" successful. We do not expand on this, since the original parity-check protocol suffices for our needs.

4   The Secret-Key Rate Under a Fixed Channel Quality Ratio

4.1   Modeling a Fixed Channel Quality Ratio

In this section, we formally define the main quantities used in this work. Recall that we want to consider a setting where we assume that the antenna sizes of the honest parties are fixed, but the energy the satellite uses to send a bit as a design parameter that we can adjust in order to achieve an optimal secret-key rate. To get a meaningful lower bound on the secret-key rate in this setup, however, we need to make an assumption about Eve's capabilities, which in the satellite setting corresponds to her antenna size. In order to simplify the model, we moreover do not consider the actual antenna sizes but the ratio between Eve's antenna size and the honest parties' ones. Therefore, in the following we want to assume that Eve's antenna is at most Q times larger than both Alice's and Bob's antennas, where we do not necessarily assume that those are of equal size.

To mathematically model this size ratio, we choose the ratio on the channel capacities, which reflect the qualities of the respecting channels. Recall that the satellite model with the binary symmetric channel is basically a mathematical simplification of the contemplated physical model with Additive White Gaussian Noise (AWGN) channels (if the channel input is X, then the output is $X + Z$, where Z is distributed according to a normal distribution with mean zero and variance N, where N is also called the noise power). It is well-known that the capacity (in bits per second) of an AWGN channel is given by $C_{\mathsf{AWGN}} = B\log(1+S/N)$, where B is the bandwidth (in the spectrum), S is the signal power, and N is the noise power (see [3, Chapter 9]). The signal power is proportional to the total antenna surface, independently of whether the antenna consists of several independent small antennas or one large one. In the low-signal regime, i.e., if $S/N \ll 1$, we have that C is essentially proportional to S (for fixed noise power N), and hence to the antenna size too. In short, in such a regime the channel capacity is essentially proportional to the product of the surface of the receiver's antenna and the energy used to transmit the bits. Hence, when considering two of the antennas, the ratio of their capacity stays approximately constant when adjusting the energy that is used to transmit each bit and, therefore, this ratio is a good approximation of the ratio of the antenna sizes. While this justification is based on the AWGN model, we assume that this essentially carries over to the BSC model of the satellite setting, which used binary symmetric channels as an abstraction of AWGN channels in the first place.

This leads us to the following definition of the channel quality ratio between two binary symmetric channels.

Definition 3. *The* channel quality ratio between the BSC with error probability α and the BSC with error probability γ, *denoted $\rho(\alpha,\gamma)$, is defined as*

$$\rho(\alpha,\gamma) \coloneqq \frac{1-h(\gamma)}{1-h(\alpha)}.$$

Assuming two fixed antenna size ratios Q_A and Q_B for the Alice-Eve and Bob-Eve pairs, respectively, considering the energy spent per bit as a design parameter then corresponds to choosing ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E under the constraint that $\rho(\epsilon_A,\epsilon_E) = Q_A$ and $\rho(\epsilon_B,\epsilon_E) = Q_B$. For our lower bound, we, however, do not want to assume a fixed ratio but rather an upper bound on the ratios: we assume that Eve's antenna is at most Q times larger than either one of Alice's and Bob's antennas. This leads to the following definition, where the infimum corresponds to considering all settings where the ratios are at most Q (a worst-case analysis) and the supremum corresponds to choosing the energy per bit in an optimal manner.

Definition 4. *For $Q \geq 1$, the* minimal secret-key rate for an adversary with an at most Q times better channel, *denoted by $S^-(Q)$, is defined as*

$$S^-(Q) \coloneqq \inf_{\substack{1 \leq Q_A, Q_B \leq Q}} \sup_{\substack{\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E \\ \rho(\epsilon_A,\epsilon_E)=Q_A \\ \rho(\epsilon_B,\epsilon_E)=Q_B}} S(\epsilon_A,\epsilon_B,\epsilon_E),$$

where $S(\epsilon_A,\epsilon_B,\epsilon_E)$ denotes the secret-key rate of the satellite setting when Alice, Bob, and Eve have error probabilities ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E, respectively.

Note that a best-case analysis, i.e., taking the supremum instead of the infimum, of this setting is not of much value, because it obviously includes scenarios where the honest parties have arbitrarily good antennas in comparison to Eve. Rather, assuming that Eve has an at least Q times larger antenna than both Alice and Bob is the more compelling quantity to consider, leading to the following definition.

Definition 5. *For $Q \geq 1$, the* maximal secret-key rate for an adversary with an at least Q times better channel, *denoted by $S^+(Q)$, is defined as*

$$S^+(Q) := \sup_{Q_A, Q_B \geq Q} \sup_{\substack{\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E \\ \rho(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_E) = Q_A \\ \rho(\epsilon_B, \epsilon_E) = Q_B}} S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E),$$

where $S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$ denotes the secret-key rate of the satellite setting when Alice, Bob, and Eve have error probabilities ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E, respectively.

Remark 2. Note that in Definitions 4 and 5 we only consider the cases of Q, Q_A, and Q_B being at least one, i.e., scenarios where Eve's antenna is at least as large as the one of both honest parties. Given that we are mainly interested in the asymptotic behavior, and thus in the case of Eve having a substantially larger antenna than Alice and Bob, this is without loss of generality.

In the following sections, we will investigate how those two quantities $S^-(Q)$ and $S^+(Q)$ asymptotically behave as Q increases, by proving a lower bound on $S^-(Q)$ and an upper bound on $S^+(Q)$. Finally, we show that for the case where both Alice and Bob have antennas of equal sizes (i.e., $\epsilon_A = \epsilon_B$, and so $Q_A = Q_B$) those two bounds coincide up to a constant factor, thereby giving an exact characterization of the asymptotic behavior of the secret-key rate in this special case.

4.2   A Lower Bound on the Minimal Secret-key Rate $S^-(Q)$

In this section, we prove that $S^-(Q)$ decreases at most inversely proportional to Q^2. In short, we prove the following result.

Theorem 2. *There exist a constant $c > 0$ such that*

$$\frac{c}{Q^2} \leq S^-(Q)$$

for all $Q \geq 1$.

To prove this result, we actually show that the parity-check protocol achieves this rate, which was first conjectured to be true by Gander and Maurer [6], based on numerical evidence. First, however, we introduce the following handy definition of the secret-key rate for an adversary with an exactly Q times larger antenna than both Alice and Bob, especially implying that they have antennas of equal sizes.

Definition 6. *The* secret-key rate for an adversary with an exactly Q times better channel, *denoted by $S(Q)$, is defined as*

$$S(Q) := \sup_{\substack{\alpha, \gamma \\ \rho(\alpha, \gamma) = Q}} S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma).$$

Given that for the honest parties it is always advantageous to have a larger antenna, it is easy to see that the setting where their antenna sizes are exactly Q times smaller than Eve's is the worst case.

Lemma 2. *Let $Q \geq 1$. We then have $S(Q) \leq S^-(Q)$.*

Proof. Let $1 \leq Q_A, Q_B \leq Q$ be arbitrary and let α and γ be such that $\rho(\alpha, \gamma) = Q$. We set $\epsilon_E := \gamma$ and let ϵ_A and ϵ_B be such that $\rho(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_E) = Q_A$ and $\rho(\epsilon_B, \epsilon_E) = Q_B$, respectively. Note that such ϵ_A and ϵ_B are guaranteed to exist for $Q_A, Q_B \geq 1$. We then have

$$\frac{1 - h(\gamma)}{1 - h(\epsilon_A)} = Q_A \leq Q = \frac{1 - h(\gamma)}{1 - h(\alpha)},$$

and using $1 - h(\gamma) > 0$ we obtain $\epsilon_A \leq \alpha$. Analogously, we obtain $\epsilon_B \leq \alpha$. Now observe that $S(\alpha, \alpha, \epsilon_E) \leq S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$, since the honest parties can themselves increase the error probabilities by locally sending the received bit through an additional independent binary symmetric channel. Hence, we have

$$\sup_{\substack{\alpha, \gamma \\ \rho(\alpha, \gamma) = Q}} S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma) \leq \sup_{\substack{\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E \\ \rho(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_E) = Q_A \\ \rho(\epsilon_B, \epsilon_E) = Q_B}} S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$$

for all $1 \leq Q_A, Q_B \leq Q$, and thus also $S(Q) \leq S^-(Q)$. $\qquad\square$

Furthermore, we also consider the secret-key rate achieved by the parity-check protocol against an adversary with an exactly Q times larger antenna, phrased in the following definition.

Definition 7. *The* secret-key rate of the parity-check protocol for an adversary with an exactly Q times better channel, *denoted by $R(Q)$, is defined as*

$$R(Q) := \sup_{\substack{\ell, \alpha, \gamma \\ \rho(\alpha, \gamma) = Q}} R(\ell, \alpha, \alpha, \gamma),$$

where $R(\ell, \epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$ denotes the rate per random bit generated by the parity-check protocol using ℓ rounds when Alice, Bob, and Eve have error probabilities ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E, respectively.

Since the secret-key rate $S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$ is defined as the secret-key rate of the best possible protocol, we trivially get the following lower bound.

Lemma 3. *Let $Q \geq 1$, we then have $R(Q) \leq S(Q)$.*

Proof. This directly follows from the fact that, by definition, $R(\ell, \epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E) \leq S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$ for any number of rounds ℓ. $\qquad\square$

We now proceed by proving that there exists a constant $c > 0$ such that $\frac{c}{Q^2} \leq R(Q)$ for all $Q \geq 1$, which will eventually conclude the proof. In order to prove such a lower bound, we need to lower bound the supremum in the definition of $R(Q)$. We achieve this by carefully choosing a sequence of triples $(\ell_k, \alpha_k, \gamma_k)$ such that $R\left(\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)}\right)$ does not decrease too quickly when compared to $\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)}$. In the first step, we will show that

$$R\left(\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)}\right) \geq \frac{c_1}{k^4}$$

for some constant $c > 0$, and then in a second step use that $\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)}$ increase like k^2, in order to derive the desired result.

Lower bounding the SKR of the parity-check protocol with concrete parameters. In this section we show that for $\ell_k = 2\log(k)$ rounds, in the satellite setting with $\epsilon_A = \epsilon_B = \alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/k$, and $\epsilon_E = \gamma_k = 2/5$, the secret-key rate of the parity-check protocol $R(\ell_k, \alpha_k, \alpha_k, \gamma_k)$ decreases inversely proportional to k^4. For simplicity, we drop the subscript k in most terms from now on. Recall that

$$R(\ell, \alpha, \alpha, \gamma) = 2^{-\ell}\Phi(L, \alpha, \gamma) \prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \left(\beta_{2^i}^2 + (1 - \beta_{2^i})^2\right),$$

where

$$\Phi(L, \alpha, \gamma) := \sum_{w=0}^{L} \binom{L}{w} \frac{p_w}{\beta^L + (1 - \beta)^L} h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{L-w}}\right) - h(\beta_L)$$

and $L := 2^l$, β, and p_w are defined as in Section 3.3.

Before lower bounding $R(\ell, \alpha, \alpha, \gamma)$ we need a few auxiliary definitions and results. First, note that

$$p_w = \alpha_{00}^{L-w}\alpha_{01}^w + \alpha_{10}^{L-w}\alpha_{11}^w = \alpha_{00}^{L-w}\alpha_{01}^w + (2\alpha(1 - \alpha))^L,$$

where $\alpha_{rs} = \Pr[X \oplus Y = r, X \oplus Z = s]$, since $\epsilon_A = \epsilon_B = \alpha$. Let

$$p'_w := \alpha_{00}^{L-w}\alpha_{01}^w.$$

Then p'_w is the probability that $X^L \oplus Z^L$ is a particular codeword of weight w and $X^L = Y^L$. Furthermore,

$$p_w = p'_w + (2\alpha(1 - \alpha))^L > p'_w.$$

for all w. We have the following lemmas.

Lemma 4. *We have*

$$h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{L-w}}\right) \geq h\left(\frac{p'_w}{p'_w + p'_{L-w}}\right)$$

for all L and w.

Proof. This lemma is a consequence of the fact that, for $a, b, x > 0$,

$$\frac{a + x}{a + b + 2x} \leq \frac{a}{a + b}$$

if and only if $a \geq b$.

Fix $w \leq L/2$. Then

$$\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{L-w}} \geq \frac{1}{2}$$

since $p_w \geq p_{L-w}$. Furthermore, it holds that

$$\frac{p'_w}{p'_w + p'_{L-w}} \geq \frac{(\alpha(1 - \alpha))^L + p'_w}{2(\alpha(1 - \alpha))^L + p'_w + p'_{L-w}} = \frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{L-w}} \geq \frac{1}{2}.$$

On the other hand, if $w > L/2$, then $p_w < p_{L-w}$ holds, and so

$$\frac{p'_w}{p'_w + p'_{L-w}} \leq \frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{L-w}} < 1/2.$$

This implies the desired result. $\qquad\square$

Lemma 5. *Suppose $w = L(1/2 - \delta)$ for some $\delta > 0$. Then*

$$\frac{p'_{L-w}}{p'_w} = \left(\frac{\alpha_{01}}{\alpha_{00}}\right)^{2\delta L}.$$

Proof. It suffices to note that

$$\frac{p'_{L-w}}{p'_w} = \frac{\alpha_{00}^w \alpha_{01}^{L-w}}{\alpha_{00}^{L-w} \alpha_{01}^w} = \left(\frac{\alpha_{01}}{\alpha_{00}}\right)^{L-2w},$$

and that $L - 2w = L - 2L(1/2 - \delta) = 2\delta L$. $\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\square$

Next, we lower bound $R(\ell, \alpha, \alpha, \gamma)$–i.e., the rate of the parity-check protocol when using ℓ rounds, Alice and Bob have the same error probability α, and Eve has the error probability γ–in a sequence of lemmas.

Lemma 6. *For all $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$, let $\ell_k = 2\log(k)$, $\alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/k$, and $\gamma_k = 2/5$. We then have*

$$R(\ell_k, \alpha_k, \alpha_k, \gamma_k) \geq \frac{1}{k^4} \Phi(k^2, \alpha_k, \gamma_k).$$

Proof. First, note that $L = 2^\ell = 2^{2\log(k)} = k^2$. Second, we have

$$\prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} [\beta_{2^i}^2 + (1 - \beta_{2^i})^2] \geq \prod_{i=0}^{\ell-1} \frac{1}{2} = 2^{-\ell} = \frac{1}{k^2},$$

since $p^2 + (1-p)^2 \geq 1/2$ for all $p \in [0,1]$. $\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\qquad\square$

Lemma 7. *For $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$, let $\ell_k = 2\log(k)$, $\alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/k$, and $\gamma_k = 2/5$. Then there exists a positive constant $c > 0$ such that*

$$\Phi(k^2, \alpha_k, \gamma_k) \geq c$$

for large enough $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Proof. It holds that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} h\left(\beta_{k^2}\right) = h\left(\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{1}{1 + (1 + 8/k^2)^{k^2}}\right) = h\left(\frac{1}{1 + e^8}\right) < 5 \cdot 10^{-3}. \qquad (3)$$

Furthermore, we have

$$
\sum_{w=0}^{k^2} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p_w}{\beta^{k^2} + (1-\beta)^{k^2}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{k^2-w}}\right) \geq
$$

$$
\geq \sum_{w=k^2(1/2-2/k)}^{k^2(1/2+2/k)} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p_w}{\beta^{k^2} + (1-\beta)^{k^2}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{k^2-w}}\right) \geq
$$

$$
\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{w=k^2(1/2-2/k)}^{k^2(1/2+2/k)} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p_w}{(1-\beta)^{k^2}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{k^2-w}}\right) \geq
$$

$$
\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{w=k^2(1/2-2/k)}^{k^2(1/2+2/k)} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p'_w}{(1-\beta)^{k^2}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{k^2-w}}\right) \geq
$$

$$
\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{w=k^2(1/2-2/k)}^{k^2(1/2+2/k)} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p'_w}{(1-\beta)^{k^2}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p'_w}{p'_w + p'_{k^2-w}}\right) \geq
$$

$$
\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{w=k^2(1/2-2/k)}^{k^2(1/2+2/k)} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p'_w}{(1-\beta)^{k^2}} \cdot h\left(\frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{\alpha_{01}}{\alpha_{00}}\right)^{4k}}\right) \quad (4)
$$

for large enough k, where the first inequality holds for $k \geq 5$ since all terms in the sum are positive, the second inequality holds because

$$
\beta^{k^2} + (1-\beta)^{k^2} \leq 2(1-\beta)^{k^2},
$$

the third inequality follows because $p_w > p'_w$, the fourth inequality follows from Lemma 4, and the fifth inequality follows from Lemma 5 with $L = k^2$ and $\delta = 2/k$, and from the fact that

$$
h\left(\frac{p'_w}{p'_w + p'_{L-w}}\right) \leq h\left(\frac{p'_{w+1}}{p'_{w+1} + p'_{L-w-1}}\right)
$$

for all $w < L/2$.

In order to lower bound the binary entropy term in (4), observe that we have

$$
\lim_{k \to \infty} h\left(\frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{\alpha_{01}}{\alpha_{00}}\right)^{4k}}\right) = h\left(\frac{1}{1 + e^{-32/5}}\right) > 1.7 \cdot 10^{-2}, \quad (5)
$$

since

$$
\lim_{k \to \infty} \left(\frac{\alpha_{01}}{\alpha_{00}}\right)^{4k} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \left(1 - \frac{8}{5k}\right)^{4k} = e^{-32/5}.
$$

Next, let $W := (w(X^{k^2} \oplus Z^{k^2}) \mid X^{k^2} = Y^{k^2})$, where $w(u)$ denotes the weight of a string u. Then

$$
\sum_{w=k^2(1/2-2/k)}^{k^2(1/2+2/k)} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p'_w}{(1-\beta)^{k^2}} = \Pr[|W - k^2/2| \leq 2k]. \quad (6)
$$

It suffices now to find a suitable lower bound for $\Pr[|W - k^2/2| \leq 2k]$. In order to do that, we will apply Chebyshev's inequality. First, note that

$$\mathrm{E}[W] = k^2 \cdot \frac{\alpha_{01}}{\alpha_{00} + \alpha_{01}} = k^2 \cdot \frac{\alpha^2(1-\gamma) + (1-\alpha)^2\gamma}{\alpha^2 + (1-\alpha)^2} \leq \frac{k^2}{2}.$$

Second, algebraic manipulation yields

$$\frac{k^2/2 - \mathrm{E}[W]}{k} = \frac{1}{5/2 + 10/k^2} \leq \frac{2}{5},$$

which implies that

$$k^2/2 - 2k/5 \leq \mathrm{E}[W] \leq k^2/2$$

for all k. Thus, we have

$$k^2(1/2 - 2/k) = k^2/2 - 2k \leq \mathrm{E}[W] - k,$$

and

$$k^2(1/2 + 2/k) = k^2/2 + 2k \geq \mathrm{E}[W] + k.$$

Therefore,

$$\Pr[|W - k^2/2| \leq 2k] \geq \Pr[|W - \mathrm{E}[W]| \leq k] \geq 1 - \frac{\mathrm{Var}[W]}{k^2} \geq \frac{3}{4}, \qquad (7)$$

where the second inequality follows from Chebyshev's inequality, and the third inequality follows from the fact that

$$\mathrm{Var}[W] = k^2 \cdot \Pr[X \neq Z | X = Y](1 - \Pr[X \neq Z | X = Y]) \leq \frac{k^2}{4}.$$

Combining (4), (5), (6), and (7) yields

$$\sum_{w=0}^{k^2} \binom{k^2}{w} \frac{p_w}{\beta^{k^2} + (1-\beta)^{k^2}} \cdot h\left(\frac{p_w}{p_w + p_{k^2-w}}\right) > \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} \cdot 1.7 \cdot 10^{-2} > 5 \cdot 10^{-3} > h(\beta_{k^2})$$

for large enough $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. $\qquad \square$

Combining the previous two lemmas yields the main result of this subsection.

Lemma 8. *For all $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$, let $\ell_k = 2\log(k)$, $\alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/k$, and $\gamma_k = 2/5$. Then there exists a constant $c > 0$ such that we have*

$$R(\ell_k, \alpha_k, \alpha_k, \gamma_k) \geq \frac{c}{k^4}$$

for large enough $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$.

Proof. This follows directly by combining Lemmas 6 and 7.

Deriving a lower bound in Q. It now remains to show that Lemma 8 actually implies the desired lower bound in Q. We proceed by first showing that $\frac{1-h(\gamma_k)}{1-h(\alpha_k)}$ increases like k^2, and then substitute this term by Q.

Lemma 9. *For all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, let $\ell_k = 2\log(k)$, $\alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/k$, and $\gamma_k = 2/5$. We then have*

$$\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)} \geq \frac{k^2}{200}.$$

Proof. Note that $1 - h(\gamma_k) = 1 - h(0.4) > 1/50$ for all k. Moreover, Lemma 12 yields

$$1 - h(\alpha_k) \leq \frac{4}{k^2}$$

and thus,

$$\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)} \geq \frac{(1 - h(\gamma_k))k^2}{4} > \frac{k^2}{200}$$

for all k. $\qquad\square$

Lemma 10. *For all $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$, let $\ell_k = 2\log(k)$, $\alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/k$, and $\gamma_k = 2/5$. We then have*

$$R\left(\frac{k^2}{200}\right) \geq R(\ell_k, \alpha_k, \alpha_k, \gamma_k).$$

Proof. First, observe that $R(Q)$ is a decreasing function of Q. Indeed, fix $Q < Q'$. For each choice (α', γ') for $R(Q')$, we can obtain a choice (α, γ) for $R(Q)$ by setting $\alpha = \alpha'$ and $\gamma > \gamma'$. It follows immediately that running the parity-check protocol with the same parameters for the new choice (α, γ) yields a larger secret-key rate, and thus $R(Q) \geq R(Q')$. Combining this with Lemma 9 immediately yields

$$R\left(\frac{k^2}{200}\right) \geq R\left(\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)}\right).$$

Finally, observe that by definition we have

$$R\left(\frac{1 - h(\gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)}\right) = \sup_{\ell, \alpha, \gamma : \frac{1-h(\gamma)}{1-h(\alpha)} = \frac{1-h(\gamma_k)}{1-h(\alpha_k)}} R(\ell, \alpha, \alpha, \gamma) \geq R(\ell_k, \alpha_k, \alpha_k, \gamma_k),$$

concluding the proof. $\qquad\square$

We are now ready to prove Theorem 2 by substituting $k^2/200$ with Q.

Proof (Theorem 2). Combining Lemmas 8 and 10 we know that there exists a constant $c_1 > 0$ such that

$$R\left(\frac{k^2}{200}\right) \geq \frac{c_1}{k^4}$$

for large enough $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Substituting $Q := k^2/200$ and $c_2 := c_1/200^2 > 0$ we obtain

$$R(Q) \geq \frac{c_2}{Q^2},$$

for large enough $Q \in \{4^j/200 \mid j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. This inequality can be extended to all large enough values of Q by noting that, for every $Q \geq 1$, there is an integer j such that

$$Q \leq \frac{4^j}{200} \leq 6Q.$$

In fact, if j is such that $Q \le 4^j \le 4Q$, which we know exists, then

$$Q \le \frac{4^{j+4}}{200} = \frac{256 \cdot 4^j}{200} \le 6Q.$$

Using that $R(\cdot)$ is a decreasing function, we thus obtain, if j is large enough,

$$R(Q) \ge R\left(\frac{4^{j+4}}{200}\right) \ge \frac{c_2}{(6Q)^2} = \frac{c_3}{Q^2},$$

where $c_3 = c_2/6^2 > 0$ is a positive constant independent of Q.

The inequality can finally be extended to all $Q \ge 1$ as follows. Let Q_0 be such that $R(Q_0) \ge c_3/Q_0^2$. Then, set $c_4 = c_3/Q_0^2 \le c_3$. Combining, this with Lemmas 2 and 3 yields for all $1 \le Q < Q_0$

$$S^-(Q) \ge S(Q) \ge R(Q) \ge R(Q_0) \ge c_4 \ge \frac{c_4}{Q^2},$$

which implies the desired result with $c = c_4$.   □

Remark 3. The proof of Theorem 2 also goes through if we choose ℓ_k, α_k and γ_k in a way that the channel quality ratio Q increases linearly with k, e.g. by choosing $\ell_k = \log(k)$, $\alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/\sqrt{k}$ and $\gamma_k = 2/5$. We opted for the current settings because the derivation is slightly easier to follow.

4.3   An Upper Bound on the Maximal Secret-Key Rate $S^+(Q)$

In this section, we prove that $S^+(Q)$ decreases at least inversely proportional to Q^2. In short, we prove the following result.

Theorem 3. *We have*
$$S^+(Q) \le \frac{4\ln(2)^2}{Q^2} < \frac{2}{Q^2}$$

for all $Q \ge 1$.

As a first step, we again consider the definition $S(Q)$ where we require Eve's antenna to be exactly Q times larger than Alice's and Bob's, which will provide the first upper bound.

Lemma 11. *Let $Q \ge 1$, we then have $S^+(Q) \le S(Q)$.*

Proof. Let $Q_A, Q_B \ge Q$ be arbitrary and let ϵ_A, ϵ_B, and ϵ_E be such that $\rho(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_E) = Q_A$ and $\rho(\epsilon_B, \epsilon_E) = Q_B$. We set $\gamma := \epsilon_E$ and let α be such that $\rho(\alpha, \gamma) = Q$, which is guaranteed to exist for $Q \ge 1$. We then have

$$\frac{1 - h(\epsilon_E)}{1 - h(\alpha)} = Q \le Q_A = \frac{1 - h(\epsilon_E)}{1 - h(\epsilon_A)},$$

and using $1 - h(\epsilon_E) > 0$ we obtain $\alpha \le \epsilon_A$. Analogously, we obtain $\alpha \le \epsilon_B$. Now observe that $S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E) \le S(\alpha, \alpha, \epsilon_E)$, since the honest parties can themselves increase the error probabilities by locally sending the received bit through an additional independent binary symmetric channel. Hence, we have

$$\sup_{\substack{\epsilon_A,\epsilon_B,\epsilon_E \\ \rho(\epsilon_A,\epsilon_E)=Q_A \\ \rho(\epsilon_B,\epsilon_E)=Q_B}} S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E) \le \sup_{\substack{\alpha,\gamma \\ \rho(\alpha,\gamma)=Q}} S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma)$$

for all $Q_A, Q_B \ge Q$, and thus also $S^+(Q) \le S(Q)$.   □

Before we can prove $S(Q) \leq \frac{2}{Q^2}$, we need the following auxiliary result.

Lemma 12 ([2, Theorem 2.2]). *If $p = 1/2 - \epsilon$, we have*

$$\frac{2\epsilon^2}{\ln(2)} \leq 1 - h(p) \leq 4\epsilon^2.$$

We now proceed by showing two lemmas that we will reuse later.

Lemma 13. *Let $Q \geq 1$, $\alpha, \gamma \in [0, 1/2]$ such that $\frac{1 - h(\gamma)}{1 - h(\alpha)} = Q$, and $\delta := 1/2 - \alpha$. We then have*

$$S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma) \leq 16\delta^4.$$

Proof. Note that

$$S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma) \leq I(X; Y) = 1 - h(\beta),$$

where X and Y are Alice's and Bob's random variables in the satellite setting with $\epsilon_A = \epsilon_B = \alpha$, and $\beta := \Pr[X \neq Y] = 2\alpha(1 - \alpha)$. Since $\beta = 2\alpha(1 - \alpha) = 1/2 - 2\delta^2$, using $\epsilon := 2\delta^2$, it follows by Lemma 12 that

$$1 - h(\beta) \leq 16\delta^4,$$

concluding the proof. $\qquad\square$

It remains to bound δ^4 by a function of Q.

Lemma 14. *Let $Q \geq 1$, $\alpha, \gamma \in [0, 1/2]$ such that $\frac{1 - h(\gamma)}{1 - h(\alpha)} = Q$, and $\delta := 1/2 - \alpha$. We then have*

$$2\delta^2 \leq \frac{\ln(2)}{Q}.$$

Proof. Using Lemma 12 we obtain

$$\frac{2\delta^2}{\ln(2)} \leq 1 - h(\alpha) = \frac{1 - h(\gamma)}{Q} \leq \frac{1}{Q}.$$

$\qquad\square$

We are now ready to conclude the overall proof of Theorem 3.

Proof (Theorem 3). Combining Lemmas 11, 13 and 14 yields

$$S^+(Q) \leq S(Q) = \sup_{\substack{\alpha, \gamma \\ \rho(\alpha, \gamma) = Q}} S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma) \leq 16\delta^4 \leq \frac{4\ln(2)^2}{Q^2} < \frac{2}{Q^2}$$

for all $Q \geq 1$. $\qquad\square$

4.4 Towards Asymptotically Tight Bounds

Recall that $S(Q)$ denotes the secret-key rate in the setting where Alice's and Bob's channels are identical (i.e., $\epsilon_A = \epsilon_B$ always), and Eve's channel is exactly Q times better than both of Alice's and Bob's. Moreover, $R(Q)$ denotes the secret-key rate of the parity-check protocol in the same setting. In Sections 4.2 and 4.3, we have overall proven the following bounds on $S^-(Q)$, $S^+(Q)$, $S(Q)$, and $R(Q)$:

$$\frac{c}{Q^2} \ \leq \ R(Q) \ \leq \ S(Q) \ \leq \ S^-(Q),$$

$$S^+(Q) \ \leq \ S(Q) \ \leq \ \frac{2}{Q^2}.$$

Thus, in this setting we have determined the secret-key rate up to a multiplicative constant, proving the conjecture by Gander and Maurer.

Corollary 1. *We have $S(Q) = \Theta(1/Q^2)$. Moreover, the parity-check protocol achieves rate $\Omega(1/Q^2)$ in this setting.*

On the other hand, for $S^-(Q)$ and $S^+(Q)$ we have no matching upper and lower bounds, respectively. Note especially that in general neither $S^-(Q) \leq S^+(Q)$ nor $S^+(Q) \leq S^-(Q)$ holds, since $S^-(Q)$ considers settings where both Alice's and Bob's antennas are at most Q times smaller and $S^+(Q)$ considers settings where both are at least Q times smaller. In order to derive matching bounds, we would thus also have to consider mixed settings where one antenna is at least and the other one at most Q times smaller, and introduce corresponding notions.

However, we feel that deriving any meaningful bound on such a mixed notion might be challenging, and believe that it might be easier to just start considering a notion that is actually characterized by the two separate ratios Q_A and Q_B rather than the combined ratio Q. Given that such a notion would dismiss the simplicity of our notions, both in terms of conciseness and the techniques required to prove bounds on them, we however still think that our notions $S^-(Q)$ and $S^+(Q)$ provides a natural and valuable starting point towards a better understanding of the secret-key rate in a setting where the signal strength is considered to be a design parameter.

5   The Secret-Key Rate per Second Under a Fixed Channel Quality Ratio

In this section, we consider the scenario where the power consumption of the satellite is bounded; for instance, due to the size of its solar panels. Nevertheless, we can adjust the energy used to broadcast each bit by adjusting the bit-rate, i.e., the number of bits broadcast per second, while maintaining a fixed power consumption. In this setting, the natural quantity to optimize for is clearly the secret-key rate per second, rather than the secret-key rate per random bit.

5.1   Defining the Secret-Key Rate per Second

When defining the secret-key rate per second in the satellite model, there is one inherent issue: the abstraction using binary symmetric channels instead of AWGN channels actually abstracted away any notion of time. Hence, to nevertheless devise a quantity that can serve as a heuristic of the SKR per second, expressed as a function of the error probabilities, we once again consider the AWGN setting. In contrast to the capacity of the binary symmetric channel, which is measured as the number of bits that can be reliably transmitted per bit sent, the capacity of an AWGN channel is measured in bits that can be reliable transmitted per second.

As mentioned in Section 4.1, the capacity of an AWGN channel is $C_{\mathsf{AWGN}} = B \log(1 + S/N)$, where B is the bandwidth (in the spectrum), S is the signal power, and N is the noise power. Importantly, this capacity of the AWGN channel is a physical property of the channel that is not influenced by the way we encode and decode. A binary symmetric channel can be seen as an abstraction of an AWGN channel where all parties perform a hard decoding, i.e., measure the signal over a given interval in time and output a 1 if the average value in this time is above a certain threshold and 0 otherwise. Hence, we can also look at the capacity per bit in the AWGN model by normalizing by the "bit-rate", meaning the number of bits the parties output per second when applying their hard decoding. If we now double this bit-rate, the capacity per second has to remain constant, hence the capacity

per bit must decrease by a factor of two. Therefore, the capacity per bit is inversely proportional to the bit-rate. Moreover, this capacity per bit of the AWGN channel roughly corresponds to the capacity of the BSC channel, as long as the hard decoding is not too far from an optimal encoding scheme, which is the case in a regime with small signal to noise ratio. Thus, for a BSC with significant error probabilities, the capacity is inversely proportional to the bit-rate. This implies that asymptotically the SKR per second, which is equal to the SKR per bit times the bit-rate, behaves like the SKR per bit divided by the capacity of the binary symmetric channel.

As a consequence, we can define the secret-key rate per second by dividing the secret-key rate per bit by the capacity of the honest parties' channel, which we assume to have larger error probabilities than Eve's channel, and hence deliver the better approximation. For simplicity, we only consider the setting where both Alice and Bob have antennas of the same size; analogous to Section 4.1, one could in principle also define two separate worst-case and best-case notions, but as we have seen in Lemmas 2 and 11 they can be easily bounded by the simpler notion.

Definition 8. *The* secret-key rate per second for an adversary with an exactly Q times better channel*, denoted by $S^*(Q)$, is defined as*

$$S^*(Q) := \sup_{\substack{\alpha,\gamma \\ \rho(\alpha,\gamma)=Q}} \frac{S(\alpha,\alpha,\gamma)}{1-h(\alpha)}.$$

where $S(\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$ is the secret-key rate of the satellite setting.

5.2   Bounds on the Secret-Key Rate per Second

In this section, we establish the exact asymptotic behavior of $S^*(Q)$ as a function of Q, up to a multiplicative constant. For the lower bound, we will, analogously to Section 4.2, make use of the fact that the secret-key rate of the parity-check protocol is a trivial lower bound of the secret-key rate. Therefore, we also introduce the secret-key rate per second of the parity-check protocol.

Definition 9. *The* secret-key rate per second of the parity-check protocol for an adversary with an exactly Q times better channel*, denoted by $R^*(Q)$, is defined as*

$$R^*(Q) := \sup_{\substack{\ell,\alpha,\gamma \\ \rho(\alpha,\gamma)=Q}} \frac{R(\ell,\alpha,\alpha,\gamma)}{1-h(\alpha)}.$$

where $R(\ell,\epsilon_A, \epsilon_B, \epsilon_E)$ denotes the rate per random bit generated by the parity-check protocol using ℓ rounds.

We then obtain the following asymptotically exact characterization of the secret-key rate per second.

Theorem 4. *There exist constants $c_1, c_2 > 0$ such that*

$$\frac{c_1}{Q} \le R^*(Q) \le S^*(Q) \le \frac{c_2}{Q}$$

for all $Q \ge 1$.

Proof. The overall proof is very similar to the one of Theorems 2 and 3 and reuses most of its lemmas. Again, the second inequality represents the trivial fact that the secret-key rate $R^*(Q)$ generated by the parity-check protocol is a lower bound on the general secret-key rate in the satellite setting.

We first prove the upper bound on $S^*(Q)$. Fix $Q \geq 1$ and $\alpha, \gamma \in [0, 1/2]$ satisfying $\frac{1-h(\gamma)}{1-h(\alpha)} = Q$, and let $\delta := 1/2 - \alpha$. Then, by Lemma 12, we have

$$1 - h(\alpha) \geq \frac{2\delta^2}{\ln(2)}.$$

Combining this with Lemmas 13 and 14 yields

$$\frac{S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma)}{1 - h(\alpha)} \leq 8\ln(2)\delta^2 \leq \frac{4\ln(2)^2}{Q}.$$

Since the choice of α and γ was arbitrary, we have

$$S^*(Q) = \sup_{\alpha, \gamma: \frac{1-h(\gamma)}{1-h(\alpha)}=Q} \frac{S(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma)}{1 - h(\alpha)} \leq \frac{4\ln(2)^2}{Q} < \frac{2}{Q}$$

for all $Q \geq 1$. This concludes the proof on the upper bound on $S^*(Q)$.

It now remains to prove the lower bound on $R^*(Q)$. To this end, let $\ell_k = 2\log(k)$, $\alpha_k = 1/2 - 1/k$, and $\gamma_k = 2/5$ for all $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. First, observe that by definition we have

$$R^*\left(\frac{1-h(\gamma_k)}{1-h(\alpha_k)}\right) = \sup_{\ell, \alpha, \gamma: \frac{1-h(\gamma)}{1-h(\alpha)} = \frac{1-h(\gamma_k)}{1-h(\alpha_k)}} \frac{R(\ell, \alpha, \alpha, \gamma)}{1 - h(\alpha)} \geq \frac{R(\ell_k, \alpha_k, \alpha_k, \gamma_k)}{1 - h(\alpha_k)}.$$

Using Lemma 8 we know that there exists a constant $c > 0$ such that

$$R^*\left(\frac{1-h(\gamma_k)}{1-h(\alpha_k)}\right) \geq \frac{c}{k^4(1 - h(\alpha_k))}$$

for large enough $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Moreover, Lemma 12 yields

$$1 - h(\alpha_k) \leq \frac{4}{k^2},$$

and thus we obtain

$$R^*\left(\frac{1-h(\gamma_k)}{1-h(\alpha_k)}\right) \geq \frac{c}{4k^2}$$

for large enough $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Next, observe that analogously to $R(Q)$, $R^*(Q)$ is a decreasing function of Q. Combining this with Lemma 9 immediately yields

$$R^*\left(\frac{k^2}{200}\right) \geq R^*\left(\frac{1-h(\gamma_k)}{1-h(\alpha_k)}\right) \geq \frac{c}{4k^2}$$

for large enough $k \in \{2^j : j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Substituting $Q := k^2/200$ and $c' := c/800 > 0$ we obtain

$$R^*(Q) \geq \frac{c'}{Q},$$

for large enough $Q \in \{4^j/200 \mid j \in \mathbb{N}\}$. This inequality can be extended to all values of $Q \geq 1$ using the same technique as in the proof of Section 4.2 on Page 19.   □

6   Conclusions and Open Problems

In this paper we investigated the secret-key rate in the satellite model, where we assume an upper bound Q on the quality ratio between the honest parties' and Eve's receiving equipment, which we modeled as a constraint on the capacity ratio between the binary symmetric channels.

As a first contribution, we introduced two quantities $S^-(Q)$ and $S^+(Q)$ as worst-case and best-case quantities, respectively, generalizing the special setting from Gander and Maurer [6] to the case where $\epsilon_A \neq \epsilon_B$. Secondly, we have shown that the secret-key rate in such a setting essentially behaves like $1/Q^2$, and in particular provedd the conjecture of Gander and Maurer about the secret-key rate of the parity-check protocol. Third, we proposed studying the secret-key rate per second, and introduced a novel quantity $S^*(Q)$ that heuristically approximates it. Finally, we have shown that this quantity essentially decreases like $1/Q$.

In terms of future work, we envision three main open problems. First, one should extend our studies $S^-(Q)$ and $S^+(Q)$ to settings where Alice and Bob have antennas of vastly different sizes, addressing the typical client-server scenarios. Second, there is a need for a better model of the secret-key rate per second, which should be built on an abstraction level that does not abstract away time, thereby allowing one to verify our conjecture that the SKR per second behaves like $1/Q$. Finally, and most importantly, one should address the issues that still prevent the satellite model from being used in practice, for instance by studying the secret-key rate in a similar setting to ours when the adversary does not quantize her analog signal, or by investigating the potential effect of an active adversary jamming the signal.

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