

# Quantum-Resilient Authentication Protocol for Secure V2G Communications

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**Abstract**—Vehicle-to-Grid (V2G) networks enable bidirectional energy and information exchange between electric vehicles and smart grids, playing a critical role in future intelligent transportation and energy systems. However, the authentication mechanisms currently deployed in V2G communications rely heavily on classical cryptographic primitives that are vulnerable to quantum adversaries, posing a significant security risk. In this paper, we propose a quantum-resilient authentication protocol for V2G communications that ensures secure and efficient mutual authentication between electric vehicles and charging stations. The proposed scheme leverages Quantum Key Distribution (QKD). Formal security analysis demonstrates the robust security features of the protocol, and performance evaluation shows that it achieves lower computation cost compared to similar V2G authentication schemes.

**Index Terms**—Quantum Key Distribution, quantum security, V2G communications.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Smart grid networks integrate advanced communication, sensing, and control technologies to enable intelligent monitoring, automation, and optimization of power generation, transmission, and distribution systems [1]. Unlike traditional power grids, where electricity flows only from centralized utilities to end users, smart grids support bidirectional exchange of both energy and information between power providers and consumers. This two-way interaction enables real-time visibility and control across the grid. By leveraging mechanisms such as demand response and adaptive load management, smart grids enhance energy efficiency while maintaining system stability and balancing supply and demand [2]. Further, smart grid architectures facilitate the seamless integration of distributed energy resources, including renewable generation such as solar and wind, energy storage systems, and Electric Vehicles (EVs). Thus, it supports sustainable and resilient power infrastructures [3], [4].

The adoption of EVs has grown significantly over the past few years, driven largely by environmental concerns. Conventional internal combustion engine vehicles rely on hydrocarbon fuels, leading to air pollution and increased greenhouse gas emissions. In contrast, EVs operate on elec-

tricity and produce negligible direct emissions [5]. Hence, governments worldwide promote EV adoption through regulatory support and financial incentives.

The rapid adoption of EVs has intensified the need to address security challenges within charging infrastructures [6]–[8]. In a V2G environment, EVs and charging stations communicate billing data and user-related information, all of which are attractive targets for cyberattacks. Authentication between EVs and charging stations is a fundamental requirement for secure V2G communications, as it establishes mutual trust before any exchange of energy or sensitive information takes place. Without proper authentication, malicious entities can impersonate legitimate EVs or charging stations to perform unauthorized charging, energy theft, false billing, or injection of fraudulent control messages that may disrupt grid stability. Therefore, robust authentication between EVs and charging stations is essential to maintain trust, reliability, and operational security in V2G communications.

Most existing authentication protocols for V2G communications rely on conventional public-key cryptographic techniques. Such techniques ensure security by leveraging the computational difficulty of solving well-known mathematical problems, particularly integer factorization and discrete logarithm, which are considered infeasible to solve efficiently. However, advances in quantum computers and the development of quantum algorithms pose a significant threat to these assumptions. For example, quantum algorithms such as Shor’s algorithm [9] can solve these problems in polynomial time. Classical public-key-based authentication mechanisms will be inadequate to provide security with the emergence of quantum computer-enabled adversaries. Hence, quantum-secure authentication protocols are essential for V2G communications.

Quantum Key Distribution (QKD) techniques can be employed to build quantum-safe solutions. QKD enables two parties to securely generate a shared key using the principles of quantum mechanics. Any eavesdropping on a QKD channel disturbs the quantum states and will be reflected in the outcome of the system [10], [11]. This allows legitimate parties to derive keys that are secure even against quantum-capable adversaries. MDI-QKD is a QKD protocol whose

security does not make any assumptions about measurement devices [12]–[15]. MDI-QKD is immune to side-channel attacks targeting the quantum receiver [13]. Also, MDI-QKD is ideal for expanding the network, since it can provide a natural star topology [16]. We propose an authentication protocol to secure V2G communications leveraging MDI-QKD.

### A. Related Work

This section reviews the existing literature on authentication schemes for V2G communications. The authors of [17] proposed an authentication protocol for V2G networks based on the Elliptic Curve Cryptosystem (ECC) and bilinear pairing. Another authentication protocol for V2G networks based on bilinear pairing was proposed in [18]. An authentication scheme for EV charging leveraging the concept of decentralized identifiers was proposed in [19]. This protocol enables users to create their own identities, thus ensuring an enhanced level of privacy. An authentication protocol based on ECC to secure V2G communications was presented in [20]. Subramani et al. proposed a batch authentication scheme for V2G communication in [21]. It is also based on bilinear pairing. An authentication protocol with user revocation feature was proposed in [22]. Though the above protocols addressed some of the security issues in V2G communications, none of them are quantum-safe.

A V2G authentication scheme based on PUFs was presented in [23]. Hou et al. proposed an authentication protocol based on PUFs in [24] that explored 5G network and the grid integration. Studies have shown that PUFs are prone to modeling attacks and their response can be affected by environmental factors.

### B. Motivation and Contributions

It is important to secure V2G communications through authentication protocols. In addition, authentication protocols should be quantum-secure to provide resilience against future quantum computer-enabled attacks. To address the above challenges, we make the following key contributions:

- **A quantum resilient authentication protocol for V2G communications:** We propose a quantum-secure authentication protocol for V2G communications. The proposed protocol leverages QKD to establish a session key between the EV and the charging station.
- **Protection from classical and quantum adversaries:** The proposed protocol provides security against common conventional attacks and future quantum attacks.
- **Security analysis:** A formal security analysis under the Real-Or-Random (RoR) model [25] and an informal security analysis are provided.
- **Performance analysis:** We assess the efficiency and practicality of the proposed protocol through performance analysis.

## II. SYSTEM AND ADVERSARY MODELS

### A. System Model

Figure 1 illustrates the system model. The EVs are denoted as  $\{\mathcal{V}_1, \mathcal{V}_2, \dots, \mathcal{V}_n\}$  and the charging station as  $\mathcal{CS}$ . The Central Controller ( $\mathcal{CC}$ ) registers the EVs and stores the registration information in its data centre. The EVs and the charging stations hold a quantum transmitter each. They prepare quantum states and send them to the  $\mathcal{CC}$  for Bell-state measurement.

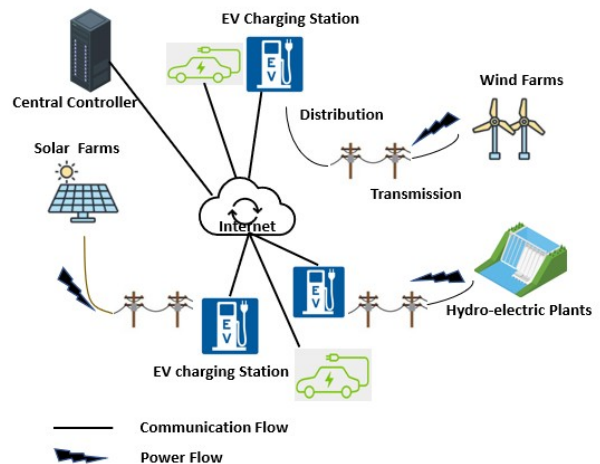


Fig. 1. System model.

### B. Adversary Model

Since the EVs and the charging stations exchange messages over the insecure communication channel, an adversary can control this communication channel. He/she may eavesdrop on the messages, edit, or delete them. Also, the adversary may replay the messages after capturing or generate messages to impersonate a legitimate EV or charging station. Further, the adversary model considers an attacker with quantum computing capabilities, enabling the compromise of security mechanisms that rely on classical computational hardness assumptions.

## III. PROPOSED QUANTUM-RESILIENT AUTHENTICATION PROTOCOL

The proposed authentication protocol consists of registration and mutual authentication phases. Each EV runs the registration phase only once. The mutual authentication phase is carried out whenever the EV and the charging station need to communicate.

### A. Registration Phase

In this phase, an EV,  $\mathcal{V}_i$ , with an identity,  $ID$ , sends a registration request to the  $\mathcal{CC}$ . The  $\mathcal{CC}$  registers  $\mathcal{V}_i$ .

## B. Authentication Phase

In this phase,  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$  generate a secure key through MDI-QKD and authenticate each other. The steps are given below:

**Step 1:**  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$  prepare quantum states independently, based on their random choices of systems settings, including intensity selection, basis selection, and a random bit.  $\mathcal{V}_i$  generates  $n$  states as  $\{a^*_{i1}, a^*_{i2}, \dots, a^*_{in}\}$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$  also generates  $n$  states as  $\{b^*_{i1}, b^*_{i2}, \dots, b^*_{in}\}$ . After that,  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$  send the prepared quantum states to the  $\mathcal{CC}$  over the quantum channel.

**Step 2:** The  $\mathcal{CC}$  performs Bell-state measurements on the received quantum states. Then, it announces the results of measurement via a public classical channel.

**Step 3:** If the  $\mathcal{CC}$  announces a successful Bell-state measurement result,  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$  broadcast their intensity and basis settings. The above process is continued till both have collected a sufficient number of successful measurement events. The  $\mathcal{CS}$  flips its bits depending on the basis choice and the reported Bell-state. Both parties determine the error rate. The error rate should be below a predefined threshold. Then, information reconciliation is performed to check if both parties have a matching raw key. A random universal hash function is used to extract two shorter strings. Finally, these two strings are concatenated to form the final secret key.

**Step 4:** Let there be  $m$  retained bits from the measurements denoted as  $\{a_{i1}, a_{i2}, \dots, a_{im}\}$ . Thus, a key  $k_i = a_{i1}a_{i2} \dots a_{im}$  is established through the QKD process between  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$ .

**Step 5:**  $\mathcal{V}_i$  generates a random number  $r_i$  at time  $t_1$ . Then,  $\mathcal{V}_i$  computes  $r_i^* = r_i \oplus k_i$ ,  $\gamma_1 = h(r_i \parallel k_i)$ , and  $\epsilon_1 = h(ID \parallel \gamma_1)$ . Then,  $\mathcal{V}_i$  composes a message  $M_1$  with a request, its identity  $ID$ ,  $r_i^*$ ,  $t_1$ , and  $\epsilon_1$  as  $M_1 = \{Req, ID, r_i^*, t_1, \epsilon_1\}$  and sends  $M_1$  to the  $\mathcal{CS}$ .

**Step 6:** The  $\mathcal{CS}$  receives  $M_1$  at  $t_1^*$ . First, it verifies if  $t_1 - t_1^*$  is less than or equal to a pre-defined communication delay. Then, it computes  $r_i = r_i^* \oplus k_i$ ,  $\gamma'_1 = h(r_i \parallel k_i)$ , and  $\epsilon'_1 = h(ID \parallel \gamma'_1)$ . After that, it verifies  $\epsilon_1$  against  $\epsilon'_1$ . Then, the  $\mathcal{CS}$  generates a random number  $n_i$  at time  $t_2$  and computes  $n_i^* = n_i \oplus k_i$ . The  $\mathcal{CS}$  generates the session key  $SK_i$  as  $SK_i = h(ID \parallel r_i \parallel n_i)$  and stores it. After that, the  $\mathcal{CS}$  computes  $\gamma_2 = h(n_i \parallel k_i)$  and  $\epsilon_2 = h(ID \parallel \gamma_2)$ . Then, the  $\mathcal{CS}$  composes  $M_2 = \{Ack, n_i^*, t_2, \epsilon_2\}$  and sends it to  $\mathcal{V}_i$ .

**Step 7:**  $\mathcal{V}_i$  receives  $M_2$  at  $t_2^*$ . First, it verifies if  $t_2 - t_2^*$  is less than or equal to a pre-defined communication delay. Then, it computes  $n_i = n_i^* \oplus k_i$ ,  $\gamma'_2 = h(n_i \parallel k_i)$ , and  $\epsilon'_2 = h(ID \parallel \gamma'_2)$ . Then, it verifies  $\epsilon_2$  against  $\epsilon'_2$ . Finally,  $\mathcal{V}_i$  generates the session key  $SK_i$  as  $SK_i = h(ID \parallel r_i \parallel n_i)$  and stores it. The mutual authentication phase is illustrated in Figure 2.

## IV. SECURITY ANALYSIS

We first analyze the security of the proposed protocol using the RoR model [25], and then present an informal security analysis.

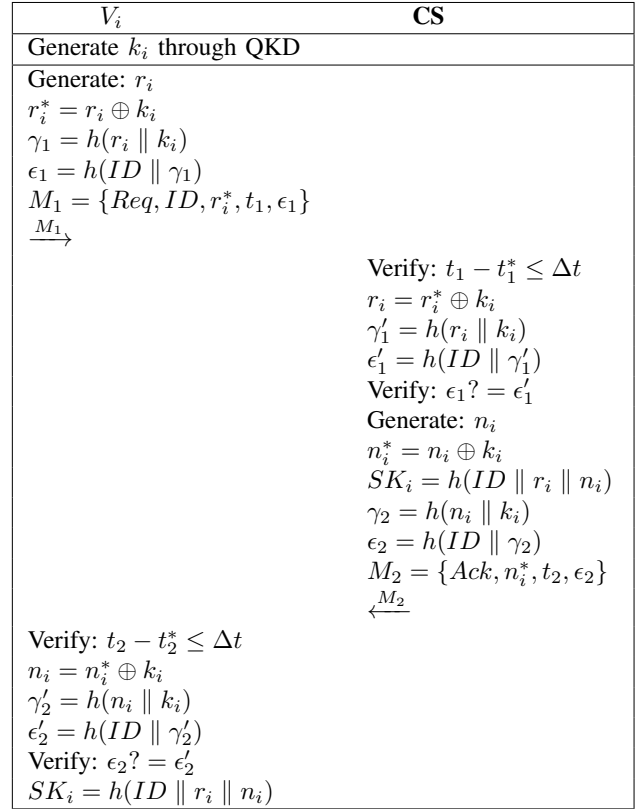


Fig. 2. Authentication phase.

## A. Formal Security Analysis

An adversary  $\mathcal{A}$  tries to distinguish the session key in a protocol session between  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$ . We consider the oracle queries given below:

- *Execute*( $\mathcal{V}_i, \mathcal{CS}$ ): With this query,  $\mathcal{A}$  passively monitors the messages exchanged between  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$ .
- *Send*( $P, x$ ): With this query,  $\mathcal{A}$  sends a message  $x$  to  $P$  where  $P$  is  $\mathcal{V}_i$  or the  $\mathcal{CS}$ .
- *Reveal*( $P$ ): This query models the ephemeral secret leakage attack. It captures the ephemeral secrets of  $P$  where  $P$  is  $\mathcal{V}_i$  or the  $\mathcal{CS}$ .
- *Corrupt*( $P$ ): This query captures the long-term secret credential of  $P$  where  $P$  is  $\mathcal{V}_i$  or the  $\mathcal{CS}$ .
- *Test*( $\cdot$ ): This query can be called only once. With the execution of this query, a bit  $b$  will be flipped. Depending on whether  $b = 1$  or not,  $\mathcal{A}$  receives the actual session key or a random string.

**Definition 1:** Let  $W$  denote the event when  $\mathcal{A}$  correctly guesses  $b$  with the *Test*( $\cdot$ ) query.  $\mathcal{A}$ 's advantage in compromising the security of the proposed protocol is measured by the probability of this successful guess. Hence, we can write that:

$$Adv_{\mathcal{A}} = |2 \cdot Pr[W] - 1|.$$

The proposed protocol is secure if  $Adv_{\mathcal{A}}$  is negligible.

**Theorem 1.** Let  $\mathcal{A}$  send  $n_h$ ,  $n_s$ , and  $n_e$  *Hash*, *Send*, and *Execute* queries, respectively. The *Hash* query denotes a

one-way hash function with a range space  $|h|$ . Let  $Adv_A^q$  denote  $\mathcal{A}$ 's advantage in finding the secure key established between  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$  through QKD. Then, the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is  $Adv_A \leq \frac{(n_h)^2}{2^{(h)}} + \frac{(n_s+n_e)^2}{l} + 2Adv_A^q$ . Hence,  $Adv_A$  is negligible.

**Proof:** Consider a series of games  $g_i$  for  $i \in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$ .

$g_0$ :  $g_0$  corresponds to a real attack by  $\mathcal{A}$ . Here  $\mathcal{A}$  guesses  $b$  randomly. Hence, the advantage of  $\mathcal{A}$  is:

$$Adv_A = |2Pr[W_{A,g_0}] - 1|. \quad (1)$$

$g_1$ : In  $g_1$ , since all the queries *Execute*, *Send*, *Hash*, *Reveal*, and *Corrupt* are simulated as in a real attack, games  $g_0$  and  $g_1$  are identical. Hence, it can be written that:

$$Pr[W_{A,g_1}] = Pr[W_{A,g_0}]. \quad (2)$$

$g_2$ : Games  $g_2$  and  $g_1$  are similar. Until there are collisions in the hash or transcripts,  $\mathcal{A}$  continues  $g_2$ . The collision probability of the hash function is at most  $\frac{(n_h)^2}{2^{(h+1)}}$  as given by the birthday paradox and the collision probability in transcripts is  $\frac{(n_s+n_e)^2}{2l}$  where  $l$  is the length of the transcripts. Hence, it can be written that:

$$Pr[W_{A,g_2}] - Pr[W_{A,g_1}] \leq \frac{(n_h)^2}{2^{(h+1)}} + \frac{(n_s+n_e)^2}{2l}. \quad (3)$$

$g_3$ : This game considers the leakage of session key. Without knowing  $k_i$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  cannot decode  $n_i$  from  $n_i^*$  and  $r_i$  from  $r_i^*$ .  $\mathcal{A}$  needs to know  $n_i$  and  $r_i$  to compute the session key  $SK_i$ . By principles of quantum mechanics,  $\mathcal{A}$  cannot get  $k_i$ . As a result, the difference between  $g_3$  and  $g_2$  is negligible. Hence, we can write that:

$$Pr[W_{A,g_3}] - Pr[W_{A,g_2}] \leq Adv_A^q. \quad (4)$$

As a final attempt,  $\mathcal{A}$  guesses the bit  $b$ . It can be written that:

$$Pr[W_{A,g_4}] = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (5)$$

From (1) and (2), we can write the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}Adv_A &= |Pr[W_{A,g_0}] - \frac{1}{2}| \\ &= |Pr[W_{A,g_1}] - \frac{1}{2}|. \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

By applying the triangle inequality with equations (3) to (6), we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2}Adv_A &= |Pr[W_{A,g_1}] - \frac{1}{2}| \\ &= |Pr[W_{A,g_1}] - Pr[W_{A,g_4}]| \\ &\leq \frac{(n_h)^2}{2^{(h+1)}} + \frac{(n_s+n_e)^2}{2l} + Adv_A^q. \end{aligned} \quad (7)$$

Hence, we can write that:

$$Adv_A \leq \frac{(n_h)^2}{2^{(h)}} + \frac{(n_s+n_e)^2}{l} + 2Adv_A^q. \quad (8)$$

## B. Informal Security Analysis

- **Resilience Against Quantum Attacks:** The proposed authentication protocol leverages MDI-QKD. The security offered by QKD arises from the principles of quantum mechanics and not from the hardness of solving the underlying mathematical problems, as in traditional public key cryptography. Hence, the proposed protocol is secure even against attacks by an adversary with quantum computing capabilities. Further, MDI-QKD is immune to side-channel attacks targeting the quantum receiver as well.
- **Eavesdropping Protection:** The random number  $r_1$  used in  $M_1$  is not sent in plain text. It is encoded before composing the message. Further,  $\epsilon_1$  is a hash value. Hence, an adversary cannot extract useful information even if he/she eavesdrops on  $M_1$ . Similarly, the adversary cannot extract useful information by listening to  $M_2$ . Thus, the proposed protocol is resilient to eavesdropping attacks.
- **Replay Attack Resistance:** Timestamps and fresh random numbers are used in composing the messages each time. Hence, if the adversary captures and replays messages, it will be detected by the receiver. Thus, there is replay attack protection.
- **Authentication:**  $\mathcal{V}_i$  encodes  $r_i$  as  $r_i^*$  using  $k_i$ . Only the  $\mathcal{CS}$  can decode  $r_i$  from  $r_i^*$ . Similarly, the  $\mathcal{CS}$  verifies  $\epsilon_1$  since it knows the key,  $k_i$ . The  $\mathcal{CS}$  encodes  $n_i$  as  $n_i^*$  using  $k_i$ . Only  $\mathcal{V}_i$  can decode  $n_i$  from  $n_i^*$ . Similarly,  $\mathcal{V}_i$  verifies  $\epsilon_2$  since it knows the key,  $k_i$ . As a result, both parties are authenticated under the proposed protocol.
- **Session Key Security:**  $\mathcal{V}_i$  and the  $\mathcal{CS}$  verify the legitimacy of each other and generate a session key  $SK_i$ . Thus, the proposed protocol ensures session key security.

## V. PERFORMANCE ANALYSIS

In this section, first, we compare the security features of the proposed protocol with that of similar protocols. After that, we evaluate the computation cost of the proposed protocol.

### A. Security Features

We compare the proposed authentication protocol with schemes proposed in recent works [21], [26], and [27]. The key feature of the proposed protocol is its resilience against attacks by quantum computer-enabled adversaries. In addition to that, the proposed protocol ensures authentication and session key security. It provides protection from common attacks such as eavesdropping and replay attacks. Although the protocols proposed in [21], [26], and [27] offer several security features, they do not provide quantum security. Hence, the proposed authentication protocol provides an enhanced set of security properties compared to other schemes. ■

TABLE I  
COMPUTATION COST

Scheme	EV	CS/Server
Subramani et al. [21]	$2T_p + 2T_e + T_h \approx 2.832$ ms	$T_p + 2T_e + T_h \approx 1.932$ ms
Liang et al. [26]	$9T_h + 4T_{xor} + 2T_{puf} + 3T_{fe} \approx 1.443$ ms	$20T_h + 8T_{xor} + 2T_{puf} + 2T_{fe} \approx 1.346$ ms
Yu and Park [27]	$9T_h \approx 0.108$ ms	$15T_h + 4T_s \approx 0.34$ ms
Proposed Protocol	$5T_h \approx 0.06$ ms	$5T_h \approx 0.06$ ms

### B. Computation Cost

To estimate the execution time during authentication, we conducted the simulations on a personal computer with Intel (R) Core i7-10750H CPU and 8 GB RAM capacity. We employed the MIRACL [28] library to evaluate the execution time of various cryptographic operations. During authentication, the EV executes five hash operations. Similarly, the CS also executes five hash operations. Let  $T_h$  represent the execution time of the hash operation. The execution time of XOR and concatenation operations is negligible. From the analysis,  $T_h = 0.012$  ms. The time taken to execute the authentication phase is 0.06 ms at the EV and at the CS each.

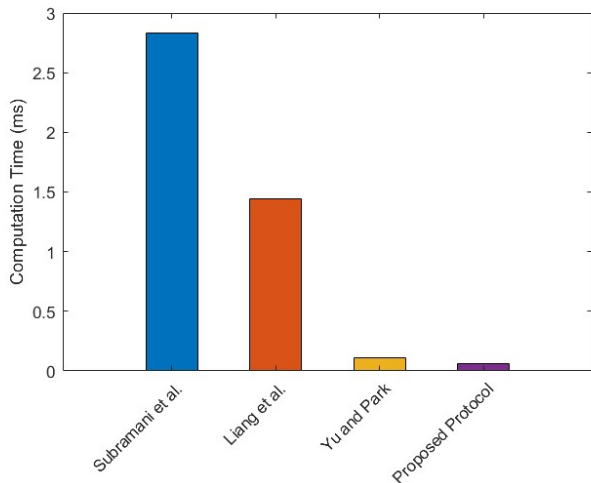


Fig. 3. Computation cost at the EV.

Next, we provide a comparative analysis of the computation cost of the proposed protocol with the schemes in [21], [26], and [27]. The time taken by symmetric key encryption/decryption  $T_s$  is 0.04 ms, pairing operation  $T_p$  is 0.9 ms, and exponential operation  $T_e$  is 0.51 ms. The time for PUF computation is  $T_{puf} = 0.324$  ms and fuzzy extraction is  $T_{fe} = 0.229$  ms [26]. The computation time taken by the schemes in [21], [26], and [27] are given in Table I and plotted in Figure 3 and Figure 4, respectively. From the analysis, the proposed protocol has the lowest computation cost compared to other schemes.

### VI. CONCLUSION

This paper presented a secure authentication protocol for V2G communications leveraging QKD to address emerging

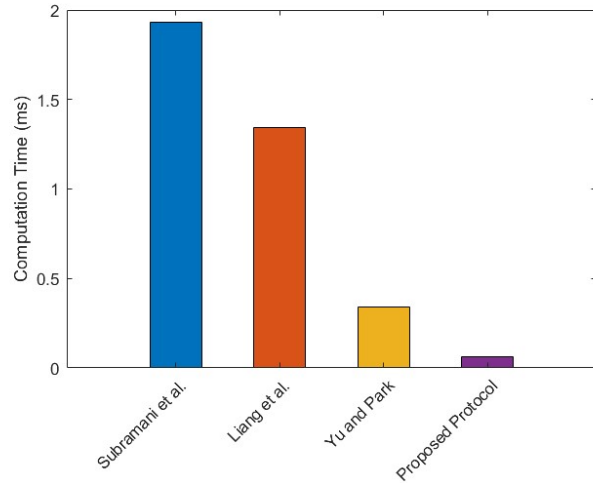


Fig. 4. Computation cost at the CS/Server.

security threats in smart grids. By leveraging the information-theoretic security of QKD, the proposed protocol enables robust mutual authentication and secure key establishment between EVs and charging stations, ensuring resistance against classical and quantum-enabled attacks. Compared to conventional schemes, the proposed QKD-based authentication framework provides future-proof security without relying on computational hardness assumptions, making it a promising solution for securing V2G communications.

### VII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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