

Secure Third-party Fast Covariance Intersection using Partially Homomorphic and Order Revealing Encryption Schemes

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Abstract—Fast covariance intersection is a widespread technique for state estimate fusion in sensor networks when cross-correlations are not known and fast computations are desired. The common requirement of sending estimates from one party to another during fusion means they do not remain private to their producing party. Current secure fusion algorithms have a reliance on encryption schemes that do not provide sufficient flexibility and as a result require, often undesired, excess communication between estimate producers. We propose a novel method of homomorphically computing the fast covariance intersection algorithm on estimates encrypted with a combination of encryption schemes. Using order revealing encryption we show how to approximate solutions to the fast covariance intersection coefficients can be computed and combined with partially homomorphic encryptions of estimates, to compute an encryption of the fused result. The described approach allows the secure fusion of any number of private estimates, making third-party cloud processing a viable option when working with sensitive state estimates, or when performing estimation over insecure networks.

I. INTRODUCTION

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- Describe what will be in each following section and how the paper structure makes sense

A. Notation

- Brief overview of ISAS vector and random vector notation
- Encryption notation, keys omitted where it's obvious from context
- Encryption of matrices and vectors is element-wise
- Real number encoding assumed in all encryption notation, all numbers are real

II. COVARIANCE INTERSECTION AND APPROXIMATIONS

- Covariance intersection (CI) is a method for fusing state estimations for different sources when models and cross-correlations are not known
- The fused estimate and estimate covariance are computed by (1) and (2)
- Note that the estimate and estimate covariance depicted in (1) and (2) are in the Information filter form of the popular Kalman Filter as this simplifies computation.

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$$\mathbf{P}^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i \mathbf{P}_i^{-1} \quad (1)$$

$$\mathbf{P}^{-1} \hat{\underline{x}} = \sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i \mathbf{P}_i^{-1} \hat{\underline{x}}_i \quad (2)$$

$$(3)$$

- Where values ω_i satisfy (4) and (5) and are chosen in a way to minimise a property of the resulting fused estimate.
- For example minimising the resulting trace would require solving (6)

$$\omega_0 + \omega_1 + \dots + \omega_n = 1 \quad (4)$$

$$0 \leq \omega_i \leq 1 \quad (5)$$

$$\arg \min_{\omega_0, \dots, \omega_n} \{\text{tr}(\mathbf{P})\} = \arg \min_{\omega_0, \dots, \omega_n} \left\{ \text{tr} \left(\left(\sum_{i=0}^n \omega_i \mathbf{P}_i \right)^{-1} \right) \right\} \quad (6)$$

- Minimising a given non linear cost function such as (6) can be very costly computationally and has led to the development of non-iterative approximation techniques [1], [2], [3]

A. Fast Covariance intersection

- The fast covariance intersection (FCI) algorithm described in [1] is a common method used for approximating the solution to (6) by defining a new constraint on ω_i and solving that instead.
- In the 2 sensor case, (4) now becomes (7), and the additional requirement of (8) is also defined. Solutions are defined analytically and shown in (9)

$$\omega_0 + \omega_1 = 1 \quad (7)$$

$$\omega_0 \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_0) - \omega_1 \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1) = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$\omega_0 = \frac{\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1)}{\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_0) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1)}, \quad \omega_1 = \frac{\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_0)}{\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_0) + \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1)} \quad (9)$$

- When extending to any number of sensors, restriction (8) is generalised to (10)

$$\omega_i \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_i) - \omega_j \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_j) = 0, \quad (i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n) \quad (10)$$

- Equation (10) is highly redundant and its largest linearly independent subset can be represented with (11).

$$\omega_i \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_i) - \omega_{i+1} \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_{i+1}) = 0, \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n) \quad (11)$$

- The solution to (11) and (4) can be represented as the simultaneous equations problem shown in (12) where $\mathcal{P}_i = \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_i)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{P}_0 & -\mathcal{P}_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \mathcal{P}_1 & -\mathcal{P}_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \mathcal{P}_{n-1} & -\mathcal{P}_n \\ 1 & \cdots & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_0 \\ \omega_0 \\ \vdots \\ \omega_{n-1} \\ \omega_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (12)$$

- Our goal for secure fusion is to solve (1), (2) and (12) using only encryptions from each sensor i .

III. HOMOMORPHIC AND ORDER REVEALING ENCRYPTION

- To achieve a secure solution to the FCI fusion problem, we have focused on two types of function providing encryption schemes.
- Additive partially homomorphic encryption (PHE) schemes such ones defined in [4] and [5] provide a homomorphic addition operation as shown in (13).
- Order revealing encryption (ORE) schemes such as those in [6] and [7] provide a function which allows the comparison of encrypted values as shown in (14)

$$\mathcal{E}(a) \oplus \mathcal{E}(b) = \mathcal{E}(a + b) \quad (13)$$

$$f(\mathcal{E}(a), \mathcal{E}(b)) = \text{cmp}(a, b) \quad (14)$$

A. Additive Partially Homomorphic Encryption

- We have used the Paillier encryption scheme described in [4] for the computation of the FCI due to its speed and implementation simplicity.
- The Paillier encryption scheme is a public key scheme, where encryptions are made with a public key but only the secret key holder can decrypt them.
- It provides two homomorphic operations on encrypted data, shown in (15) and (16). The modulus N is computed as a product of 2 large primes which are part of the secret key.

$$\mathcal{E}(a)\mathcal{E}(b) \pmod{N} = \mathcal{E}(a + b \pmod{N}) \quad (15)$$

$$\mathcal{E}(a)^c \pmod{N} = \mathcal{E}(ca \pmod{N}), \quad c \in \mathbb{Z}_N \quad (16)$$

- Encrypted numbers must be less than N , and negative numbers can be handled by storing integers in “two’s complement” binary form, that is taking $[0, \frac{N}{2})$ as all possible positive numbers, and $[\frac{N}{2}, N)$ as the decreasing negative integers.

B. Real Number Encoding for Homomorphic Encryption

- The Paillier encryption scheme can only encrypt, add, and multiply with integers. Due to the prevalence of real number values in sensor outputs and estimation processes, some form of encoding is required for these numbers to be encrypted.
- Real numbers, typically stored as floating-point numbers in sensor hardware, are converted to integers using the “Q” number format. A real number a can be encoded to an integer e using (17), where the largest encodable real number has an integer part of i bits.

Integer bits i and fractional bits f are chosen such that the largest encoded value can still be encrypted.

$$e = \begin{cases} \lfloor 2^f a \rfloor & a < 2^i \\ \lfloor 2^f (2^i - a) \rfloor & a \geq 2^i \end{cases} \quad (17)$$

- While the encoded real numbers are consistent under addition, multiplication by constants requires that a factor of $\frac{1}{2^f}$ be removed.
- Since division is not supported under the encryption scheme, the number of multiplications performed on an encrypted value must be bounded and handled when decoding. This also decreases the size of the largest encodable real number that can be decoded correctly.
- In our case, only a single multiplication is required, and decoding of an integer e to a real number f is performed by (18).

$$a = \begin{cases} \frac{e}{2^f} & e < 2^{(i+f)} \\ \frac{e}{2^{2f}} & e \geq 2^{(i+f)} \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

C. Left-Right Order Revealing Encryption

- For the ORE scheme we have considered in particular the Left-Right encryption scheme described in [7] which will help in preventing information leakage as described in section IV.
- The key difference between this scheme and others is how numbers are compared. Left-Right encryption allows any number to be encrypted as either a “Left” or “Right” encryption, but only a “Left” encryption can be compared with a “Right” encryption. The provided function of the encryption scheme are shown in (19)
- The ORE scheme described requires a single symmetric key for the encryption of either “Left” or “Right” encryptions, which can be compared without any key.

$$\text{encrypt}_{ORE}^L(sk, x) = \mathcal{E}_{ORE}^L(x) \quad (19)$$

$$\text{encrypt}_{ORE}^R(sk, y) = \mathcal{E}_{ORE}^R(y) \quad (20)$$

$$\text{compare}_{ORE}(\mathcal{E}_{ORE}^L(x), \mathcal{E}_{ORE}^R(y)) = \text{cmp}(x, y) \quad (21)$$

IV. SECURE FAST COVARIANCE INTERSECTION WITH 2 SENSORS

- First we will consider the 2 sensor case of secure FCI (SecFCI), before extending it to any number of sensors in section V. We consider sensor 0 which produces the estimate \hat{x}_0 and covariance \mathbf{P}_0 , and similarly sensor 1 producing \hat{x}_1 and \mathbf{P}_1 .
- From (1) and (2) we can see that CI is particularly suited to PHE schemes. Sensor encrypted estimates and covariances can be combined additively using (15) and (16). The equations using the Paillier encryption systems to compute CI are given in (22) and (23).

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{P}) = \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{P}_0)^{\omega_0} \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{P}_1)^{(1-\omega_0)} \quad (22)$$

$$\mathcal{E}(\mathbf{P}\hat{x}) = \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{P}_0\hat{x}_0)^{\omega_0} \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{P}_1\hat{x}_1)^{(1-\omega_0)} \quad (23)$$

$$(24)$$

- What remains is the computation of the parameter ω . The FCI solutions for the 2 sensor case given by (9), cannot be computed with PHE encryptions due to the required division.
- Instead we discretise ω to steps of some size $s < 1$ such that s divides 1, and use the ORE scheme to compute (8). Each sensor discretises ω and multiplies each discretisation with $\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}^{-1})$ of its current covariance \mathbf{P} . Each result is then encrypted with the Left-Right ORE scheme.
- Sensor 0 encrypts using the Left scheme as shown in (25) and similarly for sensor 1 using Right encryption in (26).

$$[\mathcal{E}_{ORE}^L(\omega \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_0^{-1})), \omega \in [0, 0 + s, \dots, 1 - s, 1]] \quad (25)$$

$$[\mathcal{E}_{ORE}^R(\omega \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1^{-1})), \omega \in [0, 0 + s, \dots, 1 - s, 1]] \quad (26)$$

- The two ordered encrypted lists (25) and (26) are recieved at the fusion center, and used to estimate ω .
- To compute the FCI value for ω we want the intersection between the two lines described by $\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_0)\omega$ and $\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1)(1 - \omega)$. Note that in the 2 sensor case, the discretised list of $\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_i)(1 - \omega)$ can be obtained by simply reversing the list for $\text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_i)\omega$.
- Fig. 1 shows the list from sensor 0 and the reversed list of sensor 1 plotted over ω with a step size $s = 0.1$. Since values from one list can be compared with those from the other using the ORE operations described in (19), the exact intersection can be approximated in $O(\log(\frac{1}{s}))$ steps by performing a binary search.

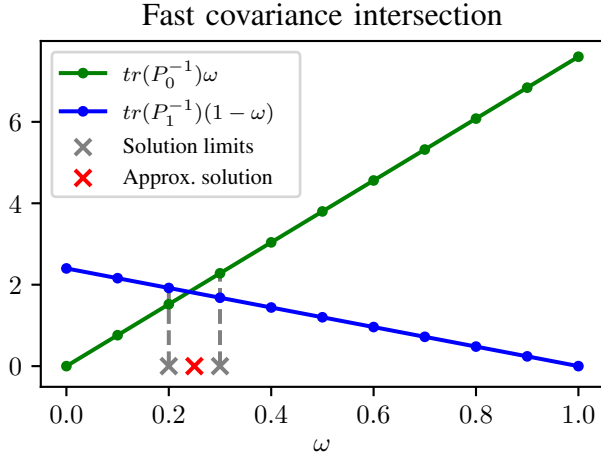


Fig. 1. Approximation of ω_0 with discretisation step size $s = 0.1$. Only comparisons of the ordered values sent from either estimator are used.

- Once the two consecutive differing comparisons from vertically aligned points in 1 are found, the FCI ω can be approximated by taking the middle value between the two bounds. This is computed simply with (27).
- In the case where the comparison function from the ORE scheme returns an exact equality, the exact value

of ω is known and can be taken as the approximation.

$$\omega'_0 = \frac{1}{2}(a + b), \quad \omega'_1 = (1 - \omega_0) \quad (27)$$

V. MULTI-SENSOR SECURE FAST COVARIANCE INTERSECTION

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$$\omega_0 \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_0) - \omega_1 \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1) = 0 \quad (28)$$

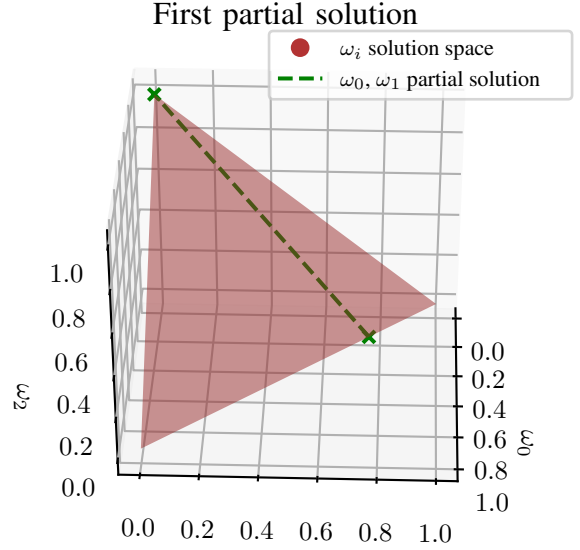


Fig. 2. Partial solution from equation (28) plotted on the plane of all possible values of ω_0 , ω_1 , and ω_2 .

$$\omega_1 \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_1) - \omega_2 \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_2) = 0 \quad (29)$$

$$a_0x + a_1y + a_2z + d = 0 \quad (30)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0^0 & a_1^0 & a_2^0 \\ a_0^1 & a_1^1 & a_2^1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_0 \\ \omega_1 \\ \omega_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d^0 \\ d^1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (31)$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_0^0 & a_1^0 & \cdots & a_n^0 \\ a_0^1 & a_1^1 & \cdots & a_n^1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_0^n & a_1^n & \cdots & a_n^{n-1} \\ 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \omega_0 \\ \omega_1 \\ \vdots \\ \omega_{n-1} \\ \omega_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} d^0 \\ d^1 \\ \vdots \\ d^{n-1} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad (32)$$

$$[\mathcal{E}_{ORE}^L(\omega \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_i^{-1})), \omega \in [0, 0 + s, \dots, 1 - s, 1]], \quad i \text{ is even} \quad (33)$$

$$[\mathcal{E}_{ORE}^R(\omega \text{tr}(\mathbf{P}_i^{-1})), \omega \in [0, 0 + s, \dots, 1 - s, 1]], \quad i \text{ is odd} \quad (34)$$

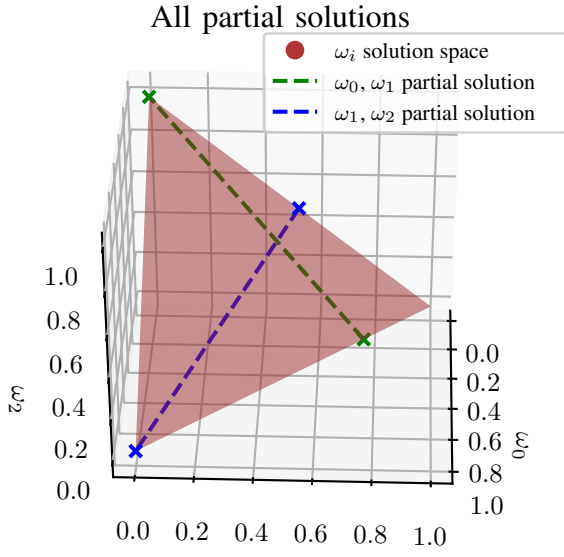


Fig. 3. Partial solutions from equations (28) and (29) plotted on the plane of all possible values of ω_0 , ω_1 , and ω_2 .

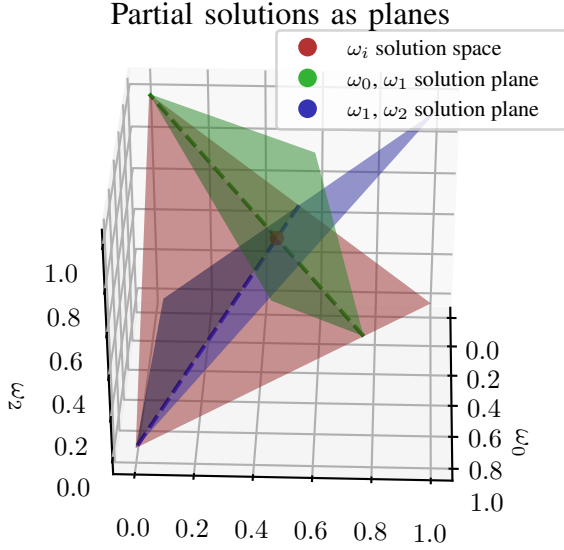


Fig. 4. Partial solutions from fig. 3 plotted as planes perpendicular to the plane of possible solutions. Intersection point gives solution values of ω_i for Fast Covariance Intersection.

VI. SIMULATION RESULTS

VII. CONCLUSION

VIII. INTRODUCTION

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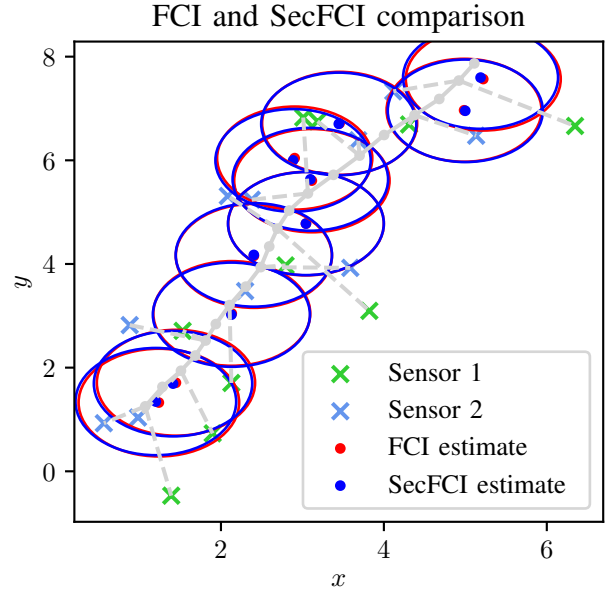


Fig. 5. Tracking simulation comparing Fast Covariance Intersection and our Secure Fast Covariance Intersection fusion methods.

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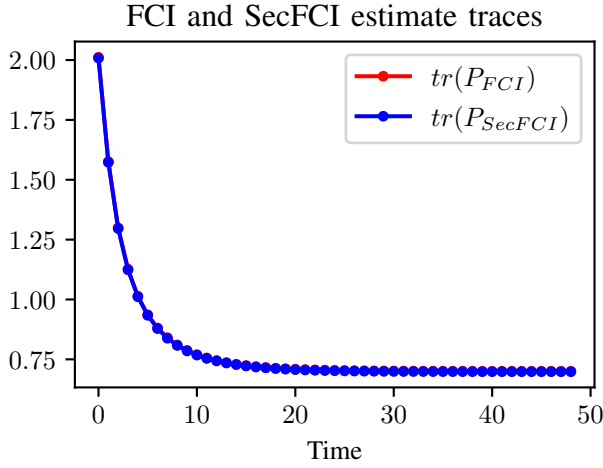


Fig. 6. Plot showing the fused estimate covariance trace throughout a tracking simulation, for both Fast Covariance Intersection and our Secure Fast Covariance Intersection

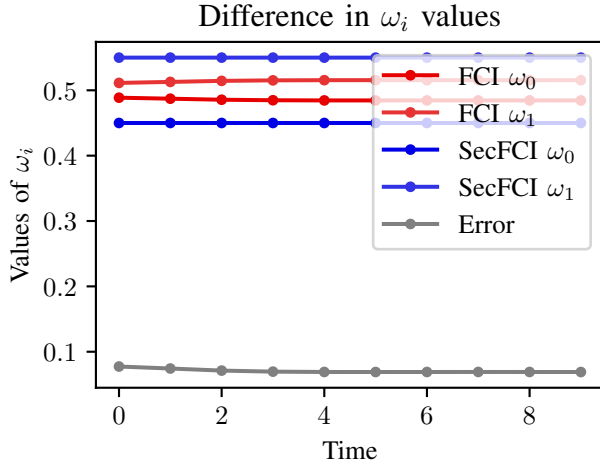


Fig. 7. Plot showing the difference in ω_i values between Fast Covariance Intersection and our Secure Fast Covariance Intersection, throughout a tracking simulation.

X. MATH

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Define abbreviations and acronyms the first time they are used in the text, even after they have been defined in the abstract. Abbreviations such as IEEE, SI, MKS, CGS, sc, dc, and rms do not have to be defined. Do not use abbreviations in the title or heads unless they are unavoidable.

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- Use either SI (MKS) or CGS as primary units. (SI units are encouraged.) English units may be used as secondary units (in parentheses). An exception would be the use of English units as identifiers in trade, such as “3.5-inch disk drive”.
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TABLE I
AN EXAMPLE OF A TABLE

One	Two
Three	Four

We suggest that you use a text box to insert a graphic (which is ideally a 300 dpi TIFF or EPS file, with all fonts embedded) because, in an document, this method is somewhat more stable than directly inserting a picture.

Fig. 8. Inductance of oscillation winding on amorphous magnetic core versus DC bias magnetic field

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XII. CONCLUSIONS

A conclusion section is not required. Although a conclusion may review the main points of the paper, do not replicate the abstract as the conclusion. A conclusion might elaborate on the importance of the work or suggest applications and extensions.

APPENDIX

Appendixes should appear before the acknowledgment.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The preferred spelling of the word “acknowledgment” in America is without an “e” after the “g”. Avoid the stilted expression, “One of us (R. B. G.) thanks . . .”. Instead, try “R. B. G. thanks”. Put sponsor acknowledgments in the unnumbered footnote on the first page.

References are important to the reader; therefore, each citation must be complete and correct. If at all possible, references should be commonly available publications.

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