

# Efficient Certificateless Aggregate Signature Scheme

Yu-Chi Chen, Gwoboa Horng, Chao-Liang Liu, Yuan-Yu Tsai, and Chi-Shiang Chan

**Abstract**—In ubiquitous computing, data should be able to be accessed from any location, and the correctness of data becomes vital during the communication. Suppose that many users sign different messages respectively, before forwarding or sending these messages, then the verifier must spend a lot of computing time to verify their signatures. Consequently, the aggregate signature scheme is an effective method of improving efficiency in this kind of systems, which provides the convenience for the verifier. In this paper, we propose a new certificateless aggregate signature scheme which is efficient in generating a signature and verification. This scheme is provably secure under the extended computational Diffie-Hellman assumption.

**Index Terms**—Aggregate signature, certificateless aggregate signature, certificateless cryptography, digital signature.

## 1. Introduction

Digital signatures is a very important application in the public key cryptosystem (PKC), which can provide benefits of authenticity, integrity, and non-repudiation. A traditional digital signature scheme consists of a signer and a verifier, where a signer gives the signature. However, different kinds of signature schemes are proposed for different applications, e.g., the proxy signature and blind signature<sup>[1]</sup><sup>[2]</sup>. However, there is a problem when many users sign different messages, respectively, while the verifier will need lots of computing time for the verification. The aggregate signature scheme is proposed to deal with this kind of problems<sup>[3]</sup><sup>[4]</sup>. In other words, when it is required for  $n$  users to generate individual  $n$  signatures, the requests will be delivered to the aggregate signature generator (ASG). Upon receiving the  $n$  signatures, the ASG must combine those signatures and generate an aggregate

signature to the verifier.

Comparing with the traditional PKC, the certificateless public key cryptosystem (CL-PKC)<sup>[5]</sup><sup>[6]</sup> does not need the extra trusted party to manage certificates. Differing from the ID-based public key cryptosystem (ID-PKC)<sup>[7]</sup><sup>[12]</sup>, the key generation center (KGC) in CL-PKC is unable to hold the user's whole private key, which does not have the highest priority for key generation. CL-PKC practically solves the key escrow problem of ID-PKC and is widely applied in the certificateless signature scheme. Since the KGC in certificateless aggregate signature schemes (CLAS) does not hold users' private keys, a malicious KGC cannot compute the valid aggregate signature. The technique of CLAS is not only used to easily combine signatures into an aggregate signature, but is also applied to save the computational cost for the verification.

For example, the organization of a commercial company is the most common application with CLAS. The users, i.e., employees, sign the individual messages and send them to the secretary. The secretary as ASG will compute the aggregate signature and give it to the corresponding manager. The manager, playing the role of a verifier, can directly verify whether the aggregate signature is valid or not. In this paper, we propose an efficient certificateless aggregate signature scheme, which is provably secure in the random oracle model under the extended computational Diffie-Hellman assumptions.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we briefly review the preliminaries of CLAS. The proposed CLAS scheme and its security analysis are presented in Section 3, while performance comparisons with previous schemes<sup>[13]</sup><sup>[14]</sup> are provided in Section 4. Finally, in Section 5, we conclude this paper.

## 2. Preliminary of CLAS

The notations of CLAS are defined in Section 2.1. We briefly present a bilinear pairing and the construction of CLAS in Sections 2.2 and 2.3, respectively, while the security model and hardness assumptions are discussed in Sections 2.4 and 2.5, respectively.

### 2.1 Notations of CLAS

The notations of CLAS used in this paper are shown in Table 1. The flowchart of aggregate signature is shown in Fig. 1.

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Table 1: Notations used in CLAS

Notation	Meaning
CLAS	Certificateless aggregate signature
KGC	Key generation center
ASG	Aggregate signature generator
$ID_i$	The $i$ th user's identity
$X_i$	The $i$ th user's public key
$S_i$	The $i$ th user's partial private key
$l$	A security parameter
$\hat{e}$	A bilinear pairing
$M_i$	A message from the $i$ -th user
$M$	The message space
$\sigma_i$	A signature from the $i$ -th user
$\sigma$	An aggregate signature
$\Delta$	A state information
$H$	A hash function
$\perp$	Denoting that the value is empty

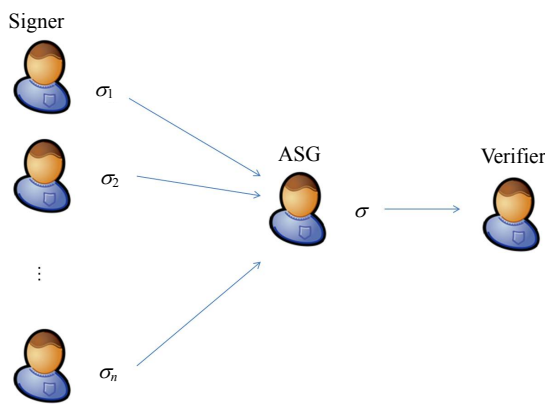


Fig. 1. Flowchart of CLAS.

## 2.2 Bilinear Pairing

Bilinear pairing is a mapping function. Let  $G_1$  be an additive group of points of an elliptic curve, and  $G_2$  be a multiplicative group in the finite field.  $G_1$  and  $G_2$  are cyclic groups with the same prime order  $q$ . The bilinear pairing is denoted as  $\hat{e} : G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ , and it has the following properties.

- 1) Computable: given  $P, Q \in G_1$ , then there exists a polynomial time algorithm to compute  $\hat{e}(P, Q) \in G_2$ .
- 2) Bilinear: for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{Z}q^*$  we have  $\hat{e}(xP, yP) = \hat{e}(P, P)^{x \cdot y}$  for any  $P \in G_1$ .
- 3) Non-degenerate: if  $P$  is a generator of  $G_1$ , then  $\hat{e}(P, P) \neq 1$  in which  $\hat{e}(P, P)$  is also the generator of  $G_2$ .

Moreover, there are many articles which present approaches to improve the efficiency of pairing computation, such as [14] to [16]. In the following, the hardness assumptions are presented based on bilinear pairings.

1) Computational Diffie-Hellman (CDH) problem. Given  $(P, aP, bP)$  then compute  $abP$ , where  $P \in G_1$  is the generator and  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}q^*$  is unknown.

2) Extended computational Diffie-Hellman (eCDH) problem. Given  $(P, a_1P, b_1P, a_2P, b_2P)$  then compute

$a_1b_1P + a_2b_2P$ , where  $P \in G_1$  is a generator and  $a_1, b_1, a_2, b_2 \in \mathbb{Z}q^*$  is unknown. The eCDH problem can be reduced to two CDH problems, i.e.  $(P, a_1P, b_1P, a_2P, b_2P)$  is divided to  $(P, a_1P, b_1P)$  and  $(P, a_2P, b_2P)$ .

## 2.3 Construction of CLAS

The components of CLAS are the KGC,  $n$  users ( $U_1, U_2, \dots, U_n$ ), an ASG, and a verifier, while CLAS scheme consists of the following algorithms:

1) Setup: This algorithm, run by KGC, takes the security parameter  $l$  as input and generates the master-key  $s$  and system parameter  $params$ .

2) Partial-private-key: KGC runs the algorithm and inputs  $params$ , master-key  $s$ , and the user's identity  $ID_i$ . This algorithm computes the user's partial private key  $S_i$ .

3) UserKeyGen: This algorithm performed by the user takes  $ID_i$  as input, then outputs the user's private key  $(x_i, S_i)$ , and public key  $X_i$ . Hence, we note that the publication of use's public keys does not need the certificates in CL-KPC.

4) Sign: This algorithm performed by the user inputs the message  $M_i \in M$ , user's identity  $ID_i$ , private keys  $(x_i, S_i)$ , public key  $X_i$ , and state information  $\Delta$ . It returns a signature  $\sigma_i$  as the output.

5) Aggregate: The ASG receives the  $n$  signatures  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n$  from  $n$  users and runs this algorithm to obtain the aggregate signature  $\sigma$ .

6) Verify: The algorithm performed by the verifier takes the aggregate signature  $\sigma$ , corresponding  $ID_1, ID_2, \dots, ID_n$ , public keys  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , messages  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n$ , and the state information  $\Delta$  as inputs. As a result, it returns 'true' if the aggregate signature is valid; otherwise, returns 'false'.

Note that all the users with  $ID_1, ID_2, \dots, ID_n$  in an aggregate set apply the same state information  $\Delta$ , see [14] for more details.

## 2.4 Security Model of CLAS

There are two types of adversaries in CL-PKC<sup>[14]</sup>, namely Type 1 and Type 2 adversaries. Assume that Type 1 adversary  $A_1$  being the attacker with no access to the master-key,  $A_1$  can replace the public key of any chosen entity. On the other hand, Type 2 adversary  $A_2$  playing as the KGC is able to access the master-key, but it does not demand to replace the public key.

The security model proposed by Zhang *et al.*<sup>[14]</sup> uses Game 1 and Game 2 to simulate Type 1 and Type 2 adversaries. In this paper, we combine Game 1 and Game 2 to form a new Game 3, in order to simulate a Type 3 adversary. The Type 3 adversary  $A_3$  does not have the ability to access the master-key, and it also does not perform the public key replacement. In the rest of this paper, by applying Game 3 to imply Game 1 and Game 2, we will

show the result of security analysis of the proposed scheme.

The security model of the proposed CLAS scheme is based on the following game and interaction between a challenger  $B$  and an adversary  $A_3$ .

Game 3 (for Type 3 adversary)

Setup:  $B$  performs the defined Setup algorithm in Section 2.3 and inputs a security parameter. This algorithm returns the master-key and system parameter  $params$ , while  $B$  sends  $params$  to  $A_3$  and keeps the master-key secret.

Attack:  $A_3$  can adaptively perform the following polynomially bounded queries.

1) Partial-private-key queries:  $A_3$  can obtain the partial private key of any user whose identity is  $ID_i$ , and  $B$  returns the partial private key  $S_i$  to  $A_3$ .

2) Public-key queries:  $A_3$  is able to acquire the public key of any user with  $ID_i$ , and  $B$  outputs the public key  $X_i$ .

3) Secret-value queries:  $A_3$  can query the secret value of any user with  $ID_i$ , and  $B$  returns the secret value  $x_i$  to  $A_3$ .

4) Sign queries:  $A_3$  is able to send user's identity  $ID_i$ , message  $M_i$ , and state information  $\Delta_i$  to request a signature.  $B$  generates a signature  $\sigma_i$  which contains  $(ID_i, M_i, \Delta_i)$  and the corresponding public key  $X_i$ , then delivers  $\sigma_i$  to  $A$ .

Forgery:  $A_3$  outputs an aggregate signature  $\sigma^*$  for a set of  $n$  users with corresponding identities  $\{ID_1^*, ID_2^*, \dots, ID_n^*\}$ , public keys  $\{X_1^*, X_2^*, \dots, X_n^*\}$ ,  $n$  messages form  $n$  users  $\{M_1^*, M_2^*, \dots, M_n^*\}$ , and the corresponding forged state information  $\Delta^*$ .

Furthermore, we assume that adversary  $A_3$  wins Game 3 if and only if  $A_3$  can successfully obtain a valid forged aggregate signature.

**Definition 1.** The aggregate signature forgery is defined as follows. Assume that an attacker has obtained an aggregated signature from  $(n-1)$  users with identities  $ID_1, ID_2, \dots, ID_{n-1}$ , then the whole  $n$ -user aggregate signature can be forged when the signature of  $ID_n$  is never obtained.

### 3. Novel and Efficient CLAS Scheme

#### 3.1 Proposed CLAS Scheme

The proposed CLAS scheme consists of six randomized algorithms as follows.

1) Setup ( $I$ ): KGC inputs the security parameter  $l$ . This algorithm chooses two groups  $G_1, G_2$  of prime order  $q$  and a bilinear pairing  $\hat{e}: G_1 \times G_1 \rightarrow G_2$ .  $G_1$  is a cyclic additive group with a generator  $P$ , and  $G_2$  is a cyclic multiplicative group. The algorithm randomly chooses the master-key  $s \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and computes a public master-key  $P_{pub} = sP$ , and chooses three hash functions  $H_1: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow G_1, H_2: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow G_1, H_3: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}_q^*$ . The system parameter is  $params = (G_1, G_2, \hat{e}, P, P_{pub}, H_1, H_2, H_3)$ .

2) Partial-private-key ( $params, s, ID_i$ ): This algorithm takes  $params, s$ , and the user's identity  $ID_i$  as inputs to

compute  $Q_i = H_1(ID_i)$  and the user's partial private key  $S_i = sQ_i$ .

3) UserKeyGen ( $ID_i$ ): This algorithm takes  $ID_i$ , then randomly chooses  $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  and outputs the user's complete private key  $(x_i, S_i)$  and public key  $X_i = x_iP$ .

4) Sign ( $M_i, ID_i, x_i, S_i, X_i, \Delta$ ): The user, as the signer, signs the message  $M_i \in M$  by using the private key  $(x_i, S_i)$ , public key  $X_i$ , and state information  $\Delta$ , while detailed steps are described as follows:

a. Select a value  $r_i \in \mathbb{Z}_q^*$  randomly, then compute  $D = H_2(\Delta)$  and  $R_i = r_iD$ ;

b. Compute  $w_i = H_3(\Delta \parallel M_i \parallel ID_i \parallel X_i \parallel R_i)$ ;

c. Compute  $V_i = S_i + r_iw_ix_iD$ ;

d. Return the signature  $\sigma_i = (R_i, V_i)$  on  $M_i$ .

5) Aggregate( $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n$ ): The ASG receives the  $n$  signatures  $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_n$  from the  $n$  users with identities  $ID_1, ID_2, \dots, ID_n$  and runs this algorithm. The algorithm computes  $V = \sum_{i=1}^n V_i$  and returns the aggregate signature  $\sigma = (R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n, V)$ .

6) Verify ( $\sigma, L_{ID}, L_X, L_M, \Delta$ ): Let  $L_{ID} = \{ID_1, ID_2, \dots, ID_n\}$ ,  $L_X = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ , and  $L_M = \{M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n\}$ . This algorithm run by the verifier takes the aggregate signature  $\sigma$ , corresponding identities  $ID_1, ID_2, \dots, ID_n$ , public keys  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$ , messages  $M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n$ , and the state information  $\Delta$  as input. It performs as follows:

(1) Compute  $w_i = H_3(\Delta \parallel M_i \parallel ID_i \parallel X_i \parallel R_i)$  and  $Q_i = H_1(ID_i)$  for all  $i$  where  $1 \leq i \leq n$ ;

(2) Verify the following equation holds or not.

$$\hat{e}(V, P) = \hat{e}(P_{pub}, \sum_{i=1}^n Q_i) \prod_{i=1}^n \hat{e}(w_i R_i, X_i).$$

It returns 'true' if the equation holds and the verifier accepts the aggregate signature  $\sigma$ , otherwise, returns 'false'.

#### 3.2 Security analysis

According to the eCDH problem, the proposed CLAS scheme is provably secure in the random oracle model<sup>[17]</sup>. Hereafter,  $A$  denotes  $A_3$  in Game 3 as defined in Section 2.4.

**Theorem 1.** If there exists an adversary  $A$  with probability  $\varepsilon$ , which wins Game 3 to successfully obtain the forged aggregate signature for the proposed scheme in the random oracle model, there exists another adversary  $B$  with probability  $\varepsilon'$  solving the eCDH problem where  $\varepsilon' \geq \varepsilon/q_H e^3$  at most  $q_H H_1$  queries.

**Proof.**  $B$  is given  $(P, a_1P, b_1P, a_2P, b_2P)$  as the eCDH problem in  $G_1$ .  $A$  interacts  $B$  via Game 3 as following queries. Eventually,  $B$  may base on  $A$ 's forgery to solve the eCDH problem.

Setup:  $B$  sets  $P_{pub} = a_1P$  and  $params = (G_1, G_2, \hat{e}, P, P_{pub},$

$H_1, H_2, H_3$ ), then gives  $params$  to  $A$ .

Attack:  $A$  can adaptively perform the following polynomially bounded queries.

$H_1$  queries:  $B$  holds a  $H_1$ -list  $\langle ID_j, \alpha_j, Q_j, c_j \rangle$ , where  $H_1$ -list initially is empty.  $A$  can query any user's identity  $ID_i$ .  $B$  responds as follows.

- 1) If  $ID_i$  has been queried,  $B$  returns  $Q_i$  from  $H_1$ -list;
- 2) If  $ID_i$  is never queried before.  $B$  generates a random value  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}q^*$  and a random coin  $c_i \in \{0, 1\}$ , where  $\Pr[c_i=0]=1/q_{H_1}$  and  $\Pr[\cdot]$  is the probability function;
- 3) If  $c_i=0$ ,  $B$  returns  $Q_i=\alpha_i(b_1P)$  to  $A$  and adds  $\langle ID_i, \alpha_i, Q_i, c_i \rangle$  into  $H_1$ -list;
- 4) Otherwise,  $B$  returns  $Q_i=\alpha_iP$  to  $A$  and adds  $\langle ID_i, \alpha_i, Q_i, c_i \rangle$  into  $H_1$ -list.

$H_2, H_3$  queries: Since the inputs of  $H_2, H_3$  contain the state information,  $B$  holds a  $H_2, H_3$ -list  $\langle \Delta_j, M_j, ID_j, X_j, R_j, \beta_j, W_j, c_j \rangle$ , while  $H_2, H_3$ -list initially is empty.  $A$  can query  $(\Delta_i, M_i, ID_i, X_i, R_i)$ .  $B$  responds as follows:

- 1) If  $(\Delta_i, M_i, ID_i, X_i, R_i)$  has been queried,  $B$  returns  $W_i$  from  $H_2, H_3$ -list;
- 2) If  $(\Delta_i, M_i, ID_i, X_i, R_i)$  is never queried before, based on  $c_i$  in  $H_1$ -list,  $B$  generates a random value  $\beta_i \in \mathbb{Z}q^*$ ;
- 3) If  $c_i=0$ ,  $B$  returns  $W_i=\beta_i(b_2P)$  to  $A$  and adds  $\langle \Delta_i, M_i, ID_i, X_i, R_i, \beta_i, W_i, c_i \rangle$  into  $H_2, H_3$ -list;
- 4) If  $c_i=1$ ,  $B$  returns  $W_i=\beta_iP$  to  $A$  and adds  $\langle \Delta_i, M_i, ID_i, X_i, R_i, \beta_i, W_i, c_i \rangle$  into  $H_2, H_3$ -list.

Partial-private-key queries:  $B$  holds a  $K$ -list  $\langle ID_j, x_j, S_j, X_j \rangle$ , while  $K$ -list initially is empty.  $A$  can query  $ID_i$ . If  $ID_i$  has been queried for the partial-private-key before,  $B$  returns  $S_i$  from  $K$ -list. Otherwise,  $B$  goes back to perform  $H_1$  query, then responds 'partial-private-key queries' as follows.

- 1) If  $c_i=0$ ,  $B$  aborts and terminates;
- 2) If  $c_i=1$  and  $S_i$  exists in  $K$ -list,  $B$  returns  $S_i$ ;
- 3) If  $c_i=1$  and  $S_i$  does not exist in  $K$ -list,  $B$  returns  $S_i=\alpha_iP_{pub}$  and adds  $S_i$  into  $K$ -list.

Public-key queries:  $A$  must query  $ID_i$  to acquire the public key. If  $ID_i$  has been queried before,  $B$  returns  $X_i$  from  $K$ -list. Otherwise,  $B$  goes back to perform  $H_1$  query, then responds 'public-key queries' as follows.

- 1) If  $c_i=0$ ,  $B$  sets  $X_i=x_i a_2P$  and adds  $X_i$  into  $K$ -list;
- 2) If  $c_i=1$  and  $X_i$  exists in  $K$ -list,  $B$  returns  $X_i$ ;
- 3) If  $c_i=1$  and  $X_i, x_i$  does not exist in  $K$ -list,  $B$  chooses a random value  $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}q^*$  and sets  $X_i=x_iP$ , then returns  $X_i$  and adds  $X_i$  into  $K$ -list.

Secret-value queries:  $A$  can query  $ID_i$  for the private key.  $B$  returns  $x_i$  from  $K$ -list. Note, it is possibly that  $x_i$  is

$\perp$ .

Sign queries: receiving a sign query  $(\Delta_i, M_i, ID_i, X_i)$  from  $A$ ,  $B$  must perform the following steps based on  $H_1$ -list,  $H_2$ -list,  $H_3$ -list, and  $K$ -list.

- 1) If  $ID_i$  corresponds to  $c_i=0$ ,  $B$  aborts and terminates.

2) Otherwise,  $B$  picks a value  $\gamma_i=\alpha_i\beta_i^{-1}$ , returns  $\sigma_i=(R_i, V_i)$ , where  $R_i=\gamma_iP$  and  $V_i=\alpha_iP_{pub}+\gamma_i\beta_iX_i$ .

3) If  $c_i=1$  and  $X_i$  and  $x_i$  do not exist in  $K$ -list,  $B$  chooses a random value  $x_i \in \mathbb{Z}q^*$  and sets  $X_i=x_iP$ , then returns  $X_i$  and adds  $X_i$  into  $K$ -list.

Forgery:  $A$  outputs a set of  $n$  users with identities  $ID_1^*, ID_2^*, \dots, ID_n^*$ , corresponding public keys  $X_1^*, X_2^*, \dots, X_n^*$ ,  $n$  messages  $M_1^*, M_2^*, \dots, M_n^*$ , and a state information  $\Delta^*$ . Without loss of generality, we assume that  $i=1$ , where  $ID_1^*$  has not been performed the sign queries.  $A$  outputs an aggregate signature  $\sigma^*=(V^*, R_1^*, R_2^*, \dots, R_n^*)$ . This forged aggregate signature must satisfy the following equation:

$$\hat{e}(V^*, P) = \hat{e}(P_{pub}, Q_i^*) \prod_{i=1}^n \hat{e}(w_i^* R_i^*, X_i^*).$$

If  $ID_1^*$  corresponds to  $c_1 \neq 0$ ,  $B$  aborts and terminates. If  $A$  successfully forges a valid aggregate signature,  $B$  must be capable of computing

$$a_1 b_1 P + a_2 b_2 P = (V^* - V') \alpha^* - 1$$

where  $V' = \sum_{i=2}^n \alpha_i P_{pub} + \sum_{i=2}^n \gamma_i \beta_i X_i$ .

We show the formal proof that  $B$  solves the eCDH problem with probability  $\varepsilon' \geq \varepsilon/q_{H_1}e^3$ . There are two defined events, as follows:

- 1)  $\varepsilon_1$ :  $B$  does not abort in any  $A$ 's query.

- 2)  $\varepsilon_2$ :  $B$  does not abort in 'forgery'.

$B$  succeeds when all the above events occur.

*Claim 1.* The probability that  $B$  does not abort in any  $A$ 's query at least probability  $1/e^3$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\Pr[c_i=0]=1/q_{H_1}$  in 'sign', 'secret-value', and 'partial-private-key query',  $B$  does not abort with probability  $(1-1/q_{H_1})^{q_{H_1}} \geq 1/e$  then  $\Pr[\varepsilon_1] \geq 1/e^3$ . Here,  $e$  is the natural logarithm.

*Claim 2.*  $B$  does not abort to respond in 'forgery' with the probability  $1/q_{H_1}$ .

*Proof.*  $A$  outputs an aggregate signature forgery, where without loss of generality,  $c_1^*=1$  and  $c_i^*=0$  for all  $i, 2 \leq i \leq n$ .  $B$  does not abort with  $\Pr[c_1=0]=1/q_{H_1}$ , then  $\Pr[\varepsilon_2]=1/q_{H_1}$ .

Eventually,  $B$  does not abort with probability  $\varepsilon' \geq \varepsilon/e^3 q_{H_1}$  where  $\varepsilon$  is denoted by  $A$  to win Game 3. Hence,  $B$  solving eCDH problem is equivalent to  $A$  winning Game 3.

Therefore, we further argue that Game 3 implies the Game 1 and Game 2 in the following Theorem.

**Theorem 2.** According to the result of our previous analysis, if there exists an adversary  $A_3$  which has the ability to win the Game 3, there are  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  which can win the Game 1 and Game 2, respectively.

*Proof.* The eCDH problem is equal to two CDH problems forming the result of the security analysis  $a_1b_1P + a_2b_2P$ . If we omit the second part ( $a_2b_2P$ ) in which  $A_1$  is able to perform the public key replacement, then  $(a_1b_1P)$  is the CDH problem. On the other hand, if we omit the first part ( $a_1b_1P$ ) in which  $A_2$  has the ability to access the master-key, then  $(a_2b_2P)$  is also the CDH problem. Therefore, our scheme in the security model of the Game 1 and Game 2 is provably secure.

## 4. Performance Comparisons

The proposed scheme is compared with two schemes proposed by Gong *et al.*<sup>[13]</sup> and Zhang *et al.*<sup>[14]</sup> in Table 2. The relative operations are defined as follows. pr denotes pairing,  $S$  as scalar multiplication in  $G_1$ , and mp represents the MapToPoint hash function. ‘Sign’ is the computational cost per signer, and ‘verify’ is the computational cost of the verification. |AS| and |PK| are the aggregate signature length and the public key length, respectively.  $L$  denotes the bit length of a point over the elliptic curve such as 160 bits. The pre-computed cost is omitted in comparison. Gong *et al.*’s scheme 1 and scheme 2 are represented by GLHC-1 and GLHC-2. Zhang *et al.*’s scheme is represented by ZZ.

We can easily show that in Sign the proposed scheme is more efficient than GLHC-2, as well as when comparing to ZZ and GLHC-1 in the verification. In addition, even though GLHC-2 needs less space for the aggregate signature than our scheme, ours has a similar length as ZZ, and requests less space for the public key than the ones for GLHC-1 and GLHC-2. Our scheme is more suitable for a signer with weak devices without using the MapToPoint hash function.

Table 2: Comparison of efficiency and other attributes

	GLHC-1	GLHC-2	ZZ	Proposed
AS	$(n+1)L$	$2L$	$(n+1)L$	$(n+1)L$
PK	$2L$	$2L$	$L$	$L$
Sign	$2S+1mp$	$3S+1mp$	$2S+1mp$	$2S$
Verify	$(2n+1)pr$	$(n+2)pr$	$(n+3)pr$	$(n+2)pr$

## 5. Conclusions

Recently, certificateless public key cryptography is a popular trend instead of ID-based public key cryptography. The certificateless aggregate signature is a noteworthy technology for wireless sensor networks, which combines the recent concepts of certificateless signature and

aggregate signature. In this paper, we propose a new certificateless aggregate signature scheme. This CLAS scheme is provably secure in the random oracle model assuming that the eCDH problem is intractable. In terms of ‘sign’ and ‘verify’, our scheme effectively improves the efficiency, and it is more suitable for a signer with weak devices. However, how to reduce the communication cost without raising computation cost will be our interesting future work.

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