PAPER

Efficient and Secure Aggregation of Sensor Data against Multiple Corrupted Nodes*

Atsuko MIYAJI[†], ***Member and*** **Kazumasa OMOTE**[†a)], ***Nonmember***

SUMMARY Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) rely on in-network aggregation for efficiency, that is, readings from sensor nodes are aggregated at intermediate nodes to reduce the communication cost. However, the previous optimally secure in-network aggregation protocols against multiple corrupted nodes require two round-trip communications between each node and the base station, including the *result-checking phase* whose *congestion* is $O(\log n)$ where n is the total number of sensor nodes. In this paper**, we propose an efficient and optimally secure sensor network aggregation protocol against multiple corrupted nodes by a *random-walk adversary*. Our protocol achieves one round-trip communication to satisfy optimal security without the result-checking phase, by conducting aggregation along with the verification, based on the idea of TESLA technique. Furthermore, we show that the congestion complexity, communication complexity and computational cost in our protocol are constant, i.e., $O(1)$.

key words: *secure aggregation, sensor networks, integrity, TESLA*

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

In many wireless sensor network applications, the data collection sink (base station) needs to find the aggregate statistics of the network. Readings from sensor nodes are aggregated at intermediate nodes to reduce the communication cost. For instance, one aggregation example of sensed temperature data is depicted in Fig. 1. This process is called in-network aggregation [2]–[7], [19]–[21]. Since aggregation reduces the amount of data to be transmitted through the network, it consequently decreases bandwidth consumption and energy depletion.

Security is a critical requirement in data aggregation, since sensor nodes are typically deployed in unsecured locations and are not equipped with tamper-resistant hardware. An adversary is able to replay, modify, delay, drop, and deliver protocol messages out of order as well as inject own messages. However, most aggregation protocols assume that all intermediate nodes are trusted [4]–[15], [17]–[20], [22]–[24] except [2], [3], [16], [21]. A corrupted node can easily modify its own sensor reading. It is difficult to detect such a dishonest act in data aggregation, since the modified sensor reading is indistinguishable from the legitimate reading. Such a dishonest act is called *direct data injection attack* [2], [16], where even one small modification might influence a total aggregated value. It is, thus, important to minimize the damage by direct data injection attacks. Such a security model is called *optimal security* [2], [21] (See Definition 1). We also employ the same security model. Optimal security means that the harmful influence on the final aggregation result is proportional to only the number of corrupted nodes which perform direct data injection attacks.

It is important to achieve constant congestion in large-scale wireless sensor networks. Sensors are usually resource-limited and power-constrained. They suffer from restricted computation, communication, and power resources. The energy savings of performing in-network aggregation are crucial for energy-constrained sensor networks. Since the nodes with the heaviest traffic are typically the nodes which are most essential to the connectivity of the network, their failure may cause the network to partition. Although several protocols [2], [3], [21] satisfy optimal security against multiple corrupted nodes, the congestion of these protocols is $O(\log n)$ where n is the total number of sensor nodes.

1.2 Our Contribution

We propose an efficient and optimally secure sensor network aggregation protocol against multiple corrupted nodes by a *random-walk adversary*. Our protocol achieves one round-trip communication between each node and the base station to satisfy optimal security without the result-checking phase, by conducting aggregation along with the verification based on the idea of TESLA technique. Furthermore, we show that the congestion (maximum amount of per-node communication) in our protocol is constant. In other words, the amount of the per-node communication does not increase even if the number of nodes becomes huge. This means that these costs in our protocol are $O(1)$, especially, a leaf node requires just one hash and one MAC computation.

1.3 Related Work

There has been many works on preserving integrity in aggregation protocols. The simplest approach is a single-aggregator model [8]–[11] where each node sends its sensor

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[†]The authors are with Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, Nomi-shi, 923–1292 Japan.

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a) E-mail: omote@jaist.ac.jp

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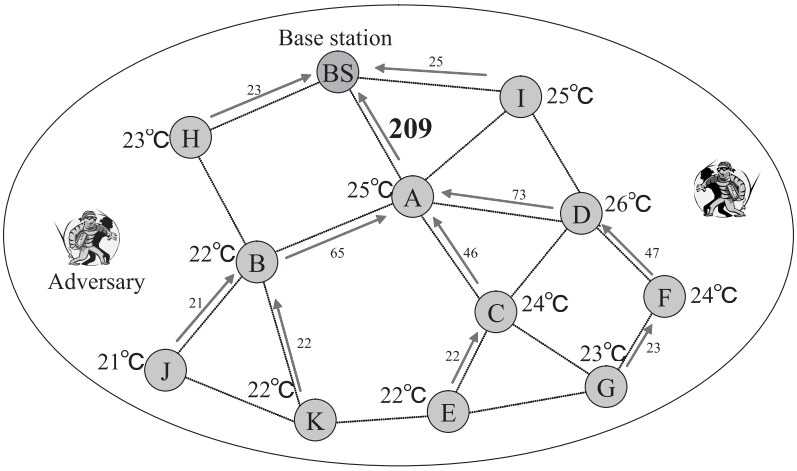

Fig. 1 Aggregation example of sensed temperature data.

reading directly to the aggregator (e.g., base station), and then the aggregator computes the final aggregation result. However, these protocols suffer from having a single node with high congestion. Also, several protocols do not assume corrupted nodes that are trying to disturb the aggregation result [12]–[15].

Recently several researchers have examined security issues in aggregation. Although some aggregation protocols [6], [7] are (optimally) secure against a single corrupted node without corruption of intermediate nodes, these protocols are not optimally secure against multiple corrupted nodes. Some aggregation protocols [2], [3], [21] are optimally secure against multiple corrupted nodes even if intermediate nodes are corrupted. These protocols addressed the issue of measuring and bounding corrupted node's contribution to the final aggregation result. In these protocols [2], [3], [21] related to our protocol, a network forms an aggregation tree, and then each node sends the aggregate up its parent node in the aggregation tree. The commitment is generated for the aggregate in a manner similar to a Merkle tree [25]. The schemes [17], [18] enhance the availability of the above schemes [2], [3], but do not discussed optimal security which is only discussed in [2], [21]. Wagner [16] performed a quantitative study measuring the effect of direct data injection attack on various aggregates.

Chan, Perrig and Song [2] defined optimal security for the first time. The CPS protocol uses two kinds of trees: aggregation tree and commitment tree. The commitment tree can be converted to a virtual binary tree for efficiency. As a result, the congestion for commitment verification is minimized.

Manulis and Schwenk [21] designs the data aggregation protocol in wireless sensor networks, called MS protocol, that satisfies optimal security. They provide a rigorous proof of optimal security against node corruption for the first time. The MS protocol aggregates all children data and sends it to parent node. It has two round-trip communications between each node and the base station including the result-checking phase, similar to the CPS protocol [2]. While the CPS protocol can convert an arbitrary tree to a binary commitment tree, the MS protocol does not consider such a conversion. As a result, the congestion of the MS protocol [21] is less efficient compared with the CPS protocol.

There have been several protocols introduced for preserving the confidentiality of aggregate results [11], [19], [20], [22]–[24]. This issue is different from what our protocol tries to solve and thus is not considered in this paper.

1.4 Organization

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. In the next Sect. 2 we review a survey of other approaches to secure aggregation in sensor networks. Some requirements and preliminary items are provided in Sect. 3. We review the CPS protocol in Sect. 4. We propose our protocol in Sect. 5 and discuss the security and efficiency analysis of our protocol in Sect. 6. We finally conclude this paper in Sect. 7.

2. Preliminaries

2.1 Requirements

The following requirements need to be considered when designing secure in-network aggregation in wireless sensor networks.

- **Optimal security [2], [21]**. Optimal security is the concept to minimize the damaging impact of corrupted nodes on the overall aggregation result and assume the integrity of only data except for data modified by direct data injection attacks. The total aggregation result is modified only as long as the direct data injection attack is performed. It is usually difficult to find direct data injection attacks, and hence it is important not to expand the damage of direct data injection attacks.
- **Low congestion**. As a metric for communication overhead, we usually consider node congestion which is the worst case communication load on any single sensor

node during the algorithm. Since the nodes with the heaviest traffic are typically the nodes which are most essential to the connectivity of the network, their failure may cause the network to partition. Thus, lower communication traffic on the nodes with the heaviest traffic is desirable. Especially, node congestion should not depend on the total number of sensor nodes in wireless sensor networks.

- **Small number of communication rounds**. The communication between sensor nodes is not so reliable, owing to resource-limited and power-constrained. Thus, one round-trip communication for aggregation between each node and the base station is desirable, i.e., each node has only to send the aggregation messages to its parent node after receiving the query by the base station.
- **Low computational and storage costs**. A sensor node suffers from restricted computation and storage, hence the small computational and storage costs of a node are required. Especially, such costs should not depend on the total number of sensor nodes in wireless sensor networks. Of course, a node supports only the lightweight operations such as hash functions and symmetric-key encryption.

2.2 Network Assumptions

A sensor network might contain hundreds or thousands of tiny sensor nodes which suffer from restricted computation, communication, and power resources. Most architecture also employs more powerful base station, which is in one-to-many association with sensor nodes. We assume a general multi-hop network with a set $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$ of n sensor nodes and a single trusted base station (BS). The sensor network is mostly static with a topology known to BS. This appears to be true of many modern sensor network applications such as a building management.

For the purpose of authentication, we consider that every sensor node s_i is in possession of a secret key k_i shared between s_i and BS. Each sensor node s_i has a unique identifier I_i. We assume that the sensor nodes have the ability to perform computations of a collision-resistant cryptographic hash function H and a secure message authentication code $\mathrm{MAC}_K(\cdot)$, where K is the cryptographic secret key.

We also assume that aggregation is performed over an aggregation tree, which is the directed tree formed by the union of all the paths from the sensor nodes to BS (See Sect. 4). Each node does not obtain tree information in advance but recognizes only its own parent node and children nodes by wireless communications before aggregation, similar to [2]. This method is described in TaG [4], in which an ad hoc routing algorithm for WSNs is provided. An aggregation transaction begins by broadcasting a query down the tree from BS to the leaves. Then, the sensor nodes measure their environment, and send their measurements back up the tree to BS. A large building with a control network that regulates inside temperatures by measuring the temperature in each room is one example of a hierarchical structure described in [16].

Each node can evaluate both the inputs and outputs of aggregation as mentioned in [21], defined as *Boolean predicates*. Restricting each sensor to read a value $v_i \in [v_{min}, v_{max}]$, the *inputs predicate* outputs *true* if and only if $v_{min} \le v_i \le v_{max}$. This means that a sensor node can evaluate the readings of other nodes. In the case of SUM aggregate, consequently, the *output predicate* outputs *true* if and only if $nv_{min} \le a \le nv_{max}$, where a is an intermediate aggregation result and n is the total number of sensor nodes which have already contributed into a. For instance, when each sensor node s_i senses temperature in the room, we may set the legitimate sensed value as $v_i \in [0, 50]$ (°C).

The SUM aggregate is easily used to compute the total number of votes in the network, where all the nodes have value either 1 or 0. Also, the average can be easily computed by dividing the SUM aggregate by the total number of nodes. Furthermore, the proposed protocol can use the verification of Φ-quantile aggregate, as described in [2].

2.3 Adversary Model

The primary concern of this paper is *stealthy attacks* as defined in [8]. In this type of attack, the adversary controls one or more nodes, and the goal of the adversary is to cause BS to accept a false aggregate by stealth. We refer to nodes that deviate from the protocol (including benign failures) as faulty nodes. An adversary tries to not only inject its own messages (i.e., direct data injection attacks) but also replay or modify the message sent by s_i or BS. Furthermore, we consider node corruption. We do not assume any tamper-resistance property. Upon corrupting s_i, the adversary obtains full control over s_i and reveals all information kept in s_i including its secret key k_i. We do not consider denial-of-service (DoS) attacks where the goal of the adversary is to prevent BS from getting any aggregation result at all. Such an attack will easily expose the adversary's presence.

We assume a "random-walk adversary model", i.e., an adversary corrupts a node randomly. In practice, an adversary may require much time to corrupt a node. Also, for stealthy operation, he will not stay at one local area in WSNs. In such assumptions, the probability that an adversary obtains the secret keys of adjoining two nodes is negligible, i.e., $\frac{n_c+1}{n}$, where n_c and 1 are the number of children nodes and a parent node of a certain node, respectively (This probability is related to the allowable number of times of an attack.). Hence we assume that the adversary obtains the secret key of neither s_i's children nor s_i's parent if he compromises a node s_i. This means that the adversary can manipulate the commitment of neither s_i's children nor s_i's parent when s_i is compromised. Here, we define the direct data injection attack [2], [16] as follows.

Direct data injection attack: The attack which modifies the data readings reported by the nodes under its direct control, under the constraint that the inputs predicate outputs

true, is called "direct data injection attack" [2]. If a secure aggregation scheme has Boolean predicates, it can limit the adversary's capability to perform direct data injection.

Optimal security is the concept to minimize the damaging impact of corrupted nodes on the overall aggregation result and assume the integrity of only data except for data modified by direct data injection attacks. Optimal security means that the harmful influence on the final aggregation result is proportional to only the number of corrupted nodes which perform direct data injection attacks. We can thus define an optimal level of aggregation security as follows:

Definition 1 (Optimal security [2]): An aggregation algorithm is optimally secure if, by tampering with the aggregation process, an adversary is unable to induce the base station to accept any aggregation result which is not already achievable by direct data injection attacks.

3. The CPS Protocol

The CPS protocol [2], which was proposed by Chan, Perrig and Song in 2006, computes the sum aggregate by three phases: *query-dissemination*, *aggregation-commitment* and *result-checking*. The protocol [3] is the modification of the CPS protocol. These protocols assume that the sensor network is mostly static, with a topology known to the base station (BS). The CPS protocol has been already proved to satisfy "optimal security" in [2]. The CPS protocol uses two kinds of trees: aggregation tree and commitment tree. The commitment tree can be converted to a virtual binary tree for efficiency, i.e., all nodes are set to leaf nodes in such a virtual binary tree.

3.1 Protocol Description

The following three phases are executed at each session. The session means the duration of one protocol execution).

Query-dissemination phase. To initiate a query in the aggregation tree, BS originates a query request message and distributes it to the aggregation tree. The query request message contains an attached nonce N to prevent replay of messages belonging to a prior query. Note that this request message can be sent without an authenticated broadcast, as described in [18].

Aggregation-commitment phase. Every node calculates a message based on its own sensor reading, and sends it to its parent node. This message consists of ⟨count, value, commitment⟩, where count is the number of nodes in the subtree rooted at a node, value is the sum of all node values in the subtree, and commitment is the cryptographic commitment tree over the data values and the aggregation process in the subtree. Let c_i and v_i be the number of nodes in the subtree rooted at s_i and a sensor reading of a node s_i, respectively, and let H be a collision-resistant cryptographic hash function. For a leaf node s_i, the message has the format $\langle 1, v_i, h_i \rangle$, where $h_i = H(N\|v_i\|ID_i)$[†]. For an intermediate node, the message has the format $\langle c, v, h \rangle$ with $c = \sum c_i$, $v = \sum v_i$ and $h = H(N\|c\|v\|\ell_1\| \ldots \|\ell_q)$, where its children have the following messages ℓ_1, ℓ_2, …, ℓ_q, where $\ell_i = \langle c_i, v_i, h_i \rangle$. Note that the intermediate node regards its own sensor reading as the reading from its child. In other words, the intermediate node sets a virtual leaf node as its child node. This means that all nodes are deployed as real leaf nodes and virtual leaf nodes in a binary tree. Nodes store the messages from their children, which will be used in the next result-checking phase. This result-checking phase ends with BS receiving the final message, including the final aggregate and the final commitment.

Result-checking phase. This phase has the following three steps: dissemination, check and acknowledgement.

- **Dissemination**. BS disseminates the final message to the network in an authenticated broadcast. Every node uses this message to verify that its own sensor reading was aggregated correctly. A node s_i is provided with not only the final message but also the messages of its *off-path* nodes from its parent (s_p). s_i's off-path nodes are the set of all the siblings of the nodes on the path from s_i to BS. These are forwarded across the aggregation tree: s_p provides every child s_i with the messages of s_i's siblings in the commitment tree (an intermediate node has two children in the commitment tree), along with every off-path message received from s_p.
- **Check**. Using all off-path messages, s_i recomputes the messages of all its ancestors in the aggregation tree all the way to BS, and compares the result to the final message provided by BS.
- **Acknowledgement**. If the check succeeds, then s_i acknowledges by releasing an authentication code: $\mathrm{MAC}_{k_i}(N\|OK)$, where OK is a unique message identifier and k_i is the secret key shared between s_i and BS. Leaf nodes send their *ack*s while intermediate nodes wait for *ack*s from all their children, compute the XOR of those *ack*s with their own *ack*, and forward the resultant aggregated *ack* to their parent. Finally, BS has received the aggregated *ack*. If this aggregated *ack* is valid, then BS declares the aggregation successful.

3.2 Drawbacks

The CPS protocol has the following drawbacks:

- The communication overhead on each node is large. The CPS protocol requires two round-trip communications between each node and BS (one round-trip for query-dissemination phase and aggregation-commitment phase, and another round-trip for the result-checking phase) to do one aggregation procedure. Especially, the result-checking phase has the congestion of $O(\log n)$.
- The computational cost at each sensor node is great. Not only BS but also each sensor node has to compute

[†]We employ $h_i = H(N\|v_i\|ID_i)$ to prevent replay of messages from a leaf node, instead of $h_i = ID_i$ described in [2].

the final commitment in order to verify the integrity of its own sensor reading in the result-checking phase. Especially, a leaf node has the computational cost of $O(\log n)$ in the result-checking phase.

3.3 Checking Mechanism

The result-checking phase enables the CPS protocol to satisfy "optimal security". All the honest nodes can check the validity of the own sensor reading in this phase after the final aggregation result is committed. This implies that the adversary cannot modify the sensor readings of honest nodes.

4. Our Protocol

4.1 Feature

Our protocol has the following features:

1. (One-trip communication): Our protocol achieves one round-trip communication by conducting aggregation along with the verification, based on the idea of basic tool of TESLA [26], and thus executes the verification of message using MAC in the next session. The session means the duration of one protocol execution.
2. (Efficient update of MAC key): The MAC key is one link of hash chain in our protocol. Each sensor stores not all but some links of hash chain (i.e., dynamic helper points called *pebbles* [27]), which reduce the worst case computational cost per chain link with minimal storage.
3. (Limited duration of WSNs): We assume that the operating time of the sensor node is innately limited. Although the number of message authentication is restricted owing to a hash chain, such restriction is not so significant problem. We can decide the length of hash chain according to the limited duration of life of a node.
4. (Aggregation policy): In the case of dead battery or crash of a node, the aggregation fails since BS becomes aware of it. An aggregated result is accepted by BS only when all the sensed data are gathered.
5. (No nonce): A nonce is unnecessary in our protocol owing to one-time MAC-key to each session, and thus it protects our protocol against replay attacks.

4.2 The Format of Message

The message in our protocol consists of ⟨count, value, identifier, commitment, confirmation⟩, where count and value are the same as the CPS protocol. We pick a seed $k_{i,\ell}$ randomly and apply H recursively ℓ times to the initial seed $k_{i,\ell}$ to generate a one-way hash chain, $k_{i,\ell}$, $k_{i,\ell-1}$, …, $k_{i,0}$ ($k_{i,t-1} = H(k_{i,t})$, $1 \le t \le \ell$), where t denotes the session. The identifier of node s_i is computed as $I_i = k_{i,0} = H^{\ell}(k_{i,\ell})$, where ℓ is the maximum number of sessions and $k_{i,\ell}$ is the secret key of the node s_i, shared between s_i and BS. Then, $k_{i,t} = H^{\ell-t}(k_{i,\ell})$ is the secret key of MAC at session t ($1 \le t \le \ell$) and is also treated as a kind of identifier of s_i at the next session $t+1$, which can be verified by $I_i \stackrel{?}{=} H^{t}(k_{i,t})$. The commitment is the cryptographic commitment and the confirmation is the confirmation result of MAC in the previous session. For a node s_i, its descendant nodes $\{s_{i_j}\}$ and its children nodes $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_q}\} \subseteq \{s_{i_j}\}$, the message at session t has the following message format:

$$\begin{aligned} M_{i,t} &= \langle c_{i,t}, a_{i,t}, k_{i,t-1}, \mu_{k_{i,t}}, \lambda_{k_{i,t}} \rangle, \\ &\text{with } \mu_{k_{i,t}} = \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(c_{i,t} \| a_{i,t}), \\ &\text{and } \lambda_{k_{i,t}} = \left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^{q} \lambda_{k_{i_j,t}} \right) \oplus \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(p_{i,t-1}), \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where $\oplus$ shows the bitwise XOR operator. For a node s_i, let $c_{i,t}$ and $a_{i,t} = v_{i,t} + \sum_j v_{i_j,t}$ be the total number of nodes and the total value of sensor readings in the subtree rooted at s_i, respectively. $v_{i_j,t}$ is a sensor reading of s_{i_j} and $p_{i,t} \in \{OK, NG\}$ is the verification result of MAC of s_i at session t. Note that if a node s_i is a leaf node then $c_{i,t} = 1$, $a_{i,t} = v_{i,t}$ and the confirmation = ϕ (null). Also, if the children node $(s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_q})$ are all nodes on leaves then we set $c_{i,t} = q + 1$ including the number of s_i. Even if $k_{i,t-1}$ is exposed from $M_{i,t}$, the secret key $k_{i,t}$ of MAC cannot be computed from $k_{i,t-1}$ owing to one-wayness of H. An intermediate node s_i sends its own message and forwards its children's messages to its parent. These messages have the format: $\langle M_{i,t}, M_{i_1,t}, \ldots, M_{i_q,t} \rangle$ with s_i's message $M_{i,t}$ and its children messages $M_{i_1,t}, \ldots, M_{i_q,t}$.

4.3 Protocol Description

Our protocol starts with query-dissemination phase, which is the same as the CPS protocol, then ends with aggregation-commitment phase. It does not need the result-checking phase. In aggregation-commitment phase, two steps of confirmation and aggregation are executed. If s_i is a leaf node then it executes neither confirmation process nor aggregation process. s_i has only to send the own message M_i to its parent. Here, we assume that an intermediate node s_i with a secret key $k_{i,\ell}$ has a set of its descendant nodes $\{s_{i_j}\}$, that is, its children and grandchildren nodes $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\} \subseteq \{s_{i_j}\}$ ($m \ge q$). Let t be the number of a current session. We show only the aggregation-commitment phase since the query-dissemination is the same as the CPS protocol.

4.3.1 Protocol (Aggregation-Commitment Phase)

Let $c'_{i_j,t} = c_{i_j,t} - 1$ be the number of descendant nodes of s_{i_j} and let $a'_{i_j,t} = a_{i_j,t} - v_{i_j,t}$ be the aggregated value of descendant nodes of s_{i_j}. The aggregation-commitment phase consists of two algorithms: confirmation and aggregation. In the confirmation algorithm, given $(c_{i_j,t-1}, v_{i_j,t-1}, k_{i_j,t-2}, \mu_{k_{i_j,t-1}})_{j=1,\ldots,m}$ and $(k_{i_j,t-1}, \lambda_{k_{i_j,t-1}})_{j=1,\ldots,m}$, then $\lambda_{k_{i,t}}$ is computed by using Algorithm 1. In the aggregation algorithm, given $v_{i,t}$, $k_{i,t-1}$ and

Algorithm 1 Confirmation of s_i (intermediate node)

Input: $(c_{i_j,t-1}, a_{i_j,t-1}, k_{i_j,t-2}, \mu_{k_{i_j,t-1}})_{j=1,\ldots,m}$
$(k_{i_j,t-1}, \lambda_{k_{i_j,t-1}})_{j=1,\ldots,m}$
Output: $\lambda_{k_{i,t}}$
1: **if** $k_{i_j,t-2} = H(k_{i_j,t-1})$ $(j = 1, \ldots, m)$ **then**
2: **if** $\mu_{k_{i_j,t-1}} = \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i_j,t-1}}(c_{i_j,t-1} \| a_{i_j,t-1})$ $(j = 1, \ldots, m)$ **then**
3: $\lambda_{k_{i,t}} \leftarrow \left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^{q} \lambda_{k_{i_j,t}}\right) \oplus \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(OK)$
4: **else**
5: $\lambda_{k_{i,t}} \leftarrow \left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^{q} \lambda_{k_{i_j,t}}\right) \oplus \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(NG)$
6: **end if**
7: **else**
8: $\lambda_{k_{i,t}} \leftarrow \left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^{q} \lambda_{k_{i_j,t}}\right) \oplus \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(NG)$
9: **end if**

Algorithm 2 Aggregation of s_i (intermediate node)

Input: $v_{i,t}$, $k_{i,t-1}$, $(c_{i_j,t}, a_{i_j,t}, c'_{i_j,t}, a'_{i_j,t})_{j=1,\ldots,q}$
Output: $(c_{i,t}, a_{i,t}, k_{i,t-1}, \mu_{k_{i,t}})$ or FALSE
1: $c_{i,t} \leftarrow 1$
2: $a_{i,t} \leftarrow v_{i,t}$
3: **for** $j = 1$ to q **do**
4: **if** $c_{i_j,t} = 1$ **then**
5: **if** $a_{i_j,t} \in [v_{min}, v_{max}]$ **then**
6: $c_{i,t} \leftarrow c_{i,t} + c_{i_j,t}$
7: $a_{i,t} \leftarrow a_{i,t} + a_{i_j,t}$
8: **else**
9: **return** FALSE
10: **end if**
11: **else if** $c_{i_j,t} > 1$ **then**
12: **if** $c_{i_j,t} - c'_{i_j,t} = 1$ and $a_{i_j,t} - a'_{i_j,t} \in [v_{min}, v_{max}]$ **then**
13: $c_{i,t} \leftarrow c_{i,t} + c_{i_j,t}$
14: $a_{i,t} \leftarrow a_{i,t} + a_{i_j,t}$
15: **else**
16: **return** FALSE
17: **end if**
18: **else**
19: **return** FALSE
20: **end if**
21: **end for**
22: $k_{i,t} \leftarrow \mathrm{KeyGen}(\mathrm{pebble})$
23: $\mu_{k_{i,t}} \leftarrow \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(c_{i,t} \| a_{i,t})$

$(c_{i_j,t}, a_{i_j,t}, c'_{i_j,t}, a'_{i_j,t})_{j=1,\ldots,q}$, then $(c_{i,t}, a_{i,t}, k_{i,t-1}, \mu_{k_{i,t}})$ is computed by using Algorithm 2. The outputs of Algorithm 1 and 2 are $\lambda_{k_{i,t}}$ and $(c_{i,t}, a_{i,t}, k_{i,t-1}, \mu_{k_{i,t}})$, respectively, that is to say, just the message $M_{i,t}$ of s_i at session t.

Confirmation. The node s_i has preserved the information ⟨count, value, identifier, commitment⟩ of $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\}$ at the previous session $t-1$. When s_i receives messages from its children at session t, these messages contain both children's and grandchildren's messages. At first, s_i verifies the identifier $k_{i_j,t-1}$ by $k_{i_j,t-2} \stackrel{?}{=} H(k_{i_j,t-1})$ of $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\}$. If the verification of all identifiers of $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\}$ is valid then s_i verifies the previous commitments $\mu_{k_{i_j,t-1}}$ of $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\}$. If the verification of all commitments of $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\}$ is valid then s_i computes $\lambda_{k_{i,t}} = \left(\bigoplus_{j=1}^{q} \lambda_{k_{i_j,t}}\right) \oplus \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(OK)$ to include $M_{i,t}$. Otherwise, s_i computes the confirmation as $\mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(NG)$. After computing such confirmation, s_i discards ⟨count, value, identifier, commitment⟩ of the previous session $t-1$. Note that the confirmation is not executed at the first session after the aggregation tree is constructed.

Aggregation. At first, s_i checks the sensor readings of children nodes using Boolean predicates (See Sect. 2.2). If j-th child of s_i is a leaf node (i.e., $c_{i_j,t} = 1$) then s_i can directly check whether its child's sensor reading is in the range of $[v_{min}, v_{max}]$. If $c_{i_j,t} > 1$ then s_i can check the range of its child's sensor reading by computing the difference between its child's aggregate and its grandchildren's aggregates. If sensor readings of s_i's children are out of range, then s_i rejects it (i.e., Algorithm 2 outputs FALSE). Otherwise, s_i computes its own message, which includes the aggregate at s_i (root of the subtree). Of course, s_i can obtain the values from its children's messages. Then, s_i sends its own message and forwards its children's messages to its parent. However, the node s_i need not forward its grandchildren's messages to its parent, because grandchildren's information is included in their children's messages. When s_i's task is completed, s_i preserves the information ⟨count, value, identifier, commitment⟩ of $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\}$ until the next session $t+1$. Finally, BS checks whether its children's sensor readings are in the range of $[v_{min}, v_{max}]$ in the same way as an intermediate node when BS has received the final messages. BS can compute the final commitments and the final confirmation using the secret key of each node. BS compares the computed confirmation with the received confirmation. If these results match, then BS accepts the aggregation result of the previous session $t-1$. Furthermore, if the final commitments are valid, then BS preserves the aggregation result until the next session. Otherwise, BS rejects the result.

The MAC key $k_{i,t}$ is one link of hash chain in our protocol. Each sensor computes the MAC key from pebbles (i.e., $k_{i,t} \leftarrow \mathrm{KeyGen}(\mathrm{pebble})$ in Algorithm 2). This can be accomplished using an arbitrary hash chain traversal algorithm. For our protocol we use the algorithm presented in [27], which requires the computation of $\lceil \frac{1}{2} \log_2 \ell \rceil$ links in eahch round and needs to store $\lceil \log_2 \ell \rceil$ links and seeds.

A node receives the messages of its children and grandchildren at most. This means that the congestion of a node s_i is proportional to only the total number of $\{s_{i_1}, \ldots, s_{i_m}\}$. Note that each intermediate node sets a timeout for receiving a message from children. Even after the time expiration by dead battery or crash of a child node, each node still executes the protocol. Actually, BS can confirm such an accident since BS knows all the network topology. When BS notices the accident, an ad hoc routing algorithm [4] re-executes to reconstruct the aggregation tree by BS's query.

Example (Aggregation-commitment phase):
We show an example of aggregation-commitment phase at session t ($\leq \ell$) depicted in Fig. 2.

- **Confirmation**. Let s_3 be a present intermediate sensor node at session t deployed in Fig. 2. s_3 has preserved the information ⟨count, value, identifier, commitment⟩ of s_4, s_5, s_6 and s_7 of the previous session $t-1$. The node s_3 receives four messages $M_{4,t}$, $M_{5,t}$, $M_{6,t}$ and $M_{7,t}$

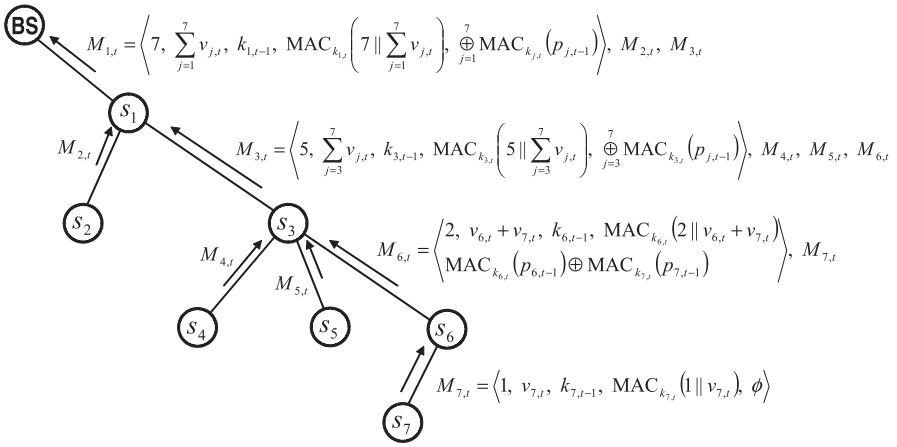

Fig. 2 Example of our protocol (session t).

at session t. We consider the confirmation of s_6 by s_3 in this example, similar to s_4, s_5 and s_7. At first, s_3 verifies the identifier $k_{6,t-1}$ by $k_{6,t-2} \stackrel{?}{=} H(k_{6,t-1})$ (i.e., $k_{6,t-1} = k_{3_3,t-1}$). If the verification of this identifier is valid then s_3 verifies the previous commitment $\mu_{k_{6,t-1}}$. If the verification of four commitments is valid then s_3 computes $\lambda_{k_{3,t}} = \lambda_{k_{4,t}} \oplus \lambda_{k_{5,t}} \oplus \lambda_{k_{6,t}} \oplus \mathrm{MAC}_{k3,t}(OK)$ to include $M_{3,t}$. Otherwise, s_3 computes the confirmation as $\mathrm{MAC}_{k_{3,t}}(NG)$. After computing the confirmation, s_3 discards ⟨count, value, identifier, commitment⟩ of s_4, s_5, s_6 and s_7 of the previous session $t-1$.

- **Aggregation**. s_3 uses these four messages to check three sensor readings $v_{4,t}$, $v_{5,t}$ and $v_{6,t}$. For checking the range of $v_{6,t}$, the node s_3 computes the difference between $(v_{6,t} + v_{7,t})$ in $M_{6,t}$ and $v_{7,t}$ in $M_{7,t}$. If $v_{min} \le v_{4,t}, v_{5,t}, v_{6,t} \le v_{max}$, then s_3 computes its own message:

$$M_{3,t} = \Bigg\langle 5,\ \sum_{u=3}^{7} v_{u,t},\ k_{3,t-1},\ \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{3,t}}\left(5 \| \sum_{u=3}^{7} v_{u,t}\right),\ \left(\bigoplus_{u=4}^{6} \lambda_{k_{u,t}}\right) \oplus \mathrm{MAC}_{k_{i,t}}(OK)\Bigg\rangle, \quad (2)$$

where $k_{3,t-1} = H(k_{3,t})$. Then, s_3 sends its own message $M_{3,t}$ and forwards its children's messages $M_{4,t}$, $M_{5,t}$ and $M_{6,t}$ to its parent node s_1. When s_3's task is completed, s_3 preserves the information, $(1, v_4, k_{4,t-1}, \mu_{k_{4,t}})$, $(1, v_5, k_{5,t-1}, \mu_{k_{5,t}})$, $(2, v_6, k_{6,t-1}, \mu_{k_{6,t}})$ and $(1, v_7, k_{7,t-1}, \mu_{k_{7,t}})$ until the next session $t+1$. Note that s_3 need not forward $M_{7,t}$ to s_1 since $v_{7,t}$ is included in $M_{6,t}$ in Fig. 2.

4.3.2 Checking Mechanism

While the CPS protocol checks the validity of the own sensor readings in the result-checking phase, our protocol checks the validity of the children sensor readings in the aggregation-commitment phase. In our protocol, although the node s_i cannot verify the commitment of children and grandchildren at once, we achieves one round-trip communication by conducting aggregation along with the verification, based on the idea of TESLA.

5. Analysis

In this section, we discuss security and efficiency of our protocol. In the security analysis, we prove that our protocol is optimally secure. In the efficiency, we show that the congestion (maximum amount of per-node communication) in our protocol is constant. Also, we show that the computational cost of each node in our protocol is smaller than the CPS protocol.

5.1 Security

This paper focus on stealthy attacks. Each sensor has a routing information. If an adversary forges the routing information of s_{i_j}, the route from s_i to its parent node may be changed. However, its new parent node s_p notices such a forgery, since s_p is assumed to be honest (refer to Sect. 2.3) and does not have s_{i_j}'s message of the previous session. Therefore, our protocol is secure against the forgery attack of routing information by a randm-walk adversary, that is, BS can reject such aggregated result which is changed by network topology being forged.

As mentioned in Sect. 2.3, an adversary should have only a limited influence on the result of the aggregation computation. We show that the SUM aggregate of our protocol satisfies "optimal security" described in Definition 1, similar to the CPS protocol. We show the following lemmas before showing theorems about "optimal security". If the values are in the range of $[v_{min}, v_{max}]$, then the values can be shifted to make a range of the form $[0, r]$.

Lemma 1: Let v_a be a sensor reading of a node s_a. If s_a's

parent accepts v_a then $0 \le v_a \le r$ is satisfied in our adversary model.

Proof. Suppose s_p is the s_a's parent node; v_p is the s_p's sensor reading; $\{s_b\}$ is the a set of s_a's children; and $\sum v$ is the sum of $\{s_b\}$'s aggregates. A situation that s_a is honest induces $0 \le v_a \le r$ even if s_p is corrupted. Next, we consider the case that s_a is corrupted but s_p is honest. If s_a is a leaf node then s_p can easily check v_a. In this case, a situation that the honest s_p accepts v_a indicates $0 \le v_a \le r$. If s_a is an intermediate node then s_p can check v_a by computing the difference between $(v_a + \sum v)$ and $\sum v$, where $(v_a + \sum v)$ is s_a's aggregate. Hence if s_p accepts v_a then $0 \le v_a \le r$. Consequently, if s_p accepts v_a then $0 \le v_a \le r$. □

Lemma 2: Suppose there are m nodes with committed (honest) sensor values $v_1, \ldots, v_m$ in an aggregation subtree T_m. Then the total of aggregation values by honest nodes at the root of T_m is $\sum_{i=1}^{m} v_i$.

Proof. We show the result of three generations: a similar reasoning applies for arbitrary m nodes. Suppose s_p is the s_a's parent node; v_p is the s_p's sensor reading; $\{s_h\}$ is a set of s_a's honest children; and $\sum v$ is the sum of $\{s_h\}$'s aggregates. When the aggregate $\sum v$ is sent to s_p at session j, s_a cannot modify $\sum v$ because s_a does not know $\{s_h\}$'s secret keys. As a result, the legitimate aggregation $\sum v$ is included in s_p's aggregate even if s_a is computed. Therefore, the total of aggregation values by honest nodes at the root of T_m is $\sum_{i=1}^{m} v_i$. □

Theorem 1: Let the final SUM aggregate received by BS be S. If BS accepts S then $S_L \le S \le (S_L + \mu r)$ where S_L is the sum of the data values of all the legitimate nodes, μ is the total number of malicious nodes, and r is the upper bound on the range of allowable values on each node.

Proof. Let $s_1, \ldots, s_\mu$ be the nodes compromised by an adversary. The compromised node s_i $(1 \le i \le \mu)$ cannot manipulate the aggregates of s_i's children but it can manipulate its own sensor reading v_i. The sensor reading v_i satisfies $0 \le v_i \le r$ by Lemma 1. Hence it satisfies $0 \le \mu(v_1 + \cdots + v_\mu) \le \mu r$. Since S_L should be included in the total of aggregation values by Lemma 2, the SUM result S satisfies $S_L \le S \le (S_L + \mu r)$. □

Theorem 2: Our protocol is optimally secure.

Proof. Let the sum of the data values of all the legitimate nodes be S_L. Consider an adversary with μ malicious nodes which perform direct data injection attacks. We assume a randmo-walk adversary model and thus he can choose μ malicious nodes under a certain restriction (refer to Sect. 2.3). An adversary causes the nodes under its control to report a sensor reading within the legal range $[0, r]$. If the adversary sets all μ nodes to have data value 0, the computed aggregate is S_L. If the adversary sets all μ nodes to have data value r, the computed aggregate is $S_L + \mu r$. Any aggregation value between these two extremes is achievable by both attacks. So, the bound of $S_L \le S \le (S_L + \mu r)$ by Theorem 1 is exactly on the range of possible results achievable by both attacks. Therefore, our protocol is optimally secure by Definition 1. □

5.2 Congestion Complexity

We now consider the congestion induced by the secure SUM aggregate. Congestion is a big problem for large-scale wireless sensor networks, so it is necessary to decrease congestion complexity. Our protocol aims to achieve the constant node congestion not to depend on the total number of nodes (n) owing to one round-trip communication without the result-checking phase. More specifically, we aim to stabilize the maximum amount of information that a single node sends and receives.

While the congestion in the CPS protocol is $O(\log n)$ (strictly $O(\log^2 n)$ in [2] and $O(\log n)$ in [3]), the congestion of our protocol is constant, i.e., the congestion of a node s_a is proportional to only the total number of s_a's children and s_a's grandchildren. This means that our protocol is more scalable and efficient than the CPS protocol. Note that the MS protocol [21] less efficient than the CPS protocol, and, thus, we do not compare our protocol with [21].

Node congestion in our protocol eventually depends on the number of children nodes. Hence, the smaller the number of children nodes becomes, the lower the node congestion complexity gets in our protocol. Node congestion in our protocol does not depend on the height of aggregation tree, that is, congestion complexity is $O(1)$.

5.3 Communication Complexity

One round-trip communication between each node and BS for aggregation is desirable. While the CPS protocol required two round-trip communications, our protocol indeed requires only one round-trip communication. Here, we explain the communication complexity of an intermediate node (A leaf node is also included in Table 1.). Let n_{lower} be the number of nodes which are deployed in lower part (only descendant nodes) of a current intermediate node ($n_{lower} \le n$), and let $|H|$ and $|M|$ be the size of H and MAC, respectively. In the aggregation-commitment phase (AC), while the size of message in the CPS protocol is almost $|H|(n_c + 1)$ which is mainly the size of commitments that a node sends and receives, the size of message in our protocol is almost $(|H| + 2|M|)(2n_c + n_g + 1)$ which is mainly the size of messages a node sends and receives, described in Table 1, where n_c and n_g are the number of children and grandchildren nodes, respectively. However, the size of message additionally requires $2|H| \log n_{lower} + |M|$ in the result-checking phase (RC) of the CPS protocol. Therefore, the communication complexity of our protocol is in total smaller than that of the CPS protocol. We emphasize that the communication complexity of an intermediate node in our scheme does not depend on a position (Of course, they depend on not the total number of nodes but the number of children and grandchildren.).

Table 1 The communication complexity and computational cost of each node at each session.

		Communication complexity		Computational cost	
		Leaf node	**Intermediate node**	**Leaf node**	**Intermediate node**
CPS	AC	$\|H\|$	$\|H\|(n_c+1)$	$\mathcal{H}$	$\mathcal{H}$
	RC	$\|M\|$	$2\|H\|\log n_{lower}+\|M\|$	$\mathcal{H}\log n+M$	$\mathcal{H}\log n_{upper}+M$
	Total	$\|H\|+\|M\|$	$\|H\|(2\log n_{lower}+n_c+1)+\|M\|$	$\mathcal{H}(\log n+1)+M$	$\mathcal{H}(\log n_{upper}+1)+M$
Ours	AC	$\|H\|+\|M\|$	$(\|H\|+2\|M\|)(2n_c+n_g+1)$	$\mathcal{H}(1+\lceil\frac{1}{2}\log_2\ell\rceil)+M$	$(\mathcal{H}+M)(n_c+n_g+1)+\mathcal{H}\lceil\frac{1}{2}\log_2\ell\rceil+M$

Table 2 The practical analysis of one protocol execution in our scheme (Binary tree).

Communication complexity		Computational cost		Storage size	
Leaf node	**Intermediate node**	**Leaf node**	**Intermediate node**	**Leaf node**	**Intermediate node**
40 Bytes	540 Bytes	104 msec	376 msec	320 Bytes	560 Bytes

5.4 Computational and Storage Costs

The computational and storage costs should not depend on the total number of sensor nodes n because of its restricted computation and storage. Here, we explain the computational cost of an intermediate node (A leaf node is also included in Table 1.). We compare our protocol with the CPS protocol by the per-node computational cost described in Table 1. Let n_{upper} be the number of nodes which are deployed in upper level of a current intermediate node ($n_{upper} \leq n$). Let $\mathcal{H}$ and M be the computation of H and MAC, respectively. Both the CPS protocol and our protocol are efficient since they use only hash function and MAC. However, the computational cost of the CPS protocol depends on the number of nodes n_{upper}, i.e., $\mathcal{H}\log n_{upper}+M$ (a leaf node has the worst case of computational cost of $\mathcal{H}\log n+M$), while that of our protocol does not depends on the total number of nodes, i.e., $(\mathcal{H}+M)(n_c+n_g+1)+\mathcal{H}\lceil\frac{1}{2}\log_2\ell\rceil+M$ in the aggregation-commitment phase (AC). Note that $\mathcal{H}\lceil\frac{1}{2}\log_2\ell\rceil$ is the computation cost of MAC key derived from pebbles. Thus, our protocol has an advantage over the CPS protocol for the per-node computational cost in wireless sensor networks, especially, the computational cost of a leaf node in our protocol is always smaller than that in the CPS protocol.

The size of extra storage in our protocol is $(|H|+|M|)(n_c+n_g)+|H|\lceil\log_2\ell\rceil$ compared with the CPS protocol, because a node has to preserve the messages of its children and grandchildren of the previous session. However, it is not so significant problem in large-scale wireless sensor networks since the size of storage does not depend on n. Note that a leaf node need not have such storage.

We also emphasize that the computational cost and the storage size of an intermediate node in our scheme does not depend on a position.

5.5 Practical Analysis

We conduct the practical performance analysis of our scheme assuming the implementation on MICAz in order to evaluate communication complexity, computational cost and the size of storage from a practical viewpoint. MICAz is a platform fluently used for the research of WSNs, which equips an 8-bit CPU ATmega128L at 7.37 MHz, 128 kB program memory, 4 kB RAM and 512 KB flash memory. Our implemented program by nesC can be saved into this flash memory. We use Avrora simulator [28] for MICAz in this analysis.

We set $|M|=|H|=160$ bits and $\ell=2^{16}$. We assume a binary tree as an aggregation tree, and hence an intermediate node has two children and four grandchildren (i.e., $n_c=2$ and $n_g=4$). We employ SHA-1 as a hash function and HMAC-SHA1 as a MAC function, and then it takes 7.97 msec to execute one hash function and 32.1 msec to execute one MAC function on MICAz. We estimate the performance of our scheme using these results described in Table 2.

As shown in Table 2, the communication complexity for one protocol execution and the size of storage on each node are about less than 600 bytes; these results are acceptable overhead for current generation of sensor nodes [29]. The computation overhead for one protocol execution ranges from 104 msec to 376 msec. This is much smaller than applying public key cryptographic techniques.

6. Conclusion

We proposed an efficient and optimally secure sensor network aggregation protocol for general networks and multiple corrupted nodes. Our protocol satisfies "optimal security". The security notion guarantees that the harmful influence on the final aggregation result is proportional to only the number of corrupted nodes subject to direct data injection attacks. As a result, the influence on the total aggregate can be optimally controlled within a certain range. Furthermore, since our protocol achieves one round-trip communication by excluding the result-checking phase, both the node congestion complexity and the computational cost of each node are constant in our protocol. Therefore, these costs in our protocol are $O(1)$, especially, a leaf node requires just one hash and one MAC computation.

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Atsuko Miyaji received the B.Sc., the M.Sc., and the Dr. Sci. degrees in mathematics from Osaka University, Osaka, Japan in 1988, 1990, and 1997 respectively. She joined Panasonic Co., LTD from 1990 to 1998 and engaged in research and development for secure communication. She was an associate professor at the Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (JAIST) in 1998. She has joined the computer science department of the University of California, Davis since 2002. She has been a professor at the Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (JAIST) since 2007 and the director of Library of JAIST since 2008. Her research interests include the application of number theory into cryptography and information security. She received the IPSJ Sakai Special Researcher Award in 2002, the Standardization Contribution Award in 2003, Engineering Sciences Society: Certificate of Appreciation in 2005, the Award for the contribution to Culture of Security in 2007, IPSJ/ITSCJ Project Editor Award in 2007, 2008, and 2009, the Director-General of Industrial Science and Technology Policy and Environment Bureau Award in 2007, Editorial Committee of Engineering Sciences Society: Certificate of Appreciation in 2007, and DoCoMo Mobile Science Awards in 2008. She is a member of the International Association for Cryptologic Research, the Institute of Electronics, Information and Communication Engineers, the Information Processing Society of Japan, and the Mathematical Society of Japan.

Kazumasa Omote received his M.S. and Ph.D. degrees in information science from Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (JAIST) in 1999 and 2002, respectively. He joined Fujitsu Laboratories, LTD from 2002 to 2008 and engaged in research and development for network security. He was a research assistant professor at the Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (JAIST) in 2008. He has been an associate professor at the Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology (JAIST) since 2011. His research interests include applied cryptography and network security. He is a member of the IPS of Japan.