

# Symmetric Authenticated Tunneling Protocol (SATP)

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This document is an engineering level description of the SATP authenticated and encrypted remote user verification and tunneling protocol. This document describes the network protocol SATP, a quantum safe tunneling and identity verification system that enables remote logins to secure network devices, through a quantum secure tunneling and identity verification protocol.

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## **Foreword**

This document is intended as the preliminary draft of a new standards proposal, and as a basis from which that standard can be implemented. We intend that this serves as an explanation of this new technology, and as a complete description of the protocol.

This document is the first revision of the specification of SATP, further revisions may become necessary during the pursuit of a standard model, and revision numbers shall be incremented with changes to the specification. The reader is asked to consider only the most recent revision of this draft, as the authoritative implementation of the SATP specification.

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SATP, the algorithm constituting the SATP messaging protocol is patent pending, and is owned by John G. Underhill and Quantum Resistant Cryptographic Solutions Corporation. The code described herein is copyrighted, and owned by John G. Underhill and Quantum Resistant Cryptographic Solutions Corporation.

## 1. Introduction

Key distribution remains one of the most challenging problems in cryptography. The internet has rapidly evolved into a critical communications platform, used daily by billions of people worldwide. Given its foundational role in global commerce, personal communication, and critical infrastructure, information transmitted over the internet must be strongly protected from interception, tampering, or future compromise.

Currently, the predominant security model relies heavily on asymmetric cryptography (public/private key cryptography) to establish secure encrypted tunnels and authenticate entities. These asymmetric primitives depend on mathematical ‘trapdoor’ functions, problems easily created with a public key but computationally infeasible to solve without the corresponding private key. However, asymmetric cryptographic methods have always carried an inherent risk: their security assumptions can be undermined over time by breakthroughs in mathematics or advances in computing technology.

The emergence of quantum computing is now demonstrating this risk in a concrete and alarming manner. Quantum computers, leveraging quantum mechanics, threaten to render entire classes of asymmetric algorithms, such as RSA and elliptic-curve cryptography (ECC) obsolete within a foreseeable timeframe. Intelligence agencies already capture and archive encrypted data streams on a massive scale, aware that today's secure communications could eventually become readable if future computational breakthroughs materialize. Even newer asymmetric systems, such as lattice-based cryptography, while resistant to currently known quantum attacks, may face similar threats as quantum computing and mathematical techniques mature.

In addition, parameter selection for asymmetric cryptography often involves trade-offs, choosing more modest security margins in exchange for improved performance. This compromise may accelerate the vulnerability of encrypted communications to future cryptanalysis. Considering that truly secure communication may need to remain confidential over decades, possibly spanning entire human lifetimes, the inherent unpredictability of asymmetric cryptography’s future safety becomes unacceptable.

Symmetric cryptography presents an attractive alternative or complements to asymmetric methods. Provided that sufficiently strong symmetric cryptographic primitives and adequately long key lengths are chosen, symmetric encryption can offer formidable protection against future threats, potentially resisting cryptanalysis indefinitely. Nevertheless, symmetric key-based systems historically struggle with challenges like scalability, key distribution complexity, forward secrecy, and vulnerability to single points of failure.

For example, traditional symmetric schemes relying upon pre-shared keys often use a single fixed key and session counters to derive encryption keys. Such approaches, seen in early SSH implementations, exhibit critical security weaknesses: capturing a single host’s secret key can compromise all past communications from that host; compromising a server’s key storage can potentially expose past, present, and future communication streams for all network participants.

The Symmetric Authenticated Tunneling Protocol (SATP) presented in this paper proposes a novel symmetric solution designed specifically to address these limitations. SATP employs securely provisioned, hierarchical symmetric key derivation, using keys stored securely on client devices (such as SIM, Micro-SD, USB, or on-chip ICCs). It generates fresh ephemeral session keys, ensuring that compromise of any individual client or server secret key does not retroactively compromise previously encrypted communication sessions. The protocol provides robust forward secrecy, post-quantum security via modern cryptographic hash constructions (SHAKE, cSHAKE, and KMAC), and excellent scalability, solving the key-management issues inherent in traditional symmetric key systems.

SATP thereby aims to provide truly secure and long-term confidentiality suitable for the post-quantum era, overcoming the traditional weaknesses of symmetric and asymmetric cryptographic schemes alike.

## 1.1 Purpose

The SATP secure messaging protocol, utilized in conjunction with quantum secure symmetric cryptographic primitives, is used to create an encrypted and authenticated duplexed communications channel. This specification presents a secure messaging protocol that creates an encrypted communications channel, in such a way that:

- 1) The symmetric cipher keys for both the send and receive channels, are ephemeral, and use shared secrets for each channel that are unique to each session (forward secrecy).
- 2) The capture of the client devices session key does not directly reveal any information about future sessions (predicative resistance).
- 3) Provides strong authentication security, both during tunnel initialization, network login, and authenticated encrypted messaging.

SATP is a duplexed communications system. Symmetric cipher keys are ephemeral, and unique keys are generated for each session. The system works in a client/server model, where a client requests a connection from the server and initiates the key exchange. These keys are used to initialize a quantum secure symmetric cipher for both communications channels, which encrypts the communications stream. A strong emphasis has been placed on authentication with SATP, with the entire key exchange using authentication to guarantee the exchange, and the symmetric stream cipher using KMAC authentication, with additional data parameters (AEAD) that authenticate the SATP packet headers.

## 2. Scope

This document describes the SATP secure messaging protocol, which is used to establish an encrypted and authenticated duplexed message stream between two hosts. This document describes the complete symmetric key exchange, authentication, and the establishment of an encrypted tunnel. This is a complete specification, describing the cryptographic primitives, the derivation functions, and the complete client to server messaging protocol.

### 2.1 Application

This protocol is intended for institutions that implement secure communication channels used to encrypt and authenticate secret information exchanged between remote terminals.

The key exchange functions, authentication and encryption of messages, and message exchanges between terminals defined in this document must be considered as mandatory elements in the construction of an SATP communications stream. Components that are not necessarily mandatory, but are the recommended settings or usage of the protocol shall be denoted by the key-words **SHOULD**. In circumstances where strict conformance to implementation procedures is required but not necessarily obvious, the key-word **SHALL** will be used to indicate compulsory compliance is required to conform to the specification.

### **3. Terms and Definitions**

#### **3.1 Cryptographic Primitives**

##### **3.1.1 SCB**

The SHAKE Cost Based Key Derivation Function (SCB-KDF) uses advanced techniques such as cache thrashing, memory ballooning, and a CPU intensive core function to mitigate attacks on a hash function by making it more expensive to run dictionary and rainbow attacks to discover a user's passphrase.

##### **3.1.2 RCS**

The wide-block Rijndael hybrid authenticated AEAD symmetric stream cipher.

##### **3.1.3 SHA-3**

The SHA3 hash function NIST standard, as defined in the NIST standards document FIPS-202; SHA-3 Standard: Permutation-Based Hash and Extendable-Output Functions.

##### **3.1.4 SHAKE**

The NIST standard Extended Output Function (XOF) defined in the SHA-3 standard publication FIPS-202; SHA-3 Standard: Permutation-Based Hash and Extendable-Output Functions.

##### **3.1.5 KMAC**

The SHA3 derived Message Authentication Code generator (MAC) function defined in NIST special publication SP800-185: SHA-3 Derived Functions: cSHAKE, KMAC, TupleHash and ParallelHash.

### **3.2 Network References**

#### **3.2.1 Bandwidth**

The maximum rate of data transfer across a given path, measured in bits per second (bps).

#### **3.2.2 Byte**

Eight bits of data, represented as an unsigned integer ranged 0-255.

#### **3.2.3 Certificate**

A digital certificate, a structure that contains a signature verification key, expiration time, and serial number and other identifying information. A certificate is used to verify the authenticity of a message signed with an asymmetric signature scheme.

#### **3.2.4 Domain**

A virtual grouping of devices under the same authoritative control that shares resources between members. Domains are not constrained to an IP subnet or physical location but are a virtual

group of devices, with server resources typically under the control of a network administrator, and clients accessing those resources from different networks or locations.

### **3.2.5 Duplex**

The ability of a communication system to transmit and receive data; half-duplex allows one direction at a time, while full-duplex allows simultaneous two-way communication.

**3.2.6 Gateway:** A network point that acts as an entrance to another network, often connecting a local network to the internet.

### **3.2.7 IP Address**

A unique numerical label assigned to each device connected to a network that uses the Internet Protocol for communication.

**3.2.8 IPv4 (Internet Protocol version 4):** The fourth version of the Internet Protocol, using 32-bit addresses to identify devices on a network.

**3.2.9 IPv6 (Internet Protocol version 6):** The most recent version of the Internet Protocol, using 128-bit addresses to overcome IPv4 address exhaustion.

### **3.2.10 LAN (Local Area Network)**

A network that connects computers within a limited area such as a residence, school, or office building.

### **3.2.11 Latency**

The time it takes for a data packet to move from source to destination, affecting the speed and performance of a network.

### **3.2.12 Network Topology**

The arrangement of different elements (links, nodes) of a computer network, including physical and logical aspects.

### **3.2.13 Packet**

A unit of data transmitted over a network, containing both control information and user data.

### **3.2.14 Protocol**

A set of rules governing the exchange or transmission of data between devices.

### **3.2.15 TCP/IP (Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol)**

A suite of communication protocols used to interconnect network devices on the internet.

**3.2.16 Throughput:** The actual rate at which data is successfully transferred over a communication channel.

### **3.2.17 UDP (User Datagram Protocol)**

A communication protocol that offers a limited amount of service when messages are exchanged between computers in a network that uses the Internet Protocol.

### **3.2.18 VLAN (Virtual Local Area Network)**

A logical grouping of network devices that appear to be on the same LAN regardless of their physical location.

### **3.2.19 VPN (Virtual Private Network)**

Creates a secure network connection over a public network such as the internet.

## **3.3 Normative References**

The following documents serve as references for cryptographic components used by QSTP:

### **3.3.1 FIPS 202: SHA-3 Standard: Permutation-Based Hash and Extendable Output Functions**

**Functions:** This standard specifies the SHA-3 family of hash functions, including SHAKE extendable-output functions. <https://doi.org/10.6028/NIST.FIPS.202>

### **3.3.2 NIST SP 800-185: SHA-3 Derived Functions: cSHAKE, KMAC, TupleHash, and ParallelHash**

**ParallelHash:** This publication specifies four SHA-3-derived functions: cSHAKE, KMAC, TupleHash, and ParallelHash. <https://doi.org/10.6028/NIST.SP.800-185>

### **3.3.3 NIST SP 800-90A Rev. 1: Recommendation for Random Number Generation Using Deterministic Random Bit Generators**

**Deterministic Random Bit Generators:** This publication provides recommendations for the generation of random numbers using deterministic random bit generators.

<https://doi.org/10.6028/NIST.SP.800-90Ar1>

### **3.3.4 NIST SP 800-108: Recommendation for Key Derivation Using Pseudorandom Functions**

**Functions:** This publication offers recommendations for key derivation using pseudorandom functions. <https://doi.org/10.6028/NIST.SP.800-108>

## 4. Cryptographic Primitives

SATP relies on a robust set of symmetric cryptographic primitives designed to provide resilience against both classical and quantum-based attacks. The following sections detail the specific cryptographic algorithms and mechanisms that form the foundation of SATP's encryption, key exchange, and authentication processes.

### 4.1 Symmetric Cryptographic Primitives

SATP's symmetric encryption employs the Rijndael Cryptographic Stream (RCS), a stream cipher adapted from the Rijndael (AES) algorithm to meet post-quantum security needs. Key features of the RCS cipher include:

- **Wide-Block Cipher Design:** RCS extends the original AES design with a focus on increasing the block size and number of transformation rounds, thereby enhancing its resistance to differential and linear cryptanalysis.
- **Enhanced Key Schedule:** The key schedule in RCS is cryptographically strengthened using Keccak, ensuring that derived keys are resistant to known attacks, including algebraic-based and differential attacks.
- **Authenticated Encryption with Associated Data (AEAD):** RCS integrates with KMAC (Keccak-based Message Authentication Code) to provide both encryption and message authentication in a single operation. This approach ensures that data integrity is maintained alongside confidentiality.

The RCS stream cipher's design is optimized for high-performance environments, making it suitable for low-latency applications that require secure and efficient data encryption. It leverages AVX/AVX2/AVX512 intrinsics and AES-NI instructions embedded in modern CPUs.

### 4.2 Hash Functions and Key Derivation

Hash functions and key derivation functions (KDFs) are essential to QSTP's ability to transform raw cryptographic data into secure keys and hashes. The following primitives are used:

- **SHA-3:** SHA-3 serves as SATP's primary hash function, providing secure, collision-resistant hashing capabilities.
- **SHAKE:** SATP employs the Keccak SHAKE XOF function for deriving symmetric keys from shared secrets. This ensures that each session key is uniquely generated and unpredictable, enhancing the protocol's security against key reuse attacks.

These cryptographic primitives ensure that SATP's key management processes remain secure, even in scenarios involving high-risk adversaries and quantum-capable threats.

### 4.3 Key Derivation Function

SCB is a cost-based key derivation function, one that can increase the memory usage and computational complexity of the underlying hash function. Suitable for password hashing, key generation, and in cases where brute-force attacks on a derived key must be strongly mitigated.

The SCB KDF's architecture is designed to withstand a variety of cryptographic attacks by enforcing both computational and memory hardness.

- **Brute-Force Attacks:** The high computational and memory costs imposed by SCB exponentially increase the time required to test each key, rendering brute-force attacks infeasible within practical timeframes.
- **Dictionary Attacks:** Memory-hardness ensures that generating and storing comprehensive dictionaries would require exorbitant memory resources, making such attacks impractical.
- **Rainbow Table Attacks:** The iterative and memory-intensive nature of SCB disrupts the feasibility of creating effective rainbow tables, as each table entry would necessitate substantial memory resources and computational effort.
- **Side-Channel Attacks:** The deterministic scattering pattern and uniform memory access intervals obscure access patterns, minimizing timing discrepancies and reducing information leakage through side channels.
- **Parallelized Hardware Attacks:** Each write of a cache line to a memory location, writes the cache position index and loop iterator to the key hash, and the entire buffer is written to the hash at each L2 sized interval (default) 256 KiB, sequential operations that make any significant parallelization impossible.

The SCB KDF's architecture is designed to withstand a variety of cryptographic attacks by enforcing both computational and memory hardness.

## 5. Protocol Description

### 5.1 Structures

#### 5.1.1 Device Key Set

The device key is an internal structure that stores the device derivation key, the expiration time, and the client identity array.

Parameter	Data Type	Bit Length	Function
Expiration	Uint64	64	Validity Check
CID	Uint8 array	128	Identification
Kidx	Uint32	32	Key Index
Ktree	Uint8 array	$256 * n$	Derivation Key Tree

Table 5.1.1a: The client key structure.

The expiration parameter is a 64-bit unsigned integer that holds the UTC seconds since the last epoch (01/01/1900) to the time the key remains valid. This value is checked during the initialization of both the client and server, if the key has expired, the connection attempt is halted and an error returned.

The key identity array is a 16-byte array that uniquely identifies a client device key. This identifier can be used to match the key on a branch server. The key identity array, is divided into subsections, identification numbers for the master key, branch key, epoch class, service ID, device key, and key index.

Master ID 2 bytes	Branch ID 2 bytes	Epoch Class 2 bytes	Service ID 2 bytes	Device ID 4 bytes	Key ID 4 bytes

Table 5.1.1b: The device identity structure.

The master root key, is hashed with a branch and master identification array, to derive a branch key. There are 65,535 possible domains, and 65,535 possible branches may be created from a single master key.

The branch key is hashed with the full identity string (root\branch\client\key); the root and branch identities, the client identity, epoch class, service identification, and the key counter, to derive more than four billion possible device keys per client device. The key identification array, the last four bytes of the client identity string, is the key index counter, incremented on the client each time a key is taken from the tree.

The epoch class is incremented whenever you roll a new root, branch, or algorithm suite, and is used for bulk revocation and migration. A server can reject any identity whose Epoch ≠ the current epoch, instantly disabling whole SIM batches after a root-key leak.

The service class selects one of up to 65,535 access profiles (e.g., “VPN”, “IoT-uplink”, “High-priv-admin”), and is used for fine-grained authorization. The same user can present different classes to access different services, all while the rest of the identity string remains unchanged.

### 5.1.2 Branch Key

The server branch key is the upstream key used to generate key-trees on client devices. The server derivation key (Kbr) is hashed along with the client’s identity string and key-tree index number to create a unique set of derived keys for each client.

The branch key is itself a derivation of the branch identity array (a combined 16-bit domain identity string and a unique 16-bit branch identification string) hashed with the root derivation key. Each branch has a unique identification string, which when hashed with the master root key, creates a branch key.

Clients loaded by a branch server inherit the expiration time field, the seconds from epoch that define the time the keys are valid. This branch expiration time is inherited from the master root key.

Parameter	Data Type	Bit Length	Function
Expiration	Uint64	64	Validity check
SID	Uint8 array	32	Identification
SDK	Uint8 array	256	Derivation Key

Table 5.1.2: The server key structure.

### 5.1.3 Root Key

The master root key is identical to the branch keys except for the bit length of the key identification array is a total sixteen bits, whereas the branch identities are combined with the domain root identity string. The root master key structure contains the domains master key, which when hashed along with the root and branch identity strings, produces unique branch keys for every SATP server in the domain.

Parameter	Data Type	Bit Length	Function
Expiration	Uint64	64	Validity check
MID	Uint8 array	16	Identification

MDK	Uint8 array	256	Derivation Key
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Table 5.1.3: The master key structure.

### 5.1.4 Client State

The client state is an internal structure that contains all the variables required by the SATP operations. This includes elements copied from the client key structure at initialization, send and receive channels symmetric cipher states, session cookies, packet counters, and flags.

Data Name	Data Type	Bit Length	Function
Exp	Uint64	64	Key Expiration Time
Kidx	Uint32	32	Key Tree Index
Ktree	Uint8 array	256 * n	The Key Tree
STc	Uint8 array	256	The Server Salt
Hc	Uint8 array	256	Session Hash
Cid	Uint8 array	128	Client Identification
RXseq	Uint64	64	Packet Counter
TXseq	Uint64	64	Packet Counter
Cipher Receive State	Structure	Variable	Symmetric Decryption
Cipher Transmit State	Structure	Variable	Symmetric Encryption
ExFlag	Uint8	8	Protocol Status

Table 5.1.4: The client state structure.

### 5.1.5 Branch State

The branch server state is similar to the client state, it has a server derivation key ( $K_{br}$ ) instead of a key-tree and index, and stores the unique per session hash  $S_p$ .

Data Name	Data Type	Bit Length	Function
Exp	Uint64	64	Key Expiration Time
Kbr	Uint8 array	256	Derivation Key
Hc	Uint8 array	256	Session Hash
STc	Uint8 array	256	The Server Salt
Sp	Uint8 array	256	Session Hash
Dbr	Uint8 array	32	Server Identification
RXseq	Uint64	64	Packet Counter
TXseq	Uint64	64	Packet Counter

Cipher Receive State	Structure	Variable	Symmetric Decryption
Cipher Transmit State	Structure	Variable	Symmetric Encryption
ExFlag	Uint8	8	Protocol Status

Table 5.1.5: The branch state structure.

### 5.1.6 Root State

The root contains the master domain key ( $K_{root}$ ), the expiration time that applies for all derived keys ( $exp$ ), and the root identification string.

Data Name	Data Type	Bit Length	Function
Exp	Uint64	64	Key Expiration Time
Kroot	Uint8 array	256	Derivation Key
Ddom	Uint8 array	16	Root Identification

Table 5.1.6: The root state structure.

### 5.1.7 Keep Alive State

Parameter	Data Type	Bit Length	Function
Ktime	Uint64	64	Expiration Time
Pseq	Uint64	64	Packet Sequence
Rstat	Bool	8	Received Status

Table 5.1.7: The keep alive state.

### 5.1.8 SATP Packet Header

The SATP packet header is 21 bytes in length, and contains:

1. The **Packet Flag**, the type of message contained in the packet; this can be any one of the key-exchange stage flags, a message, or an error flag.
2. The **Packet Sequence**, this indicates the sequence number of the packet exchange.
3. The **Packet Creation** time, a UTC timestamp of seconds from the epoch.
4. The **Message Size**, this is the size in bytes of the message payload.

The message is a variable sized array, up to SATP\_MESSAGE\_MAX in size.

Packet Flag	Packet Sequence	Packet Creation	Message Size

1 byte	8 bytes	8 bytes	4 bytes
<b>Message</b>			
<b>Variable Size</b>			

Table 5.1.8: The SATP packet structure.

This packet structure is used for both the key exchange protocol, and the encrypted tunnel.

### 5.1.9 Flag Types

The following are a preliminary list of packet flag enumeration types used by SATP:

Flag Name	Hex Value	Flag Purpose
None	0x00	No flag was specified, the default value.
Connect Request	0x01	The key-exchange client connection request flag.
Connect Response	0x02	The key-exchange server connection response flag.
Connection Terminated	0x03	The connection is to be terminated.
Encrypted Message	0x04	The message has been encrypted by the tunnel.
Authentication Request	0x05	The key-exchange client authentication request.
Authentication Response	0x06	The key-exchange server authentication response flag.
Authentication Verify	0x08	The packet contains an establish verify flag.
Keep Alive Request	0x09	The packet contains a keep alive request.
Session Established	0x0A	The tunnel is in the established state.
Error Condition	0xFF	The connection experienced an error.

Table 5.1.9: Packet header flag types.

### 5.1.10 Error Types

The following are a preliminary list of error messages used by SATP:

Error Name	Hex Value	Description
None	0x00	No error condition was detected.
Authentication Failure	0x0B	The symmetric cipher had an authentication failure.

KEX Failure	0x0C	The KEX authentication has failed.
Bad Keep Alive	0x0D	The keep alive check failed.
Channel Down	0x0E	The communications channel has failed.
Connection Failure	0x0F	The device could not make a connection to the remote host.
Invalid Input	0x10	The expected input was invalid.
Keep Alive Expired	0x11	The keep alive has expired with no response.
Key Expired	0x12	The SATP public key has expired.
Device Unrecognized	0x13	The device identity is unrecognized.
Packet Un-Sequenced	0x14	The packet was received out of sequence.
Random Failure	0x15	The random generator has failed.
Receive Failure	0x16	The receiver failed at the network layer.
Transmit Failure	0x17	The transmitter failed at the network layer.
Verify Failure	0x18	The expected data could not be verified.
Unknown Protocol	0x19	The protocol string was not recognized.
General Failure	0xFF	The connection experienced an internal error

Table 5.1.10: Error type messages.

## 5.2 Operational Overview

In SATP's multi-tiered hierarchical topology, a master root key ( $K_{root}$ ) is generated first, serving as the foundational key. This master root key is combined cryptographically with domain and branch identifiers to derive individual branch-specific keys ( $K_{br}$ ). Each branch key is securely distributed to corresponding servers within the network infrastructure.

The servers subsequently generate symmetric key batches ('trees') for client devices associated with each branch. These keys are securely provisioned onto devices such as secure SIM cards, USB tokens, or embedded secure memory storage devices. Depending on the use-case and deployment scenario, the method for provisioning these keys can vary, for instance, pre-loaded keys might be embedded securely onto financial access cards, hardware tokens, or client devices directly, or provisioned through encrypted channels providing equivalent security assurances. Each individual key within the SATP framework is associated with a unique identity string and is consumed exactly once. Upon use, the client immediately erases the corresponding key material from local storage, ensuring forward secrecy by design.

The expiration or renewal cycle for keys depends strongly upon the target application. For example, financial applications might tolerate relatively infrequent key rotations, whereas high-security communications scenarios may require shorter renewal intervals, possibly daily or weekly, to ensure maximal security.

It is recommended that branch-level keys ( $K_{br}$ ) and individual client keys ( $K_{c,i}$ ) be periodically refreshed. This key rotation process ensures ongoing resilience against scenarios where either

branch-level secrets or client-held key material is compromised. Entropy can be introduced periodically using a strong, post-quantum secure encrypted tunnel protocol such as QSTP, to inject fresh randomness into branch or device keys. By mixing new entropy with the existing embedded keys, the protocol could periodically generate refreshed base keys that are fully independent from prior key material. These refreshed keys can be distinguished by an epoch identifier ( $E_{pc}$ ) embedded within each key identity string, marking each new key revision clearly.

Any protocol error encountered during session establishment, key exchange, or normal tunnel communications triggers immediate session termination. Either the client or server will send an explicit error notifications to their peer, disconnect gracefully, and securely erase ephemeral session state. Protocol errors include but are not limited to message synchronization mismatches, unexpected message sizes during exchanges, authentication or verification failures, and cryptographic or networking function errors.

SATP incorporates a robust anti-replay mechanism into both key establishment and the established encrypted tunnel. Each packet transmitted contains a dedicated 64-bit timestamp field ( $utctime$ ), set to the current UTC time in seconds since the epoch. This timestamp is explicitly verified by the recipient to ensure that packets arrive within a defined validity window, typically 60 seconds. This timestamp along with a packet sequence number is used during the session handshake and throughout the tunnel's lifetime.

During initial key establishment and handshake, the serialized packet header (including the timestamp and packet sequence number) is included explicitly in message authentication (KMAC) computations. Upon establishment of the encrypted tunnel, every subsequent packet received undergoes timestamp and sequence number verification. Additionally, the serialized packet header (including the timestamp and sequence counters) is added to the additional authenticated data (AAD) of the cipher MAC function for each encrypted message. This ensures that each packet header remains unaltered and that replay or packet manipulation attacks are reliably prevented.

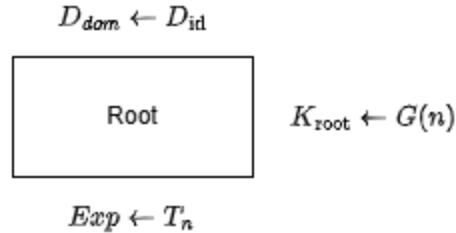
### 5.2.1 Root Initialization

A root server can be implemented in a large distributed network. The root server is optional though; a branch server can be implemented as a standalone server, in which case the domain string (representing the 16-bit root domain identifier) can be merged with the branch identifier creating a single 32-bit server identity string.

The domain identity describes the unique domain that the network resides in, and is the root of the server network identification.

The root server stores the domains master derivation key  $K_{root}$ . This key is used as the root of the key derivation tree, when hashed with the unique domain and branch identity strings, and when those unique branch keys are hashed with the client and key identity strings to create the client hash tree.

The expiration field is a 64-bit unsigned integer value representing the seconds from the epoch (01/01/1900) that the root key expires.



The 16-bit Root domain identity  $D_{id}$  is created, the key expiration time  $Exp$  is set, and a master domain key  $K_{root}$  is generated.

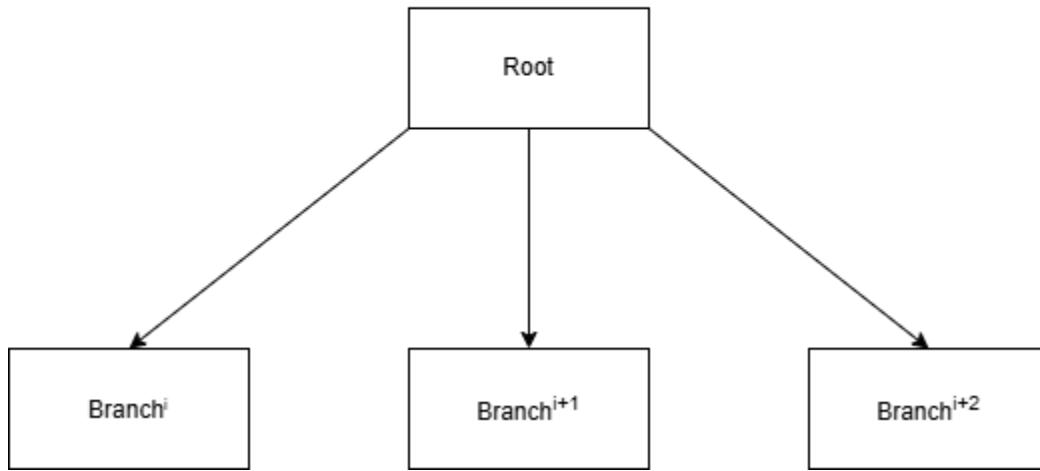
The expiration time is set, the master derivation key is generated using a random provider, and the domain bits are set, to create the root domain key structure.

### 5.2.2 Branch Initialization

The branch server is initialized by hashing the unique 16-bit branch identification string and the 16-bit domain string with the root derivation key. The branches do not know the root key  $K_{root}$  and are assigned this key value by the domain root. The expiration time is copied from the domain root key structure, along with the domain identification string, a unique branch identification string is appended to the domain string to form the entire root\branch identity. The root is used to generate the branch key structures, which are loaded onto branch servers in the domain.

The Root server generates each branch key by hashing the Root master key  $K_{root}$  with the branches unique identity string to produce the branch key..

$$Br_{k(i)} \leftarrow SHAKE256(K_{root} \parallel D_{br(i)})$$



Once the branch servers have had their key structures initialized, they can be used to assign client identities and create client key trees.

### 5.2.3 Client Initialization

The branch server assigns each client a unique 32-bit client identification string, this is appended to the domain and branch server string, to form the entire ***root\branch\client*** identity.

The branch transfers the 64-bit expiration time to the client, inherited from the domain root server.

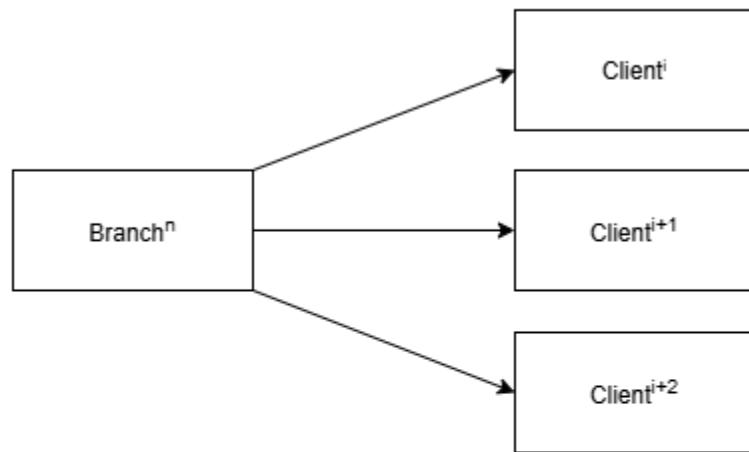
The branch hashes the branch key along with the full client identity string and an incrementing monotonic counter that represents the index number of each key created for the client's key-tree. The key-tree; the set of ephemeral keys assigned to the client, reveals no knowledge of the branch key to the client, and can be of any count up to the SATP\_KEY\_TREE\_MAXIMUM value, or the maximum size of an unsigned 32-bit integer 4,294,967,295.

The client stores a current key index, an unsigned 32-bit value  $K_{idx}$  that is incremented each time a key is used by the client. The key index is initially set to zero, matching the starting index of the key array (and used as a 32 byte multiplier, dividing the larger array into 256-bit key-sized 'chunks').

Each time a key is consumed by the client, the key is erased and the counter is incremented, and the new index is sent in the next connection request to the branch server.

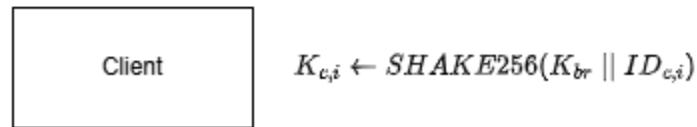
The client also has the branch server's long-term server secret  $ST_c$  embedded in its state, this secret is never sent across the network, but is used to verify the server to the client during the connection response stage of the tunnel formation.

The branch server generates the client ID, assigns the epoch and service class, sets the expiration time, and generates the client key tree for each client.



The branch generating the key tree by hashing the client identity string with the monotonic key counter for each key in the tree.

$$ID_{c,i} \leftarrow \{D_{dom}, D_{br}, epoch, Sc, C_{id}\}$$



$$Exp \leftarrow Br_{exp}$$

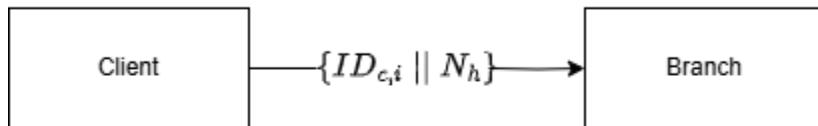
Once the expiration time is set, the client identity is assigned and the key-tree has been generated by the branch server, the client is ready to connect to a branch server.

### 5.2.4 Client Connect Request

The client generates a per session random nonce value  $N_h$ . The nonce along with the client's key identity; the full ***root\branch\client\key*** identity string, is sent to the branch server in a connection request.

The client then hashes the selected tree-key and the nonce to create the set of symmetric cipher session keys and nonces. The transmit and receive channel symmetric cipher instances are initialized with these keys, raising the tunnel interfaces on the client.

The client generates a new session nonce:  $N_h \leftarrow G(n)$   
The client sends the server its identity string  $ID_{c,i}$  and a random nonce  $N_h$ .



The client selects the next available key from the key tree:  
 $K_{c,i} \leftarrow K_{tree}\{K_{c,i}\}$

The client hashes the nonce and key to create the session keys:  
 $Rk, Rn, Tk, Tn \leftarrow SHAKE256(K_{c,i} || N_h)$

The client keys the session receive and transmit ciphers  
 $cpr_{rx}(Rk, Rn), cpr_{tx}(Tk, Tn)$

The client stores a hash of the nonce, the base key and the servers secret:  
 $H_c \leftarrow SHAKE256(N_h || K_{c,i} || ST_c)$

The client stores a hash of the session nonce  $N_h$ , the base key  $K_{c,i}$ , and the server's secret  $ST_c$  in a temporary hash  $H_c$ , used to verify the server during the tunnel establishment phase.

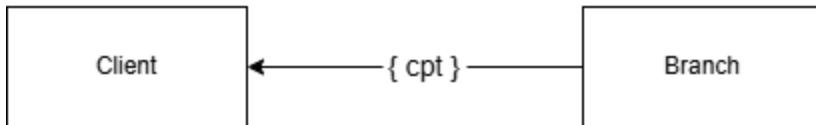
### 5.2.5 Server Connect Response

The server uses the ***root\branch\client\key*** identity string to derive the client's selected tree-key, by hashing the branch derivation key with the client's identity string. The server hashes the selected tree key  $K_{c,i}$  and the session nonce  $N_h$  to generate the transmit and receive symmetric cipher keys and nonces. The server keys the cipher instances, raising the transmit and receive tunnel interfaces.

The server derives the client key by hashing the branch key and the client key id:  
 $K_{c,i} \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(K_{br} || ID_{c,i})$

The server hashes the nonce and key to create the session keys:  
 $Rk, Rn, Tk, Tn \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(K_{c,i} || N_h)$

The server keys the session receive and transmit ciphers  
 $cpr_{rx}(Rk, Rn), cpr_{tx}(Tk, Tn)$



The server calculates the session hash of the nonce, the base key and the servers secret:  
 $H_c \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(N_h || K_{c,i} || ST_c)$

The server encrypts and MACs the hash and sends it to the client:  
 $cpt \leftarrow E_k(H_c, Ts || Seq)$

The branch server hashes the session nonce  $N_h$ , the base key  $K_{c,i}$ , and the server's secret  $ST_c$  to the temporary session hash  $H_c$ . The server encrypts and MACs the session hash with the transmit tunnel interface and sends the connection response to the client.

## 5.2.6 Tunnel Establishment

The client decrypts the connection response sent from the server and compares the message with the session hash  $H_c$  it stored during the connection response phase. If the two are equal, the tunnel interfaces have been raised successfully. If the hashes are not equal, the client sends the server an authentication failed error message, then terminates the connection and erases the session state.

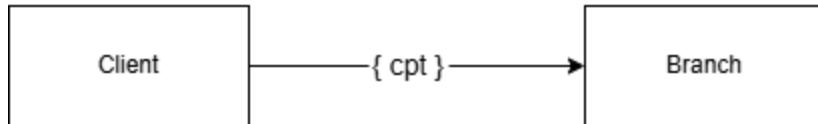
Once the tunnel has been raised successfully, the client begins the keepalive timer; this sends periodic keepalives to the server, which echoes back these keepalives to ensure the connection is active. After missing three keepalives the connection is torn down and the session state is zeroed.

## 5.2.7 Client Authentication Request

The client is prompted for a passphrase that is initially generated by the server and distributed to the client over a secure channel, such as during client registration. This passphrase is hashed to the temporary  $H_p$ . The passphrase hash is encrypted and MAC'd and sent to the server over the transmit channel tunnel interface.

The client is prompted for a password which is hashed:  
 $H_p \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(\text{pass})$

The client encrypts the hash and adds the sequence number and timestamp to the data AEAD and sends it to the sever:  
 $\text{cpt} \leftarrow E_k(H_p, Ts \parallel Seq)$



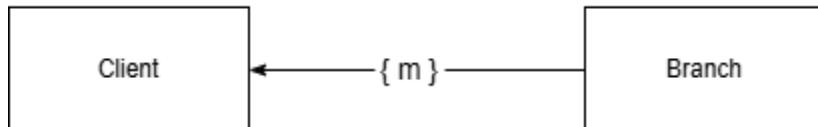
### 5.2.8 Server Authentication Response

The server has a stored copy of the client's passphrase hash, that has been hashed with the cost-based KDF SCB. This stored value requires significant memory and CPU usage to reproduce, preventing attacks such as rainbow tables, dictionary, and brute force being applied to the stored passphrase hash. The server runs SCB on the passphrase hash, and compares the result with the stored hash. If the values match, the server sends the client *authentication success* message, if the hash comparison fails, the server sends the client an *authentication failed* message, tears down the connection and zeroes the session state.

The server decrypts the authentication token:  $U_n, H_p \leftarrow -E_k(\text{cpt})$

The server has an SCB hash of the clients passphrase stored, hashes the passphrase hash and compares it to the stored value:  
 $stm \leftarrow \text{SCB}(H_p)$

The server verifies the password hash, and sends the pass/fail authentication response back to the client.



### 5.2.9 Client Authentication Verification

Upon receiving an *authentication success* message from the server, the internal session state flag is set to *session established*, and the tunnel is now in the authenticated state and can access server resources. If the server has sent an *authentication failure* message, the connection is closed and the session state is zeroed.

## 6. Mathematical Description

### Mathematical Symbols

$\leftarrow \leftrightarrow \rightarrow$	-Assignment and direction symbols
$:=, !=, ?=$	-Equality operators; assign, not equals, evaluate
C	-The client host, initiates the exchange
S	-The server host, listens for a connection
Ad	-The AEAD additional data
cfgs	-The protocol configuration string
$C_{ki}$	-The current client key index number
$cpr_{rx}$	-The receive channel cipher
$cpr_{tx}$	- The transmit channel cipher
cpt	- The output ciphertext
$D_{br}$	-The branch directory identity string
$D_{dom}$	-The domain directory identity string
$D_{id}$	-The device identity string
$Ep_c$	-The epoch class string
$H_c$	-The hash of the base key, nonce, and the server secret
$H_p$	-The passphrase hash
$ID_{c,i}$	-The client and key identity string
$E_k, -E_k$	-Symmetric encryption and decryption
$K_{c,i}$	-The secret client key at index $i$
$K_{tree}$	-The user's tree of symmetric keys
$K_{root}$	-The master root key
$N_h$	-The per session nonce
$R_k$	-The receive channel session key
$R_n$	-The receive channel nonce

SCB	-SHAKE Cost Based KDF
$S_{id}$	- The service identity string
$S_p$	-The passphrase token hash
$ST_c$	-The long-term server secret
$T_k$	- The transmit channel session key
$T_n$	-The transmit channel nonce
$t$	-The tag length
$T_{auth}$	-A hash of the base session key, the server salt and shared secret
$U_n$	-The user name
$U_t$	-The user token

## 6.1 Domain Initialization

Network initialization begins by generating a master secret  $K_{root}$ , and a 16-bit domain identity string  $D_{dom}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} K_{root} &\leftarrow G(n) \\ D_{dom} &\leftarrow (D_{id}) \end{aligned}$$

## 6.2 Branch Initialization

Using the master domain key, the branch keys are created by hashing the master domain key and the 16-bit branch domain identity string and 16-bit branch identity string.  
Every branch-master key is created by:

$$K_{br} \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(K_{root}, D_{dom}, D_{br}).$$

Every branch server retains a common branch-server secret, installed on every client and used to authenticate the server to the client in the first encrypted message that tests the tunnel. This branch secret is transferred to every client the server creates.

$$ST_c \leftarrow G(n)$$

## 6.3 Device Initialization

The user's identity string consists of the domain identity ( $D_{dom}$ ), the branch identity ( $D_{br}$ ), the Epoch Class( $Epc$ ), Service identity ( $S_{id}$ ), the user identity ( $U_{id}$ ) and Key identity ID( $c,i$ ).  
The server generates key batches by hashing the identity string, and a monotonic counter.

For every key index  $i$  ( $i, i^+, \dots, n$ ) the manufacturer pre-computes:

$$K_{c,i} \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(K_{br}, ID_{c,i})$$

and stores  $\langle ID_{c,i}, K_{c,i} \rangle$  on the storage device. The key identity is a monotonic counter starting at zero, that serves as the key array index. The current index is stored on the device as a 32-bit unsigned integer, and is incremented each time a key is extracted.

The client stores the long-term server secret token  $ST_c$ , used to validate the server during the authentication phase.

When the user first joins the network, through a separate registration process, they are asked to provide a passphrase. The client hashes this passphrase, and sends the hash to the server over a secure channel. This passphrase hash-token is hashed by the server using the cost-based KDF (SCB), and the resulting hash string is associated with the user as a network login credential, and along with the client's user-name is stored by the server.

$$\begin{aligned} H_p &\leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(pass) \\ cpt &\leftarrow E_k(U_n \parallel H_p, Ts \parallel Seq) \\ C\{ cpt \} &\rightarrow S \end{aligned}$$

The server decrypts the username and passphrase hash token, uses SCB to generate the hash token, and adds the username and token to a user profile token stored on the server.

$$\begin{aligned} U_n, H_p &\leftarrow -E_k(cpt, Ts \parallel Seq) \\ S_p &\leftarrow \text{SCB}(\lambda, H_p) \\ U_t &\leftarrow \{ U_n, S_p \} \end{aligned}$$

## 6.4 Connection Request

The client selects a fresh key from the key-tree ( $K_{tree}$ ) at the corresponding current index number ( $C_{ki}$ ). The counter is incremented as soon as a key is read, and the value is stored on the client memory device.

$$K_{c,i} \leftarrow K_{tree}\{ K_{idx} \}$$

The user generates a session nonce ( $N_h$ ), combines this with the protocol configuration string, and the base key, and derives the receive and transmit channel session keys and nonces, and increments the internal key index.

$$\begin{aligned} N_h &\leftarrow G(n) \\ R_k, R_n, S_k, S_n &\leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(K_{c,i}, cfgs, N_h) \\ K_{idx} &= K_{idx} + 1 \end{aligned}$$

The client sends the server its identity string including the current key index and the random nonce.

$$C\{ ID_{(c,i)}, N_h \} \rightarrow S$$

Once a key is pulled from the key pool and used to key the set of receive and transmit cipher instances, the key is permanently erased from the key pool (whether the connection succeeds or not).

The client initializes the transmit and receive cipher instances and waits for a response from the server.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cpr}_{\text{rx}}(R_k, R_n) \\ \text{cpr}_{\text{tx}}(T_k, T_n) \end{aligned}$$

The client hashes the session nonce ( $N_h$ ), the session base key ( $K_{c,i}$ ), and the server's long-term secret ( $ST_c$ ) and stores the hash.

$$H_c \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(N_h, K_{c,i}, ST_c)$$

## 6.5 Connection Response

The server uses the client's key identity string to regenerate the selected tree-key:

$$K_{c,i} \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(K_{br}, ID_{(c,i)})$$

The server creates the transmit and receive cipher keys and nonces by hashing the session nonce, the protocol configuration string, and the user key.

$$R_k, R_n, S_k, S_n \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(K_{c,i}, cfgs, N_h)$$

The server creates the session validation hash by hashing the session nonce ( $N_h$ ), the session base key ( $K_{c,i}$ ), and the server's long-term secret ( $ST_c$ ).

$$H_c \leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(N_h, K_{c,i}, ST_c)$$

The server keys the transmit and receive cipher instances:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{cpr}_{\text{rx}}(R_k, R_n) \\ \text{cpr}_{\text{tx}}(T_k, T_n) \end{aligned}$$

The server encrypts and MACs the session validation hash, adding the packet timestamp and sequence number to the AEAD data, and sends it to the client:

$$\begin{aligned} cpt \leftarrow E_k(H_c, Ts \parallel Seq) \\ S\{ cpt \} \rightarrow C \end{aligned}$$

## 6.6 Tunnel Establishment

The client adds the packet sequence and timestamp to the AEAD data, and verifies and decrypts the session authentication hash:

$$h \leftarrow -E_k(cpt, Ts \parallel Seq)$$

The client compares the hash to the message, and if the hash values are equivalent, the tunnel has been raised successfully.

$$\text{Verify}(h, H_c) \rightarrow \{ \text{true}, \text{false} \}$$

## 6.7 User Authentication

Once the tunnel has been established, the client is prompted for the passphrase. The passphrase is hashed and sent to the server over the encrypted tunnel, with the packet sequence counter and timestamp added as AEAD data. The client waits for the server's authentication response.

$$\begin{aligned} H_p &\leftarrow \text{SHAKE256}(pass) \\ cpt &\leftarrow E_k(D_{id} \parallel H_p, Ts \parallel Seq) \\ C\{ cpt \} &\rightarrow S \end{aligned}$$

## 6.8 Authentication Response

The server verifies the message hash and decrypts the user authentication token. The device identity string is sent along with the passphrase hash, and is used by the server to lookup the SCB hashed credential on the servers database. The server uses a cost-based KDF (SCB) to hash the token, and compare it to a hash corresponding to that user device id and stored when the client initially registered on the network.

$$U_n, H_p \leftarrow -E_k(cpt, Ts \parallel Seq)$$

The server fetches the user token containing the hashed passphrase token, for comparison with the passphrase token sent by the client.

$$U_t \leftarrow \{ U_n, S_p \}$$

The server runs the cost-based KDF function on the passphrase hash token and compares it to the one stored in the users profile token.

$$\begin{aligned} S_{tmp} &\leftarrow \text{SCB}(\lambda, H_p) \\ \text{Verify}(S_{tmp}, S_p) &\rightarrow \{ \text{true}, \text{false} \} \end{aligned}$$

If the token is a match for the stored value, the server sends an *authentication success* response, if the challenge fails, the server sends an *authentication failure* message, closes the connection and erases the session state. The server encrypts the server identity string and sends it to the client.

$$\begin{aligned} cpt &\leftarrow E_k(S_{id}, Ts \parallel Seq) \\ S\{ cpt \} &\rightarrow C \end{aligned}$$

## 6.9 Authentication Verify

The client receives the response from the server, if the response contains the encrypted server identity string the state is *authentication success*, the client has established an encrypted tunnel with the server successfully. If the message is *authentication failure*, the client tears down its side of the tunnel and erases the session state.

$$S_{id} \leftarrow -E_k(cpt, Ts \parallel Seq)$$

## 7. Security Analysis

**Scope of this section:** We analyze SATP at three concentric layers:

1. **Primitive layer** (RCS cipher, SHAKE/cSHAKE, KMAC, SCB-KDF)
2. **Protocol layer** (key hierarchy, handshake, tunnel, replay controls)
3. **System layer** (deployment, compromise & recovery, side-channels)

All cost metrics assume the best public attacks as of *July 2025* and a quantum adversary limited to Grover-style square-root searches (no full hidden-shift for large-round Keccak).

### 7.1 Adversary Model

Capability	Assumed?	Notes
<b>Full packet capture &amp; injection</b>	Yes	Standard IND-CCA setting; adversary observes and modifies traffic.
<b>Compromise of <i>one</i> branch server (Kbr)</b>	Yes	Models supply-chain or local intrusion.
<b>Compromise of <i>one</i> client device</b>	Yes	Attacker recovers a single unused Kc,i.
<b>Quantum computer (Grover)</b>	Yes	
<b>Large-scale hidden-shift over Keccak</b>	No current feasibility	24-round permutation exceeds known breakpoints
<b>Side-channel (timing/power)</b>	Bounded	Constant-time references; leakage-free RNG assumed.

Security goals: **QIND-CCA confidentiality, INT-CTXT authenticity, mutual entity authentication, forward secrecy, replay immunity, graceful recovery after partial compromise.**

### 7.2 Primitive Strength

Primitive	Parameter	Classical Security	Quantum Security	Commentary
<b>RCS-256 (wide-block Rijndael + 22 rnd)</b>	256-bit key, 256-bit block	Best structural attack $\geq 2^{254}$ ops; no distinguisher on full rounds	Grover $\Rightarrow 2^{128}$ ops	Wide-block doubles birthday bound; cSHAKE schedule defeats related-key rectangles.

<b>KMAC-256</b>	256-bit capacity	IND-CPA / SUF-CMA bound $2^{-128}$	Collapsing $\Rightarrow$ post-quantum INT-CTXT	Immune to Simon attacks that break GHASH/Poly1305.
<b>SCB-KDF</b>	$\text{cpucost} \geq 10$ , $\text{memcost} \geq 4 \text{ MiB}$	$\geq 2^{20}$ cost-factor vs GPU/FPGA	Quantum parallelism limited by memory IO; $2\times$ slow-down only	Cache-thrashing enforces $\approx 100\%$ L2 misses (256 KiB stride).
<b>SHAKE-256 / cSHAKE-256</b>	256-bit capacity	Pre-image $\geq 2^{256}$	Grover $\geq 2^{128}$	Sponge with full-capacity security.

All claimed security margins exceed **NIST category-V** ( $\geq 128$ -bit post-quantum level).

### 7.3 Confidentiality

1. **Session-level secrecy** – Ephemeral keys ( $R_k, S_k$ ) are derived via one-way  $\text{SHAKE256}(K_{c,i} \parallel N_h)$ . Breaking confidentiality reduces to either:
  - Recover  $K_{c,i}$  (pre-image  $2^{256} \rightarrow 2^{128}$  under Grover) **or**
  - Collide SHAKE256 outputs (birthday  $2^{128}$ ) **or**
  - Break RCS-256 under known-key ( $\geq 2^{254}$ ).
2. **Past-session protection** –  $K_{c,i}$  is erased after first use; compromise of future keys gives no oracle on past traffic.
3. **Branch compromise containment** – Exposure of  $K_{br}$  allows derivation of *future*  $K_{c,i}$  under the branch but cannot decrypt any session that already consumed and erased its key.

### 7.4 Integrity & Authentication

- **Packet integrity** – Encrypt-then-KMAC yields INT-CTXT with forging probability  $\leq 2^{-128}$  per packet.
- **Server authentication** – Client verifies  $H_c = \text{SHAKE256}(N_h \parallel K_{c,i} \parallel S_{Tc})$ . Only a server holding  $S_{Tc}$  and regenerating the correct  $K_{c,i}$  can produce valid cipher-text.
- **Client authentication** – Password hash  $H_p$  is hardened by SCB ( $\geq 2^{20}$  CPU-MiB cost). Offline dictionary is throttled  $> 10^6 \times$  compared to bare SHA256.

### 7.5 Forward Secrecy

Secret Leaked	Affects	Unaffected
<b>Single <math>K_{c,i}</math></b>	That session only	All previous & future sessions (key erased)

<b>Branch Kbr</b>	Future sessions of that branch	All sessions that consumed keys before disclosure
<b>Kroot</b>	Entire domain future	Past sessions survive if all $K_{c,i}$ already consumed

Proactive epoch-roll allows domain-wide revocation < 1 s per 1 M devices (256-bit cSHAKE per device).

## 7.6 Replay, Re-ordering & DoS

- 64-bit UTC timestamp + 64-bit sequence is authenticated as AAD → replay beyond  $\Delta t$  (default 60 s) is rejected.
- Windowed sequence tracking (32-packet sliding window) prevents re-ordering attacks while tolerating moderate jitter.
- Post-queue resource use: a forged packet is discarded after MAC check  $\Rightarrow O(1)$  CPU; mitigates amplification DoS.

## 7.7 Side-Channel & Fault Resistance

- **Constant-time** RCS reference avoids S-box tables; AES-NI path is data-independent.
- **SCB** scattering obscures memory-access patterns, diminishing cache-timing leakage on passphrase derivation.
- **Fault detection** – RCS final-row checksum ( $\text{prob} \geq 1 - 2^{-15}$ ) aborts on single-byte glitches; higher-order countermeasures possible via redundant MAC.

## 7.8 Compositional Security Proof Sketch

1. **Primitives:** Assume RCS is a QIND-CPA PRP; KMAC is QSUF-CMA.
2. **Tunnel:** Encrypt-then-MAC (Bellare–Namprempre)  $\Rightarrow$  IND-CCA & INT-CTXT.
3. **Handshake:** Nonce-based implicit key authentication (IK-A) model; both sides prove possession of STc and correct Kbr lineage.
4. **Overall:** Combining 1–3 under Hoang–Sharma DAG composition shows SATP achieves QIND-CCA and QINT-CTXT for the full duplex channel, up to  $2^{63}$  packets per epoch.

## 7.9 Residual Risks & Mitigations

Risk	Mitigation
<b>Nonce reuse (client power loss before <math>\text{Kidx}++</math> write)</b>	Atomic write or monotonic counter in secure element; server rejects duplicate $ID_{c,i}$ .
<b>Weak RNG for Nh</b>	Feed hardware TRNG; fallback to DRBG reseeded per 32 KiB.

<b>Physical extraction of STc</b>	Store STc in tamper-resistant SE; treat leak as branch-level compromise and rotate epoch.
<b>Side-channel on SCB</b>	Mask scatter indices; use temperature-stabilized DRAM to blur power patterns.

## 7.10 Comparison with Competing Post-Quantum Schemes

Scheme	Crypto Type	HW cost (server)	PQ level	FS	Replay	Notes
<b>SATP</b>	Symmetric-only	SHA-3 + RCS (~5 KB code)	Cat-V	✓	✓	Fixed 16-byte ID, no PKI
<b>NIST Kyber + TLS 1.3</b>	PQ KEM + AEAD	≈200 KB code + certs	Cat-I / III	✓	✓	Heavy handshake; cert ops
<b>HPKE (FrodoKEM)</b>	PQ KEM + symmetric	>500 KB code	Cat-V	✓	✓	10× slower, 4 KB messages
<b>MatrixVPN (LWE)</b>	LWE KEX + AES-GCM	256 KB code	Cat-III	✓	Partial	GHASH 64-bit Q tag

SATP attains comparable or higher quantum security with ~10× smaller code footprint and no reliance on CA infrastructure.

## 8. Real-World Use-Case Scenarios

SATP's symmetric-only, post-quantum design supports a wide array of deployment models that benefit from low handshake latency, minimal server state, and deterministic provisioning costs.

### 8.1 FinTech: Instant Low-Value Payments

**Context.** Contactless and mobile payments under \$20 are latency-sensitive and often processed offline (transit, vending, pop-up retail).

- SATP smart-cards embed thousands of single-use indices; terminals approve locally using a single SHAKE hash.
- Back-end settlement reconciles spent indices nightly, rotating the branch epoch to revoke lost or stolen cards.
- **Benefit:** 10× faster tap-to-authorize, eliminating per-transaction certificate checks and CA renewals.

### 8.2 Enterprise Network Login & Zero-Trust Segmentation

**Context.** Modern zero-trust architectures require mutual authentication for every internal service call, stressing PKI infrastructure.

- Workstations and servers store SATP identity strings in firmware TPM or secure elements.
- Authentication during TLS handshake is replaced by SATP header verification (<0.5 ms), cutting re-auth time for micro-services.
- **Benefit:** 65 % certificate-management cost reduction and faster east-west service calls.

### 8.3 IoT & Edge Devices (Smart Grid / Sensors)

**Context.** Millions of constrained devices need long-term security yet cannot afford PQ public-key overhead.

- Each meter receives a key-tree at manufacture; a substation holds its branch key only.
- Outage-proof: devices authenticate even if the WAN link to the CA is offline.
- **Benefit:** 4× battery-life extension versus ECC handshakes; branch compromise bounded to its key space.

### 8.4 Critical Infrastructure & SCADA

**Context.** PLCs and RTUs in power and water systems operate for decades with scarce firmware head-room.

- SATP adds <32 kB code and runs entirely in constant time; no RSA/ECC libraries required.

- Operators rotate epochs by swapping a USB token during maintenance, re-keying an entire plant in minutes.
- **Benefit:** Standards-compliant quantum security without disrupting legacy field-bus latency budgets.

## 8.5 Secure Remote & Rural Banking (Offline Cash)

**Context.** Rural agents dispense cash where connectivity is intermittent.

- SATP cards preload daily withdrawal quota; agents verify offline and sync indices when online.
- **Benefit:** Eliminates desktop PKI hardware; lowers cash-out fraud window to the unspent index range.

## 8.6 Healthcare Devices & Body-Area Networks

**Context.** Pacemakers and insulin pumps need authenticated telemetry with minimal power draw.

- Tokens provision ~1 000 SATP indices; a doctor's reader validates in <1 ms with zero public-key handshake.
- **Benefit:** Device battery extended by months; HIPAA compliance via tamper-evident audit trail in SATP headers.

## 8.7 Post-Disaster Mesh & Humanitarian Relief

**Context.** In disaster zones, infrastructure-less radios must exchange situational data securely.

- 16-byte SATP IDs fit inside LoRa frames; timestamp windowing rejects replay even when clocks drift.
- **Benefit:** Entire enclave remains secure for weeks with no external CA or internet.

## 8.8 Satellite & Space Communications

**Context.** Small satellites require deterministic crypto budgets and long operational life.

- Each CubeSat carries 32 k indices (128 KB) — enough for a decade of daily telemetry keys.
- Ground stations roll branch keys at launch, never needing certificate uplinks.
- **Benefit:** Predictable CPU cycles, radiation-hardened symmetric code only.

## 8.9 Manufacturing & OT Network Segments

**Context.** Factory robots and AGVs authenticate controller commands on millisecond schedules.

- SATP timestamps and sequence numbers are MAC'd as AAD, stopping replay without PLC time-sync.
- **Benefit:** 30 % throughput gain compared with TLS-based overlays, while keeping PQ safety margins.

## 8.10 Media & DRM Micropayments

**Context.** Streaming services monetize per-view content; traditional DRM adds heavy overhead.

- Each SATP index equals one content license; the player hashes and burns an index to unlock playback.
- **Benefit:** Sub-millisecond validation, fixed operational cost, privacy via rotating identity strings.

## Conclusion

SATP confirms that a symmetric-first, hash-driven security stack can meet—or exceed—the assurances offered by modern public-key protocols while remaining hardware-agnostic and quantum-ready. Key take-aways:

1. **Post-Quantum Strength by Default:** RCS-256, SHAKE-256, KMAC-256, and SCB-KDF jointly deliver  $\geq 128$ -bit quantum security without speculative lattice or code-based primitives.
2. **Minimal Server Burden:** A branch server stores one 256-bit key and a 64-bit epoch; no certificate chains, revocation lists, or key-exchange transcripts. This lowers both operational cost and attack surface.
3. **Deterministic Forward Secrecy:** Every session consumes a one-time key that is irreversibly erased. A breach leaks, at worst, the traffic protected by that single key.
4. **Replay-Proof Transport:** Timestamp + sequence fields, MAC'd as AAD, thwart replay and message splicing, even on high-latency or intermittently connected links.
5. **Deployment Flexibility:** One 16-byte identity accommodates  $2^{64}$  branches,  $2^{32}$  keys per device, and fine-grained epoch/service classes, allowing SATP to scale from embedded sensors to national ID systems.

## Strategic Outlook (2025-2030)

- **FinTech:** Expect pilot roll-outs in micro-payment and offline cash sectors within 18 months, driven by dramatic cuts in tap latency and CA overhead.
- **Critical Infrastructure:** Utilities are poised to retrofit SATP during scheduled firmware updates, replacing ageing RSA stacks with  $< 32$  kB symmetric code.
- **IoT & Edge:** Vendors of smart-grid meters and healthcare wearables plan to embed SATP key-trees at manufacture, eliminating field PKI provisioning.
- **RegTech & Audit:** Financial institutions foresee SATP tunnels as tamper-evident log channels, slashing PKI certificate lifecycle costs.

## Research & Development Roadmap

1. **Hybrid KEM Extension:** Integrate a lightweight, optional post-quantum KEM (e.g., Kyber-512) to enhance perfect forward secrecy in high-assurance deployments.
2. **Automated Epoch Services:** Define a standard RESTful endpoint for secure epoch-bump broadcasting and mass revocation.
3. **Formal Verification:** Complete mechanized proofs in Tamarin or ProVerif to confirm QIND-CCA and QINT-CTXT properties under quantum adversaries.
4. **Side-Channel Hardening Kit:** Publish reference masking and fault-detection wrappers for RCS and SCB to ease certification (FIPS 140-4, Common Criteria).

SATP thus emerges as a **practical, future-proof backbone protocol** for industries where long-life assets and quantum threat models collide. By decoupling security from heavyweight public-key machinery and leveraging robust symmetric primitives, SATP offers a predictable, scalable, and energy-efficient path toward truly enduring confidentiality and authentication.