

# CryptoChronicles

## LessPM's Quest to a Passwordless Utopian Ecosystem

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## 1 Executive Summary

 $\mathrm{Test}[\mathbf{lol}]$ 

## 2 Abstract

## 3 Introduction

Polybius' The Histories [7] contains the first documented use of passwords, describing how the Romans employed "watchwords" to verify identities within the military. This provided a transparent, simple way to allow or deny entry to restricted areas of authorized personnel only. The story of secret writing (in this context referenced as cryptography) goes back the past 3000 years [3], where the need to protect and preserve privacy between two or more individuals blossomed.

Fernando J. Corbató is widely credited as the all-father of the first computer password when he was responsible for the Compatible Time-Sharing System (CTSS) in 1961 at MIT [5]. The system had a "LOGIN" command, which, when the user followed it by typing "PASSWORD", had its printing mechanism turned off to offer the applicant privacy while typing the password [1]. Given the long history of passwords and their importance, one could argue that it was a natural and judicious step in the evolution of computer systems.

In today's digital landscape, utilizing various identifiers (such as usernames, email addresses, or phone numbers) combined with passwords has become a prevalent method for verifying an individual's identity and ensuring their authorization to access restricted materials.

In 2004, a study titled "The Memorability and Security of Passwords" [18] was conducted into advising users on the entropy of passwords and ways someone can use to remember a or multiple passwords. A typical standard for larger organizations with a form of password creation system is to emphasize the diversity of smaller characters, capitalized characters, length, and not be commonly referred to in a dictionary [18]. The study analyzed the effectiveness of different password-creation strategies, suggesting that acronym-based passwords offer a delicate balance between memorability and security [18].

However, as technology has advanced, the limitations of password-based authentication have become increasingly apparent, leading to the development of more sophisticated methods like Universal Authentication Framework (UAF) [4] and WebAuthn [17] through the Fast IDentity Online Alliance (FIDO) and The World Wide Web Consortium (W3C).

WebAuthn, short for Web Authentication, is an open standard for web-based authentication that enables users to securely access online web services without relying on a traditional password. Through a collaborative effort between FIDO and W3C, WebAuthn is developed to leverage asymmetric cryptography <sup>12</sup>and biometric or hardware-based authenticators to provide a more secure and robust authentication experience.

This report delves into the implementation of LessPM, a passwordless password manager that leverages WebAuthn to provide a secure authentication experience, free from the constraints of traditional passwords, while placing a strong emphasis on security. By examining recent advancements in authentication mechanisms and the related innovative potential of WebAuthn, we hope to illuminate the prospects of a passwordless future in digital security.

## 4 Background

In today's world of rapidly evolving technology, it is essential to have a strong foundation in the underlying concepts and protocols that drive modern systems. This background chapter aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the key technologies and principles that are relevant to our report. By delving into these fundamental topics, we can better appreciate their significance and application in the context of the implementation, design, and architecture presented in the subsequent chapters. We will provide background information on topics such as WebAuthn 4.1, JSON Web Tokens (JWT) 4.2, JSON Web Encryption (JWE) 4.2, hashing through Argon2 4.3, and Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) 4.4.

## 4.1 WebAuthn

WebAuthn, short for Web Authentication, is a collaborative project between the FIDO Alliance and W3C that aims to implement a secure, robust key-based authentication system for the web, to strongly authenticate users [17]. The concept relies on the use of a third-party device, called an Authenticator, which leverages asymmetric cryptography. These devices employ biometric or hardware-based mechanisms to provide a secure and reliable means of authenticating a user.

Upon registration, the Authenticator device generates a key pair called a Passkey. This Passkey contains a credential ID uniquely generated for each registered key-pair [15, 16] on the Authenticator. The unique generation of each key pair offers the advantage of making it much more difficult for trackers to follow a user <sup>3</sup>. Further, if an attacker gains access to an individual's Passkey, they might compromise one specific service, whereas a traditional password could potentially compromise multiple services where password reuse occurs[14].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Asymmetric cryptography uses a key pair consisting of public and private keys. The public key encrypts data, while the private key decrypts it. The keys are mathematically related, but deriving one from the other is infeasible, ensuring secure communication and data exchange.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Note: According to the library used to implement jsonwebtokens in Rust it is the private key that encrypts and the public key is responsible for decrypting. *Last Accessed: 2023-03-25*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>This is subject to the key-pair alone. A willing party could still track the user through their email or similar.

#### 4.1.1 Registration

In order to register in a WebAuthn authentication system, the user (i.e., client, browser, phone, etc.) issues a registration request to a WebAuthn implemented server, called a Relying Party (RP), asking to be registered. The request contains a body with the relevant user identifier (UID. i.e., username, phone number, email, etc.). The server responds by initiating a Registration Ceremony (RC) and generates a challenge, which is sent to the client.

The client then calls the browser-integrated WebAuthn API, requesting the Authenticator (i.e., phone, hardware authenticator device, or similar) to create a new public key credential.<sup>4</sup> During this process, the Authenticator generates a new key-pair (public and private keys). The Authenticator then signs the challenge received from the server with the private key.

The newly created public key, signed challenge, and additional metadata are combined into a public key credential object, which the client sends back to the server.

The server verifies the authenticity of the signed challenge and the public key credential object. If successful, the server stores the user's public key and other relevant information (e.g., user identifier, credential ID) for future authentication. Thus completing the RC.

Authenticator

Browser

Server

1. Start Registration
2. Provide Challenge
6. Send Registration opts
7. Verify public key
8. Persist public key

Figure 1: A diagram dipicting the registration process through WebAuthn and Authenticator Device.

 $<sup>^4</sup>$ The user is prompted to use their Authenticator to prove their presence, which can involve scanning a QR code, providing a fingerprint, or any other modality supported by the device.

#### 4.1.2 Authentication

When a user wishes to perform authentication (commonly referred to as logging in), much of the same procedure occurs. The user issues an authentication request to the RP, asking for authentication with the UID that the user used to sign up included in the request body. If the server can find an associated user with the UID in the persisted storage, the server responds by initiating and issuing an Authentication Ceremony (AC) containing a challenge.

The client calls the browser-integrated WebAuthn API, prompting the use of the Authenticator to validate and sign the challenge. Unlike the registration process, the Authenticator now yields a signature, which is forwarded to the RP along with Authenticator-specific data [13]. Upon receiving the data, the Relying Party (RP) validates the signed challenge using the stored credentials. If the validation succeeds, the server authenticates the user.

The RP can then determine the next steps, such as deciding the authentication duration and establishing methods for persisting and validating the authentication.<sup>5</sup> If the authentication process is unsuccessful at any point in the ceremony, the ceremony is aborted and considered invalid.

This process can be seen in figure 2.

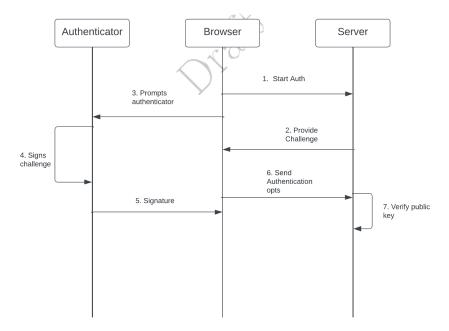


Figure 2: A diagram dipicting the authentication process through WebAuthn and Authenticator Device.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>In the case of LessPM, the system sets an authentication duration of 15 minutes. It stores this information within an AES256 encrypted 4.4 JSON Web Token. For more details about this process, refer to Section 4.2.

## 4.2 JSON Web Tokens & JSON Web Encryption

Blablabblaaa

## 4.3 Hashing through Argon2

Argon2 is a good hashing algorithm provided by

## 4.4 Advanced Encryption Standard with 256-bit

The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) is a symmetric key encryption algorithm. Since its inception in 1998, it has become the gold standard to encrypt various information across applications [8, 2], being adopted as the successor of Data Encryption Standard (DES) by The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in 2001 [6]. AES operates on a fixed-sizes units of data referred to as blocks [9], supporting keys of sizes 128-, 192-, and 256-bit [10]. The design is based on a Substitution-Permutation Network (SPN) structure, which combines substitution and permutation to provide a high level of security through multiple rounds of processing [11]. AES with 256-bit key-length (henceforth referred to as AES-256 in the rest of the document), employs a 256-bit key and consists of 14 rounds of encryption, offering an advanced level of security compared to its counterparts with shorter key lengths and fewer rounds [12]. In each round of encryption, AES-256 undergoes four primary transformations:

- **SubBytes** is a non-linear substitution step where each byte is replaced with another according to a predefined lookup table.
- ShiftRows is a transposition step where each row of the state is shifted cyclically a certain number of steps.
- MixColumns is a mixing operation that operates on the columns of the state, combining the four bytes in each column.
- AddRoundedKey combines the subkey with the state<sup>7</sup> using a bitwise exclusive OR (XOR) operation.

Figure 3: The steps AES takes when encrypting and decrypting data [11].

The larger key-size in AES-256 provides an exponential increase in number of possible keys, making it significantly more resilient to brute-force attacks and further solidifying its position

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Symmetric in this context refers to the key being the same to encrypt and decrypt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>The term **state** refers to an intermediate result that changes as the algorithm progress through its phases.

as a robust encryption standard for safe-guarding sensitive information.<sup>8</sup>

## 5 Methodology

Exploring the development and implementation of LessPM, a passwordless password manager, our focus will be on the key components, technologies, and steps that form the system's development process. This section will discuss the WebAuthn standard, its effective integration and role in LessPM, and the various security measures contributing to a robust and reliable solution.

## 6 Conclusion

## 7 Future work

Through implementing LessPM, we aimed to create a barebone implementation that could serve as a reliable Minimal Viable Product (MVP). However, we recognize that more work is needed to further enhance and compliment the product. The related topics to further improve LessPM are listed below and briefly discussed as a way to highlight potential drawbacks of the current version.

- ► Authorization Headers
- ► AES Key Encryption for Password
- ► Hardcoded AES for JWT
- ► Encrypted Passkey

 $<sup>^8</sup>$ The practical number of potential keys for an AES-256 implementation is  $2^{256}$  possibilities. This gives us an approximation of  $1.1579209 \times 10^{77}$  options. The number is theoretical, as this is a worst-case scenario of options that an attacker has to go through in order to find the right key.

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