

## ${\bf CryptoChronicles}$

LessPM's Quest to a Passwordless Utopian Ecosystem

T-742-CSDA

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## Abstract

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## 1 Introduction

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.

This is not a novel approach. Polybius' *The Histories* [Pol23] 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 [Doo18], where the need to protect and preserve privacy between two or more individuals blossomed.

Fernando J. Corbató is widely credited as the allfather of the first computer password when he was responsible for the Compatible Time-Sharing System (CTSS) in 1961 at MIT [Lev84]. 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 [65]. 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.

The study "The Memorability and Security of Passwords", conducted in 2004, provides insights into password creation strategies, including tips on improving password entropy and methods for easy recall of passwords [Yan+00]. With an emphasis on diversity in character selection, password length, and avoiding dictionary words, the study suggests that acronym-based passwords offer a delicate balance between memorability and security [Yan+00].

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) [FID17] and WebAuthn [Wor21] 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 explores 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.

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## 2 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 2.1, JSON Web Tokens (JWT) 2.4, JSON Web Encryption (JWE) 2.4, hashing through Argon 22.3, and Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) 2.2.

### 2.1 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 [Wor21]. 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 (AD) generates a key pair called a Passkey. This Passkey contains a credential ID uniquely generated

<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 json-webtokens in Rust it is the private key that encrypts and the public key is responsible for decrypting. *Last Accessed*: 2023-03-25.

for each registered key-pair [21a; 21b] 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 [Wan+18].

#### 2.1.1 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 [W3C21b]. 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 [W3C21c].

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 through the Client to Authenticator 2 Protocol (CTAP2).<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 [W3C21d].

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.

The process can be seen in Figure 1.

#### 2.1.2 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 [W3C21a]. 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.

Consider adding some sort of information about the footnote in litreview that details pasword reuse.

<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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;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.

<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 2.2 JSON Web Token. For more details about this process, refer to Section 2.4.

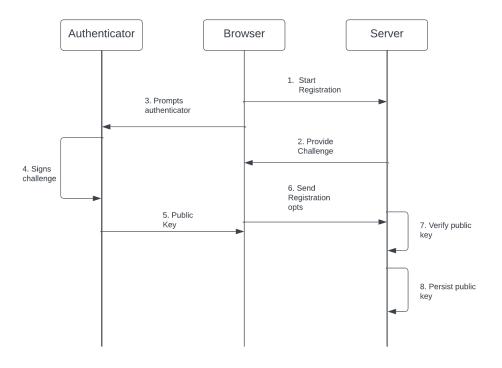


Figure 1: A diagram dipicting the registration process through WebAuthn and Authenticator Device.

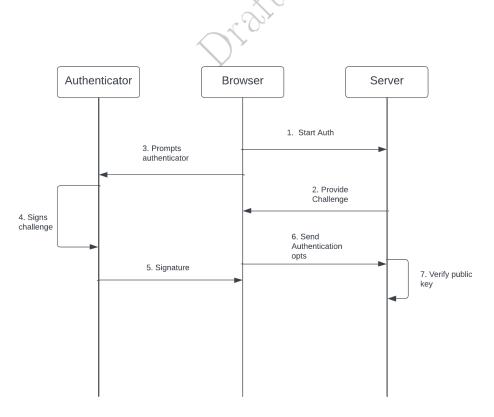


Figure 2: A diagram dipicting the authentication process through WebAuthn and Authenticator Device.

#### Advanced Encryption Standard 2.2with 256-bit

The Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) is a symmetric<sup>6</sup> key encryption algorithm. Since its inception in 1998, it has become the gold standard for encrypting various information across applications [Sch15; DR02], being adopted as the successor of the Data Encryption Standard (DES) by The National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) in 2001 [NIS00]. AES operates on fixed-sizes units of data referred to as blocks [ST01a], supporting keys of sizes 128-, 192-, and 256-bit [ST01b]. A Substitution-Permutation Network (SPN) structure forms the basis of the design, which achieves a high level of security through multiple rounds of processing by combining substitution and permutation [ST01c]. AES with 256-bit key length (hereafter referred to as AES-256 in the rest of the report), 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 [ST01d]. In each round of encryption, AES-256 undergoes four primary transformations, as seen in Figure 3, operating on a  $4 \times 4$  block:

The larger key-size in AES-256 provides an exponential increase in the number of possible keys, making it significantly more resilient to brute-force attacks and further solidifying its position as a robust encryption standard for safeguarding sensitive information.8

#### 2.3Hashing through Argon2

Argon2 is a key-derivation function developed by Alex Birvukov, Daniel Dinu, and Dmitry Khovra-

- SubBytes is a non-linear substitution step where each byte is replaced with another according to a predefined lookup table.
- ShiftRows cyclically shifts each row of the state over a certain number of steps. of the State over varying numbers of bytes while preserving their original values.
- MixColumns is a process that works on the columns of the state by combining the four bytes in each column through a mixing operation.
- AddRoundedKey involves combining a subkey with the state<sup>7</sup> by applying a bitwise XOR operation.

Figure 3: The steps AES takes when encrypting and decrypting data [ST01c].

tovich [al17]. Argon2 aims to provide a highly customizable function tailored to the needs of distinct contexts [al17]. Additionally, the design offers resistance to both time-memory trade-off and sidechannel attacks as a memory-hard function [al17].

The function fills large memory blocks with pseudorandom data derived from the input parameters, such as the password and salt. The algorithm then processes the blocks non-linearly for a specified number of iterations [al17].

The function offers three configurations, depending on the environment where the function will run and what the risk and threat models are:

Argon2, as a memory-intensive hashing function, demands substantial computational resources from attackers attempting dictionary attacks. 12

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

The term state refers to an intermediate result that changes as the algorithm progress through its phases.

<sup>&</sup>lt;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 an attacker must go through to find the right key.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup>A salt is a randomly generated sequence of characters, unique to each instance that gets hashed. Argon2's intension is to have a 128-bit salt for all applications but this can be sliced in half, if storage is a concern [al17].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>Side-channel timing attacks analyze execution time variations in cryptographic systems to reveal confidential data, exploiting differences in time caused by varying inputs, branching conditions, or memory access patterns.

11 Due to the nature of prioritizing security, LessPM uses

the third configuration. This is expanded upon in Section 5.1.

 $<sup>^{12}\</sup>mathrm{A}$  dictionary attack is an approach where an attacker tries to find a hash by searching through a dictionary of precomputed hashes or generating hashes based on a dictionary commonly used by individuals or businesses.

- Argon2d is a faster configuration and uses data-depending memory access. This makes it suitable for cryptocurrencies and applications with little to no threat of side-channel timing attacks.<sup>10</sup>
- Argon2i uses data-independent memory access. This configuration is more suitable for password hashing and key-derivation functions.<sup>11</sup> This configuration is slower due to making more passes over the memory as the hashing progresses.
- Argon2id is a combination of the two, beginning with data-dependent memory access before transitioning to data-independent memory access after progressing halfway through the process.

**Figure 4:** The three configurations of Argon2 [al17].

characteristic significantly hampers the feasibility of cracking passwords using such attacks. The algorithm's customizability allows users to adjust its behaviour based on memory, parallelism, and iterations, catering to specific security requirements and performance needs. As these configurations are crucial for computing the original hash, Argon2 provides robust resilience against brute-force and side-channel attacks [al17]. The resulting enhanced security makes Argon2 suitable for password storage and key-derivation in various applications and systems.

In 2015, Argon2 won the Password Hashing Competition [The].  $^{13}$ 

# 2.4 JSON Web Token & JSON Web Encryption

Although JSON Web Tokens (JWTs) [JBS15] are not inherently encrypted, they still serve an essential purpose for some forms of secure data transfer. By combining JWTs with JSON Web Encryption (JWE) [IET15], secure intercommunication between

two or more parties can be achieved.

## 2.4.1 JSON Web Token (RFC 7519)

JWTs were introduced as part of RFC 7519 in 2015 [JBS15]. It is a compact, URL-safe string intended to transfer data between two entities. They can be used as part of an authentication and authorization scheme in a web service, application, or API. The data in the string is intended as a payload and is referred to as a claim [JBS15].

A JWT typically consist of three parts: header, payload, and signature. The header and payload are serialized into JavaScript Object Notation (JSON) and then encoded using a Base64Url encoding to ensure a URL-safe format [JBS15].

The token contains an expiry timestamp, which, when decoded, is validated if the timestamp is not passed at the time of decoding. JWTs can be cryptographically signed using various algorithms like Hash-Based Message Authentication (HMAC), Rivest-Shamir-Adleman (RSA), or Elliptic-Curve Digital Signature Algorithm (ECDSA) ensuring the integrity and authenticity of the token [JBS15]. This prevents unknown authorities from constructing or hijacking existing tokens.<sup>14</sup>

The URL-safe format of a JWT is often performed through a Base64 encoding, which permits larger bits of data to be sent in a compressed, safe<sup>15</sup> format [JBS15]. JWTs are widely used for scenarios such as single sign-on (SSO), user authentication, and securing API endpoints by providing an efficient and stateless mechanism for transmitting information about the user's identity, permissions, and other relevant data [Kar18].

The process functions as follows:

• The client completed an authentication request.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup>NIST's competition to find an encryption algorithm inspired the Password Hashing Competition, but it took place without NIST's endorsement.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>Hijacking a token could happen by a man-in-the-middle attack. This is done by a third-party individual listening and intercepting traffic in order to either read data or input their own in a client's request. This would allow an attacker to gain access to privileged information.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup>Safe in this context should not be interchanged with secure. We reference safe as a way to transfer the data over the selected protocol, in most cases HTTP(S).

- A token is constructed and created through a claim on the server.
- The claim can be any data the server wishes to use to authenticate the legitimacy of a future request.
- The claim gets signed with the desired algorithm. This can also be a secret, stored on the server.
- As part of the response to a request, the server appends the token.<sup>16</sup>
- The client receives the token and carries it upon the next performed request.
- When the server receives the token again, it validates the exp property of the JSON object and takes action accordingly.

### 2.4.2 JSON Web Encryption

Complimenting the JWT standard are JWEs (RFC 7516). Introduced around the same time as JWTs, in May 2015, there are many parallels between the two, but the significant distinction between them is that JWEs are encrypted [IET15]. This encryption can happen through AES (see Section 2.2) and provides integrity and authenticity for the token. This prevents eavesdropping or tampering with the token during transit. Combined with JWT, JWE enhance the overall security of JWT-based implementations, making them more suitable for transferring sensitive data between intercommunicating entities on the Web.

## 3 Literature Review

Passwordless Authentication (PA) is a growing field of study within Computer Science, as traditional authentication methods like passwords are increasingly recognized as vulnerable to attacks such as phishing<sup>17</sup> and credential stuffing.<sup>18</sup> Passwords and sensitive information can also be a victim of successful brute-force attacks [Bon12] through data leakages by hacking or purchasing information on the dark Web.

Following NIST [Nat20; Paul7], authentication should consist of covering one of the three following principles:

- Something you know: Such as a password, an answer to a personal question, or a Personal Identification Number (PIN).
- Something you have: A device that contains some token or cryptographically signed keys.
- Something you are: Biometrics of any sort or kind. Facial recognition, retina scan, finger-print and similar.

Figure 5: The Three Principles of Password Security [Sch00; Nat20].

There are many approaches to passwordless authentication or a second step to authenticate with a common password. In 2022, Parmar et al. [Par+22] described several attractive solutions, along with their advantages and drawbacks, for performing PA using the most common methods. The study discovered that PA commonly gets accepted as the most frictionless authentication system for User Interfaces (UI) [Par+22]. Biometrics was mentioned as one of the authentication methods, concluding that it captures universal human traits, encouraging differentiation from one another [Par+22]. The same study raises the caution surrounding the loss of authentication devices and how fingerprints

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> A common place to embed these tokens is in the Authroization part of the HTTP header [JBS15].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Phishing is a form of attack where a hacker tries to leverage Social Engineering to act as a trusted entity to dupe a victim to give away credentials by opening an email, instant message, or text message, then signing into a spoofed website, seeming legitimate [OWAnd].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup>Credential stuffing refers to the practice of using automated tools to inject compromised or stolen username and password combinations into web login forms to gain unauthorized access to user accounts [Mulnd].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup>Often referenced as Two-Factor Authentication or Multi-Factor Authentication.

can be compromised [Par+22].<sup>20</sup>

One promising approach is using the FIDO Alliance's collaborative work with W3C to create WebAuthn. WebAuthn permits users to authenticate through biometric information stored on a device in the user's possession (i.e. phone, computer) or a physical security key (i.e. YubiKey, Nitrokey, etc.) [Wor21].

In [Hus22], Huseynov utilized a Web interface with WebAuthn to create credentials that users could use for a VPN. The client required a user to authenticate through the procedure of WebAuthn (see Section 2.1). On a successful request, the Remote Authentication Dial-In User Service (RADIUS) creates a temporary username and password, which would then be transferred as a response to the end-user, permitting them to copy and paste it into the necessary client, alternatively to construct a batch file which would establish the correct connection [Hus22]. The study suggested creating a solution for a VPN client which embedded some browser components [Hus22].

Gordin et al. [Gor21] implemented PA into an OpenStack environment using WebAuthn, which increases security and bypasses the risk of malefactors employing leaked passwords on other services. <sup>21</sup> The PA process considerably reduces the number of attacks towards a server because the server no longer has user authentication secrets [Gor21]. They, however, utilized a fingerprint as the primary biometrics, citing cost as a primary factor to discourage the use of FIDO2 [Gor21]. <sup>22</sup>

Statistia reported in 2020 that between 77-86% of smartphones now have a form of biometric scanner

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built into their device [Sav22]. Gorin, Et al. continue by mentioning that some individuals have trouble using their biometric scanner or getting it to work correctly on their device [Gor21], which can be a potential drawback for user adaptability.

According to a study conducted by Lyastani et al. in 2020 [Ghr+20], a significant portion of users found the usage of WebAuthn and Fido2 standard to be easy and secure, but with some concerns about losing access to their accounts or fear of others accessing their accounts [Ghr+20]. The study utilized a fingerprint Yubikey for the authentication process. Despite some reservations, the study found that overall, WebAuthn and Fido2 have good usability for passwordless authentication.

The authors reported that users automatically associated the loss of the AD with losing access to the account [Ghr+20] – and vice versa – indicating that users are slightly unwilling to replace the initial principle of "Something you know" with the second "Something you have" and third "Something you are" principle. Additional research is necessary to educate users, increase trust and confidence in the technology, and address concerns about the potential loss of account access.<sup>23</sup>

Morii et al. [Mor+17] investigated the potential of FIDO as a viable PA solution in 2017 when the FIDO2 and WebAuthn standards were yet to be widely adopted. The authors noted that, at that time, only the Edge browser had implemented proper support for FIDO2 and WebAuthn [Mor+17]. Despite the limited browser support, the study demonstrated the feasibility of integrating PA into the well-established authentication system, Shibboleth [Shi22; Mor+17].<sup>24</sup>

As the technology evolved from FIDO to FIDO2.0, some security concerns persisted, such as

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup>The security implication of using the core concept of FIDO2's WebAuthn is subject to storage in the system on Apple-specific devices [App23]. On an Android device, the implementation is up to the manufacturer of the device, where Samsung has implemented a Physically Unclonable Function [Lee+21].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup>See Section 2.1 for further explanation as to how this works.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup>Authentication is provided through the Keystone environment on the OpenStack platform.

 $<sup>^{23}\</sup>mathrm{We}$  believe that these concerns are mostly raised due to using a YubiKey and that using a phone-based authenticator would reveal other results.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup>Shibboleth is a widely-used, open-source federated identity solution that enables secure single sign-on across multiple applications and organizations.

session hijacking $^{25}$ , which can compromise user accounts [Mor+17], highlighting the need to protect these.

Since the publication of Morii et al. 's research, browser support for FIDO2 and WebAuthn has significantly improved, with major browsers like Google Chrome, Mozilla Firefox, Apple Safari, Microsoft Edge, and Vivaldi now offering support for these standards. This broader adoption has enabled the more widespread deployment of PA solutions, providing increased security and improved user experiences across various online services. However, the ongoing evolution of security threats and the increasing sophistication of attackers highlights the need for continuous research and development in the field of passwordless authentication, ensuring that new methods and standards are both secure and user-friendly.

Having explored various studies and developments in the field of PA, it is evident that this area has been continuously evolving to provide secure, userfriendly solutions. However, the implementation of these solutions into stand-alone, real-world applications, such as password managers, independent of other login systems, is a critical aspect that requires thorough investigation.

In the following section, we will examine the methodology employed in this study to integrate a passwordless system into a passwordless password manager, taking into account the challenges and concerns identified in the literature. By doing so, we aim to contribute to the growing body of knowledge on passwordless authentication and its practical applications.

## 4 Methodology

Exploring the development and implementation of LessPM, a passwordless password manager, our fo-

cus will be on the key components, technologies, and steps that form the system's development process. A crucial part of the development and system is its security and robustness. Our approach encompasses an explanation of the system architecture, the technologies and tools utilized and the development process to create the prototype. By providing a comprehensive account of the system development process, we aim to enable readers to understand the technical aspects of our work, as well as to assess the validity and relevance of our findings.

#### 4.1 Environment

To implement the system, we went to approach the development from a type-safety environment.

## 4.1.1 Server

We chose Rust as the programming language for our backend which provided significant benefits in terms of the software development environment.

Rust's emphasis on safety and performance allowed us to create a highly secure and efficient environment for our implementation, without the risks typically associated with memory-related vulnerabilities [Riv19]. The built-in memory management and focus on concurrency ensures that our software runs smoothly, which is crucial [FLP85] when dealing with sensitive user data.

Additionally, Rust's surrounding ecosystem is rapidly growing [Kor], containing a vast library of high-quality crates<sup>26</sup>, which enables rapid development and easy integration of various functionality. Utilizing Rust's distinctive features, the passwordless password manager provides enhanced security and reliability in the context of user authentication, showcasing the benefits of utilizing a modern programming language in the ever-evolving landscape of software development.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup>Session hijacking refers to an attacker gaining unauthorized access to a user's authenticated session, often exploiting weaknesses in the handling of cookies, sessions, or JSON Web Tokens (JWT) [subsec:json-web-tokens].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup>Crate is the Rust-specific name for package or library.

#### 4.1.2 Client

An important part of the implementation is to create a viable client that can function as a visual entry-point to the server. We focused on following The Law of Demeter (LoD) [LH90], and using a least-knowledge principle. This assures that the client only retains the necessary information needed to function, having no knowledge of the server nor its implementation between each performed request. As is customery when developing a system containing logging in, we are taking advantage of JWT/JWE 2.4 to pertain some information, in order to authorize the client between requested resources. The Base64-encoded data that is passed between the server and client is strongly encrypted through AES256 2.2. The client was using React, and is a single-page application, avoiding the possibility of utilizing any kind of URL tampering or manipulation<sup>27</sup> to attempt privilege escalation.

## 5 Key

5.1 Hashing AES-key

## 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
- ► Attaching connecting IP to JWT

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup>URL Manipulation is a technique performed by malefactors where a URL can be modified to request resources that should otherwise be inaccessbile to a user.

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