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Password Generators: Old Ideas and New*

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Abstract

This paper considers password generators, i.e. systems designed to generate site-specific passwords on demand. Such systems are an alternative to password managers. Over the last 15 years a range of password generator systems have been described. This paper proposes the first general model for such systems, and critically examines options for instantiating this model; options considered include all those previously proposed as part of existing schemes as well as certain novel possibilities. The model enables a more objective and high-level assessment of the design of such systems; it has also been used to sketch a possible new scheme, AutoPass, intended to incorporate the best features of the prior art whilst also addressing many of the most serious shortcomings of existing systems through the inclusion of novel features.

1 Introduction

Secret passwords remain a very widely used method for user authentication, despite widely shared concerns about the level of security they provide. The remarkable persistence of passwords has been discussed by Herley, van Oorschot and Patrick [9]. There are many potentially replacement technologies, including the use of some combination of biometrics and trusted personal devices (e.g. as supported by protocols such as FIDO UAF [5]), but it seems likely that it will be some time, if ever, before passwords are relegated to history.

Given their current wide use, and their likely continued use for the foreseeable future, finding ways of improving the use and management of passwords remains a vitally important issue for real-world security. In this paper

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we focus on an important practical matter, namely how to make use of passwords for authentication both more secure and more convenient. The main focus is the use of passwords for remote user authentication to a website.

Many technologies have been devised to either improve on the level of security passwords provide, typically by: providing alternative means of user authentication, through identity management systems (such as OAuth [8] or FIDO [5]), or simply by making the use of strong, i.e. not readily guessable, passwords easier. In this paper, in line with the previous remarks about the continuing ubiquity of passwords, we focus on the third of the above categories. In particular, the fact that users are expected to memorise large numbers of different strong passwords simply to go about their daily business on the Internet, clearly forces users to compromise their own security (around 10 years ago, Florêncio and Herley, [6], reported that each user in a large scale study had about 25 accounts that required passwords, and typed an average of 8 passwords per day — these numbers have probably risen significantly since their study). The hope is that, in the short-to-medium term at least, systems can be devised to make the user workload manageable whilst still enabling the use of strong and diverse passwords.

One important category of schemes of this latter type are the *password managers* (what McCarney [17] calls *retrieval password managers*). A password manager stores user passwords for a variety of sites, and produces them when required (typically by auto-filling in login pages). Such password managers fall into two main types, depending on whether the passwords are stored locally or remotely on a trusted server. Most browsers provide a local-storage password manager as default functionality, and as a result local-storage schemes are very widely used.

However, the shortcomings of password managers have also been widely documented (see, for example, McCarney [17]). Passwords stored only on the user's platform restrict user mobility, since they will not be available when a user user switches, for example, from use of a laptop to a tablet or phone. However, if passwords are stored remotely 'in the cloud', then there is a danger of compromise through poorly configured and managed servers. Sadly there are real-world examples of compromises of such password managers [3, 13, 18, 19].

Another, somewhat less well-studied, class of schemes, which forms the main focus of this paper, involves generating site-specific passwords on demand from a combination of inputs, including those supplied by the user and those based on the nature of the site itself. A number of individual schemes of this type have been proposed but, apart from a brief summary by McCarney [17], they have not been studied in a more general setting. The main purposes of this paper are to (a) provide a general model within which a range of (client side) password generation schemes can be analysed, and (b) use this model to propose a possible new system combining the best features of existing schemes. We believe that this is the first time this class

of schemes has been considered in a unified way, and by doing so we gain new insights into their design and implementation.

The rest of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2 introduces a general model for *password generators*; key examples of such schemes are also given. This is followed in section 3 by a review of the options for the chief components of the model, again referring to existing example schemes. Section 4 then addresses the advantages and disadvantages of these options. In section 5 we consider enhancements to the operation of the system which mitigate some of the identified disadvantages. The lessons from our assessments, together with these novel enhancements, are incorporated into a high-level design for a novel scheme, AutoPass, described in section 6. Section 7 concludes the paper and provides directions for further research.

2 Password Generators — A General Model

This paper is concerned with *password generators*, i.e. schemes designed to simplify password management for end users by generating site-specific passwords on demand from a small set of readily-memorable inputs. Note that the term has also been used to describe schemes for generating random or pseudorandom passwords which the user is then expected to remember; however, we use the term to describe a system intended to be used whenever a user logs in and that can generate the necessary passwords on demand and in a repeatable way.

A variety of such schemes have been proposed in recent years — however, this paper focusses on the general properties of such schemes, and the various options for their operation. We start by presenting a general model for such schemes, which we then use as a framework for analysing possible scheme components. We observe that the general class of such schemes has been briefly considered previously by McCarney [17] under the name *generative password managers*.

2.1 A Model

A password generator is functionality implemented on an end-user platform to support password-based user authentication to a remote server (assumed to be a web site, although most of the discussion applies more generally). This functionality generates, on demand, a site-unique password for use in authentication. Clearly this password also needs to be available to the web site authenticating the user — the nature of the *registration* step, in which the password is set up, is discussed further in section 2.3 below. A password generator has the following components.

- A set of *input values* is used to determine the password for a particular site. Some values must be site-specific so that the generated password

is site-specific. The values could be stored (locally or online), based on characteristics of the authenticating site, or user-entered when required. Systems can, and often do, combine these types of input.

- A *password generation function* combines the input values to generate an appropriate password. This function could operate in a range of ways depending on the requirements of the web site doing the authentication. For example, one web site might forbid the inclusion of non-alphanumeric characters in a password, whereas another might insist that a password contains at least one such character. To be broadly applicable, a password generation function must therefore be customisable.

- A *password output method* enables the generated password to be transferred to the authenticating site. This could, for example, involve displaying the generated password to the user, who must then type (or copy and paste) it into the appropriate place.

All this functionality needs to be implemented on the user platform. There are various possibilities for such an implementation, including as a stand-alone application or as a browser plug-in. Each of these aspects of the operation of a password generator are discussed in greater detail in section 3 below.

2.2 Examples

Before proceeding we briefly outline some existing proposals for password generation schemes conforming to the above model. The schemes are presented in chronological order of publication. Note that the functional components of the various examples are considered in greater detail in section 3 below.

- The *Site-Specific Passwords (SSP)* scheme proposed by Karp [12] in 2002/03 is one of the earliest proposed schemes of this general type. SSP generates a site-specific password by combining a long-term user master password and an easy-to-remember name for the web site, as chosen by the user.

- *PwdHash*, due to Ross et al. [20], generates a site-specific password by combining a long-term user master password, data associated with the web site, and (optionally) a second global password stored on the platform.

- The 2005 *Password Multiplier* scheme of Halderman, Waters and Felten, [7], computes a site-specific password as a function of a long-term user master password, the web site name, and the user name for the user at the web site concerned.

- Wolf and Schneider's 2006 *PasswordSitter* [22] scheme generates a site-specific password as a function of a long-term user master password, the user identity, the application/service name, and some configurable parameters.

- *Passpet*, due to Yee and Sitaker [23] and also published in 2006, takes a very similar approach to SSP, i.e. the site-specific password is a function of a long-term user master password and a user-chosen name for the web site known as a *petname*. Each petname has an associated icon, which is automatically displayed to the user and is intended to reduce the risk of phishing attacks.

- *ObPwd*, due to Mannan et al. [1, 14, 15, 16], first surfaced in 2008. It takes a somewhat different approach by generating a site-specific password as a function of a user-selected (site-specific) object (e.g. a file), together with a number of optional parameters, including a long-term user password (referred to as a *salt*), and the web site URL.

- Finally, *PALPAS* was published in 2015 [10]. PALPAS generates passwords complying with site-specific requirements using server-provided password policy data, a stored secret master password (the *seed*), and a site- and user-specific secret value (the *salt*) that is synchronised across all the user devices using the server.

2.3 Registration and Configuration

In this paper we only consider schemes whose operation is completely transparent to the website which is authenticating the user. As a result, the 'normal' website registration procedure, in which the user selects a password and sends it to the site, is assumed to be used. This, in turn, typically means that the password generation process needs to be in place *before* the registration procedure, or at least that introduction of the password generator requires the user to modify their account password. This potential disadvantage of password generators, together with possible ways of avoiding the need to change passwords, is examined in sections 4.5 and 5.1 below.

There is a potential need for a password generator to store configuration data. Such data can be divided into two main types:

- *global configuration data*, i.e. values unique to the user and which are used to help generate all passwords for that user, and

- *site-specific configuration data*, i.e. values used to help generate a password for a single website, which are typically the same for all users.

Not all schemes use configuration data, although producing a workable system without at least some global configuration data seems challenging. However, the use of configuration data is clearly a major barrier to portability.

That is, for a user employing multiple platforms, the configuration data must be kept synchronised across all these platforms, a non-trivial task — exactly the issue addressed in a recent paper by Horsch, Hülsing and Buchmann [10].

3 Components of the Model

We next consider in greater detail options for the components of the model.

3.1 Inputs to Password Generation

We first consider the input values to the password generation process. The following data input types have been employed in existing schemes.

- A **master password** is a user-specific long-term secret value. This could either be a **user-entered password**, i.e. entered by the user whenever a password is to be generated, or a **stored password**, i.e. a user-specific secret value stored as global configuration data. Note that this could be augmented by use of a (not necessarily secret) **user constant**, i.e. a further global configuration value entered by the user and which ensures that the passwords generated by this instance of the scheme are different to those generated by another instance, even if the same password is used.

- A **site name** is a name for the site using the password for user authentication. This could take a variety of forms, including a **user site name**, i.e., a name for a site chosen by a user, all or part of the site's **URL**, or a **site-specific secret**, e.g. a random value associated with the site URL.

- A **digital object** is anything available on the user platform which could be used as input to the password generation process, e.g. a file or a selected block of text on the target web site. Typically the user would be expected to use a different object (or set of objects) for each web-site.

- A **password policy** is information governing the nature of the password generated, e.g. the set of acceptable symbols.

Table 1 summarises the sets of data inputs used by existing password generator schemes. Items given in square brackets ([thus]) are optional inputs.

Two other possible types of value that could be used to help generate a site-specific password, and that have not previously been proposed, are as follows.

Table 1: Inputs to password generation process

Scheme	**Input data**
ObPwd, [14]	digital object, [URL]
PassPet, [23]	user constant, user-entered password, user site name
Password Multiplier, [7]	user-entered password, user site name
PasswordSitter, [22]	user-entered password, user site name
PwdHash, [20]	user-entered password, URL
Site-Specific Passwords, [12]	user-entered password, user site name
PALPAS, [10]	stored password, site-specific secret, password policy

- The first is to employ the **user name** for the user at the site concerned. Typically this will be something readily memorable by the user, but will often vary from site to site.

- A second rather more complex option would be to provide a local front end for a graphical password system (see, for example, [4, 21]), and to use this to generate a bit-string to be input to password generation. This possibility is not explored further here.

3.2 Generating the Password

A number of approaches can be used to combine the various inputs to generate a password. They all involve a two-stage process, i.e. first combining the inputs to generate a bit-string, and then formatting and processing the bit-string to obtain a password in the desired format. Typically a target format is a string of symbols of a certain length, where each symbol is, for example, numerals only, alphanumeric characters, or alphanumerics together with punctuation.

Possibilities for the first stage include the following.

- **one-level-hash**, i.e. concatenating the various inputs and applying a cryptographic hash-function. An alternative of this one-level type would be to use part of the input as a key, and to then generate an encryption or MAC on the remainder of the input. Examples of this general approach include PwdHash[20], ObPwd [14] and SSP [12]. PasswordSitter, [22], uses AES encryption as an alternative to a hash-function, where the AES key is derived from the master password.

- A widely discussed alternative is the **two-level-hash**. In this case, one or more of the inputs are concatenated and input to a cryptographic hash-function which is then iterated some significant number of times. The output of this multiple iteration is then concatenated

with the other inputs and hashed to give the output. This two-level multiple iteration process is designed to slow down brute force attacks. Examples of systems adopting such an approach include PassPet [23] and Password Multiplier [7].

The main approach to the second stage employs some form of **encoding**, in which the output from the first stage is formatted to obtain the desired password from a site-specific character set, perhaps also satisfying certain rules (e.g. mandating the inclusion of certain classes of character). Some existing schemes, such as ObPwd [ref], allow this to be parameterised in order to meet specific website requirements. Horsch et al. [11] go one step further and propose an XML syntax, the *Password Requirements Markup Language (PRML)*, designed specifically to enable such requirements on passwords to be formally specified. Such password policy statements constitute site-specific configuration data.

3.3 Password Output and Use

There are a number of ways in which a generated password could be transferred to the password field of a website login page.

- The simplest is **manual copy and paste**, where the password generation software displays the generated password to the user who manually copies it into the login page. This approach is used by SSP [12].
- A slightly more automated approach is **copy to clipboard**, in which the generated password is copied into the clipboard for future use. For security reasons the password can be made to only reside in the clipboard for a limited period, e.g. in PasswordSitter the generated password is saved to the clipboard for 60 seconds before being deleted [22].
- The simplest approach for the user is probably **automatic copying to the target password field**. This can either be done automatically with no user intervention, as is the case for PwdHash in the web page implementation [20] and the ObPwd Firefox browser extension [14]. Alternatively it can require the user to perform an action such as clicking a specific key combination before copying; for example, PassPet requires the user to click on a screen button, [23], and Password Multiplier, [7], requires the user to double click the password field or press *ctrl+P* to trigger password copying.

3.4 Approaches to Implementation

Password generation software can be implemented in a range of ways.

- There are a number of advantages to be derived from implementing the password generator as a **browser add-on**, e.g. as a **browser plug-in**, **browser extension** or **signed browser applet**. Many existing password generator schemes adopt this approach, at least as one option, including [7, 20, 22, 23].

- An alternative is to implement the scheme as a **stand-alone application**, e.g. to run on a phone, tablet or desktop. The user would need to install the application. Such an approach is adopted by SSP; ObPwd, [14], is also available as both a browser extension and a mobile app.

- A somewhat different approach is to implement the scheme as a **web-based application**, either running on a remote server or executing on the user platform in the form of dynamically downloaded JavaScript.

4 Assessing the Options

For each of the main components we assess the main advantages and disadvantages of the possibilities described in section 3.

4.1 Inputs

Three main options for the inputs to the password generation process were described in section 3.1. We consider them in turn.

- The use of a **master password** of some kind seems highly advantageous; the main issue is how it is made available when required, i.e. whether to store it long-term in the software as global configuration data or to employ a user-entered value. Both possibilities have pros and cons. Long-term storage maximises user convenience, but the secret is now at greater risk of exposure and the system is now inherently less portable, not least because the user may well forget the value if it does not need to be entered regularly. Conversely, user entry reduces convenience but possibly improves security, although the entry process itself is now prone to eavesdropping, either visually or using some kind of key-logger. Perhaps the best possibility might be to combine the two, i.e. to use two secrets — one stored long-term on every device employed by the user and the other entered by the user whenever the system is activated. Such an approach is implemented in the PALPAS system, [10], where a user-entered password is employed to generate a key for encrypting and decrypting the locally stored master secret (or *seed*).

  The addition of some kind of **user constant**, i.e. a not necessarily secret user-specific value, also seems reasonable. The obvious location

for this is as global configuration data, although this again may have a portability impact.

- The inclusion of a **site name** was the second option considered in section 3.1. The use of such an input is highly desirable since it will make generated passwords site-specific. The site name could be a **user site name**, i.e. a name for the site selected by the user, the site's **URL**, or a value indexed by the URL. One disadvantage of a **user site name** is that it must be remembered (and entered) by the user. Use of the **URL** avoids the latter problem by potentially being available automatically to the password generator. It also prevents phishing attacks in which a fake site attempts to capture user credentials for the site it is imitating, since the URL of the phishing site, and hence the generated password, will be different to that of the genuine site, [20]. However, use of the site URL also has issues, [12], since the URL of a site can change without notice, meaning the generated password would also change and the system would fail. This latter issue can be at least partially addressed by using only the first part of the URL.

- The third possibility is use of a **digital object**. Perhaps its main advantage is that it potentially introduces a major source of entropy into password generation [14, 16]. Such an input also offers a way of making passwords site-specific, although it requires users to choose a different object for every site (and it is not clear that all users will do so). However, there are two major disadvantages with such an approach. Firstly, the object used must always be accessible, significantly restricting user choice especially on small platforms such as phones. Secondly, the user must remember which object is used with which site, a task which users may find as hard as remembering site-unique passwords (depending on the psychology of the individuals involved).

4.2 Generating the Password

As discussed in section 3.2, password generation is typically a two-stage process: first combine the inputs to generate a bit-string, and second use the bit-string to generate a password. The first stage involves either a single level or a two-level hash. The two-level approach has the advantage of offering a limited degree of protection against brute-forcing of a master secret, [2, 7, 23]. The only disadvantage is a slight delay in the password generation process itself, but this can be made small enough to be barely noticeable.

The second **encoding** step is more problematic. Websites have widely differing password requirements and rules. The encoding scheme must generate passwords tailored to site-specific requirements (referred to by Horsch, Hülsing and Buchmann [10] as the *password policy*). This in turn typically requires the password generator to store site-specific password policies as

site-specific configuration data, potentially reducing the portability of the password generator since each instance must be locally configured.

4.3 User Interface Operation

Section 3.3 describes a range of possible approaches for transferring a generated password to the password field in the website login page.

- The **manual copy and paste** approach is clearly the simplest to implement. However, apart from being the least user-friendly, it has a security deficiencies. Most seriously, a user could be tricked by a fake page to reveal their password for a genuine site. There is also a serious possibility of eavesdropping (or 'shoulder-surfing').

- The **copy to clipboard** technique is much more convenient for the user, but is still prone to fake website attacks. Also, an attacker might be able to launch an attack to learn the clipboard contents. It would appear to be good practice to restrict the period of time during which the generated password is in the clipboard, as implemented in PasswordSitter [22].

- The most convenient approach for the user is undoubtedly **automatic copying to the target password field**. If the password generator is aware of the URL of the web page (which is likely if it can access the page to autofill the password) then this can mitigate fake website attacks. The major disadvantage relates to implementability — practicality depends very much on how the password generator is implemented (as discussed in section 4.4 below). Such a solution might require the user to perform a specific action to trigger automatic copying of the password; this would have the advantage of giving the user some control over the process.

4.4 Implementation

We conclude this assessment of the various password generator options by considering the ways in which it might be implemented.

- The **browser add-on** approach has been widely advocated in the literature, and has a number of advantages. When implemented in this way, a password generator can readily automate key tasks, including detecting the password field, discovering the site URL, and filling in the password field automatically. However, the use of multiple browsers across multiple platforms may cause incompatibility problems, and require the development and use of multiple instances of the scheme. Also, the lack of an easily accessible user interface may also make configuration difficult for non-expert users.

- A **stand-alone application** is the obvious alternative to a browser add-on. One advantage of such an approach compared to a browser add-on relates to the user interface; a stand-alone application is likely to have a richer user interface, easing its use and configuration. However, such an application may be unable to automatically perform some of the tasks which can readily be performed by a browser add-on, such as automated password field detection and password input. Stand-alone applications will also have portability issues, with a different application needed for each platform type.
- The third possibility is a **web-based application**. Such an approach has the great advantage of seamless portability — it would be instantly usable on any platform at any time. Just like a browser add-on, it could also enable automation of key tasks such as URL detection and automatic password completion, [7]. However, there are also serious disadvantages. A usability study conducted by Chiasson et al., [2], revealed that users had difficulty in locating the PwdHah website. Most seriously, the web implementation will potentially have access to all the user's passwords, as well as the values used to generate them. Of course, an application could be implemented, e.g. using JavaScript, to perform all the necessary calculations on the user machine, and not on a remote server — however, the capability would remain for the website to transparently eavesdrop on the process whenever it wished.

4.5 Other Issues

Before proceeding we mention certain other usability and security issues which can arise, potentially regardless of the options chosen.

Setting and updating passwords If a user is already using the password generator when newly registering with a website, there is clearly no problem — the user can simply register whatever value the system generates. However, if the user has selected and registered passwords with a range of websites *before* starting use of the password generator, then all these passwords will need to be changed to whatever the password generator outputs — this could be highly inconvenient if a user has established relationships with many sites, and could present a formidable barrier to adoption of the system.

Somewhat analogous problems arise if a user decides to change a website password, e.g. because the site enforces periodic password changes. The only possibility for the user will be to change one of the inputs used to generate the password, e.g. the object (if a digital object is used as an input) or a user site name. Password change could even be impossible if the user does not choose any of the site-specific inputs used to generate a password.

Using multiple platforms In various places we have noted issues that can arise if a user employs multiple platforms. This is a general problem that arises in particular if any kind of configuration data is used by the system. We discuss possible solutions to this problem in section 5.2 below.

Password policy issues A further general problem relates to the need to generate passwords in a site-specific form. This password policy issue has been explored extensively by Horsch and his co-authors [10, 11]. We return to this issue in section 5.1 below.

5 Improving System Operation

We next consider a range of ways of addressing some of the problems we have identified. Some of these techniques have already been proposed, although not precisely as we describe them here. In section 6 we consider how these measures might be integrated into a novel system.

5.1 Novel Types of Configuration Data

We have already mentioned certain types of configuration data, including global data, such as master secrets, and site-specific data, such as password policy values (possibly specified in PRML [11]). We now introduce two new configuration data types, whose use can address some of the identified issues.

- A *password offset*, a type of site-specific configuration data, can address the issue that a user may already have a well-established set of passwords which he/she does not wish to change; also, in some cases specific password values may be imposed on users. Additionally, users may wish, or be required to, change their passwords from time to time. As we have already observed, addressing such requirements with a password generation scheme is problematic.

  The idea of a password offset is as an input to the second stage of password generation. The first stage generates a bit-string, and the second stage converts this to a password with specific properties, as specified by the password policy. The password offset induces the second stage to generate a specific password value. For example, suppose that a password policy dictates that a password must be a string of lower and upper case letters and numerals, and suppose each such character is internally represented as a numeric value in the range 0–61. After converting the bit-string to a string of alphanumeric characters of the desired length, and given a 'desired password' consisting of an alphanumeric string of the same length, the password offset could simply

be the character-wise modulo 62 difference between the two strings[1]. Changing a password can now be readily implemented by changing the offset, either to a random value (thereby randomising the password choice), or to a chosen value (if the new password value is to be fixed by the user).

If implemented appropriately, this offset is not hugely sensitive, since it need not reveal anything about the actual password value. Of course, if an 'old' password is compromised, and the old and new offsets are also revealed, then this could compromise the new password value.

- It is also possible to envisage a scheme where a password for one site is generated using a different set of input types to those used to generate a password for another site. For example, a password for a particularly mission-critical site (e.g. a bank account) might be generated using a large set of input values, e.g. including a digital object, whereas a password for a less sensitive site could be generated using a master secret and site name only. Such a possibility could readily be captured using site-specific configuration data which we refer to as *password input parameters*.

- A system might also store *password reminders* as site-specific configuration data. For example, when choosing a digital object to generate a password, the user could be invited to specify a word or phrase to act as a reminder of the chosen value (without specifying it precisely). This could then be revealed on demand via the password generator user interface.

5.2 Use of a Server

We have already observed that storing configuration data on a user platform creates a major barrier to portability. It also poses a certain security risk through possible platform compromise, although, apart from the master secret, much of the configuration data we have discussed is not necessarily confidential.

The 'obvious' solution to this problem is to employ a server to store configuration data, or at least the less sensitive types of configuration information, much as many password managers keep user passwords in the cloud. That is, while it would seem prudent to at least keep a master secret on the user platform, all the site-specific configuration data could be held in the cloud. This type of solution is advocated by Horsch and his co-authors [10, 11].

[1] Such an idea ia widely implemented to enable credit/debit card holders to select their own PIN value.

If the scope of the site-specific configuration data can be kept to non-confidential values, then there is no need for a highly trusted server, a great advantage by comparison with some of the server-based password managers. Also, use of a server need not significantly impact on password availability, since a password generator application could cache a copy of the configuration data downloaded from the server, addressing short term loss of server availability. Loss of network availability would not be an issue, since in such a case remote logins would in any event not be possible, i.e. passwords would not be needed.

6 AutoPass: A New Proposal

We now describe the design of AutoPass (from 'automatic password generator'), a novel password generation scheme combining the best features of the prior art together with the novel ideas introduced in this paper, particularly those devised to address some of the shortcomings of previously proposed schemes. Full specification and implementation of AutoPass remains as future work.

AutoPass uses all the types of input given in section 3.1 to generate a password, since they all contribute to security in different ways. Following the approach of PALPAS, [10], we also propose to make use of a server to store non-sensitive configuration data, such as website password policies.

6.1 Operation

Following the model of section 2, in order to describe AutoPass we need to define: (a) the input types, (b) how the password is generated, and (c) how the password is output, together with the implementation strategy. We cover each of these points in turn. Since we also propose the use of a cloud service to support AutoPass operation, we also briefly sketch the operation of this service.

- As far as the **inputs** are concerned, we propose the use of a **master password**, where a password is stored by the system (as global configuration data) and a password (or PIN) must also be entered by the user. We further propose the use of the first part of the **URL** for the site, where, depending on the implementation, this should also be stored as part of the site-specific configuration and used to retrieve the other site-specific data. The master password can be held encrypted by a key derived from the user password. We also propose the optional use of a **digital object**, where whether or not the option is used for this site is indicated in the site-specific configuration data.
- The first stage of **password generation** adopts the two-level hash approach, giving some protection for the master secret against brute force

attacks. The second stage, i.e. **encoding**, uses the AutoPass cloud service to retrieve information about the password policy of the web site being visited (analogously to PALPAS [10]). This password policy could, for example, be encoded using PRML, [11]. It also uses other cloud-stored configuration data, notably the password offset, password input parameters, and password reminders introduced in section 2.3.

- The precise option for **password output and use** depends on the implementation. Where possible, autofilling the password is desirable; where this is impossible, the copy to clipboard/paste buffer approach is advocated.

- **Implementation** as a browser add-on is probably the best option, not least in giving simple access to the web page of the target site, although a range of options may need to be pursued depending on the platform type.

We next consider the operation of the AutoPass Cloud Service. It will be required to store two main types of data:

- *User-independent data* will be accessed by all users of AutoPass, and will include site-specific data such as password policies. This data is completely non-sensitive. Even if it could be corrupted by a malicious party, it would at worst cause a denial of service.

- *User-specific data* will only be accessed by a single user, and will include a range of password configuration data. Although this data is not highly confidential, access to it will need to be restricted to the user to whom it belongs, e.g. via a one-off login process via the local AutoPass application (with access permissions encoded in a cookie stored in the user platform).

Any use of a cloud service has associated risks arising from non-availability of the service. However, this can largely be addressed through caching. The local AutoPass app should maintain a copy of the data downloaded from the cloud service — since this data is not likely to change very quickly, the cached data should normally be sufficient to maintain normal operation.

To avoid risks arising from fake AutoPass services, e.g. using DNS spoofing, the cloud service could sign all the data it provides, and the AutoPass app could verify signatures using a built-in copy of the cloud service public key. However, whether this is practically viable or necessary is a topic for further study.

6.2 Assessment

The AutoPass system has been designed to incorporate both the best features of the existing password generation schemes and certain novel features,

notably the use of password configuration data (see section 5). Of course, a full assessment of AutoPass will require the design and implementation of at least one prototype, and subsequent user testing. Nonetheless, we can at least reconsider the issues we identified in existing systems (see section 4) and analyse to what extent AutoPass addresses these concerns.

By using a combination of stored secret and memorised password/PIN as inputs to the generation process, we enable strong passwords to be generated while protecting against compromise through platform loss. Use of the URL enables automatic generation of site-specific passwords, and the optional use of digital objects enables passwords of varying strength and diversity to be generated without imposing an unnecessarily onerous load on the user for 'everyday' use. Use of the URL has residual problems, notably if a website URL changes, but user site names also have problems. In this connection, an advantage of the AutoPass approach is that password offsets enable the generated password to remain constant even if the URL changes.

The use of cloud-served password policies solves problems relating to site-specific requirements for passwords. The problems arising from a desire to continue using existing passwords and the potential need to change passwords are conveniently addressed by the use of cloud-stored password configuration data. Password generation/synchronisation issues arising from the use of multiple platforms can also be addressed through the use of a cloud service. Of course, use of a cloud service brings with it certain availability and security risks. However, by only storing non-sensitive data in the cloud, and also using caching, these problems are largely addressed.

7 Concluding Remarks

We introduced a general model for password generation, and considered all the existing proposals in the context of this model. The model enables us to analyse the advantages and disadvantages of a range of approaches to building such systems. It also enables us to propose certain new options to enhance such schemes.

This paper is primarily theoretical; it provides a general framework to study the design of password generation schemes. The operation of a novel scheme, AutoPass, has been sketched, but has not yet been tested in practice. The obvious next step is to prototype aspects of AutoPass, both to verify that the underlying ideas work and also to provide a basis for practical user trials.

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