

Appendix

Appendix

❑ Math basics

- Modular arithmetic
- Permutations
- Probability
- Linear algebra

❑ Networking basics

- Protocol stack, layers, etc.

Crypto Math Basics

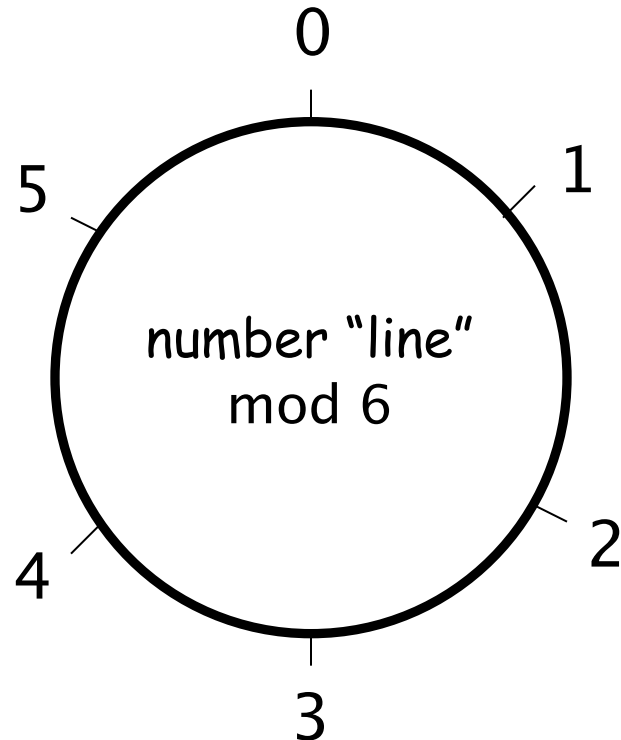
Modular Arithmetic

Clock Arithmetic

- For integers x and n , " $x \bmod n$ " is the remainder when we compute $x \div n$
 - We can also say " x modulo n "

- Examples

- $7 \bmod 6 = 1$
- $33 \bmod 5 = 3$
- $33 \bmod 6 = 3$
- $51 \bmod 17 = 0$
- $17 \bmod 6 = 5$



Modular Addition

□ Notation and facts

- $7 \bmod 6 = 1$
- $7 = 13 = 1 \bmod 6$
- $((a \bmod n) + (b \bmod n)) \bmod n = (a + b) \bmod n$
- $((a \bmod n)(b \bmod n)) \bmod n = ab \bmod n$

□ Addition Examples

- $3 + 5 = 2 \bmod 6$
- $2 + 4 = 0 \bmod 6$
- $3 + 3 = 0 \bmod 6$
- $(7 + 12) \bmod 6 = 19 \bmod 6 = 1 \bmod 6$
- $(7 + 12) \bmod 6 = (1 + 0) \bmod 6 = 1 \bmod 6$

Modular Multiplication

□ Multiplication Examples

- $3 \cdot 4 = 0 \pmod{6}$
- $2 \cdot 4 = 2 \pmod{6}$
- $5 \cdot 5 = 1 \pmod{6}$
- $(7 \cdot 4) \bmod 6 = 28 \bmod 6 = 4 \bmod 6$
- $(7 \cdot 4) \bmod 6 = (1 \cdot 4) \bmod 6 = 4 \bmod 6$

Modular Inverses

- *Additive inverse* of $x \bmod n$, denoted $-x \bmod n$, is the number that must be added to x to get $0 \bmod n$
 - $-2 \bmod 6 = 4$, since $2 + 4 = 0 \bmod 6$
- *Multiplicative inverse* of $x \bmod n$, denoted $x^{-1} \bmod n$, is the number that must be multiplied by x to get $1 \bmod n$
 - $3^{-1} \bmod 7 = 5$, since $3 \cdot 5 = 1 \bmod 7$

Modular Arithmetic Quiz

- ❑ Q: What is $-3 \bmod 6$?
- ❑ A: 3
- ❑ Q: What is $-1 \bmod 6$?
- ❑ A: 5
- ❑ Q: What is $5^{-1} \bmod 6$?
- ❑ A: 5
- ❑ Q: What is $2^{-1} \bmod 6$?
- ❑ A: No number works!
- ❑ Multiplicative inverse might not exist

Relative Primality

- x and y are **relatively prime** if they have no common factor other than 1
- $x^{-1} \bmod y$ exists only when x and y are relatively prime
- If it exists, $x^{-1} \bmod y$ is easy to compute using Euclidean Algorithm
 - We won't do the computation here

Totient Function

- $\varphi(n)$ is “the number of numbers less than n that are relatively prime to n ”
 - Here, “numbers” are positive integers
- Examples
 - $\varphi(4) = 2$ since 4 is relatively prime to 3 and 1
 - $\varphi(5) = 4$ since 5 is relatively prime to 1,2,3,4
 - $\varphi(12) = 4$
 - $\varphi(p) = p-1$ if p is prime
 - $\varphi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$ if p and q prime

Permutations

Permutation Definition

- Let S be a set
- A permutation of S is an ordered list of the elements of S
 - Each element of S appears exactly once
- Suppose $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$
 - Then the number of perms is...
 - $n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (2)(1) = n!$

Permutation Example

- ❑ Let $S = \{0,1,2,3\}$
- ❑ Then there are 24 perms of S
- ❑ For example,
 - $(3,1,2,0)$ is a perm of S
 - $(0,2,3,1)$ is a perm of S , etc.
- ❑ Perms are important in cryptography

Probability Basics

Discrete Probability

- We only require some elementary facts
- Suppose that $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$ is the set of all possible outcomes
- If each outcome is equally likely, then the probability of event $E \subseteq S$ is
 - $P(E) = \# \text{ elements in } E / \# \text{ elements in } S$

Probability Example

- ❑ For example, suppose we flip 2 coins
- ❑ Then $S = \{hh, ht, th, tt\}$
 - Suppose $X = \text{"at least one tail"} = \{ht, th, tt\}$
 - Then $P(X) = 3/4$
- ❑ Often, it's easier to compute
 - $P(X) = 1 - P(\text{complement of } X)$

Complement

- Again, suppose we flip 2 coins
- Let $S = \{hh, ht, th, tt\}$
 - Suppose $X = \text{"at least one tail"} = \{ht, th, tt\}$
 - Complement of X is "no tails" = $\{hh\}$
- Then
 - $P(X) = 1 - P(\text{comp. of } X) = 1 - 1/4 = 3/4$
- We make use of this trick often!

Linear Algebra Basics

Vectors and Dot Product

- Let \mathbb{R} be the set of real numbers
- Then $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector of n elements
- For example
 - $v = [v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4] = [2, -1, 3.2, 7] \in \mathbb{R}^4$
- The dot product of $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is
 - $u \cdot v = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \dots + u_nv_n$

Matrix

- A matrix is an $n \times m$ array
- For example, the matrix A is 2×3

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The element in row i column j is a_{ij}
- We can multiply a matrix by a number

$$3A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \cdot 3 & 3 \cdot 4 & 3 \cdot 2 \\ 3 \cdot 1 & 3 \cdot 7 & 3 \cdot 9 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 12 & 6 \\ 3 & 21 & 27 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix Addition

- We can add matrices of the same size

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 6 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 6 \\ 7 & 7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

- We can also multiply matrices, but this is not so obvious
- We do **not** simply multiply the elements

Matrix Multiplication

- Suppose A is $m \times n$ and B is $s \times t$
- Then $C=AB$ is only defined if $n=s$, in which case C is $m \times t$
- Why?
- The element c_{ij} is the dot product of row i of A with column j of B

Matrix Multiply Example

□ Suppose

$$B = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 \\ 2 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 2 \\ 1 & 7 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

□ Then

$$BA = C_{2 \times 3} = \begin{bmatrix} [-1, 2] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} & [-1, 2] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} & [-1, 2] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} \\ [2, -3] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} & [2, -3] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} & [2, -3] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 10 & 16 \\ 3 & -13 & -23 \end{bmatrix}$$

□ And AB is undefined

Matrix Multiply Useful Fact

- Consider $AU = B$ where A is a matrix and U and B are column vectors
- Let a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n be columns of A and u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n the elements of U
- Then $B = u_1 a_1 + u_2 a_2 + \dots + u_n a_n$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 6 \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 32 \end{bmatrix}$$

Identity Matrix

- A matrix is square if it has an equal number of rows and columns
- For square matrices, the identity matrix I is the multiplicative identity
 - $AI = IA = A$
- The 3×3 identity matrix is

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Block Matrices

- ❑ Block matrices are matrices of matrices
- ❑ For example

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} I_{n \times n} & C_{n \times 1} \\ A_{m \times n} & B_{m \times 1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} U_{n \times \ell} \\ T_{1 \times \ell} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ❑ We can do arithmetic with block matrices
- ❑ Block matrix multiplication works if individual matrix dimensions “match”

Block Matrix Multiplication

- ❑ Block matrices multiplication example
- ❑ For matrices

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} I_{n \times n} & C_{n \times 1} \\ A_{m \times n} & B_{m \times 1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} U_{n \times \ell} \\ T_{1 \times \ell} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ❑ We have

$$MV = \begin{bmatrix} X_{n \times \ell} \\ Y_{m \times \ell} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ❑ Where $X = U + CT$ and $Y = AU + BT$

Linear Independence

- Vectors $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ linearly independent if $au + bv = 0$ implies $a=b=0$
- For example,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Are linearly independent

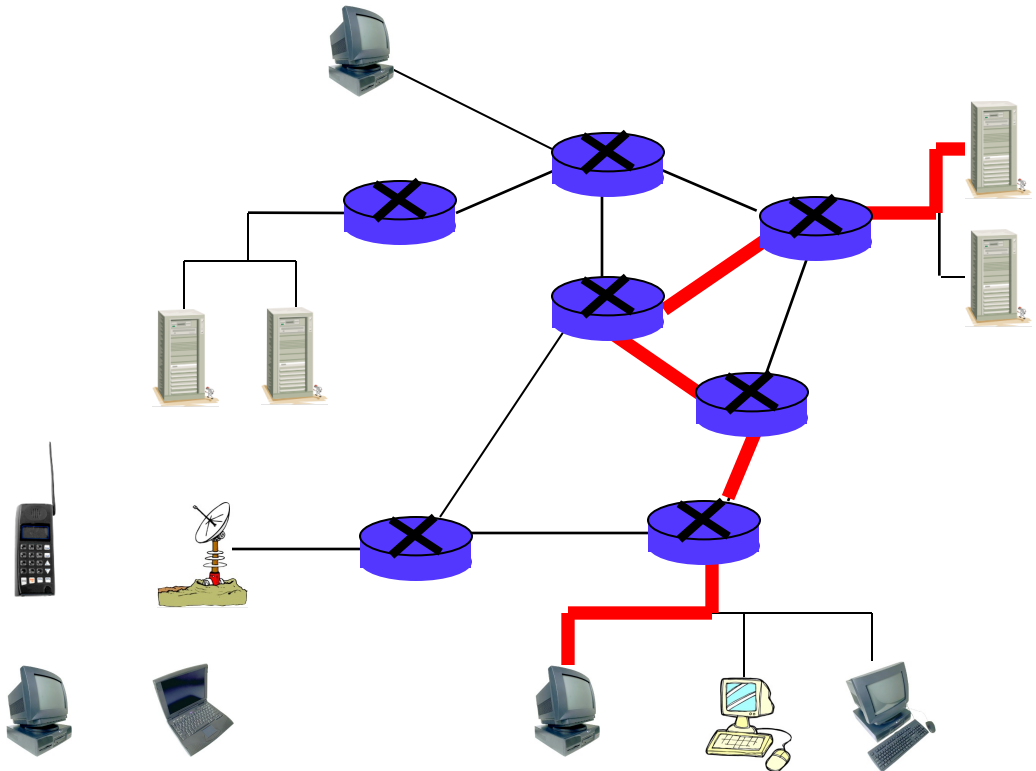
Linear Independence

- Linear independence can be extended to more than 2 vectors
- If vectors are linearly independent, then none of them can be written as a *linear combination* of the others
 - None of the independent vectors is a sum of multiples of the other vectors

Networking Basics

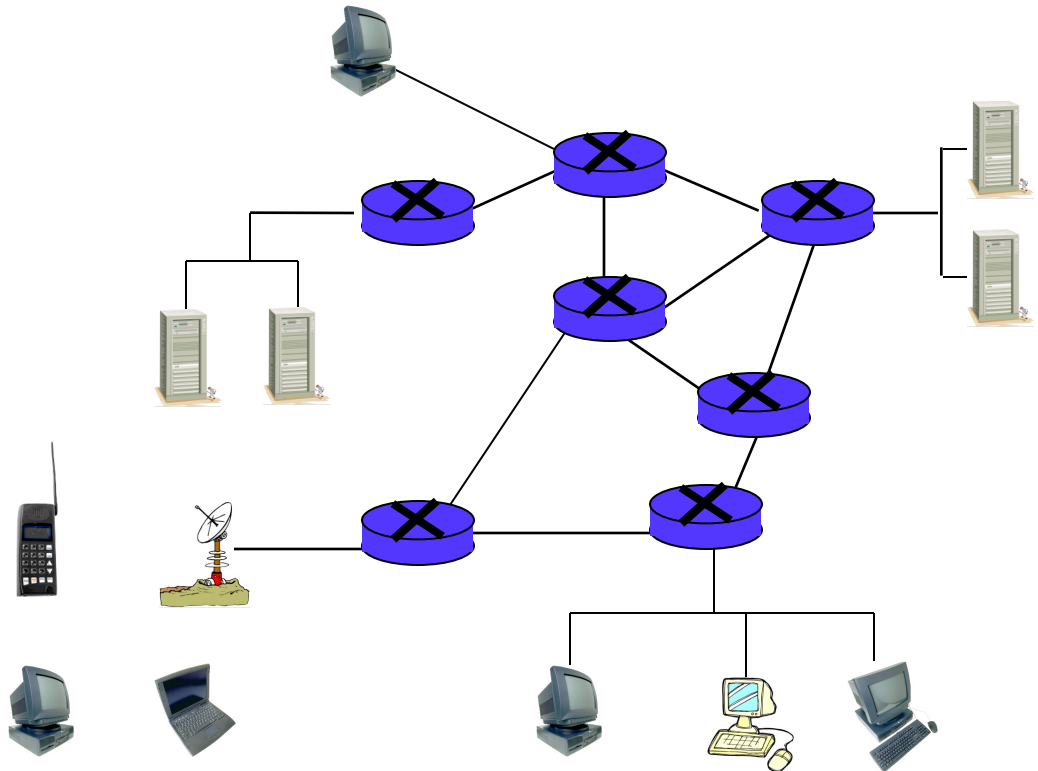
Network

- ❑ Includes
 - Computers
 - Servers
 - Routers
 - Wireless devices
 - Etc.
- ❑ Purpose is to transmit data



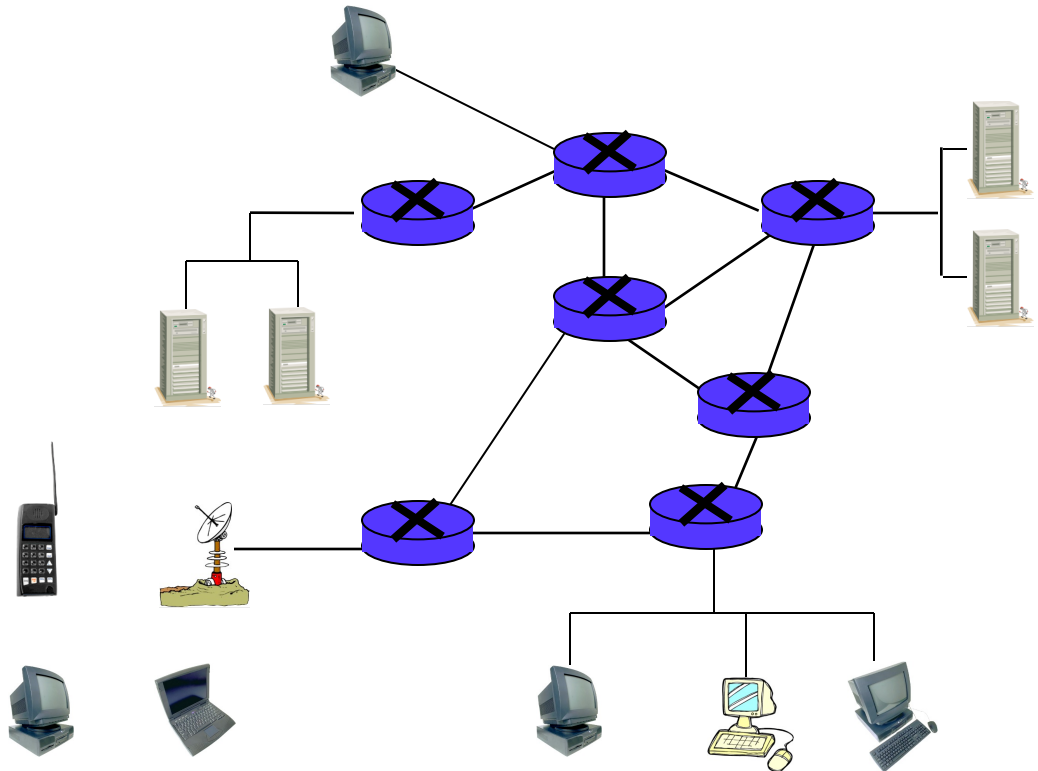
Network Edge

- ❑ Network **edge** includes
- ❑ Hosts
 - Computers
 - Laptops
 - Servers
 - Cell phones
 - Etc., etc.



Network Core

- ❑ Network **core** consists of
 - Interconnected mesh of routers
- ❑ Purpose is to move data from host to host



Packet Switched Network

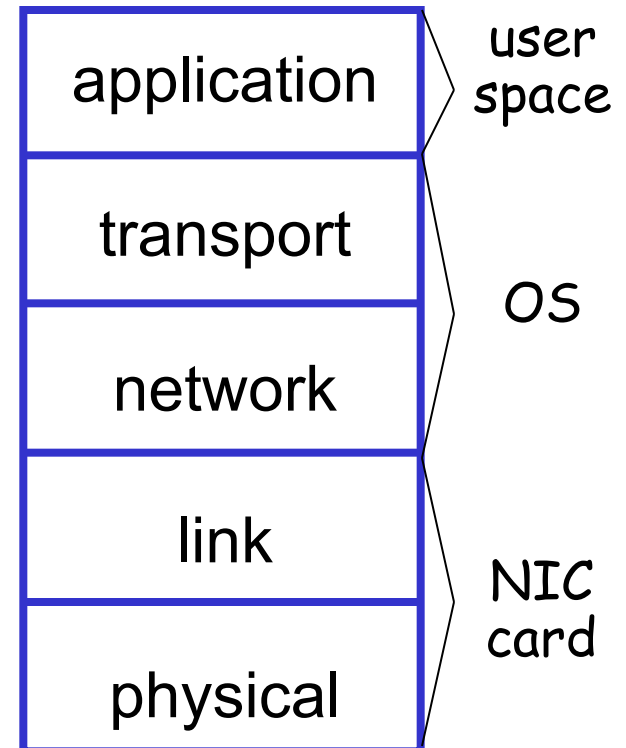
- ❑ Telephone network is/was circuit switched
 - For each call, a dedicated circuit established
 - Dedicated bandwidth
- ❑ Modern data networks are packet switched
 - Data is chopped up into discrete packets
 - Packets are transmitted independently
 - No dedicated circuit is established
 - More efficient bandwidth usage
 - But more complex than circuit switched

Network Protocols

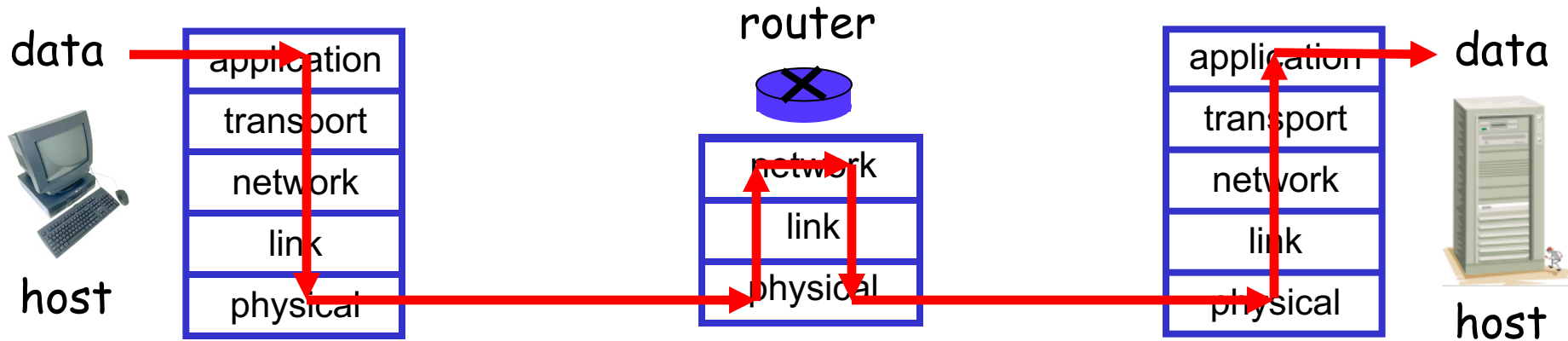
- ❑ Study of networking focused on protocols
- ❑ Networking protocols precisely specify “communication rules”
- ❑ Details are given in RFCs
 - RFC is essentially an Internet standard
- ❑ Stateless protocols don't remember
- ❑ Stateful protocols do remember
- ❑ Many security problems related to “state”
 - E.g., DoS is a problem with stateful protocols

Protocol Stack

- ❑ Application layer protocols
 - HTTP, FTP, SMTP, etc.
- ❑ Transport layer protocols
 - TCP, UDP
- ❑ Network layer protocols
 - IP, routing protocols
- ❑ Link layer protocols
 - Ethernet, PPP
- ❑ Physical layer



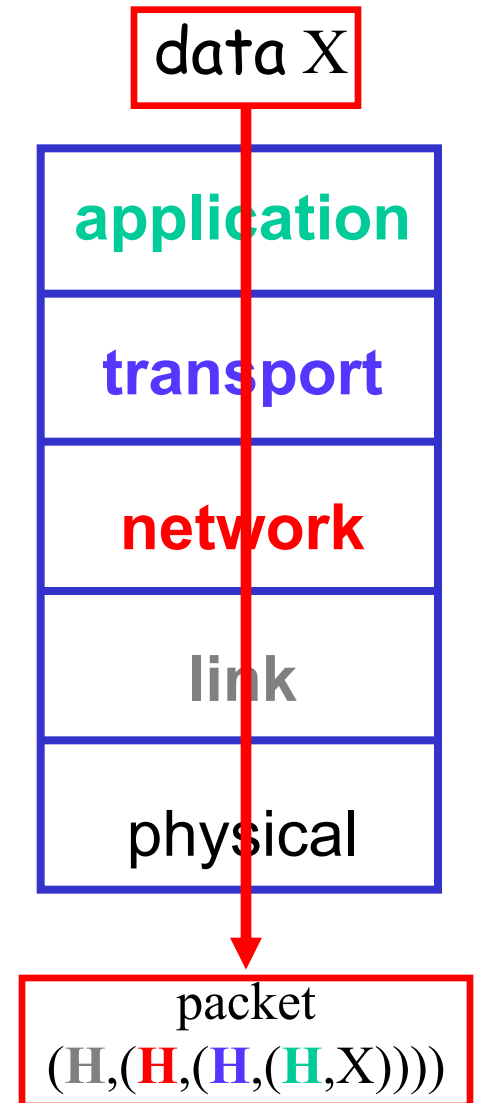
Layering in Action



- ❑ At source, data goes “down” the protocol stack
- ❑ Each router processes packet “up” to network layer
 - That’s where routing info lives
- ❑ Router then passes packet down the protocol stack
- ❑ Destination processes up to application layer
 - That’s where the data lives

Encapsulation

- ❑ X = application data at source
- ❑ As X goes down protocol stack, each layer adds header information:
 - Application layer: (H, X)
 - Transport layer: $(H, (H, X))$
 - Network layer: $(H, (H, (H, X)))$
 - Link layer: $(H, (H, (H, (H, X))))$
- ❑ Header has info required by layer
- ❑ Note that app data is on the inside



Application Layer

□ Applications

- Web browsing, email, P2P, etc.
- Running on hosts
- Hosts want network to be transparent

□ Application layer protocols

- HTTP, SMTP, IMAP, Gnutella, etc.

□ Protocol is only one part of an application

- For example, HTTP only a part of web browsing

Client-Server Model

- Client

- "speaks first"

- Server

- tries to respond to request

- Hosts are clients and/or servers

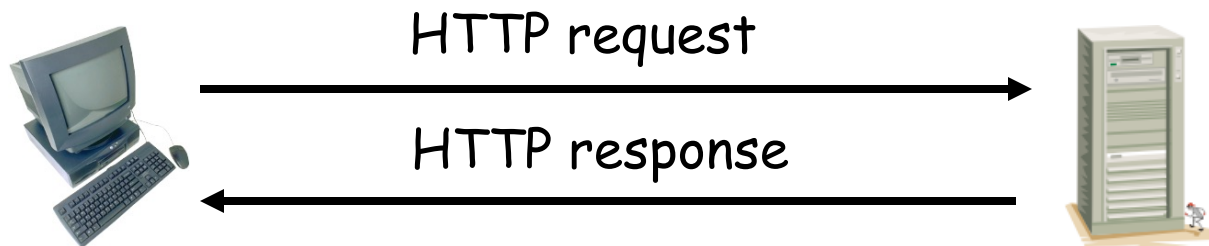
- Example: Web browsing

- You are the client (request web page)
 - Web server is the server

Peer-to-Peer Model

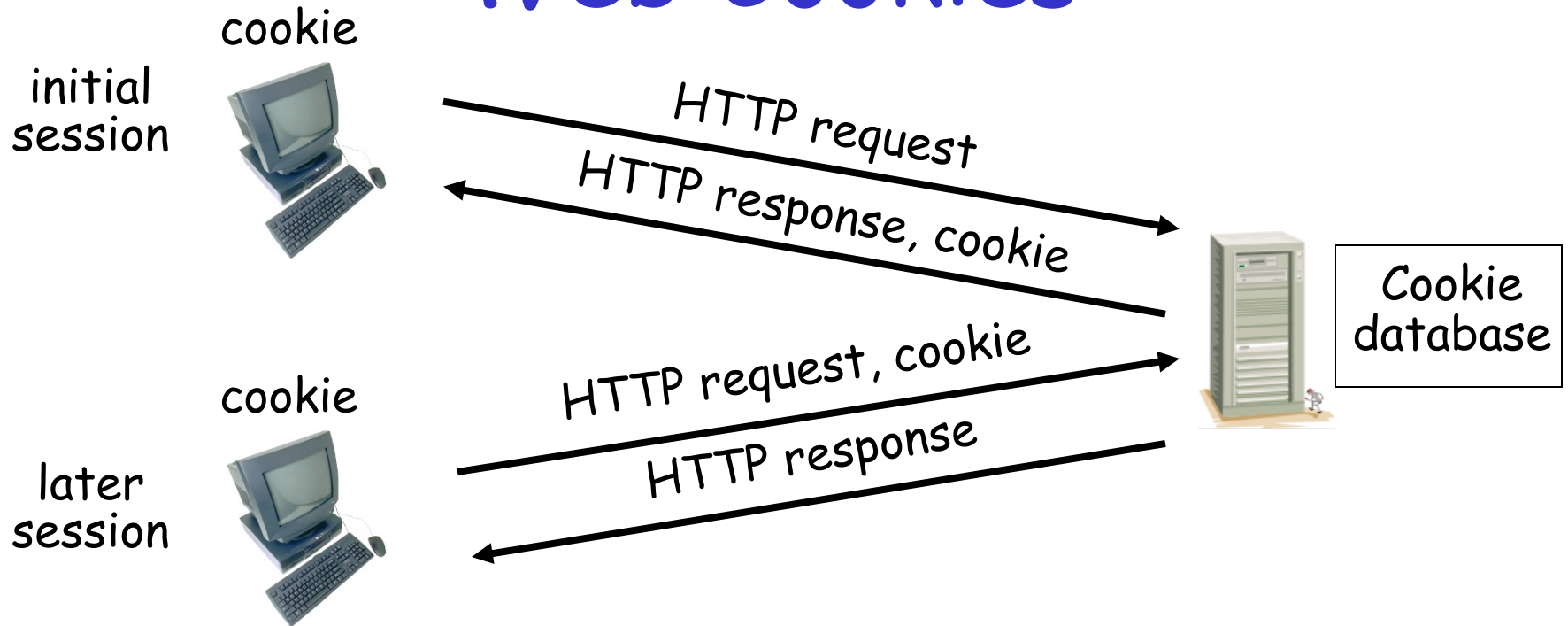
- ❑ Hosts act as clients and servers
- ❑ For example, when sharing music
 - You are client when requesting a file
 - You are a server when someone downloads a file from you
- ❑ In P2P, how does client find server?
 - Many different P2P models for this

HTTP Example



- HTTP --- HyperText Transfer Protocol
- Client (you) requests a web page
- Server responds to your request

Web Cookies



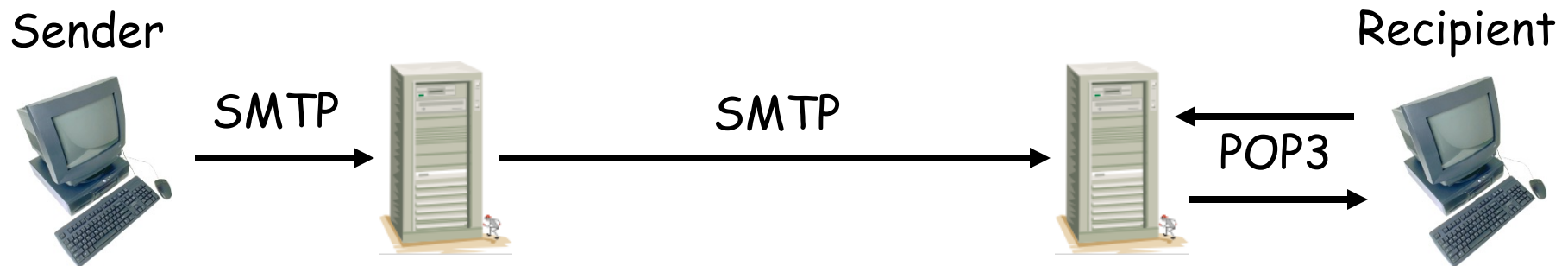
- ❑ HTTP is stateless — cookies used to add state
- ❑ Initially, cookie sent from server to browser
- ❑ Browser manages cookie, sends it to server
- ❑ Server looks in cookie database to "remember" you

Web Cookies

- ❑ Web cookies used for...
 - Shopping carts
 - Recommendations, etc., etc.
 - A very, very weak form of authentication
- ❑ Privacy concerns
 - Web site can learn a lot about you
 - Multiple web sites could learn even more

SMTP

- ❑ SMTP used to send email from sender to recipient's mail server
- ❑ Then use POP3, IMAP or HTTP (Web mail) to get messages from server
- ❑ As with many application protocols, SMTP commands are human readable



Spoofer email with SMTP

User types the red lines:

```
> telnet eniac.cs.sjsu.edu 25
220 eniac.sjsu.edu
HELO ca.gov
250 Hello ca.gov, pleased to meet you
MAIL FROM: <arnold@ca.gov>
250 arnold@ca.gov... Sender ok
RCPT TO: <stamp@cs.sjsu.edu>
250 stamp@cs.sjsu.edu ... Recipient ok
DATA
354 Enter mail, end with "." on a line by itself
It is my pleasure to inform you that you
are terminated
.
250 Message accepted for delivery
QUIT
221 eniac.sjsu.edu closing connection
```

Application Layer

- ❑ DNS --- Domain Name Service
 - Convert human-friendly names such as www.google.com into 32-bit IP address
 - A distributed hierarchical database
- ❑ Only 13 “root” DNS server clusters
 - Almost a single point of failure for Internet
 - Attacks on root servers have succeeded
 - But, attacks have not lasted long enough

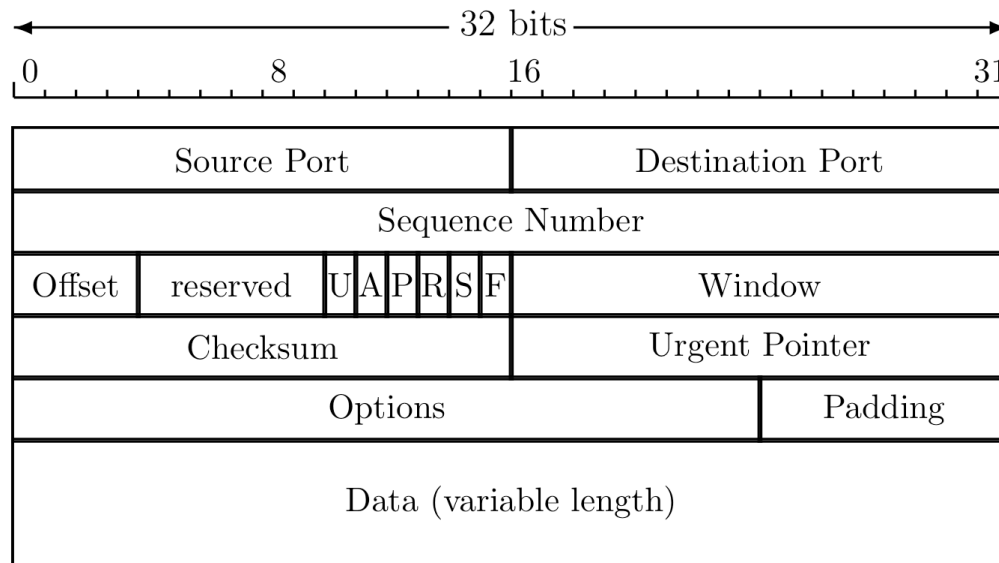
Transport Layer

- ❑ The network layer offers unreliable, “best effort” delivery of packets
- ❑ Any improved service must be provided by the hosts
- ❑ Transport layer: two protocols of interest
 - TCP — more service, more overhead
 - UDP — less service, less overhead
- ❑ TCP and UDP runs on hosts, not routers

TCP

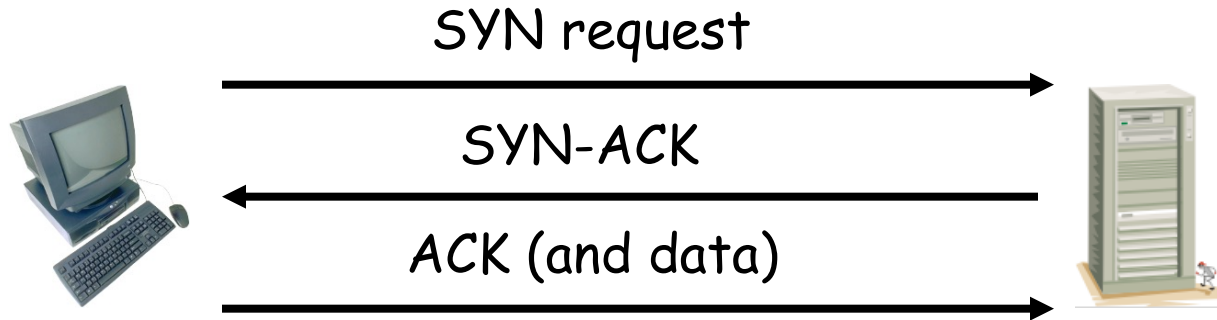
- ❑ TCP assures that packets...
 - Arrive at destination
 - Are processed in order
 - Are not sent too fast for receiver: **flow control**
- ❑ TCP also provides...
 - Network-wide **congestion control**
- ❑ TCP is **connection-oriented**
 - TCP contacts server before sending data
 - Orderly setup and take down of "connection"
 - No true connection, only a logical connection

TCP Header



- ❑ Source and destination port
- ❑ Sequence number
- ❑ Flags (ACK, SYN, RST, etc.)
- ❑ Usually 20 bytes (if no options)

TCP Three-Way Handshake



- ❑ **SYN**: synchronization requested
- ❑ **SYN-ACK**: acknowledge SYN request
- ❑ **ACK**: acknowledge msg 2 and send data
- ❑ Then TCP "connection" established
 - Connection terminated by FIN or RST

Denial of Service Attack

- ❑ The TCP 3-way handshake makes denial of service (DoS) attacks possible
- ❑ Whenever SYN packet is received, server must remember "half-open" connection
 - Remembering consumes resources
 - Too many half-open connections and server's resources will be exhausted, and then...
 - ...server can't respond to legitimate connections

UDP

- ❑ UDP is minimalist, “no frills” service
 - No assurance that packets arrive
 - No assurance packets are in order, etc., etc.
- ❑ Why does UDP exist?
 - More efficient (smaller header)
 - No flow control to slow down sender
 - No congestion control to slow down sender
- ❑ Packets sent too fast, they will be dropped
 - Either at intermediate router or at destination
 - But in some apps this is OK (audio/video)

Network Layer

- ❑ Core of network/Internet
 - Interconnected mesh of routers
- ❑ Purpose of network layer
 - Route packets through this mesh
- ❑ Network layer protocol is known as IP
 - Follows a **best effort** approach
- ❑ IP runs in every host and every router
- ❑ Routers also run routing protocols
 - Used to determine the path to send packets
 - Routing protocols: RIP, OSPF, BGP, ...

IP Addresses

- ❑ IP address is 32 bits
- ❑ Every host has an IP address
- ❑ Not enough IP addresses!
 - Lots of tricks used to extend address space
- ❑ IP addresses given in dotted decimal notation
 - For example: 195.72.180.27
 - Each number is between 0 and 255
- ❑ Usually, host's IP address can change

Socket

- ❑ Each host has a 32 bit IP address
- ❑ But many processes on one host
 - You can browse web, send email at same time
- ❑ How to distinguish processes on a host?
- ❑ Each process has a 16 bit **port number**
 - Port numbers < 1024 are "well-known" ports (HTTP is port 80, POP3 is port 110, etc.)
 - Port numbers above 1024 are dynamic (as needed)
- ❑ IP address and port number define a **socket**
 - Socket uniquely identifies process, Internet-wide

Network Address Translation

- ❑ Network Address Translation (**NAT**)
- ❑ Used to extend IP address space
- ❑ Use one IP address, different port numbers, for multiple hosts
 - "Translates" outside packet (based on port number) to IP for inside host

NAT-less Example



Web
server

IP: 12.0.0.1
Port: 80

source 11.0.0.1:1025
destination 12.0.0.1:80



source 12.0.0.1:80
destination 11.0.0.1:1025

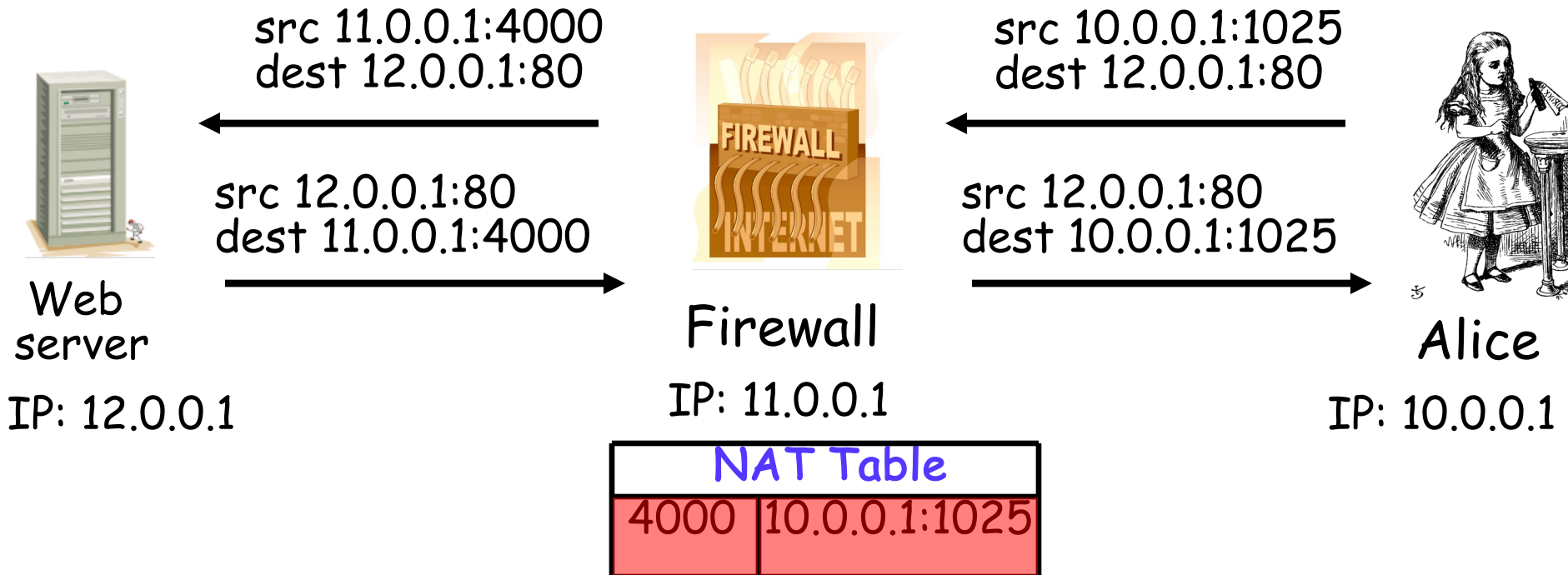


☆

Alice

IP: 11.0.0.1
Port: 1025

NAT Example



NAT: The Last Word

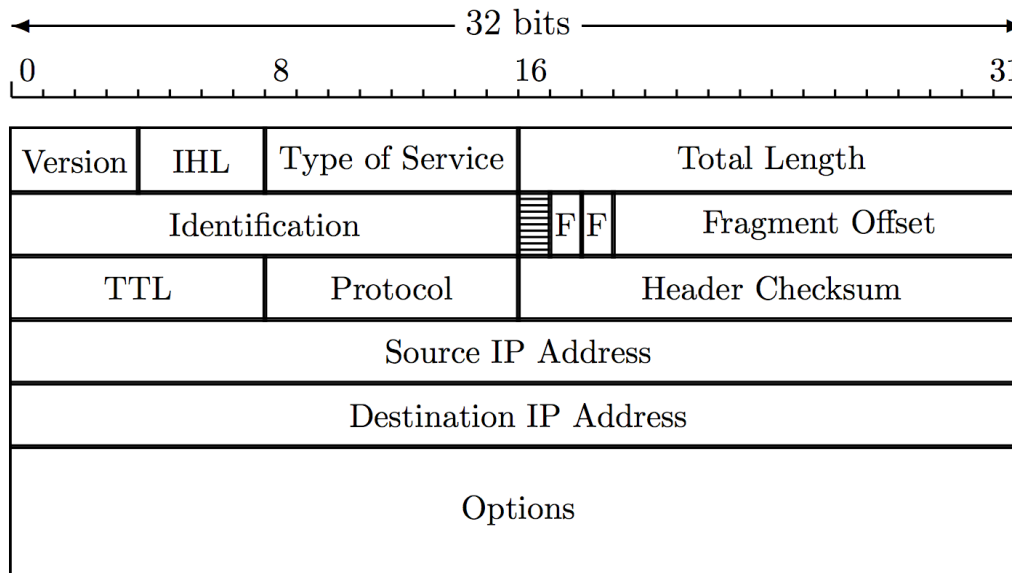
❑ Advantage(s)?

- Extends IP address space
- One (or a few) IP address(es) can be shared by many users

❑ Disadvantage(s)?

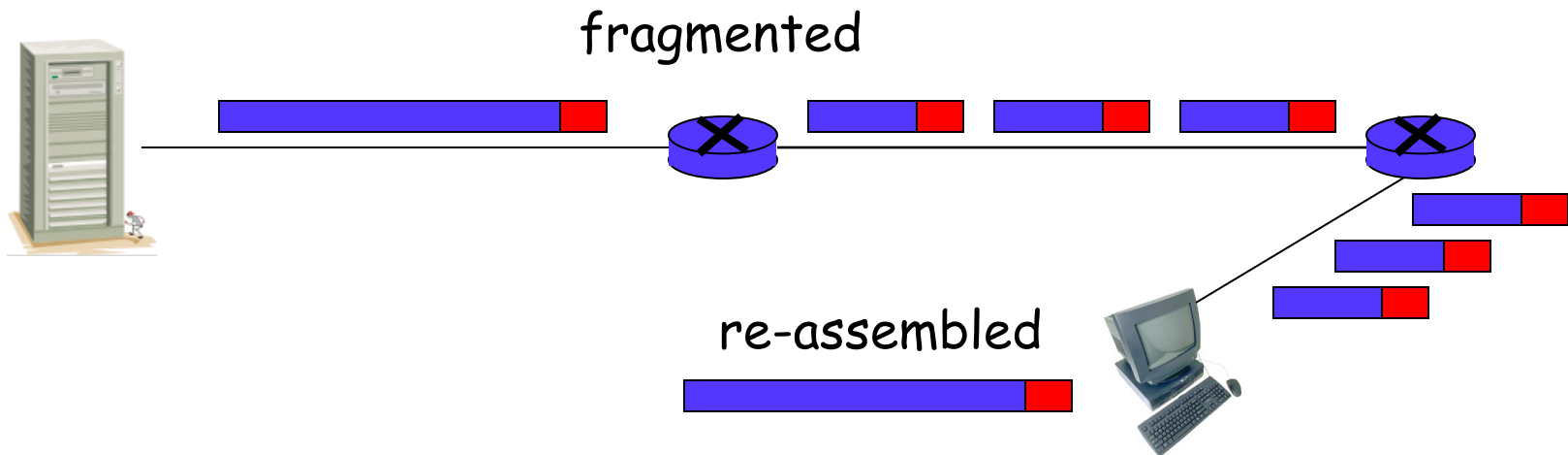
- Makes end-to-end security difficult
- Might make IPSec less effective (IPSec discussed in Chapter 10)

IP Header



- ❑ IP header used by routers
 - Note source and destination IP addresses
- ❑ Time to live (TTL) limits number of "hops"
 - So packets can't circulate forever
- ❑ Fragmentation information (see next slide)

IP Fragmentation



- ❑ Each link limits maximum size of packets
- ❑ If packet is too big, router fragments it
- ❑ Re-assembly occurs at destination

IP Fragmentation

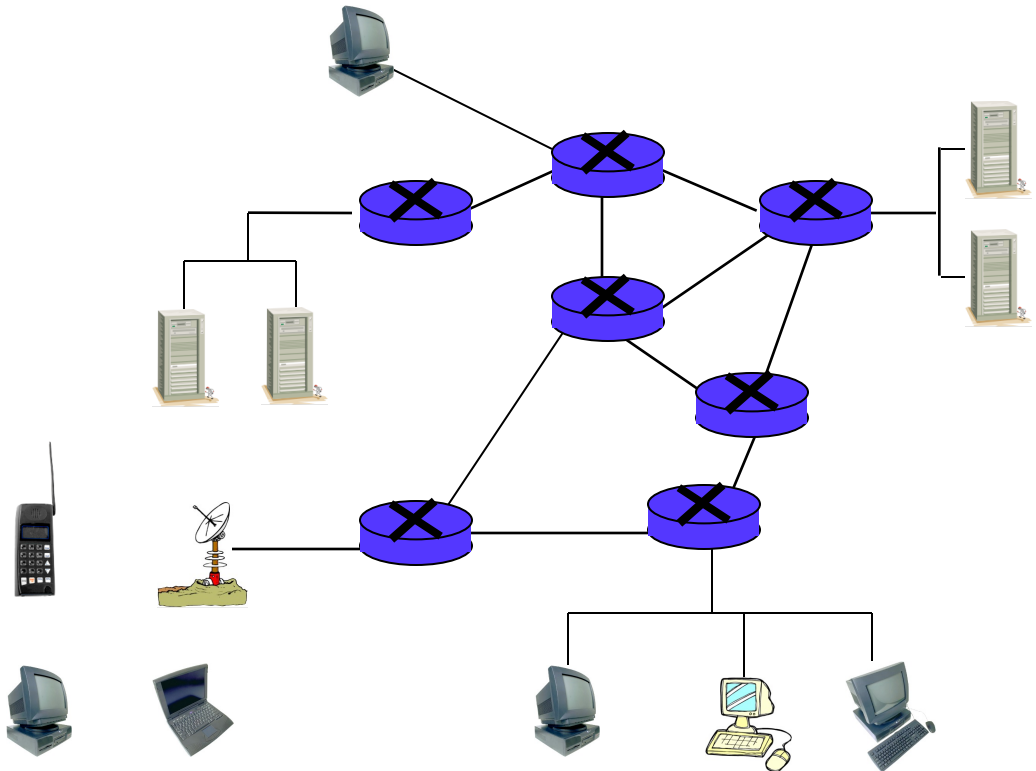
- ❑ One packet becomes multiple packets
- ❑ Packets reassembled at **destination**
 - Prevents multiple fragmentation/re-assemble
- ❑ Fragmentation is a security issue...
 - Fragments may obscure real purpose of packet
 - Fragments can overlap when re-assembled
 - Must re-assemble packet to fully understand it
 - Lots of work for firewalls, for example

IPv6

- ❑ Current version of IP is IPv4
- ❑ IPv6 is a "new-and-improved" version
- ❑ IPv6 is "bigger and better" than IPv4
 - *Bigger* addresses: 128 bits
 - *Better* security: IPSec
- ❑ How to migrate from IPv4 to IPv6?
 - Unfortunately, nobody has a good answer...
- ❑ So IPv6 has not taken hold (yet?)

Link Layer

- ❑ Link layer sends packet from one node to next
- ❑ Links can be different
 - Wired
 - Wireless
 - Ethernet
 - Point-to-point...



Link Layer

- ❑ On host, implemented in adapter:
Network Interface Card (NIC)
 - Ethernet card, wireless 802.11 card, etc.
 - NIC is "semi-autonomous" device
- ❑ NIC is (mostly) out of host's control
 - Implements both link and physical layers

Ethernet

- ❑ Ethernet is a **multiple access** protocol
- ❑ Many hosts access a shared media
 - On a local area network, or LAN
- ❑ With multiple access, packets can “collide”
 - Data is corrupted and packets must be resent
- ❑ How to efficiently deal with collisions in distributed environment?
 - Many possibilities, but ethernet is most popular
- ❑ We won't discuss details here...

Link Layer Addressing

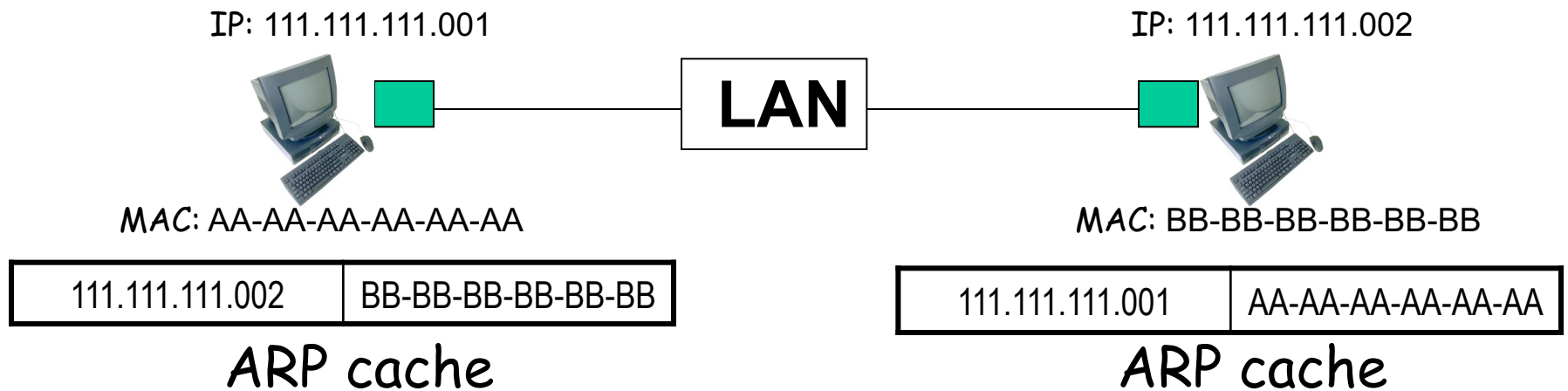
- ❑ IP addresses live at network layer
- ❑ Link layer also requires addresses (why?)
 - **MAC address** (LAN address, physical address)
- ❑ **MAC address**
 - 48 bits, globally unique
 - Used to forward packets over one link
- ❑ **Analogy...**
 - IP address is like your home address
 - MAC address is like a social security number

ARP

- ❑ Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)
- ❑ Used by link layer — given IP address, find corresponding MAC address
- ❑ Each host has ARP table, or **ARP cache**
 - Generated automatically
 - Entries expire after some time (about 20 min)
 - ARP used to find ARP table entries

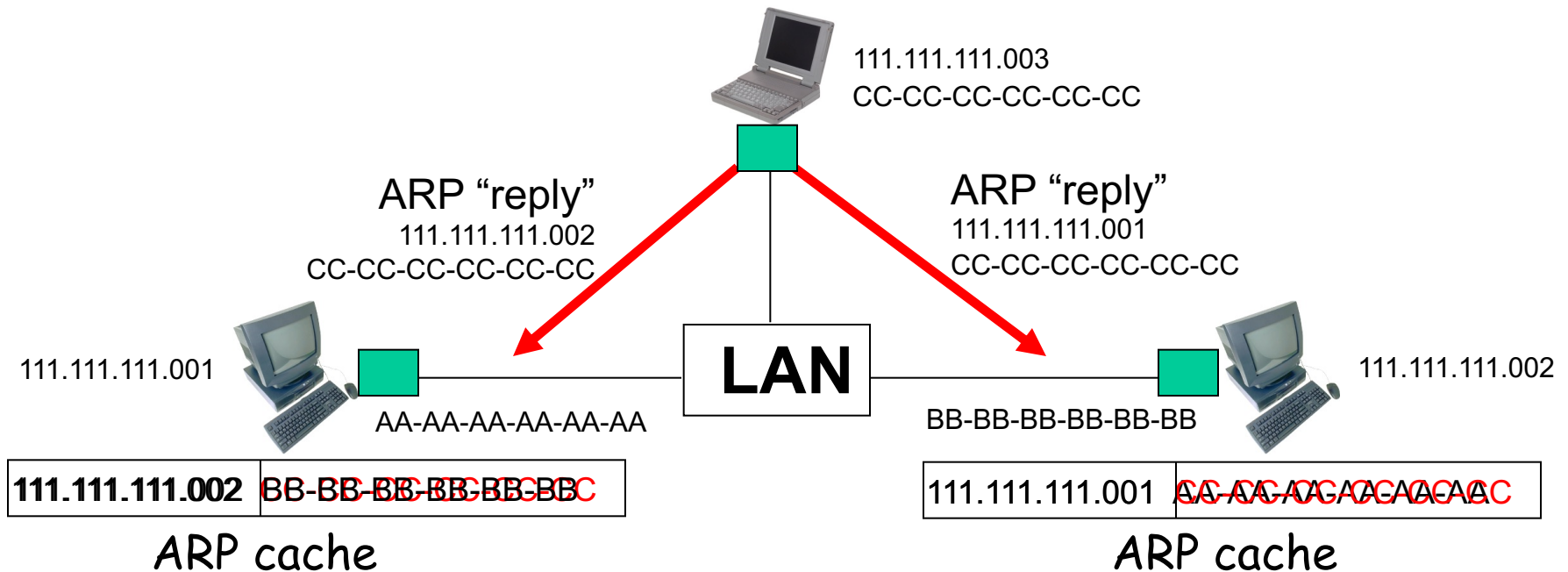
ARP

- ❑ ARP is *stateless*
- ❑ ARP sends **request** and receives ARP **reply**
- ❑ Replies used to fill ARP cache



ARP Cache Poisoning

- ARP is stateless, so...
- Accepts "reply", even if no request sent



- Host CC-CC-CC-CC-CC-CC is man-in-the-middle