# Appendix

# Appendix

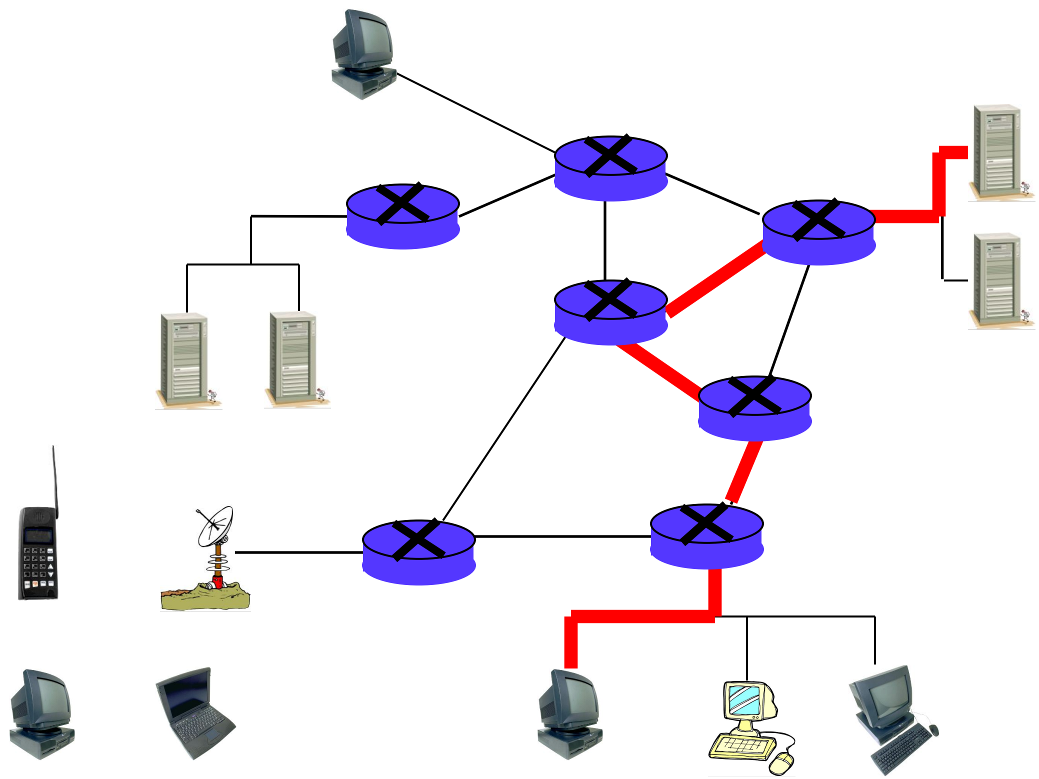
- Networking basics
  - Protocol stack, layers, etc.
- Math basics
  - Modular arithmetic
  - Permutations
  - Probability
  - Linear algebra

# Networking Basics

There are three kinds of death in this world.
There's heart death, there's brain death, and there's being off the network.
—Guy Almes

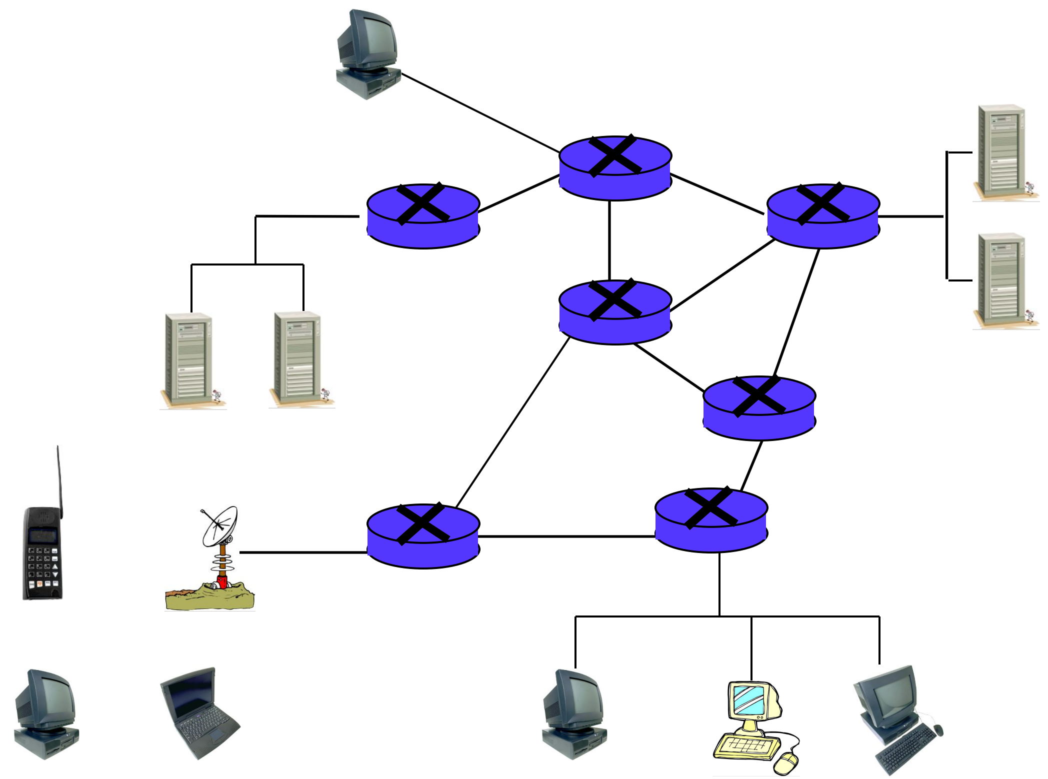
# Network

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



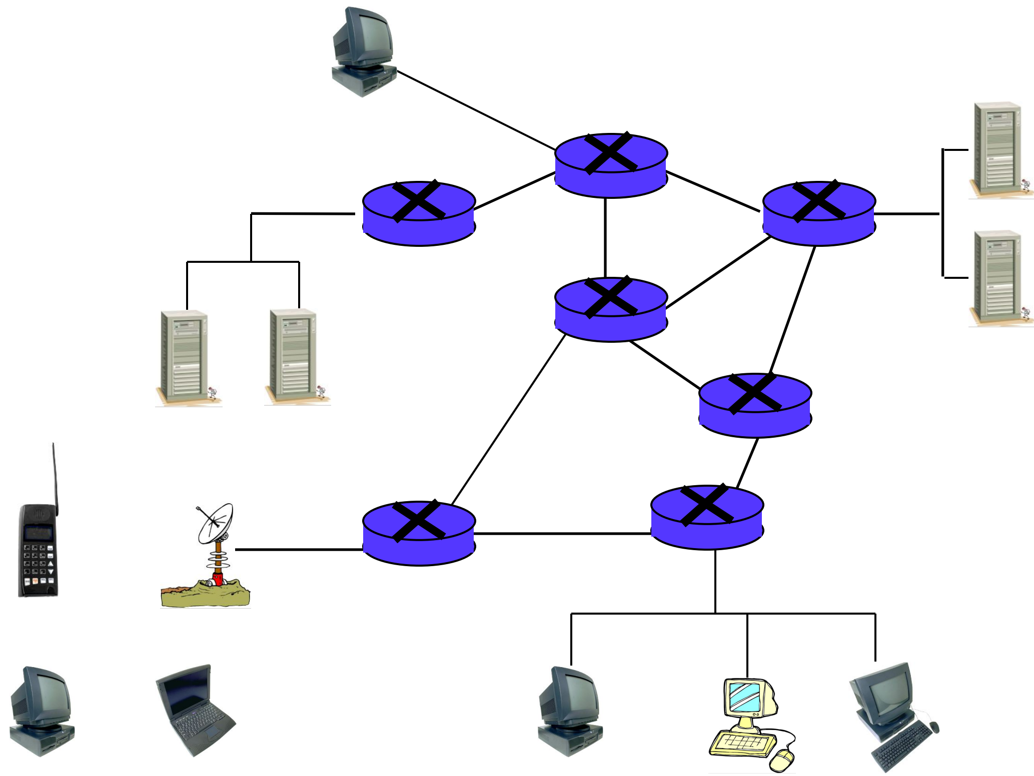
# Network Edge

- 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

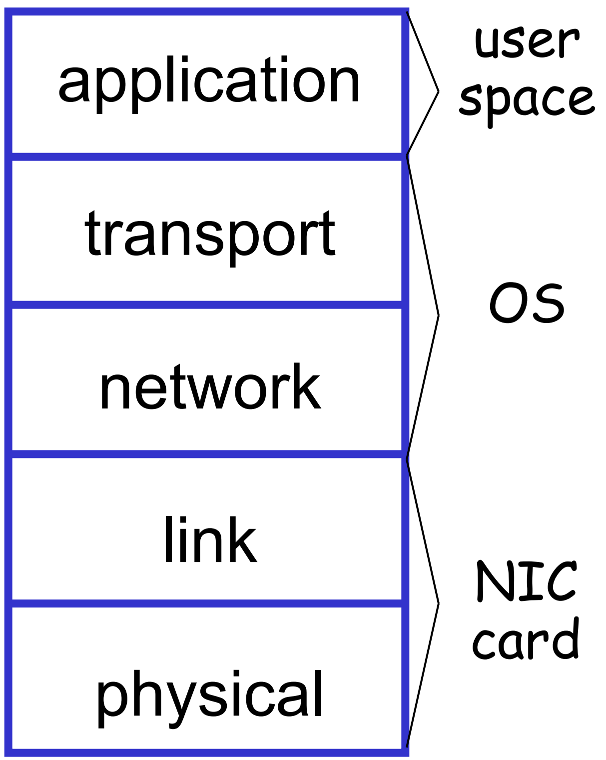
- Telephone network is/was **circuit switched**
  - For each call, a dedicated circuit established
  - Dedicated bandwidth
- Modern data networks are **packet switched**
  - Data is chopped up into discrete packets
  - Packets are transmitted independently
  - No dedicated circuit is established
  -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

# Network Protocols

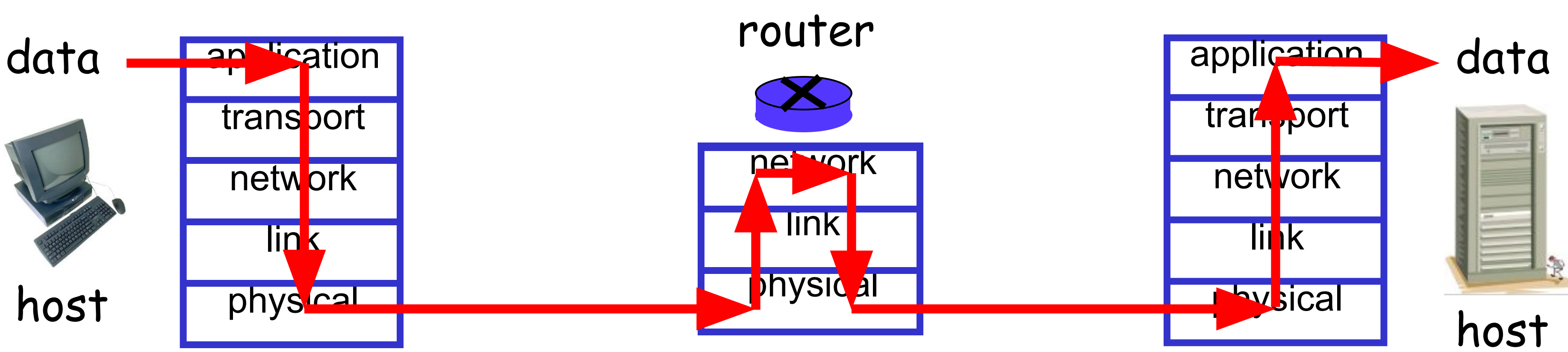
- Study of networking focused on **protocols**
- Networking protocols precisely specify "communication rules"
- Details are given in **RFC**s
  - RFC is essentially an Internet standard
- **Stateless** protocols do not "remember"
- **Stateful** protocols do "remember"
- Many security problems related 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



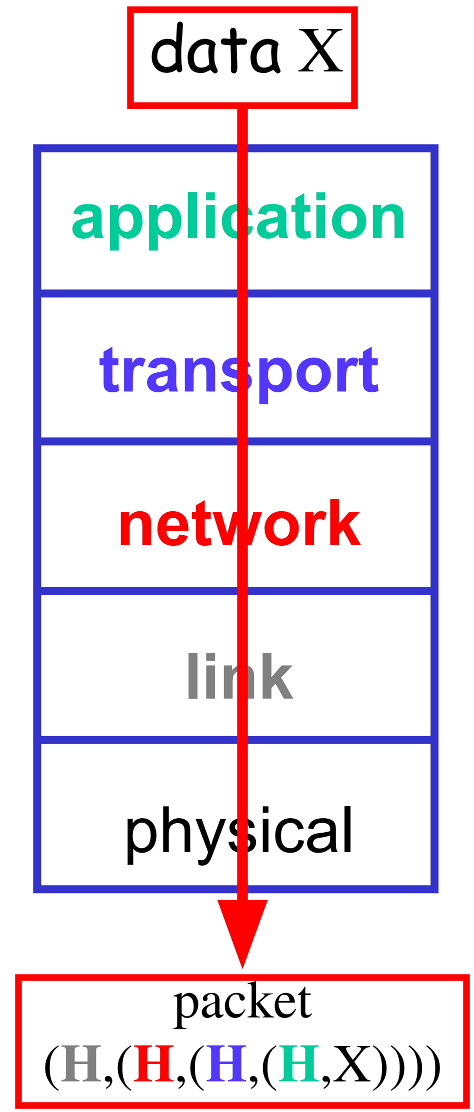
# Layering in Action




- 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 packet up to application layer
  - That's where the application 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
  - For example, Web browsing, email, P2P, etc.
  - Applications run on hosts
  - To hosts, network details should be transparent
- Application layer protocols
  - HTTP, SMTP, IMAP, Gnutella, etc., etc.
- Protocol is only one part of an application
  - For example, HTTP only a part of web browsing

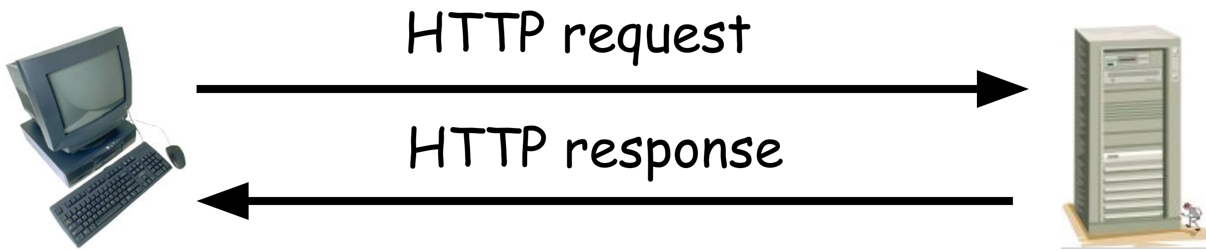
# Client-Server Model

- **Client**
  - "speaks first"
- **Server**
  - responds to client's request
- Hosts are clients or servers
- Example: Web browsing
  - You are the client (request web page)
  - Web server is the server

# Peer-to-Peer Paradigm

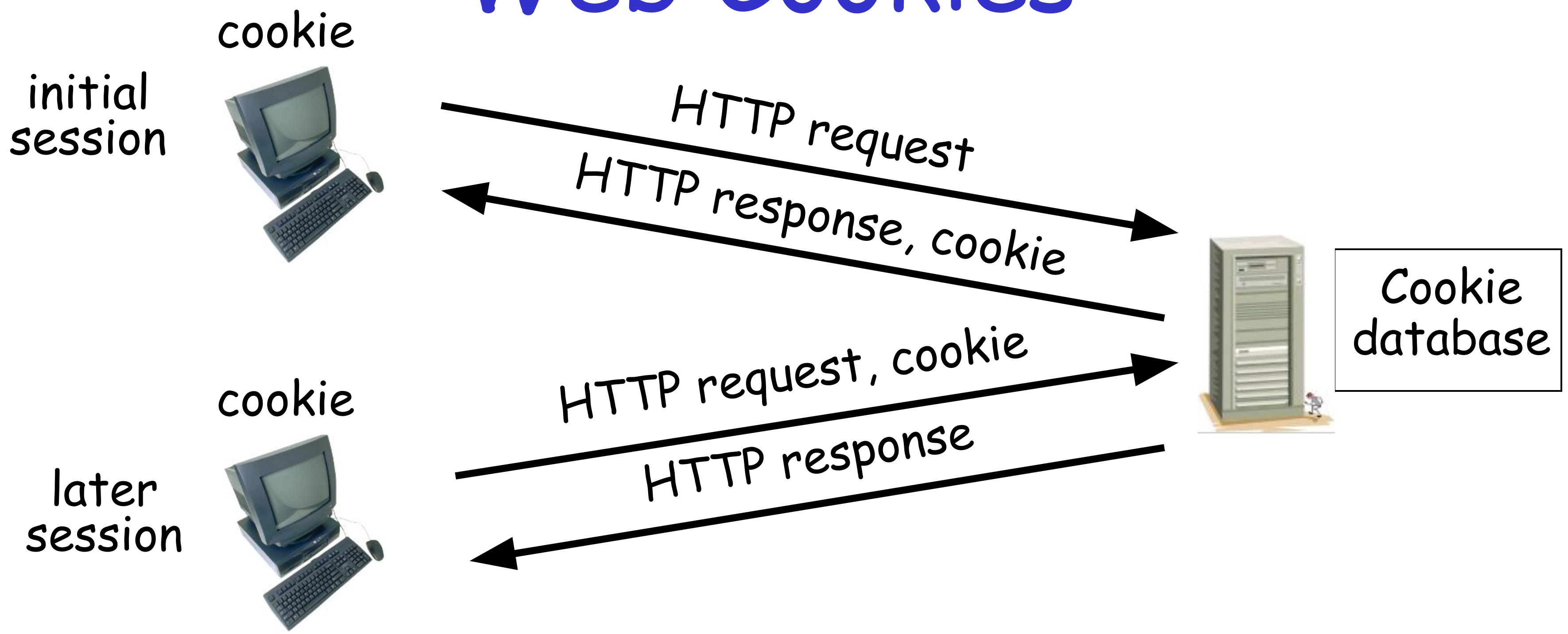
- Hosts act as clients and servers
- For example, when sharing music
  - You are client when requesting a file
  - You are a server when someone downloads a file from you
- In P2P, how does client find server?
  - Many different P2P models for this

# HTTP Example




- HTTP —**H**yper**T**ext **T**ransfer **P**rotocol
- Client (you) requests a web page
- Server responds to your request

# Web Cookies



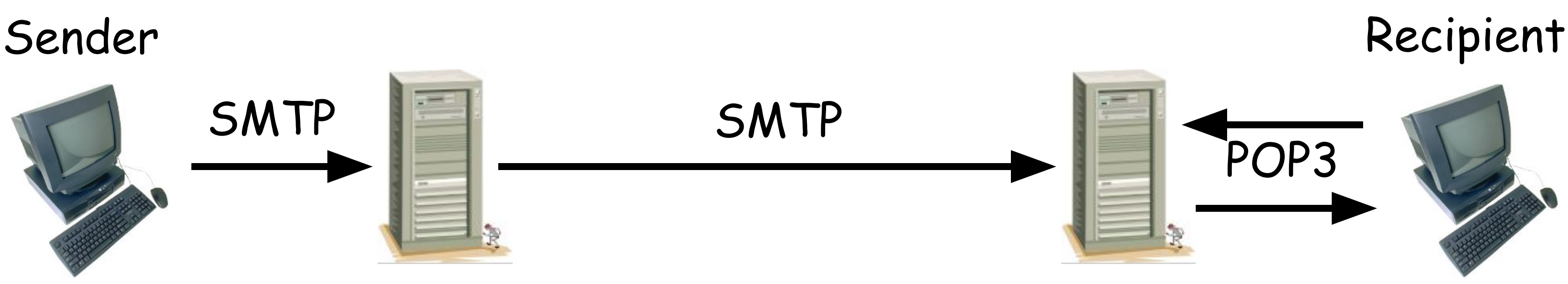

- HTTP is stateless —cookies used to add state
- Initially, cookie sent from server to browser
- Browser manages cookie, sends it to server
- Server uses cookie database to "remember" you

# Web Cookies

- Web cookies used for…
  - Shopping carts, recommendations, 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 deliver email from sender to recipient's mail server
- Then POP3, IMAP or HTTP (Web mail) used to get messages from server
- As with many application protocols, SMTP commands are human readable



# Spoofed 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
  - Essentially, a single point of failure for Internet
  - Attacks on root servers have succeeded…
  - …but, attacks did not last long enough (yet)

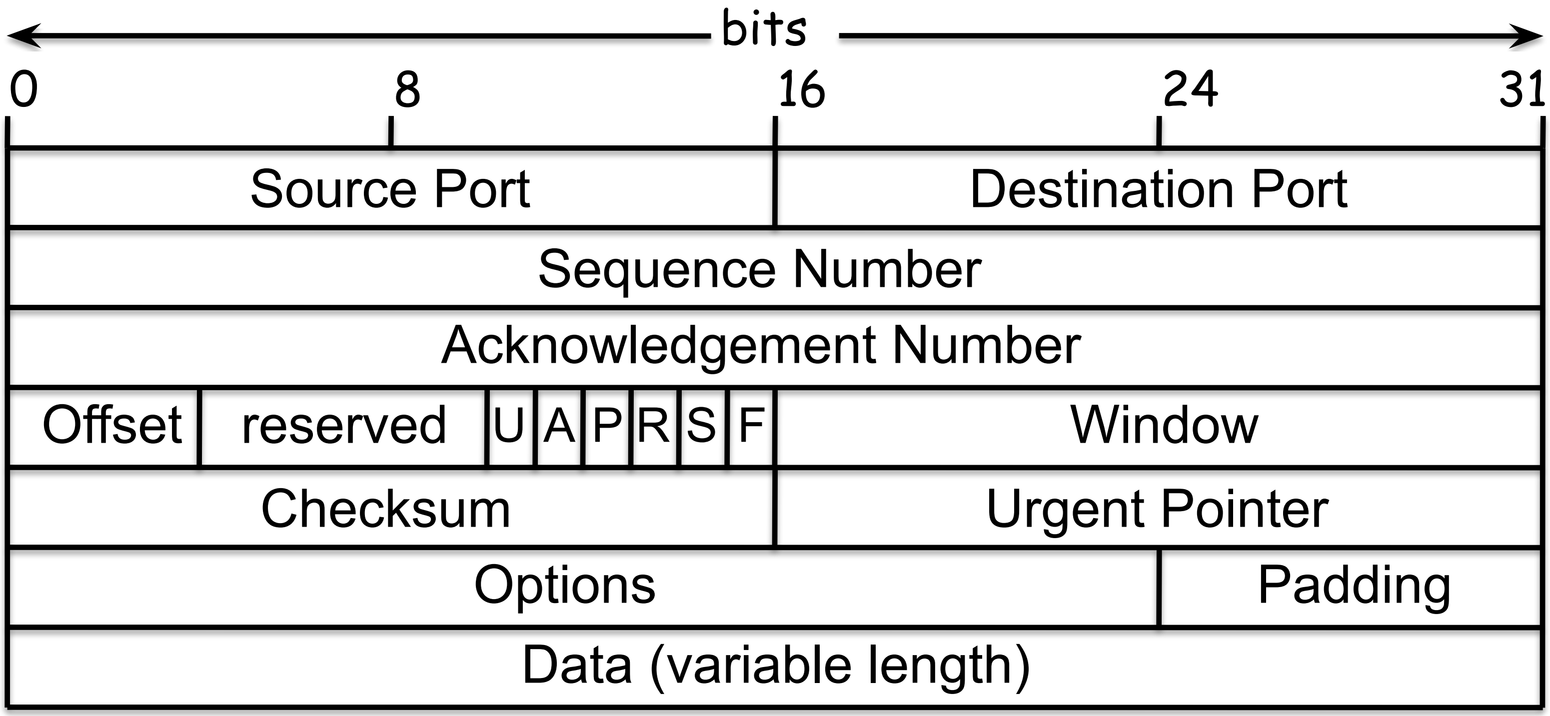
# Transport Layer

- The network layer offers unreliable, "best effort" delivery of packets
- Any improved service must be provided by the hosts
- Transport layer: 2 protocols of interest
  - TCP — **more** service, **more** overhead
  - UDP — **less** service, **less** overhead
- TCP and UDP run on hosts, not routers

# TCP

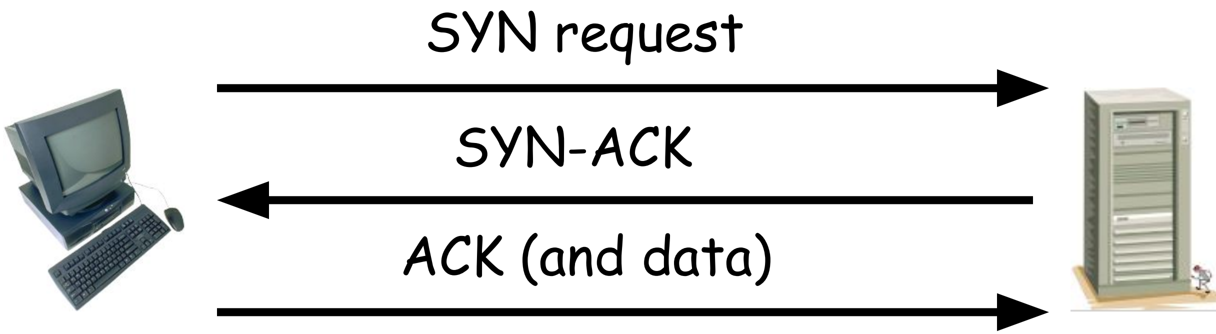
- TCP assures that packets…
  - Arrive at destination
  - Are processed in order
  - Are not sent too fast for receiver: **flow control**
- TCP also attempts to provide…
  - Network-wide **congestion control**
- TCP is **connection-oriented**
  - TCP contacts server before sending data
  - Orderly setup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

# TCP Header




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

# TCP Three-Way Handshake




- **SYN** —synchronization requested
- **SYN-ACK** —acknowledge SYN request
- **ACK** —acknowledge SYN-ACK (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 remembers this "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
- This occurs because TCP is ***stateful***

# 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 (header only 8 bytes)
  - No flow control to slow down sender
  - No congestion control to slow down sender
- If packets sent too fast, will be dropped
  - Either at intermediate router or at destination
  - But in some apps this may be 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 of interest is **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
- Big problem —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, a host's IP address can change

# Socket

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

# Network Address Translation

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

# NAT-less Example

source 11.0.0.1:1025
destination 12.0.0.1:80

source 12.0.0.1:80
destination 11.0.0.1:1025

Web
server

IP: 12.0.0.1
Port: 80

Alice

IP: 11.0.0.1
Port: 1025

# NAT Example

src 11.0.0.1:4000
dest 12.0.0.1:80

src 12.0.0.1:80
dest 11.0.0.1:4000

src 10.0.0.1:1025
dest 12.0.0.1:80

src 12.0.0.1:80
dest 10.0.0.1:1025

Web server

IP: 12.0.0.1


Firewall

IP: 11.0.0.1

Alice

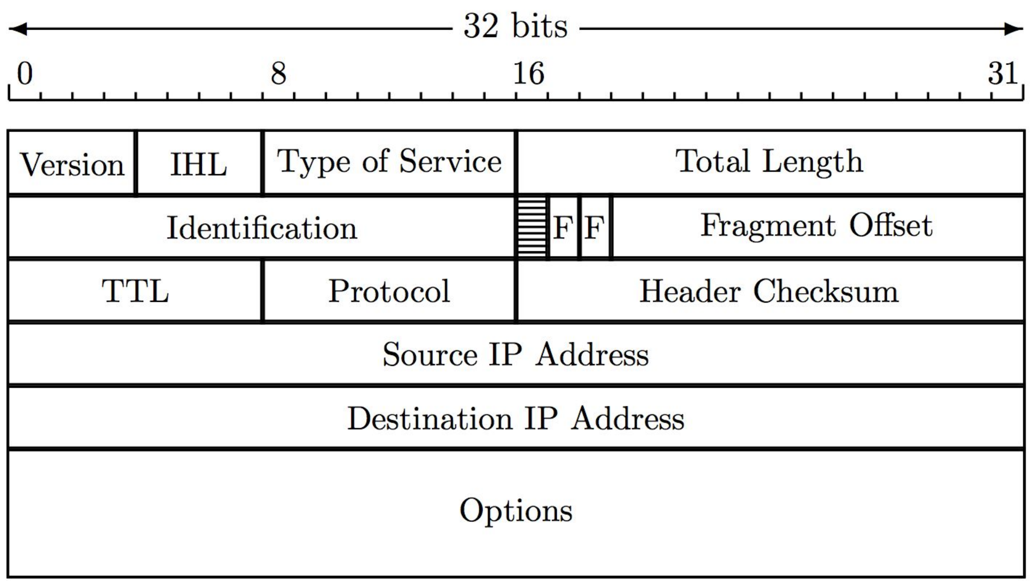
IP: 10.0.0.1

| NAT Table | |
|---|---|
| 4000 | 10.0.0.1:1025 |

# NAT: The Last Word

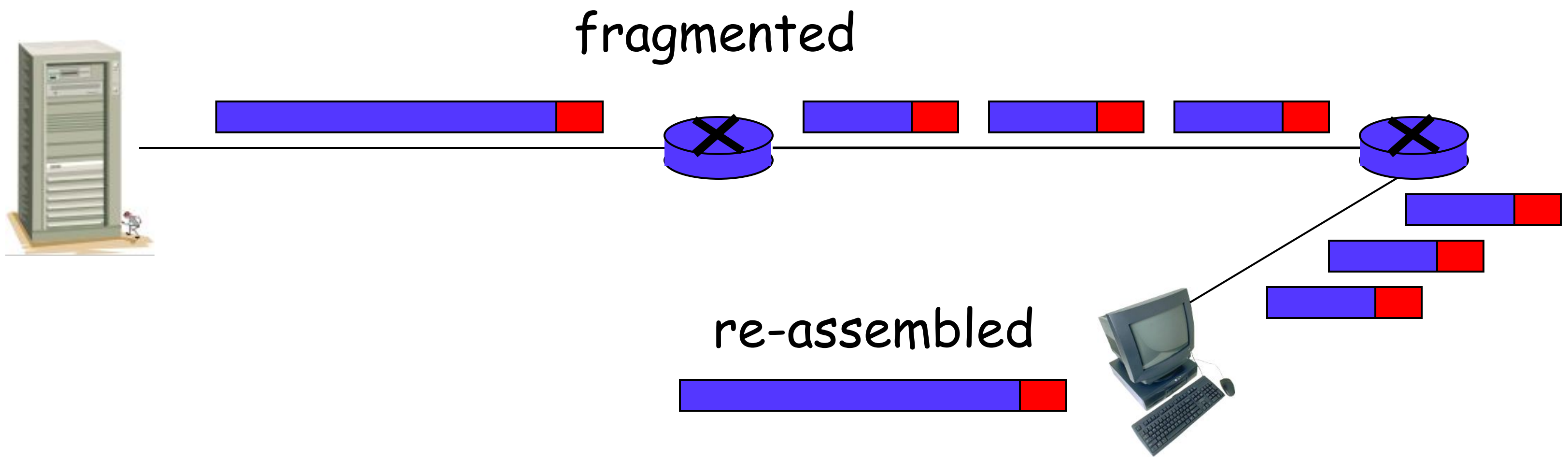
- Advantage(s)?
  - Extends IP address space
  - One (or a few) IP address(es) can be shared by many users
- Disadvantage(s)?
  - End-to-end security is more difficult
  - Might make IPSec less effective (IPSec discussed in Chapter 10)

# IP Header




- IP header has necessary info for routers
  - E.g., 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

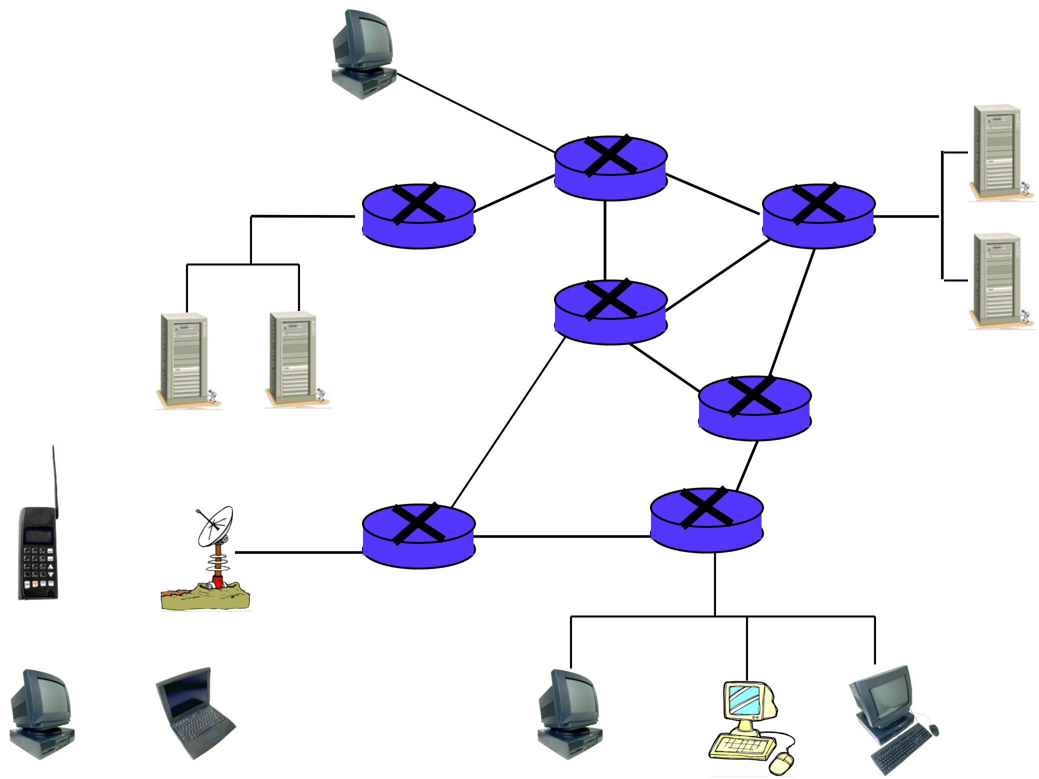
- One packet becomes multiple packets
- Packets reassembled at **destination**
  - Prevents multiple fragmentation/reassemble
- Fragmentation is a security issue…
  - Fragments may obscure real purpose of packet
  - Fragments can overlap when reassembled
  - Must reassemble packet to fully understand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

# IPv6

- Current version of IP is IPv4
- IPv6 is a "new-and-improved" version of IP
- IPv6 is "bigger and better" than IPv4
  - ***Bigger*** addresses: 128 bits
  - ***Better*** security: IPSec
- How to migrate from IPv4 to IPv6?
  - Unfortunately, nobody thought about that…
- So IPv6 has not really 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, ethernet is most popular
- We won't discuss details here…

# Link Layer Addressing

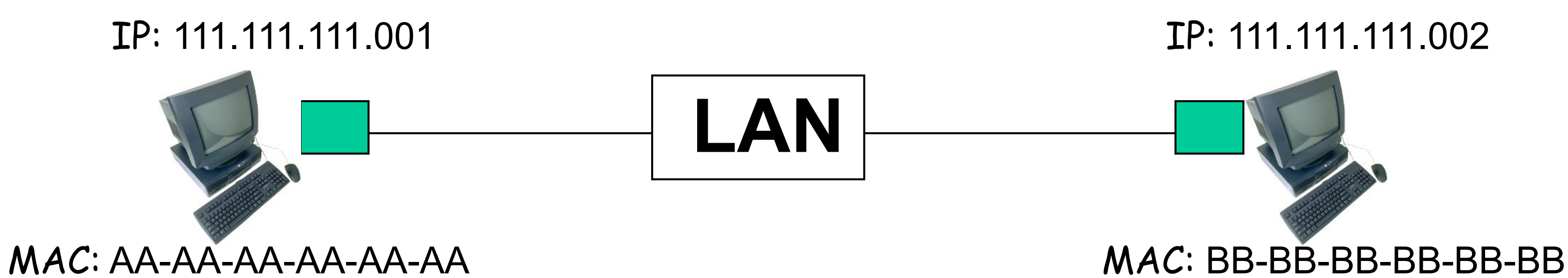
- IP addresses live at network layer
- Link layer also needs addresses — Why?
  - **MAC address** (LAN address, physical address)
- MAC address
  - 48 bits, globally unique
  - Used to forward packets over one link
- Analogy…
  - IP address is like your home address
  - MAC address is like a social security 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 can send **request** and receive **reply**
- Reply msgs used to fill/update ARP cache




| | |
|---|---|
| 111.111.111.002 | BB-BB-BB-BB-BB-BB |

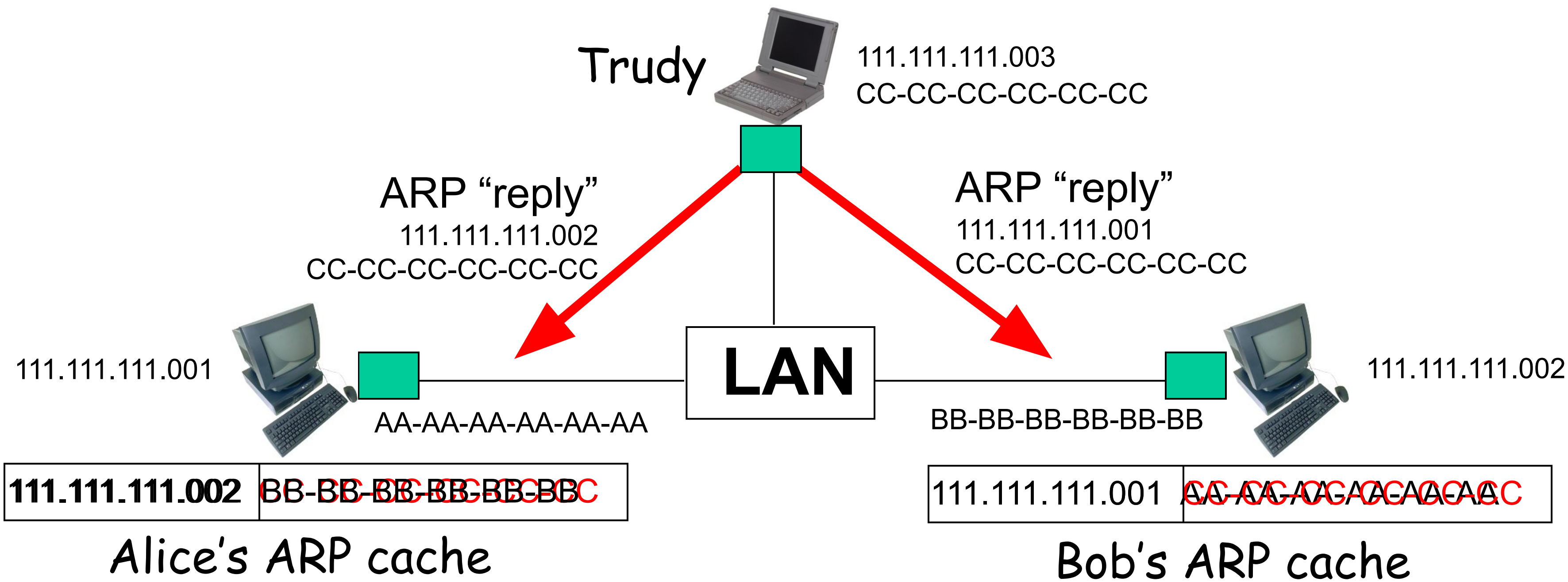
Alice's ARP cache

| | |
|---|---|
| 111.111.111.001 | AA-AA-AA-AA-AA-AA |

Bob's ARP cache

# ARP Cache Poisoning

- ARP is stateless, so…
- Accept "**reply**", even if no **request** sent




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

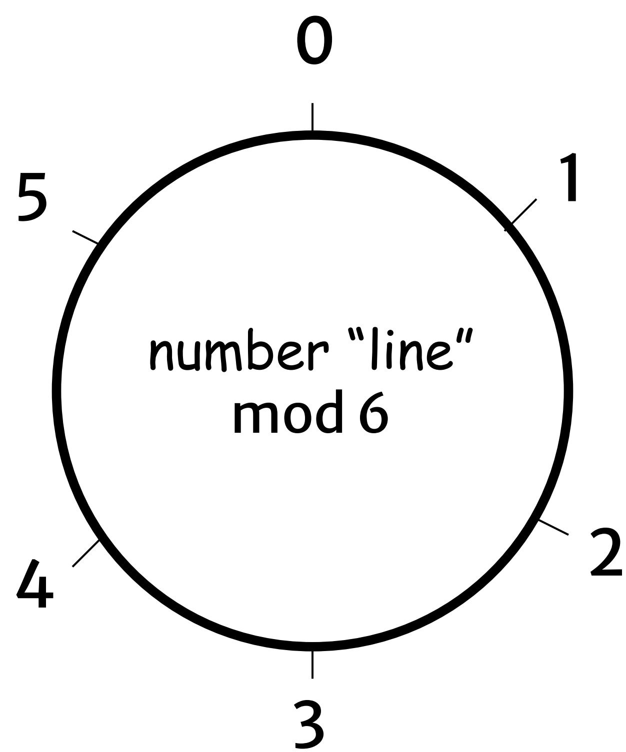
# Math Basics

7/5ths of all people don't understand fractions.
—Anonymous

# Modular Arithmetic

# Clock Arithmetic

- For integers x and n, "x mod n" is the remainder when we compute x ÷ n
  - We can also say "x modulo n"
- Examples
  - 33 mod 6 = 3
  - 33 mod 5 = 3
  - 7 mod 6 = 1
  - 51 mod 17 = 0
  - 17 mod 6 = 5



# Modular Addition

- Notation and fun facts
  - 7 mod 6 = 1
  - 7 = 13 = 1 mod 6
  - ((a mod n) + (b mod n)) mod n = (a + b) mod n
  - ((a mod n)(b mod n)) mod n = ab mod n
- Addition Examples
  - 3 + 5 = 2 mod 6
  - 2 + 4 = 0 mod 6
  - 3 + 3 = 0 mod 6
  - (7 + 12) mod 6 = 19 mod 6 = 1 mod 6
  - (7 + 12) mod 6 = (1 + 0) mod 6 = 1 mod 6

# Modular Multiplication

- Multiplication Examples
  - $3 \cdot 4 = 0 \bmod 6$
  - $2 \cdot 4 = 2 \bmod 6$
  - $5 \cdot 5 = 1 \bmod 6$
  - $(7 \cdot 4) \bmod 6 = 28 \bmod 6 = 4 \bmod 6$
  - $(7 \cdot 4) \bmod 6 = (1 \cdot 4) \bmod 6 = 4 \bmod 6$

# 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
  - But, an efficient algorithm exists

# Totient Function

- $\phi(n)$ is "the number of numbers less than n that are relatively prime to n"
  - Here, "numbers" are positive integers
- Examples
  - $\phi(4) = 2$ since 4 is relatively prime to 3 and 1
  - $\phi(5) = 4$ since 5 is relatively prime to 1,2,3,4
  - $\phi(12) = 4$
  - $\phi(p) = p-1$ if p is prime
  - $\phi(pq) = (p-1)(q-1)$ 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 $S = \{0,1,2,\ldots,n-1\}$
  - Then the number of perms is…
  - $n(n-1)(n-2) \cdot \cdot \cdot (2)(1) = n!$

# 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 $S=\{0,1,2,\ldots,N-1\}$ is the set of all possible outcomes
- If each outcome is equally likely, then the probability of event $E \subseteq S$ is
  - $P(E) =$ # elements in $E$ / # elements in $S$

# Probability Example

- For example, suppose we flip 2 coins
- Then $S = \{hh,ht,th,tt\}$
  - Suppose $X$ = "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 $X$ = "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 $\Re$ be the set of real numbers
- Then $v \in \Re^n$ is a vector of $n$ elements
- For example
  - $v = [v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4] = [2, -1, 3.2, 7] \in \Re^4$
- The dot product of $u, v \in \Re^n$ is
  - $u \cdot v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \ldots + u_n v_n$

# Matrix

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

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

- 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

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

- 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 $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ be columns of $A$ and $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$ the elements of $U$
- Then $B = u_1 a_1 + u_2 a_2 + \ldots + u_n a_n$

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 x 3 identity matrix is

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

# Block Matricies

- Block matrices are matrices of matrices
- For example

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

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

# Block Matrix Mutliplication

- Block matrices multiplication example
- For matrices

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

- 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 $u,v \in \Re^n$ **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