Final review

CS 455 Parth Pathak

Final exam

- Tuesday (5/16) from 10:30 am to 1:15 pm
 - In class, in person
- Closed book, closed notes, no electronic devices
 - No cheatsheet
 - Bring your own calculator, can't share it
- 15% of your grade
- Comprehensive
 - Questions will be on topics discussed after midterm
 - But you are expected to know the topics before midterm
- Chapters 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 (until slide 53 in 8-security.ppt deck)
- Multiple choice just like the midterm

Network-layer functions

- forwarding: move packets from router's input to appropriate router output
- routing: determine route taken by packets from source to destination

data plane

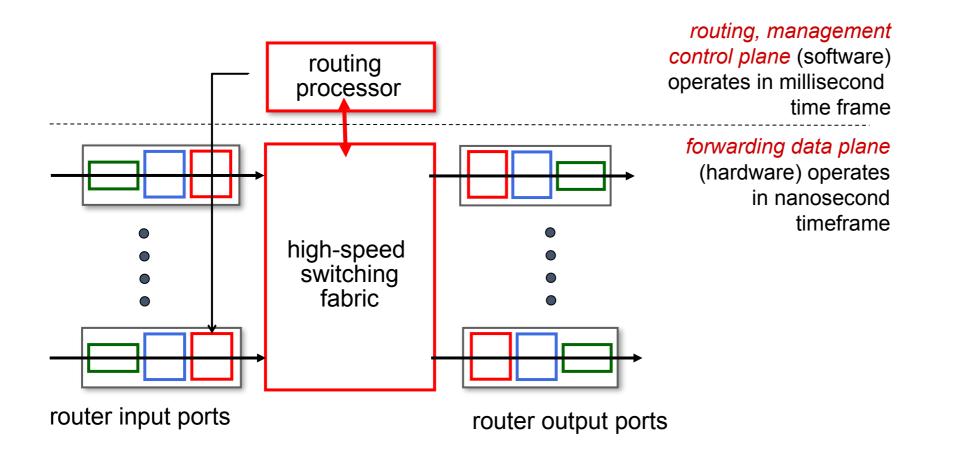
control plane

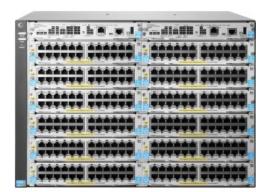
Two approaches to structuring network control plane:

- per-router control (traditional)
- logically centralized control (software defined networking)

Router architecture overview

high-level view of generic router architecture:

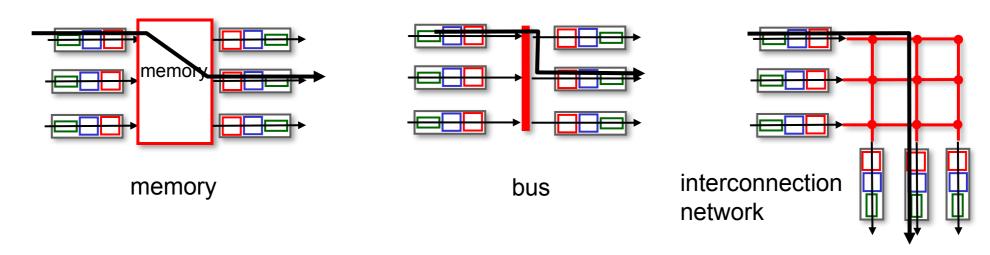




HPE J9822A 5412R

Switching fabrics

- transfer packet from input link to appropriate output link
- switching rate: rate at which packets can be transfer from inputs to outputs
 - often measured as multiple of input/output line rate
 - N inputs: switching rate N times line rate desirable
- three major types of switching fabrics:



IP Datagram format

IP protocol version number header length(bytes)

"type" of service:

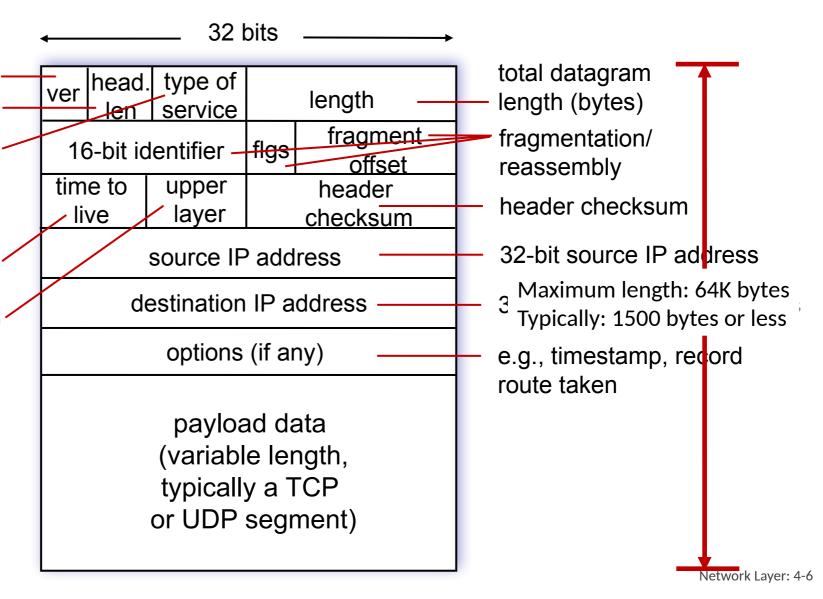
- diffserv (0:5)
- ECN (6:7)

TTL: remaining max hops (decremented at each router)

upper layer protocol (e.g., TCP or UDP)

overhead

- 20 bytes of TCP
- 20 bytes of IP
- = 40 bytes + app layer overhead for TCP+IP



IP addressing: CIDR

CIDR: Classless InterDomain Routing (pronounced "cider")

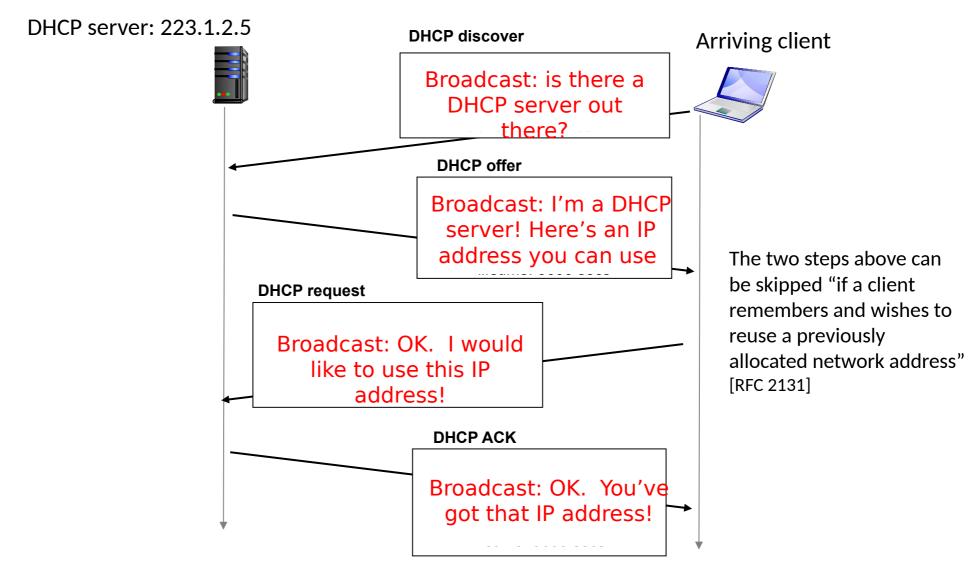
- subnet portion of address of arbitrary length
- address format: a.b.c.d/x, where x is # bits in subnet portion of address



11001000 00010111 00010000 00000000

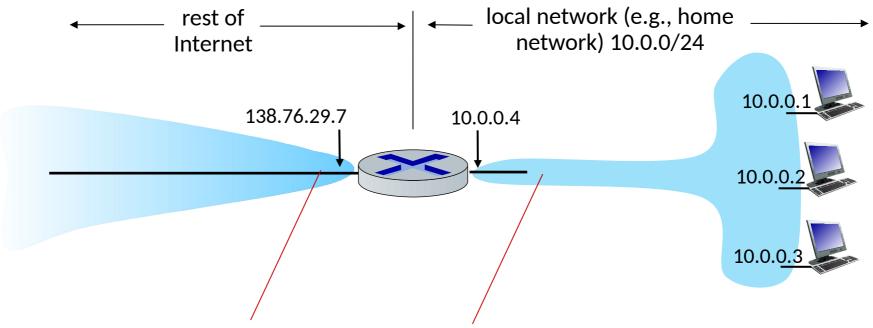
200.23.16.0/23

DHCP client-server scenario



NAT: network address translation

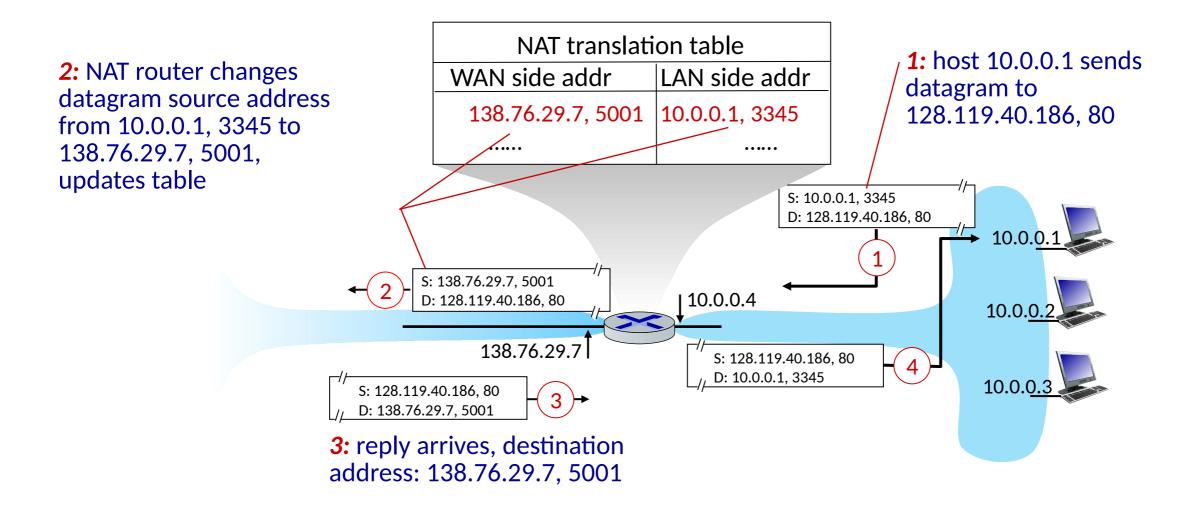
NAT: all devices in local network share just one IPv4 address as far as outside world is concerned



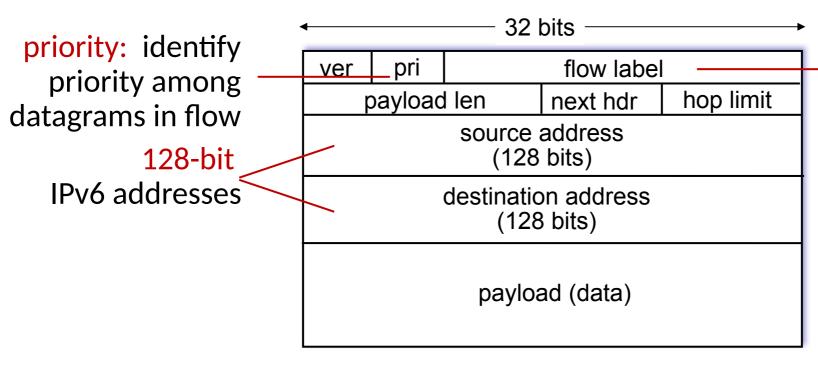
all datagrams leaving local network have same source NAT IP address: 138.76.29.7, but different source port numbers

datagrams with source or destination in this network have 10.0.0/24 address for source, destination (as usual)

NAT: network address translation



IPv6 datagram format

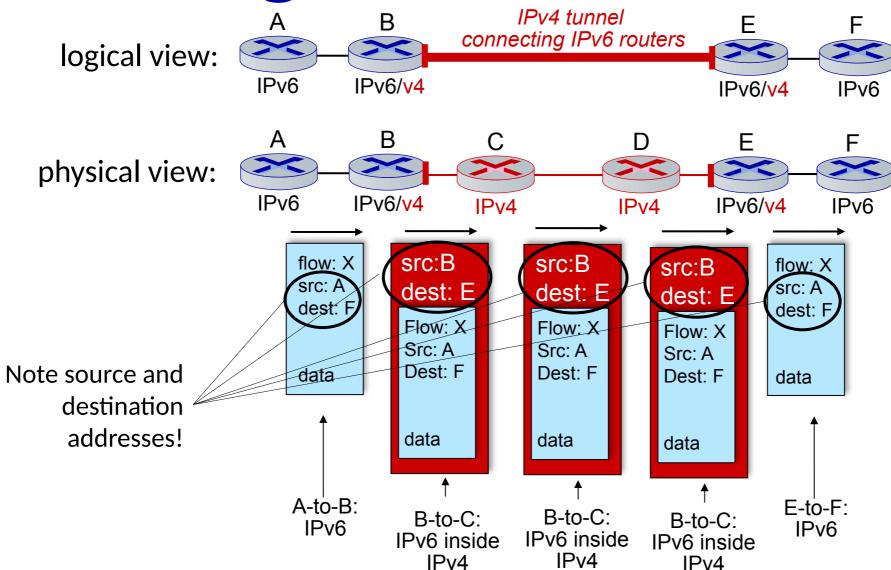


flow label: identify datagrams in same "flow." (concept of "flow" not well defined).

What's missing (compared with IPv4):

- no checksum (to speed processing at routers)
- no fragmentation/reassembly
- no options (available as upper-layer, next-header protocol at router)

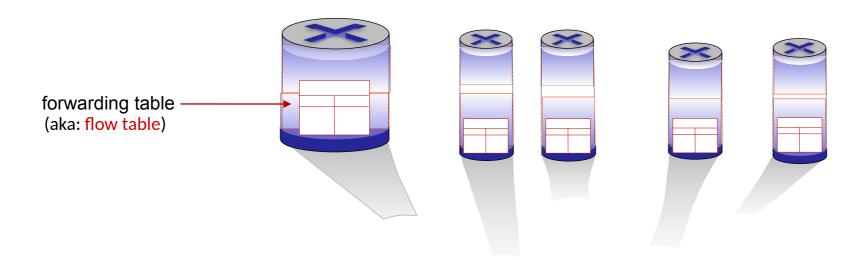
Tunneling



Generalized forwarding: match plus action

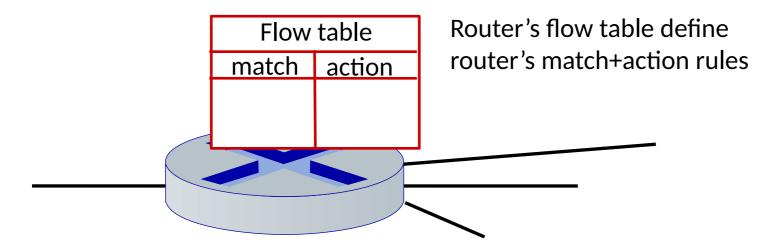
Review: each router contains a forwarding table (aka: flow table)

- "match plus action" abstraction: match bits in arriving packet, take action
 - destriportion-based forwarding: forward based on dest. IP address
 - generalized forwarding
 - many header fields can determine action
 - many action possible: drop/copy/modify/log packet



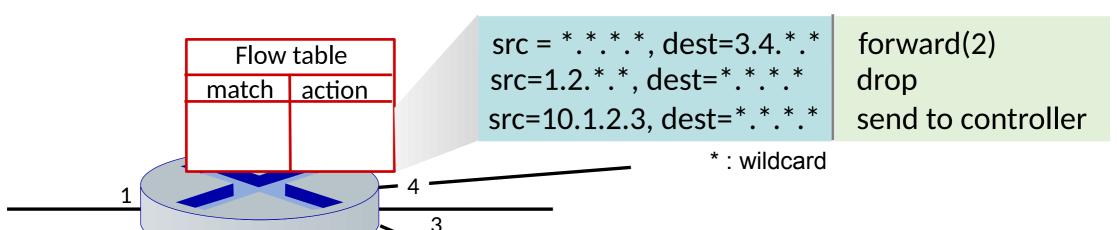
Flow table abstraction

- flow: defined by header field values (in link-, network-, transport-layer fields)
- generalized forwarding: simple packet-handling rules
 - match: pattern values in packet header fields
 - actions: for matched packet: drop, forward, modify, matched packet or send matched packet to controller
 - priority: disambiguate overlapping patterns
 - counters: #bytes and #packets



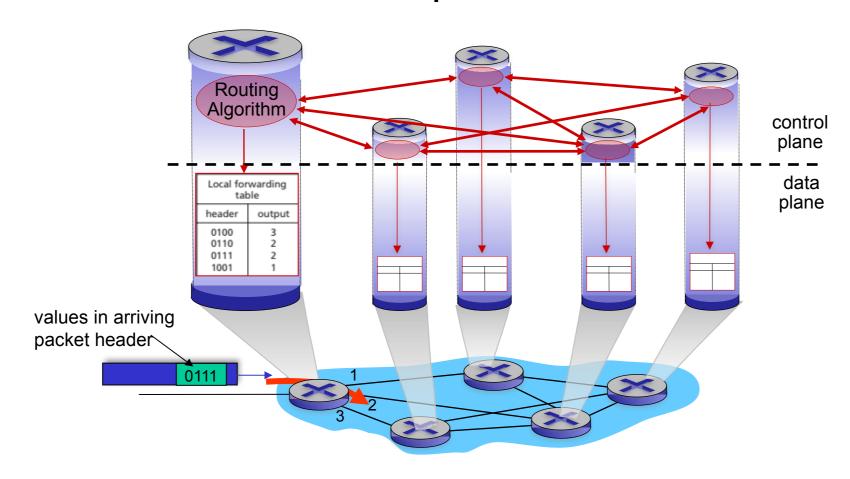
Flow table abstraction

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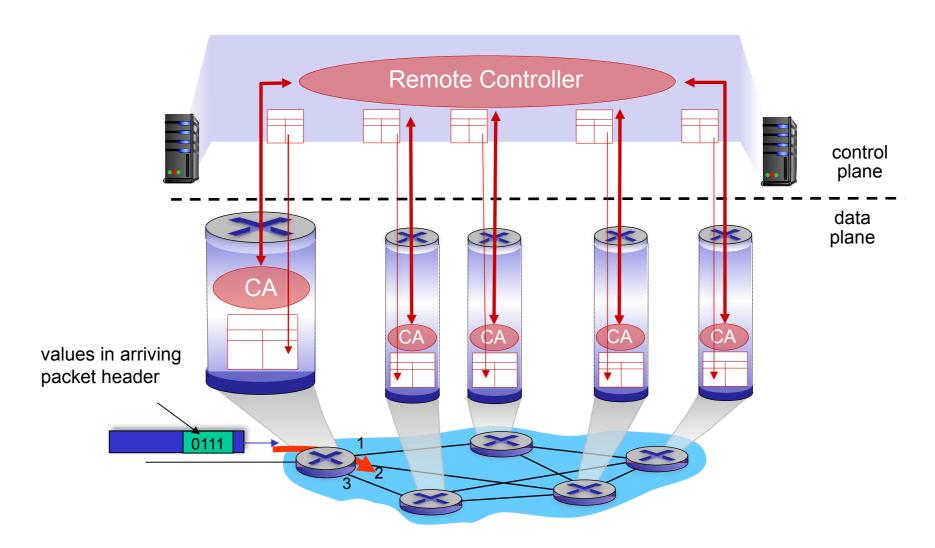
Per-router control plane

Individual routing algorithm components in each and every router interact in the control plane



Software-Defined Networking (SDN) control plane

Remote controller computes, installs forwarding tables in routers



Routing algorithm classification

global: all routers have complete topology, link cost info

• ("link state" algorithms

How fast do routes change?

static: routes change

slowly over time

dynamic: routes change more quickly

 periodic updates or in response to link cost changes

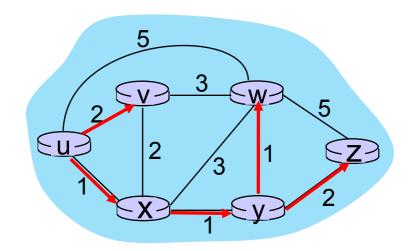
decentralized: iterative process of computation, exchange of info with neighbors

- routers initially only know link costs to attached neighbors
- ("distance vector") algorithms

global or decentralized information?

Dijkstra's algorithm: an example

		\overline{v}	W	X	\bigcirc	Z
Step	N'	D(y)p(v)	D(w)p(w)	D(x)p(x)	D(y), p(y)	D(z),p(z)
0	u	/ 2 u	5 u	(1,u)	O O	co
1	U X →	2 4	4,x		2,x	co
2	u x y /	2,u	3.y			4 , y
3	uxyv		3 ,y			4 <u>,</u> y
4	uxyvw					<u>4,y</u>
5	UXVVWZ)					



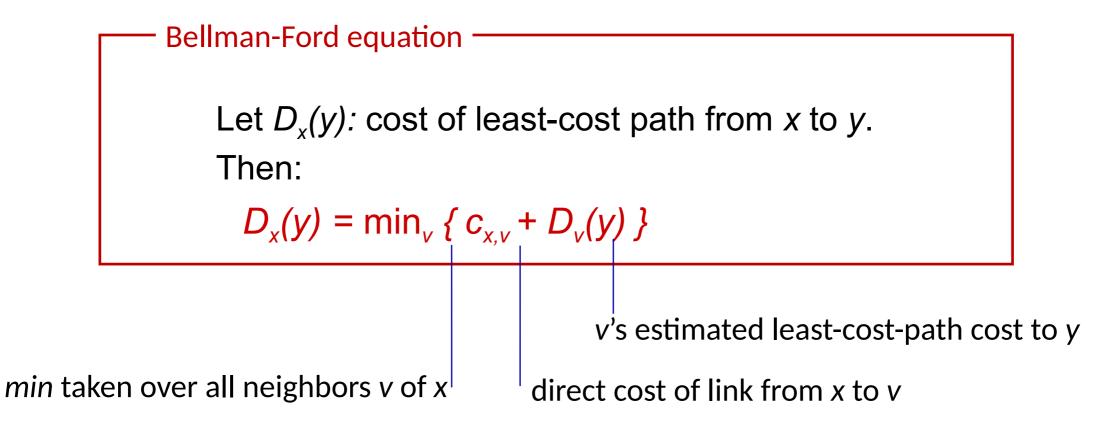
Initialization (step 0): For all a: if a adjacent to then $D(a) = c_{u,a}$

find a not in N' such that D(a) is a minimum add a to N' update D(b) for all b adjacent to a and not in N':

 $D(b) = \min (D(b), D(a) + c_{a,b})$

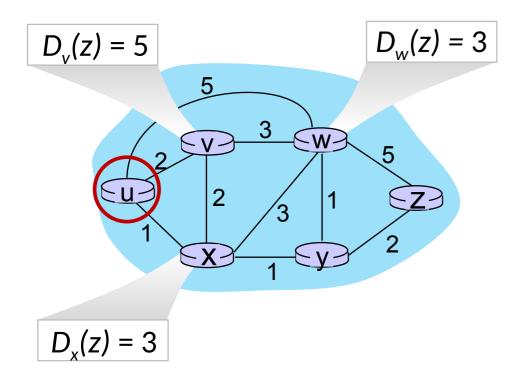
Distance vector algorithm

Based on Bellman-Ford (BF) equation (dynamic programming):



Bellman-Ford Example

Suppose that *u*'s neighboring nodes, *x*,*v*,*w*, know that for destination *z*:



Bellman-Ford equation says:

$$D_{u}(z) = \min \{ c_{u,v} + D_{v}(z), \\ c_{u,x} + D_{x}(z) \}$$

$$c_{u,w} + D_{w}(z) \}$$

$$= \min \{ 2 + 5, \\ 1 + 3, \\ 5 + 3 \} = 4$$

node achieving minimum (x) is next hop on estimated leastcost path to destination (z)

Distance vector algorithm:

each node:

wait for (change in local link cost or msg from neighbor)

recompute DV estimates using DV received from neighbor

if DV to any destination has changed, *notify* neighbors

iterative, asynchronous: each local iteration caused by:

- local link cost change
- DV update message from neighbor

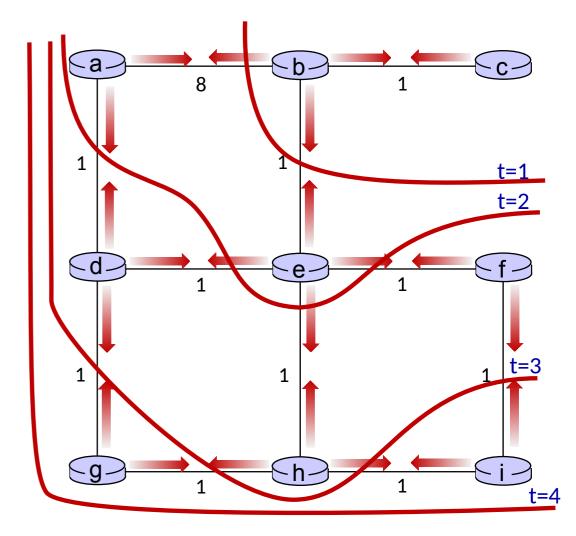
distributed, self-stopping: each node notifies neighbors *only* when its DV changes

- neighbors then notify their neighbors – only if necessary
- no notification received, no actions taken!

Distance vector: state information diffusion

Iterative communication, computation steps diffuses information through network:

- t=0 c's state at t=0 is at c only
- c's state at t=0 has propagated to b, and may influence distance vector computations up to **1** hop away, i.e., at b
- c's state at t=0 may now influence distance vector computations up to **2** hops away, i.e., at b and now at a, e as well
- c's state at t=0 may influence distance vector computations up to 3 hops away, i.e., at b,a,e and now at c,f,h as well
- c's state at t=0 may influence distance vector computations up to 4 hops away, i.e., at b,a,e, c, f, h and now at g,i as well



Comparison of LS and DV algorithms

message complexity

LS: n routers, $O(n^2)$ messages sent

DV: exchange between neighbors; convergence time varies

speed of convergence

LS: $O(n^2)$ algorithm, $O(n^2)$ messages

may have oscillations

DV: convergence time varies

- may have routing loops
- count-to-infinity problem

robustness: what happens if router malfunctions, or is compromised?

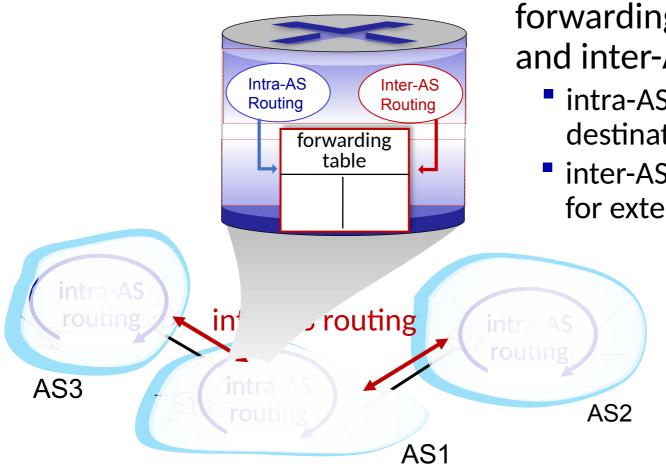
LS:

- router can advertise incorrect link cost
- each router computes only its own table

DV:

- DV router can advertise incorrect path cost ("I have a really low cost path to everywhere"): black-holing
- each router's table used by others: error propagate thru network

Interconnected ASes



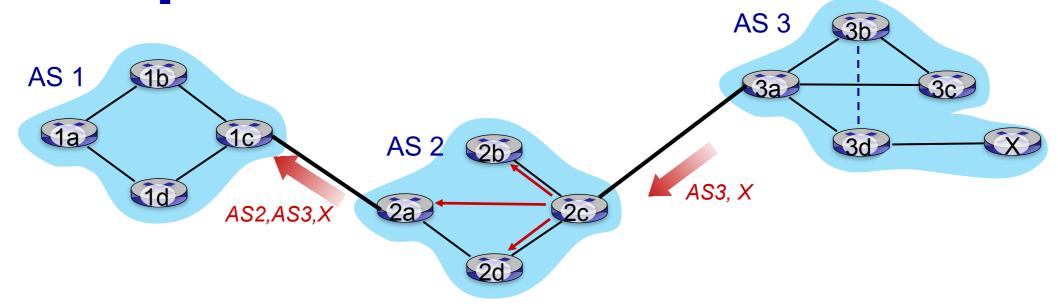
forwarding table configured by intraand inter-AS routing algorithms

- intra-AS routing determine entries for destinations within AS
- inter-AS & intra-AS determine entries for external destinations

OSPF (Open Shortest Path First) routing

- "open": publicly available
- classic link-state
 - each router floods OSPF link-state advertisements (directly over IP rather than using TCP/UDP) to all other routers in entire AS
 - multiple link costs metrics possible: bandwidth, delay
 - each router has full topology, uses Dijkstra's algorithm to compute forwarding table
- security: all OSPF messages authenticated (to prevent malicious intrusion)

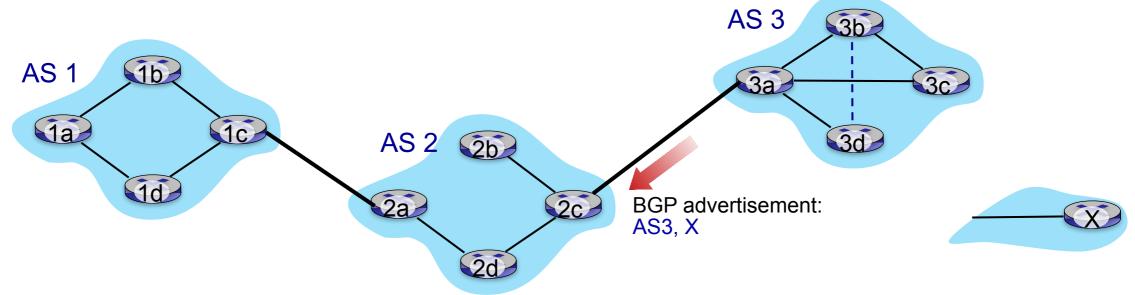
BGP path advertisement



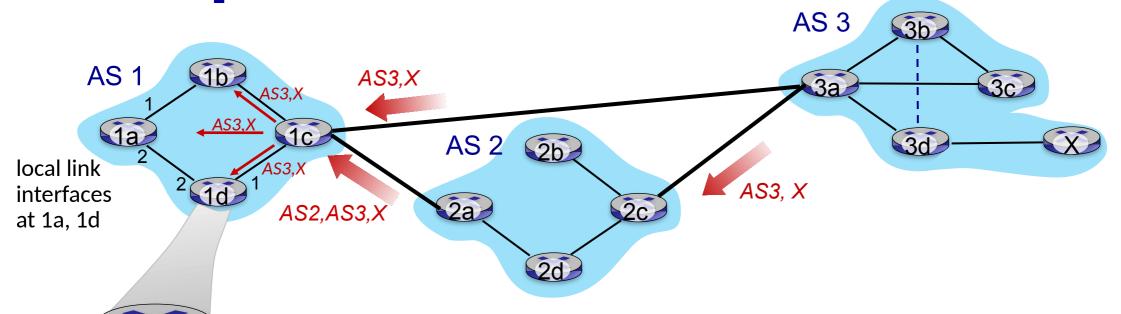
- AS2 router 2c receives path advertisement AS3,X (via eBGP) from AS3 router 3a
- based on AS2 policy, AS2 router 2c accepts path AS3,X, propagates (via iBGP) to all AS2 routers
- based on AS2 policy, AS2 router 2a advertises (via eBGP) path AS2, AS3, X to AS1 router 1c

BGP basics

- BGP session: two BGP routers ("peers") exchange BGP messages over semi-permanent TCP connection:
 - advertising paths to different destination network prefixes (BGP is a "path vector" protocol)
- when AS3 gateway 3a advertises path AS3,X to AS2 gateway 2c:
 - AS3 promises to AS2 it will forward datagrams towards X



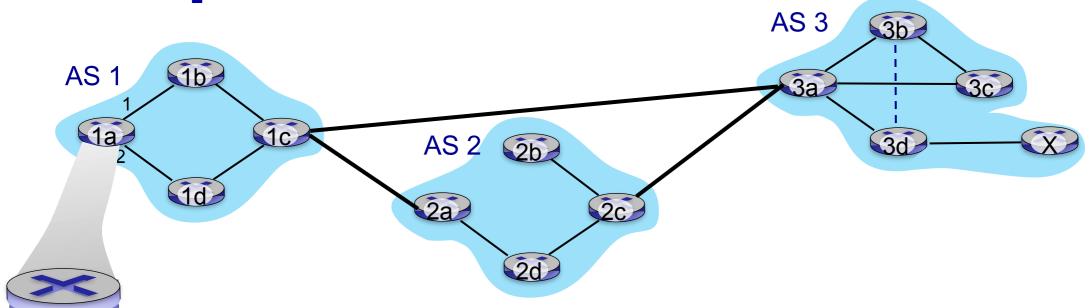
BGP path advertisement



dest	interface		
1c	1		
X	1		

- recall: 1a, 1b, 1d learn via iBGP from 1c: "path to X goes through 1c"
- at 1d: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, use interface 1
- at 1d: to get to X, use interface 1

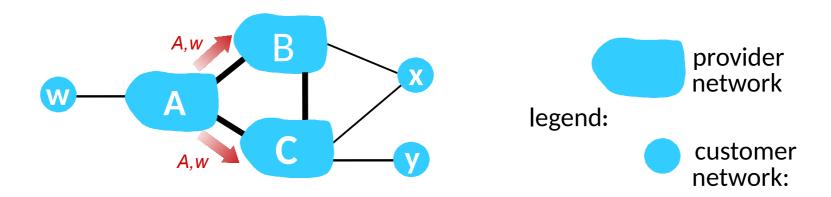
BGP path advertisement



dest	interface		
1c	2		
X	2		
	•••		

- recall: 1a, 1b, 1d learn via iBGP from 1c: "path to X goes through 1c"
- at 1d: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, use interface 1
- at 1d: to get to X, use interface 1
- at 1a: OSPF intra-domain routing: to get to 1c, use interface 2
- at 1a: to get to X, use interface 2

BGP: achieving policy via advertisements

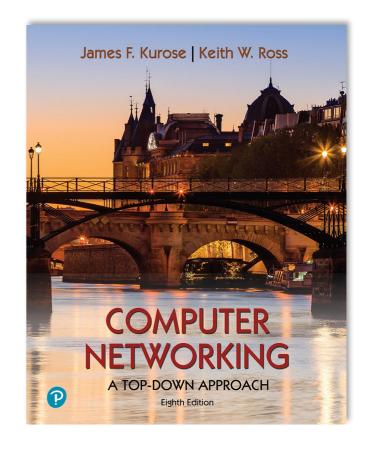


ISP only wants to route traffic to/from its customer networks (does not want to carry transit traffic between other ISPs – a typical "real world" policy)

- A advertises path Aw to B and to C
- B chooses not to advertise BAw to C!
 - B gets no "revenue" for routing CBAw, since none of C, A, w are B's customers
 - C does not learn about CBAw path
- C will route CAw (not using B) to get to w

Chapter 6 The Link Layer and LANs

CS 455/555 Parth Pathak

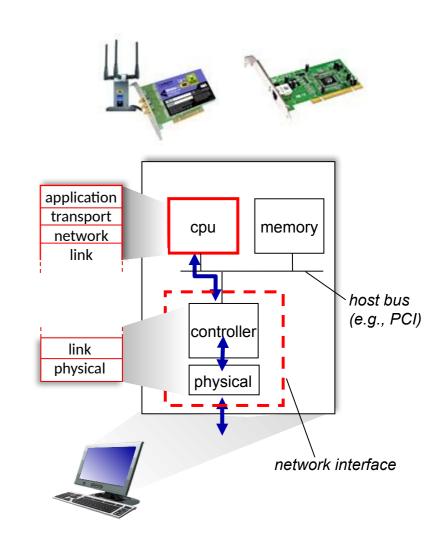


Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

8th edition Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Pearson, 2020

Where is the link layer implemented?

- in each-and-every host
- link layer implemented in network interface card (NIC) or on a chip
 - Ethernet, WiFi card or chip
 - implements link, physical layer
- attaches into host's system buses
- combination of hardware, software, firmware



Internet checksum (review)

Goal: detect errors (i.e., flipped bits) in transmitted segment

sender:

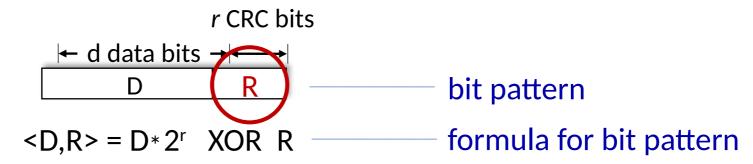
- treat contents of UDP segment (including UDP header fields and IP addresses) as sequence of 16-bit integers
- checksum: addition (one's complement sum) of segment content
- checksum value put into UDP checksum field

receiver:

- compute checksum of received segment
- check if computed checksum equals checksum field value:
 - not equal error detected
 - equal no error detected. But maybe errors nonetheless? More later

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC)

- more powerful error-detection coding
- D: data bits (given, think of these as a binary number)
- G: bit pattern (generator), of r+1 bits (given)



goal: choose r CRC bits, R, such that <D,R> exactly divisible by G (mod 2)

- receiver knows G, divides <D,R> by G. If non-zero remainder: error detected!
- can detect all burst errors less than r+1 bits
- widely used in practice (Ethernet, 802.11 WiFi)

Cyclic Redundancy Check (CRC): example

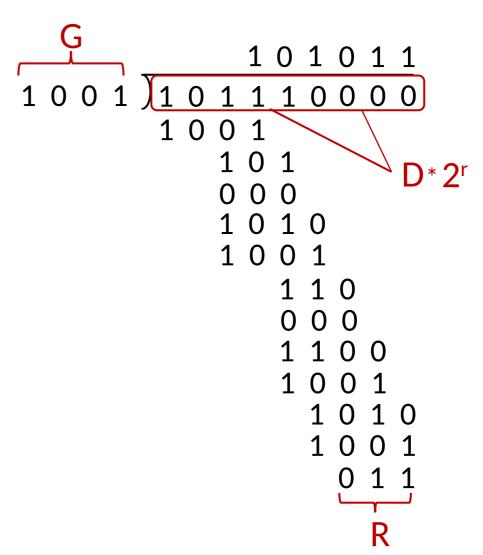
We want:

 $D \cdot 2^r XOR R = nG$

or equivalently:

if we divide D.2^r by G, want remainder R to satisfy:

$$R = remainder \left[\frac{D \cdot 2^r}{G} \right]$$



^{*} Check out the online interactive exercises for more examples: http://gaia.cs.umass.edu/kurose_ross/interactive/

Multiple access links, protocols

two types of "links":

- point-to-point
 - point-to-point link between Ethernet switch, host
 - PPP for dial-up access
- broadcast (shared wire or medium)
 - old-fashioned Ethernet
 - upstream HFC in cable-based access network
 - 802.11 wireless LAN, 4G/4G. satellite



shared wire (e.g., cabled Ethernet)



shared radio: 4G/5G



shared radio: WiFi



shared radio: satellite



humans at a cocktail party (shared air, acoustical)

MAC protocols: taxonomy

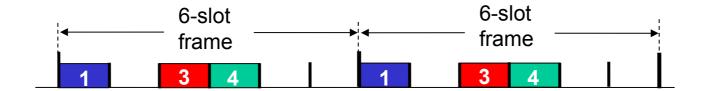
three broad classes:

- channel partitioning
 - divide channel into smaller "pieces" (time slots, frequency, code)
 - allocate piece to node for exclusive use
- random access
 - channel not divided, allow collisions
 - "recover" from collisions
- "taking turns"
 - nodes take turns, but nodes with more to send can take longer turns

Channel partitioning MAC protocols: TDMA

TDMA: time division multiple access

- access to channel in "rounds"
- each station gets fixed length slot (length = packet transmission time) in each round
- unused slots go idle
- example: 6-station LAN, 1,3,4 have packets to send, slots 2,5,6 idle



Slotted ALOHA

assumptions:

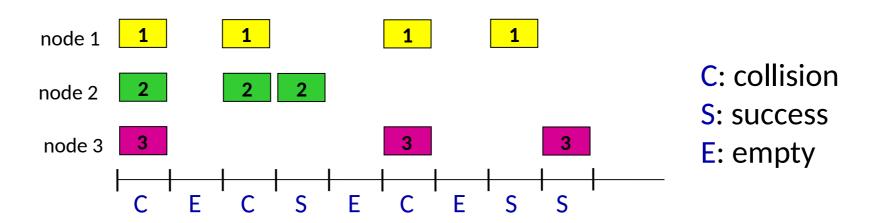
- all frames same size
- time divided into equal size slots (time to transmit 1 frame)
- nodes start to transmit only slot beginning
- nodes are synchronized
- if 2 or more nodes transmit in slot, all nodes detect collision

operation:

- when node obtains fresh frame, transmits in next slot
 - if no collision: node can send new frame in next slot
 - *if collision*: node retransmits frame in each subsequent slot with probability *p* until success

randomization - why?

Slotted ALOHA



Pros:

- single active node can continuously transmit at full rate of channel
- highly decentralized: only slots in nodes need to be in sync
- simple

Cons:

- collisions, wasting slots
- idle slots
- nodes may be able to detect collision in less than time to transmit packet
- clock synchronization

Slotted ALOHA: efficiency

efficiency: long-run fraction of successful slots (many nodes, all with many frames to send)

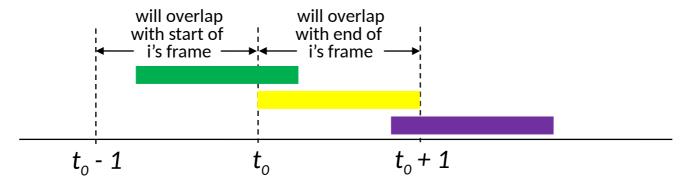
- suppose: N nodes with many frames to send, each transmits in slot with probability p
 - prob that given node has success in a slot = $p(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - prob that any node has a success = $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - max efficiency: find p^* that maximizes $Np(1-p)^{N-1}$
 - for many nodes, take limit of $Np^*(1-p^*)^{N-1}$ as N goes to infinity, gives:

```
max efficiency = 1/e = .37
```

at best: channel used for useful transmissions 37% of time!

Pure ALOHA

- unslotted Aloha: simpler, no synchronization
 - when frame first arrives: transmit immediately
- collision probability increases with no synchronization:
 - frame sent at t₀ collides with other frames sent in [t₀-1,t₀+1]



pure Aloha efficiency: 18%!

CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

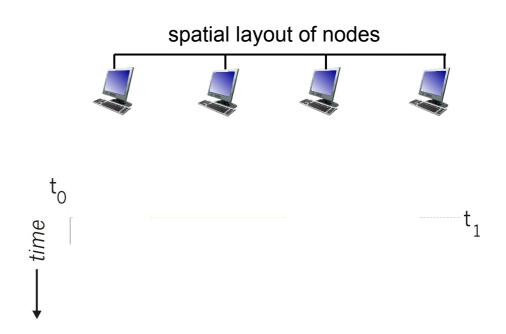
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission



Can collisions still occur?

CSMA: collisions

- collisions can still occur with carrier sensing:
 - propagation delay means two nodes may not hear each other's juststarted transmission
- collision: entire packet transmission time wasted
 - distance & propagation delay play role in in determining collision probability



CSMA (carrier sense multiple access)

simple CSMA: listen before transmit:

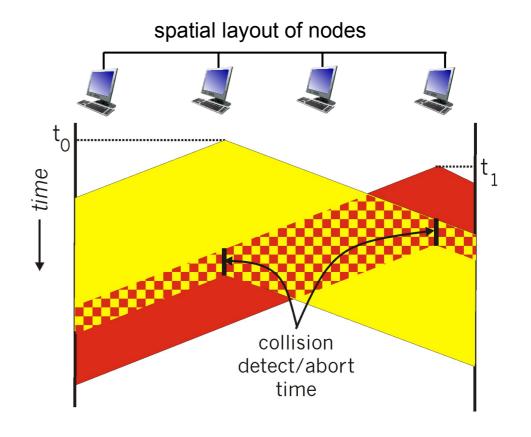
- if channel sensed idle: transmit entire frame
- if channel sensed busy: defer transmission
- human analogy: don't interrupt others!

CSMA/CD: CSMA with collision detection

- collisions detected within short time
- colliding transmissions aborted, reducing channel wastage
- collision detection easy in wired, difficult with wireless
- human analogy: the polite conversationalist

CSMA/CD:

- CSMA/CS reduces the amount of time wasted in collisions
 - transmission aborted on collision detection



Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- 1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 2. If NIC senses channel:

if idle: start frame transmission.

if busy: wait until channel idle, then transmit

- 3. If NIC transmits entire frame without collision, NIC is done with frame!
- 4. If NIC detects another transmission while sending: abort, send jam signal, got to step 1



Any possible issues executing this algorithm?

Ethernet CSMA/CD algorithm

- 1. NIC receives datagram from network layer, creates frame
- 2. If NIC senses channel:

if idle: start frame transmission.

if busy: wait until channel idle, then transmit

- 3. If NIC transmits entire frame without collision, NIC is done with frame!
- 4. If NIC detects another transmission while sending: abort, send jam signal
- 5. After aborting, NIC enters binary (exponential) backoff:
 - after mth collision, NIC chooses K at random from $\{0,1,2,...,2^{m}-1\}$. NIC waits $K \cdot 512$ bit times, returns to Step 2
 - more collisions: longer backoff interval

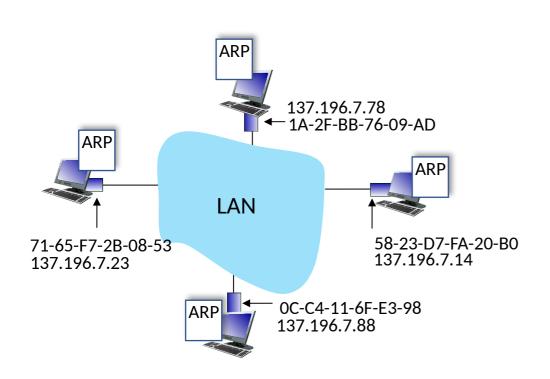
MAC addresses

- 32-bit IP address:
 - network-layer address for interface
 - used for layer 3 (network layer) forwarding
 - e.g.: 128.119.40.136
- MAC (or LAN or physical or Ethernet) address:
 - function: used "locally" to get frame from one interface to another physically-connected interface (same subnet, in IP-addressing sense)
 - 48-bit MAC address (for most LANs) burned in NIC ROM, also sometimes software settable
 - e.g.: 1A-2F-BB-76-09-AD

hexadecimal (base 16) notation (each "numeral" represents 4 bits)

ARP: address resolution protocol

Question: how to determine interface's MAC address, knowing its IP address?



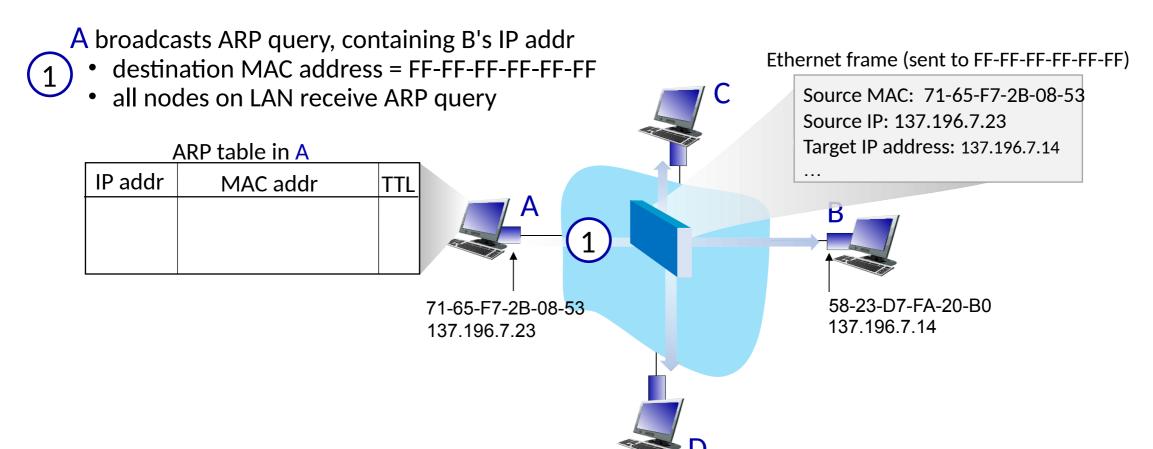
ARP table: each IP node (host, router) on LAN has table

- IP/MAC address mappings for some LAN nodes:
 - < IP address; MAC address; TTL>
- TTL (Time To Live): time after which address mapping will be forgotten (typically 20 min)

ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

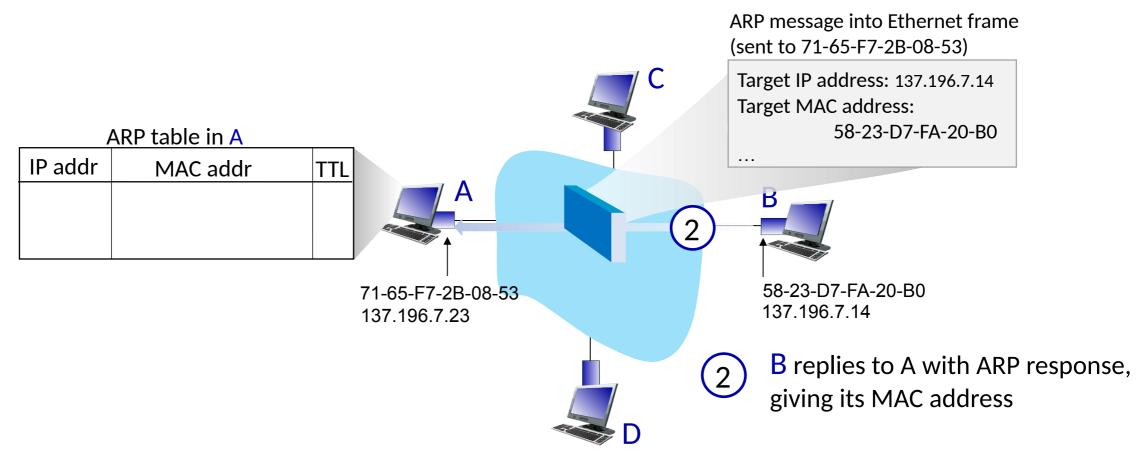
B's MAC address not in A's ARP table, so A uses ARP to find B's MAC address



ARP protocol in action

example: A wants to send datagram to B

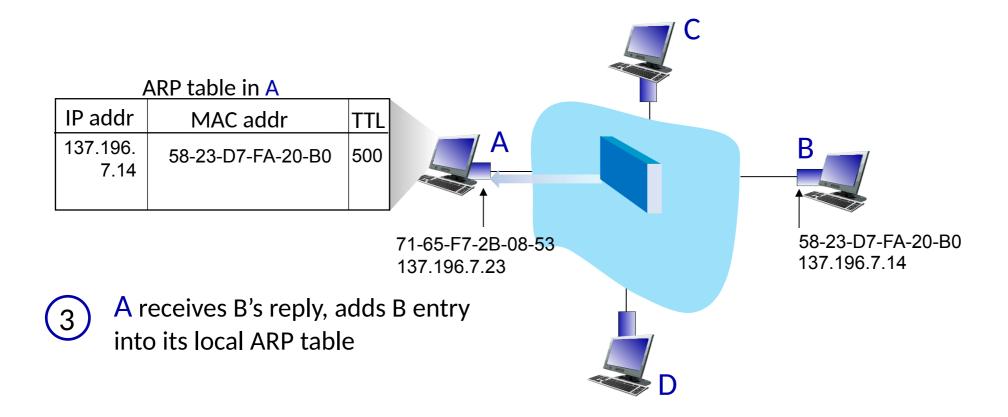
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ARP protocol in action

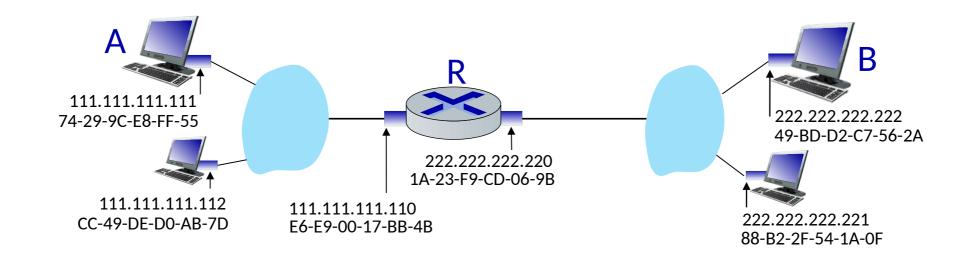
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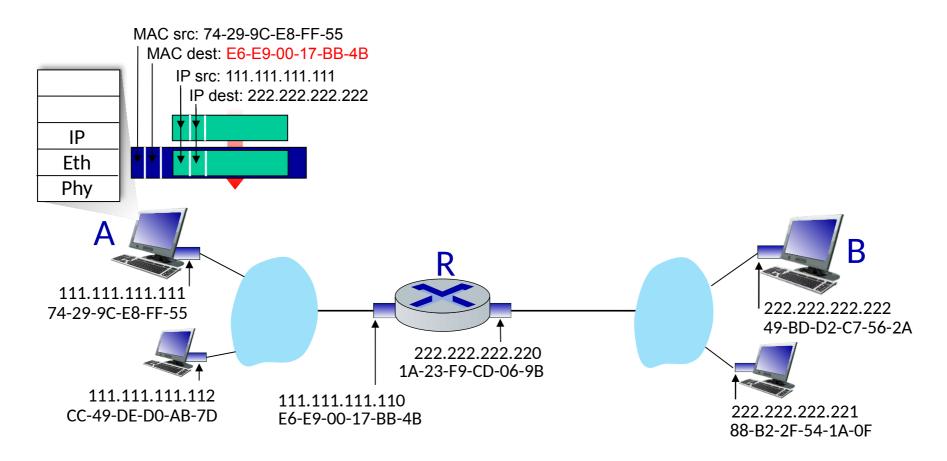


walkthrough: sending a datagram from A to B via R

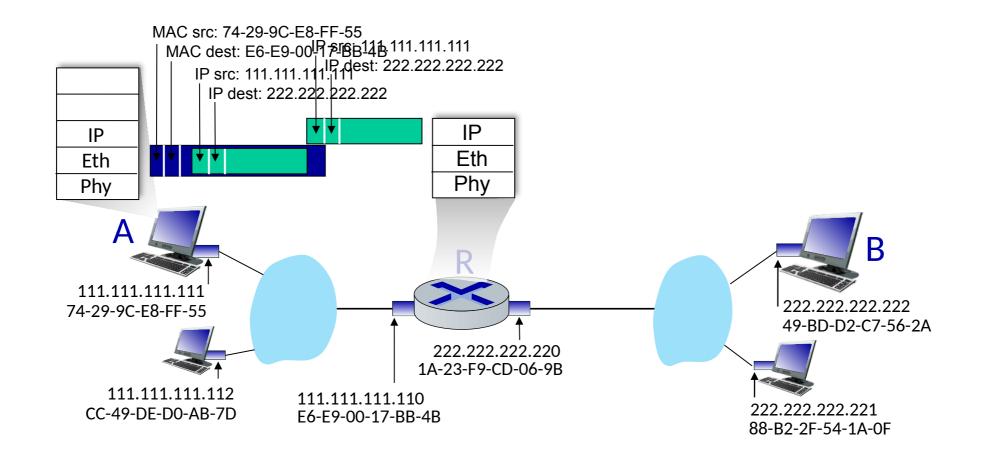
- focus on addressing at IP (datagram) and MAC layer (frame) levels
- assume that:
 - A knows B's IP address
 - A knows IP address of first hop router, R (how?)
 - A knows R's MAC address (how?)



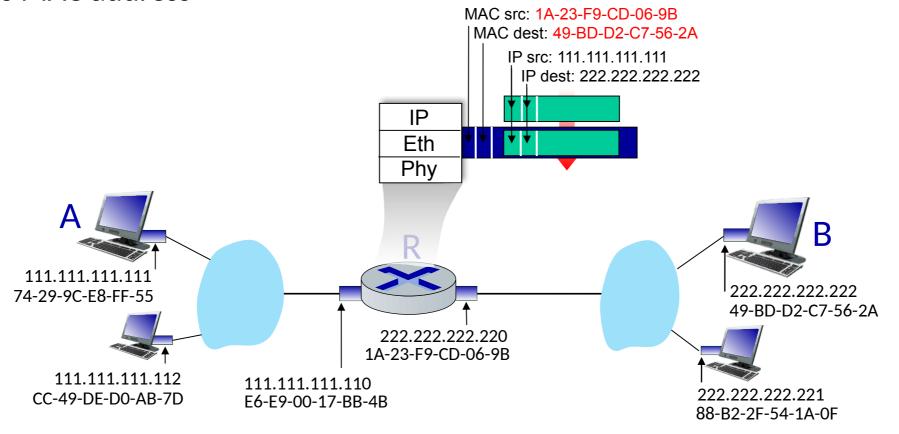
- A creates IP datagram with IP source A, destination B
- A creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram
 - R's MAC address is frame's destination



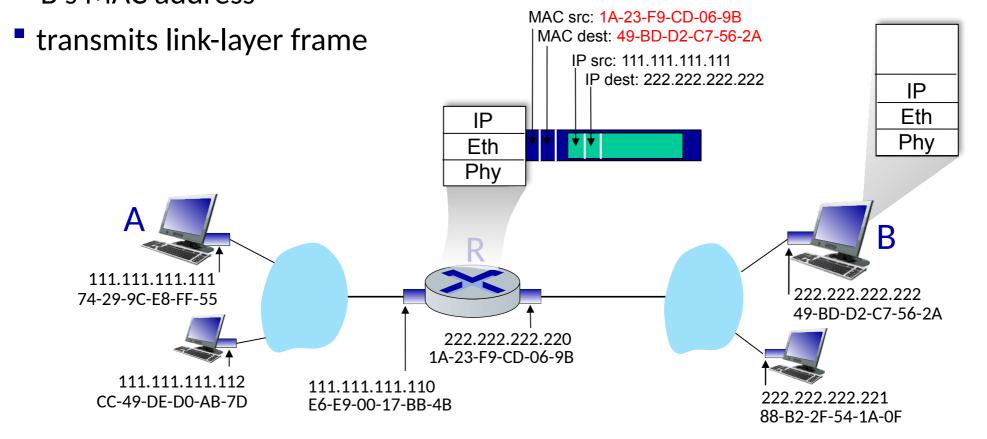
- frame sent from A to R
- frame received at R, datagram removed, passed up to IP



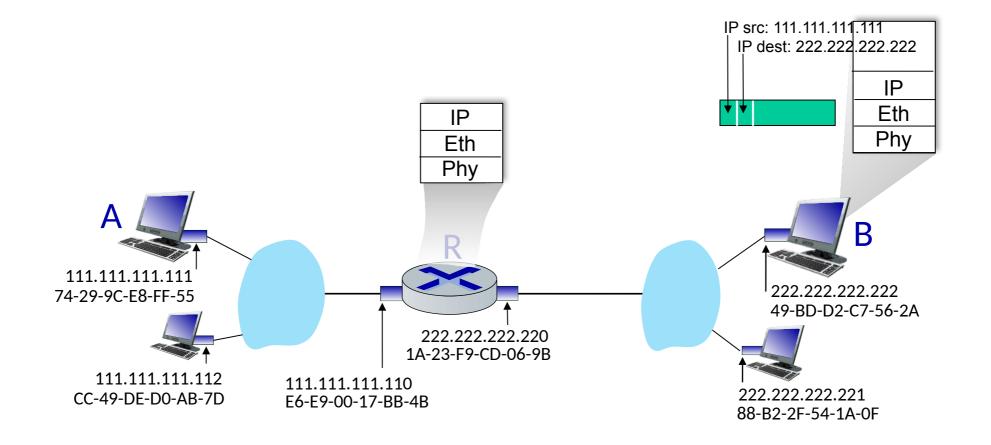
- R determines outgoing interface, passes datagram with IP source A, destination B to link layer
- R creates link-layer frame containing A-to-B IP datagram. Frame destination address: B's MAC address



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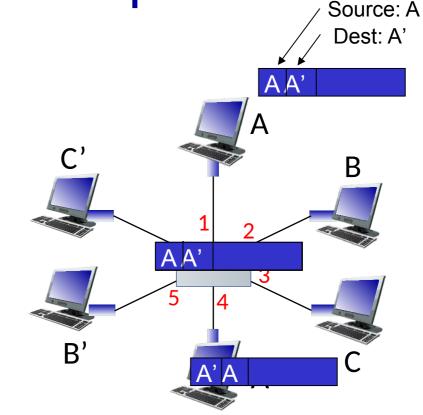


- B receives frame, extracts IP datagram destination B
- B passes datagram up protocol stack to IP



Self-learning, forwarding: example

- frame destination, A', location unknown: flood
- destination A location known: selectively send on just one link



MAC addr	interface	TTL
Α Δ'	1 4	60 60
<i>A</i>	,	

switch table (initially empty)

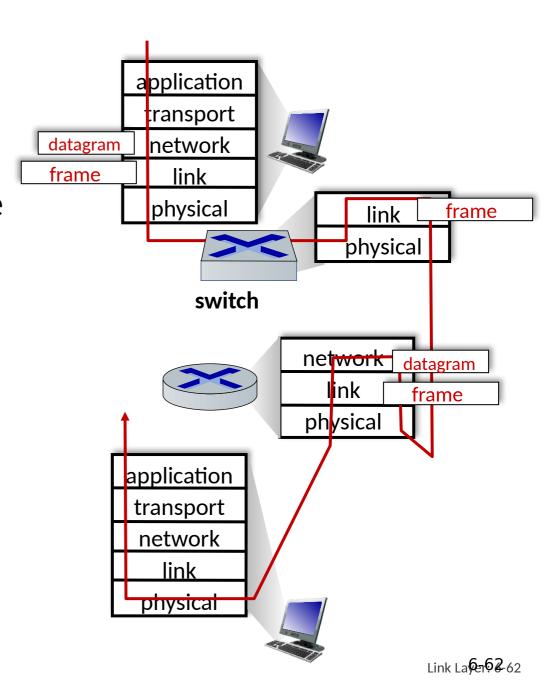
Switches vs. routers

both are store-and-forward:

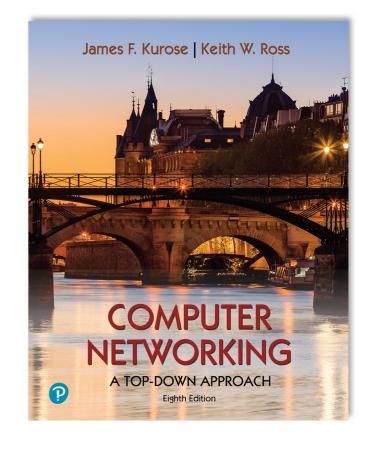
- routers: network-layer devices (examine network-layer headers)
- switches: link-layer devices (examine link-layer headers)

both have forwarding tables:

- routers: compute tables using routing algorithms, IP addresses
- switches: learn forwarding table using flooding, learning, MAC addresses



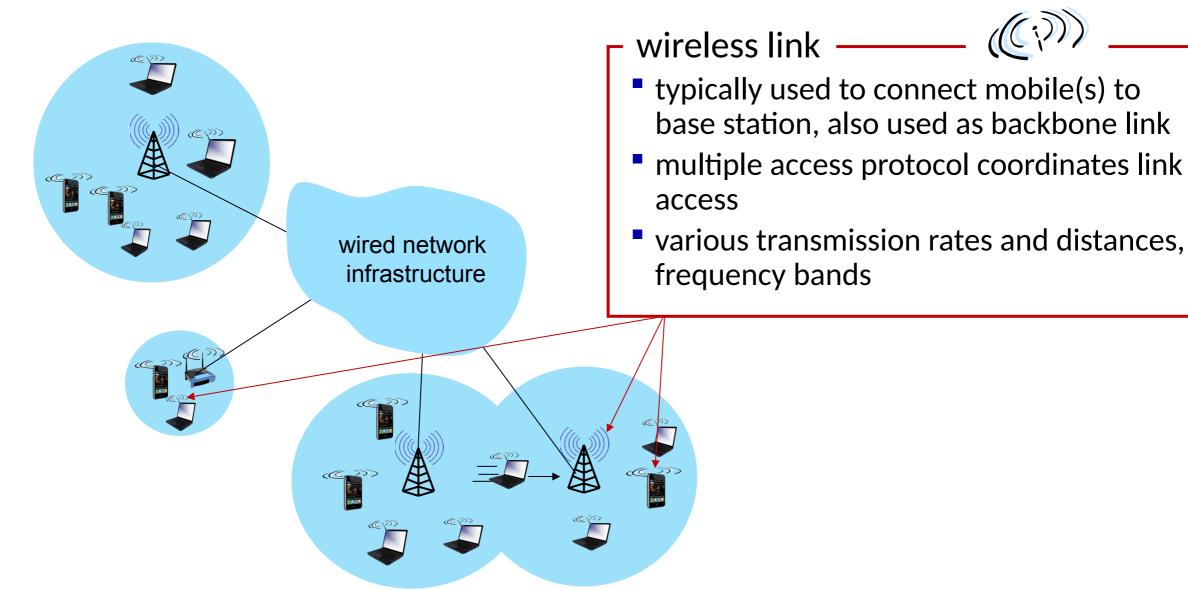
Chapter / Wireless and Mobile Networks



Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

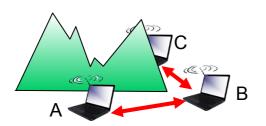
8th edition Jim Kurose, Keith Ross Pearson, 2020

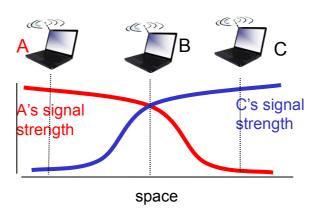
Elements of a wireless network



IEEE 802.11: multiple access

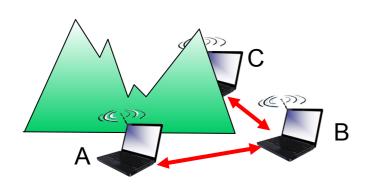
- avoid collisions: 2+ nodes transmitting at same time
- 802.11: CSMA sense before transmitting
 - don't collide with detected ongoing transmission by another node
- 802.11: no collision detection!
 - difficult to sense collisions: high transmitting signal, weak received signal due to fading
 - can't sense all collisions in any case: hidden terminal, fading
 - goal: avoid collisions: CSMA/CollisionAvoidance





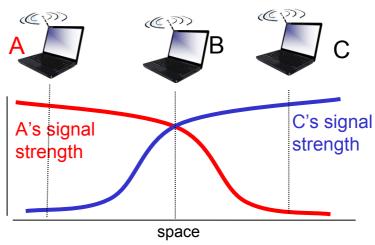
Wireless link characteristics (3)

Multiple wireless senders, receivers create additional problems (beyond multiple access):



Hidden terminal problem

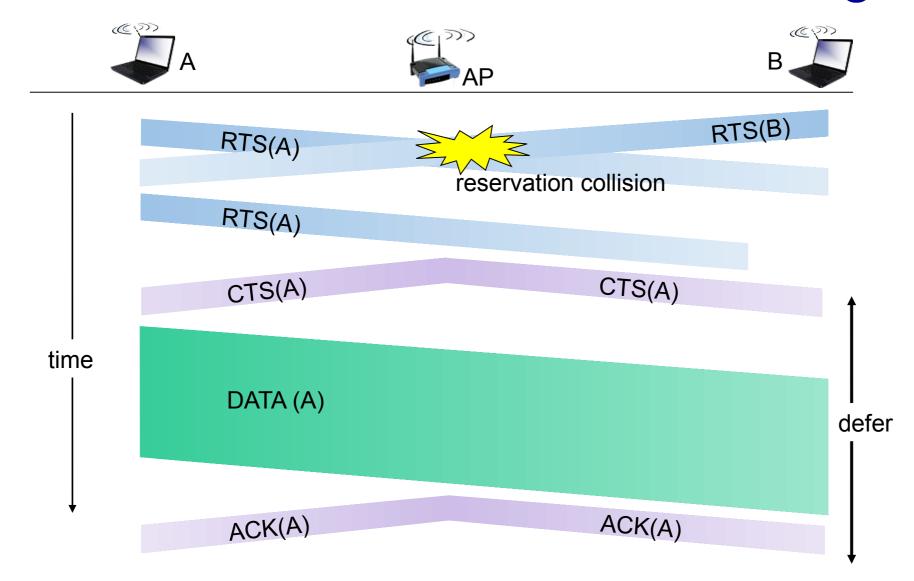
- B, A hear each other
- B, C hear each other
- A, C can not hear each other means A,
 C unaware of their interference at B



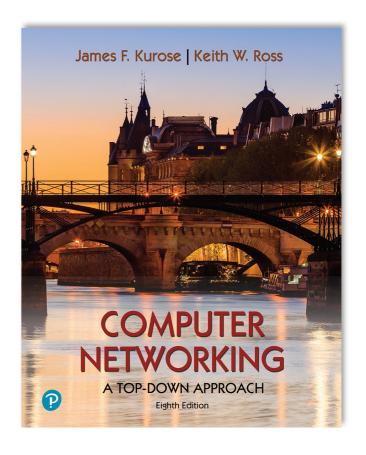
Signal attenuation:

- B, A hear each other
- B, C hear each other
- A, C can not hear each other interfering at B

Collision Avoidance: RTS-CTS exchange



Chapter 8 Security



Computer Networking: A Top-Down Approach

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What is network security?

confidentiality: only sender, intended receiver should "understand" message contents

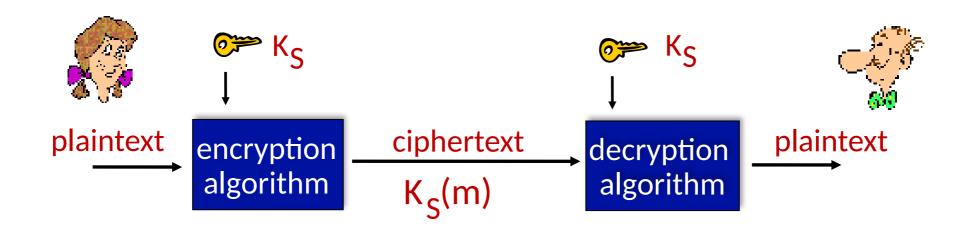
- sender encrypts message
- receiver decrypts message

authentication: sender, receiver want to confirm identity of each other

message integrity: sender, receiver want to ensure message not altered (in transit, or afterwards) without detection

access and availability: services must be accessible and available to users

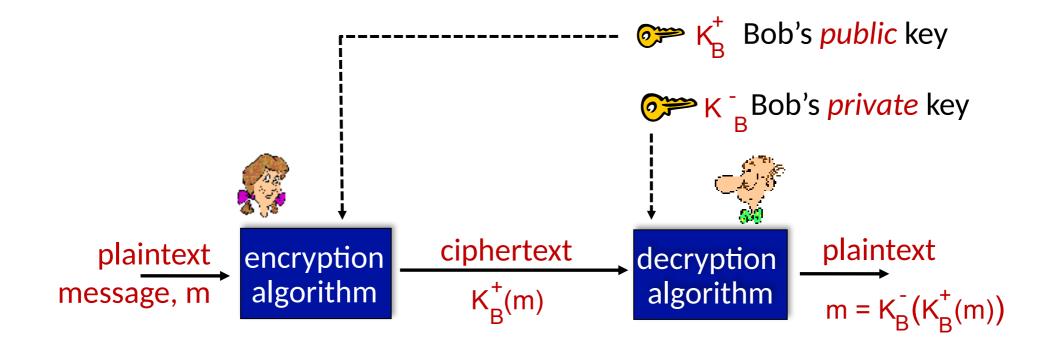
Symmetric key cryptography



symmetric key crypto: Bob and Alice share same (symmetric) key: K

- e.g., key is knowing substitution pattern in mono alphabetic substitution cipher
- Q: how do Bob and Alice agree on key value?

Public Key Cryptography



Wow - public key cryptography revolutionized 2000-year-old (previously only symmetric key) cryptography!

similar ideas emerged at roughly same time, independently in US and UK (classified)

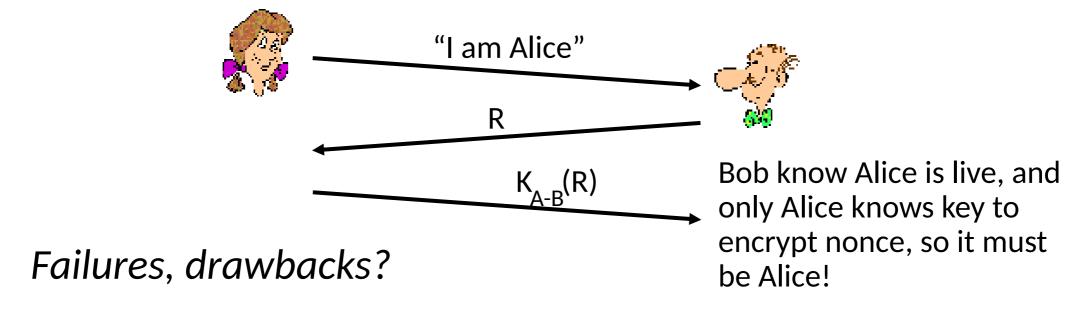
Authentication: a fourth try

Goal: avoid playback attack

nonce: number (R) used only once-in-a-lifetime

protocol ap4.0: to prove Alice "live", Bob sends Alice nonce, R

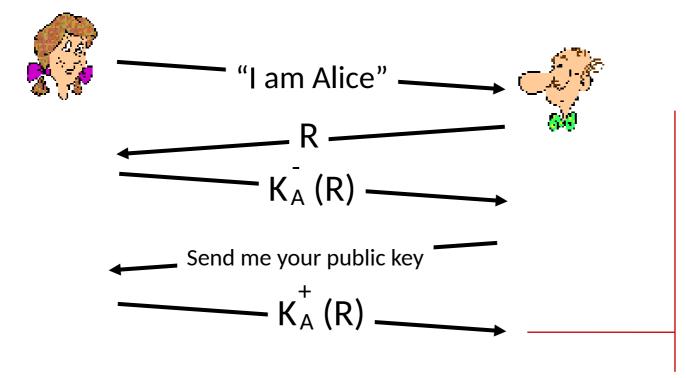
Alice must return R, encrypted with shared secret key



Authentication: ap5.0

ap4.0 requires shared symmetric key - can we authenticate using public key techniques?

ap5.0: use nonce, public key cryptography



Bob computes

$$K_A^+$$
 $(K_A^-(R)) = R$

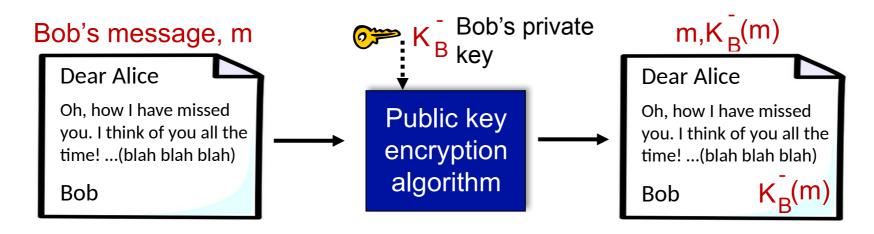
and knows only Alice could have the private key, that encrypted R such that

$$K_A^+$$
 $(K_A^-(R)) = R$

Digital signatures

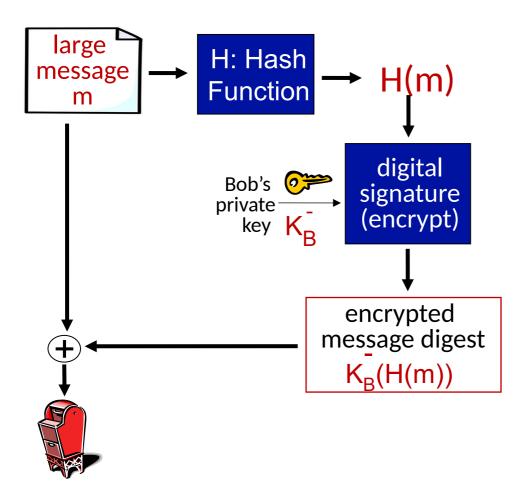
cryptographic technique analogous to hand-written signatures:

- sender (Bob) digitally signs document: he is document owner/creator.
- verifiable, nonforgeable: recipient (Alice) can prove to someone that Bob, and no one else (including Alice), must have signed document
- simple digital signature for message m:
 - Bob signs m by encrypting with his private key K_B, creating "signed" message, K_B-(m)

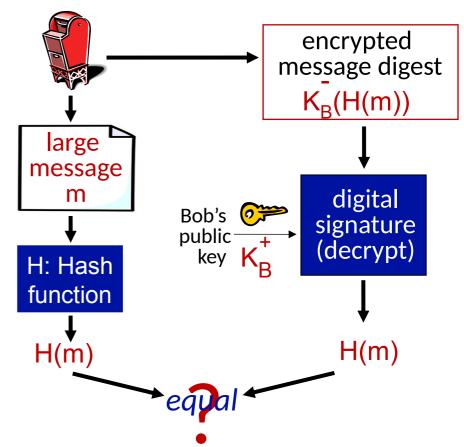


Digital signature = signed message digest

Bob sends digitally signed message:

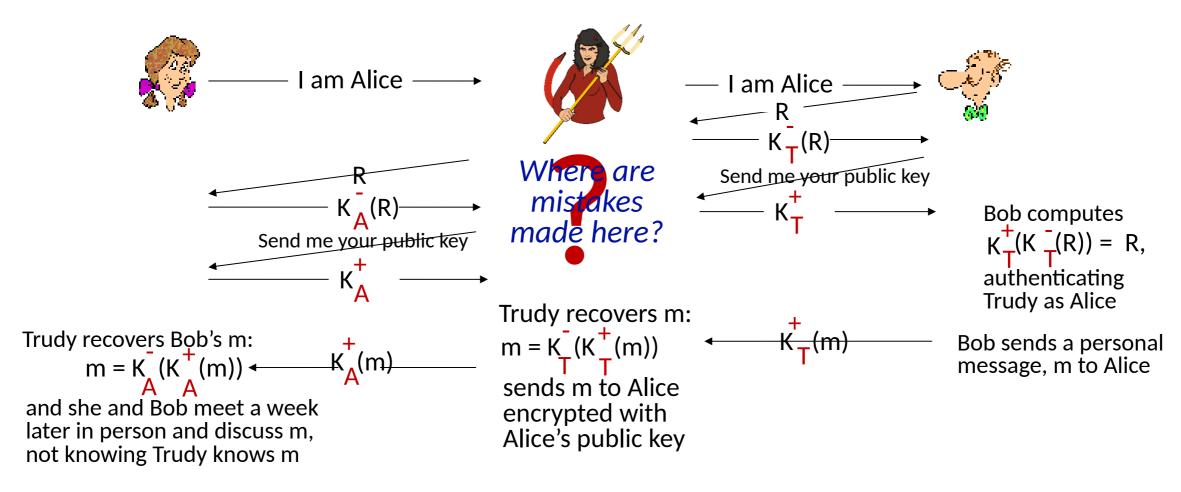


Alice verifies signature, integrity of digitally signed message:



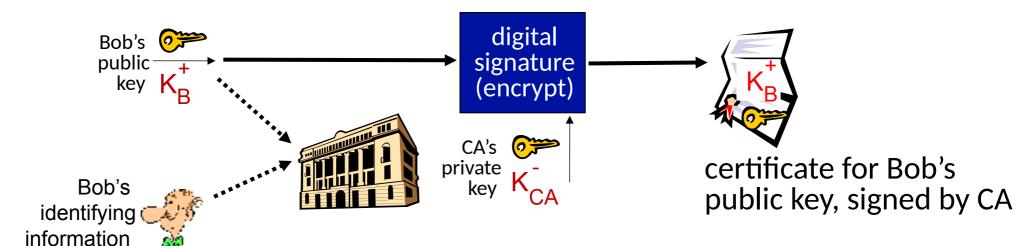
Authentication: ap5.0 - let's fix it!!

Recall the problem: Trudy poses as Alice (to Bob) and as Bob (to Alice)



Public key Certification Authorities (CA)

- certification authority (CA): binds public key to particular entity, E
- entity (person, website, router) registers its public key with CE provides "proof of identity" to CA
 - CA creates certificate binding identity E to E's public key
 - certificate containing E's public key digitally signed by CA: CA says "this is E's public key"



Public key Certification Authorities (CA)

- when Alice wants Bob's public key:
 - gets Bob's certificate (Bob or elsewhere)
 - apply CA's public key to Bob's certificate, get Bob's public key

