

# Appendix

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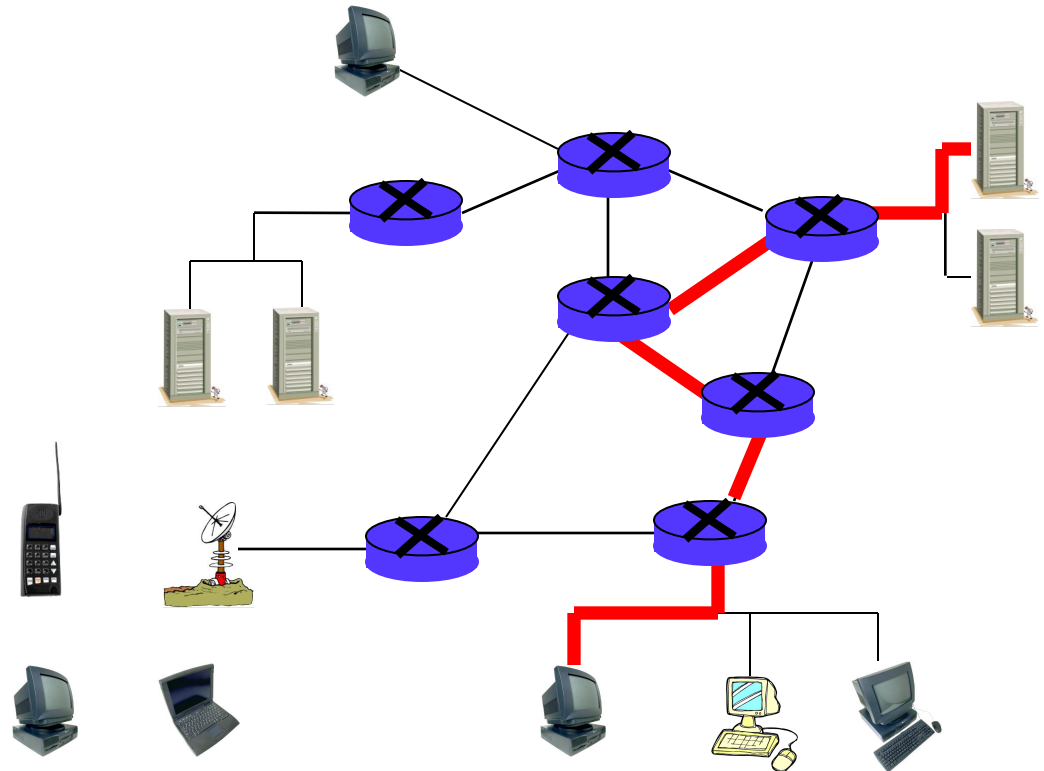
- Networking basics
  - Protocol stack, layers, etc.
- Math basics
  - Modular arithmetic
  - Permutations
  - Probability
  - Linear algebra

# 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

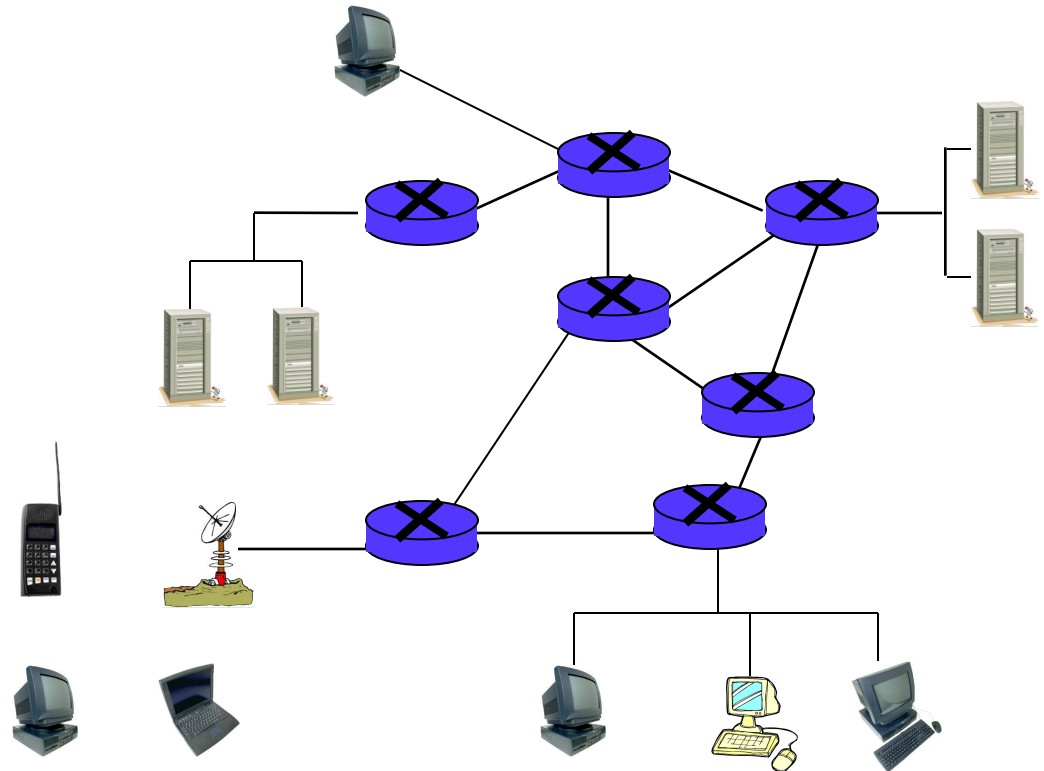
# Network

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



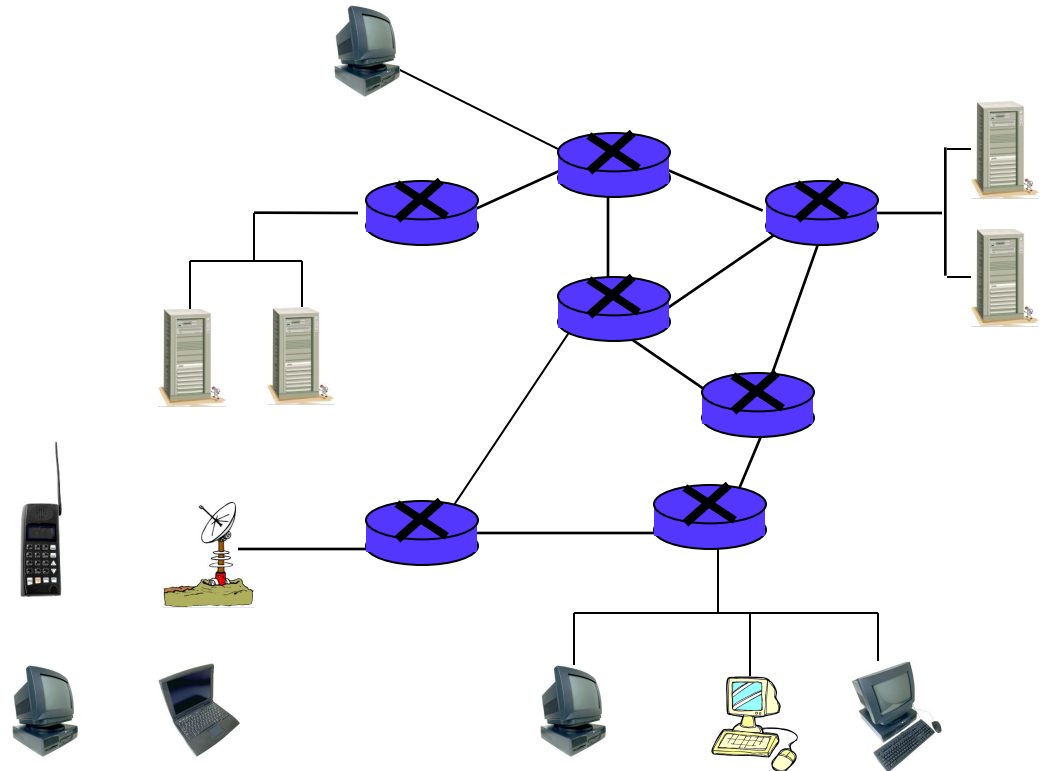
# Network Edge

- 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

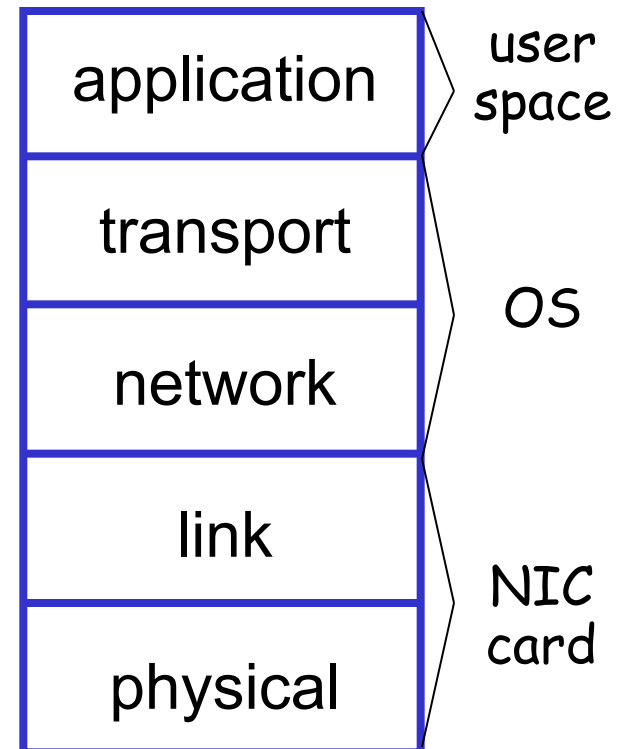
- Telephone network is/was **circuit switched**
  - For each call, a dedicated circuit established
  - Dedicated bandwidth
- Modern data networks are **packet switched**
  - Data is chopped up into discrete packets
  - Packets are transmitted independently
  - No dedicated circuit is established
  -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

# Network Protocols

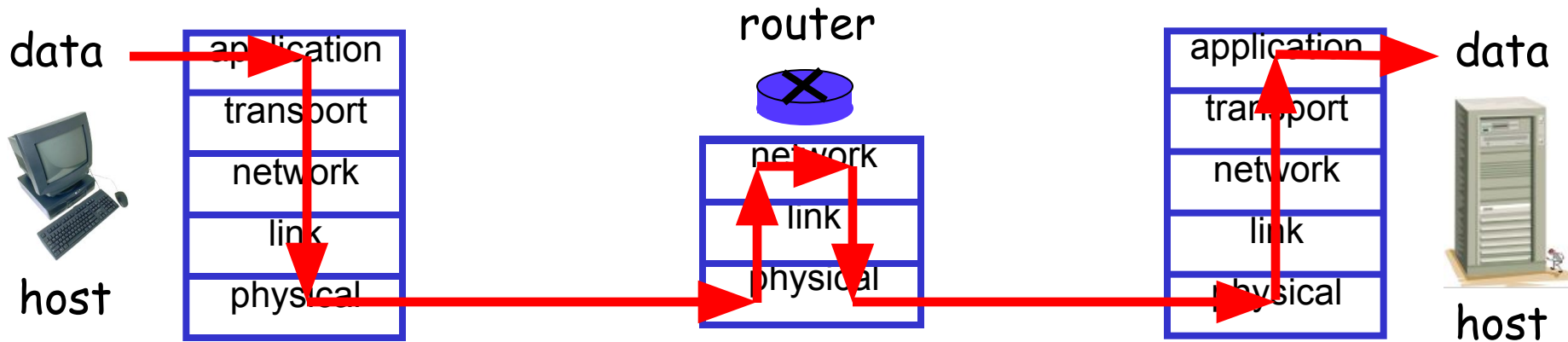
- ❑ Study of networking focused on **protocols**
- ❑ Networking protocols precisely specify “communication rules”
- ❑ Details are given in **RFCs**
  - RFC is essentially an Internet standard
- ❑ **Stateless** protocols do not “remember”
- ❑ **Stateful** protocols do “remember”
- ❑ Many security problems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



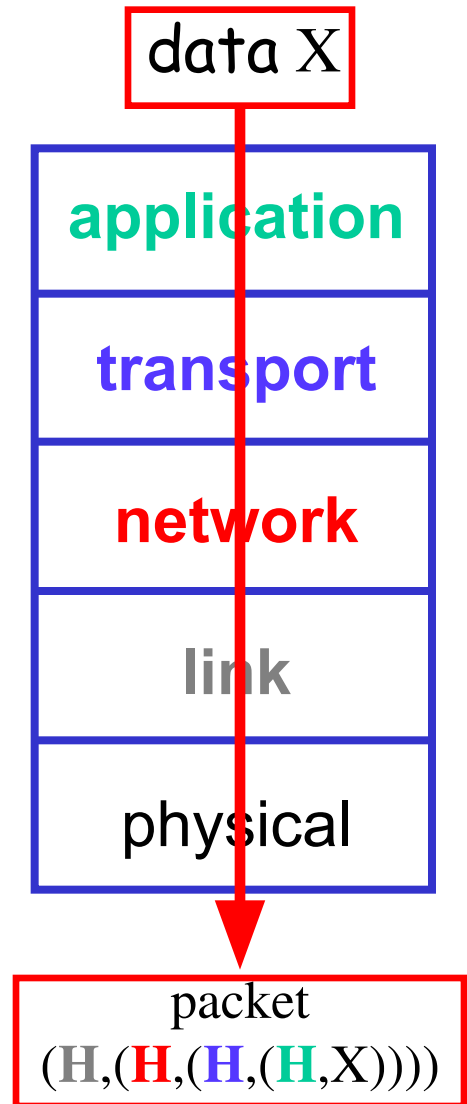
# Layering in Action



- ❑ 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

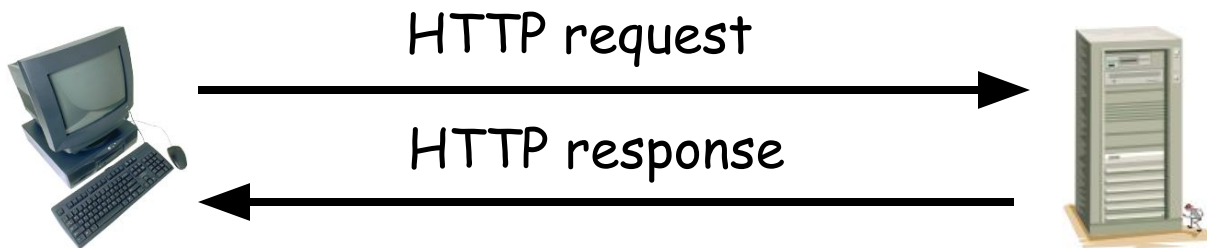
# Client-Server Model

- **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

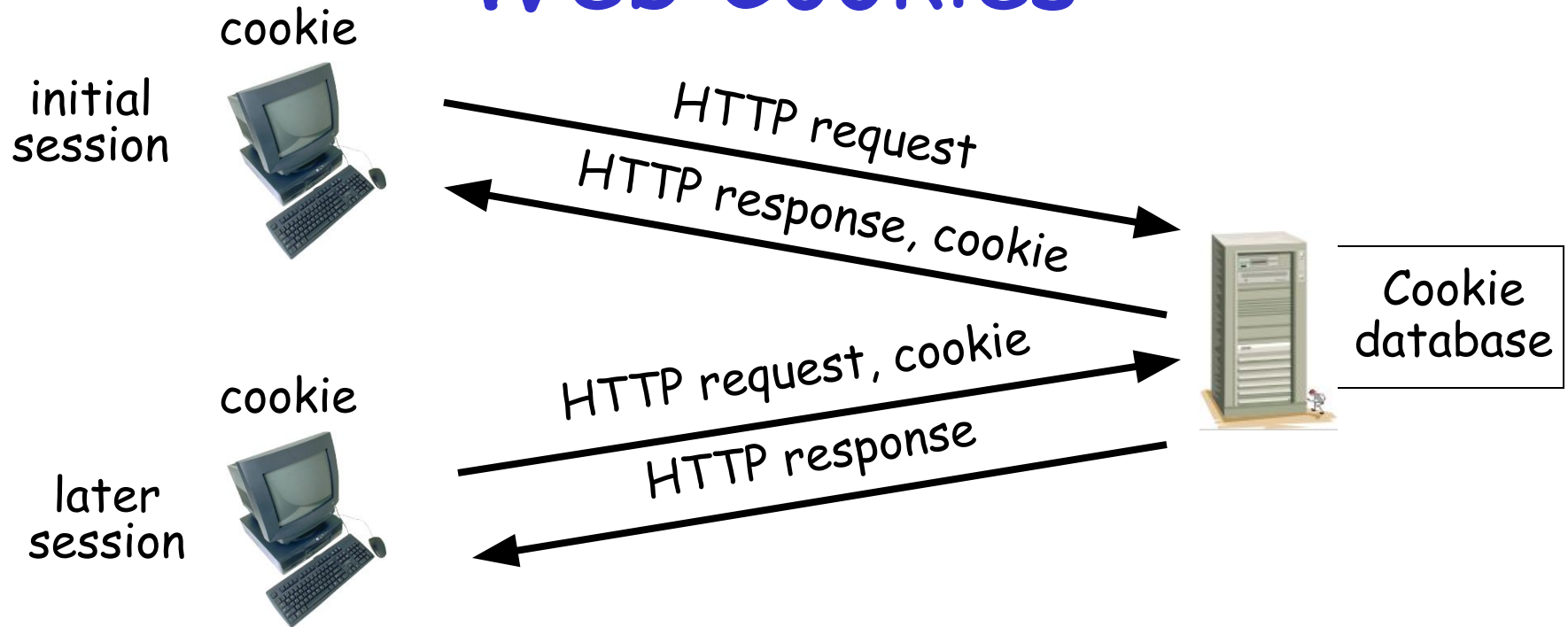
- Hosts act as clients and servers
- For example, when sharing music
  - You are client when requesting a file
  - You are a server when someone downloads a file from you
- In P2P, how does client find server?
  - Many different P2P models for this

# HTTP Example



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

# Web Cookies



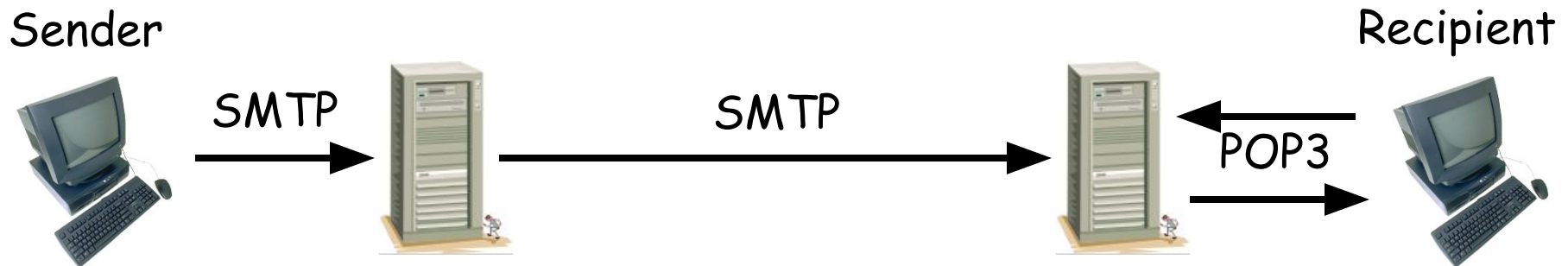
- HTTP is stateless □ cookies used to add state
- Initially, cookie sent from server to browser
- Browser manages cookie, sends it to server
- Server uses cookie database to "remember" you

# 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



# Spooferd 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](http://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)

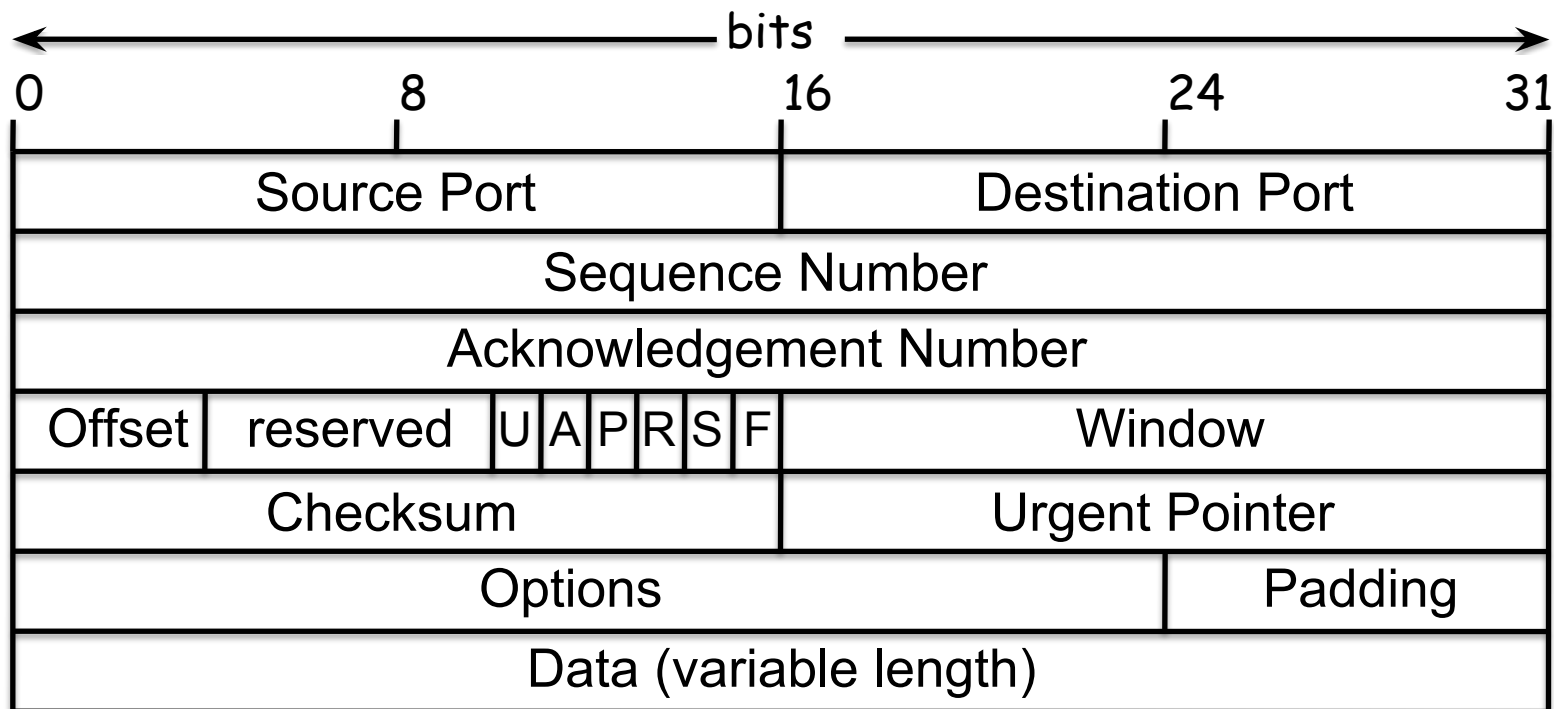
# Transport Layer

- ❑ 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

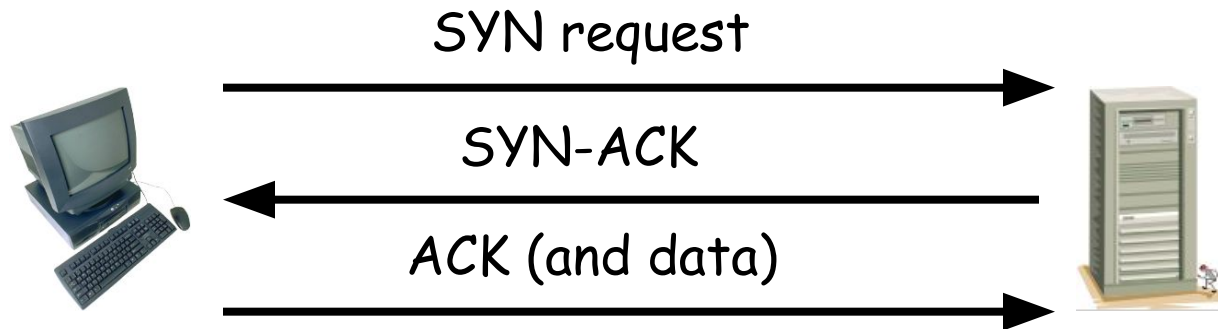
- TCP assures that packets...
  - Arrive at destination
  - Are processed in order
  - Are not sent too fast for receiver: **flow control**
- TCP also attempts to provide...
  - Network-wide **congestion control**
- TCP is **connection-oriented**
  - TCP contacts server before sending data
  - Orderly 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

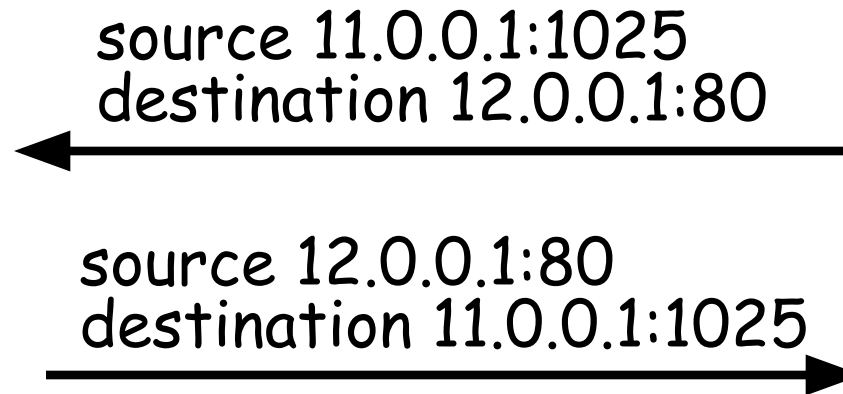
- ❑ Network Address Translation (**NAT**)
  - Trick to extend IP address space
- ❑ Use one IP address (different port numbers) for multiple hosts
  - "Translates" outside IP address (based on port number) to inside IP address

# NAT-less Example



Web  
server

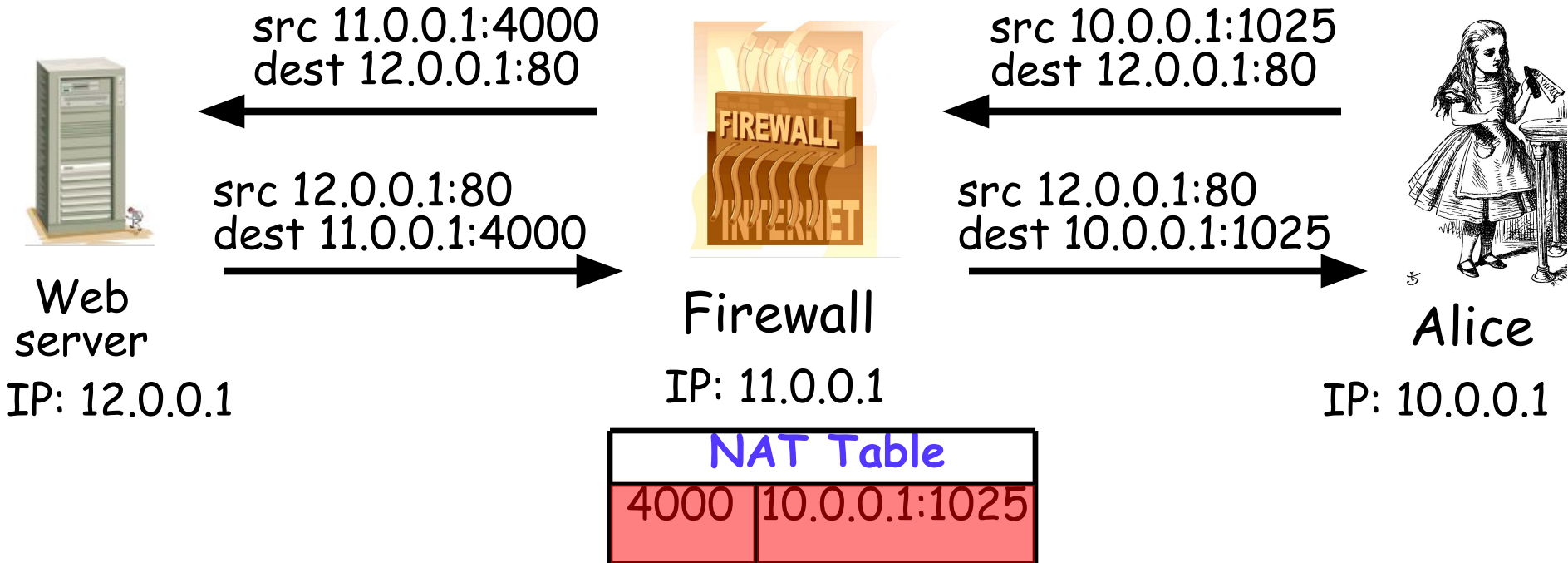
IP: 12.0.0.1  
Port: 80



Alice

IP: 11.0.0.1  
Port: 1025

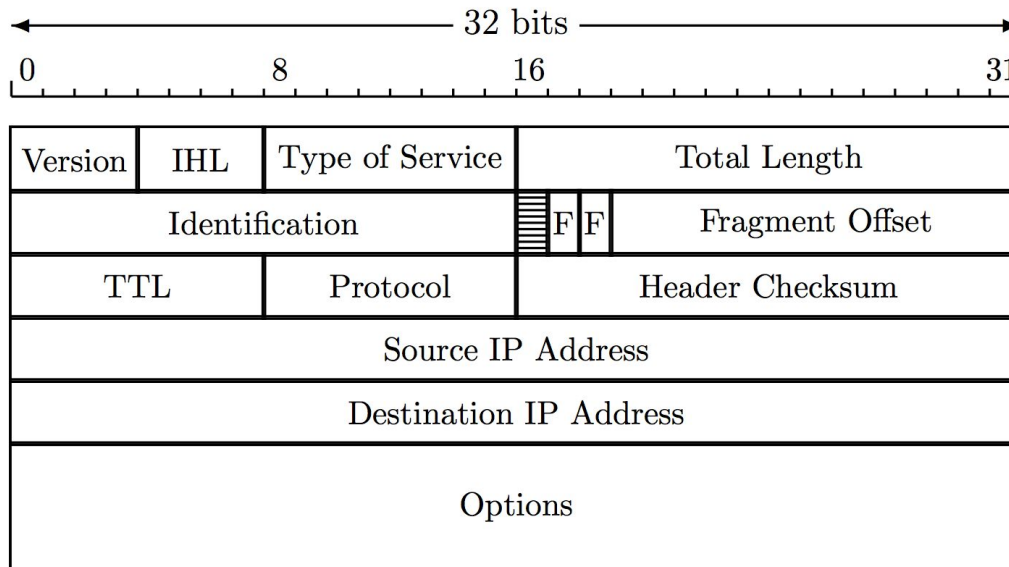
# NAT Example



# NAT: The Last Word

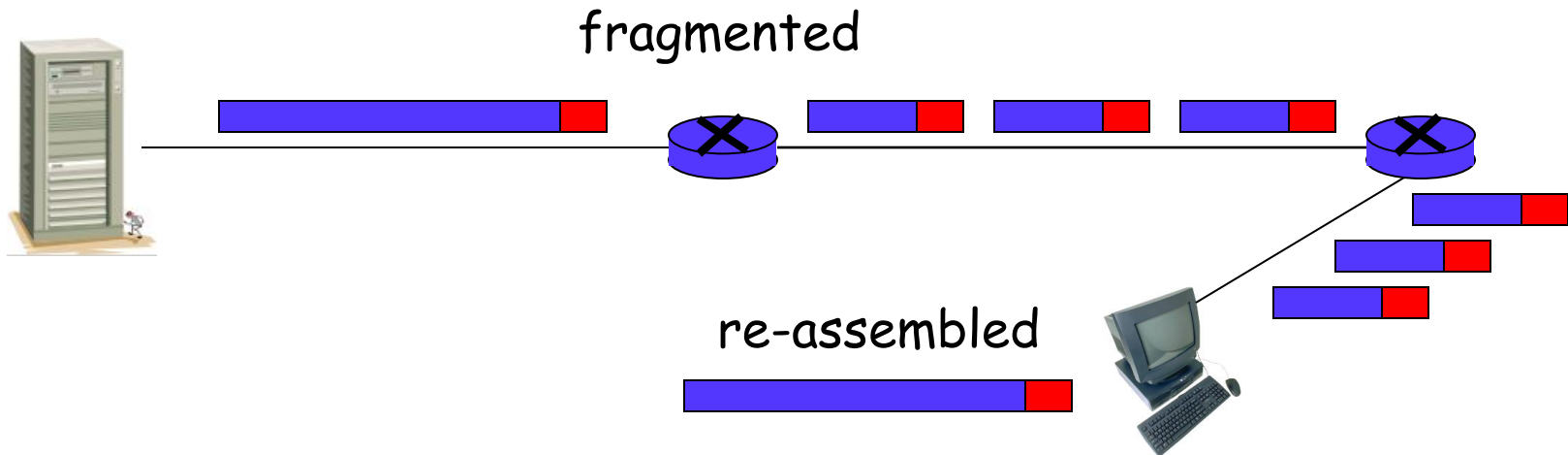
- Advantage(s)?
  - Extends IP address space
  - One (or a few) IP address(es) can be shared by many users
- Disadvantage(s)?
  - End-to-end security is more difficult
  - Might make IPSec less effective (IPSec discussed in Chapter 10)

# 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

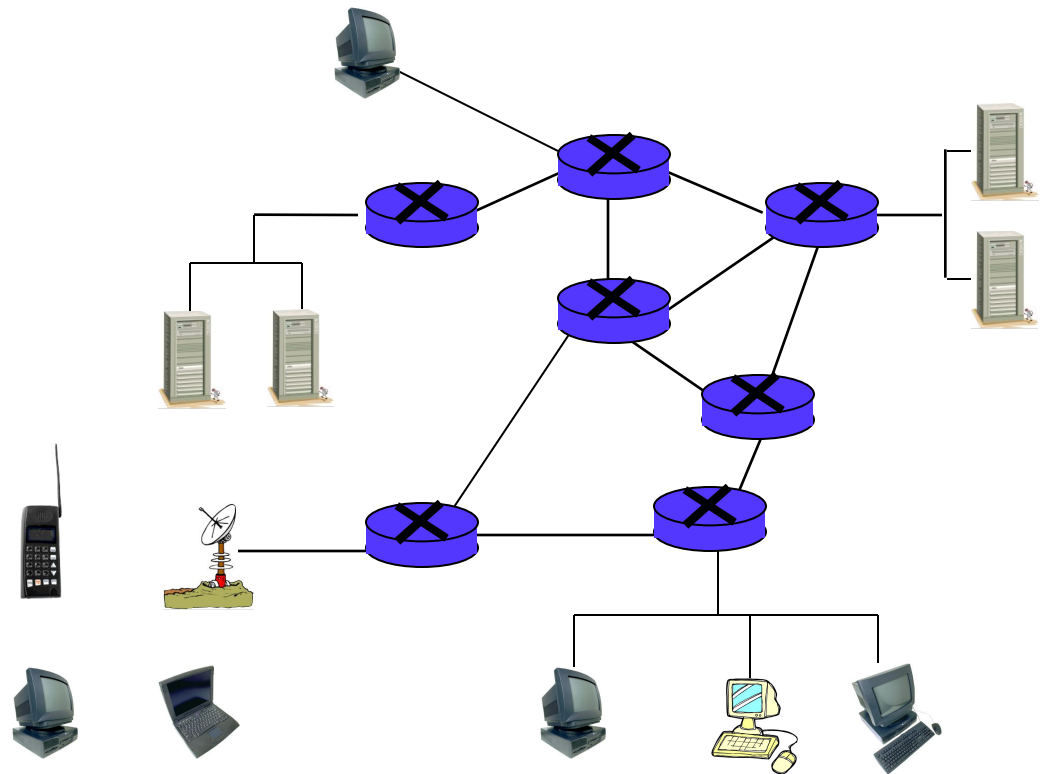
- ❑ One packet becomes multiple packets
- ❑ Packets reassembled at **destination**
  - Prevents multiple fragmentation/reassemble
- ❑ Fragmentation is a security issue...
  - Fragments may obscure real purpose of packet
  - Fragments can overlap when reassembled
  - Must reassemble packet to fully understand 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

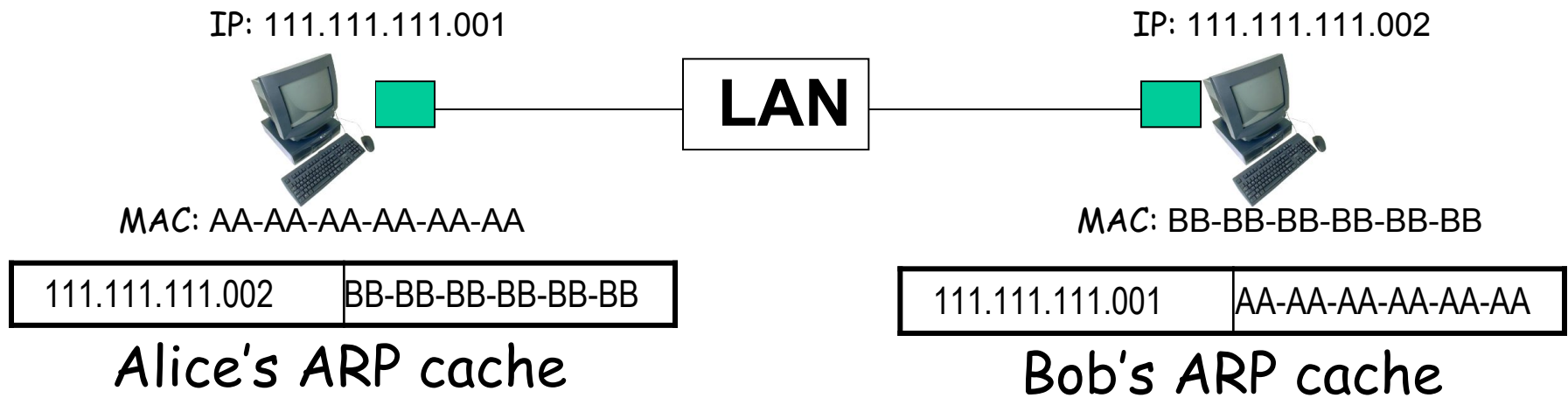
- ❑ IP addresses live at network layer
- ❑ Link layer also needs addresses □ Why?
  - **MAC address** (LAN address, physical address)
- ❑ **MAC address**
  - 48 bits, globally unique
  - Used to forward packets over one link
- ❑ **Analogy...**
  - IP address is like your home address
  - MAC address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

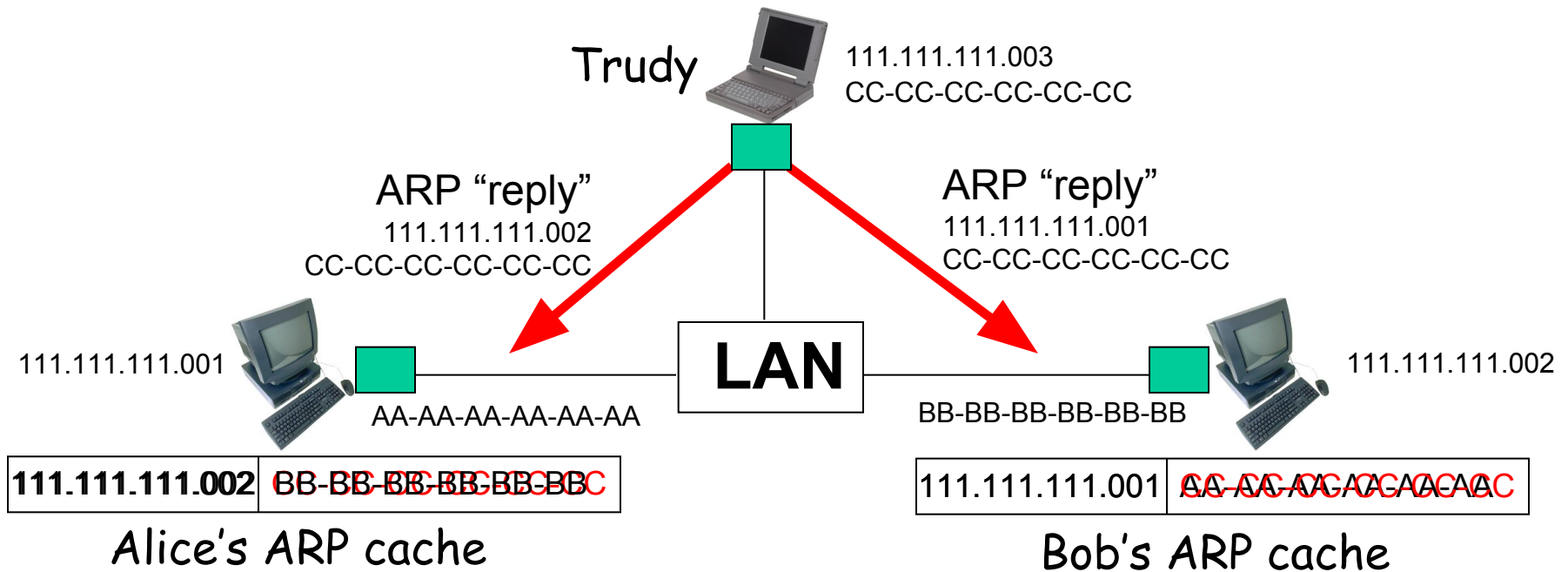
# ARP

- ARP is *stateless*
- ARP can send **request** and receive **reply**
- Reply msgs used to fill/update ARP cache



# 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

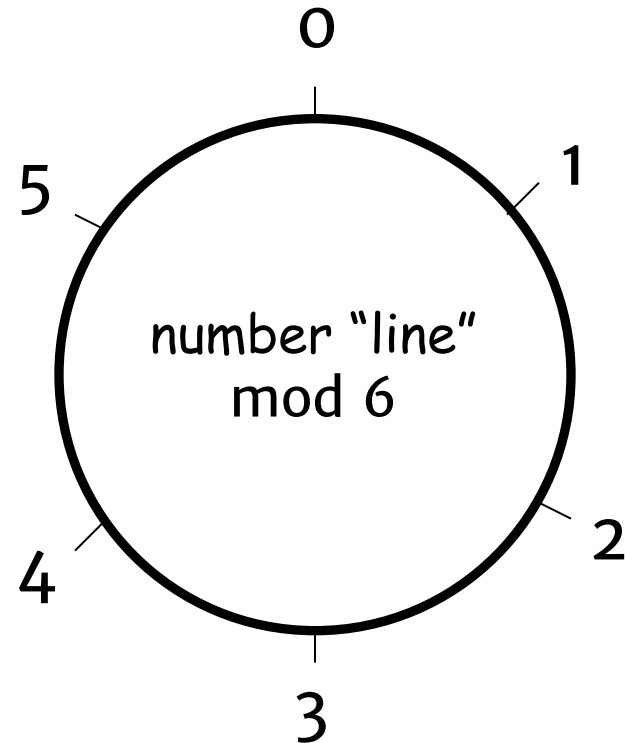
7/5ths of all people don't understand fractions.

Anonymous

# Modular Arithmetic

# Clock Arithmetic

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



# Modular Addition

## □ Notation and fun 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

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

# 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  $-3 \pmod{6}$ ?
- A: 3
- Q: What is  $-1 \pmod{6}$ ?
- A: 5
- Q: What is  $5^{-1} \pmod{6}$ ?
- A: 5
- Q: What is  $2^{-1} \pmod{6}$ ?
- 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  $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$ 
  - 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  $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N-1\}$  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  $\mathfrak{R}$  be the set of real numbers
- Then  $v \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  is a vector of  $n$  elements
- For example
  - $v = [v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4] = [2, -1, 3.2, 7] \in \mathfrak{R}^4$
- The dot product of  $u, v \in \mathfrak{R}^n$  is
  - $u \cdot v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$

# 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

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

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

□ 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  $3 \times 3$  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