

# CCNA Summary

## CCNA Routing & Switching 200-120

### Understanding Networks and their Building Blocks

#### What is a network

A network is nothing more than a collection of interconnected devices. A network is a tool to decrease cost, time, and effort to increase productivity of people. For example by sharing files between offices a company can share data between them in real-time. Networks reduce cost by sharing printers and other devices between multiple clients.

To connect to a network you'll need a **Network Interface Card (NIC)**, this connects to a network via a cable (e.g. Ethernet). A NIC handles layer 1 and 2 (physical and network), the other layers are delegated to software layers in the layers above layer 2.

#### Hubs and Switchers

To connect more than two devices with each other you need to use a *Hub* or a *switch*.

A hub has two major disadvantages over a switch:

- A hub repeats the information of one host to all other connected hosts. Even if the message is only meant for one other client.
- A hub can process only one message at a time. If multiple clients send a message at the same time a collision occurs. This collision is called a collision domain (all clients connected to one hub share the same collision domain)

Switches don't have a collision domain, which makes it a more efficient and faster device for routing messages on a network. So you could say that a switch breaks up a collision domain.

Clients can communicate via three ways over the network.

- **Unicast** A host sends a message to one other host on the network.
- **Broadcast** A host sends a message to all other hosts on the network.
- **Multicast** A host sends a message to a couple of hosts on the network.

All hosts connected to a network are in the same **broadcast domain**, which means that a broadcast message will get picked up by all connected hosts in the broadcast domain. Really large networks can have problems with too many broadcasts. A **router** breaks up broadcast domains. Routers separate networks from each other and do not allow broadcasts between those networks.

Besides breaking up broadcast networks routers have other essential functions for making multiple interconnected networks possible:

- **Packet Switching** Just like a switch, routers switch packets between networks.
- **Connect Networks** Routers allow connecting networks with each other.
- **Path Selection** Routers can learn about connected networks and pick the best path to send messages between networks.
- **Packet Filtering** Routers can drop packets based on rules set by a network administrator.

### Networking Types

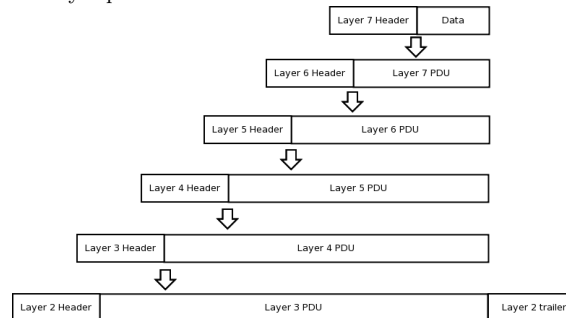
There are two important types of networks: **Local Area Network (LAN)** and **Wide Area Network (WAN)**. LANs are smaller networks most of the time, you'll find them in your home, at work, and at school. They cover a small area like a floor or a building. They can transfer a large amount of data. WANs cover areas like cities, countries, or continents, they connect LANs across areas they cover.

### OSI Reference Model

The OSI layer

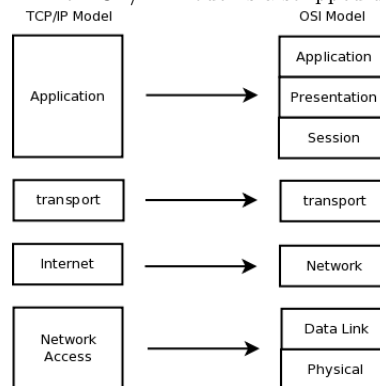
- **Host layer**
  - **Application layer** Protocols for communication with applications.
  - **Presentation layer** Formatting, compression, and encryption/decryption.
  - **Session** Managing of sessions.
  - **Transport** Reliable transmission of data segments between points on a network.
- **Media layer**
  - **Network** Structuring and managing a multi-node network (addressing, routing, traffic control).
  - **Data link** Reliable transmission of data frames between two nodes
  - **Physical** Transmission and reception of raw bit streams over a physical medium.

Encapsulation of the different layers. Note that layer 2 encapsulates the layer packet on both sides.



### TCP/IP Model

The TCP/IP Model is a stripped down version of the OSI Model.



### Transport Control Protocol (TCP)

TCP is a layer 3 protocol and is encapsulated by layer (Internet) and encapsulates the application layer. The protocol uses a three-way handshake (SYN, SYN ACK, SYN ACK). After the handshake it breaks down the data of the application layer into segments and adds its own header at the front of the fragment and sends it to layer 1 (Network Access).

The size of a TCP packet is based on the MTU (maximum transmission unit), a packet can never be bigger than the MTU so most of the time the data of the application layer will be broken up into segments.

TCP also handles flow control, how fast a host can send data to the client. This is done based on a *window* this window scales up and down depending on how full the window is. If a host doesn't get enough ACK responses it will decrease the window size, it will increase the window size if it continuously receives ACK responses.

If the host doesn't get an ACK back it will resend the message that has not been ACKed. This can be done because each TCP header contains a *sequence number* so the host can see which packets have been ACKed. This sequence number is also used to reorder the packages in the right order to send it to the application layer.

### User Datagram Protocol (UDP)

UDP is like TCP a protocol on the Internet layer, that is the only thing they have in common. UDP doesn't have knowledge of connections or does anything to make sure the package is sent and received. The advantage of UDP over TCP is that it doesn't have the overhead of TCP (retransmitting packages, keeping track of connections etc.).

### Internet Protocol (IPv4 only)

This is the backbone of the internet, it allows hosts to connect to each other. Routers use IP addresses to route IP packets from network to network.

### Ethernet

Ethernet is a protocol at the Data link layer of the OSI model. It actually contains two layers:

**802.3 Media Access Layer (MAC)** The physical part of this layer.

**802.2 Logical link Control (LLC)** The software part of this layer.

Ethernet does the following things on this layer:

**Collision Detection (CSMA/CD)** If a collision occurs it will set a timer and wait for x amount of milliseconds.

**Encapsulation of the Network layer** Note that this encapsulation has a header and a trailer.

**Ethernet addressing** A unique address for a single device on a LAN network. Switches use MAC addresses to switch packets between devices instead of IP addresses.

An ethernet address is 48 bits long. The first 24 bits are for the **Organizationally Unique Identifier (OUI)**, the last 24 bits are unique to that specific NIC.

## IP Addressing and Subnets

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## Introduction to Cisco Routers, Switches and IOS

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## Introduction to IP Routing

In the simplest terms, IP Routing is the process of moving packets from its source to its destination across internetworks. To be able to route packets, a router must know at a minimum the following:

- Destination address
- Neighbor routers from which it can learn about remote networks
- Possible routes to all remote networks
- The best route to each remote network
- Be able to maintain and verify routing information

The following steps are taking place when a router routes a packet. *Please note that this is simplified!*

- Step 1** Determine on same network by doing AND operation on source and destination
- Step 2** if the destination is the same network use ARP-table for the MAC if not use default gateway
- Step 3** if packet not the same network use default gateway
- Step 4** router examines the MAC address
- Step 5** if MAC address is in the routing table sends frame towards corresponding interface
- Step 6** if router does not have a match look for default gateway
- Step 7** if there is no default gateway present drop packet

As you would have realized by now, the essence of routing is how the router learns about the remote networks. Routing information is stored in the routing table also called the Routing Information Base (RIB). The RIB consists of routes to destination networks.

- For direct connected entries the RIB looks like this:
- Route Source** Identifies how the route was learned
- Destination network** The address of the remote network and how that network is connected
- Outgoing interface** Identifies the exit interface to use when forwarding packets to the destination network

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- Route Source** Identifies how the route was learned
- Destination network** The address of the remote network and how that network is connected
- Administrative Distance** Identifies the trustworthiness of the route source
- Metric** identifies the value assigne to reach the remote network. Lower values indicate preferred routes
- Outgoing interface** Identifies the exit interface to use when forwarding packets to the destination network

There are multiple Route Sources each letter has a different mean:

- S** Static Route
- D** Dynamically learned using EIGRP
- O** Dynamically learned using OSPF
- R** Dynamically learned using RIP
- L** Identifies that this is a local route
- C** Identifies a directly connected network

There are four types of static routes:

- Standard** Static Route are useful when connecting to a specific remote network
- Default** Static Route matches all packets and is used by the router if a package does not match a more specific route.
- Summary** Static Route to reduce the number of routing table entries, multiple static routes can be summarized if network is contiguous and all use the same exit interface or next-hop ip
- Floating** static routes are static routes that are used to provide a backup path to a primary static or dynamic route, in the event of a link failure.To accomplish this, the floating static route is configured with a higher administrative distance than the primary route.

## Routing Protocols

### RIPv1 & RIPv2

RIP is a *distance vector* protocol, the only widely used routing protocol that uses the distance vector protocol today.

RIPv1 was defined as a *classful* protocol. Therefore it does not advertise subnet mask information and assumes the default subnest mask based on the class of the network.

When a router starts up, it will automatically add the connected networks to its routing table, denoting them with a **C**. If RIP is enabled, the router broadcasts its routing table. Neighbouring routers router with RIP enabled will receive the broadcast update and add the routes to their own routing tables. Each RIP enabled router will broadcast its routing table this way, therefore the routing table will converge accross the network.

- RIP has the following characteristics:
- RIP sends out its *entire* routing table every 30 seconds.
  - Has a maximum hop count limit of 15.
  - Implements split horizon, route poisoning and holddown timers to prevent routing loops.
  - High convergence time.

RIP uses 4 different timers:

- Router update timer** Interval between the routing table broadcasts.
- Router invalid timer** If a router does not head any updates about a route, it will consider that route as invalid.
- Holddown timer** When a route becomes invalid, it enters into holddown state. The route will remain in the routing table but the router will not accept any updates regaring this rout unless the metric is equal to or better than the existing metric.
- Router flush timer** While a route is in holddown state, the route is still in the routing table and will remain so for the duration specified by the flush timer.

## Enhanced Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (EIGRP)

EIGRP is a Cisco Proprietary classless routing protocol. It takes various features of *distance vecor* and *link state* protocols to overcome the disadvantages of a distance vector protocol.

EIGRP uses the following features of a *distance vector protocol*:

- Hop count limit of 100 by default (*up to 255*).
- Uses *routing-by-rumor* mechanism.
- Implements loop avoidance techniques.

From a *link state protocol* it inherits:

- Neighbour discovery and periodically checking their state.
- Only sends updates when changes occur.

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## Open Shortest Path First (OSPF)

OSPF is a *link state protocol*. Besides it is also an open standard protocol, which allows OSPF to be used in a multivendor network. Compared to EIGRP, OSPF is a more complex protocol. The features of OSPF are:

- Works on the concept of Areas and Autonomous systems.
- Highly scalable.
- Support VLSM/CIDR and dis-contiguos networks.
- Does not have a hop count limit.
- Works in multivender environments.
- Minimizes updates between neighbors.
- And many more features...

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## Switching and Spanning Tree Protocol

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## VLANs and VTP

### MAC address table

The ultimate goal of a switch it to carry frames from source to destination based on the MAC. Switch maintains a MAC Address Table. When a switch receives a frame it does one of these 4 type of casts

**Known unicast** the switch has an entry in its MAC Address Table so it forwards the frame towards the associated interface

**Unknown Unicast** the switch has no entry in its MAC Address Table and forwards a copy of the frame out of all interface, except the ingress port.

**Broadcast** same as unknown unicast. There isn't much difference between Unknown Unicast and Broadcasting.

**Multicast** the switch floods frame identically to unknown unicasts and broadcasts, unless certain multicast optimizations are configured.

### VLAN

VLAN allows the network to be segmented based on factors like: function, location or department. VLAN creates a logical broadcast domain that can span multiple physical LAN segment. Some of the benefits are:

- Security
- Cost Reduction
- Better Performance
- Reduce size of broadcast domains
- Simple management
- Improved IT staff efficiency

There are 5 types of VLAN:

**Data VLAN** Carries user-generated traffic. VLAN carrying voice or management traffic would not be a data VLAN (Data VLAN also called User VLAN)

**Default VLAN** Default VLAN in Cisco switches is VLAN 1. And all switch ports become part of the default VLAN after initial boot up.

**Native VLAN** A native VLAN is assigned to an 802.1Q trunk port. The 802.1Q trunk port places untagged traffic on the native VLAN, which by default is VLAN 1.

**Management VLAN** A management VLAN is any VLAN configured to access the management capabilities of a switch. VLAN 1 is the management VLAN by default

**Voice VLAN** A separate VLAN is needed to support Voice over IP (VoIP). Needs: Assured bandwidth, Transmission,

VLAN's wouldn't be useful without trunks. A VLAN trunk extends VLANs across an entire network. Cisco supports IEEE 802.1Q for coordinating trunks on Fast Ethernet, Gigabit Ethernet, and 10-Gigabit Ethernet interfaces. *switchport access vlan 10* assigns a VLAN to an interface port.

### VLAN Routing

Without a router VLAN cannot be routed through the network regardless of the device used, the process of forwarding network traffic from one VLAN to another VLAN using routing is known as inter-VLAN routing. There are three types.

**Legacy Inter-VLAN routing** performed by using different physical router interfaces to different physical switch ports. Needs a cable for each VLAN. switch port must be in access mode

**Router-on-a-stick** Router-on-a-stick is a type of router configuration in which a single physical interface routes traffic between multiple VLANs on a network. Makes use of subinterfaces. switch interface must be in trunk mode.

**Layer 3 switching using SVIs** Is out of scope for CCNA

## Network Security

### Security Introduction

Internet and networks are becoming more complex and mission critical. Through the recent years there has been an integration of network infrastructures. As a matter of fact, no computer system in the world can be completely secure no matter how good the security measures are. Probably the only way to fully secure a computer is to isolate it completely, restricting all physical and virtual access to it. Such a system would not be connected to any network and would probably be stored in a secured vault somewhere with no physical access

Cisco IOS software running on Cisco routers has several built-in security tools that can be used as part of a good overall security strategy. Probably the most important security tool in Cisco IOS software are access control lists (ACL)

**C** Confidentiality - prevents access to sensitive information

**I** Integrity - prevents unauthorized modification of data

**A** Availability - prevents the loss of access to information

In a medium to large enterprise, the typical secured network is built around a recipe of a perimeter router, a firewall device, and an internal router:

**Perimeter Router** is the border between enterprise resources and the public network (internet)

**Firewall** Firewall allows sophisticated control of traffic flow.

**Internal Router** provides additional security by providing a point for further traffic control

**DMZ** provides a buffer zone that separates a trusted network from the untrusted network.

Vulnerabilities, Threats and Exploits:

**Vulnerability** - a weakness in a system or design which can be exploited by a threat

**Threat** - threat is an external danger to the system have a vulnerability

**Exploit** said to exist when computer code is actually developed to take advantages of a vulnerability.

### Type of Attacks

There are three major types of network attacks:

- Reconnaissance Attacks
- Access Attacks
- Denial of Service

### Counter measures

Physical and Administrative security measures

- Locks
- Biometric access systems
- Security Traps
- IDS
- Safes
- Racks
- UPS
- Positive air-flow systems
- Fire Suppression systems

## Port Security

You can use port security feature to *restrict* who can access the network by connecting to a switchport.

You can specify which MAC addresses are allowed to access the port. If a port is configured as a secure port and the maximum number of MAC addresses is reached, any additional attempts to connect by unknown MAC addresses will generate a security violation  
There are three Secure MAC Address Types

**Static Secure** manually configured MAC addresses. Are stored in address table and added to the running-config

**Dynamic Secure** are dynamically learned. Are stored in address table and are removed when the switch restarts

**Sticky Secure** can either be manually or dynamically learned. stored in the address table and added to running-config  
Sticky Learning must be enabled by the command *switchport port-security mac-address sticky*

### Access Lists

An ACL is a series of IOS commands that control whether a router forwards or drops packets based on information when configured, ACL perform the following tasks

- Limit network traffic to increase network performance
- Provide traffic flow control
- provide a basic level of security for network access
- provide a basic level of security for network
- filter traffic
- Screen hosts to permit or deny access

Packet filtering works at Layer 3 and 4. The last statement of an ACL is always an implicit deny. This statement is automatically inserted at the end of each ACL even though it is not physically present. ACLs can be configured to apply to inbound traffic and outbound traffic.

**Inbound ACL** incoming packets are processed before they are routed to the outbound interface. An inbound ACL is efficient because it saves the overhead of routing lookups

**Outbound ACL** incoming packets are routed to the outbound interface, and then they are processed through the outbound ACL

A wildcard mask is a string of 32 binary digits used by the router to determine which bits of the address to examine for a match. Also note that an ACL mask is reversed meaning. example:

- 255.255.255.255 == 0.0.0.0
- 255.255.255.252 == 0.0.0.3
- 255.255.255.248 == 0.0.0.7

Guide lines for creating ACL's:

- Use ACL in Firewalls between your internal network
- Use ACL on a router positioned between two parts of your network
- Use ACL on border routers, that is, routers situated at the edges of your networks.
- Configure ACLs for each network protocol configured on the border router interfaces.
- One ACL per protocol
- One per direction
- One per interface

There are two types of Acces lists

**Standard ACL** Standard access lists use source IP addresses for matching packets.

**Extended ACL** Extended access lists use source and destination IP addresses for matching packets and optional protocol type information for finer granularity of control.

## Network Address Translation (NAT)

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This chapter is not yet complete!

## Wide Area Networks

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## Virtual Private Networks (VPN)

### VPN Concept

VPNs have several advantages over other WAN technologies:

**Cost** Internet VPN solutions can be much cheaper than alternative private WAN options.

**Security** Modern VPN solutions can be as secure as private WAN options.

**Scalability** Internet VPN solutions can be scaled quickly and cost-effectively to a large number of sites.

VPNs are used to transport data from a private network to another private network over a public network (*the internet for example*), using encryption. Therefore a VPN is a encrypted connection between private networks over a public network. VPNs provide the following services:

**Confidentiality** Prevents anyone in the middle from being able to read the data.

**Integrity** Ensures that data is not modified in any way.

**Authentication** Authentication to verify the device at the other end is a legitimate device.

**Anti-Replay** Hackers are unable to make changes to packets.

Key Concept

VPNs offer confidentiality, integrity, authentication, and anti-replay protection for user data.

A VPN is often called a *tunnel* because it is essentially a secure channel.

### IPsec VPNs

TODO

This chapter is not yet complete!

## SSL VPNs & Tunneling Protocols

TODO

This chapter is not yet complete!

## GRE Tunnels

TODO

This chapter is not yet complete!

## IPv6

### IPv6 Introduction

Due to the shortcomings of IPv4, the Internet Protocol version 6 (IPv6) has been created. The main reason for migratig TCP/IP networks from IPv4 to IPv6 is the avaiable address space. While IPv4 uses a 32-bit address, IPv6 uses a 128-bit address. The change from IPv4 to IPv6 also impacts other protocols as well (*OSPFv3, EIGRPv6, etc.*).

Just like IPv4, the main objective of IPv6 is to enable devices to forward packets through multiple routers so they arrive at the correct destination. However, IPv6 contains a number of differences over IPv4:

- Larger address space;
- Auto-configuration;
- The IPv6 header is *not* similar to the IPv4 header;
- Extension headers/options;
- Authentication and privacy;
- Flow labels (*QoS*).

There are thee types of IPv6 addresses:

**Unicast** Unique address for each interface.

**Anycast** Multiple interfaces, packets are send to one (*nearest*).

**Multicast** Multiple interfaces, packets are send to all.

Key Concept

IPv6 broadcast addresses are special case of multicast addresses.

An IPv6 address is a 128-bit value, displayed as 8 groups of 4 hexadecimal digits. For example: 2001:0DB8:0000:0000:0006:0600:300D:527B. Leading zeros can be left out: 2001:DB8:0:0:6:600:300D:527B, one or more adjectent groups of 16 bit of zeros can be replaced with the :: symbol (*once!*): 2001:DB8::6:600:300D:527B.

IPv6 provides tow similar options for unicast addressing:

**Global Unicast** Similar to public IPv4 addresses. These addresses are allocated by the IANA. Each company is assigned a unique IPv6 address block called a *global routing prefix*. Global Unicast addresses make up the majority of IPv6 addresses.

**Unique Local** Similar to private IPv4 addresses. Can by used by when behind a IPv6 NAT and in networks that aren’t connected to the internet.

IPv6 addresses can be identified by the initial bits of the address:

| Address Type       | Binary Prefix   | IPv6 Notation  |
|--------------------|-----------------|----------------|
| Unspecified        | 0000 (128 bits) | :::1/128       |
| Loopback           | 0001 (128 bits) | :::1/128       |
| Multicast          | 1111 1111       | FF00::/8       |
| Link-Local Unicast | 1111 1110 10    | FE80::/10      |
| Global Unicast     | everthing else  | everthing else |

## IPv6 Address Configuration

TODO

This chapter is not yet complete!

## OSPF version 3

TODO

This chapter is not yet complete!

## EIGRP for IPv6

TODO

This chapter is not yet complete!

## IP Services

TODO

This chapter is not yet complete!

## AAA

AAA or triple A stands for, *Authentication*, who is allowed to connect? *Authorisation*, what are the allowed to do? and *Accounting* what is done?

There are several ways to enable AAA on Cisco equipment. For simple environments a *local database* can be used. While providing more security than a simple password it is not scalable across multiple pieces of equipment. To solve the scalability issue, *server based AAA* can be used. The Cisco course describes two different protocols, *RADIUS* and *TACACS+*. They can be enabled on specific login interfaces or all login interfaces and be used alongside each other with prioritization. To provide failover capabilities, more than one server can be specified. In general *server based Authentication* works as follows. The user tries to login on equipment, the equipment verifies the login information with the server and the server responds with an allow or deny message. The communication between equipment and server makes use of an

encryption key. There are several differences between the protocols, choosing a protocol depends on the situation.

- TACACS+
  - Separates authentication and authorisation.
  - Encrypts all communication.
  - Uses TCP.
- RADIUS
  - Authentication and authorisation as one process.
  - Only the password gets encrypted.
  - Uses UDP.
  - Provides support for remote access technologies, 802.1x and session initiation protocol(SIP).

Port based authentication is another subject touched on by AAA. It makes use of the 802.1x protocol and is used to restrict workstations. Workstations that are connected to a switchport with 802.1x need to set up an authorized connection to the switch. This is done by sending out an *EAPOL-start* message to the switch. The switch verifies the workstation with the RADIUS server. Once verified, the workstation has an authorized connection and normal traffic can be transmitted on the connection. To stop an authorized connection an *EAPOL-logoff* message is sent out. Without the authorized connection only *EAPOL* messages can be sent on the connection.

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<https://github.com/roaldnefs/ccna>