University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.1 Access Control Lists (ACLs)

Objectives

- 1. Explain how ACLs are used to filter traffic.
- 2. Compare standard and extended IPv4 ACLs.
- 3. Explain the guidelines for creating and placement of ACLs.
- 4. Modify ACLs.
- 5. Explain how a router processes packets when an ACL is applied.
- 6. Troubleshoot common ACL errors.

1. Purpose of ACLs:

Network security is a huge subject, and one of the most important skills a network administrator needs is mastery of access control lists (ACLs).

Network designers use firewalls to protect networks from unauthorized use. Firewalls are hardware or software solutions that enforce network security policies. Consider a lock on a door to a room inside a building. The lock allows only authorized users with a key or access card to pass through the door. Similarly, a firewall filters unauthorized or potentially dangerous packets from entering the network. On a Cisco router, you can configure a simple firewall that provides basic traffic filtering capabilities using ACLs. Administrators use ACLs to stop traffic or permit only specified traffic on their networks.

An ACL is a sequential list of permit or deny statements that apply to addresses or upper-layer protocols based on information found in the packet header. ACLs provide a powerful way to control traffic into and out of a network. ACLs can be configured for all routed network protocols.

When configured, ACLs perform the following tasks as shown in the figure below:

- Limit network traffic to increase network performance. For example, if corporate policy does not allow video traffic on the network, ACLs that block video traffic could be configured and applied. This would greatly reduce the network load and increase network performance.
- Provide traffic flow control. ACLs can restrict the delivery of routing updates. If updates are not required because of network conditions, bandwidth is preserved.
- Provide a basic level of security for network access. ACLs can allow one host to access a part of the network and prevent another host from accessing the same area. For example, access to the Human Resources network can be restricted to authorized users.
- Filter traffic based on traffic type. For example, an ACL can permit email traffic, but block all Telnet traffic.
- Screen hosts to permit or deny access to network services. ACLs can permit or deny a user to access file types, such as FTP or HTTP.



By default, a router does not have ACLs configured; therefore, by default a router does not filter traffic. Traffic that enters the router is routed solely based on information within the routing table. However, when an ACL is applied to an interface, the router performs the additional task of evaluating all network packets as they pass through the interface to determine if the packet can be forwarded.

An ACL is a sequential list of permit or deny statements, known as access control entries (ACEs). ACEs are also commonly called ACL statements. ACEs can be created to filter traffic based on certain criteria such as: the source address, destination address, the protocol, and port numbers. When network traffic passes through an interface configured with an ACL, the router compares the information within the packet against each ACE, in sequential order, to determine if the packet matches one of the statements. If a match is found, the packet is processed accordingly. In this way, ACLs can be configured to control access to a network or subnet.

To evaluate network traffic, the ACL extracts the following information from the Layer 3 packet header:

- Source IP address
- Destination IP address
- ICMP message type

The ACL can also extract upper layer information from the Layer 4 header, including:

- TCP/UDP source port
- TCP/UDP destination port

ACLs define the set of rules that give added control for packets that enter inbound interfaces, packets that relay through the router and packets that exit outbound interfaces of the router. ACLs do not act on packets that originate from the router itself.

ACLs are configured to apply to inbound traffic or to apply to outbound traffic as shown in the figure.

- Inbound ACLs 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 if the packet is discarded. If the packet is permitted by the tests, it is then processed for routing. Inbound ACLs are best used to filter packets when the network attached to an inbound interface is the only source of the packets needed to be examined.
- Outbound ACLs Incoming packets are routed to the outbound interface, and then they are processed through the outbound ACL. Outbound ACLs are best used when the same filter will be applied to packets coming from multiple inbound interfaces before exiting the same outbound interface.

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. The implicit deny blocks all traffic. Because of this implicit deny, an ACL that does not have at least one permit statement will block all traffic.

2. <u>Standard versus Extended IPv4 ACLs:</u>

The two types of Cisco IPv4 ACLs are standard and extended. Standard ACLs can be used to permit or deny traffic only from source IPv4 addresses. The destination of the packet and the ports involved are not evaluated. The example below allows all traffic from the 192.168.30.0/24 network. Because of the implied "deny any" at the end, all other traffic is blocked with this ACL. Standard ACLs are created in global configuration mode.

R1(config)# access-list 10 permit 192.168.30.0 0.0.0.255

Extended ACLs filter IPv4 packets based on several attributes:

- Protocol type
- Source IPv4 address
- Destination IPv4 address
- Source TCP or UDP ports
- Destination TCP or UDP ports

In the example below, ACL 103 permits traffic originating from any address on the 192.168.30.0/24 network to any IPv4 network if the destination host port is 80 (HTTP). Extended ACLs are created in global configuration mode.

R1(config)# access-list 103 permit tcp 192.168.30.0 0.0.0.255 any eq80

The commands for standard and extended ACLs are explained in more details later in this experiment.

Standard and extended ACLs can be created using either a number or a name to identify the ACL and its list of statements. Using numbered ACLs is an effective method for determining the ACL type on smaller networks with more homogeneously defined traffic. However, a number does not provide information about the purpose of the ACL.

Numbered ACL: Assign a number based on protocol to be filtered.

- (1 to 99) and (1300 to 1999): Standard IP ACL
- (100 to 199) and (2000 to 2699): Extended IP ACL

Named ACL: Assign a name to identify the ACL.

- Names can contain alphanumeric characters.
- It is suggested that the name be written in CAPITAL LETTERS.
- Names cannot contain spaces or punctuation.
- Entries can be added or deleted within the ACL.

Writing ACLs can be a complex task. For every interface there may be multiple policies needed to manage the type of traffic allowed to enter or exit that interface. The router in the figure has two interfaces configured for IPv4 and IPv6. If we needed ACLs for both protocols, on both interfaces and in both directions, this would require eight separate ACLs. Each interface would have four ACLs; two ACLs for IPv4 and two ACLs for IPv6. For each protocol, one ACL is for inbound traffic and one for outbound traffic.

The Three Ps:

A general rule for applying ACLs on a router can be recalled by remembering the three Ps. You can configure one ACL per protocol, per direction, per interface:

- One ACL per protocol To control traffic flow on an interface, an ACL must be defined for each protocol enabled on the interface.
- One ACL per direction ACLs control traffic in one direction at a time on an interface. Two separate ACLs must be created to control inbound and outbound traffic.

• One ACL per interface - ACLs control traffic for an interface, for example, GigabitEthernet 0/0.



The proper placement of an ACL can make the network operate more efficiently. An ACL can be placed to reduce unnecessary traffic. For example, traffic that will be denied at a remote destination should not be forwarded using network resources along the route to that destination. Every ACL should be placed where it has the greatest impact on efficiency. As shown in the figure below, the basic rules are:

- **Extended ACLs** Locate extended ACLs as close as possible to the source of the traffic to be filtered. This way, undesirable traffic is denied close to the source network without crossing the network infrastructure.
- **Standard ACLs** Because standard ACLs do not specify destination addresses, place them as close to the destination as possible. Placing a standard ACL at the source of the traffic will effectively prevent that traffic from reaching any other networks through the interface where the ACL is applied.



ACL Placement

Wildcard Masks in ACLs

IPv4 ACEs include the use of wildcard masks. 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.

Subnet masks use binary 1s and 0s to identify the network, subnet, and host portion of an IP address. Wildcard masks use binary 1s and 0s to filter individual IP addresses or groups of IP addresses to permit or deny access to resources.

Wildcard masks and subnet masks differ in the way they match binary 1s and 0s. Wildcard masks use the following rules to match binary 1s and 0s:

- Wildcard mask bit 0 Match the corresponding bit value in the address.
- Wildcard mask bit 1 Ignore the corresponding bit value in the address.

The following is an example on how to deal with wildcard masks:

	Decimal Address	Binary Address
IP Address to be processed	192.168.10.0	11000000.10101000.00001010.00000000
Wild Mask	0.0.255.255	00000000. 00000000.11111111. 1111111
Resulting IP Address	192.168.0.0	11000000.10101000. 00000000. 00000000

Octet Bit Position and Address Value for Bit

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	
•	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	Exam ple s
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Match All Address Bits (Match All)
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	= Ignore Last 6 Address Bits
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	= Ignore Last 4 Address Bits
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	Ignore First 6 Address Bits
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	= Ignore All Bits in Octet

The *any* and *host* keywords: *any* keyword to substitute for the IPv4 address 0.0.0.0 with a wildcard mask of 255.255.255.255 as shown in the example below:

R1(config)# access-list 1 permit 0.0.0.0 255.255. 255.255

R1(config)# access-list 1 permit any

The *host* keyword to substitute for the wildcard mask when identifying a single host as shown in the example below.

R1(config)# access-list 1 permit 192.168.10.10 0.0.0.0 R1(config)# access-list 1 permit host 192.168.10.10

3. <u>ACL Creation and Placement:</u>

Configuring Standard ACLs:

To use numbered standard ACLs on a Cisco router, you must first create the standard ACL and then activate the ACL on an interface. The access-list global configuration command defines a standard ACL with a number in the range of 1 through 99. The full syntax of the standard ACL command is as follows:

Router(config)# access-list access-list-number { deny | permit } source [source-wildcard]

ACEs can deny or permit an individual host or a range of host addresses. If you want to remove the ACL, the global configuration **no access-list** command is used. Issuing the **show access-list** command confirms that access list 10 has been removed.

After a standard ACL is configured, it is linked to an interface using the **ip access-group** command in interface configuration mode:

Router(config-if)# ip access-group { access-list-number | access-list-name } { in | out }

To remove an ACL from an interface, first enter the **no ip access-group** command on the interface, and then enter the global **no access-list** command to remove the entire ACL.

To create a statement that will permit a range of IPv4 addresses in a numbered ACL 10 that permits all IPv4 addresses in the network 192.168.10.0/24, you would enter: R1(config)# access-list 10 permit 192.168.10.10 0.0.0.255

To apply a numbered standard ACL 10 on a router, you would enter: *R1(config)#interface serial 0/0/0 R1(config-if)# ip access-group 10 out*



This ACL allows only traffic from source network 192.168.10.0 to be forwarded out of interface S0/0/0. Traffic from networks other than 192.168.10.0 is blocked.

Naming an ACL makes it easier to understand its function. For example, the above ACL could be called *VLAN10_ALLOW*. When you identify your ACL with a name instead of with a number, the configuration mode and command syntax are slightly different as shown below.

R1(config)# ip access-list standard VLAN10_ALLOW R1(config-std-nacl)# permit 192.168.10.10 0.0.0.255 R1(config-std-nacl)#exit R1(config)#interface serial 0/0/0 R1(config-if)# ip access-group VLAN10_ALLOW out

Using an ACL to Control VTY Access:

Restricting VTY access is a technique that allows you to define which IP addresses are allowed Telnet access to the router EXEC process. You can control which administrative workstation or network manages your router with an ACL and an **access-class** statement configured on your VTY lines.

An example allowing a range of addresses to access VTY lines 0 - 4 is shown below.

Configure the vty lines to accept incoming telnet connections using access list 21.

R1(config)# line vty 0 4

R1(config-line)# access-class 21 in

Create access list 21 to permit the 192.168.10.0/24 network to access VTY lines 0 - 4 and explicitly deny all others.

R1(config)# access-list 21 permit 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 R1(config)# access-list 21 deny any

Configuring Extended ACLs:

The procedural steps for configuring extended ACLs are the same as for standard ACLs. The extended ACL is first configured, and then it is activated on an interface. However, the command syntax and parameters are more complex to support the additional features provided by extended ACLs. The common command syntax for extended IPv4 ACLs is shown below. Note that there are many keywords and parameters for extended ACLs. It is not necessary to use all of the keywords and parameters when configuring an extended ACL.

Router(config)# *access-list* access-list-number { *deny* | *permit* } protocol source [source-wildcard] [*port* port-number or name] destination [destination-wildcard] [*port* port-number or name] [*established*]

The following is an example of an extended ACL. In this example, the network administrator has configured ACLs to restrict network access to allow website browsing only from the LAN attached to interface G0/0 to any external network. ACL 103 allows traffic coming from any address on the 192.168.10.0 network to go to any destination, subject to the limitation that the traffic is using ports 80 (HTTP) and 443 (HTTPS) only so that 192.168.10.0/24 network to browse both insecure and secure websites..

The nature of HTTP requires that traffic flow back into the network from websites accessed from internal clients. The network administrator wants to restrict that return traffic to HTTP exchanges from requested websites, while denying all other traffic. ACL 104 does that by blocking all incoming traffic, except for previously established connections. The permit statement in ACL 104 allows inbound traffic using the **established** parameter. Without the **established** parameter in the ACL statement, clients could send traffic to a web server, but not receive traffic returning from the web server.



- ACL 103 allows requests to ports 80 and 443.
- ACL 104 allows established HTTP and HTTPS replies.

The example shown in the figure below denies FTP traffic from subnet 192.168.11.0 that is going to subnet 192.168.10.0, but permits all other traffic. Note the use of wildcard masks and the explicit deny any statement. Remember that FTP uses TCP ports 20 and 21; therefore the ACL requires both port name keywords **ftp** and **ftp-data** or **eq 20** and **eq 21** to deny FTP. If using port numbers instead of port names, the commands would be written as:

access-list 114 permit tcp 192.168.20.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 20 access-list 114 permit tcp 192.168.20.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 21

To prevent the implied deny any statement at the end of the ACL from blocking all traffic, the **permit ip any any** statement is added. Without at least one **permit** statement in an ACL, all traffic on the interface where that ACL was applied would be dropped. The ACL should be applied inbound on the G0/1 interface so that traffic from the 192.168.11.0/24 LAN is filtered as it enters the router interface.



Named extended ACLs are created in essentially the same way that named standard ACLs are created. The figure below shows the named versions of the ACLs created in a previous example.



4. Modify ACLs.

Editing an extended ACL can be accomplished using the same process as editing a standard ACL. An ACL can be modified using:

- Method 1 Text editor Using this method, the ACL is copied and pasted into the text editor where the changes are made. The current access list is removed using the no access-list command. The modified ACL is then pasted back into the configuration.
- Method 2 Sequence numbers Sequence numbers can be used to delete or insert an ACL statement. The **ip access-list {standard | extended}** *name* command is used to enter named-ACL configuration mode. If the ACL is numbered instead of named, the ACL number is used in the *name* parameter. ACEs can be inserted or removed.

In the figure below the administrator needs to edit the ACL named SURFING to correct a typo in the source network statement. To view the current sequence numbers, the **show access-lists** command is used. The statement to be edited is identified as statement 10. The original statement is removed with the **no** *sequence_#* command. The corrected statement is added replacing the original statement.

```
R1# show access-lists
Extended IP access list BROWSING
   10 permit tcp any 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 established
Extended IP access list SURFING
                                                         Should be
   10 permit tcp 192.168.11.0 0.0.0.255 any eq www
                                                        192.168.10.0
    20 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 443
R1#
R1# configure terminal
R1(config) # ip access-list extended SURFING
R1(config-ext-nacl) # no 10
R1(config-ext-nacl)# 10 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq
www
R1(config-ext-nacl)# end
R1#
R1# show access-lists
Extended IP access list BROWSING
    10 permit tcp any 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 established
Extended IP access list SURFING
    10 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq www
    20 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 443
```

5. Processing Packets with ACLs

Inbound ACL Logic

If the information in a packet header and the first ACL statement match, the rest of the statements in the list are skipped, and the packet is permitted or denied as specified by the matched statement. If a packet header does not match an ACL statement, the packet is tested against the next statement in the list. This matching process continues until the end of the list is reached. At the end of every ACL is a statement is an implicit *deny any* statement. This statement is not shown in output. This final implied statement applied to all packets for which conditions did not test true. This final test condition matches all other packets and results in a "deny" action. Instead of proceeding into or out of an interface, the router drops all of these remaining packets. This final statement is often referred to as the "implicit deny any statement" or the "deny all traffic" statement. Because of this statement, an ACL should have at least one permit statement in it; otherwise, the ACL blocks all traffic.

Outbound ACL Logic

Before a packet is forwarded to an outbound interface, the router checks the routing table to see if the packet is routable. If the packet is not routable, it is dropped and is not tested against the ACEs. Next, the router checks to see whether the outbound interface is grouped to an ACL. If the outbound interface is not grouped to an ACL, the packet can be sent to the output buffer. Examples of outbound ACL operation are as follows:

- No ACL applied to the interface: If the outbound interface is not grouped to an outbound ACL, the packet is sent directly to the outbound interface.
- ACL applied to the interface: If the outbound interface is grouped to an outbound ACL, the packet is not sent out on the outbound interface until it is tested by the combination of ACEs that are associated with that interface. Based on the ACL tests, the packet is permitted or denied.

For outbound lists, "permit" means to send the packet to the output buffer, and "deny" means to discard the packet.



6. Troubleshoot ACLs

Using the **show** commands reveals most of the more common ACL errors. The most common errors are entering ACEs in the wrong order and not applying adequate criteria to the ACL rules.

Error Example 1

In the figure below, host 192.168.10.10 has no connectivity with 192.168.30.12. When viewing the output of the **show access-lists** command, matches are shown for the first deny statement. This is an indicator that this statement has been matched by traffic.

Solution - Look at the order of the ACEs (ACL Entries). Host 192.168.10.10 has no connectivity with 192.168.30.12 because of the order of rule 10 in the access list. Because the router processes ACLs from the top down, statement 10 denies host 192.168.10.10, so statement 20 can never be matched. Statements 10 and 20 should be reversed. The last line allows all other non-TCP traffic that falls under IP (ICMP, UDP, etc.).



In the figure above, the 192.168.10.0/24 network cannot use TFTP to connect to the 192.168.30.0/24 network.

Solution - The 192.168.10.0/24 network cannot use TFTP to connect to the 192.168.30.0/24 network because TFTP uses the transport protocol UDP. Statement 30 in access list 120 allows all other TCP traffic. However, because TFTP uses UDP instead of TCP, it is implicitly denied. Recall that the implied deny any statement does not appear in **show access-lists** output and therefore matches are not shown. Statement 30 should be **ip any any**.

This ACL works whether it is applied to G0/0 of R1, or S0/0/1 of R3, or S0/0/0 of R2 in the incoming direction. However, based on the rule about placing extended ACLs closest to the source, the best option is to place it inbound on G0/0 of R1 because it allows undesirable traffic to be filtered without crossing the network infrastructure.



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In the figure above, the 192.168.11.0/24 network can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.30.0/24, but according to company policy, this connection should not be allowed. The results of the **show access-lists 130** command indicate that the permit statement has been matched.

Solution - The 192.168.11.0/24 network can use Telnet to connect to the 192.168.30.0/24 network, because the Telnet port number in statement 10 of access list 130 is listed in the wrong position in the ACL statement. Statement 10 currently denies any source packet with a port number that is equal to Telnet. To deny Telnet traffic inbound on G0/1, deny the destination port number that is equal to Telnet, for example, **deny tcp any any eq telnet**.



Error Example 4

In the figure below, host 192.168.30.12 is able to Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12, but company policy states that this connection should not be allowed. Output from the **show access-lists 140** command indicate that the permit statement has been matched.

Solution - Host 192.168.30.12 can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12 because there are no rules that deny host 192.168.30.12 or its network as the source. Statement 10 of access list 140 denies the router interface on which traffic enters the router. The host IPv4 address in statement 10 should be 192.168.30.12.



In the figure below, host 192.168.30.12 can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12, but according to the security policy, this connection should not be allowed. Output from the **show access-lists 150** command indicate that no matches have occurred for the deny statement as expected.

Solution - Host 192.168.30.12 can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12 because of the direction in which access list 150 is applied to the G0/1 interface. Statement 10 denies any source address to connect to host 192.168.31.12 using telnet. However, this filter should be applied outbound on G0/1 to filter correctly.



Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

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- Limit network traffic to increase network performance. For example, if corporate policy does not allow video traffic on the network, ACLs that block video traffic could be configured and applied. This would greatly reduce the network load and increase network performance.
- Provide traffic flow control. ACLs can restrict the delivery of routing updates. If updates are not required because of network conditions, bandwidth is preserved.
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- Filter traffic based on traffic type. For example, an ACL can permit email traffic, but block all Telnet traffic.
- Screen hosts to permit or deny access to network services. ACLs can permit or deny a user to access file types, such as FTP or HTTP.



By default, a router does not have ACLs configured; therefore, by default a router does not filter traffic. Traffic that enters the router is routed solely based on information within the routing table. However, when an ACL is applied to an interface, the router performs the additional task of evaluating all network packets as they pass through the interface to determine if the packet can be forwarded.

An ACL is a sequential list of permit or deny statements, known as access control entries (ACEs). ACEs are also commonly called ACL statements. ACEs can be created to filter traffic based on certain criteria such as: the source address, destination address, the protocol, and port numbers. When network traffic passes through an interface configured with an ACL, the router compares the information within the packet against each ACE, in sequential order, to determine if the packet matches one of the statements. If a match is found, the packet is processed accordingly. In this way, ACLs can be configured to control access to a network or subnet.

To evaluate network traffic, the ACL extracts the following information from the Layer 3 packet header:

- Source IP address
- Destination IP address
- ICMP message type

The ACL can also extract upper layer information from the Layer 4 header, including:

- TCP/UDP source port
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ACLs define the set of rules that give added control for packets that enter inbound interfaces, packets that relay through the router and packets that exit outbound interfaces of the router. ACLs do not act on packets that originate from the router itself.

ACLs are configured to apply to inbound traffic or to apply to outbound traffic as shown in the figure.

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- Outbound ACLs Incoming packets are routed to the outbound interface, and then they are processed through the outbound ACL. Outbound ACLs are best used when the same filter will be applied to packets coming from multiple inbound interfaces before exiting the same outbound interface.

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. The implicit deny blocks all traffic. Because of this implicit deny, an ACL that does not have at least one permit statement will block all traffic.

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The two types of Cisco IPv4 ACLs are standard and extended. Standard ACLs can be used to permit or deny traffic only from source IPv4 addresses. The destination of the packet and the ports involved are not evaluated. The example below allows all traffic from the 192.168.30.0/24 network. Because of the implied "deny any" at the end, all other traffic is blocked with this ACL. Standard ACLs are created in global configuration mode.

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Extended ACLs filter IPv4 packets based on several attributes:

- Protocol type
- Source IPv4 address
- Destination IPv4 address
- Source TCP or UDP ports
- Destination TCP or UDP ports

In the example below, ACL 103 permits traffic originating from any address on the 192.168.30.0/24 network to any IPv4 network if the destination host port is 80 (HTTP). Extended ACLs are created in global configuration mode.

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The commands for standard and extended ACLs are explained in more details later in this experiment.

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• One ACL per interface - ACLs control traffic for an interface, for example, GigabitEthernet 0/0.



The proper placement of an ACL can make the network operate more efficiently. An ACL can be placed to reduce unnecessary traffic. For example, traffic that will be denied at a remote destination should not be forwarded using network resources along the route to that destination. Every ACL should be placed where it has the greatest impact on efficiency. As shown in the figure below, the basic rules are:

- **Extended ACLs** Locate extended ACLs as close as possible to the source of the traffic to be filtered. This way, undesirable traffic is denied close to the source network without crossing the network infrastructure.
- **Standard ACLs** Because standard ACLs do not specify destination addresses, place them as close to the destination as possible. Placing a standard ACL at the source of the traffic will effectively prevent that traffic from reaching any other networks through the interface where the ACL is applied.



ACL Placement

Wildcard Masks in ACLs

IPv4 ACEs include the use of wildcard masks. 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.

Subnet masks use binary 1s and 0s to identify the network, subnet, and host portion of an IP address. Wildcard masks use binary 1s and 0s to filter individual IP addresses or groups of IP addresses to permit or deny access to resources.

Wildcard masks and subnet masks differ in the way they match binary 1s and 0s. Wildcard masks use the following rules to match binary 1s and 0s:

- Wildcard mask bit 0 Match the corresponding bit value in the address.
- Wildcard mask bit 1 Ignore the corresponding bit value in the address.

The following is an example on how to deal with wildcard masks:

	Decimal Address	Binary Address
IP Address to be processed	192.168.10.0	11000000.10101000.00001010.00000000
Wild Mask	0.0.255.255	00000000. 00000000.11111111. 1111111
Resulting IP Address	192.168.0.0	11000000.10101000. 00000000. 00000000

Octet Bit Position and Address Value for Bit

128	64	32	16	8	4	2	1	
•	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	Examples
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	= Match All Address Bits (Match All)
0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	= Ignore Last 6 Address Bits
0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	= Ignore Last 4 Address Bits
1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	Ignore First 6 Address Bits
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	= Ignore All Bits in Octet

The *any* and *host* keywords: *any* keyword to substitute for the IPv4 address 0.0.0.0 with a wildcard mask of 255.255.255.255 as shown in the example below:

R1(config)# access-list 1 permit 0.0.0.0 255.255. 255.255

R1(config)# access-list 1 permit any

The *host* keyword to substitute for the wildcard mask when identifying a single host as shown in the example below.

R1(config)# access-list 1 permit 192.168.10.10 0.0.0.0 R1(config)# access-list 1 permit host 192.168.10.10

3. <u>ACL Creation and Placement:</u>

Configuring Standard ACLs:

To use numbered standard ACLs on a Cisco router, you must first create the standard ACL and then activate the ACL on an interface. The access-list global configuration command defines a standard ACL with a number in the range of 1 through 99. The full syntax of the standard ACL command is as follows:

Router(config)# access-list access-list-number { deny | permit } source [source-wildcard]

ACEs can deny or permit an individual host or a range of host addresses. If you want to remove the ACL, the global configuration **no access-list** command is used. Issuing the **show access-list** command confirms that access list 10 has been removed.

After a standard ACL is configured, it is linked to an interface using the **ip access-group** command in interface configuration mode:

Router(config-if)# ip access-group { access-list-number | access-list-name } { in | out }

To remove an ACL from an interface, first enter the **no ip access-group** command on the interface, and then enter the global **no access-list** command to remove the entire ACL.

To create a statement that will permit a range of IPv4 addresses in a numbered ACL 10 that permits all IPv4 addresses in the network 192.168.10.0/24, you would enter: R1(config)# access-list 10 permit 192.168.10.10 0.0.0.255

To apply a numbered standard ACL 10 on a router, you would enter: *R1(config)#interface serial 0/0/0 R1(config-if)# ip access-group 10 out*



This ACL allows only traffic from source network 192.168.10.0 to be forwarded out of interface S0/0/0. Traffic from networks other than 192.168.10.0 is blocked.

Naming an ACL makes it easier to understand its function. For example, the above ACL could be called *VLAN10_ALLOW*. When you identify your ACL with a name instead of with a number, the configuration mode and command syntax are slightly different as shown below.

R1(config)# ip access-list standard VLAN10_ALLOW R1(config-std-nacl)# permit 192.168.10.10 0.0.0.255 R1(config-std-nacl)#exit R1(config)#interface serial 0/0/0 R1(config-if)# ip access-group VLAN10_ALLOW out

Using an ACL to Control VTY Access:

Restricting VTY access is a technique that allows you to define which IP addresses are allowed Telnet access to the router EXEC process. You can control which administrative workstation or network manages your router with an ACL and an **access-class** statement configured on your VTY lines.

An example allowing a range of addresses to access VTY lines 0 - 4 is shown below.

Configure the vty lines to accept incoming telnet connections using access list 21.

R1(config)# line vty 0 4

R1(config-line)# access-class 21 in

Create access list 21 to permit the 192.168.10.0/24 network to access VTY lines 0 - 4 and explicitly deny all others.

R1(config)# access-list 21 permit 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 R1(config)# access-list 21 deny any

Configuring Extended ACLs:

The procedural steps for configuring extended ACLs are the same as for standard ACLs. The extended ACL is first configured, and then it is activated on an interface. However, the command syntax and parameters are more complex to support the additional features provided by extended ACLs. The common command syntax for extended IPv4 ACLs is shown below. Note that there are many keywords and parameters for extended ACLs. It is not necessary to use all of the keywords and parameters when configuring an extended ACL.

Router(config)# *access-list* access-list-number { *deny* | *permit* } protocol source [source-wildcard] [*port* port-number or name] destination [destination-wildcard] [*port* port-number or name] [*established*]

The following is an example of an extended ACL. In this example, the network administrator has configured ACLs to restrict network access to allow website browsing only from the LAN attached to interface G0/0 to any external network. ACL 103 allows traffic coming from any address on the 192.168.10.0 network to go to any destination, subject to the limitation that the traffic is using ports 80 (HTTP) and 443 (HTTPS) only so that 192.168.10.0/24 network to browse both insecure and secure websites..

The nature of HTTP requires that traffic flow back into the network from websites accessed from internal clients. The network administrator wants to restrict that return traffic to HTTP exchanges from requested websites, while denying all other traffic. ACL 104 does that by blocking all incoming traffic, except for previously established connections. The permit statement in ACL 104 allows inbound traffic using the **established** parameter. Without the **established** parameter in the ACL statement, clients could send traffic to a web server, but not receive traffic returning from the web server.



- ACL 103 allows requests to ports 80 and 443.
- ACL 104 allows established HTTP and HTTPS replies.

The example shown in the figure below denies FTP traffic from subnet 192.168.11.0 that is going to subnet 192.168.10.0, but permits all other traffic. Note the use of wildcard masks and the explicit deny any statement. Remember that FTP uses TCP ports 20 and 21; therefore the ACL requires both port name keywords **ftp** and **ftp-data** or **eq 20** and **eq 21** to deny FTP. If using port numbers instead of port names, the commands would be written as:

access-list 114 permit tcp 192.168.20.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 20 access-list 114 permit tcp 192.168.20.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 21

To prevent the implied deny any statement at the end of the ACL from blocking all traffic, the **permit ip any any** statement is added. Without at least one **permit** statement in an ACL, all traffic on the interface where that ACL was applied would be dropped. The ACL should be applied inbound on the G0/1 interface so that traffic from the 192.168.11.0/24 LAN is filtered as it enters the router interface.



Named extended ACLs are created in essentially the same way that named standard ACLs are created. The figure below shows the named versions of the ACLs created in a previous example.



4. Modify ACLs.

Editing an extended ACL can be accomplished using the same process as editing a standard ACL. An ACL can be modified using:

- Method 1 Text editor Using this method, the ACL is copied and pasted into the text editor where the changes are made. The current access list is removed using the no access-list command. The modified ACL is then pasted back into the configuration.
- Method 2 Sequence numbers Sequence numbers can be used to delete or insert an ACL statement. The **ip access-list {standard | extended}** *name* command is used to enter named-ACL configuration mode. If the ACL is numbered instead of named, the ACL number is used in the *name* parameter. ACEs can be inserted or removed.

In the figure below the administrator needs to edit the ACL named SURFING to correct a typo in the source network statement. To view the current sequence numbers, the **show access-lists** command is used. The statement to be edited is identified as statement 10. The original statement is removed with the **no** *sequence_#* command. The corrected statement is added replacing the original statement.

```
R1# show access-lists
Extended IP access list BROWSING
   10 permit tcp any 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 established
Extended IP access list SURFING
                                                         Should be
   10 permit tcp 192.168.11.0 0.0.0.255 any eq www
                                                        192.168.10.0
    20 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 443
R1#
R1# configure terminal
R1(config) # ip access-list extended SURFING
R1(config-ext-nacl) # no 10
R1(config-ext-nacl)# 10 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq
www
R1(config-ext-nacl)# end
R1#
R1# show access-lists
Extended IP access list BROWSING
    10 permit tcp any 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 established
Extended IP access list SURFING
    10 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq www
    20 permit tcp 192.168.10.0 0.0.0.255 any eq 443
```

5. Processing Packets with ACLs

Inbound ACL Logic

If the information in a packet header and the first ACL statement match, the rest of the statements in the list are skipped, and the packet is permitted or denied as specified by the matched statement. If a packet header does not match an ACL statement, the packet is tested against the next statement in the list. This matching process continues until the end of the list is reached. At the end of every ACL is a statement is an implicit *deny any* statement. This statement is not shown in output. This final implied statement applied to all packets for which conditions did not test true. This final test condition matches all other packets and results in a "deny" action. Instead of proceeding into or out of an interface, the router drops all of these remaining packets. This final statement is often referred to as the "implicit deny any statement" or the "deny all traffic" statement. Because of this statement, an ACL should have at least one permit statement in it; otherwise, the ACL blocks all traffic.

Outbound ACL Logic

Before a packet is forwarded to an outbound interface, the router checks the routing table to see if the packet is routable. If the packet is not routable, it is dropped and is not tested against the ACEs. Next, the router checks to see whether the outbound interface is grouped to an ACL. If the outbound interface is not grouped to an ACL, the packet can be sent to the output buffer. Examples of outbound ACL operation are as follows:

- No ACL applied to the interface: If the outbound interface is not grouped to an outbound ACL, the packet is sent directly to the outbound interface.
- ACL applied to the interface: If the outbound interface is grouped to an outbound ACL, the packet is not sent out on the outbound interface until it is tested by the combination of ACEs that are associated with that interface. Based on the ACL tests, the packet is permitted or denied.

For outbound lists, "permit" means to send the packet to the output buffer, and "deny" means to discard the packet.



6. Troubleshoot ACLs

Using the **show** commands reveals most of the more common ACL errors. The most common errors are entering ACEs in the wrong order and not applying adequate criteria to the ACL rules.

Error Example 1

In the figure below, host 192.168.10.10 has no connectivity with 192.168.30.12. When viewing the output of the **show access-lists** command, matches are shown for the first deny statement. This is an indicator that this statement has been matched by traffic.

Solution - Look at the order of the ACEs (ACL Entries). Host 192.168.10.10 has no connectivity with 192.168.30.12 because of the order of rule 10 in the access list. Because the router processes ACLs from the top down, statement 10 denies host 192.168.10.10, so statement 20 can never be matched. Statements 10 and 20 should be reversed. The last line allows all other non-TCP traffic that falls under IP (ICMP, UDP, etc.).



In the figure above, the 192.168.10.0/24 network cannot use TFTP to connect to the 192.168.30.0/24 network.

Solution - The 192.168.10.0/24 network cannot use TFTP to connect to the 192.168.30.0/24 network because TFTP uses the transport protocol UDP. Statement 30 in access list 120 allows all other TCP traffic. However, because TFTP uses UDP instead of TCP, it is implicitly denied. Recall that the implied deny any statement does not appear in **show access-lists** output and therefore matches are not shown. Statement 30 should be **ip any any**.

This ACL works whether it is applied to G0/0 of R1, or S0/0/1 of R3, or S0/0/0 of R2 in the incoming direction. However, based on the rule about placing extended ACLs closest to the source, the best option is to place it inbound on G0/0 of R1 because it allows undesirable traffic to be filtered without crossing the network infrastructure.



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In the figure above, the 192.168.11.0/24 network can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.30.0/24, but according to company policy, this connection should not be allowed. The results of the **show access-lists 130** command indicate that the permit statement has been matched.

Solution - The 192.168.11.0/24 network can use Telnet to connect to the 192.168.30.0/24 network, because the Telnet port number in statement 10 of access list 130 is listed in the wrong position in the ACL statement. Statement 10 currently denies any source packet with a port number that is equal to Telnet. To deny Telnet traffic inbound on G0/1, deny the destination port number that is equal to Telnet, for example, **deny tcp any any eq telnet**.



Error Example 4

In the figure below, host 192.168.30.12 is able to Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12, but company policy states that this connection should not be allowed. Output from the **show access-lists 140** command indicate that the permit statement has been matched.

Solution - Host 192.168.30.12 can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12 because there are no rules that deny host 192.168.30.12 or its network as the source. Statement 10 of access list 140 denies the router interface on which traffic enters the router. The host IPv4 address in statement 10 should be 192.168.30.12.



In the figure below, host 192.168.30.12 can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12, but according to the security policy, this connection should not be allowed. Output from the **show access-lists 150** command indicate that no matches have occurred for the deny statement as expected.

Solution - Host 192.168.30.12 can use Telnet to connect to 192.168.31.12 because of the direction in which access list 150 is applied to the G0/1 interface. Statement 10 denies any source address to connect to host 192.168.31.12 using telnet. However, this filter should be applied outbound on G0/1 to filter correctly.



Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.2 Network Address Translation for IPv4 (NAT)

Objectives

- 1. Describe NAT operation.
- 2. Describe the benefits and drawbacks of NAT.
- 3. Configure static NAT using the CLI.
- 4. Configure dynamic NAT using the CLI.
- 5. Configure PAT using the CLI.
- 6. Use show commands to verify NAT operation.

1. NAT Operation:

All public IPv4 addresses that transverse the Internet must be registered with a Regional Internet Registry (RIR). Organizations can lease public addresses from a service provider (SP), but only the registered holder of a public Internet address can assign that address to a network device. However, with a theoretical maximum of 4.3 billion addresses (2^{32}) , IPv4 address space is severely limited. When Bob Kahn and Vint Cerf first developed the suite of TCP/IP protocols including IPv4 in 1981, they never envisioned what the Internet would become. At the time, the personal computer was mostly a curiosity for hobbyists and the World Wide Web was still more than a decade away.

With the proliferation of personal computing and the advent of the World Wide Web, it soon became obvious that 4.3 billion IPv4 addresses would not be enough. The long term solution was IPv6, but more immediate solutions to address exhaustion were required. For the short term, several solutions were implemented by the IETF including Network Address Translation (NAT) and RFC 1918 private IPv4 addresses. This experiment discusses how NAT, combined with the use of private address space, is used to both conserve and more efficiently use IPv4 addresses to provide networks of all sizes access to the Internet.

Networks are commonly implemented using private IPv4 addresses, as defined in RFC 1918. The figure below shows the range of addresses included in RFC 1918.

Private Internet addresses are defined in RFC 1918:					
Class	RFC 1918 Internal Address Range	CIDR Prefix			
Α	10.0.0.0 - 10.255.255.255	10.0.0/8			
В	172.16.0.0 - 172.31.255.255	172.16.0.0/12			
С	192.168.0.0 - 192.168.255.255	192.168.0.0/16			

These private addresses are used within an organization or site to allow devices to communicate locally. However, because these addresses do not identify any single company or organization, private IPv4 addresses cannot be routed over the Internet. To allow a device with a private IPv4 address to access devices and resources outside of the local network, the private address must first be translated to a public address.

NAT provides the translation of private addresses to public addresses. This allows a device with a private IPv4 address to access resources outside of their private network, such as those found on the Internet. NAT combined with private IPv4 addresses, has proven to be a useful method of preserving public IPv4 addresses. A single, public IPv4 address can be shared by hundreds, even thousands of devices, each configured with a unique private IPv4 address.

Without NAT, the exhaustion of the IPv4 address space would have occurred well before the year 2000. However, NAT has certain limitations, which will be explored later. The solution to the exhaustion of IPv4 address space and the limitations of NAT is the eventual transition to IPv6.



NAT has many uses, but its primary use is to conserve public IPv4 addresses. NAT has an added benefit of adding a degree of privacy and security to a network, because it hides internal IPv4 addresses from outside networks.

NAT-enabled routers can be configured with one or more valid public IPv4 addresses. These public addresses are known as the NAT pool. When an internal device sends traffic out of the network, the NAT-enabled router translates the internal IPv4 address of the device to a public address from the NAT pool. To outside devices, all traffic entering and exiting the network appears to have a public IPv4 address from the provided pool of addresses.

A NAT router typically operates at the border of a stub network. A stub network is a network that has a single connection to its neighboring network, one way in and one way out of the network. In the example below, R2 is a border router. As seen from the ISP, R2 forms a stub network.



In NAT terminology, the inside network is the set of networks that is subject to translation. The outside network refers to all other networks.

When using NAT, IPv4 addresses have different designations based on whether they are on the private network, or on the public network (Internet), and whether the traffic is incoming or outgoing.

NAT includes four types of addresses:

- Inside local address
- Inside global address
- Outside local address
- Outside global address

When determining which type of address is used, it is important to remember that NAT terminology is always applied from the perspective of the device with the translated address:

• Inside address - The address of the device which is being translated by NAT.

- **Outside address** The address of the destination device.
- NAT also uses the concept of local or global with respect to addresses:
 - Local address A local address is any address that appears on the inside portion of the network.
 - **Global address** A global address is any address that appears on the outside portion of the network.



Types of NAT Addresses

Static NAT

Static NAT uses a one-to-one mapping of local and global addresses. These mappings are configured by the network administrator and remain constant.

In the figure, R2 is configured with static mappings for the inside local addresses of Svr1, PC2, and PC3. When these devices send traffic to the Internet, their inside local addresses are translated to the configured inside global addresses. To outside networks, these devices have public IPv4 addresses.

Static NAT is particularly useful for web servers or devices that must have a consistent address that is accessible from the Internet, such as a company web server. It is also useful for devices that must be accessible by authorized personnel when offsite, but not by the general public on the Internet. For example, a network administrator from PC4 can SSH to Svr1's inside global address (209.165.200.226). R2 translates this inside global address to the inside local address and connects the administrator's session to Svr1.

Static NAT requires that enough public addresses are available to satisfy the total number of simultaneous user sessions.

Static NAT				
Static NAT Table				
Inside Local Address Inside Global Address - Addresses reachable via R2				
192.168.10.10	209.165.200.226			
192.168.10.11	209.165.200.227			
192.168.10.12	209.165.200.228			



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Dynamic NAT

Dynamic NAT uses a pool of public addresses and assigns them on a first-come, first-served basis. When an inside device requests access to an outside network, dynamic NAT assigns an available public IPv4 address from the pool.

In the figure, PC3 has accessed the Internet using the first available address in the dynamic NAT pool. The other addresses are still available for use. Similar to static NAT, dynamic NAT requires that enough public addresses are available to satisfy the total number of simultaneous user sessions.



Port Address Translation (PAT)

Port Address Translation (PAT), also known as NAT overloading, maps multiple private IPv4 addresses to a single public IPv4 address or a few addresses. This is what most home routers do. The ISP assigns one address to the router, yet several members of the household can simultaneously access the Internet. This is the most common form of NAT.

With PAT, multiple addresses can be mapped to one or to a few addresses, because each private address is also tracked by a port number. When a device initiates a TCP/IP session, it generates a TCP or UDP source port value to uniquely identify the session. When the NAT router receives a packet from the client, it uses its source port number to uniquely identify the specific NAT translation.

PAT ensures that devices use a different TCP port number for each session with a server on the Internet. When a response comes back from the server, the source port number, which becomes the destination port number on the return trip, determines to which device the router forwards the packets. The PAT process also validates that the incoming packets were requested, thus adding a degree of security to the session.

PAT					
Inside Global Address	Inside Local Address				
209.165.200.226:1444	192.168.10.10:1444				
209.165.200.226:1445	192.168.10.11:1444				
209.165.200.226:1555	192.168.10.12:1555				
209.165.200.226:1556	192.168.10.13:1555				

Note that PAT attempts to preserve the original source port. However, if the original source port is already used, PAT assigns the first available port number.

2. Benefits of NAT

NAT provides many benefits, including:

- NAT conserves the legally registered addressing scheme by allowing the privatization of intranets. NAT conserves addresses through application port-level multiplexing. With NAT overload, internal hosts can share a single public IPv4 address for all external communications. In this type of configuration, very few external addresses are required to support many internal hosts.
- NAT increases the flexibility of connections to the public network. Multiple pools, backup pools, and load-balancing pools can be implemented to ensure reliable public network connections.
- NAT provides consistency for internal network addressing schemes. On a network not using private IPv4 addresses and NAT, changing the public IPv4 address scheme requires the readdressing of all hosts on the existing network. The costs of readdressing hosts can be significant. NAT allows the existing private IPv4 address scheme to remain while allowing for easy change to a new public addressing scheme. This means an organization could change ISPs and not need to change any of its inside clients.
- NAT provides network security. Because private networks do not advertise their addresses or internal topology, they remain reasonably secure when used in conjunction with NAT to gain controlled external access. However, NAT does not replace firewalls.

NAT does have some drawbacks. The fact that hosts on the Internet appear to communicate directly with the NAT-enabled device, rather than with the actual host inside the private network, creates a number of issues.

One disadvantage of using NAT is related to network performance, particularly for real time protocols such as VoIP. NAT increases switching delays because the translation of each IPv4 address within the packet headers takes time. The first packet is process-switched; it always goes through the slower path. The router must look at every packet to decide whether it needs translation. The router must alter the IPv4 header, and possibly alter the TCP or UDP header. The IPv4 header checksum, along with the TCP or UDP checksum must be recalculated each time a translation is made. Remaining packets go through the fast-switched path if a cache entry exists; otherwise, they too are delayed.

Another disadvantage of using NAT is that end-to-end addressing is lost. Many Internet protocols and applications depend on end-to-end addressing from the source to the destination. Some applications do not work with NAT. For example, some security applications, such as digital signatures, fail because the source IPv4 address changes before reaching the destination. Applications that use physical addresses, instead of a qualified domain name, do not reach destinations that are translated across the NAT router. Sometimes, this problem can be avoided by implementing static NAT mappings.

End-to-end IPv4 traceability is also lost. It becomes much more difficult to trace packets that undergo numerous packet address changes over multiple NAT hops, making troubleshooting challenging.

3. <u>Configuring Static NAT</u>

Static NAT is a one-to-one mapping between an inside address and an outside address. There are two basic tasks when configuring static NAT translations.

Step 1. The first task is to create a mapping between the inside local address and the inside global addresses. For example, the 192.168.10.254 inside local address and the 209.165.201.5 inside global address in the figure below are configured as a static NAT translation.

Router(config)# ip nat inside source static local-ip global-ip

Step 2. After the mapping is configured, the interfaces participating in the translation are configured as inside or outside relative to NAT. In the example, the Serial 0/0/0 interface of R2 is an inside interface and Serial 0/1/0 is an outside interface.

Router(config)# interface type number

The figure below shows an inside network containing a web server with a private IPv4 address. Router R2 is configured with static NAT to allow devices on the outside network (Internet) to access the web server. The client on the outside network accesses the web server using a public IPv4 address. Static NAT translates the public IPv4 address to the private IPv4 address. Example Static NAT Configuration



A useful command to verify NAT operation is the **show ip nat translations** command. This command shows active NAT translations. Static translations, unlike dynamic translations, are always in the NAT table. The figure below shows the output from this command using the previous configuration example. Because the example is a static NAT configuration, the translation is always present in the NAT table regardless of any active communications. If the command is issued during an active session, the output also indicates the address of the outside device as shown below.

The static translation is always present in the NAT table.

```
      R2# show ip nat translations

      Pro Inside global Inside local Outside local Outside global

      --- 209.165.201.5 192.168.10.254 --- ---

      R2#

      The static translation during an active session.

      R2# show ip nat translations

      Pro Inside global Inside local Outside local Outside global

      --- 209.165.201.5 192.168.10.254 209.165.200.254 209.165.200.254
```

Another useful command is the **show ip nat statistics** command. As shown in the figure below, the **show ip nat statistics** command displays information about the total number of active

translations, NAT configuration parameters, the number of addresses in the pool, and the number of addresses that have been allocated.

To verify that the NAT translation is working, it is best to clear statistics from any past translations using the **clear ip nat statistics** command before testing.

Prior to any communications with the web server, the **show ip nat statistics** command shows no current hits. After the client establishes a session with the web server, the **show ip nat statistics** command has been incremented to five hits. This verifies that the static NAT translation is taking place on R2.

```
R2# clear ip nat statistics
R2# show ip nat statistics
Total active translations: 1 (1 static, 0 dynamic; 0 extended)
Peak translations: 0
Outside interfaces:
 Serial0/0/1
Inside interfaces:
 Serial0/0/0
Hits: 0 Misses: 0
<output omitted>
Client PC establishes a session with the web server
R2# show ip nat statistics
Total active translations: 1 (1 static, 0 dynamic; 0 extended)
Peak translations: 2, occurred 00:00:14 ago
Outside interfaces:
 Serial0/1/0
Inside interfaces:
  Serial0/0/0
Hits: 5 Misses: 0
<output omitted>
```

4. <u>Configuring Dynamic NAT</u>

While static NAT provides a permanent mapping between an inside local address and an inside global address, dynamic NAT allows the automatic mapping of inside local addresses to inside global addresses. These inside global addresses are typically public IPv4 addresses. Dynamic NAT uses a group, or pool of public IPv4 addresses for translation.

Dynamic NAT, like static NAT, requires the configuration of the inside and outside interfaces participating in NAT.

The example topology shown below has an inside network using addresses from the RFC 1918 private address space. Attached to router R1 are two LANs, 192.168.10.0/24 and 192.168.11.0/24. Router R2, the border router, is configured for dynamic NAT using a pool of public IPv4 addresses 209.165.200.226 through 209.165.200.240.

The pool of public IPv4 addresses (inside global address pool) is available to any device on the inside network on a first-come first-served basis. With dynamic NAT, a single inside address is translated to a single outside address. With this type of translation there must be enough addresses in the pool to accommodate all the inside devices needing access to the outside network at the same time. If all of the addresses in the pool have been used, a device must wait for an available address before it can access the outside network.



The steps and the commands used to configure dynamic NAT are as follows:

Step 1. Define the pool of addresses that will be used for translation using the **ip nat pool** command. This pool of addresses is typically a group of public addresses. The addresses are defined by indicating the starting IP address and the ending IP address of the pool. The **netmask** or **prefix-length** keyword indicates which address bits belong to the network and which bits belong to the host for the range of addresses.

Step 2. Configure a standard ACL to identify (permit) only those addresses that are to be translated. An ACL that is too permissive can lead to unpredictable results. Remember there is an implicit **deny all** statement at the end of each ACL.

Step 3. Bind the ACL to the pool. The **ip nat inside source list** *access-list-number* **number pool** *pool name* command is used to bind the ACL to the pool. This configuration is used by the router to identify which devices (**list**) receive which addresses (**pool**).

Step 4. Identify which interfaces are inside, in relation to NAT; that is, any interface that connects to the inside network.

Step 5. Identify which interfaces are outside, in relation to NAT; that is, any interface that connects to the outside network.

Dynamic NAT Configuration Steps					
Step 1	Define a pool of global addresses to be used for translation. ip nat pool name start-ip end-ip {netmask netmask prefix-length prefix-length}				
Step 2	Configure a standard access list permitting the addresses that should be translated. access-list access-list-number permit source [source-wildcard]				
Step 3	Establish dynamic source translation, specifying the access list and pool defined in prior steps. ip nat inside source list access-list-number pool name				
Step 4	ldentify the inside interface. interface type number ip nat inside				
Step 5	ldentify the outside interface. interface type number ip nat outside				



Define a pool of public IPv4 addresses 209.165.200.241 to 209.165.200.250 with pool name PUBLIC-POOL.

R2(config)# ip nat pool PUBLIC-POOL 209.165.200.241 209.165.200.250 netmask255.255.255.224Configure ACL 2 to permit devices from 192.168.10.0/24 network to be translated by NAT.R2(config)# access-list 2 permit 192.168.10.0 0.0.0255Bind PUBLIC-POOL with ACL 2.R2(config)# ip nat inside source list 2 pool PUBLIC-POOLConfigure the proper inside NAT interface.R2(config)# interface Serial0/0/0R2(config)# ip nat insideConfigure the proper outside NAT interface.R2(config)# interface Serial0/1/0R2(config)# interface Serial0/1/0R2(config)# interface Serial0/1/0R2(config-if)# ip nat outsideYou successfully configured dynamic NAT.

The output of the **show ip nat translations** command shown below displays the details of the two previous NAT assignments. The command displays all static translations that have been configured and any dynamic translations that have been created by traffic.

R2#	show ip nat translati	ions		
Pro	Inside global	Inside local	Outside local	Outside global
	209.165.200.226	192.168.10.10		
	209.165.200.227	192.168.11.10		

By default, translation entries time out after 24 hours, unless the timers have been reconfigured with the **ip nat translation timeout** *timeout-seconds* command in global configuration mode.

To clear dynamic entries before the timeout has expired, use the clear ip nat translation global configuration mode command. It is useful to clear the dynamic entries when testing the NAT configuration.

Note:Only the dynamic translations are cleared from the table. Static translations cannot be cleared from the translation table.

the **show ip nat statistics** command displays information about the total number of active translations, NAT configuration parameters, the number of addresses in the pool, and how many of the addresses have been allocated.

Alternatively, use the **show running-config** command and look for NAT, ACL, interface, or pool commands with the required values. Examine these carefully and correct any errors discovered.

```
R2# clear ip nat statistics
PC1 and PC2 establish sessions with the server
R2# show ip nat statistics
Total active translations: 2 (0 static, 2 dynamic; 0
extended)
Peak translations: 6, occurred 00:27:07 ago
Outside interfaces:
  Serial0/0/1
Inside interfaces:
  Serial0/1/0
Hits: 24 Misses: 0
CEF Translated packets: 24, CEF Punted packets: 0
Expired translations: 4
Dynamic mappings:
  Inside Source
[Id: 1] access-list 1 pool NAT-POOL1 refcount 2
 pool NAT-POOL1: netmask 255.255.254
start 209.165.200.226 end 209.165.200.240
type generic, total addresses 15, allocated 2 (13%), misses
0
Total doors: 0
Appl doors: 0
Normal doors: 0
Queued Packets: 0
R2#
```

5. Configuring Port Address Translation (PAT)

PAT (also called NAT overload) conserves addresses in the inside global address pool by allowing the router to use one inside global address for many inside local addresses. In other words, a single public IPv4 address can be used for hundreds, even thousands of internal private IPv4 addresses. When this type of translation is configured, the router maintains enough information from higher-level protocols, TCP or UDP port numbers, for example, to translate the inside global address back into the correct inside local address. When multiple inside local addresses map to one inside global address, the TCP or UDP port numbers of each inside host distinguish between the local addresses.

Note: The total number of internal addresses that can be translated to one external address could theoretically be as high as 65,536 per IP address. However, the number of internal addresses that can be assigned a single IP address is around 4,000.

There are two ways to configure PAT, depending on how the ISP allocates public IPv4 addresses. In the first instance, the ISP allocates more than one public IPv4 address to the organization, and in the other, it allocates a single public IPv4 address that is required for the organization to connect to the ISP.

Configuring PAT for a Pool of Public IP Addresses

If a site has been issued more than one public IPv4 address, these addresses can be part of a pool that is used by PAT. This is similar to dynamic NAT, except that there are not enough public addresses for a one-to-one mapping of inside to outside addresses. The small pool of addresses is shared among a larger number of devices. The primary difference between this configuration and the configuration for dynamic, one-to-one NAT is that the **overload** keyword is used. The **overload** keyword enables PAT.

The example configuration shown below establishes overload translation for the NAT pool named NAT-POOL2. NAT-POOL2 contains addresses 209.165.200.226 to 209.165.200.240. Hosts in the 192.168.0.0/16 network are subject to translation. The S0/0/0 interface is identified as an inside interface and the S0/1/0 interface is identified as an outside interface.


Configuring PAT for a Single Public IPv4 Address

The following figure shows the topology of a PAT implementation for a single public IPv4 address translation. In the example, all hosts from network 192.168.0.0/16 (matching ACL 1) that send traffic through router R2 to the Internet will be translated to IPv4 address 209.165.200.225 (IPv4 address of interface S0/1/0). The traffic flows will be identified by port numbers in the NAT table, because the **overload** keyword was used.

With only a single public IPv4 address available, the overload configuration typically assigns the public address to the outside interface that connects to the ISP. All inside addresses are translated to the single IPv4 address when leaving the outside interface.



NAT Table					
Inside Global Address	Inside Local Address	Outside Local Address	Outside Global Address		
209.165.200.225:1444	192.168.10.10:1444	209.165.201.1:80	209.165.201.1:80		
209.165.200.225:1445	192.168.10.11:1444	209.165.202.129:80	209.165.202.129:80		

R2(config)# access-list 1 permit 192.168.0.0 0.0.255.255 R2(config)# ip nat source list 1 interface serial 0/1/0 overload R2(config)# interface serial0/0/0 R2(config-if)# ip nat inside R2(config)# interface serial0/1/0 R2(config-if)# ip nat outside The configuration is similar to dynamic NAT, except that instead of a pool of addresses, the **interface** keyword is used to identify the outside IPv4 address. Therefore, no NAT pool is defined.

The same commands used to verify static and dynamic NAT are used to verify PAT. The **show ip nat translations** command displays the translations from two different hosts to different web servers. Notice that two different inside hosts are allocated the same IPv4 address of 209.165.200.226 (inside global address). The source port numbers in the NAT table differentiate the two transactions.

R2#	show ip nat translatio	ons	
Pro	Inside global	Inside local	Outside local
tcp tcp	209.165.200.226:51839 209.165.200.226:42558	192.168.10.10:51839 192.168.11.10:42558	209.165.201.1:80 209.165.202.129:8
R2#			
•			•

The **show ip nat statistics** command verifies that NAT-POOL2 has allocated a single address for both translations. Included in the output is information about the number and type of active translations, NAT configuration parameters, the number of addresses in the pool, and how many have been allocated.

```
R2# clear ip nat statistics
R2# show ip nat statistics
Total active translations: 2 (0 static, 2 dynamic; 2 extended)
Peak translations: 2, occurred 00:00:05 ago
Outside interfaces:
 Serial0/0/1
Inside interfaces:
 Serial0/1/0
Hits: 4 Misses: 0
CEF Translated packets: 4, CEF Punted packets: 0
Expired translations: 0
Dynamic mappings:
  Inside Source
[Id: 3] access-list 1 pool NAT-POOL2 refcount 2
pool NAT-POOL2: netmask 255.255.254
    start 209.165.200.226 end 209.165.200.240
    type generic, total addresses 15, allocated 1 (6%), misses 0
Total doors: 0
Appl doors: 0
Normal doors: 0
Queued Packets: 0
R2#
```

Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.3 Virtual Local Area Networks (VLANs).

Objectives

- 1. Explain the role of VLANs in a network.
- 2. Explain the role of trunking VLANs in a network.
- 3. Configure VLANs on the switches in a network topology.
- 4. Troubleshoot the common software or hardware configuration problems associated with VLANs.

1. Introducing VLANs:

To appreciate why VLANs are being widely used today, consider a small community college with student dorms and the faculty offices all in one building (Building 1). The figure below shows the student computers in one LAN and the faculty computers in another LAN. This works fine because each department is physically together, so it is easy to provide them with their network resources.

A year later, the college has grown and now has three buildings. In the figure, the original network is the same, but student and faculty computers are spread out across three buildings. The student dorms remain on the fifth floor and the faculty offices remain on the third floor. However, now the IT department wants to ensure that student computers all share the same security features and bandwidth controls. How can the network accommodate the shared needs of the geographically separated departments? Do you create a large LAN and wire each department together? How easy would it be to make changes to that network? It would be great to group the people with the resources they use regardless of their geographic location, and it would make it easier to manage their specific security and bandwidth needs.



The solution for the community college is to use a networking technology called a virtual LAN (VLAN). A VLAN allows a network administrator to create groups of logically networked devices that act as if they are on their own independent network, even if they share a common infrastructure with other VLANs. When you configure a VLAN, you can name it to describe the primary role of the users for that VLAN. As another example, all of the student computers in a school can be configured in the "Student" VLAN. Using VLANs, you can logically segment switched networks based on functions, departments, or project teams. You can also use a VLAN to geographically structure your network to support the growing reliance of companies on home-

based workers. In the figure below, one VLAN is created for students and another for faculty. These VLANs allow the network administrator to implement access and security policies to particular groups of users. For example, the faculty staff, but not the students, can be allowed access to e-learning management servers for developing online course materials.



- A VLAN is an independent LAN network.
- A VLAN allows student and faculty PCs to be separated although they share the same infrastructure.
- A VLAN can be named for easier identification.

A VLAN is a logically separate IP subnetwork. VLANs allow multiple IP networks and subnets to exist on the same switched network. The figure below shows a network with three computers. For computers to communicate on the same VLAN, each must have an IP address and a subnet mask that is consistent for that VLAN. The switch has to be configured with the VLAN and each port in the VLAN must be assigned to the VLAN. A switch port with a singular VLAN configured on it is called an access port. Remember, just because two computers are physically connected to the same switch does not mean that they can communicate. Devices on two separate networks and subnets must communicate via a router (Layer 3), whether or not VLANs are used. You do not need VLANs to have multiple networks and subnets on a switched network, but there are definite advantages to using VLANs.



Benefits of a VLAN

User productivity and network adaptability are key drivers for business growth and success. Implementing VLAN technology enables a network to more flexibly support business goals. The primary benefits of using VLANs are as follows:

• Security - Groups that have sensitive data are separated from the rest of the network, decreasing the chances of confidential information breaches. Faculty computers are on VLAN 10 and completely separated from student and guest data traffic.

- Cost reduction Cost savings result from less need for expensive network upgrades and more efficient use of existing bandwidth and uplinks.
- Higher performance Dividing flat Layer 2 networks into multiple logical workgroups (broadcast domains) reduces unnecessary traffic on the network and boosts performance.
- Broadcast storm mitigation Dividing a network into VLANs reduces the number of devices that may participate in a broadcast storm since LAN segmentation prevents a broadcast storm from propagating to the whole network. In the figure you can see that although there are six computers on this network, there are only three broadcast domains: Faculty, Student, and Guest.
- Improved IT staff efficiency VLANs make it easier to manage the network because users with similar network requirements share the same VLAN. When you provision a new switch, all the policies and procedures already configured for the particular VLAN are implemented when the ports are assigned. It is also easy for the IT staff to identify the function of a VLAN by giving it an appropriate name. In the figure, for easy identification VLAN 20 has been named "Student", VLAN 10 could be named "Faculty", and VLAN 30 "Guest."
- Simpler project or application management VLANs aggregate users and network devices to support business or geographic requirements. Having separate functions makes managing a project or working with a specialized application easier, for example, an elearning development platform for faculty. It is also easier to determine the scope of the effects of upgrading network services.



VLAN ID Ranges

Access VLANs are divided into either a normal range or an extended range.

- 1. Normal Range VLANs
 - Used in small- and medium-sized business and enterprise networks.
 - Identified by a VLAN ID between 1 and 1005.
 - IDs 1002 through 1005 are reserved for Token Ring and FDDI VLANs.
 - IDs 1 and 1002 to 1005 are automatically created and cannot be removed.

- Configurations are stored within a VLAN database file, called vlan.dat. The vlan.dat file is located in the flash memory of the switch.
- The VLAN trunking protocol (VTP), which helps manage VLAN configurations between switches, can only learn normal range VLANs and stores them in the VLAN database file.
- 2. Extended Range VLANs
 - Enable service providers to extend their infrastructure to a greater number of customers. Some global enterprises could be large enough to need extended range VLAN IDs.
 - Are identified by a VLAN ID between 1006 and 4094.
 - Support fewer VLAN features than normal range VLANs.
 - Are saved in the running configuration file.
 - VTP does not learn extended range VLANs.

Types of VLANs

Today there is essentially one way of implementing VLANs - port-based VLANs. A port-based VLAN is associated with a port called an access VLAN.

However in the network there are a number of terms for VLANs. Some terms define the type of network traffic they carry and others define a specific function a VLAN performs. The following describes common VLAN terminology:

- 1. Data VLAN: A data VLAN is a VLAN that is configured to carry only user-generated traffic. A VLAN could carry voice-based traffic or traffic used to manage the switch, but this traffic would not be part of a data VLAN. It is common practice to separate voice and management traffic from data traffic. The importance of separating user data from switch management control data and voice traffic is highlighted by the use of a special term used to identify VLANs that only carry user data a "data VLAN". A data VLAN is sometimes referred to as a user VLAN.
- 2. Default VLAN: All switch ports become a member of the default VLAN after the initial boot up of the switch. Having all the switch ports participate in the default VLAN makes them all part of the same broadcast domain. This allows any device connected to any switch port to communicate with other devices on other switch ports. The default VLAN for Cisco switches is VLAN 1. VLAN 1 has all the features of any VLAN, except that you cannot rename it and you cannot delete it.
- 3. Native VLAN: A native VLAN is assigned to an 802.1Q trunk port. An 802.1Q trunk port supports traffic coming from many VLANs (tagged traffic) as well as traffic that does not come from a VLAN (untagged traffic). The 802.1Q trunk port places untagged traffic on the native VLAN. Untagged traffic is generated by a computer attached to a switch port that is configured with the native VLAN. Native VLANs are set out in the IEEE 802.1Q specification to maintain backward compatibility with untagged traffic common to legacy LAN scenarios. For our purposes, a native VLAN serves as a common identifier on opposing ends of a trunk link. It is a best practice to use a VLAN other than VLAN 1 as the native VLAN.
- 4. Management VLAN: A management VLAN is any VLAN you configure to access the management capabilities of a switch. VLAN 1 would serve as the management VLAN if you did not proactively define a unique VLAN to serve as the management VLAN. You

assign the management VLAN an IP address and subnet mask. A switch can be managed via HTTP, Telnet, SSH, or SNMP. Since the out-of-the-box configuration of a Cisco switch has VLAN 1 as the default VLAN, you see that VLAN 1 would be a bad choice as the management VLAN; you wouldn't want an arbitrary user connecting to a switch to default to the management VLAN.

- 5. Voice VLANs: It is easy to appreciate why a separate VLAN is needed to support Voice over IP (VoIP). Imagine you are receiving an emergency call and suddenly the quality of the transmission degrades so much you cannot understand what the caller is saying. VoIP traffic requires:
 - Assured bandwidth to ensure voice quality
 - Transmission priority over other types of network traffic
 - Ability to be routed around congested areas on the network
 - Delay of less than 150 milliseconds (ms) across the network

To meet these requirements, the entire network has to be designed to support VoIP. The details of how to configure a network to support VoIP are beyond the scope of this experiment.

Switch Ports

Switch ports are Layer 2-only interfaces associated with a physical port. Switch ports are used for managing the physical interface and associated Layer 2 protocols. They do not handle routing or bridging. When you configure a VLAN, you must assign it a number ID, and you can optionally give it a name. The purpose of VLAN implementations is to judiciously associate ports with particular VLANs. You configure the port to forward a frame to a specific VLAN. You can configure a port to belong to a VLAN by assigning a membership mode that specifies the kind of traffic the port carries and the VLANs to which it can belong as shown below.



Controlling broadcast domains using VLANs

1. Network without VLANS: In normal operation, when a switch receives a broadcast frame on one of its ports, it forwards the frame out all other ports on the switch. In the figure below, the entire network is configured in the same subnet, 172.17.40.0/24. As a result, when the faculty computer, PC1, sends out a broadcast frame, switch S2 sends that broadcast frame out all of its ports. Eventually the entire network receives it; the network is one broadcast domain.



2. Network with VLANs: In the figure below, the network has been segmented into two VLANs: Faculty as VLAN 10 and Student as VLAN 20. When the broadcast frame is sent from the faculty computer, PC1, to switch S2, the switch forwards that broadcast frame only to those switch ports configured to support VLAN 10. In the figure, the ports that make up the connection between switches S2 and S1 (ports F0/1) and between S1 and S3 (ports F0/3) have been configured to support all the VLANs in the network. This connection is called a trunk. You will learn more about trunks later in this experiment. When S1 receives the broadcast frame on port F0/1, S1 forwards that broadcast frame out the only port configured to support VLAN 10, port F0/3. When S3 receives the broadcast frame the broadcast frame out the only port configured to support VLAN 10, port F0/3. When S3 receives the broadcast frame on port F0/3, it forwards that broadcast frame out the only port configured to support VLAN 10, faculty computer PC4. When VLANs are implemented on a switch, the transmission of unicast, multicast, and broadcast traffic from a host on a particular VLAN are constrained to the devices that are on the VLAN.



2. VLAN Trunking

It is hard to describe VLANs without mentioning VLAN trunks. You learned about controlling network broadcasts with VLAN segmentation, and you saw how VLAN trunks transmitted traffic to different parts of the network configured in one VLAN. In the figure below, the links between switches S1 and S2, and S1 and S3 are configured to transmit traffic coming from VLAN 10, 20, 30, and 99. This network simply could not function without VLAN trunks. You will find that most networks that you encounter are configured with VLAN trunks. This section brings together the knowledge you already have on VLAN trunking and provides the details you need to be able to configure VLAN trunking in a network.

Definition of a VLAN Trunk

A trunk is a point-to-point link between two network devices that carries more than one VLAN. A VLAN trunk allows you to extend the VLANs across an entire network. Cisco supports IEEE 802.1Q for coordinating trunks on Fast Ethernet and Gigabit Ethernet interfaces. A VLAN trunk does not belong to a specific VLAN; rather it is a conduit for VLANs between switches and routers.



What Problem Does a Trunk Solve?

In the figure on the right, you see the standard topology used between switches S1 and S2, there is a separate link for each subnet. There are four separate links connecting switches S1 and S2, leaving three fewer ports to allocate to end-user devices. Each time a new subnetwork is considered, a new link is needed for each switch in the network. The figure on the left shows a VLAN trunk connecting switches S1 and S2 with a single physical link. This is the way a network should be configured.



802.1Q Frame Tagging

Remember that switches are Layer 2 devices. They only use the Ethernet frame header information to forward packets. The frame header does not contain information about which

VLAN the frame should belong to. Subsequently, when Ethernet frames are placed on a trunk they need additional information about the VLANs they belong to. This is accomplished by using the 802.1Q encapsulation header. This header adds a tag to the original Ethernet frame specifying the VLAN for which the frame belongs to.

A Trunk in Action

You have learned how a switch handles untagged traffic on a trunk link. You now know that frames traversing a trunk are tagged with the VLAN ID of the access port the frame arrived on. In the figure, PC1 on VLAN 10 and PC3 on VLAN 30 send broadcast frames to switch S2. Switch S2 tags these frames with the appropriate VLAN ID and then forwards the frames over the trunk to switch S1. Switch S1 reads the VLAN ID on the frames and broadcasts them to each port configured to support VLAN 10 and VLAN 30. Switch S3 receives these frames and strips off the VLAN IDs and forwards them as untagged frames to PC4 on VLAN 10 and PC6 on VLAN 30.



Native VLANs and 802.1Q Trunking

Now that you know more about how a switch tags a frame with the correct VLAN, it is time to explore how the native VLAN supports the switch in handling tagged and untagged frames that arrive on an 802.1Q trunk port.

- 1. Tagged Frames on the Native VLAN: Some devices that support trunking tag native VLAN traffic as a default behavior. Control traffic sent on the native VLAN should be untagged. If an 802.1Q trunk port receives a tagged frame on the native VLAN, it drops the frame. Consequently, when configuring a switch port on a Cisco switch, you need to identify these devices and configure them so that they do not send tagged frames on the native VLAN. Devices from other vendors that support tagged frames on the native VLAN include IP phones, servers, routers, and non-Cisco switches.
- 2. Untagged Frames on the Native VLAN: When a Cisco switch trunk port receives untagged frames it forwards those frames to the native VLAN. As you may recall, the default native VLAN is VLAN 1. When you configure an 802.1Q trunk port, a default Port VLAN ID (PVID) is assigned the value of the native VLAN ID. All untagged traffic coming in or out of the 802.1Q port is forwarded based on the PVID value. For example, if VLAN 99 is configured as the native VLAN, the PVID is 99 and all untagged traffic is

forward to VLAN 99. If the native VLAN has not been reconfigured, the PVID value is set to VLAN 1.

In this example, VLAN 99 will be configured as the native VLAN on port F0/1 on switch S1. Use the Cisco IOS **switchport trunk allowed vlan** *vlan-list* command to specify the list of VLANs to be allowed on the trunk link.

```
S1(config)# interface FastEthernet0/1
S1(config-if)# switchport mode trunk
S1(config-if)# switchport trunk native vlan 99
S1(config-if)# switchport trunk allowed vlan 10,20,30
S1(config-if)# end
```

Using the *show interfaces interface-id switchport* command, you can quickly verify that you have correctly reconfigured the native VLAN from VLAN 1 to VLAN 99. The highlighted output in the screen capture indicates that the configuration was successful.

Note: If you did not specify a list of allowed VLANs on the trunk link, then ALL VLANs will be allowed as shown in the last line in the figure below



3. Configuring VLANs and Trunks

In this experiment, you have already seen examples of the commands used to configure VLANs and VLAN trunks. In this section, you will learn the key Cisco IOS commands needed to create, delete, and verify VLANs and VLAN trunks. In the labs and activities, you will configure both sides and verify that the link (VLAN or VLAN trunk) is configured correctly.

Use the following steps to configure and verify VLANs and trunks on a switched network:

- 1. Create the VLANs.
- 2. Assign switch ports to VLANs statically.
- 3. Verify VLAN configuration.
- 4. Enable Trunking on the inter-switch connections.
- 5. Verify trunk configuration.







VLAN	Name	Status	Ports
1	default	active	Fa0/1, Fa0/2, Fa0/3, Fa0/4 Fa0/5, Fa0/6, Fa0/7, Fa0/8 Fa0/9, Fa0/10, Fa0/11, Fa0/12 Fa0/13, Fa0/14, Fa0/15, Fa0/16 Fa0/17, Fa0/19, Fa0/20, Fa0/21 Fa0/22, Fa0/23, Fa0/24, Gi0/1 Gi0/2
20	student	active	Fa0/18
1002 1003 1004 1005 S1#	fddi-default token-ring-default fddinet-default trnet-default	act/unsup act/unsup act/unsup act/unsup	

Prepared By: Eng.Alaa Arabiyat, Eng.Rawan Aljamal Revised By: Dr. Ramzi Saifan

Verify VLANs and Port Memberships

S1#show interfaces fa0/18 switchport	
Name: Fa0/18	h
Switchport: Enabled	
Administrative Mode: static access	
Operational Mode: down	
Administrative Trunking Encapsulation: dot1q	
Negotiation of Trunking: Off	=
Access Mode VLAN: 20 (student)	
Trunking Native Mode VLAN: 1 (default)	
Administrative Native VLAN tagging: enabled	
Voice VLAN: none	
Administrative private-vlan host-association: none	
Administrative private-vlan mapping: none	
Administrative private-vlan trunk native VLAN: none	
Administrative private-vlan trunk Native VLAN tagging: enabled	
Administrative private-vlan trunk encapsulation: dot1q	
Administrative private-vlan trunk normal VLANs: none	
Administrative private-vlan trunk private VLANs: none	
Operational private-vlan: none	•



Enter configuration commands, one per line. End with CNTL/Z. S1(config)#interface f0/1 S1(config-if)#switchport mode trunk S1(config-if)#switchport trunk native vlan 99 S1(config-if)#end

Verify trunk configuration

```
S1#show interfaces f0/1 switchport
Name: Fa0/1
Switchport: Enabled
Administrative Mode: trunk
Operational Mode: down
Administrative Trunking Encapsulation: dotlq
Negotiation of Trunking: On
Access Mode VLAN: 1 (default)
Trunking Native Mode VLAN: 99 (management)
Administrative Native VLAN tagging: enabled
Voice VLAN: none
Administrative private-vlan host-association: none
Administrative private-vlan mapping: none
Administrative private-vlan trunk native VLAN: none
Administrative private-vlan trunk Native VLAN tagging: enabled
Administrative private-vlan trunk encapsulation: dot1q
Administrative private-vlan trunk normal VLANs: none
Administrative private-vlan trunk private VLANs: none
Operational private-vlan: none
Trunking VLANs Enabled: 10,20,30
Pruning VLANs Enabled: 2-1001
Capture Mode Disabled
Capture VLANs Allowed: ALL
```

S1# show int Port Fa0/1	Mode on	Encapsulation 802.1q	Status trunking	Native vlan 99
Port Fa0/1	Vlans allowe 1-1005	d on trunk		
Port	Vlans allowe	d and active in	management do	main
Fa0/1	1,10,20,30,9	9,1002,1003,100	4,1005	
Port	Vlans in spa	nning tree forw	arding state a	nd not pruned
Fa0/1	1,10,20,30,9	9,1002,1003,100	4,1005	

4. Common Problems with Trunks

In this topic, you learn about common VLAN and trunking issues, which usually are associated with incorrect configurations. When you are configuring VLANs and trunks on a switched infrastructure, these types of configuration errors are most common in the following order:

Native VLAN mismatches - Trunk ports are configured with different native VLANs, for example, if one port has defined VLAN 99 as the native VLAN and the other trunk port has defined VLAN 100 as the native VLAN. This configuration error generates console notifications, causes control and management traffic to be misdirected and, as you have learned, poses a security risk.

Trunk mode mismatches - One trunk port is configured with trunk mode "off" and the other with trunk mode "on". This configuration error causes the trunk link to stop working.

VLANs and IP Subnets - End user devices configured with incorrect IP addresses will not have network connectivity. Each VLAN is a logically separate IP subnetwork. Devices within the VLAN must be configured with the correct IP settings.

Allowed VLANs on trunks - The list of allowed VLANs on a trunk has not been updated with the current VLAN trunking requirements. In this situation, unexpected traffic or no traffic is being sent over the trunk.

If you have discovered an issue with a VLAN or trunk and do not know what the problem is, start your troubleshooting by examining the trunks for a native VLAN mismatch and then work down the list.

Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.3 Virtual Local Area Networks (VLANs).

Objectives

- 1. Explain the role of VLANs in a network.
- 2. Explain the role of trunking VLANs in a network.
- 3. Configure VLANs on the switches in a network topology.
- 4. Troubleshoot the common software or hardware configuration problems associated with VLANs.

1. Introducing VLANs:

To appreciate why VLANs are being widely used today, consider a small community college with student dorms and the faculty offices all in one building (Building 1). The figure below shows the student computers in one LAN and the faculty computers in another LAN. This works fine because each department is physically together, so it is easy to provide them with their network resources.

A year later, the college has grown and now has three buildings. In the figure, the original network is the same, but student and faculty computers are spread out across three buildings. The student dorms remain on the fifth floor and the faculty offices remain on the third floor. However, now the IT department wants to ensure that student computers all share the same security features and bandwidth controls. How can the network accommodate the shared needs of the geographically separated departments? Do you create a large LAN and wire each department together? How easy would it be to make changes to that network? It would be great to group the people with the resources they use regardless of their geographic location, and it would make it easier to manage their specific security and bandwidth needs.



The solution for the community college is to use a networking technology called a virtual LAN (VLAN). A VLAN allows a network administrator to create groups of logically networked devices that act as if they are on their own independent network, even if they share a common infrastructure with other VLANs. When you configure a VLAN, you can name it to describe the primary role of the users for that VLAN. As another example, all of the student computers in a school can be configured in the "Student" VLAN. Using VLANs, you can logically segment switched networks based on functions, departments, or project teams. You can also use a VLAN to geographically structure your network to support the growing reliance of companies on home-

based workers. In the figure below, one VLAN is created for students and another for faculty. These VLANs allow the network administrator to implement access and security policies to particular groups of users. For example, the faculty staff, but not the students, can be allowed access to e-learning management servers for developing online course materials.



- A VLAN is an independent LAN network.
- A VLAN allows student and faculty PCs to be separated although they share the same infrastructure.
- A VLAN can be named for easier identification.

A VLAN is a logically separate IP subnetwork. VLANs allow multiple IP networks and subnets to exist on the same switched network. The figure below shows a network with three computers. For computers to communicate on the same VLAN, each must have an IP address and a subnet mask that is consistent for that VLAN. The switch has to be configured with the VLAN and each port in the VLAN must be assigned to the VLAN. A switch port with a singular VLAN configured on it is called an access port. Remember, just because two computers are physically connected to the same switch does not mean that they can communicate. Devices on two separate networks and subnets must communicate via a router (Layer 3), whether or not VLANs are used. You do not need VLANs to have multiple networks and subnets on a switched network, but there are definite advantages to using VLANs.



Benefits of a VLAN

User productivity and network adaptability are key drivers for business growth and success. Implementing VLAN technology enables a network to more flexibly support business goals. The primary benefits of using VLANs are as follows:

• Security - Groups that have sensitive data are separated from the rest of the network, decreasing the chances of confidential information breaches. Faculty computers are on VLAN 10 and completely separated from student and guest data traffic.

- Cost reduction Cost savings result from less need for expensive network upgrades and more efficient use of existing bandwidth and uplinks.
- Higher performance Dividing flat Layer 2 networks into multiple logical workgroups (broadcast domains) reduces unnecessary traffic on the network and boosts performance.
- Broadcast storm mitigation Dividing a network into VLANs reduces the number of devices that may participate in a broadcast storm since LAN segmentation prevents a broadcast storm from propagating to the whole network. In the figure you can see that although there are six computers on this network, there are only three broadcast domains: Faculty, Student, and Guest.
- Improved IT staff efficiency VLANs make it easier to manage the network because users with similar network requirements share the same VLAN. When you provision a new switch, all the policies and procedures already configured for the particular VLAN are implemented when the ports are assigned. It is also easy for the IT staff to identify the function of a VLAN by giving it an appropriate name. In the figure, for easy identification VLAN 20 has been named "Student", VLAN 10 could be named "Faculty", and VLAN 30 "Guest."
- Simpler project or application management VLANs aggregate users and network devices to support business or geographic requirements. Having separate functions makes managing a project or working with a specialized application easier, for example, an elearning development platform for faculty. It is also easier to determine the scope of the effects of upgrading network services.



VLAN ID Ranges

Access VLANs are divided into either a normal range or an extended range.

- 1. Normal Range VLANs
 - Used in small- and medium-sized business and enterprise networks.
 - Identified by a VLAN ID between 1 and 1005.
 - IDs 1002 through 1005 are reserved for Token Ring and FDDI VLANs.
 - IDs 1 and 1002 to 1005 are automatically created and cannot be removed.

- Configurations are stored within a VLAN database file, called vlan.dat. The vlan.dat file is located in the flash memory of the switch.
- The VLAN trunking protocol (VTP), which helps manage VLAN configurations between switches, can only learn normal range VLANs and stores them in the VLAN database file.
- 2. Extended Range VLANs
 - Enable service providers to extend their infrastructure to a greater number of customers. Some global enterprises could be large enough to need extended range VLAN IDs.
 - Are identified by a VLAN ID between 1006 and 4094.
 - Support fewer VLAN features than normal range VLANs.
 - Are saved in the running configuration file.
 - VTP does not learn extended range VLANs.

Types of VLANs

Today there is essentially one way of implementing VLANs - port-based VLANs. A port-based VLAN is associated with a port called an access VLAN.

However in the network there are a number of terms for VLANs. Some terms define the type of network traffic they carry and others define a specific function a VLAN performs. The following describes common VLAN terminology:

- 1. Data VLAN: A data VLAN is a VLAN that is configured to carry only user-generated traffic. A VLAN could carry voice-based traffic or traffic used to manage the switch, but this traffic would not be part of a data VLAN. It is common practice to separate voice and management traffic from data traffic. The importance of separating user data from switch management control data and voice traffic is highlighted by the use of a special term used to identify VLANs that only carry user data a "data VLAN". A data VLAN is sometimes referred to as a user VLAN.
- 2. Default VLAN: All switch ports become a member of the default VLAN after the initial boot up of the switch. Having all the switch ports participate in the default VLAN makes them all part of the same broadcast domain. This allows any device connected to any switch port to communicate with other devices on other switch ports. The default VLAN for Cisco switches is VLAN 1. VLAN 1 has all the features of any VLAN, except that you cannot rename it and you cannot delete it.
- 3. Native VLAN: A native VLAN is assigned to an 802.1Q trunk port. An 802.1Q trunk port supports traffic coming from many VLANs (tagged traffic) as well as traffic that does not come from a VLAN (untagged traffic). The 802.1Q trunk port places untagged traffic on the native VLAN. Untagged traffic is generated by a computer attached to a switch port that is configured with the native VLAN. Native VLANs are set out in the IEEE 802.1Q specification to maintain backward compatibility with untagged traffic common to legacy LAN scenarios. For our purposes, a native VLAN serves as a common identifier on opposing ends of a trunk link. It is a best practice to use a VLAN other than VLAN 1 as the native VLAN.
- 4. Management VLAN: A management VLAN is any VLAN you configure to access the management capabilities of a switch. VLAN 1 would serve as the management VLAN if you did not proactively define a unique VLAN to serve as the management VLAN. You

assign the management VLAN an IP address and subnet mask. A switch can be managed via HTTP, Telnet, SSH, or SNMP. Since the out-of-the-box configuration of a Cisco switch has VLAN 1 as the default VLAN, you see that VLAN 1 would be a bad choice as the management VLAN; you wouldn't want an arbitrary user connecting to a switch to default to the management VLAN.

- 5. Voice VLANs: It is easy to appreciate why a separate VLAN is needed to support Voice over IP (VoIP). Imagine you are receiving an emergency call and suddenly the quality of the transmission degrades so much you cannot understand what the caller is saying. VoIP traffic requires:
 - Assured bandwidth to ensure voice quality
 - Transmission priority over other types of network traffic
 - Ability to be routed around congested areas on the network
 - Delay of less than 150 milliseconds (ms) across the network

To meet these requirements, the entire network has to be designed to support VoIP. The details of how to configure a network to support VoIP are beyond the scope of this experiment.

Switch Ports

Switch ports are Layer 2-only interfaces associated with a physical port. Switch ports are used for managing the physical interface and associated Layer 2 protocols. They do not handle routing or bridging. When you configure a VLAN, you must assign it a number ID, and you can optionally give it a name. The purpose of VLAN implementations is to judiciously associate ports with particular VLANs. You configure the port to forward a frame to a specific VLAN. You can configure a port to belong to a VLAN by assigning a membership mode that specifies the kind of traffic the port carries and the VLANs to which it can belong as shown below.



Controlling broadcast domains using VLANs

1. Network without VLANS: In normal operation, when a switch receives a broadcast frame on one of its ports, it forwards the frame out all other ports on the switch. In the figure below, the entire network is configured in the same subnet, 172.17.40.0/24. As a result, when the faculty computer, PC1, sends out a broadcast frame, switch S2 sends that broadcast frame out all of its ports. Eventually the entire network receives it; the network is one broadcast domain.



2. Network with VLANs: In the figure below, the network has been segmented into two VLANs: Faculty as VLAN 10 and Student as VLAN 20. When the broadcast frame is sent from the faculty computer, PC1, to switch S2, the switch forwards that broadcast frame only to those switch ports configured to support VLAN 10. In the figure, the ports that make up the connection between switches S2 and S1 (ports F0/1) and between S1 and S3 (ports F0/3) have been configured to support all the VLANs in the network. This connection is called a trunk. You will learn more about trunks later in this experiment. When S1 receives the broadcast frame on port F0/1, S1 forwards that broadcast frame out the only port configured to support VLAN 10, port F0/3. When S3 receives the broadcast frame the broadcast frame out the only port configured to support VLAN 10, port F0/3. When S3 receives the broadcast frame on port F0/3, it forwards that broadcast frame out the only port configured to support VLAN 10, faculty computer PC4. When VLANs are implemented on a switch, the transmission of unicast, multicast, and broadcast traffic from a host on a particular VLAN are constrained to the devices that are on the VLAN.



2. VLAN Trunking

It is hard to describe VLANs without mentioning VLAN trunks. You learned about controlling network broadcasts with VLAN segmentation, and you saw how VLAN trunks transmitted traffic to different parts of the network configured in one VLAN. In the figure below, the links between switches S1 and S2, and S1 and S3 are configured to transmit traffic coming from VLAN 10, 20, 30, and 99. This network simply could not function without VLAN trunks. You will find that most networks that you encounter are configured with VLAN trunks. This section brings together the knowledge you already have on VLAN trunking and provides the details you need to be able to configure VLAN trunking in a network.

Definition of a VLAN Trunk

A trunk is a point-to-point link between two network devices that carries more than one VLAN. A VLAN trunk allows you to extend the VLANs across an entire network. Cisco supports IEEE 802.1Q for coordinating trunks on Fast Ethernet and Gigabit Ethernet interfaces. A VLAN trunk does not belong to a specific VLAN; rather it is a conduit for VLANs between switches and routers.



What Problem Does a Trunk Solve?

In the figure on the right, you see the standard topology used between switches S1 and S2, there is a separate link for each subnet. There are four separate links connecting switches S1 and S2, leaving three fewer ports to allocate to end-user devices. Each time a new subnetwork is considered, a new link is needed for each switch in the network. The figure on the left shows a VLAN trunk connecting switches S1 and S2 with a single physical link. This is the way a network should be configured.



802.1Q Frame Tagging

Remember that switches are Layer 2 devices. They only use the Ethernet frame header information to forward packets. The frame header does not contain information about which

VLAN the frame should belong to. Subsequently, when Ethernet frames are placed on a trunk they need additional information about the VLANs they belong to. This is accomplished by using the 802.1Q encapsulation header. This header adds a tag to the original Ethernet frame specifying the VLAN for which the frame belongs to.

A Trunk in Action

You have learned how a switch handles untagged traffic on a trunk link. You now know that frames traversing a trunk are tagged with the VLAN ID of the access port the frame arrived on. In the figure, PC1 on VLAN 10 and PC3 on VLAN 30 send broadcast frames to switch S2. Switch S2 tags these frames with the appropriate VLAN ID and then forwards the frames over the trunk to switch S1. Switch S1 reads the VLAN ID on the frames and broadcasts them to each port configured to support VLAN 10 and VLAN 30. Switch S3 receives these frames and strips off the VLAN IDs and forwards them as untagged frames to PC4 on VLAN 10 and PC6 on VLAN 30.



Native VLANs and 802.1Q Trunking

Now that you know more about how a switch tags a frame with the correct VLAN, it is time to explore how the native VLAN supports the switch in handling tagged and untagged frames that arrive on an 802.1Q trunk port.

- 1. Tagged Frames on the Native VLAN: Some devices that support trunking tag native VLAN traffic as a default behavior. Control traffic sent on the native VLAN should be untagged. If an 802.1Q trunk port receives a tagged frame on the native VLAN, it drops the frame. Consequently, when configuring a switch port on a Cisco switch, you need to identify these devices and configure them so that they do not send tagged frames on the native VLAN. Devices from other vendors that support tagged frames on the native VLAN include IP phones, servers, routers, and non-Cisco switches.
- 2. Untagged Frames on the Native VLAN: When a Cisco switch trunk port receives untagged frames it forwards those frames to the native VLAN. As you may recall, the default native VLAN is VLAN 1. When you configure an 802.1Q trunk port, a default Port VLAN ID (PVID) is assigned the value of the native VLAN ID. All untagged traffic coming in or out of the 802.1Q port is forwarded based on the PVID value. For example, if VLAN 99 is configured as the native VLAN, the PVID is 99 and all untagged traffic is

forward to VLAN 99. If the native VLAN has not been reconfigured, the PVID value is set to VLAN 1.

In this example, VLAN 99 will be configured as the native VLAN on port F0/1 on switch S1. Use the Cisco IOS **switchport trunk allowed vlan** *vlan-list* command to specify the list of VLANs to be allowed on the trunk link.

```
S1(config)# interface FastEthernet0/1
S1(config-if)# switchport mode trunk
S1(config-if)# switchport trunk native vlan 99
S1(config-if)# switchport trunk allowed vlan 10,20,30
S1(config-if)# end
```

Using the *show interfaces interface-id switchport* command, you can quickly verify that you have correctly reconfigured the native VLAN from VLAN 1 to VLAN 99. The highlighted output in the screen capture indicates that the configuration was successful.

Note: If you did not specify a list of allowed VLANs on the trunk link, then ALL VLANs will be allowed as shown in the last line in the figure below



3. Configuring VLANs and Trunks

In this experiment, you have already seen examples of the commands used to configure VLANs and VLAN trunks. In this section, you will learn the key Cisco IOS commands needed to create, delete, and verify VLANs and VLAN trunks. In the labs and activities, you will configure both sides and verify that the link (VLAN or VLAN trunk) is configured correctly.

Use the following steps to configure and verify VLANs and trunks on a switched network:

- 1. Create the VLANs.
- 2. Assign switch ports to VLANs statically.
- 3. Verify VLAN configuration.
- 4. Enable Trunking on the inter-switch connections.
- 5. Verify trunk configuration.







VLAN	Name	Status	Ports
1	default	active	Fa0/1, Fa0/2, Fa0/3, Fa0/4 Fa0/5, Fa0/6, Fa0/7, Fa0/8 Fa0/9, Fa0/10, Fa0/11, Fa0/12 Fa0/13, Fa0/14, Fa0/15, Fa0/16 Fa0/17, Fa0/19, Fa0/20, Fa0/21 Fa0/22, Fa0/23, Fa0/24, Gi0/1 Gi0/2
20	student	active	Fa0/18
1002 1003 1004 1005 S1#	fddi-default token-ring-default fddinet-default trnet-default	act/unsup act/unsup act/unsup act/unsup	

Prepared By: Eng.Alaa Arabiyat, Eng.Rawan Aljamal Revised By: Dr. Ramzi Saifan

Verify VLANs and Port Memberships

S1#show interfaces fa0/18 switchport	
Name: Fa0/18	h
Switchport: Enabled	
Administrative Mode: static access	
Operational Mode: down	
Administrative Trunking Encapsulation: dot1q	
Negotiation of Trunking: Off	=
Access Mode VLAN: 20 (student)	
Trunking Native Mode VLAN: 1 (default)	
Administrative Native VLAN tagging: enabled	
Voice VLAN: none	
Administrative private-vlan host-association: none	
Administrative private-vlan mapping: none	
Administrative private-vlan trunk native VLAN: none	
Administrative private-vlan trunk Native VLAN tagging: enabled	
Administrative private-vlan trunk encapsulation: dot1q	
Administrative private-vlan trunk normal VLANs: none	
Administrative private-vlan trunk private VLANs: none	
Operational private-vlan: none	•



Enter configuration commands, one per line. End with CNTL/Z. S1(config)#interface f0/1 S1(config-if)#switchport mode trunk S1(config-if)#switchport trunk native vlan 99 S1(config-if)#end

Verify trunk configuration

```
S1#show interfaces f0/1 switchport
Name: Fa0/1
Switchport: Enabled
Administrative Mode: trunk
Operational Mode: down
Administrative Trunking Encapsulation: dotlq
Negotiation of Trunking: On
Access Mode VLAN: 1 (default)
Trunking Native Mode VLAN: 99 (management)
Administrative Native VLAN tagging: enabled
Voice VLAN: none
Administrative private-vlan host-association: none
Administrative private-vlan mapping: none
Administrative private-vlan trunk native VLAN: none
Administrative private-vlan trunk Native VLAN tagging: enabled
Administrative private-vlan trunk encapsulation: dot1q
Administrative private-vlan trunk normal VLANs: none
Administrative private-vlan trunk private VLANs: none
Operational private-vlan: none
Trunking VLANs Enabled: 10,20,30
Pruning VLANs Enabled: 2-1001
Capture Mode Disabled
Capture VLANs Allowed: ALL
```

S1# show int Port Fa0/1	Mode on	Encapsulation 802.1q	Status trunking	Native vlan 99
Port Fa0/1	Vlans allowe 1-1005	d on trunk		
Port	Vlans allowe	d and active in	management do	main
Fa0/1	1,10,20,30,9	9,1002,1003,100	4,1005	
Port	Vlans in spa	nning tree forw	arding state a	nd not pruned
Fa0/1	1,10,20,30,9	9,1002,1003,100	4,1005	

4. Common Problems with Trunks

In this topic, you learn about common VLAN and trunking issues, which usually are associated with incorrect configurations. When you are configuring VLANs and trunks on a switched infrastructure, these types of configuration errors are most common in the following order:

Native VLAN mismatches - Trunk ports are configured with different native VLANs, for example, if one port has defined VLAN 99 as the native VLAN and the other trunk port has defined VLAN 100 as the native VLAN. This configuration error generates console notifications, causes control and management traffic to be misdirected and, as you have learned, poses a security risk.

Trunk mode mismatches - One trunk port is configured with trunk mode "off" and the other with trunk mode "on". This configuration error causes the trunk link to stop working.

VLANs and IP Subnets - End user devices configured with incorrect IP addresses will not have network connectivity. Each VLAN is a logically separate IP subnetwork. Devices within the VLAN must be configured with the correct IP settings.

Allowed VLANs on trunks - The list of allowed VLANs on a trunk has not been updated with the current VLAN trunking requirements. In this situation, unexpected traffic or no traffic is being sent over the trunk.

If you have discovered an issue with a VLAN or trunk and do not know what the problem is, start your troubleshooting by examining the trunks for a native VLAN mismatch and then work down the list.

Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.4 Inter-VLAN Routing

Objectives

- 1. Describe the three primary options for enabling inter-VLAN routing.
- 2. Configure traditional inter-VLAN routing.
- 3. Configure router-on-a-stick inter-VLAN routing.
- 4. Configure inter-VLAN routing using Layer 3 switching.
- 5. Troubleshoot common inter-VLAN connectivity issues.

1. Introducing inter-VLAN routing:

Now that you know how to configure VLANs on a network switch, the next step is to allow devices connected to the various VLANs to communicate with each other. In a previous experiment, you learned that each VLAN is a unique broadcast domain, so computers on separate VLANs are, by default, not able to communicate. There is a way to permit these end stations to communicate; it is called inter-VLAN routing. In this experiment, you will learn what inter-VLAN routing is and some of the different ways to accomplish inter-VLAN routing on a network.

Traditional inter-VLAN routing

Traditionally, LAN routing has used routers with multiple physical interfaces. Each interface needed to be connected to a separate network and configured for a different subnet.

In a traditional network that uses multiple VLANs to segment the network traffic into logical broadcast domains, routing is performed by connecting different physical router interfaces to different physical switch ports. The switch ports connect to the router in access mode; in access mode, different static VLANs are assigned to each port interface. Each switch interface would be assigned to a different static VLAN. Each router interface can then accept traffic from the VLAN associated with the switch interface that it is connected to, and traffic can be routed to the other VLANs connected to the other interfaces.

Traditional Inter-VLAN Routing



As you can see in the figure above:

1. PC1 on VLAN10 is communicating with PC3 on VLAN30 through router R1.

2. PC1 and PC3 are on different VLANs and have IP addresses on different subnets.

3. Router R1 has a separate interface configured for each of the VLANs.

4. PC1 sends unicast traffic destined for PC3 to switch S2 on VLAN10, where it is then forwarded out the trunk interface to switch S1.

5. Switch S1 then forwards the unicast traffic to router R1 on interface F0/0.

6. The router routes the unicast traffic through to its interface F0/1, which is connected to VLAN30.

7. The router forwards the unicast traffic to switch S1 on VLAN 30.

8. Switch S1 then forwards the unicast traffic to switch S2 through the trunk link, after which switch S2 can then forward the unicast traffic to PC3 on VLAN30.

In this example, the router was configured with two separate physical interfaces to interact with the different VLANs and perform the routing.

Router-on-a-stick inter-VLAN routing

Traditional inter-VLAN routing requires multiple physical interfaces on both the router and the switch. However, not all inter-VLAN routing configurations require multiple physical interfaces. Some router software permits configuring router interfaces as trunk links. This opens up new possibilities for inter-VLAN routing.

"Router-on-a-stick" is a type of router configuration in which a single physical interface routes traffic between multiple VLANs on a network. As you can see in the figure, the router is connected to switch S1 using a single, physical network connection.

The router interface is configured to operate as a trunk link and is connected to a switch port configured in trunk mode. The router performs the inter-VLAN routing by accepting VLAN tagged traffic on the trunk interface coming from the adjacent switch and internally routing between the VLANs using subinterfaces. The router then forwards the routed traffic-VLAN tagged for the destination VLAN-out the same physical interface.

Subinterfaces are multiple virtual interfaces, associated with one physical interface. These subinterfaces are configured in software on a router that is independently configured with an IP address and VLAN assignment to operate on a specific VLAN. Subinterfaces are configured for different subnets corresponding to their VLAN assignment to facilitate logical routing before the data frames are VLAN tagged and sent back out the physical interface.

'Router-on-a-Stick' Inter-VLAN Routing



As you can see in the figure above:

1. PC1 on VLAN10 is communicating with PC3 on VLAN30 through router R1 using a single, physical router interface.

2. PC1 sends its unicast traffic to switch S2.

3. Switch S2 then tags the unicast traffic as originating on VLAN10 and forwards the unicast traffic out its trunk link to switch S1.

4. Switch S1 forwards the tagged traffic out the other trunk interface on port F0/5 to the interface on router R1.

5. Router R1 accepts the tagged unicast traffic on VLAN10 and routes it to VLAN30 using its configured subinterfaces.

6. The unicast traffic is tagged with VLAN30 as it is sent out the router interface to switch S1.

7. Switch S1 forwards the tagged unicast traffic out the other trunk link to switch S2.

8. Switch S2 removes the VLAN tag of the unicast frame and forwards the frame out to PC3 on port F0/6.

Switched based inter-VLAN routing

The router-on-a-stick implementation of inter-VLAN routing requires only one physical interface on a router and one interface on a switch, simplifying the cabling of the router. However, in other implementations of inter-VLAN routing, a dedicated router is not required.

Multilayer switches can perform Layer 2 and Layer 3 functions, replacing the need for dedicated routers to perform basic routing on a network.

Switch-based Inter-VLAN Routing



As you can see in the figure above:

1. PC1 on VLAN10 is communicating with PC3 on VLAN30 through switch S1 using VLAN interfaces configured for each VLAN.

2. PC1 sends its unicast traffic to switch S2.

3. Switch S2 tags the unicast traffic as originating on VLAN10 as it forwards the unicast traffic out its trunk link to switch S1.

4. Switch S1 removes the VLAN tag and forwards the unicast traffic to the VLAN10 interface.

5. Switch S1 routes the unicast traffic to its VLAN30 interface.

6. Switch S1 then retags the unicast traffic with VLAN30 and forwards it out the trunk link back to switch S2.

7. Switch S2 removes the VLAN tag of the unicast frame and forwards the frame out to PC3 on port F0/6.

To enable a multilayer switch to perform routing functions, the multilayer switch must have IP routing enabled.

Multilayer switching is more scalable than any other inter-VLAN routing implementation. This is because routers have a limited number of available ports to connect to networks. Additionally, for interfaces that are configured as a trunk line, limited amounts of traffic can be accommodated on that line at one time.

With a multilayer switch, traffic is routed internal to the switch device, which means packets are not filtered down a single trunk line to obtain new VLAN-tagging information. A multilayer switch does not, however, completely replace the functionality of a router. Routers support a significant number of additional features, such as the ability to implement greater security controls. Rather, a multilayer switch can be thought of as a Layer 2 device that is upgraded to have some routing capabilities.

2. Configuring Inter-VLAN Routing

In this section, you will learn how to configure a Cisco IOS router for inter-VLAN routing, as well as review the commands needed to configure a switch to support inter-VLAN routing.

Configuring traditional inter-VLAN routing

Configuring Traditional Inter-VLAN Routing





Routing Table and verification:



Configuring router-on-a-stick inter-VLAN routing



Configuring Router-on-a-Stick Inter-VLAN Routing



Routing Table and verification:

```
R1#show ip route
Codes: C - connected, S - static, I - IGRP, R - RIP, M - mobile, B -
BGP
       D - EIGRP, EX - EIGRP external, O - OSPF, IA - OSPF inter area
       N1 - OSPF NSSA external type 1, N2 - OSPF NSSA external type 2
       E1 - OSPF external type 1, E2 - OSPF external type 2, E - EGP
      i - IS-IS, L1 - IS-IS level-1, L2 - IS-IS level-2, ia - IS-IS
inter area
       * - candidate default, U - per-user static route, o - ODR
       P - periodic downloaded static route
Gateway of last resort is not set
        172.17.0.0/24 is subnetted, 2 subnets
        172.17.10.0 is directly connected, FastEthernet0/0.10
C
        172.17.30.0 is directly connected, FastEthernet0/0.30
R1#
```

Configure inter-VLAN routing using Layer 3 switching



• Configure the VLAN interfaces with the IP address

Switch#configure terminal Enter configuration commands, one per line. End with CNTL/Z. Switch(config) #interface Vlan10 Switch(config-if) #ip address 192.168.10.1 255.255.255.0 Switch(config-if) #no shutdown

Repeat this process for all VLANs

• Configure the access interfaces with the associated VLAN

```
Switch(config)#interface fastEthernet 0/10
Switch(config-if)#switchport mode access
Switch(config-if)#switchport access vlan 10
Switch(config-if)#exit
```

Repeat this process for all switch ports

3. Inter-VLAN Configuration Issues

There are several common switch misconfigurations that can arise when configuring routing between multiple VLANs.

When using the traditional routing model for inter-VLAN routing, ensure that the switch ports that connect to the router interfaces are configured with the correct VLANs. If a switch port is not configured for the correct VLAN, devices configured on that VLAN cannot connect to the router interface; therefore, those devices are unable to send data to the other VLANs.

As shown in the Figure topology below, PC1 and router R1 interface G0/0 are configured to be on the same logical subnet, as indicated by their IP address assignment. However, the switch port F0/4 that connects to router R1 interface G0/0 has not been configured and remains in the default VLAN. Because router R1 is on a different VLAN than PC1, they are unable to communicate. To correct this problem, execute the **switchport access vlan 10** interface configured for the correct VLAN, PC1 can communicate with router R1 interface G0/0, which allows it to access the other VLANs connected to router R1.



The following Figure topology shows the router-on-a-stick routing model. However, interface F0/5 on switch S1 is not configured as a trunk and is left in the default VLAN for the port. As a result, the router is unable to route between VLANs because each of its configured subinterfaces is unable to send or receive VLAN-tagged traffic.



To correct this problem, issue the **switchport mode trunk** interface configuration mode command on switch port F0/5 on S1. This converts the interface to a trunk port, allowing a trunk to be established between R1 and S1. When the trunk is successfully established, devices connected to each of the VLANs are able to communicate with the subinterface assigned to their VLAN, thus enabling inter-VLAN routing.

The Figure topology below shows the trunk link between S1 and S2 is down. Because there is no redundant connection or path between the devices, all devices connected to S2 are unable to reach router R1. As a result, all devices connected to S2 are unable to route to other VLANs through R1. To reduce the risk of a failed inter-switch link disrupting inter-VLAN routing, redundant links and alternate paths should be accounted for within the network design.


With router-on-a-stick configurations, a common problem is assigning the wrong VLAN ID to the subinterface as shown in the Figure below. Router R1 has been configured with the wrong VLAN on subinterface G0/0.10, preventing devices configured on VLAN 10 from communicating with subinterface G0/0.10. This subsequently prevents those devices from being able to send data to other VLANs on the network. Using the **show interface** and the **show running-config** commands can be useful in troubleshooting this issue.



To correct this problem, configure subinterface G0/0.10 to be on the correct VLAN using the **encapsulation dot1q 10** subinterface configuration mode command. When the subinterface has been assigned to the correct VLAN, it is accessible by devices on that VLAN and the router can perform inter-VLAN routing. With proper verification, router configuration problems are quickly addressed, allowing inter-VLAN routing to function properly.

Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.5 Spanning-Tree Protocol (STP)

Objectives

- 1. Explain the role of redundancy in a converged network.
- 2. Summarize how STP works to eliminate Layer 2 loops in a converged network.
- 3. Explain how the STP algorithm uses three steps to converge on a loop-free topology.

1. Introduction:

It is clear that computer networks are critical components of most small- and medium-sized businesses. Consequently IT administrators have to implement redundancy in their hierarchical networks. However adding extra links to switches and routers in the network introduces traffic loops that need to be managed in a dynamic way; when a switch connection is lost, another link needs to quickly take its place without introducing new traffic loops. In this experiment you will learn how spanning-tree protocol (STP) prevents loop issues in the network and how STP has evolved into a protocol that rapidly calculates which ports should be blocked so that a VLAN-based network is kept free of traffic loops.

Redundancy in a hierarchical network

The hierarchical design model addresses issues found in the flat model network topologies. One of the issues is redundancy. Layer 2 redundancy improves the availability of the network by implementing alternate network paths by adding equipment and cabling. Having multiple paths for data to traverse the network allows for a single path to be disrupted without impacting the connectivity of devices on the network. As you can see in the figure below:

1. PC1 is communicating with PC4 over a redundantly configured network topology.

2. When the network link between switch S1 and switch S2 is disrupted, the path between PC1 and PC4 is automatically adjusted to compensate for the disruption.

3. When the network connection between S1 and S2 is restored, the path is then readjusted to route traffic directly from S2 through S1 to get to PC4.



Issues with Redundancy:

Layer 2 Loops

When multiple paths exist between two devices on the network and STP has been disabled on those switches, a Layer 2 loop can occur. If STP is enabled on these switches, which is the default, a Layer 2 loop would not occur.

Ethernet frames do not have a time to live (TTL) like IP packets traversing routers. As a result, if they are not terminated properly on a switched network, they continue to bounce from switch to switch endlessly or until a link is disrupted and breaks the loop.

Broadcast frames are forwarded out all switch ports, except the originating port. This ensures that all devices in the broadcast domain are able to receive the frame. If there is more than one path for the frame to be forwarded out, it can result in an endless loop.

In the figure above:

1. PC1 sends out a broadcast frame to switch S2.

2. When S2 receives the broadcast frame it updates its MAC address table to record that PC1 is available on port F0/11.

3. Because it is a broadcast frame, S2 forwards the frame out all switch ports, including Trunk1 and Trunk2.

4. When the broadcast frame arrives at switches S3 and S1, they update their MAC address tables to indicate that PC1 is available out port F0/1 on S1 and port F0/2 on S3.

5. Because it is a broadcast frame, S3 and S1 forward it out all switch ports, except the one they received the frame on.

6. S3 then sends the frame to S1 and vice versa. Each switch updates its MAC address table with the incorrect port for PC1 (i.e. PC1 become available out port F0/2 on S1 and port F0/1 on S3.).

7. Each switch again forwards the broadcast frame out all of its ports, except the one it came in on, resulting in both switches forwarding the frame to S2.

8. When S2 receives the broadcast frames from S3 and S1, the MAC address table is updated once again, this time with the last entry received from the other two switches (i.e. PC1 become available out port F0/1 on S2).

This process repeats over and over again until the loop is broken by physically disconnecting the connections causing the loop, or turning the power off on one of the switches in the loop.

Loops result in high CPU load on all switches caught in the loop. Because the same frames are constantly being forwarded back and forth between all switches in the loop, the CPU of the switch ends up having to process a lot of data. This slows down performance on the switch when legitimate traffic arrives.

A host caught in a network loop is not accessible to other hosts on the network. Because the MAC address table is constantly changing with the updates from the broadcast frames, the switch does not know which port to forward the unicast frames out to reach the final destination. The unicast frames end up looping around the network as well. As more and more frames end up looping on the network, a broadcast storm occurs.

Broadcast Storms

A broadcast storm occurs when there are so many broadcast frames caught in a Layer 2 loop that all available bandwidth is consumed. Consequently, no bandwidth is available bandwidth for legitimate traffic, and the network becomes unavailable for data communication.

There are other consequences for broadcast storms. Because broadcast traffic is forwarded out every port on a switch, all connected devices have to process all broadcast traffic that is being flooded endlessly around the looped network. This can cause the end device to malfunction because of the high processing requirements for sustaining such a high traffic load on the network interface card.

Refer to the figure above:

1. PC1 sends a broadcast frame out onto the looped network.

2. The broadcast frame ends up looping between all the interconnected switches on the network.

3. PC4 also sends a broadcast frame out on to the looped network.

4. The PC4 broadcast frame also gets caught in the loop and ends up looping between all the interconnected switches, just like the PC1 broadcast frame.

5. As more and more broadcast frames are sent out onto the network by other devices, more traffic gets caught in the loop, eventually resulting in a broadcast storm.

6. When the network is fully saturated with broadcast traffic looping between the switches, new traffic is discarded by the switch because it is unable to process it.

Because devices connected to a network are constantly sending out broadcast frames, such as ARP requests, a broadcast storm can develop in seconds. As a result, when a loop is created, the network quickly becomes disabled.

Duplicate Unicast Frames

Broadcast frames are not the only type of frames that are affected by loops. Unicast frames sent onto a looped network can result in duplicate frames arriving at the destination device.

In the figure above:

1. PC1 sends a unicast frame destined for PC4.

2. Switch S2 does not have an entry for PC4 in its MAC table, so it floods the unicast frame out all switch ports in an attempt to find PC4.

3. The frame arrives at switches S1 and S3.

4. S1 does have a MAC address entry for PC4, so it forwards the frame out to PC4.

5. S3 also has an entry in its MAC address table for PC4, so it forwards the unicast frame out Trunk3 to S1.

6. S1 receives the duplicate frame and once again forwards the frame out to PC4.

7. PC4 has now received the same frame twice.

Most upper layer protocols are not designed to recognize or cope with duplicate transmissions. In general, protocols that make use of a sequence-numbering mechanism assume that the transmission has failed and that the sequence number has recycled for another communication session. Other protocols attempt to hand the duplicate transmission to the appropriate upper layer protocol to be processed and possibly discarded.

Fortunately, switches are capable of detecting loops on a network. The Spanning Tree Protocol (STP) eliminates these loop issues. You will learn about STP in the next section.

2. <u>The Spanning Tree Algorithm</u>

STP ensures that there is only one logical path between all destinations on the network by intentionally blocking redundant paths that could cause a loop. A port is considered blocked when network traffic is prevented from entering or leaving that port. This does not include bridge protocol data unit (BPDU) frames that are used by STP to prevent loops. You will learn more

about STP BPDU frames later in the experiment. Blocking the redundant paths is critical to preventing loops on the network. The physical paths still exist to provide redundancy, but these paths are disabled to prevent the loops from occurring. If the path is ever needed to compensate for a network cable or switch failure, STP recalculates the paths and unblocks the necessary ports to allow the redundant path to become active.

In the figure below, all switches now have STP enabled:

1. PC1 sends a broadcast out onto the network.

2. Switch S3 is configured with STP and has set the port for Trunk2 to a blocking state. The blocking state prevents ports from being used to forward switch traffic, preventing a loop from occurring. Switch S2 forwards a broadcast frame out all switch ports, except the originating port from PC1, and the port on Trunk2, which leads to the blocked port on S3.

3. Switch S1 receives the broadcast frame and forwards it out all of its switch ports, where it reaches PC4 and S3. S3 does not forward the frame back to S2 over Trunk2 because of the blocked port. The Layer 2 loop is prevented.



If the trunk link between switch S2 and switch S1 fails, resulting in the previous path being disrupted. Switch S3 unblocks the previously blocked port for Trunk2 and allows the broadcast traffic to traverse the alternate path around the network, permitting communication to continue. If this link comes back up, STP reconverges and the port on S3 is again blocked.

STP Algorithm

STP uses the Spanning Tree Algorithm (STA) to determine which switch ports on a network need to be configured for blocking to prevent loops from occurring. The STA designates a single switch as the root bridge and uses it as the reference point for all path calculations. In the figure below the root bridge, switch S1, is chosen through an election process. All switches participating in STP exchange BPDU frames to determine which switch has the lowest bridge ID (BID) on the network. The switch with the lowest BID automatically becomes the root bridge for the STA calculations. The root bridge election process will be discussed later.

The BPDU is the message frame exchanged by switches for STP. Each BPDU contains a BID that identifies the switch that sent the BPDU. The BID contains a priority value, the MAC address

of the sending switch, and an optional extended system ID. The lowest BID value is determined by the combination of these three fields.

After the root bridge has been determined, the STA calculates the shortest path to the root bridge. Each switch uses the STA to determine which ports to block. While the STA determines the best paths to the root bridge for all destinations in the broadcast domain, all traffic is prevented from forwarding through the network. The STA considers both path and port costs when determining which path to leave unblocked. The path costs are calculated using port cost values associated with port speeds for each switch port along a given path. The sum of the port cost values determines the overall path cost to the root bridge. If there is more than one path to choose from, STA chooses the path with the lowest path cost.

When the STA has determined which paths are to be left available, it configures the switch ports into distinct port roles. The port roles describe their relation in the network to the root bridge and whether they are allowed to forward traffic.

Port Roles

The root bridge is elected for the spanning-tree instance. The location of the root bridge in the network topology determines how port roles are calculated. This topic describes how the switch ports are configured for specific roles to prevent the possibility of loops on the network.

There are four distinct port roles that switch ports are automatically configured for during the spanning-tree process.

Root Port

The root port exists on non-root bridges and is the switch port with the best path to the root bridge. Root ports forward traffic toward the root bridge. One root port is allowed per bridge. In the example below, switch S1 is the root bridge and switches S2 and S3 have root ports defined on the trunk links connecting back to S1.

Designated Port

The designated port exists on root and non-root bridges. For root bridges, all switch ports are designated ports. For non-root bridges, a designated port is the switch port that receives and forwards frames toward the root bridge as needed. Only one designated port is allowed per segment. If multiple switches exist on the same segment, an election process determines the designated switch, and the corresponding switch port begins forwarding frames for the segment. Designated ports are capable of populating the MAC table.

In the example below, switch S1 has both sets of ports for its two trunk links configured as designated ports. Switch S2 also has a designated port configured on the trunk link going toward switch S3.

Non-designated Port

The non-designated port is a switch port that is blocked, so it is not forwarding data frames and not populating the MAC address table with source addresses. A non-designated port is not a root port or a designated port. For some variants of STP, the non-designated port is called an alternate port.

In the example below, switch S3 has the only non-designated ports in the topology. The nondesignated ports prevent the loop from occurring.

Disabled Port

The disabled port is a switch port that is administratively shut down. A disabled port does not function in the spanning-tree process. There are no disabled ports in the example.



The Root Bridge

Every spanning-tree instance (switched LAN or broadcast domain) has a switch designated as the root bridge. The root bridge serves as a reference point for all spanning-tree calculations to determine which redundant paths to block.

An election process determines which switch becomes the root bridge. The figure below shows the BID fields. The BID is made up of a priority value, an extended system ID, and the MAC address of the switch.

All switches in the broadcast domain participate in the election process. After a switch boots, it sends out BPDU frames containing the switch BID and the root ID every 2 seconds. By default, the root ID matches the local BID for all switches on the network. The root ID identifies the root bridge on the network. Initially, each switch identifies itself as the root bridge after bootup.

As the switches forward their BPDU frames, adjacent switches in the broadcast domain read the root ID information from the BPDU frame. If the root ID from the BPDU received is lower than the root ID on the receiving switch, the receiving switch updates its root ID identifying the adjacent switch as the root bridge. Note: It may not be an adjacent switch, but any other switch in the broadcast domain. The switch then forwards new BPDU frames with the lower root ID to the other adjacent switches. Eventually, the switch with the lowest BID ends up being identified as the root bridge for the spanning-tree instance.



Best Paths to the Root Bridge

When the root bridge has been designated for the spanning-tree instance, the STA starts the process of determining the best paths to the root bridge from all destinations in the broadcast domain. The path information is determined by summing up the individual port costs along the path from the destination to the root bridge.

The default port costs are defined by the speed at which the port operates, 10-Gb/s Ethernet ports have a port cost of 2, 1-Gb/s Ethernet ports have a port cost of 4, 100-Mb/s Fast Ethernet ports have a port cost of 19, and 10-Mb/s Ethernet ports have a port cost of 100.

Although switch ports have a default port cost associated with them, the port cost is configurable as shown in the figure below. The ability to configure individual port costs gives the administrator the flexibility to control the spanning-tree paths to the root bridge.

```
S2#configure terminal
Enter configuration commands, one per line. End with CNTL/Z.
S2(config)#interface f0/1
S2(config-if)#spanning-tree cost 25
S2(config-if)#end
S2#
```

Path cost is the sum of all the port costs along the path to the root bridge. The paths with the lowest path cost become the preferred path, and all other redundant paths are blocked. In the example, the path cost from switch S2 to the root bridge switch S1, over path 1 is 19 (based on the IEEE-specified individual port cost), while the path cost over path 2 is 38. Because path 1 has a lower overall path cost to the root bridge, it is the preferred path. STP then configures the redundant path to be blocked, preventing a loop from occurring.



To verify the port and path cost to the root bridge, enter the show spanning-tree privileged EXEC mode command. The Cost field in the output is the total path cost to the root bridge. This value changes depending on how many switch ports need to be traversed to get to the root bridge. In the output, each interface is also identified with an individual port cost of 19.

VLAN0001 Spanning t	ree enabled protocol jeee
Root ID	Priority 27577
	Address 000A.0033.3333
	Cost 19
	Port 1
	Hello Time 2 sec Max Age 20 sec Forward Delay 15 sec
Bridge ID	Priority 32769 (priority 32768 sys-id-ext 1)
	Address 000A.0011.1111
	Hello Time 2 sec Max Age 20 sec Forward Delay 15 sec
	Aging Time 300
Interface	Role Sts Cost Prio.Nbr Type
F0/1	Root FWD 19 128.1 Edge P2p
F0/2	Desg FWD 19 128.2 Edge P2p

Configure and Verify the BID

When a specific switch is to become a root bridge, the bridge priority value needs to be adjusted to ensure it is lower than the bridge priority values of all the other switches on the network. There are two different configuration methods that you can use to configure the bridge priority value on a Cisco Catalyst switch.

<u>Method 1</u> - To ensure that the switch has the lowest bridge priority value, use the spanning-tree vlan vlan-id root primary command in global configuration mode. The priority for the switch is set to the predefined value of 24576 or to the next 4096 increment value below the lowest bridge priority detected on the network.

If an alternate root bridge is desired, use the spanning-tree vlan vlan-id root secondary global configuration mode command. This command sets the priority for the switch to the predefined value of 28672. This ensures that this switch becomes the root bridge if the primary root bridge fails and a new root bridge election occurs and assuming that the rest of the switches in the network have the default 32768 priority value defined.

In the example below, switch S1 has been assigned as the primary root bridge using the spanning-tree vlan 1 root primary global configuration mode command, and switch S2 has been configured as the secondary root bridge using the spanning-tree vlan 1 root secondary global configuration mode command.

<u>Method 2</u> - Another method for configuring the bridge priority value is using the spanning-tree vlan vlan-id priority value global configuration mode command. This command gives you more granular control over the bridge priority value. The priority value is configured in increments of 4096 between 0 and 65536.

In the example below, switch S3 has been assigned a bridge priority value of 24576 using the spanning-tree vlan 1 priority 24576 global configuration mode command.

To verify the bridge priority of a switch, use the show spanning-tree privileged EXEC mode command. In the example, the priority of the switch has been set to 24576. Also notice that the switch is designated as the root bridge for the spanning-tree instance.



Port States

STP determines the logical loop-free path throughout the broadcast domain. The spanning tree is determined through the information learned by the exchange of the BPDU frames between the interconnected switches. To facilitate the learning of the logical spanning tree, each switch port transitions through five possible port states and three BPDU timers.

The spanning tree is determined immediately after a switch is finished booting up. If a switch port were to transition directly from the blocking to the forwarding state, the port could temporarily create a data loop if the switch was not aware of all topology information at the time. For this reason, STP introduces five port states. The table below summarizes what each port state does. The following provides some additional information on how the port states ensure that no loops are created during the creation of the logical spanning tree.

Processes	Blocking	Listening	Learning	Forwarding	Disable
Receives and process BPDUs	1YES	YES	YES	YES	NO
Forward data frames received on interface	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
Forward data frames switched from another interface	NO	NO	NO	YES	NO
Learn MAC addresses	NO	NO	YES	YES	NO

Blocking - The port is a non-designated port and does not participate in frame forwarding. The port receives BPDU frames to determine the location and root ID of the root bridge switch and what port roles each switch port should assume in the final active STP topology.

Listening - STP has determined that the port can participate in frame forwarding according to the BPDU frames that the switch has received thus far. At this point, the switch port is not only receiving BPDU frames, it is also transmitting its own BPDU frames and informing adjacent switches that the switch port is preparing to participate in the active topology.

Learning - The port prepares to participate in frame forwarding and begins to populate the MAC address table.

Forwarding - The port is considered part of the active topology and forwards frames and also sends and receives BPDU frames.

Disabled - The Layer 2 port does not participate in spanning tree and does not forward frames. The disabled state is set when the switch port is administratively disabled.

Cisco PortFast Technology

PortFast is a Cisco technology. When a switch port configured with PortFast is configured as an access port, that port transitions from blocking to forwarding state immediately, bypassing the typical STP listening and learning states. You can use PortFast on access ports, which are connected to a single workstation or to a server, to allow those devices to connect to the network immediately rather than waiting for spanning tree to converge.



Note: Because the purpose of PortFast is to minimize the time that access ports must wait for spanning tree to converge, it should be used only on access ports. If you enable PortFast on a port connecting to another switch, you risk creating a spanning-tree loop.

To configure PortFast on a switch port, enter the spanning-tree portfast interface configuration mode command on each interface that PortFast is to be enabled.

Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.7 Introduction to Wireless LANs

Objectives

- 1. Identify the components of a Wireless LAN
- 2. Configure AP basic settings using the GUI and IOS CLI.
- 3. Configure Radio and Ethernet Interfaces.
- 4. Configure security mechanisms on AP such as: administrator accounts, Filters, WEP and WPA.

1. Introduction:

A wireless LAN (WLAN) provides all the features and benefits of traditional LAN technologies such as Ethernet and Token Ring, but without the limitations of wires or cables. A WLAN, just like a LAN, requires a physical medium through which transmission signals pass. Instead of using twisted-pair or fiber-optic cable, WLANs use infrared light (IR) or radio frequencies (RFs). The use of RF is far more popular for its longer range, higher bandwidth, and wider coverage. WLANs use the 2.4-gigahertz (GHz) and 5-GHz frequency bands. These portions of the RF spectrum are reserved in most of the world for unlicensed devices.

The 802.11 WLAN standard allows for transmission over different media. Specified media include the following:

- Infrared light
- Three types of radio transmission within the unlicensed 2.4-GHz frequency bands:
 - Frequency hopping spread spectrum (FHSS)
 - Direct sequence spread spectrum (DSSS) 802.11b
 - Orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM) 802.11g
- One type of radio transmission within the unlicensed 5-GHz frequency bands:
 - Orthogonal frequency-division multiplexing (OFDM) 802.11a

The 802.11b deliver up to 11-Mbps throughput. 802.11a products offer up to 54 Mbps. Versions such as 802.11g offer 54 Mbps like 802.11a, but also will be backward compatible with 802.11b.

Wireless Component and Media Identification

WLAN Adapter Card

Client adapters give users the freedom, flexibility, and mobility of wireless networking.

The client adapter is composed of three major parts. The three parts of a wireless client adapter are a radio, antenna, and LED. The client adapter has two light-emitting diodes (LEDs) that glow or blink to indicate the status of the adapter or to convey error indications. In this experiment we will use the built-in antenna in smart phones as wireless clients to the access point.

Cisco Accee Point 1200

An access point (AP) contains a radio transceiver. It can act as the center point of a stand-alone wireless network or as the connection point between wireless and wired networks. In large installations, the roaming functionality provided by multiple APs allows wireless users to move freely throughout the facility, while maintaining seamless, uninterrupted access to the network. The antenna used in the AP 1200 is called Rubber dipole.





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Wired LANs require users to stay in one location. WLANs are an extension to the wired LAN network where mobile users can move freely around a facility.

The basic service set (**BSS**) is the area of RF coverage provided by one access point. It is also referred to as a microcell. As shown in the Figure below, a BSS can be extended by adding another AP. When more than one BSS is connected to a wired LAN, it is referred to as an extended service set (**ESS**). Adding an AP is also a way to add wireless devices and extend the range of an existing wired system.

The AP attaches to the Ethernet backbone and also communicates with all the wireless devices in the cell area. The AP is the master for the cell. It controls traffic flow to and from the network. The remote devices do not communicate directly with each other. Rather, the devices communicate through the AP.

If a single cell does not provide enough coverage, any number of cells can be added to extend the range. It is recommended that adjacent BSS cells have a 10 to 15 percent overlap, as shown in Figure below. This allows remote users to roam without losing RF connectivity. Bordering cells should be set to different non-overlapping channels, or frequencies, for best performance.



2. <u>AP Configuration</u>

An access point can be configured in a variety of ways. The easiest way to configure the AP is to use a Web browser to view the Graphical User Interface (GUI). A console connection can also be used to configure the AP using the menu or CLI.

Step 1 Connecting the AP

- 1. Plug the RJ-45 Ethernet cable into the Ethernet port on of the AP.
- 2. Connect the other end of the Ethernet cable to the 10/100 Ethernet LAN.
- 3. Connect Cisco console cable between a PC and the AP.
- 4. Open Putty emulator and enter select serial using COM1 for the connection.
- 5. Apply the AP power by plugging in the power supply cable.
- 6. Reset the AP to the factory default values using the MODE button (Press and hold the MODE button while power to the access point is reconnected until the Status LED turns amber (approximately 1 to 2 seconds) then release the button).



Step 2 Configure AP IP address

When connecting the access point to the wired LAN, the access point links to the network using a bridge virtual interface (BVI) that it creates automatically. Instead of tracking separate IP addresses for the Ethernet and radio ports of the access point, the network uses the BVI. When assigning an IP address to the access point using the CLI, the address should be assigned to the BVI.

- 1. Enter the privileged mode using the password Cisco (case sensitive).
- Assign bvi interface an IP Address 10. P.0.1, where P is the team number. *AP(config) # interface bvi 1 AP(config-if)# ip address 10. P.0.1 255.255.255.0 AP(config-if)# no shut AP(config-if)# exit*
 Apply show run CLI command to view the bvi IP address.

Step 3 Configure the PC

- 1. Configure the IP address, subnet mask on the PC to be in the same network of the AP.
- 2. Turn off the firewall on the PC.

Step 4 Connect to AP using the web browser

- 1. Open an Internet browser (disable proxy).
- 2. Type the access point IP address in the browser address location field. Press Enter.
- 3. A log in screen appears. Type in the password Cisco and click OK. The Summary Status page appears. (HOME)

Home: Summary Status						
Association						
Clients: 0		Repeaters: 0				
Network Identity						
IP Address		10.0.0.1				
MAC Address		000b.46b8.ca90				
Network Interfaces						
Interface	MAC Address	Transmission Rate				
FastEthernet	000b.46b8.ca90	100 Mb/s				
Radio0-802.11b	0007.85b3.646f	11 Mb/s				
*Radio1-802.11a 000a.f4f3.4c8d		54 Mb/s				
Event Log						
Time	Severity	Description				

Step 5 Configure AP using GUI

When the access point HOME page appears, apply the following settings.

- 1. Set the system name to PodP (where P is the Pod or Team number) for the access point.
- 2. Verify the Role in Radio Network of the AP as Access Point Root.
- 3. Optimize Radio Network for the Throughput
- 4. Set SSID for the access point to APP where (where P is the Pod or Team number).
- 5. **Enable** the Radio interface.

Step 6 Connect the AP to a wireless device

- 1. Using your smart phone set the phone IP address with an address on the same network of the AP.
- 2. Configure the network on your phone to be the same as AP SSID.

Step 7 Verify the Wireless Connection

Go to the ASSOCIATIONS Page to check the wireless connection.

- Does the Client Name appear which was previously configured?
- Record the MAC Addresses of the devices associated to this access point. One of these should be the MAC Address of the wireless phone configured in Step 6.

Step 8 Configure AP using CLI

- 1. Open the hyper terminal window.
- 2. Erase the AP configuration using CLI commands.
- 3. Configure Host name to Team**P** (where **P** is the Pod or Team number) for the access point.
- 4. Configure the Bridge Virtual Interface (BVI) IP address.
- 5. Enable the radio interface then configure the SSID as follows:

Step	Mode	Command	Description
1	AP(config)#	<pre>interface dotllradio { 0 1 }</pre>	Enter interface configuration mode for the radio interface. The 2.4-GHz radio is radio 0, and the 5-GHz radio is radio 1.
2	AP(config-if)#	ssid ssid-string	Create an SSID and enter SSID configuration mode for the new SSID. The SSID can consist of up to 32 alphanumeric characters. SSIDs are case sensitive. Do not include spaces in the SSIDs.
3	AP(config- if-ssid)#	authentication open	Set the authentication type to open for this SSID. Open authentication allows any device to authenticate and then attempt to communicate with the access point

- 6. Configure SSID to lab**P** where (where **P** is the Pod or Team number) with open authentication.
- 7. Check the running configuration and interface status using CLI commands.

3. WLAN Security

A primary purpose of security is to keep intruders out. For most of history, this meant building strong walls and establishing small, well-guarded doors to provide secure access for a select group of people. This strategy works better for wired LANs than WLANs. The rise of mobile commerce and wireless networks make the old model unsuitable. Security solutions must be seamlessly integrated, more transparent, flexible, and manageable.

Part 1: Configure a new administrator account

The security policy of the company mandates all devices should be locked down according to minimum standards. One of the easiest ways for hackers to gain access to network devices is by using default usernames and passwords.

Step 2 Configure a new administrator account

1. Configure a new administrator account from the **SECURITY>Admin Access** page. Give this user Read-Write privileges.

Username: cIsCo123 Password: cIsCo123

- 2. In a production environment, it is necessary to delete the old account. However, in the lab, <u>do not</u> remove the existing account. Also, it is important to encrypt the passwords in the configurations if there are multiple administrator accounts with various privilege levels. By default, this is enabled on the AP 1200. Notice the password is bulleted out.
- 3. Enable only Local User List Only and click **Apply**. At this point, the AP will require authentication with the new Username.

Part 2: Configure Filters on AP

Protocol filters prevent or allow the use of specific protocols through the AP. Individual protocol filters or sets of filters can be set up for either the Radio or Ethernet ports. Protocols can be filtered for wireless client devices, users on the wired LAN, or both.

MAC address filters allow or disallow the forwarding of unicast and multicast packets either sent from or addressed to specific MAC addresses. A filter can be created that passes traffic to all MAC addresses except those that are specified. A filter can also be created that blocks traffic to all MAC addresses except those that are specified.

Step 1 Verify AP association with wireless phones.

Step 2 Creating a MAC address filter

Follow the path below to reach the Address Filters page:

- 1. Click **SERVICES** in the page navigation bar.
- 2. In the Services page list, click Filters.

C	Cisco 1200 Access Point
	APPLY FILTERS MAC ADDRESS FILTERS IP FILTERS ETHERTYPE FILTERS
HOME	
EXPRESS SET-UP	Hostname Pod1 Pod1 untime is 1 hour. 24 minute
NETWORK MAP +	
ASSOCIATION	
NETWORK +	Services: Filters - MAC Address Filters
SECURITY +	Create/Edit Filter Index: <new></new>
SERVICES	
Telnet/SSH	
Hot Standby	Filter Index: 701 (700 700)
CDP	(100-793)
DNS	
Filters	Add MAC Address 0007 ED31 7010 Marth 0000 0000 0000 Astron Essent (Add
HTTP	Add MAC Address: 10007-EB31.7C12 Mask: 10000.0000 Action: Polward V Addr
Proxy Mobile IP	(НННН.НННН, (НННН.НННН)
QoS	
SNMP	
NTP	Default Action: Block All
VLAN	
WIRELESS SERVICES +	Filters Classes:
SYSTEM SOFTWARE +	Tittela Citasses.
EVENT LOG +	Mac Address: 0007.EB31.7C12 Mask: 0000.0000.0000 - Forward
	Default - Block All
	Delete Class
	Apply Delete Cance

- 3. On the Apply Filters page, click the MAC Address Filters tab at the top of the page.
- 4. Make sure **<NEW>** (the default) is selected in the Create/Edit Filter Index menu.
- 5. In the Filter Index field, name the filter with a number from 701.
- 6. Enter a wireless adapter MAC address of the phone in the Add MAC Address field. Enter the address with periods separating the three groups of four characters (0007.50CA.E208, for example).
- 7. Select Forward from the Action menu.
- 8. Click Add. The MAC address appears in the Filters Classes field.
- 9. Click Apply. The filter is saved on the AP, but it is not enabled until it is applied on the Apply Filters page.

Step 3 Apply the MAC address filter

- 1. From the **SERVICES**>**Filters** Page, go to the APPLY FILTERS tab.
- 2. Select the filter number 701 from the Radio0-802.11B MAC drop-down menus. Apply the filter to incoming and outgoing packets.
- 3. Click Apply. The filter is enabled on the selected ports. Note Client devices with blocked MAC addresses cannot send or receive data through the AP, but they might remain in the Association Table as unauthenticated client devices. Client devices with blocked MAC addresses disappear from the Association Table when the AP stops monitoring them, when the AP reboots, or when the clients associate with another AP.

Step 5 Remove the MAC address filter

Before configuring any IP Filters, delete the existing MAC filter.

1. From the **SERVICES>Filters Page** change the 701 to <NONE> on both Incoming and outgoing. Then click **Apply**.

Step 6 Creating an IP filter

Follow this link path to reach the IP Filters page:

- 1. Click **Services** in the page navigation bar.
- 2. In the Services page list, click Filters.
- 3. On the **Apply Filters** page, click the **IP Filters** tab at the top of the page.
- 4. Make sure **<NEW>** (the default) is selected in the Create/Edit Filter Index menu, and then click the **Add** button.
- 5. Enter a descriptive name of **MYFILTER** for the new filter in the Filter Name field.
- 6. Select **Block all** as the filter's default action from the Default Action menu.
- 7. Configure the **Destination Address:** of 0.0.0.0 and a **Mask:** of 255.255.255.255.
- 8. Add the IP address of PC2 as the **Source Address:** with a **Mask:** of 0.0.0.0 to permit PC2 traffic.
- 9. Make sure Forward is selected for the Action:
- 10. Click the **Add** button. The ACL will now appear in the Filters Classes Box at the bottom of the **Filters** page.
- 11. Verify the configuration in the Filters Classes box.
- 12. If the configuration is correct, click **Apply**

Step 7 Apply the IP filter

- 1. Select **MYFILTER** from the radio ports incoming and outgoing IP fields.
- 2. Click **Apply**. The filter is now enabled on the selected interface(s).

Part 3: Configure WEP on AP and Client

Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP) is a security protocol for wireless networks that encrypts transmitted data. It's easy to configure. Without any security your data can be intercepted without difficulty. However, WEP was an early attempt to secure wireless networks, and better security is now available such as DES, 3DES, and WPA.

WEP has three settings: Off (no security), 40-bit (weak security), 128-bit (a bit better security). WEP is not difficult to crack, and using it reduces performance slightly.

If you run a network with only the default security, where WEP is turned off, any of your neighbors can immediately log on to your network and use your Internet connection.

For wireless devices to communicate, all of them must use the same WEP setting. 128-bit security is not much more difficult than 40-bit to crack, so if you are concerned about performance, consider using 40-bit. If you're very concerned about security, use WPA, which replaces WEP with a protocol that is — given current technology — impossible to crack.

Step 1 Configuring WEP on the access point

C	<u> Cisco 1200 Access Poin</u>	it				
НОМЕ	Hostname ap					ap uptime is 11 minutes
EXPRESS SET-UP						
NETWORK MAP +						
ASSOCIATION	Security Summary					
NETWORK INTERFACES +	Administrators					
SECURITY	Username		Read-Only			Read-Write
Admin Access	0		1			
SSID Manager	CISCO		•			
Encryption Manager	Radio0-802.11B SSIDs					
Server Manager	SSID	VLAN	Open	Sha	arod	Notwork EAP
Local RADIUS Server	3310	VLAN	Open	5110	areu	Network LAP
Advanced Security	AP1	none	~			
SERVICES +	D F 4 000 444 000D					
WIRELESS SERVICES +	Radio1-802.11A SSIDs					
SYSTEM SOFTWARE +	SSID	VLAN	Open	Sha	ared	Network EAP
	AP1	none	√			

In order to configure WEP on the AP, complete the following steps:

- a. Verify connectivity from the wireless client to the AP
- b. Open a Web browser on the PC and type the IP address of the AP to configure in the browser address bar.
- c. Go to the Security Setup page of the AP and click on the Encryption Manager option.

C	Cisco 1200 Access H	Point		
	RADIO0-802.11B	RADIO1-802.11A		
HOME	-			
EXPRESS SET-UP	Hostname ap			ap uptime is 12 minutes
NETWORK MAP +				
NETWORK .	Security: Encryption Manage	r - Radio0.802 11B		
INTERFACES +	Security. Encryption manage	1 - Maulou-002.11D		
SECURITY	Encryption Modes			
Admin Access	None			
SSID Manager				
Encryption Manager Server Manager	C WEP Encryption Optio	nal 💌		
Local RADIUS Server		Cisco Compliant TKIP Features	Enable MIC Enable Per Packet	Keying
Advanced Security	C Cinber WEP	128 bit		
SERVICES +		120 011		
WIRELESS SERVICES +				
SYSTEM SOFTWARE +	Encryption Keys			
EVENTLUG		Transmit Key	Encryption Key (Hexadecimal)	Key Size
	Encryption Key	1: 0		128 bit 💌
	Encryption Key	2: •		128 bit 💌
	Encryption Key	3: C		128 bit 💌
	Encryption Key	4: C		128 bit 💌

WEP keys can be entered in ASCII or hexadecimal on most equipment. Cisco Aironet equipment requires WEP keys to be entered in hexadecimal. 40-bit WEP keys are 10 hexadecimal characters long. 128-bit WEP keys are 26 hexadecimal characters long. To configure WEP, follow the steps below:

- a. Check the radio button WEP Encryption Mode for WEP Encryption
- b. Use the Pull Down Menu to select Mandatory
- c. Select the **Transmit Key**
- d. Enter the Encryption key (for lab purposes will be) 12345678909876543210123456
- e. Select the Key size **128 bits**
- f. Click the **Apply-All** button to apply these options.
- g. Once WEP is configured on the AP with a **Mandatory** option, all the clients will become disassociated to this AP.
- h. Verify the WEP configuration: View the SECURITY>Encryption Manager Page. The WEP settings should be configured and the Encryption Key field should be stored in the AP. However, the Key field should be encrypted with asterisk symbols to prevent unauthorized users from viewing the Encryption Key.

C	<u> Sisco 1200 Access P</u>	oint		
	RADIO0-802.11B	RADIO1-802 11A		
HOME				
EXPRESS SET-UP	Hostname ap			ap uptime is 15 minutes
NETWORK MAP +	•			
ASSOCIATION				
INTERFACES +	Security: Encryption Manager	- Radio0-802.11B		
SECURITY	Encryption Modes			
Admin Access				
SSID Manager	C None			
Encryption Manager	WEP Encryption Manda	atory 💌		
Server Manager				
Local RADIUS Server		Cisco Compliant TKIP F	eatures: E Enable MIC Enable Per Pack	et Keying
Advanced Security	C Cipher WEP	128 bit 💌		
SERVICES +				
WIRELESS SERVICES +				
SYSTEM SOFTWARE +	Encryption Keys			
EVENTLOG +				
		Transmit Key	Encryption Key (Hexadecimal)	Key Size
	Encryption Key ?	1: •	••••••	128 bit 💌
	Encryption Key 2	2: 0		128 bit 💌
	Encryption Key 3	3: O		128 bit 💌
	Encryption Key 4	4: 0		128 bit 💌

Step 2 Configure WEP on smart phone

Step 3 Verify AP association with smart phone before and after WEP configuration.

Part 4: Configuring WPA on the access point

Wi-Fi Protected Access (WPA) is a standards-based, interoperable security enhancement that strongly increases the level of data protection and access control for existing and future wireless LAN systems. WPA is wireless security with greater protection than WEP.

Most wireless networks should use either WEP or WPA. WPA is not much more difficult to configure than the older WEP, but is not available on some older products. All computers, access points, and wireless adapters must use the same type of security.

WPA operates in either WPA-PSK mode (aka Pre-Shared Key or WPA-Personal) or WPA-802.1x mode (aka RADIUS or WPA-Enterprise).

In the Personal mode, a pre-shared key or passphrase is used for authentication. In the Enterprise mode, which is more difficult to configure, the 802.1 x RADIUS servers and an Extensible Authentication Protocol (EAP) are used for authentication. The enhanced WPA2 uses Advanced Encryption Standard (AES) instead of Temporal Key Integrity Protocol (TKIP) to provide stronger encryption mechanism.

Step 1 Configuring WEP on the access point

Before configuring WPA on the Access Point you need to configure one of the cipher suites that are compatible with WPA.

- a. Go to the Security Setup page of the AP and click on the Encryption Manager option.
- b. Select cipher and then select AES CCMP



c. From the **SECURITY>SSID Manager** Page, check the **Authenticated Key Management** options.

Client Authenticated Key Management	t			
Key Management:	Mandatory 💙	🗌 ССКМ	VPA	
WPA Pre-shared Key:	•••••		I 🔿 Hexadecimal	

- a. Use the Pull Down Menu to select Mandatory
- b. Select WPA.
- c. Enter the WPA Pre-shared key (for lab purposes will be) 12345678

Step 2 Configure WPA on smart phone

Step 3 Verify AP association with smart phone before and after WPA configuration.

Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.

University of Jordan Faculty of Engineering & Technology Computer Engineering Department Advance Networks Laboratory 0907529 Exp.9 Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP)

Objectives

- 1. Describe the operation of DHCP in a small-to-medium-sized business network.
- 2. Configure a router as a DHCP server.
- 3. Configure a router as a DHCP client.
- 4. Troubleshoot a DHCP configuration in a switched network.

1. Introduction

Every device that connects to a network needs a unique IP address. Network administrators assign static IP addresses to routers, servers, printers, and other network devices whose locations (physical and logical) are not likely to change. These are usually devices that provide services to users and devices on the network; therefore, the addresses assigned to them should remain constant. Additionally, static addresses enable administrators to manage these devices remotely. It is easier for network administrators to access a device when they can easily determine its IP address.

However, computers and users in an organization often change locations, physically and logically. It can be difficult and time consuming for administrators to assign new IP addresses every time an employee moves. Additionally, for mobile employees working from remote locations, manually setting the correct network parameters can be challenging. Even for desktop clients, the manual assignment of IP addresses and other addressing information presents an administrative burden, especially as the network grows.

Introducing a Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) server to the local network simplifies IP address assignment to both desktop and mobile devices. Using a centralized DHCP server enables organizations to administer all dynamic IP address assignments from a single server. This practice makes IP address management more effective and ensures consistency across the organization, including branch offices.

2. DHCPv4 Operation

DHCPv4 assigns IPv4 addresses and other network configuration information dynamically. Because desktop clients typically make up the bulk of network nodes, DHCPv4 is an extremely useful and timesaving tool for network administrators.

A dedicated DHCPv4 server is scalable and relatively easy to manage. However, in a small branch or SOHO location, a Cisco router can be configured to provide DHCPv4 services without the need for a dedicated server. A Cisco IOS feature set (called "Easy IP)" offers an optional, full-featured DHCPv4 server.

DHCPv4 includes three different address allocation mechanisms to provide flexibility when assigning IP addresses:

- **Manual Allocation** The administrator assigns a pre-allocated IPv4 address to the client, and DHCPv4 communicates only the IPv4 address to the device.
- Automatic Allocation DHCPv4 automatically assigns a static IPv4 address permanently to a device, selecting it from a pool of available addresses. There is no lease and the address is permanently assigned to the device.
- **Dynamic Allocation** DHCPv4 dynamically assigns, or leases, an IPv4 address from a pool of addresses for a limited period of time chosen by the server, or until the client no longer needs the address.

Dynamic allocation is the most commonly used DHCPv4 mechanism, as shown in the figure below. Administrators configure DHCPv4 servers to set the leases to time out at different intervals. The lease is typically anywhere from 24 hours to a week or more. When the lease expires, the client must ask for another address, although the client is typically reassigned the same address.



Lease Origination

When the client boots (or otherwise wants to join a network), it begins a four step process to obtain a lease. As shown in the Figure below, a client starts the process with a broadcast DHCPDISCOVER message with its own MAC address to discover available DHCPv4 servers.

DHCP Discover (DHCPDISCOVER)

The DHCPDISCOVER message finds DHCPv4 servers on the network. Because the client has no valid IPv4 information at bootup, it uses Layer 2 and Layer 3 broadcast addresses to communicate with the server.

DHCP Offer (DHCPOFFER)

When the DHCPv4 server receives a DHCPDISCOVER message, it reserves an available IPv4 address to lease to the client. The server also creates an ARP entry consisting of the MAC address of the requesting client and the leased IPv4 address of the client. As shown in the Figure below, the DHCPv4 server sends the binding DHCPOFFER message to the requesting client. The DHCPOFFER message is sent as a unicast, using the Layer 2 MAC address of the server as the source address and the Layer 2 MAC address of the client as the destination.

DHCP Request (DHCPREQUEST)

When the client receives the DHCPOFFER from the server, it sends back a DHCPREQUEST message as shown in the Figure below. This message is used for both lease origination and lease renewal. When used for lease origination, the DHCPREQUEST serves as a binding acceptance notice to the selected server for the parameters it has offered and an implicit decline to any other servers that may have provided the client a binding offer.

DHCP Acknowledgment (DHCPACK)

On receiving the DHCPREQUEST message, the server verifies the lease information with an ICMP ping to that address to ensure it is not being used already, creates a new ARP entry for the client lease, and replies with a unicast DHCPACK message as shown in the Figure below.



Lease Renewal

DHCP Request (DHCPREQUEST)

As shown in the Figure below, when the lease has expired, the client sends a DHCPREQUEST message directly to the DHCPv4 server that originally offered the IPv4 address. If a DHCPACK is not received within a specified amount of time, the client broadcasts another DHCPREQUEST so that one of the other DHCPv4 servers can extend the lease.

DHCP Acknowledgment (DHCPACK)

On receiving the DHCPREQUEST message, the server verifies the lease information by returning a DHCPACK, as shown below.



3. Configuring a Basic DHCPv4 Server

A Cisco router running Cisco IOS software can be configured to act as a DHCPv4 server. The Cisco IOS DHCPv4 server assigns and manages IPv4 addresses from specified address pools within the router to DHCPv4 clients. The topology shown below is used to illustrate this functionality.



Router R1 as a DHCPv4 Server

Step 1. Excluding IPv4 Addresses

The router functioning as the DHCPv4 server assigns all IPv4 addresses in a DHCPv4 address pool unless configured to exclude specific addresses. Typically, some IPv4 addresses in a pool are assigned to network devices that require static address assignments. Therefore, these IPv4 addresses should not be assigned to other devices. To exclude specific addresses, use the **ip dhcp excluded-address** command.

A single address or a range of addresses can be excluded by specifying the low-address and highaddress of the range. Excluded addresses should include the addresses assigned to routers, servers, printers, and other devices that have been manually configured.

Step 2. Configuring a DHCPv4 Pool

Configuring a DHCPv4 server involves defining a pool of addresses to assign. The **ip dhcp pool** *pool-name* command creates a pool with the specified name and puts the router in DHCPv4 configuration mode, which is identified by this prompt Router(dhcp-config)#.

Step 3. Configuring Specific Tasks

The figure below lists the tasks to complete the DHCPv4 pool configuration. Some of these are optional, while others must be configured. The address pool and default gateway router must be configured. Use the **network** statement to define the range of available addresses.

Use the **default-router** command to define the default gateway router. Typically, the gateway is the LAN interface of the router closest to the client devices. One gateway is required, but you can list up to eight addresses if there are multiple gateways.

Other DHCPv4 pool commands are optional. For example, the IPv4 address of the DNS server that is available to a DHCPv4 client is configured using the **dns-server** command. The **domain name** *domain* command is used to define the domain name. The duration of the DHCPv4 lease can be changed using the **lease** command. The default lease value is one day.

```
R1 (config) # ip dhcp excluded-address 192.168.10.1 192.168.10.9
R1 (config) # ip dhcp excluded-address 192.168.10.254
R1 (config) # ip dhcp pool LAN-POOL-1
R1 (dhcp-config) # network 192.168.10.0 255.255.255.0
R1 (dhcp-config) # default-router 192.168.10.1
R1 (dhcp-config) # dns-server 192.168.11.5
R1 (dhcp-config) # domain-name example.com
R1 (dhcp-config) # end
R1 #
```

Disabling DHCPv4

The DHCPv4 service is enabled, by default, on versions of Cisco IOS software that support it. To disable the service, use the **no service dhcp** global configuration mode command. Use the **service dhcp** global configuration mode command to re-enable the DHCPv4 server process. Enabling the service has no effect if the parameters are not configured.

The operation of DHCPv4 can be verified using the **show ip dhcp binding** command. This command displays a list of all IPv4 address to MAC address bindings that have been provided by the DHCPv4 service. The second command, **show ip dhcp server statistics**, is used to verify that messages are being received or sent by the router. This command displays count information regarding the number of DHCPv4 messages that have been sent and received. As seen in the figure below in the output for these commands, currently there are no bindings and the statistics indicate no messages sent or received. At this point no devices have requested DHCPv4 services from router R1.

Before DHCPv4: show ip dhcp Commands

R1# show ip dhcp bir	nding
Bindings from all po	ools not associated with VRF:
IP address Clier	nt-ID/ Lease expiration Type
Hardw	ware address/
User	name
R1# show ip dhcp sea	over statistics
Memory usage	23543
Address pools	1
Database agents	0
Automatic bindings	0
Manual bindings	0
Expired bindings	0
Malformed messages	0
Secure arp entries	0
Message	Received
BOOTREQUEST	0
DHCPDISCOVER	0
DHCPREQUEST	0
DHCPDECLINE	0
DHCPRELEASE	0
DHCPINFORM	0
Message	Sent
BOOTREPLY	0
DHCPOFFER	0

The commands are issued after PC1 and PC2 have been powered on and have completed the booting process. Notice that the binding information now displays that the IPv4 addresses of 192.168.10.10 and 192.168.11.10 have been bound to MAC addresses. The statistics are also displaying DHCPDISCOVER, DHCPREQUEST, DHCPOFFER, and DHCPACK activity.

				_			_		_
R1# show ip dhcp	bindin	g							
Bindings from al	l pools	not asso	ciate	d w	ith V	RF:			
IP address C	lient-I	D/	Lea	se (expira	ation		Туре	
Н	ardware	address/							
U	ser name	e							
192.168.10.10 0	100.e01	8.5bdd.35	May	28	2013	01:06	PM	Automatic	
192.168.11.10 0	100.b0d	0.d817.e6	Мау	28	2013	01:10	ΡM	Automatic	
R1# show ip dhcp	server	statisti	cs						
Memory usage	25	307							
Address pools	2								-
Database agents	0								
Automatic bindin	gs 2								
Manual bindings	0								
Expired bindings	0								
Malformed messag	es O								
Secure arp entri	es O								
Message	Re	ceived							
BOOTREQUEST	0								
DHCPDISCOVER	8								
DHCPREQUEST	3								
DHCPDECLINE	0								
DHCPRELEASE	0								
DHCPINFORM	0								
									-

After DHCPv4: show ip dhcp Commands

The **ipconfig /all** command shown below, when issued on PC1, displays the TCP/IP parameters. Because PC1 was connected to the network segment 192.168.10.0/24, it automatically received a DNS suffix, IPv4 address, subnet mask, default gateway, and DNS server address from that pool. No router interface configuration is required. If a PC is connected to a network segment that has a DHCPv4 pool available, the PC can obtain an IPv4 address from the appropriate pool automatically.

C:\WINDOWS\system32\cmd.exe	
C:\Documents and Settings\SpanPC>ij	pconfig /all
Windows IP Configuration	
Host Name	ciscolab
Primary Dns Suffix	
Node Type	Unknown
IP Routing Enabled	No
WINS Proxy Enabled	No
Ethernet Adapter Local Area Connect	tion
Connection-specific DNS Suffix.:	example.com
Description	SiS 900 PCI Fast Ethernet
	Adapter
Physical Address	00-E0-18-5B-DD-35
Dhcp Enabled	Yes
Autoconfiguration Enabled:	Yes
IP Address	192.168.10.10
Subnet Mask	255.255.255.0
Default Gateway:	192.168.10.1 <

What is DHCP Relay?

In a complex hierarchical network, enterprise servers are usually located in a server farm. These servers may provide DHCP, DNS, TFTP, and FTP services for the network. Network clients are not typically on the same subnet as those servers. In order to locate the servers and receive services, clients often use broadcast messages.

In the figure below, PC1 is attempting to acquire an IPv4 address from a DHCP server using a broadcast message. In this scenario, router R1 is not configured as a DHCPv4 server and does not forward the broadcast. Because the DHCPv4 server is located on a different network, PC1 cannot receive an IP address using DHCP.



In the figure below, PC1 is attempting to renew its IPv4 address. To do so, the **ipconfig** /**release** command is issued. Notice that the IPv4 address is released and the address is shown to be 0.0.0.0. Next, the **ipconfig** /**renew** command is issued. This command causes PC1 to broadcast a DHCPDISCOVER message. The output shows that PC1 is unable to locate the DHCPv4 server. Because routers do not forward broadcasts, the request is not successful.

C:\WINDOWS\system32\cmd.exe
C:\Documents and Settings\Administrator>ipconfig /release
Windows IP Configuration
Ethernet adapter Local Area Connection:
Connection-specific DNS Suffix .:
IP Address 0.0.0.0
Subnet Mask 0.0.0.0
Default Gateway:
C:\Documents and Settings\Administrator>ipconfig /renew
Windows IP Configuration
An error occurred while renewing interface Local Area Connection: unable to contact your DHCP server. Request has timed out.

As a solution to this problem, an administrator can add DHCPv4 servers on all the subnets. However, running these services on several computers creates additional cost and administrative overhead.

A better solution is to configure a Cisco IOS helper address. This solution enables a router to forward DHCPv4 broadcasts to the DHCPv4 server. When a router forwards address assignment/parameter requests, it is acting as a DHCPv4 relay agent. In the example topology, PC1 would broadcast a request to locate a DHCPv4 server. If R1 was configured as a DHCPv4 relay agent, it would forward the request to the DHCPv4 server located on subnet 192.168.11.0.

As shown below, the interface on R1 receiving the broadcast is configured with the **ip helper-address** interface configuration mode command. The address of the DHCPv4 server is configured as the only parameter.

```
R1 (config) # interface g0/0
R1 (config-if) # ip helper-address 192.168.11.6
R1 (config-if) # end
R1# show ip interface g0/0
GigabitEthernet0/0 is up, line protocol is up
Internet address is 192.168.10.1/24
Broadcast address is 255.255.255
Address determined by setup command
MTU is 1500 bytes
Helper address is 192.168.11.6
<output omitted>
```

When R1 has been configured as a DHCPv4 relay agent, it accepts broadcast requests for the DHCPv4 service and then forwards those requests as a unicast to the IPv4 address 192.168.11.6. The **show ip interface** command is used to verify the configuration.

As shown below, PC1 is now able to acquire an IPv4 address from the DHCPv4 server.

C:\WINDOWS\system32\cmd.exe		×
C:\Documents and Settings\Administrator>ipconfig /rel	ease	A
Windows IP Configuration		
Ethernet adapter Local Area Connection:		
Connection-specific DNS Suffix.:		
IP Address 0.0.0.0 Subnet Mask		
Default Gateway		=
C:\Documents and Settings\Administrator>ipconfig /rem	ew	
Windows IP Configuration		
Ethernet adapter Local Area Connection:		
Connection-specific DNS Suffix .:		Ы
IP Address 192.168.10.11		
Default Gateway: 192.168.10.1		•

4. Configure DHCPv4 Client

Sometimes, Cisco routers in small office/home office (SOHO) and branch sites have to be configured as DHCPv4 clients in a similar manner to client computers. The method used depends on the ISP. However, in its simplest configuration, the Ethernet interface is used to connect to a cable or DSL modem. To configure an Ethernet interface as a DHCP client, use the **ip address dhcp** interface configuration mode command.

In the figure below, assume that an ISP has been configured to provide select customers with IP addresses from the 209.165.201.0/27 network range. After the G0/1 interface is configured with the **ip address dhcp** command, the **show ip interface g0/1** command confirms that the interface is up and that the address was allocated by a DHCPv4 server.



SOHO(config)# interface g0/1
SOHO(config-if)# ip address dhcp
SOHO(config-if)# no shutdown
SOHO(config-if)#
*Jan 31 17:31:11.507: %DHCP-6-ADDRESS_ASSIGN: Interface
GigabitEthernet0/1 assigned DHCP address 209.165.201.12, mask
255.255.255.224, hostname SOHO
SOHO(config-if)# end
SOHO# show ip interface g0/1
GigabitEthernet0/1 is up, line protocol is up
Internet address is 209.165.201.12/27
Broadcast address is 255.255.255.255
Address determined by DHCP
<output omitted=""></output>

Procedure:

You can find the lab problem sheet and the packet tracer activities on the lab website.

Reference:

CCNA Routing and Switching - Cisco Networking Academy.