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**EXAM** ✓ **CRAM**

**CompTIA  
Network+**  
N10-005 Authorized

**Emmett Dulaney  
Mike Harwood**

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800 East 96th Street, Indianapolis, Indiana 46240 USA

## **CompTIA Network+ N10-005 Authorized Exam Cram**

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# Contents at a Glance

	Introduction	1
<b>CHAPTER 1</b>	Introduction to Networking	9
<b>CHAPTER 2</b>	OSI and TCP/IP Models and Network Protocols	43
<b>CHAPTER 3</b>	Addressing and Routing	93
<b>CHAPTER 4</b>	Components and Devices	135
<b>CHAPTER 5</b>	Installation and Configuration	167
<b>CHAPTER 6</b>	Cabling and Wiring	209
<b>CHAPTER 7</b>	Wireless	259
<b>CHAPTER 8</b>	Network Management	303
<b>CHAPTER 9</b>	Network Optimization	381
<b>CHAPTER 10</b>	Network Security	413
<b>CHAPTER 11</b>	Network Troubleshooting	475
	Practice Exam 1	513
	Answers to Practice Exam 1	537
	Practice Exam 2	561
	Answers to Practice Exam 2	585
	Glossary	607
	Index	649

# Table of Contents

<b>Introduction</b> . . . . .	<b>1</b>
About Network+ Exam Cram . . . . .	1
About the Network+ Exam . . . . .	2
CompTIA Network+ Exam Topics . . . . .	2
Booking and Taking the Network+ Certification Exam . . . . .	4
What to Expect from the Exam . . . . .	5
A Few Exam Day Details . . . . .	5
After the Test . . . . .	6
Last-Minute Exam Tips . . . . .	6
<b>CHAPTER 1:</b>	
<b>Introduction to Networking</b> . . . . .	<b>9</b>
LANs, WANs, and Network Models . . . . .	10
LANs . . . . .	10
WANs . . . . .	11
Network Models . . . . .	12
Centralized Computing versus Distributed Computing . . . . .	14
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	15
Network Topologies . . . . .	16
Bus Topology . . . . .	16
Ring Topology . . . . .	18
Star Topology . . . . .	19
Mesh Topology . . . . .	20
Wireless Topologies . . . . .	22
Point-to-Point, Point-to-Multipoint, and Wireless Mesh Topologies . . . . .	24
Hybrid Topologies . . . . .	27
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	31
Going Virtual . . . . .	32
Virtual Private Networks (VPNs) . . . . .	32
Virtual Local Area Networks (VLANs) . . . . .	35
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	40
What Next? . . . . .	41

**CHAPTER 2:**

**OSI and TCP/IP Models and Network Protocols . . . . . 43**

- The Networking Models . . . . . 44
  - The OSI Seven-Layer Model . . . . . 44
  - The TCP/IP Four-Layer Model . . . . . 49
  - Identifying the OSI Layers at Which Various Network Components Operate . . . . . 50
  - Cram Quiz Answers . . . . . 51
- Protocols . . . . . 53
  - Connection-Oriented Protocols Versus Connectionless Protocols ..... 54
  - Internet Protocol (IP) . . . . . 55
    - Transmission Control Protocol (TCP) . . . . . 55
    - User Datagram Protocol (UDP) . . . . . 56
    - File Transfer Protocol (FTP) . . . . . 57
    - Secure File Transfer Protocol (SFTP) . . . . . 58
    - Trivial File Transfer Protocol (TFTP) . . . . . 59
    - Simple Mail Transfer Protocol (SMTP) . . . . . 59
    - Hypertext Transfer Protocol (HTTP) . . . . . 60
    - Hypertext Transfer Protocol Secure (HTTPS) . . . . . 60
    - Post Office Protocol Version 3/Internet Message Access Protocol Version 4 (POP3/IMAP4) . . . . . 61
    - Telnet . . . . . 62
    - Secure Shell (SSH) . . . . . 62
    - Internet Control Message Protocol (ICMP) . . . . . 63
    - Address Resolution Protocol (ARP)/Reverse Address Resolution Protocol (RARP) . . . . . 63
    - Network Time Protocol (NTP) . . . . . 65
    - Network News Transfer Protocol (NNTP) . . . . . 66
    - Secure Copy Protocol (SCP) . . . . . 66
    - Lightweight Directory Access Protocol (LDAP) . . . . . 66
    - Internet Group Management Protocol (IGMP) . . . . . 67
    - Transport Layer Security . . . . . 67
    - Session Initiation Protocol (SIP)/Real-Time Transport Protocol (RTP) . . . . . 68
    - TCP/IP Protocol Suite Summary . . . . . 69
    - Cram Quiz Answers . . . . . 73
  - Domain Name Service (DNS) . . . . . 74
    - The DNS Namespace . . . . . 76
    - Types of DNS Entries . . . . . 78
    - DNS Records . . . . . 78

DNS in a Practical Implementation . . . . .	79
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	81
Simple Network Management Protocol (SNMP) . . . . .	82
Components of SNMP . . . . .	83
SNMP Management Systems . . . . .	83
SNMP Agents . . . . .	84
Management Information Bases (MIBs) . . . . .	85
SNMP Communities . . . . .	85
SNMPv3 . . . . .	86
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	87
Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP) . . . . .	88
The DHCP Process . . . . .	89
DHCP and DNS Suffixes . . . . .	90
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	91
What Next? . . . . .	92

**CHAPTER 3:****Addressing and Routing . . . . . 93**

IP Addressing . . . . .	94
IPv4 . . . . .	95
IP Address Classes . . . . .	95
Subnet Mask Assignment . . . . .	96
Subnetting . . . . .	97
Identifying the Differences Between IPv4 Public and Private Networks . . . . .	98
Classless Interdomain Routing (CIDR) . . . . .	100
Default Gateways . . . . .	100
IPv4 Address Types . . . . .	102
IPv6 Addressing . . . . .	102
Comparing IPv4 and IPv6 Addressing . . . . .	106
Assigning IP Addresses . . . . .	107
Identifying MAC Addresses . . . . .	110
Network Address Translation (NAT) and Port Address Translation (PAT) . . . . .	112
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	116
Understanding TCP/UDP Port Functions . . . . .	117
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	119
Managing TCP/IP Routing . . . . .	120
The Default Gateway . . . . .	120
Routing Tables . . . . .	121

Static Routing . . . . .	122
Dynamic Routing . . . . .	123
Routing Metrics . . . . .	127
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	128
Configuring Routers and Switches . . . . .	129
Power over Ethernet (PoE) . . . . .	129
The Spanning Tree Protocol (STP) . . . . .	130
Trunking . . . . .	131
Port Mirroring . . . . .	132
Port Authentication . . . . .	132
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	133
What Next? . . . . .	134

**CHAPTER 4:**

**Components and Devices . . . . . 135**

Common Network Devices . . . . .	136
Bridges . . . . .	136
DHCP Server . . . . .	138
Firewalls . . . . .	139
Hubs . . . . .	140
Media Converters . . . . .	141
Modems . . . . .	142
Network Cards . . . . .	142
Routers . . . . .	145
Switches . . . . .	146
Wireless Access Points . . . . .	149
Encryption Devices . . . . .	150
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	152
Specialized Network Devices . . . . .	153
Bandwidth Shaper . . . . .	154
Content Filter . . . . .	155
Load Balancer . . . . .	155
Multilayer and Content Switches . . . . .	155
Proxy Server . . . . .	156
VPN Concentrator . . . . .	158
Network Devices Summary . . . . .	159
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	161
Virtual Network Components . . . . .	162
Virtual Desktops . . . . .	162
Virtual Servers . . . . .	163



Virtual Switches . . . . .	163
Virtual PBX. . . . .	164
Onsite Versus Offsite. . . . .	164
Network as a Service (NaaS) . . . . .	165
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	166
What Next? . . . . .	166

**CHAPTER 5:****Installation and Configuration . . . . . 167**

Creating a SOHO Network . . . . .	168
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	174
WAN Technologies. . . . .	175
Switching Methods . . . . .	175
Integrated Services Digital Network (ISDN) . . . . .	178
T-carrier Lines. . . . .	180
SONET/OCx Levels. . . . .	182
X.25 and Frame Relay . . . . .	183
Asynchronous Transfer Mode (ATM) . . . . .	186
Summary of WAN Technologies . . . . .	187
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	189
Internet Access Technologies . . . . .	191
DSL Internet Access . . . . .	192
Cable Internet Access . . . . .	195
Broadband Security Considerations . . . . .	197
POTS Internet Access . . . . .	198
The Public Switched Telephone Network (PSTN) . . . . .	200
Satellite Internet Access . . . . .	201
Wireless Internet Access . . . . .	202
Cellular . . . . .	204
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	206
What Next? . . . . .	207

**CHAPTER 6:****Cabling and Wiring . . . . . 209**

General Media Considerations . . . . .	210
Broadband Versus Baseband Transmissions . . . . .	211
Simplex, Half Duplex, and Full Duplex Modes . . . . .	212
Media Interference . . . . .	212
Attenuation . . . . .	213
Data Transmission Rates . . . . .	213

Types of Network Media . . . . .	214
Types of Media Connectors . . . . .	221
Media Converters . . . . .	226
568A and 568B Wiring Standards . . . . .	227
Straight-Through Versus Crossover Cables . . . . .	228
Rollover and Loopback Cables . . . . .	230
Components of Wiring Distribution . . . . .	231
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	243
Comparing and Contrasting LAN Technologies . . . . .	244
IEEE 802.2 Standard . . . . .	245
802.3 Ethernet Standards . . . . .	249
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	257
What Next? . . . . .	258

**CHAPTER 7:**

<b>Wireless . . . . .</b>	<b>259</b>
Understanding Wireless Basics . . . . .	260
Wireless Access Points (APs) . . . . .	261
Wireless Antennas . . . . .	264
Wireless Radio Channels . . . . .	268
Data Rate Versus Throughput . . . . .	271
Beacon Management Frame . . . . .	272
Spread-Spectrum Technology . . . . .	273
Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing . . . . .	274
Infrared Wireless Networking . . . . .	274
Establishing Communications Between Wireless Devices . . . . .	275
Configuring the Wireless Connection . . . . .	278
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	283
802.11 Wireless Standards . . . . .	284
The Magic Behind 802.11n . . . . .	285
A Summary of 802.11 Wireless Standards . . . . .	286
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	288
Securing Wireless Networks . . . . .	289
Wired Equivalent Privacy (WEP) . . . . .	290
Wi-Fi Protected Access (WPA) . . . . .	292
WPA2 . . . . .	293
WPA Enterprise . . . . .	294
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	296

Wireless Troubleshooting Checklist . . . . .	298
Factors Affecting Wireless Signals . . . . .	300
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	302
What Next? . . . . .	302

**CHAPTER 8:****Network Management . . . . . 303**

Documentation Management . . . . .	305
Wiring Schematics . . . . .	307
Physical and Logical Network Diagrams . . . . .	310
Baselines . . . . .	313
Policies, Procedures, Configurations, and Regulations . . . . .	314
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	321
Monitoring Network Performance . . . . .	322
Common Reasons to Monitor Networks . . . . .	323
Packet Sniffers . . . . .	324
Throughput Testing . . . . .	325
Port Scanners . . . . .	327
Network Performance, Load, and Stress Testing . . . . .	329
Tracking Event Logs . . . . .	331
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	337
Networking Tools . . . . .	338
Wire Crimpers, Strippers, and Snips . . . . .	339
Voltage Event Recorder . . . . .	340
Environmental Monitors . . . . .	341
Toner Probes . . . . .	342
Protocol Analyzer . . . . .	343
Media/Cable Testers . . . . .	344
TDR and OTDR . . . . .	344
Multimeter . . . . .	345
Network Qualification Tester . . . . .	346
Butt Set . . . . .	346
Wireless Detection . . . . .	347
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	349
Working with Command-Line Utilities . . . . .	350
The Trace Route Utility (tracert/traceroute) . . . . .	352
ping . . . . .	355
ARP . . . . .	360
The netstat Command . . . . .	363
nbtstat . . . . .	369

The ipconfig Command . . . . .	370
ifconfig . . . . .	372
nslookup . . . . .	373
dig . . . . .	375
The host Command . . . . .	376
The route Utility . . . . .	376
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	379
What Next? . . . . .	380

**CHAPTER 9:**

<b>Network Optimization . . . . .</b>	<b>381</b>
Uptime and Fault Tolerance . . . . .	382
Types of Fault Tolerance . . . . .	384
Link Redundancy . . . . .	392
Common Address Redundancy Protocol (CARP) . . . . .	393
Using Uninterruptible Power Supplies (UPSs) . . . . .	393
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	396
Disaster Recovery . . . . .	397
Full Backups . . . . .	398
Differential Backups . . . . .	398
Incremental Backups . . . . .	399
Tape Rotations . . . . .	400
Backup Best Practices . . . . .	401
Hot and Cold Spares . . . . .	401
Hot, Warm, and Cold Sites . . . . .	403
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	406
Network Optimization Strategies . . . . .	407
Quality of Service (QoS) . . . . .	407
Traffic Shaping . . . . .	408
Caching Engines . . . . .	409
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	411
What Next? . . . . .	412

**CHAPTER 10:**

<b>Network Security . . . . .</b>	<b>413</b>
Tunneling, Encryption, and Access Control . . . . .	414
Internet Security Association and Key Management Protocol (ISAKMP) . . . . .	415
Point-to-Point Tunneling Protocol (PPTP) . . . . .	415
Layer 2 Tunneling Protocol (L2TP) . . . . .	416

IPSec . . . . .	417
Site-to-Site and Client-to-Site . . . . .	418
Overview of Access Control . . . . .	418
Remote-Access Protocols and Services . . . . .	421
Remote-Control Protocols . . . . .	424
MAC Filtering . . . . .	425
TCP/IP Filtering . . . . .	426
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	427
Authentication, Authorization, and Accounting (AAA) . . . . .	429
Passwords and Password Policies . . . . .	431
Kerberos Authentication . . . . .	433
Public Key Infrastructure . . . . .	436
RADIUS and TACACS+ . . . . .	439
Remote Authentication Protocols . . . . .	440
Secured Versus Unsecured Protocols . . . . .	442
Adding Physical Security to the Mix . . . . .	443
Two-factor and Multifactor Authentication . . . . .	445
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	448
Managing Common Security Threats . . . . .	449
Viruses . . . . .	450
Worms and Trojan Horses . . . . .	451
Denial of Service and Distributed Denial of Service Attacks . . . . .	452
Other Common Attacks . . . . .	454
An Ounce of Prevention . . . . .	456
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	459
Firewalls and Other Appliances . . . . .	460
Stateful and Stateless Firewalls . . . . .	462
Packet-Filtering Firewalls . . . . .	463
Circuit-Level Firewalls . . . . .	465
Application Layer Firewalls . . . . .	465
Comparing Firewall Types . . . . .	465
Firewall Wrap-Up . . . . .	466
Demilitarized Zones (Perimeter Network) . . . . .	466
Other Security Devices . . . . .	467
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	473
What Next? . . . . .	474

<b>CHAPTER 11:</b>	
<b>Network Troubleshooting</b> . . . . .	<b>475</b>
Troubleshooting Steps and Procedures . . . . .	476
Identify the Problem . . . . .	477
Establish a Theory of Probable Cause . . . . .	478
Test the Theory to Determine Cause . . . . .	479
Establish a Plan of Action . . . . .	479
Implement the Solution or Escalate . . . . .	480
Verify Full System Functionality . . . . .	481
Document the Findings, Actions, and Outcomes . . . . .	482
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	484
Troubleshooting the Network . . . . .	485
Common Problems to Be Aware Of . . . . .	485
Troubleshooting Wiring . . . . .	490
Wiring Issues . . . . .	492
Troubleshooting Infrastructure Hardware . . . . .	496
Configuring and Troubleshooting Client Connectivity . . . . .	498
Troubleshooting an Incorrect VLAN . . . . .	503
Topology Errors . . . . .	504
Cram Quiz Answers . . . . .	510
What Next? . . . . .	511
<b>Practice Exam 1</b> . . . . .	<b>513</b>
Exam Questions . . . . .	513
<b>Answers to Practice Exam 1</b> . . . . .	<b>537</b>
Answers at a Glance . . . . .	537
Answers and Explanations . . . . .	538
<b>Practice Exam 2</b> . . . . .	<b>561</b>
Exam Questions . . . . .	561
<b>Answers to Practice Exam 2</b> . . . . .	<b>585</b>
Answers at a Glance . . . . .	585
Answers and Explanations . . . . .	586
<b>Glossary</b> . . . . .	<b>607</b>
<b>Index</b> . . . . .	<b>649</b>

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# Dedication

*For Karen, Kristin, Evan, and Spencer: the backbone of my network.*

*—Emmett Dulaney*

# Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Mike Harwood for creating a great book of which I was honored to join with this edition. Thanks are due to a wonderful team of talented individuals, three of whom deserve special attention: Betsy Brown, Jeff Riley, and Christopher A. Crayton. They represent the best in the business.

—Emmett Dulaney



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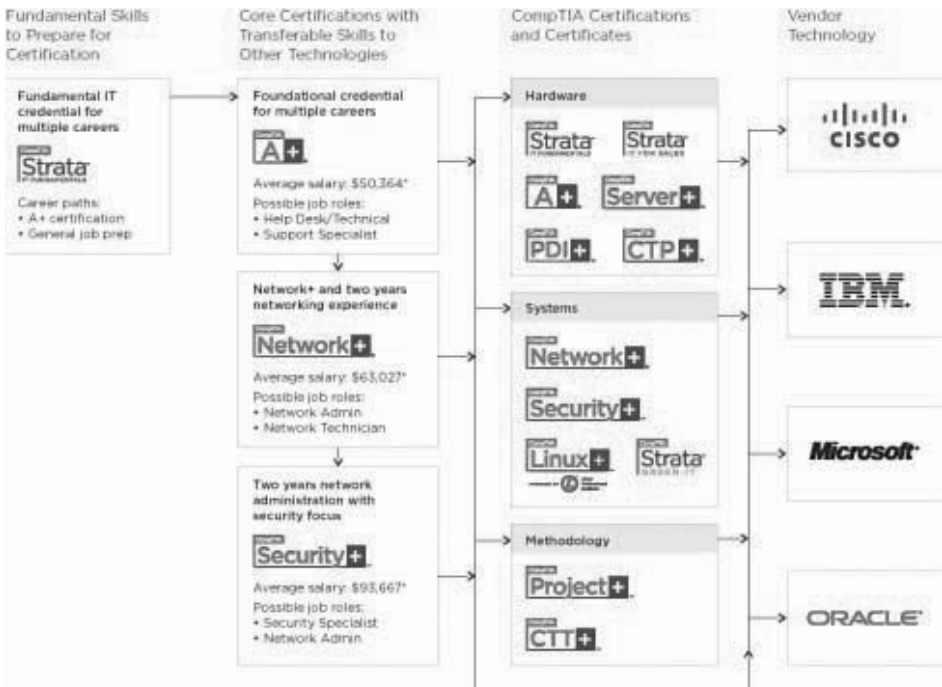


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# Introduction

Welcome to the *Network+ Exam Cram*. This book is designed to prepare you to take—and pass—the CompTIA Network+ exam. The Network+ exam has become the leading introductory-level network certification available today. It is recognized by both employers and industry giants as providing candidates with a solid foundation of networking concepts, terminology, and skills. The Network+ exam covers a broad range of networking concepts to prepare candidates for the technologies they are likely to work with in today's network environments.

## About Network+ Exam Cram

*Exam Crams* are designed to give you the information you need to know to prepare for a certification exam. They cut through the extra information, focusing on the areas you need to get through the exam. With this in mind, the elements within the *Exam Cram* titles are aimed at providing the exam information you need in the most succinct and accessible manner.

In this light, this book is organized to closely follow the actual CompTIA objectives for exam N10-005. As such, it is easy to find the information required for each of the specified CompTIA Network+ objectives. The objective focus design used by this *Exam Cram* is an important feature because the information you need to know is easily identifiable and accessible. To see what we mean, compare the CompTIA objectives to the book's layout, and you can see that the facts are right where you would expect them to be.

Within the chapters, potential exam hot spots are clearly highlighted with Exam Alerts. They have been carefully placed to let you know that the surrounding discussion is an important area for the exam. To further help you prepare for the exam, a Cram Sheet is included that you can use in the final stages of test preparation. Be sure to pay close attention to the bulleted points on the Cram Sheet because they pinpoint the technologies and facts you probably will encounter on the test.

Finally, great effort has gone into the questions that appear throughout the chapter and the practice tests to ensure that they accurately represent the look and feel of the ones you will see on the real Network+ exam. Be sure, before taking the exam, that you are comfortable with both the format and content of the questions provided in this book.

# About the Network+ Exam

The Network+ (N10-005 Edition) exam is a revised version of the original exam. The new Network+ objectives are aimed toward those who have at least 9 months of experience in network support and administration. CompTIA believes that new Network+ candidates require more hands-on experience in network administration and troubleshooting, but this should not discourage those who do not. Quite simply, the nature of the questions on the new exam is not dissimilar to the old, and you can get by without actual hands-on experience. Still, a little hands-on experience never hurt anyone and can certainly add to your confidence going into the exam.

You will have a maximum of 90 minutes to answer the 100 questions on the exam. The allotted time is quite generous, so when you finish, you probably will have time to double-check a few of the answers you were unsure of. By the time the dust settles, you need a minimum score of 720 to pass the Network+ exam. This is on a scale of 100 to 900. For more information on the specifics of the Network+ exam, refer to CompTIA's main website at <http://certification.comptia.org/>.

## CompTIA Network+ Exam Topics

Table I-1 lists general exam topics (that is, *objectives*) and specific topics under each general topic (that is, *subobjectives*) for the CompTIA Network+ N10-005 exam. This table also lists the chapter in which each exam topic is covered. Some objectives and subobjectives are addressed in multiple chapters.

TABLE I-1 **CompTIA Network+ Exam Topics**

Chapter	N10-005 Exam Objective	N10-005 Exam Subobjective
1 (Introduction to Networking)	3.0 Network Media and Topologies	3.5 Describe different network topologies.
2 (OSI and TCP/IP Models and Network Protocols)	1.0 Network Concepts 2.0 Network Installation and Configuration 4.0 Network Management	1.1 Compare the layers of the OSI and TCP/IP models. 1.6 Explain the function of common network protocols. 1.7 Summarize DNS concepts and its components. 2.3 Explain the purpose and properties of DHCP. 4.4 Given a scenario, use the appropriate network resource to analyze traffic.

TABLE I-1 **Continued**

<b>Chapter</b>	<b>N10-005 Exam Objective</b>	<b>N10-005 Exam Subobjective</b>
3 (Addressing and Routing)	1.0 Network Concepts 2.0 Network Installation and Configuration	1.3 Explain the purpose and properties of IP addressing. 1.4 Explain the purpose and properties of routing and switching. 1.5 Identify common TCP and UDP default ports. 2.1 Given a scenario, install and configure routers and switches.
4 (Components and Devices)	1.0 Network Technologies 4.0 Network Management	1.2 Classify how applications, devices, and protocols relate to the OSI model layers. 1.9 Identify virtual network components. 4.1 Explain the purpose and features of various network appliances. 3.7 Compare and contrast different LAN technologies.
5 (Installation and Configuration)	2.0 Network Installation and Configuration 3.0 Network Media and Topologies	2.6 Given a set of requirements, plan and implement a basic SOHO network. 3.4 Categorize WAN technology types and properties.
6 (Cabling and Wiring)	3.0 Network Media and Topologies	3.1 Categorize standard media types and associated properties. 3.2 Categorize standard connector types based on network media. 3.7 Compare and contrast different LAN technologies. 3.8 Identify components of wiring distribution.
7 (Wireless)	2.0 Network Installation and Configuration 3.0 Network Media and Topologies 5.0 Network Security	2.2 Given a scenario, install and configure a wireless network. 2.4 Given a scenario, troubleshoot common wireless problems. 3.3 Compare and contrast different wireless standards. 5.1 Given a scenario, implement appropriate wireless security measures.
8 (Network Management)	4.0 Network Management	4.2 Given a scenario, use appropriate hardware tools to troubleshoot connectivity issues. 4.3 Given a scenario, use appropriate software tools to troubleshoot connectivity issues. 4.4 Given a scenario, use the appropriate network monitoring resource to analyze traffic. 4.5 Describe the purpose of configuration management documentation.



TABLE I-1 **Continued**

Chapter	N10-005 Exam Objective	N10-005 Exam Subobjective
9 (Network Optimization)	4.0 Network Management	4.6 Explain different methods and rationales for network performance optimization.
10 (Network Security)	5.0 Network Security	5.2 Explain the methods of network access security. 5.3 Explain methods of user authentication. 5.4 Explain common threats, vulnerabilities, and mitigation techniques. 5.5 Given a scenario, install and configure a basic firewall. 5.6 Categorize different types of network security appliances and methods.
11 (Network Troubleshooting)	1.0 Network Technologies 2.0 Network Installation and Configuration 3.0 Network Media and Topologies	1.8 Given a scenario, implement a given troubleshooting methodology. 2.5 Given a scenario, troubleshoot common router and switch problems. 3.6 Given a scenario, troubleshoot common physical connectivity problems.

## Booking and Taking the Network+ Certification Exam

Unfortunately, testing is not free. You're charged \$246 for each test you take, whether you pass or fail. In the United States and Canada, tests are administered by Sylvan Prometric or VUE testing services. To book a test with Prometric or to locate a Prometric testing center near you, refer to the website at <http://securereg3.prometric.com/> or call 1-888-895-6116. To access the VUE contact information and book an exam, refer to the website at <http://www.vue.com> or call 1-877-551-7587. When booking an exam, you need to provide the following information:

- ▶ Your name as you would like it to appear on your certificate.
- ▶ Your Social Security or Social Insurance number.
- ▶ Contact phone numbers (to be called in case of a problem).
- ▶ Mailing address, which identifies the address to which you want your certificate mailed.
- ▶ Exam number and title.

- ▶ Email address for contact purposes. This often is the fastest and most effective means to contact you. Many clients require it for registration.
- ▶ Credit-card information so that you can pay online. You can redeem vouchers by calling the respective testing center.

## What to Expect from the Exam

If you haven't taken a certification test, the process can be a little unnerving. Even if you've taken numerous tests, it is not much better. Mastering the inner mental game often can be as much of a battle as knowing the material. Knowing what to expect before heading in can make the process a little more comfortable.

Certification tests are administered on a computer system at a Prometric or VUE authorized testing center. The format of the exams is straightforward: Each question has several possible answers to choose from. The questions in this book provide a good example of the types of questions you can expect on the exam. If you are comfortable with them, the test should hold few surprises. Many of the questions vary in length; some of them are longer scenario questions, whereas others are short and to the point. Carefully read the questions; the longer questions often have a key point that will lead you to the correct answer.

Most of the questions on the Network+ exam require you to choose a single correct answer, but a few require multiple answers. When there are multiple correct answers, a message at the bottom of the screen prompts you to "Choose all that apply." Be sure to read these messages.

## A Few Exam Day Details

It is recommended that you arrive at the examination room at least 15 minutes early, although a few minutes earlier certainly would not hurt. This will give you time to prepare and will give the test administrator time to answer any questions you might have before the test begins. Many people suggest that you review the most critical information about the test you're taking just before the test. (*Exam Cram* books provide a reference—the Cram Sheet, located inside the front of this book—that lists the essential information from the book in distilled form.) Arriving a few minutes early will give you some time to compose yourself and mentally review this critical information.

You will be asked to provide two forms of ID, one of which must be a photo ID. Both of the identifications you choose should have a signature. You also might need to sign in when you arrive and sign out when you leave.

Be warned: The rules are clear about what you can and cannot take into the examination room. Books, laptops, note sheets, and so on are not allowed in the examination room. The test administrator will hold these items, to be returned after you complete the exam. You might receive either a wipe board or a pen and a single piece of paper for making notes during the exam. The test administrator will ensure that no paper is removed from the examination room.

## After the Test

Whether you want it or not, as soon as you finish your test, your score displays on the computer screen. In addition to the results appearing on the computer screen, a hard copy of the report prints for you. Like the onscreen report, the hard copy displays the results of your exam and provides a summary of how you did on each section and on each technology. If you were unsuccessful, this summary can help you determine the areas you need to brush up on.

When you pass the Network+ exam, you will have earned the Network+ certification, and your certificate will be mailed to you within a few weeks. Should you not receive your certificate and information packet within 5 weeks of passing your exam, contact CompTIA at [fulfillment@comptia.org](mailto:fulfillment@comptia.org), or call 1-630-268-1818 and ask for the fulfillment department.

## Last-Minute Exam Tips

Studying for a certification exam is no different than studying for any other exam, but a few hints and tips can give you the edge on exam day:

- ▶ **Read all the material:** CompTIA has been known to include material not expressly specified in the objectives. This book has included additional information not reflected in the objectives to give you the best possible preparation for the examination.
- ▶ **Watch for the Exam Tips and Notes:** The Network+ objectives include a wide range of technologies. Exam Tips and Notes found throughout each chapter are designed to pull out exam-related hot spots. These can be your best friends when preparing for the exam.

- ▶ **Use the questions to assess your knowledge:** Don't just read the chapter content; use the exam questions to find out what you know and what you don't. If you struggle, study some more, review, and then assess your knowledge again.
- ▶ **Review the exam objectives:** Develop your own questions and examples for each topic listed. If you can develop and answer several questions for each topic, you should not find it difficult to pass the exam.

Good luck!

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## CHAPTER 3

# Addressing and Routing

**This chapter covers the following official Network+ objectives:**

- ▶ Explain the purpose and properties of IP addressing.
- ▶ Explain the purpose and properties of routing and switching.
- ▶ Identify common TCP and UDP default ports.
- ▶ Given a scenario, install and configure routers and switches.

For more information on the official Network+ exam topics, see the “About the Network+ Exam” section in the “Introduction.”

Without question, the TCP/IP suite is the most widely implemented protocol on networks today. As such, it is an important topic on the Network+ exam. To pass the exam, you definitely need to understand the material presented in this chapter.

This chapter deals with the individual protocols within the protocol suite. It looks at the functions of the individual protocols and their purposes. It starts by discussing one of the more complex facets of TCP/IP: addressing.

# IP Addressing

- Explain the purpose and properties of IP addressing.

## CramSaver

If you can correctly answer these questions before going through this section, save time by skimming the Exam Alerts in this section and then complete the Cram Quiz at the end of the section.

1. How many octets does a Class A address use to represent the network portion?
2. What is the range that Class C addresses span in the first octet?
3. What are the reserved IPv4 ranges for private networks?

## Answers

1. A Class A address uses only the first octet to represent the network portion, a Class B address uses two octets, and a Class C address uses three octets.
2. Class C addresses span from 192 to 223, with a default subnet mask of 255.255.255.0.
3. A private network is any network to which access is restricted. Reserved IP addresses are 10.0.0.0, 172.16.0.0 to 172.31.0.0, and 192.168.0.0.

IP addressing is one of the most challenging aspects of TCP/IP. It can leave even the most seasoned network administrators scratching their heads. Fortunately, the Network+ exam requires only a fundamental knowledge of IP addressing. The following sections look at how IP addressing works for both IPv4 and the newest version of IP: IPv6.

To communicate on a network using TCP/IP, each system must be assigned a unique address. The address defines both the number of the network to which the device is attached and the number of the node on that network. In other words, the IP address provides two pieces of information. It's a bit like a street name and house number in a person's home address.

Each device on a logical network segment must have the same network address as all the other devices on the segment. All the devices on that network segment must then have different node addresses.

In IP addressing, another set of numbers, called a subnet mask, defines which portion of the IP address refers to the network address and which refers to the node address.

IP addressing is different in IPv4 and IPv6. The discussion begins by looking at IPv4.

## IPv4

An IPv4 address is composed of four sets of 8 binary bits, which are called *octets*. The result is that IP addresses contain 32 bits. Each bit in each octet is assigned a decimal value. The leftmost bit has a value of 128, followed by 64, 32, 16, 8, 4, 2, and 1, left to right.

Each bit in the octet can be either a 1 or a 0. If the value is 1, it is counted as its decimal value, and if it is 0, it is ignored. If all the bits are 0, the value of the octet is 0. If all the bits in the octet are 1, the value is 255, which is  $128 + 64 + 32 + 16 + 8 + 4 + 2 + 1$ .

By using the set of 8 bits and manipulating the 1s and 0s, you can obtain any value between 0 and 255 for each octet.

Table 3.1 shows some examples of decimal-to-binary value conversions.

TABLE 3.1 **Decimal-to-Binary Value Conversions**

Decimal Value	Binary Value	Decimal Calculation
10	00001010	$8 + 2 = 10$
192	11000000	$128 + 64 = 192$
205	11001101	$128 + 64 + 8 + 4 + 1 = 205$
223	11011111	$128 + 64 + 16 + 8 + 4 + 2 + 1 = 223$

## IP Address Classes

IP addresses are grouped into logical divisions called *classes*. The IPv4 address space has five address classes (A through E); although, only three (A, B, and C) assign addresses to clients. Class D is reserved for multicast addressing, and Class E is reserved for future development.

Of the three classes available for address assignments, each uses a fixed-length subnet mask to define the separation between the network and the node address. A Class A address uses only the first octet to represent the network portion; a Class B address uses two octets; and a Class C address uses the first



three octets. The upshot of this system is that Class A has a small number of network addresses, but each Class A address has a large number of possible host addresses. Class B has a larger number of networks, but each Class B address has a smaller number of hosts. Class C has an even larger number of networks, but each Class C address has an even smaller number of hosts. The exact numbers are provided in Table 3.2.

### ExamAlert

Be prepared for questions asking you to identify IP class ranges, such as the IP range for a Class A network.

TABLE 3.2 **IPv4 Address Classes and the Number of Available Network/Host Addresses**

Address Class	Range	Number of Networks	Number of Hosts Per Network	Binary Value of First Octet
A	1 to 126	126	16,777,214	0xxxxxxx
B	128 to 191	16,384	65,534	10xxxxxx
C	192 to 223	2,097,152	254	110xxxxx
D	224 to 239	N/A	N/A	1110xxxx
E	240 to 255	N/A	N/A	1111xxxx

### Note

Notice in Table 3.2 that the network number 127 is not included in any of the ranges. The 127.0.0.1 network ID is reserved for the IPv4 local loopback. The local loopback is a function of the protocol suite used in the troubleshooting process.

### ExamAlert

For the Network+ exam, you should be prepared to identify into which class a given address falls. You should also be prepared to identify the IPv4 loopback address. The actual loopback address is 127.0.0.1.

## Subnet Mask Assignment

Like an IP address, a *subnet mask* is most commonly expressed in 32-bit dotted-decimal format. Unlike an IP address, though, a subnet mask performs just one function—it defines which parts of the IP address refer to the network address and which refer to the node address. Each class of the IP address

used for address assignment has a default subnet mask associated with it. Table 3.3 lists the default subnet masks.

TABLE 3.3 **Default Subnet Masks Associated with IP Address Classes**

Address Class	Default Subnet Mask
A	255.0.0.0
B	255.255.0.0
C	255.255.255.0

### ExamAlert

You will likely see questions about address class and the corresponding default subnet mask. Review Table 3.3 before taking the exam.

## Subnetting

Now that you have looked at how IP addresses are used, you can learn the process of subnetting. *Subnetting* is a process by which the node portions of an IP address create more networks than you would have if you used the default subnet mask.

To illustrate subnetting, for example, suppose that you have been assigned the Class B address 150.150.0.0. Using this address and the default subnet mask, you could have a single network (150.150) and use the rest of the address as node addresses. This would give you a large number of possible node addresses, which in reality is probably not useful. With subnetting, you use bits from the node portion of the address to create more network addresses. This reduces the number of nodes per network, but you probably will still have more than enough.

Following are two main reasons for subnetting:

- ▶ It enables you to more effectively use IP address ranges.
- ▶ It makes IP networking more secure and manageable by providing a mechanism to create multiple networks rather than having just one. Using multiple networks confines traffic to the network that it needs to be on, which reduces overall network traffic levels. Multiple subnets also create more broadcast domains, which in turn reduces networkwide broadcast traffic. A difference exists between broadcast domains and collision domains: The latter is all the connected nodes, whereas the former is all the logical nodes that can reach each other. As such, collision domains are typically subsets of broadcast domains.

**ExamAlert**

Subnetting does not increase the number of IP addresses available. It increases the number of network IDs and, as a result, decreases the number of node IDs per network. It also creates more broadcast domains. Broadcasts are not forwarded by routers, so they are limited to the network on which they originate.

## Identifying the Differences Between IPv4 Public and Private Networks

IP addressing involves many considerations, not the least of which are public and private networks.

- ▶ A *public network* is a network to which anyone can connect. The best (and perhaps only pure) example of such a network is the Internet.
- ▶ A *private network* is any network to which access is restricted. A corporate network and a network in a school are examples of private networks.

**Note**

The Internet Assigned Numbers Authority (IANA) is responsible for assigning IP addresses to public networks. However, because of the workload involved in maintaining the systems and processes to do this, IANA has delegated the assignment process to a number of regional authorities. For more information, visit <http://www.iana.org/ipaddress/ip-addresses.htm>.

The main difference between public and private networks, other than access to a private network is tightly controlled and access to a public network is not, is that the addressing of devices on a public network must be carefully considered. Addressing on a private network has a little more latitude.

As already discussed, for hosts on a network to communicate by using TCP/IP, they must have unique addresses. This number defines the logical network that each host belongs to and the host's address on that network. On a private network with, say, three logical networks and 100 nodes on each network, addressing is not a difficult task. On a network on the scale of the Internet, however, addressing is complex.

If you connect a system to the Internet, you need to get a valid registered IP address. Most commonly, you obtain this address from your ISP. Alternatively, if you wanted a large number of addresses, for example, you could contact the

organization responsible for address assignment in your area. You can determine who the regional numbers authority for your area is by visiting the IANA website.

Because of the nature of their business, ISPs have large blocks of IP addresses that they can assign to their clients. If you need a registered IP address, getting one from an ISP is almost certainly a simpler process than going through a regional numbers authority. Some ISPs' plans actually include blocks of registered IP addresses, working on the principle that businesses want some kind of permanent presence on the Internet. Of course, if you discontinue your service with the ISP, you can no longer use the provided IP address.

## Private Address Ranges

To provide flexibility in addressing and to prevent an incorrectly configured network from polluting the Internet, certain address ranges are set aside for private use. These address ranges are called *private ranges* because they are designated for use only on private networks. These addresses are special because Internet routers are configured to ignore any packets they see that use these addresses. This means that if a private network "leaks" onto the Internet, it won't get any farther than the first router it encounters. So a private address cannot be on the Internet because it cannot be routed to public networks.

Three ranges are defined in RFC 1918: one each from Classes A, B, and C. You can use whichever range you want; although, the Class A and B address ranges offer more addressing options than Class C. Table 3.4 defines the address ranges for Class A, B, and C addresses.

TABLE 3.4 **Private Address Ranges**

Class	Address Range	Default Subnet Mask
A	10.0.0.0 to 10.255.255.255	255.0.0.0
B	172.16.0.0 to 172.31.255.255	255.255.0.0
C	192.168.0.0 to 192.168.255.255	255.255.255.0

### ExamAlert

You can expect questions on private IP address ranges and their corresponding default subnet masks.

## Classless Interdomain Routing (CIDR)

Classless interdomain routing (CIDR) is a method to assign addresses outside the standard Class A, B, and C structure that is used by IPv6. Specifying the number of bits in the subnet mask offers more flexibility than the three standard class definitions.

Using CIDR, addresses are assigned using a value known as the *slash*. The actual value of the slash depends on how many bits of the subnet mask are used to express the network portion of the address. For example, a subnet mask that uses all 8 bits from the first octet and 4 from the second would be described as /12, or “slash 12.” A subnet mask that uses all the bits from the first three octets would be called /24. Why the slash? In actual addressing terms, the CIDR value is expressed after the address, using a slash. So the address 192.168.2.1/24 means that the node’s IP address is 192.168.2.1, and the subnet mask is 255.255.255.0.

### Note

You can find a great CIDR calculator that can compute values from ranges at <http://www.subnet-calculator.com/cidr/php>.

### ExamAlert

You will likely see IP addresses in their CIDR format on the exam. Be sure that you understand CIDR addressing for the exam.

## Default Gateways

Default gateways are the means by which a device can access hosts on other networks for which it does not have a specifically configured route. Most workstation configurations actually default to just using default gateways rather than having any static routes configured. This enables workstations to communicate with other network segments, or with other networks, such as the Internet.

### ExamAlert

You will be expected to identify the purpose and function of a default gateway.

When a system wants to communicate with another device, it first determines whether the host is on the local network or a remote network. If the host is on a remote network, the system looks in the routing table to determine whether it has an entry for the network on which the remote host resides. If it does, it uses that route. If it does not, the data is sent to the default gateway.

**Note**

Although it might seem obvious, it's worth mentioning that the default gateway must be on the same network as the nodes that use it.

In essence, the default gateway is simply the path out of the network for a given device. Figure 3.1 shows how a default gateway fits into a network infrastructure.

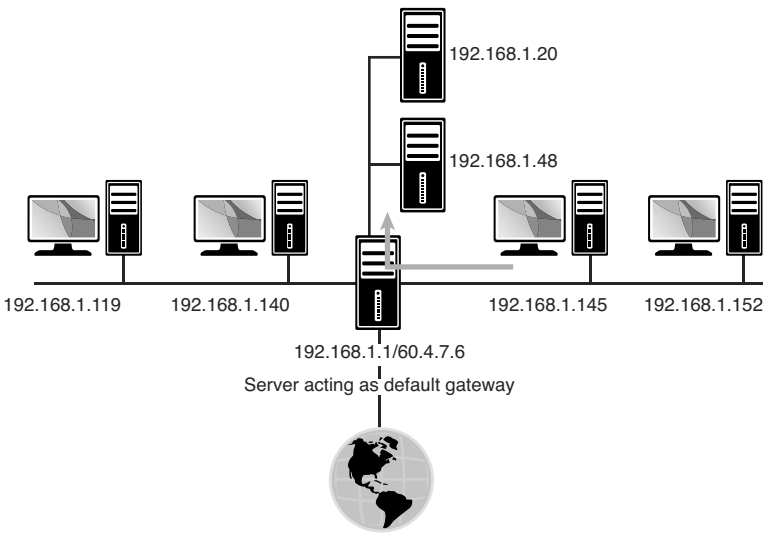


FIGURE 3.1 The role of a default gateway.

On the network, a default gateway could be a router or a computer with network interfaces for all segments to which it is connected. These interfaces have local IP addresses for the respective segments. If a system is not configured with any static routes or a default gateway, it is limited to operating on its own network segment.

**ExamAlert**

If a system is not configured with any static routes or a default gateway, it is limited to operating on its own network segment.

## IPv4 Address Types

IPv4 has three primary address types: unicast, broadcast, and multicast. You need to distinguish between these three types of IPv4 addresses.

### Unicast Address

With a *unicast address*, a single address is specified. Data sent with unicast addressing is delivered to a specific node identified by the address. It is a point-to-point address link.

### Broadcast Address

A broadcast address is at the opposite end of the spectrum from a unicast address. A *broadcast address* is an IP address that you can use to target all systems on a subnet or network instead of single hosts. In other words, a broadcast message goes to everyone on the network.

### Multicast

*Multicasting* is a mechanism by which groups of network devices can send and receive data between the members of the group at one time, instead of separately sending messages to each device in the group. The multicast grouping is established by configuring each device with the same multicast IP address.

## IPv6 Addressing

Internet Protocol Version 4 (IPv4) has served as the Internet's protocol for almost 30 years. When IPv4 was in development 30 years ago, it would have been impossible for its creators to imagine or predict the future demand for IP devices and therefore IP addresses.

**Note**

Does the IETF assign protocol numbers using multiples of 2? Well, no. There was an IPv5. It was an experimental protocol that never went anywhere. But although IPv5 may have fallen into obscurity, because the name had been used, we got IPv6.

Where have all the IPv4 addresses gone?

IPv4 uses a 32-bit addressing scheme. This gives IPv4 a total of 4,294,967,296 possible unique addresses that can be assigned to IP devices. More than 4 billion addresses might sound like a lot, and it is. However, the number of IP-enabled devices increases daily at a staggering rate. Not all these addresses can be used by public networks. Many of these addresses are reserved and are unavailable for public use. This reduces the number of addresses that can be allocated as public Internet addresses.

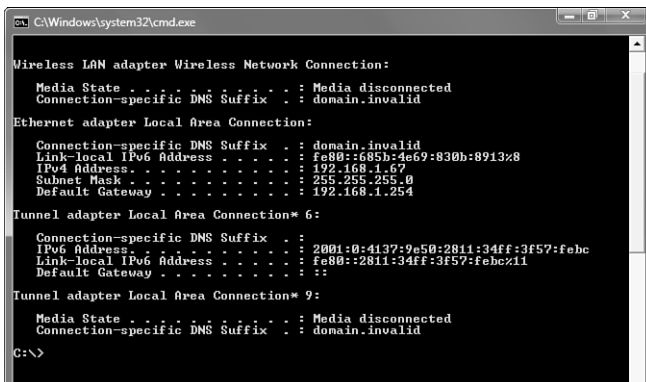
The IPv6 project started in the mid-1990s, well before the threat of IPv4 limitations. Now network hardware and software are equipped for and ready to deploy IPv6 addressing. IPv6 offers a number of improvements. The most notable is its capability to handle growth in public networks. IPv6 uses a 128-bit addressing scheme, enabling a huge number of possible addresses:

340,282,366,920,938,463,463,374,607,431,768,211,456

## Identifying IPv6 Addresses

As previously discussed, IPv4 uses a dotted-decimal format: 8 bits converted to its decimal equivalent and separated by periods. An example of an IPv4 address is 192.168.2.1.

Because of the 128-bit structure of the IPv6 addressing scheme, it looks quite a bit different. An IPv6 address is divided along 16-bit boundaries, and each 16-bit block is converted into a four-digit hexadecimal number and separated by colons. The resulting representation is called colon-hexadecimal. Now look at how it works. Figure 3.2 shows the IPv6 address 2001:0:4137:9e50:2811:34ff:3f57:febc from a Windows 7 system.



```
C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe

Wireless LAN adapter Wireless Network Connection:
Media State . . . . . : Media disconnected
Connection-specific DNS Suffix . : domain.invalid
Ethernet adapter Local Area Connection:
Connection-specific DNS Suffix . : domain.invalid
Link-local IPv6 Address . . . . . : fe80::685b:4e69:830b:8913%8
IPv4 Address. . . . . : 192.168.1.67
Subnet Mask . . . . . : 255.255.255.0
Default Gateway . . . . . : 192.168.1.254
Tunnel adapter Local Area Connection* 6:
Connection-specific DNS Suffix . : 
IPv6 Address. . . . . : 2001:0:4137:9e50:2811:34ff:3f57:febc
Link-local IPv6 Address . . . . . : fe80::2811:34ff:3f57:febc%11
Default Gateway . . . . . : ::
Tunnel adapter Local Area Connection* 9:
Media State . . . . . : Media disconnected
Connection-specific DNS Suffix . : domain.invalid

C:\>
```

FIGURE 3.2 An IPv6 address in a Windows 7 dialog screen.



An IPv6 address can be simplified by removing the leading 0s within each 16-bit block. Not all the 0s can be removed, however, because each address block must have at least a single digit. Removing the 0 suppression, the address representation becomes

```
2001:0000:4137:9e50:2811:34ff:3f57:febc
```

Some of the IPv6 addresses you will work with have sequences of 0s. When this occurs, the number is often abbreviated to make it easier to read. In the preceding example you saw that a single 0 represented a number set in hexadecimal form. To further simplify the representation of IPv6 addresses, a contiguous sequence of 16-bit blocks set to 0 in colon hexadecimal format can be compressed to ::, known as the *double colon*.

For example, the IPv6 address of

```
2001:0000:0000:0000:3cde:37d1:3f57:fe93
```

can be compressed to

```
2001::3cde:37d1:3f57:fe93.
```

Of course, there are limits on how the IPv6 0s can be reduced. 0s within the IPv6 address cannot be eliminated when they are not first in the number sequence. For instance, 2001:4000:0000:0000:0000:0000:0003 cannot be compressed as 2001:4:::3. This would actually appear as 2001:4000::3.

When you look at an IPv6 address that uses a double colon, how do you know exactly what numbers are represented? The formula is to subtract the number of blocks from 8 and then multiply that number by 16. For example, the address 2001:4000::3 uses three blocks: 2001, 4000, and 3. So the formula is as follows:

$$(8 - 3) * 16 = 80$$

Therefore, the total number of bits represented by the double colon in this example is 80.

#### Note

You can remove 0s only once in an IPv6 address. Using a double colon more than once would make it impossible to determine the number of 0 bits represented by each instance of ::.

## IPv6 Address Types

Another difference between IPv4 and IPv6 is in the address types. IPv4 addressing was discussed in detail earlier. IPv6 addressing offers several types of addresses, as detailed in this section.

### Unicast IPv6 Addresses

As you might deduce from the name, a unicast address specifies a single interface. Data packets sent to a unicast destination travel from the sending host to the destination host. It is a direct line of communication. A few types of addresses fall under the unicast banner:

### Global Unicast Addresses

Global unicast addresses are the equivalent of IPv4 public addresses. These addresses are routable and travel throughout the network.

### Link-Local Addresses

Link-local addresses are designated for use on a single local network. Link-local addresses are automatically configured on all interfaces. This automatic configuration is comparable to the 169.254.0.0/16 APIPA automatically assigned IPv4 addressing scheme. The prefix used for a link-local address is fe80::/64. On a single-link IPv6 network with no router, link-local addresses are used to communicate between devices on the link.

### Site-Local Addresses

Site-local addresses are equivalent to the IPv4 private address space (10.0.0.0/8, 172.16.0.0/12, and 192.168.0.0/16). As with IPv4, in which private address ranges are used in private networks, IPv6 uses site-local addresses that do not interfere with global unicast addresses. In addition, routers do not forward site-local traffic outside the site. Unlike link-local addresses, site-local addresses are not automatically configured and must be assigned through either stateless or stateful address configuration processes. The prefix used for the site-local address is FEC0::/10.

### Multicast Addresses

As with IPv4 addresses, multicasting sends and receives data between groups of nodes. It sends IP messages to that group rather than to every node on the LAN (broadcast) or just one other node (unicast).

## Anycast Addresses

Anycast addresses represent the middle ground between unicast addresses and multicast addresses. Anycast delivers messages to any one node in the multicast group.

### Note

You might encounter the terms *stateful* and *stateless* configuration. *Stateless* refers to IP autoconfiguration, in which administrators need not manually input configuration information. In a *stateful* configuration network, devices obtain address information from a server.

### ExamAlert

Earlier you read that IPv4 reserves 127.0.0.1 as the loopback address. IPv6 has the same reservation. IPv6 addresses 0:0:0:0:0:0:0 and 0:0:0:0:0:0:0:1 are reserved as the loopback addresses.

### ExamAlert

Remember that fe80:: is a private link-local address.

## Comparing IPv4 and IPv6 Addressing

Table 3.5 compares IPv4 and IPv6 addressing.

### Note

Automatic Private IP Addressing (APIPA) appears in the table and is discussed in detail in the section “Automatic Private IP Addressing (APIPA)” later in this chapter.

TABLE 3.5 **Comparing IPv4 and IPv6 Addressing**

Address Feature	IPv4 Address	IPv6 Address
Loopback address	127.0.0.1	0:0:0:0:0:0:0:1 (::1)
Network-wide addresses	IPv4 public address ranges	Global unicast IPv6 addresses
Private network addresses	10.0.0.0 172.16.0.0 192.168.0.0	Site-local address ranges (FE80::)
Autoconfigured addresses	IPv4 automatic private IP addressing (169.254.0.0)	Link-local addresses of the FE80:: prefix

**ExamAlert**

Make sure you know the information provided in Table 3.5.

## Assigning IP Addresses

Now that you understand the need for each system on a TCP/IP-based network to have a unique address, the following sections examine how those systems receive their addresses.

### Static Addressing

*Static addressing* refers to the manual assignment of IP addresses to a system. This approach has two main problems:

- ▶ Statically configuring one system with the correct address is simple, but in the course of configuring, say, a few hundred systems, mistakes are likely to be made. If the IP addresses are entered incorrectly, the system probably cannot connect to other systems on the network.
- ▶ If the IP addressing scheme for the organization changes, each system must again be manually reconfigured. In a large organization with hundreds or thousands of systems, such a reconfiguration could take a considerable amount of time. These drawbacks of static addressing are so significant that nearly all networks use dynamic IP addressing.

### Dynamic Addressing

*Dynamic addressing* refers to the automatic assignment of IP addresses. On modern networks, the mechanism used to do this is Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol (DHCP). DHCP, part of the TCP/IP suite, enables a central system to provide client systems with IP addresses. Automatically assigning addresses with DHCP alleviates the burden of address configuration and reconfiguration that occurs with static IP addressing.

The basic function of the DHCP service is to automatically assign IP addresses to client systems. To do this, ranges of IP addresses, known as *scopes*, are defined on a system running a DHCP server application. When another system configured as a DHCP client is initialized, it asks the server for an address. If all things are as they should be, the server assigns an address to the client for a predetermined amount of time, which is known as the *lease*, from the scope.

A DHCP server typically can be configured to assign more than just IP addresses. It often is used to assign the subnet mask, the default gateway, and Domain Name Service (DNS) information.

Using DHCP means that administrators do not need to manually configure each client system with a TCP/IP address. This removes the common problems associated with statically assigned addresses, such as human error. The potential problem of assigning duplicate IP addresses is also eliminated. DHCP also removes the need to reconfigure systems if they move from one subnet to another, or if you decide to make a wholesale change in the IP addressing structure.

### Note

Even when a network is configured to use DHCP, several mission-critical network systems continue to use static addressing: DHCP server, DNS server, web server, and more. They do not have dynamic IP addressing because their IP addresses can never change. If they do, client systems may be unable to access the resources from that server.

Configuring a client for TCP/IP can be relatively complex, or it can be simple. Any complexity involved is related to the possible need to manually configure TCP/IP. The simplicity is because TCP/IP configuration can occur automatically via DHCP or through APIPA. At the least, a system needs an IP address and subnet mask to log on to a network. The default gateway and DNS server IP information is optional, but network functionality is limited without them. The following list briefly explains the IP-related settings used to connect to a TCP/IP network:

- ▶ **IP address:** Each system must be assigned a unique IP address so that it can communicate on the network.
- ▶ **Subnet mask:** Enables the system to determine what portion of the IP address represents the network address and what portion represents the node address.
- ▶ **Default gateway:** Enables the system to communicate on a remote network, without the need for explicit routes to be defined.
- ▶ **DNS server addresses:** Enable dynamic hostname resolution to be performed. It is common practice to have two DNS server addresses defined so that if one server becomes unavailable, the other can be used.

**ExamAlert**

At the very minimum, an IP address and subnet mask are required to connect to a TCP/IP network. With just this minimum configuration, connectivity is limited to the local segment, and DNS resolution is not possible.

## **BOOT Protocol (BOOTP)**

BOOTP was originally created so that diskless workstations could obtain information needed to connect to the network, such as the TCP/IP address, subnet mask, and default gateway. Such a system was necessary because diskless workstations had no way to store the information.

When a system configured to use BOOTP is powered up, it broadcasts for a BOOTP server on the network. If such a server exists, it compares the MAC address of the system issuing the BOOTP request with a database of entries. From this database, it supplies the system with the appropriate information. It can also notify the workstation about a file that it must run on BOOTP.

In the unlikely event that you use BOOTP, you should be aware that, like DHCP, it is a broadcast-based system. Therefore, routers must be configured to forward BOOTP broadcasts.

## **Automatic Private IP Addressing (APIPA)**

Automatic Private IP Addressing (APIPA) was introduced with Windows 98 and has been included in all subsequent Windows versions. The function of APIPA is that a system can give itself an IP address if it is incapable of receiving an address dynamically from a DHCP server. Then APIPA assigns the system an address from the 169.254.0.0 address range and configures an appropriate subnet mask (255.255.0.0). However, it doesn't configure the system with a default gateway address. As a result, communication is limited to the local network.

**ExamAlert**

If a system that does not support APIPA cannot get an address from a DHCP server, it typically assigns itself an IP address of 0.0.0.0. Keep this in mind when troubleshooting IP addressing problems on non-APIPA platforms.

The idea behind APIPA is that systems on a segment can communicate with each other if DHCP server failure occurs. In reality, the limited usability of APIPA makes it little more than a last resort. For example, imagine that a system is powered on while the DHCP server is operational and receives an IP address of 192.168.100.2. Then the DHCP server fails. Now, if the other systems on the segment are powered on and cannot get an address from the DHCP server because it is down, they would self-assign addresses in the 169.254.0.0 address range via APIPA. The systems with APIPA addresses would talk to each other, but they couldn't talk to a system that received an address from the DHCP server. Likewise, any system that receives an IP address via DHCP cannot talk to systems with APIPA-assigned addresses. This, and the absence of a default gateway, is why APIPA is of limited use in real-world environments.

### ExamAlert

Be prepared to answer APIPA questions. Know what it is and how you can tell if you have been assigned an APIPA address and why.

## Identifying MAC Addresses

Many times this book refers to MAC addresses and how certain devices use them. However, it has not yet discussed why MAC addresses exist, how they are assigned, and what they consist of.

### Note

A MAC address is sometimes called a *physical address* because it is physically embedded in the interface.

A MAC address is a 6-byte (48-bit) hexadecimal address that enables a NIC to be uniquely identified on the network. The MAC address forms the basis of network communication, regardless of the protocol used to achieve network connection. Because the MAC address is so fundamental to network communication, mechanisms are in place to ensure that duplicate addresses cannot be used.

To combat the possibility of duplicate MAC addresses being assigned, the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) took over the assignment of MAC addresses. But rather than be burdened with assigning individual addresses, the IEEE decided to assign each manufacturer an ID and then

let the manufacturer further allocate IDs. The result is that in a MAC address, the first 3 bytes define the manufacturer, and the last 3 are assigned by the manufacturer.

For example, consider the MAC address of the computer on which this book is being written: 00:D0:59:09:07:51. The first 3 bytes (00:D0:59) identify the manufacturer of the card; because only this manufacturer can use this address, it is known as the *Organizational Unique Identifier (OUI)*. The last 3 bytes (09:07:51) are called the *Universal LAN MAC address*: They make this interface unique. You can find a complete listing of organizational MAC address assignments at <http://standards.ieee.org/regauth/oui/oui.txt>.

### ExamAlert

Because MAC addresses are expressed in hexadecimal, only the numbers 0 through 9 and the letters A through F can be used in them. If you get an exam question about identifying a MAC address and some of the answers contain letters and numbers other than 0 through 9 and the letters A through F, you can immediately discount those answers.

You can discover the NIC's MAC address in various ways, depending on what system or platform you work on. Table 3.6 defines various platforms and methods you can use to view an interface's MAC address.

TABLE 3.6 **Methods of Viewing the MAC Addresses of NICs**

Platform	Method
Windows 2003/2008/XP/Vista/7	Enter <code>ipconfig /all</code> at a command prompt.
Linux/some Unix	Enter the <code>ifconfig -a</code> command.
Novell NetWare	Enter the <code>config</code> command.
Cisco router	Enter the <code>sh int interface name</code> command.

### ExamAlert

Be sure you know the commands used to identify the MAC address in various operating system formats.



## Network Address Translation (NAT) and Port Address Translation (PAT)

This chapter has defined many acronyms and continues with two more: NAT and PAT.

### NAT

The basic principle of NAT is that many computers can “hide” behind a single IP address. The main reason you need to do this (as pointed out earlier in the section “IP Addressing”) is because there simply aren’t enough IPv4 addresses to go around. Using NAT means that only one registered IP address is needed on the system’s external interface, acting as the gateway between the internal and external networks.

#### Note

Don’t confuse NAT with proxy servers. The proxy service is different from NAT, but many proxy server applications do include NAT functionality.

NAT enables you to use whatever addressing scheme you like on your internal networks; although, it is common practice to use the private address ranges, which were discussed earlier.

When a system is performing NAT, it funnels the requests given to it to the Internet. To the remote host, the request looks like it is originating from a single address. The system performing the NAT function keeps track of who asked for what and makes sure that when the data is returned, it is directed to the correct system. Servers that provide NAT functionality do so in different ways. For example, you can statically map a specific internal IP address to a specific external one (known as the *one-to-one NAT method*) so that outgoing requests are always tagged with the same IP address. Alternatively, if you have a group of public IP addresses, you can have the NAT system assign addresses to devices on a first-come, first-served basis. Either way, the basic function of NAT is the same.

There is a transition technology known as Teredo that gives full IPv6 connectivity for IPv6-capable hosts, which are on the IPv4 Internet but lack direct native connection to an IPv6 network. The distinguishing feature of Teredo is that it can do this from behind network address translation (NAT) devices (such as home routers). You can find more information on this at <http://ipv6.com/articles/nat/NAT-In-Depth.htm>.

## PAT

NAT enables administrators to conserve public IP addresses and, at the same time, secure the internal network. Port Address Translation (PAT) is a variation on NAT. With PAT, all systems on the LAN are translated to the same IP address, but with a different port number assignment. PAT is used when multiple clients want to access the Internet. However, with not enough available public IP addresses, you need to map the inside clients to a single public IP address. When packets come back into the private network, they are routed to their destination with a table within PAT that tracks the public and private port numbers.

When PAT is used, there is typically only a single IP address exposed to the public network, and multiple network devices access the Internet through this exposed IP address. The sending devices, IP address, and port number are not exposed. For example, an internal computer with the IP address of 192.168.2.2 wants to access a remote Web server at address 204.23.85.49. The request goes to the PAT router where the sender's private IP and port number are modified, and a mapping is added to the PAT table. The remote web server sees the request coming from the IP address of the PAT router and not the computer actually making the request. The web server sends the reply to the address and port number of the router. When received, the router checks its table to see the packet's actual destination and forwards it.

### ExamAlert

PAT enables nodes on a LAN to communicate with the Internet without revealing their IP address. All outbound IP communications are translated to the router's external IP address. Replies come back to the router that then translates them back into the private IP address of the original host for final delivery.

Static NAT is a simple form of NAT. Static Network Address Translation (SNAT) directly maps a private IP address to a static unchanging public IP address. This enables an internal system, such as a mail server, to have an unregistered (private) IP address and still be reachable over the Internet. For example, if a network uses a private address of 192.168.2.1 for a mail server, it can be statically linked to a public IP address such as 213.23.213.85.

---

## Cram Quiz

1. What is the IPv6 equivalent of 127.0.0.1? (Choose two.)
  - A. 0:0:0:0:0:0:1
  - B. 0:0:0:0:0:0:0:24
  - C. ::1
  - D. ::24
2. Which of the following is a Class B address?
  - A. 129.16.12.200
  - B. 126.15.16.122
  - C. 211.244.212.5
  - D. 193.17.101.27
3. You are the administrator for a network with two Windows Server systems and 65 Windows 7 systems. At 10 a.m., three users call to report that they are experiencing network connectivity problems. Upon investigation, you determine that the DHCP server has failed. How can you tell that the DHCP server failure is the cause of the connectivity problems experienced by the three users?
  - A. When you check their systems, they have an IP address of 0.0.0.0.
  - B. When you check their systems, they have an IP address in the 192.168.x.x address range.
  - C. When you check their systems, they have a default gateway value of 255.255.255.255.
  - D. When you check their systems, they have an IP address from the 169.254.x.x range.
4. Which of the following address types are associated with IPv6? (Choose three.)
  - A. Broadcast
  - B. Multicast
  - C. Unicast
  - D. Anycast
5. Which of the following IP addresses is not from a private address range?
  - A. 192.168.200.117
  - B. 172.16.3.204
  - C. 127.45.112.16
  - D. 10.27.100.143

6. You have been assigned to set up a new network with TCP/IP. For the external interfaces, you decide to obtain registered IP addresses from your ISP, but for the internal network, you choose to configure systems by using one of the private address ranges. Of the following address ranges, which one would you not consider?
- A. 192.168.0.0 to 192.168.255.255
  - B. 131.16.0.0 to 131.16.255.255
  - C. 10.0.0.0 to 10.255.255.255
  - D. 172.16.0.0 to 172.31.255.255
7. You ask your ISP to assign a public IP address for the external interface of your Windows 2008 server, which is running a proxy server application. In the email message you get that contains the information, the ISP tells you that you have been assigned the IP address 203.15.226.12/24. When you fill out the subnet mask field on the IP configuration dialog box on your system, what subnet mask should you use?
- A. 255.255.255.255
  - B. 255.255.255.0
  - C. 255.255.240.0
  - D. 255.255.255.240
8. Examine the diagram shown here. What is the most likely reason that user Spencer cannot communicate with user Evan?
- A. The default gateways should have different values.
  - B. Spencer's IP address is not a loopback address.
  - C. The subnet values should be the same.
  - D. There is no problem identifiable by the values given.



User: Evan  
IP address: 192.168.1.121  
Subnet mask: 255.255.255.0  
Default gateway: 192.168.1.1



User: Spencer  
IP address: 192.168.1.127  
Subnet mask: 255.255.248.0  
Default gateway: 192.168.1.1

## Cram Quiz Answers

1. **A and C.** The IPv4 address 127.0.0.1 is reserved as the loopback address, and IPv6 has the same reservation. IPv6 addresses 0:0:0:0:0:0:0 and 0:0:0:0:0:0:0:1 are reserved as the loopback addresses. The address 0:0:0:0:0:0:0:1 can be shown using the :: notation with the 0s removed, resulting in ::1.
  2. **A.** Class B addresses fall into the range 128 to 191. Answer A is the only address listed that falls into that range. Answer B is a Class A address, and answers C and D are Class C IP addresses.
  3. **D.** When a Windows 7 system that is configured to obtain an IP address via DHCP fails to obtain an address, it uses APIPA to assign itself an address from the 169.254.x.x address range. An address of 0.0.0.0 normally results from a system that does not support APIPA. APIPA does not use the 192.168.x.x address range. The IP address 255.255.255.255 is the broadcast address. A DHCP failure would not lead to a system assigning itself this address.
  4. **B, C, and D.** A key difference between IPv4 and IPv6 is in the address types. IPv6 addressing has three main types of addresses: unicast, multicast, and anycast. IPv4 uses broadcast addressing, but IPv6 doesn't.
  5. **C.** The 127.x.x.x network range is reserved for the loopback function. It is not one of the recognized private address ranges. The private address ranges as defined in RFC 1918 are 10.x.x.x, 172.16.x.x to 172.31.x.x, and 192.168.x.x.
  6. **B.** The 131.16 range is from the Class B range and is not one of the recognized private IP address ranges. All the other address ranges are valid private IP address ranges.
  7. **B.** In CIDR terminology, the number of bits to be included in the subnet mask is expressed as a slash value. If the slash value is 24, the first three octets form the subnet mask, so the value is 255.255.255.0.
  8. **C.** The most likely problem, given the IP values for each user's workstation, is that the subnet value is not correct on Spencer's machine and should be 255.255.255.0.
-

# Understanding TCP/UDP Port Functions

- Identify common TCP and UDP default ports.

## CramSaver

If you can correctly answer these questions before going through this section, save time by skimming the Exam Alerts in this section and then complete the Cram Quiz at the end of the section.

1. What is the default port used by NTP?
2. True or False: Although FTP is a TCP-based protocol, TFTP uses UDP.

## Answers

1. By default, NTP uses port 123.
2. True. Although FTP is a TCP-based protocol, TFTP uses UDP.

Each TCP/IP or application has a port associated with it. When a communication is received, the target port number is checked to determine which protocol or service it is destined for. The request is then forwarded to that protocol or service. For example, consider HTTP, whose assigned port number is 80. When a web browser forms a request for a web page, that request is sent to port 80 on the target system. When the target system receives the request, it examines the port number. When it sees that the port is 80, it forwards the request to the web server application.

TCP/IP has 65,535 ports available, with 0 to 1023 labeled as the well-known ports. Although a detailed understanding of the 65,535 ports is not necessary for the Network+ exam, you need to understand the numbers of some well-known ports. Network administration often requires you to specify port assignments when you work with applications and configuring services. Table 3.7 shows some of the most common port assignments.

## ExamAlert

You should concentrate on the information provided in Table 3.7 and answer any port-related questions you might receive. The exam may present you with a situation in which you can't access a particular service; you may have to determine whether a port is open or closed on a firewall.

TABLE 3.7 TCP/IP Port Assignments for Commonly Used Protocols

Protocol	Port Assignment
<b>TCP Ports</b>	
FTP	20
FTP	21
SSH	22
Telnet	23
SMTP	25
DNS	53
HTTP	80
POP3	110
NNTP	119
NTP	123
IMAP4	143
HTTPS	443
RDP	3389
<b>UDP Ports</b>	
TFTP	69
DNS	53
DHCP (and BOOTP server)	67
DHCP (and BOOTP client)	68
SNMP	161
RDP	3389

**ExamAlert**

The term *well-known ports* identifies the ports ranging from 0 to 1023. When CompTIA says to “identify the well-known ports,” this is what it refers to.

**Note**

You might have noticed in Table 3.7 that two ports are associated with FTP. Port 20 is considered the data port, whereas port 21 is considered the control port. In practical use, FTP connections use port 21. Port 20 is rarely used in modern implementations.

---

## Cram Quiz

1. As the network administrator, you decide to block port 80. Which of the following services will be unavailable for network users?
  - A. DNS
  - B. POP3
  - C. FTP
  - D. HTTP
  
2. Which of the following is the most commonly used port for FTP in modern implementations?
  - A. 20
  - B. 21
  - C. 23
  - D. 27

## Cram Quiz Answers

1. **D.** The HTTP service uses port 80, so blocking port 80 prevents users from using the HTTP service. Answer A is incorrect because DNS uses port 53. Answer B is incorrect because POP3 uses port 110. Answer C is incorrect because FTP uses port 21.
  2. **B.** The most commonly used port for FTP in modern implementations is 21.
-



# Managing TCP/IP Routing

- Explain the purpose and properties of routing and switching.

## CramSaver

If you can correctly answer these questions before going through this section, save time by skimming the Exam Alerts in this section and then complete the Cram Quiz at the end of the section.

1. What are the most common distance-vector routing protocols?
2. What are the most common link-state protocols?
3. What is convergence?

## Answers

1. Distance-vector routing protocols include RIP, RIPv2, BGP, and EIGRP.
2. Link-state protocols include OSPF and IS-IS.
3. Convergence represents the time it takes routers to detect change on the network.

Because today's networks branch out between interconnected offices all over the world, networks may have any number of separate physical network segments connected using routers. Routers are devices that direct data between networks. Essentially, when a router receives data, it must determine the destination for the data and send it there. To accomplish this, the network router uses two key pieces of information: the gateway address and the routing tables.

## The Default Gateway

A default gateway is the router's IP address, which is the pathway to any and all remote networks. To get a packet of information from one network to another, the packet is sent to the default gateway, which helps forward the packet to its destination network. Computers that live on the other side of routers are said to be on remote networks. Without default gateways, Internet communication is not possible because your computer doesn't have a way to send a packet destined for any other network. On the workstation, it is common for the default gateway option to be configured automatically through DHCP configuration.

## Routing Tables

Before a data packet is forwarded, a chart is reviewed to determine the best possible path for the data to reach its destination. This chart is the computer's routing table. Maintaining an accurate routing table is essential for effective data delivery. Every computer on a TCP/IP network has a routing table stored locally. Figure 3.3 shows the routing table on a Windows 7 system.

### Note

The `route print` command can be used to view the routing table on a client system.

As shown in Figure 3.3, the information in the routing table includes the following:

- ▶ **Destination:** The host IP address.
- ▶ **Network mask:** The subnet mask value for the destination parameter.
- ▶ **Gateway:** Where the IP address is sent. This may be a gateway server, router, or another system acting as a gateway.
- ▶ **Interface:** The address of the interface that's used to send the packet to the destination.
- ▶ **Metric:** A measurement of the directness of a route. The lower the metric, the faster the route. If multiple routes exist for data to travel, the one with the lowest metric is chosen.

Routing tables play an important role in the network routing process. They are the means by which the data is directed through the network. For this reason, a routing table needs to be two things. It must be up to date and complete. The router can get the information for the routing table in two ways: through static routing or dynamic routing.

```

C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe
C:\>route print

Interface List
=====
 0 ...00 1b 28 6c e7 26 ..... NVIDI0 nForce Networking Controller
 8 ...00 1e 4c 43 fa 55 ..... Atheros AR5007EG Wireless Network Adapter
 1 ..... Software Loopback Interface 1
 11 ...00 00 00 00 00 00 e0 ..{atcap_domain_invalid}
 10 ...02 00 54 55 46 01 ..... Teredo Tunneling Pseudo-Interface

IPv4 Route Table
=====
Active Routes:
Network Destination        Netmask          Gateway           Interface        Metric
-----
 0.0.0.0                    0.0.0.0          192.168.1.254    192.168.1.66    25
 127.0.0.0                  255.0.0.0       On-link         127.0.0.1       306
 127.0.0.1                  255.0.0.0       On-link         127.0.0.1       306
 127.255.255.255           255.255.255.255 On-link         127.0.0.1       306
 192.168.1.0                255.255.255.0   On-link         192.168.1.66    281
 192.168.1.66               255.255.255.255 On-link         192.168.1.66    281
 192.168.1.255              255.255.255.255 On-link         192.168.1.66    281
 224.0.0.0                  240.0.0.0       On-link         127.0.0.1       306
 224.0.0.0                  240.0.0.0       On-link         192.168.1.66    281
 255.255.255.255           255.255.255.255 On-link         127.0.0.1       306
 255.255.255.255           255.255.255.255 On-link         192.168.1.66    281

Persistent Routes:
None

IPv6 Route Table
=====
Active Routes:
IF Metric Network Destination      Gateway
-----
 1     306 ::1/128 On-link
 8     281 fe80::764 On-link
 11    281 fe80::5efe:192.168.1.66/128 On-link
 8     281 fe80::c1bf:c044:8e7c:e27f/128 On-link

Persistent Routes:
None

C:\>

```

FIGURE 3.3 The routing table on a Windows 7 system.

## Static Routing

In environments that use *static routing*, routes and route information are manually entered into the routing tables. Not only can this be a time-consuming task, but also errors are more common. In addition, when a change occurs to the network's layout, or topology, statically configured routers must be manually updated with the changes. Again, this is a time-consuming and potentially error-laden task. For these reasons, static routing is suited to only the smallest environments, with perhaps just one or two routers. A far more practical solution, particularly in larger environments, is to use dynamic routing.

You can add a static route to a routing table using the `route add` command. To do this, specify the route, the network mask, and the destination IP address of the network card your router will use to get the packet to its destination network.

The syntax for the `route add` command is as follows:

```
route add 192.168.2.1 mask (255.255.255.0) 192.168.2.4
```

Adding a static address is not permanent; in other words, it will most likely be gone when the system reboots. To make it persistent (the route is still in the routing table on boot), you can use the switch with the command.

**ExamAlert**

The `route add` command adds a static route to the routing table. The `route add` command with the `-p` switch makes the static route persistent. You may want to try this on your own before taking the Network+ exam.

## Dynamic Routing

In a *dynamic routing* environment, routers use special routing protocols to communicate. The purpose of these protocols is simple: They enable routers to pass on information about themselves to other routers so that other routers can build routing tables. Two types of routing protocols are used: the older distance-vector protocols and the newer link-state protocols.

## Distance-Vector Routing

With distance-vector router communications, each router on the network communicates all the routes it knows about to the routers to which it is directly attached. In this way, routers communicate only with their router neighbors and are unaware of other routers that may be on the network.

The communication between distance-vector routers is known as *hops*. On the network, each router represents one hop, so a network using six routers has five hops between the first and last router.

The `tracert` command is used in a Windows environment to see how many hops a packet takes to reach a destination. To try this at the command prompt, enter `tracert comptia.org`. Figure 3.4 shows an example of the output on a Windows 7 workstation.

```

C:\Windows\system32\cmd.exe

C:\>tracert comptia.org

Tracing route to comptia.org [209.117.62.59]
over a maximum of 30 hops:
  0  <1 ns     <1 ns     <1 ns     192.168.1.1
  1  1 ns     1 ns     41 ns     192.168.0.1
  2  3 ns     17 ns     24 ns     98.228.8.1
  3  4 ns     9 ns      9 ns      te-5-2-ur02.anderson.in.indiana.comcast.net [68.85.190.241]
  4  11 ns    11 ns    11 ns     pe-100-ur02.richmond.in.indiana.comcast.net [68.85.176.254]
  5  6 ns     10 ns    10 ns     be-30-ar01.elmhurst.il.chicago.comcast.net [68.85.176.221]
  6  8 ns     22 ns    28 ns     pe-9-1-0-0-ar01.ame4.il.chicago.comcast.net [68.87.230.237]
  7  27 ns    29 ns    29 ns     pe-3-11-0-0-cx01.350ccernak.il.ibone.comcast.net [68.86.99.13]
  8  23 ns    29 ns    28 ns     pe-1-5-0-0-pe01.350ccernak.il.ibone.comcast.net [68.86.87.126]
  9  11 ns    29 ns    34 ns     te-7-2-0-0-tcomp1.CT8-Chicago.as6453.net [206.82.141.137]
 10  29 ns    29 ns    28 ns     it-7-2131.tcomp1.CT8-Chicago.as6453.net [206.82.141.170]
 11  12 ns    *        27 ns     te9-3-0d0.cir1.chicago2-il.us.xo.net [206.111.2.205]
 12  14 ns    31 ns    30 ns     207.88.14.193.ptr.us.xo.net [207.88.14.193]
 13  15 ns    38 ns    46 ns     an040.mcr1.chicago-il.us.xo.net [216.156.0.162]
 14  16 ns    31 ns    31 ns     216.55.11.62
 15  17 ns    31 ns    30 ns     209.117.62.59
 16  18 ns    31 ns    32 ns     209.117.62.59

Trace complete.

C:\>_

```

FIGURE 3.4 The results of running `tracert` on a Windows 7 system.

Several distance-vector protocols are in use today, including Routing Information Protocol (RIP and RIPv2), Enhanced Interior Gateway Routing Protocol (EIGRP), and Border Gateway Protocol (BGP):

- ▶ **RIP:** As mentioned, RIP is a distance-vector routing protocol. RIP is limited to a maximum of 15 hops. One of the downsides of the protocol is that the original specification required router updates to be transmitted every 30 seconds. On smaller networks this is acceptable; however, this can result in a huge traffic load on larger networks. The original RIP specification also did not support router authentication, leaving it vulnerable to attacks.
- ▶ **RIPv2:** The second version of RIP dealt with the shortcomings of the original design. Authentication was included to enable secure transmissions, also, it changed from a networkwide broadcast discovery method to a multicast method to reduce overall network traffic. However, to maintain compatibility with RIP, RIPv2 still supports a limit of 15 hops.
- ▶ **BGP:** A routing protocol often associated with the Internet. BGP can be used between gateway hosts on the Internet. BGP examines the routing table, which contains a list of known routers, the addresses they can reach, and a cost metric associated with the path to each router so that the best available route is chosen. BGP communicates between the routers using TCP.
- ▶ **EIGRP:** A protocol that enables routers to exchange information more efficiently than earlier network protocols. EIGRP uses its neighbors to help determine routing information. Routers configured to use EIGRP keep copies of their neighbors' routing information and query these tables to help find the best possible route for transmissions to follow. EIGRP uses Diffusing Update Algorithm (DUAL) to determine the best route to a destination.

### ExamAlert

Be sure you can identify the differences between the distance-vector protocols discussed here.

Distance-vector routing protocols operate by having each router send updates about all the other routers it knows about to the routers directly connected to it. The routers use these updates to compile their routing tables. The updates are sent automatically every 30 or 60 seconds. The interval depends on the

routing protocol used. Apart from the periodic updates, routers can also be configured to send a *triggered update* if a change in the network topology is detected. The process by which routers learn of a change in the network topology is called *convergence*.

Routing loops can occur on networks with slow convergence. Routing loops occur when the routing tables on the routers are slow to update and a redundant communication cycle is created between routers. Two strategies can combat potential routing loops:

- ▶ **Split horizon:** Works by preventing the router from advertising a route back to the other router from which it was learned. This prevents two nodes from bouncing packets back and forth between them, creating a loop.
- ▶ **Poison reverse (also called split horizon with poison reverse):** Dictates that the route *is* advertised back on the interface from which it was learned, but it has a hop count of infinity, which tells the node that the route is unreachable.

### ExamAlert

If a change in the routing is made, it takes some time for the routers to detect and accommodate this change. This is known as convergence.

Although distance-vector protocols can maintain routing tables, they have three problems:

- ▶ The periodic update system can make the update process slow.
- ▶ The periodic updates can create large amounts of network traffic—much of the time unnecessarily, because the network's topology should rarely change.
- ▶ Perhaps the most significant problem is that because the routers know about only the next hop in the journey, incorrect information can be propagated between routers, creating routing loops.

### ExamAlert

Know that “next hop” in routing is the next closest router that a packet can go through.

## Link-State Routing

A router that uses a link-state protocol differs from a router that uses a distance-vector protocol because it builds a map of the entire network and then holds that map in memory. On a network that uses a link-state protocol, routers send link-state advertisements (LSAs) that contain information about the networks to which they connect. The LSAs are sent to every router on the network, thus enabling the routers to build their network maps.

When the network maps on each router are complete, the routers update each other at a given time, just like with a distance-vector protocol; however, the updates occur much less frequently with link-state protocols than with distance-vector protocols. The only other circumstance under which updates are sent is if a change in the topology is detected, at which point the routers use LSAs to detect the change and update their routing tables. This mechanism, combined with the fact that routers hold maps of the entire network, makes convergence on a link-state-based network quickly occur.

Although it might seem like link-state protocols are an obvious choice over distance-vector protocols, routers on a link-state-based network require more powerful hardware and more RAM than those on a distance-vector-based network. Not only do the routing tables need to be calculated, but they must also be stored. A router that uses distance-vector protocols need only maintain a small database of the routes accessible by the routers to which it is directly connected. A router that uses link-state protocols must maintain a database of all the routers in the entire network.

Link-state protocols include the following:

- ▶ **Open Shortest Path First (OSPF):** A link-state routing protocol based on the SPF (Shortest Path First) algorithm to find the least-cost path to any destination in the network. In operation, each router using OSPF sends a list of its neighbors to other routers on the network. From this information, routers can determine the network design and the shortest path for data to travel.
- ▶ **Intermediate System-to-Intermediate System (IS-IS):** A link-state protocol that discovers the shortest path for data to travel using the shortest path first (SPF) algorithm. IS-IS routers distribute topology information to other routers, enabling them to make the best path decisions.

So what's the difference between the two? OSPF (a network layer protocol) is more often used in medium to large enterprise networks because of its special

tunneling features. IS-IS is more often used in large ISP networks because of its stability features and that it can support more routers.

---

## IGP Versus EGP

Now that routing protocols have been discussed, you need to understand the difference between Interior Gateway Protocols (IGPs) and Exterior Gateway Protocols (EGPs). An IGP identifies the protocols used to exchange routing information between routers within a LAN or interconnected LANs. IGP is not a protocol itself but describes a category of link-state routing protocols that support a single, confined geographic area such as a LAN. IGPs fall into two categories: distance-vector protocols, which include RIP and IGRP, and link-state protocols, which include OSPF and IS-IS.

Whereas IGPs are geographically confined, EGPs are used to route information outside the network, such as on the Internet. On the Internet, an EGP is required. An EGP is a distance-vector protocol commonly used between hosts on the Internet to exchange routing table information. BGP is an example of an EGP.

---

### ExamAlert

Be prepared to identify both the link-state and distance-vector routing protocols used on TCP/IP networks.

## Routing Metrics

Following are a number of metrics related to routing that you should know for the exam:

- ▶ *Hop counts* are the number of hops necessary to reach a node. A hop count of infinity means the route is unreachable.
- ▶ The *Maximum Transmission Unit (MTU)* defines the largest data unit that can be passed without fragmentation.
- ▶ *Bandwidth* specifies the maximum packet size permitted for Internet transmission.
- ▶ *Costs* are the numbers associated with traveling from point A to point B (often hops). The lower the total costs (the less links in the route), the more that route should be favored.
- ▶ *Latency* is the amount of time it takes for a packet to travel from one location to another.



---

## Cram Quiz

1. Which of the following best describes the function of the default gateway?
  - A. It provides the route for destinations outside the local network.
  - B. It enables a single Internet connection to be used by several users.
  - C. It identifies the local subnet and formulates a routing table.
  - D. It is used to communicate in a multiple-platform environment.
2. What is the term used for the number of hops necessary to reach a node?
  - A. Jump list
  - B. Link stops
  - C. Connections
  - D. Hop count

## Cram Quiz Answers

1. **A.** The default gateway enables systems on one local subnet to access those on another. Answer B does not accurately describe the role of the default gateway. Answers C and D don't describe the main function of a default gateway, which is to provide the route for destinations outside the local network.
  2. **D.** The hop count is the number of hops necessary to reach a node.
-

# Configuring Routers and Switches

- Given a scenario, install and configure routers and switches.

## CramSaver

If you can correctly answer these questions before going through this section, save time by skimming the Exam Alerts in this section and then complete the Cram Quiz at the end of the section.

1. Which technology enables electrical power to transmit over twisted-pair Ethernet cable?
2. True or False: With the help of FSL, STP avoids or eliminates loops on Layer 2 bridges.

## Answers

1. Power over Ethernet (PoE) is the technology that enables electrical power to transmit over twisted-pair Ethernet cable.
2. False. With the help of Spanning Tree Algorithm (STA), STP avoids or eliminates loops on a Layer 2 bridge.

The next chapter focuses on actual hardware components of a network, but the reason for the hardware is to carry out the operations discussed in this chapter. This section looks at a few of the more advanced features that routers and switches perform.

## Power over Ethernet (PoE)

The purpose of Power over Ethernet (PoE) is pretty much described in its name. Essentially, PoE is a technology that enables electrical power to transmit over twisted-pair Ethernet cable. The power transfers, along with data, to provide power to remote devices. These devices may include remote switches, wireless access points, voice over IP (VoIP) equipment, and more.

One of the key advantages of PoE is the centralized management of power. For instance, without PoE, all remote devices need to be independently powered. In the case of a power outage, each of these devices requires an uninterruptible power supply (UPS) to continue operating. A UPS is a battery pack that enables devices to operate for a period of time. With PoE supplying

power, a UPS is required only in the main facility. In addition, centralized power management enables administrators to power up or down remote equipment.

### Note

VLAN and spanning tree were outlined in the CompTIA objectives for this chapter. Spanning tree is covered next. VLANs are discussed in Chapter 1, “Introduction to Networking.”

## The Spanning Tree Protocol (STP)

An Ethernet network can have only a single active path between devices on a network. When multiple active paths are available, switching loops can occur. Switching loops are simply the result of having more than one path between two switches in a network. Spanning Tree Protocol (STP) is designed to prevent these loops from occurring.

STP is used with network bridges and switches. With the help of Spanning Tree Algorithm (STA), STP avoids or eliminates loops on a Layer 2 bridge.

### Note

As a heads-up, talking about STP refers to Layer 2 of the OSI model. Both bridges and switches work at Layer 2. Routers work at Layer 3.

STA enables a bridge or switch to dynamically work around loops in a network's topology. Both STA and STP were developed to prevent loops in the network and provide a way to route around any failed network bridge or ports. If the network topology changes, or if a switch port or bridge fails, STA creates a new spanning tree, notifies the other bridges of the problem, and routes around it. STP is the protocol, and STA is the algorithm STP uses to correct loops.

If a particular port has a problem, STP can perform a number of actions, including blocking the port, disabling the port, or forwarding data destined for that port to another port. It does this to ensure that no redundant links or paths are found in the spanning tree and that only a single active path exists between any two network nodes.

STP uses bridge protocol data units (BPDUs) to identify the status of ports and bridges across the network. BPDUs are simple data messages exchanged between switches. BPDUs contain information on ports and provide the status

of those ports to other switches. If a BPDU message finds a loop in the network, it is managed by shutting down a particular port or bridge interface.

Redundant paths and potential loops can be avoided within ports in several ways:

- ▶ **Blocking:** A blocked port accepts BPDU messages but does not forward them.
- ▶ **Disabled:** The port is offline and does not accept BPDU messages.
- ▶ **Forwarding:** The port is part of the active spanning tree topology and forwards BPDU messages to other switches.
- ▶ **Learning:** In a learning state, the port is not part of the active spanning tree topology but can take over if another port fails. Learning ports receive BPDUs and identify changes to the topology when made.
- ▶ **Listening:** A listening port receives BPDU messages and monitors for changes to the network topology.

Most of the time, ports are in either a forwarding or blocked state. When a disruption to the topology occurs or a bridge or switch fails for some reason, listening and learning states are used.

### ExamAlert

STP actively monitors the network, searching for redundant links. When it finds some, it shuts them down to prevent switching loops. STP uses STA to create a topology database to find and then remove the redundant links. With STP operating from the switch, data is forwarded on approved paths, which limits the potential for loops.

## Trunking

In computer networking, the term *trunking* refers to the use of multiple network cables or ports in parallel to increase the link speed beyond the limits of any one cable or port. Sound confusing? If you have network experience, you might have heard the term *link aggregation*, which is essentially the same thing. It is just using multiple cables to increase the throughput. The higher-capacity trunking link is used to connect switches to form larger networks.

*VLAN trunking*—or *VLAN (trunking)*, as CompTIA lists it—is the application of trunking to the virtual LAN—now common with routers, firewalls, VMWare hosts, and wireless access points. VLAN trunking provides a simple

and cheap way to offer a nearly unlimited number of virtual network connections. The requirements are only that the switch, the network adapter, and the OS drivers all support VLANs. The *VLAN Trunking Protocol (VTP)* is a proprietary protocol from Cisco for just such a purpose.

## Port Mirroring

You need some way to monitor network traffic and monitor how well a switch works. This is the function of port mirroring. To use port mirroring, administrators configure a copy of all inbound and outbound traffic to go to a certain port. A protocol analyzer examines the data sent to the port and therefore does not interrupt the flow of regular traffic.

### ExamAlert

Port mirroring enables administrators to monitor the traffic outbound and inbound to the switch.

## Port Authentication

Port authentication is what it sounds like—authenticating users on a port-by-port basis. One standard that specifies port authentication is the 802.1X standard, often associated with wireless security. Systems that attempt to connect to a LAN port must be authenticated. Those who are authenticated can access the LAN; those who are not authenticated get no further. Chapter 10 provides more information on the 802.1X standard and port authentication.

---

## Cram Quiz

1. Port mirroring enables administrators to monitor which traffic to the switch?
  - A. Inbound only
  - B. Outbound only
  - C. Inbound and outbound
  - D. Neither inbound nor outbound
2. Which of the following is NOT used to avoid redundant paths and potential loops within ports?
  - A. Blocking
  - B. Learning
  - C. Forwarding
  - D. Jamming

## Cram Quiz Answers

1. **C.** Port mirroring enables administrators to monitor the traffic outbound and inbound to the switch.
  2. **D.** The common methods to avoid redundant paths and potential loops within ports include blocking, disabled, forwarding, learning, and listening. Jamming is not one of the methods employed.
-

## What Next?

Chapter 4, “Components and Devices,” introduces you to commonly used networking devices. All but the most basic of networks require devices to provide connectivity and functionality. Understanding how these networking devices operate and identifying the functions they perform are essential skills for any network administrator and are requirements for a Network+ candidate.

# Index

## Numerics

---

- 3G (HSPA+), 204
- 4G (LTE), 204
- 10 Gigabit Ethernet standard, 253
- 10BaseT LAN standard, 249-250
- 10GBaseER/EW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 254
- 10GBaseLR/LW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 254
- 10GBaseSR/SW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 253-254
- 10GBaseTGigabit Ethernet standard, 255
- 100BaseFX LAN standard, 250-251
- 100BaseTX LAN standard, 250-251
- 110 blocks (T568A, T568B), 235-236
- 568A wiring standard, 227
- 568B wiring standard, 227
- 802.11 wireless standards (IEEE), 277-278, 284, 286-287
- 802.11a wireless standard (IEEE), 268, 271, 285-286
- 802.11b wireless standard (IEEE), 285-286
- 802.11b/g wireless standard (IEEE), 269-270
- 802.11g wireless standard (IEEE), 285, 287
- 802.11i wireless standard (IEEE), 293
- 802.11n wireless standard (IEEE), 270, 285-287
- 802.1Q IEEE specification, VLAN and, 36
- 802.1X wireless standard (IEEE), 294-295
- 1000BaseCX LAN standard, 252



**1000BaseLX LAN standard, 252**

**1000BaseSX LAN standard, 252**

**1000BaseT LAN standard, 253**

**1000BaseX LAN standards, 251-252**

## A

**-a command switch (ARP), 64**

**AAAA (IPv6 Address) records, reverse lookups, 79**

**access control, 418**

ACE, 419

ACL, 419

MAC filtering, 425-426

TCP/IP filtering, 426

DAC, 419

MAC, 419, 425-426

RBAC, 420

RoBAC, 420-421

TCP/IP filtering, 426

**access points. See AP (access points)**

**accounting (security), 431**

RADIUS, 439-440

TACACS+, 440

**ACE (access control entries), 419**

**ACK messages (TCP), 56**

**ACL (access control lists), 158, 419**

MAC filtering, 425-426

TCP/IP filtering, 426

**active scanning (beacons), 273**

**activity lights (NIC), 143**

**ad hoc wireless topologies, 11, 22-23**

**adapter teaming, 392-393**

**address classes (IPv4), 95-96**

**addresses for exam scheduling requirements**

email addresses, 5

mailing addresses, 4

## administration

command-line utilities

arp command, 351, 360-361

arp ping command, 351, 362-363

dig command, 351, 375-376

host command, 351, 376

ifconfig command, 351, 372-373

ipconfig command, 351, 370-372

nbtstat command, 351, 369-370

netstat command, 351, 363-369

nslookup command, 351, 373-374

ping command, 351, 355-360

route command, 351, 376

traceroute command, 351-355

tracert command, 351-355

consultants, 304

contractors, 304

documentation, 303, 305

advantages of, 304

applications, 306

baselines, 313-314

capturing statistics, 313

configuration documentation, 317

logical network diagrams, 310

network hardware, 306

network procedures, 306

network services, 306

network topologies, 305

physical diagrams, 310-313

physical network diagrams, 310

policies, 314-315

procedures, 315-316

regulations, 317-318

server configurations, 306

updating, 312

wiring layouts, 306

wiring schematics, 307-310

management tools, fault detection, 323

- network configuration, 324
- network maintenance, 324
- performance monitoring, 322-323
  - application logs, 333, 335
  - event logs, 331-335
  - history logs, 334-335
  - LM, 335
  - load testing, 330
  - packet sniffers, 324-325
  - performance tests, 329-330
  - port scanners, 327-329
  - security logs, 332, 335
  - stress tests, 330
  - syslog, 334
  - system logs, 334-335
  - throughput testing, 325, 327
- remote management, 324
- security monitoring, 324
- tools, 338
  - butt sets, 346
  - cable certifiers, 344
  - environmental monitors, 341
  - media testers, 344
  - multimeters, 345-346
  - network qualification testers, 346
  - optical cable testers, 345
  - OTDR, 345
  - protocol analyzers, 343-344
  - punchdown tools, 340
  - snips, 339
  - strippers, 339
  - TDR, 344
  - toner probes, 342-343
  - voltage event recorders, 340
  - Wi-Fi detectors, 347
  - wire crimpers, 339
- training, 304
- virtual desktops, 163
- VLAN, 36

**ADSL (Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Line) Internet access, 192-193**

**AH protocol (Authentication Header protocol), IPSec, 417**

**air conditioning, 342**

**alarms, remote (smart jacks), 238**

**analog modems, VPN and, 34**

**ANSWER SECTION (dig command), 375**

**answers**

- format of, Network+ exams, 5
- practice exams
  - exam 1, 537-559
  - exam 2, 585-606

**antennas (wireless), 264**

- adjusting, 263
- directional antennas, 266
- gain values, 265
- interference, 267
- MIMO antennas, 285
- omnidirectional antennas, 265-266
- polarization, 267
- ratings, 265
- replacing, 263
- signal quality, 267
- troubleshooting, 263, 267-268, 299
- wireless connections, configuring, 279

**antivirus software**

- features of, 456-457
- scanning for viruses, 456-457, 461

**anycast addresses, 106**

**AP (access points), 259-261**

- ad hoc wireless topologies, 23
- beacons, 272
- bridges, AP as, 261, 276
- BSA and, 263
- BSS, 262, 276
- BSSID and, 262

## AP (access points)

- ESS, 262, 276
- ESSID and, 262
- infrastructure wireless topologies, 23
- LAN and, 22
- OSI seven-layer networking model, mapping to, 50
- rogue AP, 455
- security, 262
- SSID and, 262
- troubleshooting, 263, 497
  - adjusting/replacing antennas, 263
  - increasing transmission power, 263
  - relocating AP, 263
  - repeaters, 264
  - RF amplifiers, 264
  - signal amplification, 264
- wireless AP, 149
  - LAN and, 22
  - OSI model, 150
- wireless device communication, 276
  - association, 276
  - authentication, 277
  - reassociation, 276
  - SSID, 277

**APIDS (application protocol-based intrusion detection systems), 469****APIPA (Automatic Private IP Addressing), 109-110****application layer**

- firewalls, 465-466
- OSI seven-layer networking model, 48-49
- TCP/IP four-layer networking model, 50

**application logs, 333, 335****applications, documentation (administration), 306****archive bits, differential backups, 399****ARP (Address Resolution Protocol), 63-65, 70**

- a command switch, 64
- d command switch, 64
- proxy ARP, troubleshooting, 486
- s command switch, 64

**arp command, 351, 360-361****arp ping command, 351, 362-363****arpa top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 78****ascii command, 58****assessing personal knowledge via exam questions, 7****association (wireless device communication), 276****asymmetric key encryption, 435, 437****ATM (Asynchronous Transfer Mode), WAN configurations, 186-187****attenuation, 213, 493****audio files, presentation layer (layer 6), 48****auditing events (security), 431****authentication, 429-430, 440-441**

- CHAP, 441
- EAP, 292, 441
- Kerberos authentication, 433-436
- MS-CHAP, 440
- MS-CHAPv2, 441
- multifactor authentication, 445
- PAP, 441
- passwords, 432
  - policies, 432
  - strength of, 433
- port authentication, 132
- RADIUS, 439-440
- remote authentication, 440-441
- SNMPv3, 86
- TACACS+, 440
- two-factor authentication, 445

- wireless connections, configuring, 281
- wireless device communication, 277
- WPA, 292

- authentication servers (802.1X wireless standard), 294**
- authenticators (802.1X wireless standard), 294-295**
- AUTHORITY SECTION (dig command), 375**
- authorization, 429-430**
  - RADIUS, 439-440
  - TACACS+, 440
- autoconfigured addresses, IP addressing, 106**

## B

---

- back door attacks, 455**
- backbone cabling. See vertical (backbone) cabling**
- backoff periods, 247**
- backups**
  - best practices, 401
  - differential backups, 398-400
  - full backups, 398, 400
  - GFS backup rotations, 400
  - incremental backups, 399-400
  - procedures, 316
  - tape rotations, 400
  - verifying, 401
- bad/missing routes, troubleshooting, 488**
- bandwidth, 245**
  - bandwidth shapers, 154, 160
  - dedicated local bandwidth, DSL Internet access, 196
  - firewalls and, 462
  - as routing metric, 127
  - shared bandwidth, cable Internet access, 196
- baseband transmissions (TDM), 211**
- baselines, 313-314**
- beacons (wireless networks), 272**
  - active scanning, 273
  - AP, 272
  - data rates, 272
  - passive scanning, 272
  - SSID, 272
  - time stamps, 272
- behavior-based IDS (intrusion detection systems), 468**
- Bell Communications Research, 182**
- BGP (Border Gateway Protocol), distance-vector routing, 124**
- binary, decimal-to-binary value conversions, 95**
- binary command, 58**
- biometrics (physical security), 445**
- black holes, troubleshooting, 487-488**
- blackouts, UPS and, 394**
- blocked ports, BPDU messages, 131**
- BNC connectors, 221**
- bonding, IEEE 802.3 standard, 248**
- booking exams, 4**
- BOOTP (BOOT protocol), 109**
- BPDU (bridge protocol data units), STP and, 130**
- BPL (Broadband over Power Lines), 211**
- BRI (Basic Rate Interface), 179**
- bridges, 136, 159**
  - AP as, 149, 261, 276
  - learning bridges, 137
  - loops, eliminating, 137
  - MAC addresses and, 137
  - multiport bridges. *See* switches
  - network placement, 137
  - OSI model, 50, 141
  - source route bridges, 138
  - translational bridges, 138

## bridges

- transparent bridges, 138
- troubleshooting, 497

**broadband connections**

- Internet access, 191, 197
- VPN and, 34
- wireless connections, configuring, 278

**broadband transmissions**

- BPL, 211
- FDM, 211
- HomePlug Powerline Alliance, 212
- IEEE 1901, 212
- IEEE 1905, 212

**broadcast addresses, 102****broadcast storms, troubleshooting, 487****brownouts, UPS and, 394****BSA (Basic Service Areas), 263****BSS (Basic Service Sets), 262, 276****BSSID (Basic Service Set Identifiers), 262****buffer overflows, 453****buffering (flow control), 47****bus topologies, 16**

- advantages/disadvantages of, 17
- physical bus topologies, 17

**buses**

- compatibility, 498
- NIC installations, system bus compatibility, 142
- troubleshooting, 498

**butt sets, 346****C****CA (certificate authorities), PKI, 436****cable certifiers, 344****cable connections, VPN and, 34****cable Internet access, 195**

- broadband security, 197
- cabling, 195

## modems, 195

## shared bandwidth, 196

## troubleshooting, 196-197

## modems, 196

## physical connections, 196

## protocol configuration, 196

## technical support, 196

## user configurations, 196

## UTP cable, 195

**cabling**

## 110 blocks (T568A, T568B), 235-236

## 568A wiring standard, 227

## 568B wiring standard, 227

## attenuation, 213, 493

## bad cabling, troubleshooting, 494

## baseband transmissions, TDM, 211

## broadband transmissions

## BPL, 211

## FDM, 211

## HomePlug Powerline Alliance, 212

## IEEE 1901, 212

## IEEE 1905, 212

## cable Internet access, 195

## cable placement, troubleshooting, 496

## coaxial cable, 214, 218-219

## connectors, troubleshooting, 494

## crossover cables, 148, 228, 230, 495-496

## CSU/DSU, 238

## data transmission rates, 213-214

## DB loss, troubleshooting, 495

## demarcation points, 237-238

## EMI, 492-493

## fiber-optic cable, 213-215, 219-221

## full-duplex mode, 212

## half-duplex mode, 212

## horizontal cabling, 231-232

- horizontal cross-connects, 232
- hub and switch cabling, 148
- IDC, 235
- IDF telecommunications rooms, 236
- installation, verifying, 239-240
- intermediate cross-connects, 232
- layouts, documentation (administration), 306
- loopback cabling, 231
- MDF telecommunications rooms, 236
- media connectors
  - BNC connectors, 221
  - F-Type connectors, 223
  - fiber connectors, 224
  - RG-6 connectors, 223
  - RG-59 connectors, 223
  - RJ-11 connectors, 222
  - RJ-45 connectors, 223
  - RS-232 standard connectors, 225
  - Type A connectors, 226
  - Type B connectors, 226
  - USB connectors, 226
- media converters, 226-227
- media interference, 212-213
  - crosstalk, 213
  - EMI, 213
- open impedance mismatch (echo), troubleshooting, 494
- open/short faults, troubleshooting, 494
- optical cable testers, 345
- patch panels, 234
- plenum cable, 221
- punchdown tools, 235, 340
- risers, 491
- rollover cabling, 230
- schematics, 307-310
- simplex mode, 212
- smart jacks, 238
- snips, 339
- SOHO networks, 169, 171
- split cables, troubleshooting, 495
- star topologies, 505
- STP cable, 215
- straight-through cabling, 228
- strippers, 339
- switch and hub cabling, 148
- T-carrier lines
  - T3 lines, 181
  - WAN configurations, 180-181, 187
- T568A wiring standard, 228
- T568B wiring standard, 228
- termination, verifying, 239-240
- troubleshooting, 490-491
  - attenuation, 493
  - bad cabling, 494
  - cable placement, 496
  - connectors, 494
  - crossover cables, 495-496
  - crosstalk, 492-493
  - DB loss, 495
  - determining where cable is used, 491-492
  - EMI, 492-493
  - FEXT, 493
  - interference, 492-493
  - NEXT, 492
  - open impedance mismatch (echo), 494
  - open/short faults, 494
  - split cables, 495
  - TXXR reversed cables, 495-496
- twisted pair cable, 214-216
  - categories of, 216-218
  - longitudinal separators, 217
  - STP cable, 215
  - UTP cable, 215

## cabling

TXRX reversed cables, troubleshooting, 495-496

UTP cable, 213, 215

vertical (backbone) cabling, 231, 233

vertical (main) cross-connects, 232

wire crimpers, 339

**caching, 157**

**caching engines, 409-410**

**capturing statistics, 313**

**cards (network). See NIC**

**CARP (Common Address Redundancy Protocol), 393**

**CCMP (Counter Mode with Cipher Block Chaining Message Authentication Code Protocol), 293**

**cd command, 58**

**cellular Internet access, 204**

**centralized computing networks, 14**

**certificate templates, PKI, 436**

**certificates, PKI, 436, 439**

**certification, receiving, 6**

**changes, determining (troubleshooting procedures), 478**

**channel bonding. See bonding**

**channels (wireless), 268, 270**

802.11a wireless standard (IEEE), 271

802.11b/g wireless standard (IEEE), 269-270

802.11n wireless standard (IEEE), 270

frequency hopping, 273

narrowband transmissions, 273

nonoverlapping channels, 268-269

overlapping channels, 269

troubleshooting, 269, 299

wireless connections, configuring, 281

wireless device communication, 277

**CHAP, 441**

**chips, 274**

**chromatic dispersion. See attenuation**  
**CIDR (Classless Interdomain Routing), 100**

**circuit switching, WAN configurations, 177-178**

**circuit-level firewalls, 465-466**

**Citrix ICA, 425**

**cladding (fiber-optic cable), 220**

**classes (IPv4), 95-96**

**cleaning tapes, backup strategies, 401**

**client connections, troubleshooting, 498**

**client requests, filtering via proxy servers, 157**

**client-side content filters, 155**

**client-to-site tunneling, 418**

**client/server networks, 13-14**

**clustering**

failovers, 392

load balancing, 391

performance, 391

scalability, 392

server clustering, fault tolerance, 391-392

**CNAME (Canonical Name) records, 79**

**coaxial cable, 214, 218-219**

**coaxial networks, connecting to, 498**

**cold recovery sites (disaster recovery), 403-404**

**cold spares (disaster recovery), cold swapping and, 402**

**collision detection, 247**

**com top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 77**

**command-line utilities**

arp command, 351, 360-361

arp ping command, 351, 362-363

dig command, 351, 375-376

host command, 351, 376

ifconfig command, 351, 372-373

ipconfig command, 351, 370-372

nbstat command, 351, 369-370

netstat command, 351, 363-364

- netstat -a command, 366
- netstat -e command, 365
- netstat -r command, 367
- netstat -s command, 368-369

nslookup command, 351, 373-374

ping command, 351, 355-356

- Destination host unreachable error messages, 356
- Expired TTL error messages, 358
- Request timed out error messages, 357-358
- troubleshooting via, 359-360
- Unknown host error messages, 358

route command, 351, 376

tracert command, 351-355

tracert command, 351-355

**communities (SNMP), 85-86**

**components, failures, 384-385**

**CompTIA contact information, 6**

**confidentiality, PKI, 438**

**configuration utilities (software), NIC installations, 144**

**configuring**

- configuration documentation, 317
- networks, 324
- servers, documentation (administration), 306
- SOHO networks, 169
- wireless network connections, 278, 281-282

**connection file transfer method, TFTP as, 59**

**connection speeds (modems), troubleshooting POTS Internet access, 200**

**connection-oriented protocols, 54-55**

**connectionless protocols, 54-55**

**connectivity, troubleshooting**

- client connections, 498
- duplexes, 502
- media connections, 498-501
- port speeds, 502

**connectors (media)**

- BNC connectors, 221
- F-Type connectors, 223
- fiber connectors, 224
- RG-6 connectors, 223
- RG-59 connectors, 223
- RJ-11 connectors, 222
- RJ-45 connectors, 223
- RS-232 standard connectors, 225
- Type A connectors, 226
- Type B connectors, 226
- USB connectors, 226

**connectors (wiring), troubleshooting, 494**

**consultants, administration, 304**

**contact phone numbers, exam scheduling requirements, 4**

**content filters, 155, 461**

**content switches, 156, 160**

**contractors, administration, 304**

**convergence, 125**

**converters (media), 141-142, 226-227**

**cost**

- routing, 127
- VPN, 34
- wireless mesh networks, 27

**Cram Sheet, Network+ exam cram, 1, 5**

**credit cards, exam scheduling requirements, 5**

**crimpers (wire), 339**

**CRL (Certificate Revocation Lists), PKI, 436**



crossover cabling

**crossover cabling, 148, 228, 230, 495-496**

**crosstalk, 213, 492-493. See also FEXT; NEXT**

**CSMA/CA (Carrier Sense Multiple Access/Collision Avoidance) access method, 248**

**CSMA/CD (Carrier Sense Multiple Access/Collision Detection) access method, 246-248**

**CSU/DSU (Channel Service Units/Data Service Units), 159, 238**

**cut-through switching environments, 147**

**CuteFTP, 57**

## D

**-d command switch (ARP), 64**

**DAC (discretionary access control), 419**

**data (text) files, presentation layer (layer 6), 48**

**data flow control**

buffering, 47

transport layer (layer 4), 47

windowing, 47

**data link layer (layer 2), OSI seven-layer networking model, 46, 49**

**data rates, 325**

cabling and, 213-214

wireless networks, 271-272

**datagram packet switching, 177**

**DB loss, troubleshooting, 495**

**DCE (data circuit-terminating equipment), Frame Relay WAN, 185**

**DDNS (Dynamic DNS), 76**

**de top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 78**

**decimal-to-binary value conversions, 95**

**dedicated broadband connections, VPN and, 34**

**dedicated local bandwidth, DSL Internet access, 196**

**default gateways**

IP addressing, 108

IPv4 addressing, 100-102

TCP/IP client configurations, 500

TCP/IP routing, 120

**demarcation points, 237**

smart jacks, 238

SOHO networks, 172-173

**desktops, virtual, 162**

remote administration, 163

VDI, 163

**Destination host unreachable error messages, 356**

**DHCP (Dynamic Host Configuration Protocol), 88-89**

DNS suffixes, 90

dynamic addressing, 107

process of, 89-90

reservations, 89

**DHCP servers, 138-139, 160**

**dial tones, troubleshooting POTS Internet access, 199**

**dial-up Internet access. See POTS (plain old telephone system) Internet access**

**dialog modes, 212**

**differential backups, 398-400**

**diffused infrared wireless networking, 275**

**dig command, 351, 375-376**

**digital certificates, PKI and, 439**

**digital signatures, PKI and, 438**

**dip switches, 144**

**directed (line-of-sight) infrared wireless networking, 275**

**directional antennas, 266**

**disabled ports, BPDU messages, 131**

**disaster recovery, 397**

- best practices, 401
- cold recovery sites, 403-404
- cold spares
  - cold swapping and, 402
  - warm swaps, 403
- differential backups, 398-400
- full backups, 398, 400
- hot recovery sites, 403-404
- hot spares, hot swapping and, 401-402
- incremental backups, 399-400
- tape rotations, 400
- warm recovery sites, 404

**disk duplexing (RAID 1), 387, 390****disk mirroring (RAID 1), 386-387****disk striping with parity (RAID 5), 387, 389****distance-vector routing, 123-124****distributed networks, 14****distributed parity (RAID 5), 387, 389****DMZ (perimeter networks), 466-467****DNS (Domain Name Service), 74-75**

- AAAA records, 79
- CNAME records, 79
- DDNS, 76
- DNS namespace, 76-78
  - arpa top-level domain name, 78
  - com top-level domain name, 77
  - de top-level domain name, 78
  - edu top-level domain name, 77
  - FQDN, 77
  - gov top-level domain name, 77
  - mil top-level domain name, 78
  - net top-level domain name, 77
  - org top-level domain name, 77
- entries, types of, 78
- IP address-to-hostname resolution, 78

- MX records, 79
- name resolution, 75
- NS records, 79
- practical implementation of, 79
- PTR records, 78-79
- resolvers (DNS clients) and, 75
- reverse lookups, 78
- SOA records, 79
- suffixes, 90
- troubleshooting, 490

**DNS servers, 160**

- IP addressing, 108
- load balancing, 155
- TCP/IP client configurations, 501

**documentation (administration), 303-305**

- advantages of, 304
- applications, 306
- baselines, 313-314
- configuration documentation, 317
- logical network diagrams, 310-313
- network hardware, 306
- network procedures, 306
- network services, 306
- network topologies, 305
- physical diagrams, 310
- physical network diagrams, 310-311
- policies, 314-315
  - email usage policies, 314
  - Internet usage policies, 314
  - network usage policies, 314
  - ownership policies, 315
  - personal software policies, 315
  - user account policies, 315
- procedures, 315
  - backup procedures, 316
  - network monitoring procedures, 316
  - new user procedures, 316

documentation (administration)

- remote-access procedures, 316
- reporting security violations, 316
- security procedures, 316
- software procedures, 316
- regulations, 317-318
- server configurations, 306
- statistics, capturing, 313
- updating, 312
- wiring layouts, 306-310

**documenting findings (troubleshooting procedures), 482**

**DoS (denial of service) attacks, 452-454**

**double colons (::), IPv6 addressing, 104**

**downtime (networks), 383-384**

**drivers**

- DSL Internet access, troubleshooting, 194
- NIC installations, 144

**DSL Internet access, 192**

- ADSL, 192-193
- broadband security, 197
- dedicated local bandwidth, 196
- HDSL, 192-193
- IDSL, 192-193
- LED, troubleshooting, 194
- RADSL, 192-193
- SDSL, 192-193
- speed comparison table, 193
- troubleshooting
  - drivers, 194
  - DSL LED, 194
  - NIC, 194
  - physical connections, 194
  - protocol configuration, 194
- VHDSL, 192-193
- VPN and, 34

**DSSS (Direct-Sequence Spread-Spectrum) technology, 274, 287**

**DTE (data terminal equipment), Frame Relay WAN, 184**

**DTIM periods, configuring wireless connections, 282**

**DUAL (Diffusing Update Algorithm), 124**

**duplexes, troubleshooting client configurations, 502**

**duplexing (disk), RAID 1, 387, 390**

**duplicate IP addresses, troubleshooting, 489**

**DWDM (dense wavelength division multiplexing), 183**

**dynamic addressing, 107-109**

**dynamic routing, TCP/IP routing, 123**

- distance-vector routing, 123-124
- link-state routing, 126

## **E**

**EAP (Extensible Authentication Protocol), 292, 441**

**eavesdropping attacks, 454**

**echo. See open impedance mismatch (echo)**

**EDFA (erbium doped fiber amplifiers), 183**

**edu top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 77**

**EGP (Exterior Gateway Protocols), 127**

**EIA/TIA (Electronic Industries Association/Telecommunications Industry Association) twisted-pair cabling, 216**

**EIGRP (Enhanced Interior Gateway Routing Protocol), distance-vector routing, 124**

**email**

- addresses, exam scheduling requirements, 5
- broadband security, 197
- NNTP, 66
- secure email, PKI and, 439

SMTP and, 60  
usage policies, 314  
vetting, 457

**EMI (electromagnetic interference), 213, 492-493**

**encryption**

asymmetric key encryption, 437  
encryption devices, 150  
PKI, 436  
asymmetric key encryption, 437  
CA, 436  
certificate templates, 436  
certificates, 436  
confidentiality, 438  
CRL, 436  
digital certificates, 439  
digital signatures, 438  
private key encryption, 437  
public key encryption, 437  
secure email, 439  
symmetric key encryption, 437  
uses of, 438  
web security, 438  
presentation layer (layer 6), OSI seven-layer networking model, 48  
private key encryption, 437  
public key encryption, 437  
SNMPv3, 86  
symmetric key encryption, 437  
TKIP, 292  
VPN, 34  
WPA, 292

**environmental monitors, 341**

**error checking, transport layer (layer 4), 47**

**error messages**

Destination host unreachable error messages, 356  
Expired TTL error messages, 358

Request timed out error messages, 357-358

Unknown host error messages, 358

**escalation, determining (troubleshooting procedures), 480-481**

**ESD (electrostatic discharges), 143**

**ESP protocol (Encapsulating Security Payloads protocol), IPSec, 417**

**ESS (Extended Service Sets), 262, 276**

**ESSID (Extended Service Set Identifiers), 262**

**Ethernet**

10BaseT LAN standard, 249-250  
100BaseFX LAN standard, 250-251  
100BaseTX LAN standard, 250-251  
1000BaseCX LAN standard, 252  
1000BaseLX LAN standard, 252  
1000BaseSX LAN standard, 252  
1000BaseT LAN standard, 253  
1000BaseX LAN standards, 251-252  
Fast Ethernet standards, 250-251  
Gigabit Ethernet standards, 251-252  
10 Gigabit Ethernet standards, 253  
10GBaseER/EW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 254  
10GBaseLR/LW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 254  
10GBaseSR/SW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 253-254  
10GBaseT Gigabit Ethernet standard, 255  
PoE, 129  
PPPoE, 423  
STP, 130  
switches, 146  
switching loops, 130

**Ethernet networks**

troubleshooting, switching loops, 486  
wireless AP, 149

**EUI-64, 137****event logs, 331**

- application logs, 333, 335
- history logs, 334-335
- LM, 335
- security logs, 332, 335
- syslog, 334
- system logs, 334-335

**evil twin attacks, 455****Exam Alerts, Network+ exam cram, 1****Exam Tips and Notes sections  
(Network+ exam cram), 6****exams**

- Network+ exam
  - allotted test time, 2
  - answer formats, 5
  - CompTIA contact information, 6
  - determining success, 6
  - exam day recommendations, 5-6
  - exam day requirements, 6
  - exam day rules, 6
  - expectations for, 5
  - format of, 2
  - objectives, 2-4, 7
  - passing, 6
  - question formats, 5
  - receiving certification, 6
  - scheduling, 4
  - strategies for taking, 6-7
- objectives, 2
- practice exams
  - exam 1 answers, 537-559
  - exam 1 questions, 513-535
  - exam 2 answers, 585-606
  - exam 2 questions, 561-584
- scheduling, 4
- strategies for taking, 6-7
  - allotted test time, 2

subobjectives, 2-4

Sylvan Prometric testing service,  
scheduling exams, 4

VUE testing service, scheduling  
exams, 4

**expiration dates, passwords, 432****Expired TTL error messages, 358****F****F-Type connectors, 223****failover configurations, fault tolerance  
in standby servers, 391****failovers, clustering, 392****failures (networks)**

- costs of, 382-383
- hardware, 384-385

**Fast Ethernet standards, 250-251****fault detection, 323****fault tolerance, 382-384**

- adapter teaming, 392-393
- CARP, 393
- hard disks, 385
- link redundancy, 392-393
- mesh topologies, 21
- primary function of, 385
- RAID, 384
  - RAID 0, 386, 390
  - RAID 1, 386-387, 390
  - RAID 5, 387-390
  - RAID 10, 389-390
- servers
  - clustering, 391-392
  - standby servers, 390
- UPS, 393-394

**FDM (Frequency Division  
Multiplexing), 211****FEXT (Far End Crosstalk), trou-  
bleshooting, 493. See also crosstalk****FHSS (Frequency-Hopping Spread-  
Spectrum) technology, 273, 287**

**fiber connectors, 224****fiber-optic cable, 213-215, 219-221****filtering**

- client requests via proxy servers, 157
- client-side filters, 155
- content filters, 155, 461
- MAC filtering, 425-426
- packet-filtering
  - implicit denies, 464
  - IP addresses, 463
  - MAC addresses, 464
  - port numbers, 463
  - protocol identification, 464
- packet-filtering firewalls, 463-465
- server-side filters, 155
- TCP/IP filtering, 426
- URL, firewalls and, 462

**findings, documenting (troubleshooting procedures), 482****firewalls, 139, 160, 460-461, 466**

- application layer firewalls, 465-466
- bandwidth management, 462
- circuit-level firewalls, 465-466
- content filtering, 461
- features of, 461-462
- hardware firewalls, 140
- NAT, 462
- packet-filtering firewalls, 463-465
- security, 197
- signature identification, 461
- stateful firewalls, 462-463
- stateless firewalls, 462-463
- URL filtering, 462
- virus scanning, 461

**flow control (data)**

- buffering, 47
- transport layer (layer 4), OSI seven-layer networking model, 47
- windowing, 47

**forwarding ports, BPDU messages, 131****fox and hound. See toner probes****FQDN (fully qualified domain names), DNS namespace, 77****fractional T (T-carrier lines), 180****Fraggle attacks, 453****FragmentFree switching environments, 148****Frame Relay**

- DCE, 185
- DTE, 184
- PVC, 184-185
- SVC, 185
- WAN configurations, 184-187

**frequency hopping, 273****FTP (File Transfer Protocol), 57, 69, 442**

- ascii command, 58
- binary command, 58
- bounce attacks, 455
- cd command, 58
- CuteFTP, 57
- get command, 58
- lcd command, 58
- ls command, 58
- mget command, 58
- mput command, 58
- put command, 58
- SmartFTP, 57

**full backups, 398, 400****full system functionality, verifying (troubleshooting procedures), 481****full-duplex configuration mode (switches), 147****full-duplex mode cabling, 212**

gain values (antennas)

## G

---

**gain values (antennas), 265**

**gateways, 159**

TCP/IP client configurations, 500

troubleshooting, 489

**get command, 58**

**GFS backup rotations, 400**

**Gigabit Ethernet standards, 251-252**

10 Gigabit Ethernet standard, 253

10GBaseER/EW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 254

10GBaseLR/LW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 254

10GBaseSR/SW Gigabit Ethernet standard, 253-254

10GBaseT Gigabit Ethernet standard, 255

**global unicast addresses, 105**

**gov top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 77**

**graphics files, presentation layer (layer 6), 48**

## H

---

**half-duplex configuration mode (switches), 147**

**half-duplex mode cabling, 212**

**hard disks, 385**

**hardware**

documentation (administration), 306

failures, 384-385

firewalls, 140

troubleshooting, 496-497

**HDSL (High Bit Rate DSL) Internet access, 192-193**

**heartbeats, 391**

**help**

CompTIA contact information, 6

technical support, troubleshooting cable Internet access, 196

**HIDS (host-based intrusion detection systems), 468**

**hierarchical name trees, 85**

**high-density devices, 141**

**history logs, 334-335**

**HomePlug Powerline Alliance, broadband transmissions, 212**

**honeynets, 470**

**honeypots, 469-470**

**hop counts, 127**

**horizontal cabling, 231-232**

**horizontal cross-connects, 232**

**host command, 351, 376**

**HOSTS files, 74-75**

**hot recovery sites (disaster recovery), 403-404**

**hot spares (disaster recovery), hot swapping and, 401-402**

**hotspots, 203**

**HSPA+ (High Speed Packet Access), 3G, 204**

**HTTP (Hypertext Transfer Protocol), 60, 70, 442**

**HTTPS (Hypertext Transfer Protocol Secure), 60, 70, 438, 442**

**hubs, 159**

defining, 140

MDI ports, 148

MDI-X ports, 148

OSI seven-layer networking model, mapping to, 50

star topologies, 19, 505

switch and hub cabling, 148

troubleshooting, 496, 505

workgroup hubs, 141

**HVAC, 342**

**hybrid home networks, IEEE 1905, 212**

**hybrid mesh topologies, 21**

**hybrid topologies, 27**

**Hz (Hertz), RF channels, 268**

## I

**I/O addresses, memory, 142, 144**

**IANA (Internet Assigned Numbers Authority), assigning IP addresses to public networks, 98**

**IBSS (Independent Basic Service Sets). See ad hoc mode**

**ICMP (Internet Control Message Protocol), 63, 70**

flood attacks, 362, 454

source quench, 63

**IDC (insulation displacement connectors), 235**

**identifying the problem (troubleshooting procedures), 477-478**

**IDF (Intermediate Distribution Frame) telecommunications rooms, 236**

**IDS (intrusion detection systems), 468-469**

**IDs (photo), exam day requirements, 6**

**IDSL (ISDN DSL), Internet access, 192-193**

**IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers)**

802.11 wireless standards, 284, 286-287

802.11a wireless standard, 268, 271, 285-286

802.11b wireless standard, 285-286

802.11b/g wireless standard, 269-270

802.11g wireless standard, 285, 287

802.11i wireless standard, 293

802.11n wireless standard, 270, 285-287

802.1X wireless standard, 294-295

802.1Q specification, VLAN and, 36

IEEE 802 networking standards, 244-245

IEEE 802.2 standard, 245

IEEE 802.3 standard

10 Gigabit Ethernet standards, 253-255

10BaseT LAN standard, 249-250

100BaseFX LAN standard, 250-251

100BaseT LAN standard, 253

100BaseTX LAN standard, 250-251

100BaseX LAN standard, 251-252

access methods, 246-248

bonding, 248

CSMA/CA access method, 248

CSMA/CD access method, 246-248

media, 249

speed, 245-246

topologies, 249

MAC address assignments, 110

WEB, 290

wireless device communication, 277-278

**IEEE 1901, 212**

**IEEE 1905, 212**

**IETF (Internet Engineer Task Force), RFC, 54**

**ifconfig command, 269, 351, 372-373**

**IGMP (Internet Group Management Protocol), 67, 70**

**IGP (Interior Gateway Protocols), 127**

**IMAP4 (Internet Message Protocol – version 4), 61, 70**

**implicit denies, packet-filtering, 464**

**incremental backups, 399-400**

**independent routing, 176**

**infrared wireless networking, 274-275**

**infrastructure hardware, troubleshooting, 496-497**

**infrastructure wireless topologies, 22**

AP and, 23, 261

LAN and, 22



**installing**

- ESD, precautions against, 143
- NIC, 143
  - built-in network interfaces, 144
  - drivers, 144
  - IRQ, 142, 144
  - media compatibility, 142
  - memory I/O addresses, 142, 144
  - slot availability, 144
  - software configuration utilities, 144
  - system bus compatibility, 142
- wiring installation, verifying, 239-240

**interference, 212-213**

- antennas (wireless), 267
- crosstalk, 213
- DSSS and, 274
- wireless networks, 300-301
- wiring
  - attenuation, 493
  - crosstalk, 492-493
  - EMI, 213, 492-493
  - FEXT, 493
  - NEXT, 492
  - open impedance mismatch (echo), 494

**intermediate cross-connects, 232****Internet access**

- broadband access, 191, 197
- cable Internet access, 195
  - broadband security, 197
  - cabling, 195
  - modems, 195-196
  - shared bandwidth, 196
  - troubleshooting, 196-197
  - UTP cable, 195
- cellular Internet access, 204

**DSL Internet access, 192**

- ADSL, 192-193
  - broadband security, 197
  - dedicated local bandwidth, 196
  - HDSL, 192-193
  - RADSL, 192-193
  - SDSL, 192-193
  - speed comparison table, 193
  - troubleshooting, 194
  - VHDSL, 192-193

**IDSL Internet access, 192-193****POTS Internet access, 198-200****PSTN Internet access, 200****satellite Internet access, 201**

- hotspots, 203
- latency, 201-202
- one-way satellite systems, 191, 201
- propagation time, 202
- troubleshooting, 202
- two-way satellite systems, 191, 201
- WISP, 203

**Internet server providers. See ISPs****Internet usage policies, 314****IP (Internet Protocol), 55, 69, 106****IP address-to-hostname resolution, DNS and, 78****IP addresses**

- duplicate IP addresses, troubleshooting, 489
- packet-filtering, 463
- scopes, 88
- TCP/IP client configurations, 499, 501

**ipconfig command, 269, 351, 370-372****IPS (intrusion prevention systems), 468****IPSec (Internet Protocol Security), 417-418**

**IPv4 addressing, 95, 102**

- address classes, 95-96
- addressing schemes, 103
- APIPA, 109-110
- autoconfigured addressing, 106
- BOOTP, 109
- broadcast addresses, 102
- CIDR, 100
- default gateways, 100-102
- DHCP servers, 139
- dynamic addressing, 107-109
- IPv6 comparisons to, 106-107
- loopback addressing, 106
- MAC addresses, identifying, 110-111
- multicasting, 102
- NAT, 112-113
- network-wide addressing, 106
- octets, 95, 138
- PAT, 113
- private networks, 98-99, 106
- public networks, 98
- static addressing, 107
- subnet mask assignments, 96
- subnetting, 97-98
- unicast addresses, 102

**IPv6 addressing, 95, 103**

- anycast addresses, 106
- APIPA, 109-110
- autoconfigured addressing, 106
- BOOTP, 109
- DHCP servers, 139
- double colons (::), 104
- dynamic addressing, 107-109
- EUI-64, 137
- global unicast addresses, 105
- identifying, 103-104
- IPv4 comparisons to, 106-107
- link-local addresses, 105
- loopback addressing, 106

- MAC addresses, identifying, 110-111
- multicasting, 105
- NAT, 112-113
- network-wide addressing, 106
- octets, 138
- PAT, 113
- private network addressing, 106
- site-local addresses, 105
- static addressing, 107
- unicast addresses, 105

**IrDA (Infrared Data Association), 274**

**IRQ (Interrupt Requests), NIC installations, 142, 144**

**IS-IS (Intermediate System-to-Intermediate System), link-state routing, 126**

**ISAKMP (Internet Security Association and Key Management Protocol), 415, 442**

**ISDN (Integrated Services Digital Networks)**

- BRI, 179
- PRI, 179
- VPN and, 34
- WAN configurations, 178-179, 187

**ISO (International Organization for Standardization), OSI seven-layer model, 43**

**ISP (Internet service providers)**

- POTS Internet access, troubleshooting, 199
- SOHO network configurations, 172

**iwconfig command, troubleshooting wireless networks, 269**

---

**J**

**jam signals, 247**

**jumpers, 144**

## K

---

**Kerberos authentication, 433-436**

**key and lock (physical security), 443-444**

**knowledge assessments, exam questions as, 7**

## L

---

**L2TP (Layer 2 Tunneling Protocol), 34, 416**

**labeling tables, backup strategies, 401**

**LAN (local area networks), 10**

Ethernet LAN, wireless AP, 149

IEEE 802 networking standards, 244-245

IEEE 802.2 standard, 245

IEEE 802.3 standard, 245-255

infrastructure wireless topologies, 22

LAN-to-LAN internetworking, VPN and, 33

PAT and, 113

VLAN, troubleshooting, 503-504

WLAN

security, 289

wireless AP, 149

**LAN-to-LAN internetworking, VPN and, 33**

**latency**

routing, 127

satellite Internet access, 201-202

**latency-insensitive applications, QoS and, 408**

**latency-sensitive applications, QoS and, 407**

**Layer 3 addresses, 37**

**Layer 3 switches. See multilayer switches**

**lcd command, 58**

**LDAP (Lightweight Directory Access Protocol), 66, 70**

**learning bridges, 137**

**learning ports, BPDU messages, 131**

**least privilege concept (network security), 421**

**line of sight, troubleshooting satellite Internet access, 202**

**line-of-sight (directed) infrared wireless networking, 275**

**Link (Network Access) layer (TCP/IP four-layer networking model), 50**

**link aggregation, 131, 393**

**link lights (NIC), 143**

**link redundancy, 392-393**

**link-local addresses, 105**

**link-state routing, 126**

**listening ports, BPDU messages, 131**

**LLC (Logical Link Control) layer (data link layer (level 2), 46. See also IEEE 802.2 standard**

**LM (Log Management), 335**

**LMHOSTS files, 80**

**load balancers, 155, 160**

adapter teaming, 393

clustering, 391

content servers, 156

DNS servers, 155

multilayer switches, 155

**load testing, 330**

**lock and key (physical security), 443-444**

**logical network diagrams, 310-313**

**logical topologies**

defining, 16

logical ring topologies, 18

**longitudinal separators, 217**

**loopback addresses, IP addressing, 106**

**loopback cabling, 231**

**loopback feature (smart jacks), 238**

**loopbacks, 359**

**loops**

- avoiding, 131
- bridging loops, eliminating, 137
- routing loops, 125, 486
- switching loops, 130, 486

**ls command, 58****LSA (link state advertisements), 126****LTE (Long Term Evolution), 4G, 204****M****MAC (mandatory access control), 419****MAC (Media Access Control) layer (data link layer (level 2), 46****MAC address-based VLAN memberships, 37-38****MAC addresses**

- assigning, 110
- bridges, 137
- identifying, 110-111
- NIC, viewing MAC addresses of, 111
- packet-filtering, 464
- switches, 146

**MAC filtering, 425-426****macro viruses, 451****mailing addresses, exam scheduling requirements, 4****main cross-connects. See vertical (main) cross-connects****maintenance, 324****malware**

- Trojan horses, 451-452
- viruses, 450-452
  - antivirus software, 456-457
  - scanning for, 456-457, 461
- worms, 451-452

**MAN (metropolitan area networks), fiber-optic cable, 215. See also WAN (wide area networks)****man-in-the-middle attacks, 416, 455****managed wireless topologies. See infrastructure wireless topologies****managers (SNMP), 83****MD-IDS (misuse-detection intrusion detection systems), 468****MDF (Main Distribution Frame) telecommunications rooms, 236****MDI ports, 148****MDI-X ports, 148, 195****media connections, troubleshooting, 498-501****media connectors**

- BNC connectors, 221
- F-Type connectors, 223
- fiber connectors, 224
- RG-6 connectors, 223
- RG-59 connectors, 223
- RJ-11 connectors, 222
- RJ-45 connectors, 223
- RS-232 standard connectors, 225
- Type A connectors, 226
- Type B connectors, 226
- USB connectors, 226

**media converters, 141-142, 159, 226-227****media interference, 212-213****media testers, 344****memberships, VLAN, 37-38****memory I/O addresses, NIC installations, 142, 144****mesh topologies, 20**

- advantages/disadvantages of, 21
- fault tolerance, 21
- hybrid mesh topologies, 21
- MPLS, 21-22
- redundancy, 20
- troubleshooting, 506
- wireless mesh networks, 25-27

**mget command, 58****MIB (Management Information Bases), 85**

mil top-level domain name (DNS namespace)

**mil top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 78**

**MIMO antennas, 285**

**mirrored stripe sets (RAID 10), 389**

**mirroring (disk), RAID 1, 386-387**

**mirroring (ports), 132**

**mismatched MTU/MUT black holes, troubleshooting, 487-488**

**missing/bad routes, troubleshooting, 488**

**modems, 142, 159**

analog modems, VPN and, 34

broadband modems, 191

cable Internet access, 195-196

MDI-X ports, 195

POTS Internet access, troubleshooting, 199-200

SOHO networks, 171

**modules, troubleshooting, 488**

**MPLS (Multiprotocol Label Switching), 21-22**

**mput command, 58**

**MS-CHAP, 440**

**MS-CHAPv2, 441**

**MSAU (multistation access units), ring topologies, 18**

**MTU (Maximum Transmission Units), 127, 487-488**

**multicasting, 102**

IGMP, 67

IPv6 addressing, 105

**multifactor authentication, 445**

**multifunction devices, 160**

**multilayer switches, 160**

load balancing, 155

OSI model, 156

**multimeters, 345-346**

**multimode fiber-optic cable, 220**

**multiplexing**

DWDM, 183

FDM, 211

OFDM, 274, 287

TDM, 211

WD-PON, 183

**multiport bridges. See switches**

**MX (Mail Exchange) records, reverse lookups, 79**

## N

**NaaS (Network as a Service), 165**

**NAC (Network Access Control), 423**

**name resolution**

DNS and, 75

NetBIOS, 80

**narrowband transmissions, RF channels and, 273**

**NAT (Network Address Translation), 112**

firewalls and, 462

SNAT, 113

**nbtstat command, 351, 369-370**

**net top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 77**

**NetBIOS (Network Basic Input/Output System), name resolution, 80**

**netstat command, 351, 363-364**

netstat -a command, 366

netstat -e command, 365

netstat -r command, 367

netstat -s command, 368-369

**Network Access (Link) layer (TCP/IP four-layer networking model), 50**

**network cards. See NIC**

**Network Interface layer (TCP/IP four-layer networking model), 50**

**network layer (layer 3), OSI seven-layer networking model, 46, 49**

**network usage policies, 314**

**Network+ exam**

allotted test time, 2

answers, format of, 5

- certification, receiving, 6
- CompTIA contact information, 6
- exam day recommendations, 5-6
- exam day requirements, 6
- exam day rules, 6
- expectations for, 5
- format of, 2
- objectives, 2
  - reviewing (test-taking strategies), 7
  - subobjectives, 2-4
- passing, 6
- questions
  - format of, 5
  - knowledge assessments, 7
- scheduling, 4
- strategies for taking, 6-7
- success, determining, 6

### **Network+ exam cram**

- Cram Sheet, 1, 5
- Exam Alerts, 1
- Exam Tips and Notes sections, 6
- organization of, 1, 5

### **network-wide addresses, IP addressing, 106**

#### **networking models**

- OSI seven-layer model, 43-44
  - application layer (layer 7), 48-49
  - data link layer (layer 2), 46, 49
  - mapping network devices to, 50
  - network layer (layer 3), 46, 49
  - physical layer (layer 1), 45, 49
  - presentation layer (layer 6), 48-49
  - session layer (layer 5), 47, 49
  - summary of, 49
- TCP/IP four-layer networking model comparisons, 49-50
- transport layer (layer 4), 47, 49

- TCP/IP four-layer model, 43
  - Application layer, 50
  - Network Access (Link) layer, 50
  - Network Interface layer, 50
  - OSI seven-layer model comparisons, 49-50
  - Transport layer, 50

#### **networks**

- ad hoc wireless networks, 11
- administration
  - command-line utilities, 351-376
  - documentation, 303-318
  - network configuration, 324
  - network maintenance, 324
  - network management tools, 323
  - performance monitoring, 322-335
  - remote management, 324
  - security monitoring, 324
  - tools, 338-347
- applications, documentation, 306
- baselines, 313-314
- centralized computing networks, 14
- client/server networks, 13-14
- coaxial networks, connecting to, 498
- command-line utilities
  - arp command, 351, 360-361
  - arp ping command, 351, 362-363
  - dig command, 351, 375-376
  - host command, 351, 376
  - ifconfig command, 351, 372-373
  - ipconfig command, 351, 370-372
  - nbtstat command, 351, 369-370
  - netstat command, 351, 363-369
  - nslookup command, 351, 373-374
  - ping command, 351, 355-360
  - route command, 351, 376
  - tracert command, 351-355
  - tracert command, 351-355
- configuring, 324

- demarcation points, 237-238
- distributed networks, 14
- downtime, 383-384
- Ethernet networks, 486
- failures
  - costs of, 382-383
  - hardware, 384-385
- hardware, documentation, 306
- hybrid home networks, IEEE 1905, 212
- ISDN
  - BRI, 179
  - PRI, 179
  - WAN configurations, 178-179, 187
- LAN, 10
  - IEEE 802.11 networking standards, 244-255
  - infrastructure wireless topologies, 22
  - LAN-to-LAN internetworking, 33
  - PAT and, 113
  - VLAN, 503-504
  - WLAN, security, 289
- logical network diagrams, 310, 312-313
- maintenance, 324
- MAN, fiber-optic cable, 215. *See also* WAN
- management tools, fault detection, 323
- monitoring procedures, 316
- network qualification testers, 346
- optimization
  - caching engines, 409-410
  - costs of failure, 382-383
  - disaster recovery, 397-404
  - downtime, 383-384
  - fault tolerance, 382-394
  - hardware failures, 384-385
  - QoS, 407-408
  - traffic shaping, 408-409
- peer-to-peer networks, 12-14
- performance monitoring, 322-323
  - application logs, 333, 335
  - event logs, 331-335
  - history logs, 334-335
  - LM, 335
  - load testing, 330
  - packet sniffers, 324-325
  - performance tests, 329-330
  - port scanners, 327-329
  - security logs, 332, 335
  - stress tests, 330
  - syslog, 334
  - system logs, 334
  - systems logs, 335
  - throughput testing, 325, 327
- perimeter networks. *See* DMZ
- physical network diagrams, 310-311
- policies, 314-315
- PON, 183
- private IPv4 networks, 98-99
- procedures, 315-316
  - documentation (administration), 306
- PSTN Internet access, 200
- PtMP networks, 25
- PtP networks, 24
- public IPv4 networks, 98
- remote management, 324
- security
  - access control, 418-421, 425-426
  - accounting, 431, 439-440
  - antivirus software, 456-457
  - auditing events, 431
  - authentication, 429-436, 439-441, 445

- authorization, 429-430, 439-440
- back door attacks, 455
- biometrics, 445
- CHAP, 441
- Citrix ICA, 425
- DMZ (perimeter networks), 466-467
- DoS attacks, 452-454
- EAP, 441
- eavesdropping attacks, 454
- encryption, 436-439
- evil twin attacks, 455
- firewalls, 460-466
- FTP bounce attacks, 455
- honeynets, 470
- honeypots, 469-470
- IDS, 468-469
- IPS, 468
- ISAKMP, 415
- Kerberos authentication, 433-436
- least privilege concept, 421
- lock and key, 443-444
- MAC filtering, 425-426
- man-in-the-middle attacks, 416, 455
- MS-CHAP, 440
- MS-CHAPv2, 441
- multifactor authentication, 445
- NAC, 423
- PAP, 441
- password attacks, 454
- passwords, 432-433
- patches, 457
- phishing attacks, 456
- physical security, 443-445
- PIN pads, 444-445
- PKI, 436-439
- posture assessments, 424
- PPP, 422
- PPPoE, 423
- preventing attacks, 456-457
- privileges, 421
- RADIUS, 439-440
- RAS, 421
- RDP, 424
- remote-access protocols, 421-423
- remote-control protocols, 424
- rogue AP, 455
- secured versus unsecured protocols table, 442
- social engineering attacks, 454
- spoofing attacks, 455
- SSH, 424
- swipe cards, 444-445
- TACACS+, 440
- TCP/IP filtering, 426
- Trojan horses, 451-452
- tunneling, 415-418
- two-factor authentication, 445
- updating, 457
- viruses, 450-452, 456-457, 461
- VPN, 414
- VPN concentrators, 469
- vulnerability scanners, 470
- war chalking, 455-456
- war driving, 455
- WEP cracking, 455
- wireless networks, 455-456
- worms, 451-452
- WPA cracking, 455
- security monitoring, 324
- self-healing networks, 27
- services, documentation, 306
- SOHO networks, 168
  - configuring, 169
  - Internet service providers and, 172
  - modems, 171



## networks

- point of demarcation, 172-173
- routing, 169, 173
- wiring, 169, 171
- token ring networks, 246
- tools, 338
  - butt sets, 346
  - cable certifiers, 344
  - environmental monitors, 341
  - media testers, 344
  - multimeters, 345-346
  - network qualification testers, 346
  - optical cable testers, 345
  - OTDR, 345
  - protocol analyzers, 343-344
  - punchdown tools, 340
  - snips, 339
  - strippers, 339
  - TDR, 344
  - toner probes, 342-343
  - voltage event recorders, 340
  - Wi-Fi detectors, 347
  - wire crimpers, 339
- topologies
  - convergence, 125
  - documentation (administration), 305
  - mesh topologies, 506
  - star topologies, 505-506
  - troubleshooting, 504-506
- troubleshooting
  - black holes, 487-488
  - broadcast storms, 487
  - DNS, 490
  - duplicate IP addresses, 489
  - gateways, 489
  - ipconfig command, 371
  - mismatched MTU/MUT black holes, 487-488
  - missing/bad routes, 488
  - modules, 488
  - ping command, 359-360
  - port configuration, 487
  - power failures, 488
  - proxy ARP, 486
  - routing loops, 486
  - routing problems, 486
  - subnet masks, 489
  - switching loops, 486
- twisted-pair networks, connecting to, 499
- VLAN, 35-36
  - 802.1Q IEEE specification, 36
  - administration, 36
  - advantages/disadvantages of, 36
  - MAC address-based VLAN memberships, 37-38
  - memberships, 37-38
  - organization, 36
  - performance, 36
  - port-based VLAN memberships, 37
  - protocol-based VLAN memberships, 37
  - security, 36
  - segmentation, 38
  - troubleshooting, 503-504
- VPN, 32, 414
  - access methods, 34
  - advantages/disadvantages of, 34-35
  - analog modems and, 34
  - cable connections and, 34
  - clients, 34
  - components of connections, 33-34
  - cost, 34
  - dedicated broadband connections and, 34
  - DSL connections and, 34
  - encryption, 34

- ISDN and, 34
- L2TP and, 34
- LAN-to-LAN internetworking, 33
- PPTP, 34, 415
- reliability, 35
- remote access, 33
- scalability, 35
- security, 35
- servers, 34
- VPN concentrators, 469
- wireless connections and, 34
- WAN, 11, 175-176. *See also* MAN
  - ATM, 186-187
  - circuit switching, 177-178
  - Frame Relay, 184-185, 187
  - ISDN, 178-179, 187
  - packet switching, 176-177
  - PSTN Internet access, 200
  - SONET, 182-183, 187
  - T-carrier lines, 180-181, 187
  - X.25, 183-184, 187
- wireless mesh networks, 25-27
- wireless networks, 259
  - 802.11 wireless standards, 284, 286-287
  - 802.11a wireless standard, 271, 285-286
  - 802.11b wireless standard, 285-286
  - 802.11b/g wireless standard (IEEE), 269-270
  - 802.11g wireless standard, 285, 287
  - 802.11n wireless standard, 270, 285-287
  - antennas, 263-268, 279, 285, 299
  - AP, 259-264, 272, 276-277
  - beacons, 272-273
  - BSA, 263
  - BSS, 262
  - BSSID, 262
  - configuring connections, 278, 281-282
  - data rates, 271-272
  - ESS, 262
  - ESSID, 262
  - establishing communication between wireless devices, 275-278, 298-300
  - infrared wireless networking, 274-275
  - infrastructure wireless networks, 261
  - interference, 300-301
  - OFDM, 274, 287
  - repeaters, 264
  - RF channels, 268-271, 273, 277, 281, 299
  - security, 262, 290-295
  - spread spectrum technology, 273-274, 287
  - SSID, 262, 272, 277-278, 281, 300
  - throughput, 271-272
  - time stamps, 272
  - troubleshooting, 298-300
  - war chalking, 455-456
  - war driving, 455
  - WEP cracking, 455
  - WLAN, 260-261
  - WPA cracking, 455
  - WLAN security, 289
  - WPAN, 11
- new user procedures, 316**
- newsgroups, NNTP, 66**
- NEXT (Near End Crosstalk), troubleshooting, 492. *See also* crosstalk**

NIC (network interface cards)

**NIC (network interface cards), 142, 159**

- activity lights, 143
- DSL Internet access, troubleshooting, 194
- installing, 143
  - built-in network interfaces, 144
  - drivers, 144
  - IRQ, 142, 144
  - media compatibility, 142
  - memory I/O addresses, 142, 144
  - slot availability, 144
  - software configuration utilities, 144
  - system bus compatibility, 142
- link lights, 143
- MAC addresses, viewing, 111
- OSI seven-layer networking model, mapping to, 50
- speed lights, 143

**NID (Network Interface Devices). See smart jacks**

**NIDS (network-based intrusion detection systems), 468**

**NMS (Network Management System), 83**

**NNTP (Network News Transport Protocol), 66, 70**

**nodes, defining, 246**

**nonoverlapping channels (wireless), 268-269**

**nonoverwriting viruses, 451**

**NS (Name Server) records, 79**

**nslookup command, 351, 373-374**

**NTP (Network Time Protocol), 65-66, 70**

## O

**objectives (Network+ exam), 2**

- reviewing (test-taking strategies), 7
- subobjectives, 2-4

**octets (IP addressing), 95, 138**

**OCx (Optical Carrier) levels**

- SONET, 182, 187
- transmission rates table, 182

**OFDM (Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing), 274, 287**

**office space, disaster recovery, 404**

**offsite datacenters, onsite datacenters versus, 164**

**offsite storage, backup strategies, 401**

**OLT (optical line termination), PON, 183**

**omnidirectional antennas, 265-266**

**one-way satellite systems, 191, 201**

**onsite datacenter, offsite datacenters versus, 164**

**ONU (optical network units), PON, 183**

**open authentication (wireless device communication), 277**

**open impedance mismatch (echo), troubleshooting, 494**

**open/short faults, troubleshooting, 494**

**OpenStack open source project, 165**

**optical cable testers, 345**

**optimization**

- caching engines, 409-410
- disaster recovery, 397
  - best practices, 401
  - cold recovery sites, 403-404
  - cold spares, 402
  - cold swapping, 402
  - differential backups, 398-400
  - full backups, 398, 400
  - hot recovery sites, 403-404
  - hot spares, 401-402
  - hot swapping, 401-402
  - incremental backups, 399-400
  - tape rotations, 400

- warm recovery sites, 404
- warp swaps, 403
- downtime, 383-384
- failures
  - costs of, 382-383
  - hardware, 384-385
- fault tolerance, 382-384
  - adapter teaming, 392-393
  - CARP, 393
  - hard disks, 385
  - link redundancy, 392-393
  - primary function of, 385
  - RAID, 384
    - RAID 0, 386, 390
    - RAID 1, 386-387, 390
    - RAID 5, 387-390
    - RAID 10, 389-390
  - server clustering, 391-392
  - standby servers, 390
  - UPS, 393-394
- QoS, 407-408
- traffic shaping, 408-409
- org top-level domain name (DNS namespace), 77**
- organizing**
  - Network+ exam cram, organization of, 1, 5
  - Network+ exam format, 2
  - VLAN, 36
- OSI (Open Systems Interconnect) seven-layer networking model, 43-44**
  - application layer (layer 7), 48-49
  - bridges, 141
  - data link layer (layer 2), 46, 49
  - Layer 3 addresses, 37
  - multilayer switches, 156
  - network devices, mapping to OSI model, 50
  - network layer (layer 3), 46, 49

PAD (packet assembler/disassembler)

- physical layer (layer 1), 45, 49
- presentation layer (layer 6), 48-49
- session layer (layer 5), 47, 49
- summary of, 49
- switches, 148
- TCP/IP four-layer networking model comparisons, 49-50
- transport layer (layer 4), 47-49
- wireless AP, 150

### **OSPF (Open Shortest Path First)**

- link-state routing, 126
- network layer (layer 3), OSI seven-layer networking model, 46

### **OTDR (optical time domain reflectometers), 345**

**overlapping channels (wireless), troubleshooting, 269**

**overwriting viruses, 451**

**ownership policies, 315**

## **P**

---

**packet sniffers, 324-325**

**packet switching**

- ATM, 186-187
- datagram packet switching, 177
- Frame Relay, 184-187
- independent routing, 176
- virtual-circuit packet switching, 176-177
- WAN configurations, 176-177
- X.25, 183-184, 187

**packet-filtering**

- firewalls, 463-465
- implicit denies, 464
- IP addresses, 463
- MAC addresses, 464
- port numbers, 463
- protocol identification, 464

**PAD (packet assembler/disassembler), 184**

**PAP, 441****passing exams, determining, 6****passive scanning (beacons), 272****passwords**

attacks using, 454

expiration dates, 432

modems, troubleshooting POTS  
Internet access, 200

policies, 432

reusing, 432

strength of, 433

**PAT (Port Address Translation), 113****patch panels, 234****patches (security), 457****PBX (private branch exchanges),  
virtual, 164****peer-to-peer networks, 12-14****performance**

clustering, 391

VLAN, 36

**performance monitoring, 322-323**

event logs, 331

application logs, 333, 335

history logs, 334-335

LM, 335

security logs, 332, 335

syslog, 334

system logs, 334-335

load testing, 330

packet sniffers, 324-325

performance tests, 329-330

port scanners, 327-329

stress tests, 330

throughput testing, 325, 327

**performance tests, 329-330****perimeter networks. See DMZ****permanent cable. See horizontal  
cabling****personal information, scheduling  
exams, 4****personal software policies, 315****phishing attacks, 456****phone numbers, exam scheduling  
requirements, 4****photo IDs, exam day requirements, 6****physical addresses. See MAC  
addresses****physical layer (layer 1), OSI seven-  
layer networking model, 45, 49****physical network diagrams, 310-311****physical security, adding to networks,  
443**

biometrics, 445

lock and key, 443-444

PIN pads, 444-445

swipe cards, 444-445

**physical topologies**

defining, 16

physical bus topologies, 17

**PIDS (protocol-based intrusion detec-  
tion systems), 469****PIN pads (physical security), 444-445****ping command, 351, 355-356**

error messages

Destination host unreachable  
error messages, 356

Expired TTL error messages, 358

Request timed out error messages,  
357-358Unknown host error messages,  
358

troubleshooting via, 359-360

**ping floods, 454****ping of death attacks, 453****PKI (Public Key Infrastructure), 436**

asymmetric key encryption, 437

CA, 436

certificate templates, 436

certificates, 436

confidentiality, 438

CRL, 436

- digital certificates, 439
- digital signatures, 438
- private key encryption, 437
- public key encryption, 437
- secure email, 439
- symmetric key encryption, 437
- uses of, 438
- web security, 438
- plans of action, establishing (troubleshooting procedures), 479-480**
- plenum cable, 221**
- plugs. See loopback cabling**
- PoE (Power over Ethernet), 129**
- point of demarcation, SOHO networks, 172-173**
- poison reverses, 125**
- polarization (antennas), 267**
- policies, 314-315. See also regulations**
- polymorphic viruses, 450**
- PON (passive optical networks), 183**
- POP3 (Post Office Protocol – version 3), 61, 70**
- port numbers, packet-filtering, 463**
- port scanners, 327-329**
- port-based VLAN memberships, 37**
- ports**
  - authentication, 132
  - blocked ports, BPDU messages, 131
  - client configurations, troubleshooting, 502
  - configuring, troubleshooting, 487
  - disabled ports, BPDU messages, 131
  - forwarding ports, BPDU messages, 131
  - hub ports, 148
  - learning ports, BPDU messages, 131
  - listening ports, BPDU messages, 131
  - MDI ports, 148
  - MDI-X ports, 148
  - mirroring, 132
  - straight-through cables, 148
  - switch ports, 148
  - TCP/UDP ports
    - assigning, 117-118
    - broadband security, 197
- posture assessments, 424**
- POTS (plain old telephone system) Internet access, 198**
  - ADSL and, 192
  - troubleshooting, 198
    - dial tones, 199
    - ISP, 199
    - modems, 199-200
    - phone numbers, 199
    - physical connections, 199
- power failures, troubleshooting, 488**
- PPP, 422**
- PPPoE (Point-to-Point Protocol over Ethernet), 423**
- PPTP (Point-to-Point Tunneling Protocol), 34, 415-416**
- practice exams**
  - exam 1
    - answers, 537-559
    - questions, 513-535
  - exam 2
    - answers, 585-606
    - questions, 561-584
- presentation layer (layer 6), OSI seven-layer networking model, 48-49**
- preset connection time limits (modems), troubleshooting POTS Internet access, 200**
- PRI (Primary Rate Interface), ISDN (Integrated Services Digital Networks), 179**
- primary server configurations, 391**
- printing, route print command, 364, 367, 377**
- priority queuing (QoS), 408**

priority traffic shaping

**priority traffic shaping, 409**

**private IPv4 networks, 98-99**

**private key encryption, 437**

**private network addresses, IP addressing, 106**

**privileges (network security), least privilege, 421**

**probable cause (troubleshooting procedures)**

establishing theory of, 478

testing theory, 479

**procedures, 315**

backup procedures, 316

documentation (administration), 306

network monitoring procedures, 316

new user procedures, 316

remote-access procedures, 316

security procedures, 316

software procedures, 316

violations (security), reporting, 316

**propagation time, satellite Internet access, 202**

**protocol-based VLAN memberships, 37**

**protocols, 53**

AH, IPSec and, 417

APIDS, 469

ARP, 63-65, 70

BGP, distance-vector routing, 124

BOOTP, 109

cable Internet access configurations, troubleshooting, 196

CARP, 393

CCMP, 293

CHAP, 441

Citrix ICA, 425

connection-oriented protocols, 54-55

connectionless protocols, 54-55

DHCP, 88-89

DNS suffixes, 90

dynamic addressing, 107

process of, 89-90

reservations, 89

DSL Internet access, troubleshooting, 194

EAP, 292, 441

EGP, 127

EIGRP, distance-vector routing, 124

ESP, IPSec and, 417

FTP, 57-58, 69, 442

HTTP, 60, 70, 442

HTTPS, 60, 70, 438, 442

ICMP, 63, 70

identifying, packet-filtering, 464

IGMP, 67, 70

IGP, 127

IMAP4, 61, 70

IP, 55, 69, 106

IPSec, 417-418

IS-IS, link-state routing, 126

ISAKMP, 415, 442

L2TP, 416

LDAP, 66, 70

MS-CHAP, 440

MS-CHAPv2, 441

NNTP, 66, 70

NTP, 65-66, 70

OSPF

link-state routing, 126

network layer (layer 3), OSI seven-layer networking model), 46

PAP, 441

PIDS, 469

POP3, 61, 70

PPTP, 415-416

protocol analyzers, 343-344

- RADIUS, 439-440
  - RARP, 65, 70
  - RCP, 442
  - RDP, 424
  - remote-access protocols, 421-423
  - remote-control protocols, 424
  - RIP
    - distance-vector routing, 124
    - network layer (layer 3), OSI seven-layer networking model, 46
  - RIPv2, distance-vector routing, 124
  - RSH, 442
  - RTP, 68-69, 71
  - SCP, 66, 70, 442
  - secured versus unsecured protocols table, 442
  - SFTP, 58-59, 69, 442
  - SIP, 68, 71
  - SMTP, 59-60, 70
  - SNMP, 82
    - agents, 84
    - communities, 85-86
    - components of, 83
    - management systems, 83-84
    - managers, 83
    - MIB, 85
    - SNMPv3, 86
    - trap managers, 84
  - SNMPv1, 442
  - SNMPv2, 442
  - SNMPv3, 442
  - SSH, 62, 70, 424, 442
  - SSL, 438
  - TACACS+, 440
  - TCP, 55-56, 69
    - ACK messages, 56
    - network layer (layer 3), OSI seven-layer networking model), 47
    - SYN messages, 56
    - TCP three-way handshake, 56
  - Telnet, 62, 70, 442
  - TFTP, 59, 69
  - TKIP, 292
  - TLS, 67, 71, 438, 442
  - UDP, 56-57, 69
    - network layer (layer 3), OSI seven-layer networking model), 47
    - RTP and, 68
  - VTP, 132
  - proxy ARP, troubleshooting, 486**
  - proxy servers, 156, 160**
    - ACL, 158
    - caching, 157
    - client requests, filtering, 157
  - PSTN (public switched telephone networks) Internet access, 200**
  - PtMP (point-to-multipoint) networks, 25**
  - PtP (point-to-point) networks, 24**
  - PTR (Pointer) records, reverse lookups, 78-79**
  - public IPv4 networks, 98**
  - public key encryption, 435, 437**
  - punchdown tools, 235, 340**
  - put command, 58**
  - PVC (permanent virtual circuits), Frame Relay connections, 184-185**
- ## Q
- 
- QoS (Quality of Service), 407-408**
  - questions**
    - format of, Network+ exams, 5
    - knowledge assessments, 7
    - practice exam 1, 513-535
    - practice exam 2, 561-584
  - queuing (priority), QoS, 408**



## R

---

**RADIUS, 439-440**

**RADSL (Rate-Adaptive DSL) Internet access, 192-193**

**RAID, 384**

**RAID 0, 386, 390**

**RAID 1, 386-387, 390**

**RAID 5, 387-390**

**RAID 10, 389-390**

**rain fade, 202**

**RARP (Reverse Address Resolution Protocol), 65, 70**

**RAS (Remote Access Service), 421**

**RBAC (rule-based access control), 420**

**RCP, 442**

**RDP (Remote Desktop Protocol), 424**

**reassociation (wireless device communication), 276**

**redundancy, mesh topologies, 20**

**redundant paths, avoiding, 131**

**regulations, 318. See also policies**

**reliability**

VPN, 35

wireless mesh networks, 27

**remote access**

RADIUS, 439-440

TACACS+, 440

VPN, 33

**remote administration, virtual desktops, 163**

**remote alarms (smart jacks), 238**

**remote authentication, 440-441**

**remote management, 324**

**remote-access procedures, 316**

**remote-access protocols, 421**

NAC, 423

PPP, 422

PPPoE, 423

RAS, 421

**remote-control protocols, 424**

**repeaters (wireless), AP and, 264**

**Request timed out error messages, 357-358**

**reservations, DHCP, 89**

**resident viruses, 450**

**resolvers (DNS clients), DNS and, 75**

**reusing passwords, 432**

**reverse lookups, DNS and, 78**

**RF amplifiers, AP and, 264**

**RF channels (wireless), 268, 270**

802.11a wireless standard (IEEE), 271

802.11b/g wireless standard (IEEE), 269-270

802.11n wireless standard (IEEE), 270

frequency hopping, 273

narrowband transmissions, 273

nonoverlapping channels, 268-269

overlapping channels, 269

troubleshooting, 269, 299

wireless connections, configuring, 281

wireless device communication, 277

**RF interference**

antennas (wireless), 267

DSSS and, 274

wireless networks, 300-301

**RFC (requests for comment), 54**

RFC 768 (UDP), 56

RFC 791 (IP), 55

RFC 792 (ICMP), 63

RFC 793 (IP), 55

RFC 821 (SMTP), 59

RFC 826 (ARP), 63

RFC 854 (Telnet), 62

RFC 903 (RARP), 65

RFC 958 (NTP), 65

RFC 959 (FTP), 57

RFC 977 (NNTP), 66  
 RFC 1350 (TFTP), 59  
 RFC 1731 (IMAP4), 61  
 RFC 1939 (POP3), 61  
 RFC 2068 (HTTP), 60  
 RFC 2131 (DHCP), 88

**RG-6 connectors, 223****RG-59 connectors, 223****ring topologies**

advantages/disadvantages of, 18-19  
 logical ring topologies, 18  
 MSAU, 18

**RIP (Routing Information Protocol)**

distance-vector routing, 124  
 network layer (layer 3), OSI seven-layer networking model), 46

**RIPv2 (Routing Information Protocol version 2), distance-vector routing, 124****risers, 491****RJ-11 connectors, 222****RJ-45 connectors, 223****RoBAC (role-based access control), 420-421****rollover cabling, 230****rouge AP (access points), 455****route command, 351****routing, 159**

AP as routers, 149  
 bandwidth as routing metric, 127  
 broadband routers, 191  
 convergence, 125  
 costs, 127  
 distance-vector routing, 123-124  
 EGP, 127  
 hop counts, 127  
 IGP, 127  
 independent routing, 176  
 latency, 127

link-state routing, 126

loops, avoiding, 131

LSA, 126

mapping to OSI seven-layer networking model, 50

metrics, 127

missing/bad routes, troubleshooting, 488

MTU, 127

multilayer switches, 156

PoE, 129

poison reverses, 125

problems, troubleshooting, 486

redundant paths, avoiding, 131

route command, 376

route print command, 364, 367, 377

router operation, 145

routers, troubleshooting, 497

routing loops, 125, 486

SOHO networks, 169, 173

SOHO routers, 145

split horizons, 125

STP, 130

switching loops, 130

TCP/IP routing, 120

default gateways, 120

dynamic routing, 123-124, 126

routing tables, 121

static routing, 122

wireless connections, configuring, 278

wireless networks, troubleshooting, 299

**RS-232 standard connectors, 225****RSH, 442****RTP (Real-time Transport Protocol), 68-71**

-s command switch (ARP)

## S

**-s command switch (ARP), 64**

**SaaS (Software as a Service), 165**

**sags (power), UPS and, 394**

**satellite Internet access, 201**

- latency, 201-202
- one-way satellite systems, 191, 201
- propagation time, 202
- troubleshooting, 202
- two-way satellite systems, 191, 201

**scalability**

- clustering, 392
- VPN, 35
- wireless mesh networks, 27

**scanning, vulnerability scanners, 470**

**scheduling**

- exams, 4
- virus scanning (antivirus software), 456

**schematics (wiring), 307-310**

**scopes, 88**

**SCP (Secure Copy Protocol), 66, 70, 442**

**SDH (Synchronous Digital Hierarchy), SONET and, 182**

**SDSL (Symmetric Digital Subscriber Line) Internet access, 192-193**

**secure email, PKI and, 439**

**security**

- access control, 418
  - ACE, 419
  - ACL, 419, 425-426
  - DAC, 419
  - MAC, 419, 425-426
  - RBAC, 420
  - RoBAC, 420-421
  - TCP/IP filtering, 426
- accounting, 431
  - RADIUS, 439-440
  - TACACS+, 440

ACL, 158

AP, 262

auditing events, 431

authentication, 429-430, 440-441

CHAP, 441

EAP, 441

Kerberos authentication, 433-436

MS-CHAP, 440

MS-CHAPv2, 441

multifactor authentication, 445

PAP, 441

passwords, 432-433

RADIUS, 439-440

remote authentication, 440-441

TACACS+, 440

two-factor authentication, 445

WPA, 292

authorization, 429-430

RADIUS, 439-440

TACACS+, 440

back door attacks, 455

broadband Internet access, 197

CCMP, 293

CHAP, 441

DMS (perimeter networks), 466-467

DoS attacks, 452-454

EAP, 441

eavesdropping attacks, 454

email, 197

encryption

asymmetric key encryption, 437

PKI, 436-439

private key encryption, 437

public key encryption, 437

symmetric key encryption, 437

TKIP, 292

evil twin attacks, 455

- firewalls, 197, 460-461, 466
  - application layer firewalls, 465-466
  - bandwidth management, 462
  - circuit-level firewalls, 465-466
  - content filtering, 461
  - features of, 461-462
  - NAT, 462
  - packet-filtering firewalls, 463-465
  - signature identification, 461
  - stateful firewalls, 462-463
  - stateless firewalls, 462-463
  - URL filtering, 462
  - virus scanning, 461
- FTP bounce attacks, 455
- honeynets, 470
- honeypots, 469-470
- ICMP flood attacks, 362
- IDS, 468-469
- IPS, 468
- ISAKMP, 415
- man-in-the-middle attacks, 455
- monitoring, 324
- MS-CHAP, 440
- MS-CHAPv2, 441
- multifactor authentication, 445
- PAP, 441
- passwords, attacks using, 454
- patches, 457
- phishing attacks, 456
- physical security, 443
  - biometrics, 445
  - lock and key, 443-444
  - PIN pads, 444-445
  - swipe cards, 444-445
- PKI, 436
  - asymmetric key encryption, 437
  - CA, 436
  - certificate templates, 436
  - certificates, 436
  - confidentiality, 438
  - CRL, 436
  - digital certificates, 439
  - digital signatures, 438
  - private key encryption, 437
  - public key encryption, 437
  - secure email, 439
  - symmetric key encryption, 437
  - uses of, 438
  - web security, 438
- posture assessments, 424
- preventing attacks, strategies for, 456-457
- privileges, least privilege concept, 421
- procedures, 316
- RADIUS, 439-440
- remote authentication, 440-441
- remote-access protocols, 421-423
- remote-control protocols, 424
- rogue AP, 455
- secured versus unsecured protocols table, 442
- social engineering attacks, 454
- spoofing attacks, 455
- SSID, 262
- TACACS+, 440
- TCP/UDP ports, 197
- threat management, man-in-the-middle attacks, 416
- TKIP, 292
- Trojan horses, 451-452
- tunneling
  - client-to-site tunneling, 418
  - IPSEC, 417-418
  - L2TP, 416
  - PPTP, 415-416
  - site-to-site tunneling, 418

## security

- two-factor authentication, 445
- updating, 457
- violations, reporting, 316
- viruses, 450-452
  - antivirus software, 456-457
  - scanning for, 456-457, 461
- VLAN, 36
- VPN, 35, 414
- VPN concentrators, 158, 469
- vulnerability scanners, 470
- war chalking, 455-456
- war driving, 455
- WEP cracking, 455
- wireless connections, configuring, 278
- wireless device communication, 277-278
- wireless networks
  - WEP, 290-291, 300
  - WPA, 292
  - WPA Enterprise, 294-295
  - WPA2, 293
- WLAN, 289
- worms, 451-452
- WPA cracking, 455
- security logs, 332, 335**
- segmentation**
  - transport layer (layer 4), 47
  - VLAN, 38
- self-healing networks, wireless mesh networks, 27**
- server farms, 391**
- server rooms, vertical cabling, 233**
- server-side content filters, 155**
- servers**
  - authentication servers (802.1X wireless standard), 294
  - clustering, fault tolerance, 391-392
  - configuring, documentation, 306
  - DHCP servers, 138-139, 160
  - DNS servers, 160
    - load balancing, 155
    - TCP/IP client configurations, 501
  - primary server configurations, 391
  - proxy servers, 156, 160
    - ACL, 158
    - caching, 157
    - filtering client requests, 157
  - standby servers, fault tolerance, 390
  - virtual servers, 163
- service addressing, transport layer (layer 4), 47**
- services (networks), documentation, 306**
- session layer (layer 5), OSI seven-layer networking model, 47, 49**
- session layer firewalls. See circuit-level firewalls**
- SFTP (Secure File Transfer Protocol), 58-59, 69, 442**
- shaping traffic, 408-409**
- shared bandwidth, cable Internet access, 196**
- shared key authentication (wireless device communication), 277**
- signal amplification**
  - AP and, 264
  - smart jacks, 238
- signature identification, firewalls and, 461**
- signature-based IDS (intrusion detection systems), 468**
- simplex mode cabling, 212**
- single-mode fiber-optic cable, 220**
- SIP (Session Initiation Protocol), 68, 71**
- site-local addresses, 105**
- site-to-site tunneling, 418**
- smart jacks, 238**
- SmartFTP, 57**

**SMTP (Simple Mail Transfer Protocol), 59-60, 70**

**Smurf attacks, 453**

**SNAT (Static NAT), 113**

**snips (wire), 339**

**SNMP (Simple Network Management Protocol), 82**

agents, 84

communities, 85-86

components of, 83

management systems, 83-84

managers, 83

MIB, 85

SNMPv3, 86

trap managers, 84

**SNMPv1, 442**

**SNMPv2, 442**

**SNMPv3, 442**

**SOA (Start of Authority) records, 79**

**social engineering attacks, 454**

**Social Security numbers, exam scheduling requirements, 4**

**software**

personal software policies, 315

procedures, 316

**software configuration utilities, NIC installations, 144**

**SOHO networks, 168**

configuring, 169

Internet service providers and, 172

modems, 171

point of demarcation, 172-173

routing, 169, 173

wiring, 169, 171

**SOHO routers, 145**

**solutions, implementing (troubleshooting procedures), 480**

**SONET (Synchronous Optical Network), 182-183, 187, 254**

**sound files, presentation layer (layer 6), 48**

**source quench, ICMP, 63**

**source route bridges, 138**

**speed lights (NIC), 143**

**spikes (power), UPS and, 394**

**split cables, troubleshooting, 495**

**split horizons, 125**

**spoofing attacks, 455**

**spread spectrum technology, 273**

DSSS, 274, 287

FHSS, 273, 287

**SSH (Secure Shell), 62, 70, 424, 442**

**SSID (Service Set Identifiers), 262**

beacons, 272

troubleshooting, 300

wireless connections, configuring, 278, 281

wireless device communication, 277

**SSL (Secure Socket Layer) protocol, 438**

**STA (Spanning Tree Algorithm), 130**

**standby servers, fault tolerance, 390**

**star topologies, 19**

advantages/disadvantages of, 20

hubs, 19

switches, 19

troubleshooting, 505-506

wiring, 505

**stateful configurations (IP), 106**

**stateful firewalls, 462-463**

**stateless configurations (IP), 106**

**stateless firewalls, 462-463**

**static addressing, 107**

**static routing, TCP/IP routing, 122**

**statistics, capturing, 313**

**stealth viruses, 451**

**store-and-forward switching environments, 147**

**STP (Shielded Twisted Pair) cable, 215**

**STP (Spanning Tree Protocol), 130**

**straight-through cabling, 148, 228**

**stress tests, 330****strippers (wire), 339****structure cable. See horizontal cabling****subnet masks**

- IP addressing, 108
- IPv4 assignments, 96
- TCP/IP client configurations, 500-501
- troubleshooting, 489

**subnetting (IPv4), 97-98****subobjectives (Network+ exam), 2-4****supplicants (802.1X wireless standard), 294-295****surface jacks, SOHO network configurations, 169****surge protection (smart jacks), 238****surges (power), UPS and, 394****SVC (switched virtual circuits), Frame Relay connections, 185****swipe cards (physical security), 444-445****switches, 138, 146, 159**

- ARP command switches, 64, 361
- circuit switching, WAN configurations, 177-178
- content switches, 156, 160
- cut-through switching environments, 147
- dip switches, 144
- FragmentFree switching environments, 148
- full-duplex configuration mode, 147
- half-duplex configuration mode, 147
- hub and switch cabling, 148
- ipconfig command, 372
- Layer 3 switches. *See* multilayer switches
- MAC addresses, 146
- MDI ports, 148

## multilayer switches, 160

- load balancing, 155

- OSI model, 156

## nbtstat command, 369-370

## netstat command switches, 363

## nslookup command, 374

## OSI model, 50, 148

## packet switching

- ATM, 186-187
- datagram packet switching, 177
- Frame Relay, 184-187
- independent routing, 176
- virtual-circuit packet switching, 176-177
- WAN configurations, 176-177
- X.25, 183-184, 187

## port authentication, 132

## port mirroring, 132

## route command, 377

## star topologies, 19, 505

## store-and-forward switching environments, 147

## troubleshooting, 497, 505

## trunking, 131

## virtual switches, 163-164

## VLAN trunking, 131

## WAN configurations, 176

- circuit switching, 177-178

- packet switching, 176-177

## wireless connections, configuring, 278

**switching loops, 130, 486****Sylvan Prometric testing service, scheduling exams, 4****symmetric key encryption, 435, 437****symptoms, identifying (troubleshooting procedures), 478****SYN floods, 453****SYN messages, TCP, 56**

**syslog, 334**

**system functionality, verifying (troubleshooting procedures), 481**

**system logs, 334-335**

## T

**T connectors (taps), 17**

**T-carrier lines**

fractional T, 180

T3 lines, 181

WAN configurations, 180-181, 187

**T568A (110 blocks), 235-236**

**T568A wiring standard, 228**

**T568B (110 blocks), 235-236**

**T568B wiring standard, 228**

**TACACS+, 440**

**tape rotations, 400**

**tapes**

backup strategies, 401

cleaning, 401

**taps. See T connectors (taps)**

**TCP (Transfer Control Protocol), 47, 55-56, 69**

**TCP/IP**

client configurations, troubleshoot-  
ing, 499-501

filtering, 426

network connections, IP-related set-  
tings, 108

port assignments, 117-118

routing, 120

default gateways, 120

dynamic routing, 123-126

routing tables, 121

static routing, 122

**TCP/IP four-layer networking model, 43**

Application layer, 50

Network Access (Link) layer, 50

Network Interface layer, 50

OSI seven-layer model comparisons,  
49-50

Transport layer, 50

**TCP/IP protocol stack, loopbacks, 359**

**TCP/IP protocol suite, summary of, 69-71**

**TCP/UDP ports, broadband security, 197**

**TDM (Time Division Multiplexing), 211**

**TDR (time domain reflectometer), 344**

**technical support, troubleshooting  
cable Internet access, 196**

**telecommunications rooms**

110 blocks (T568A, T568B), 235-236

horizontal cabling, 232

IDF telecommunications rooms, 236

MDF telecommunications rooms,  
236

patch panels, 234

vertical cabling, 233

**Telnet, 62, 70, 442**

**temperature**

air conditioning, 342

environmental monitors, 341

HVAC, 342

**templates, PKI certificate templates, 436**

**termination (wiring), verifying, 239-240**

**test-taking strategies, Network+  
exam, 2, 6-7**

**testing theory of probable cause  
(troubleshooting procedures), 479**

**tests. See exams**

**text (data) files, presentation layer  
(layer 6), 48**

**TFTP (Trivial File Transfer Protocol), 59, 69**

**theory of probable cause (trou-  
bleshooting procedures)**

establishing theory, 478

testing theory, 479



thicknet (thick coax) coaxial cable

**thicknet (thick coax) coaxial cable, 218**

**thin client computing, 424**

**thinnest (thin coax) coaxial cable, 218-219**

**threat management (security)**

- antivirus software, 456-457
- back door attacks, 455
- buffer overflows, 453
- DMZ (perimeter networks), 466-467
- DoS attacks, 452-453
- eavesdropping attacks, 454
- evil twin attacks, 455
- firewalls, 460-461, 466
  - application layer firewalls, 465-466
  - bandwidth management, 462
  - circuit-level firewalls, 465-466
  - content filtering, 461
  - features of, 461-462
  - NAT, 462
  - packet-filtering firewalls, 463-465
  - signature identification, 461
  - stateful firewalls, 462-463
  - stateless firewalls, 462-463
  - URL filtering, 462
  - virus scanning, 461
- Fraggle attacks, 453
- FTP bouncing attacks, 455
- honeynets, 470
- honeypots, 469-470
- ICMP floods, 454
- IDS, 468-469
- IPS, 468
- man-in-the-middle attacks, 416, 455
- password attacks, 454
- patches, 457
- phishing attacks, 456
- ping of death attacks, 453

preventing attacks, strategies for, 456-457

rogue AP, 455

security updates, 457

Smurf attacks, 453

social engineering attacks, 454

spoofing attacks, 455

SYN floods, 453

Trojan horses, 451-452

viruses, 450-452, 456-457, 461

VPN concentrators, 469

vulnerability scanners, 470

war chalking, 455-456

war driving, 455

WEP cracking, 455

worms, 451-452

WPA cracking, 455

**three-way handshake (TCP), 56**

**throughput**

testing, 325, 327

wireless networks, 271-272

**tickets, Kerberos authentication, 435-436**

**time**

Network+ exam allotted test time, 2

synchronization, NTP, 65

**time stamps, beacons, 272**

**TKIP (Temporal Key Integrity Protocol), 292**

**TLS (Telnet Layer Security), 71, 442**

**TLS (Transport Layer Security) protocol, 67, 438**

**token ring networks, speed, 246**

**toner probes, 342-343**

**topics (Network+ exam). See objectives**

**topologies**

ad hoc wireless topologies, 22-23

bus topologies, 16-17

convergence, 125

- defining, 16
- documentation (administration), 305
- hybrid mesh topologies, 21
- hybrid topologies, 27
- IEEE 802.3 standard, 249
- infrastructure wireless topologies, 22-23
- logical topologies
  - defining, 16
  - logical ring topologies, 18
- mesh topologies, 20
  - advantages/disadvantages of, 21
  - fault tolerance, 21
  - hybrid mesh topologies, 21
  - MPLS, 21-22
  - redundancy, 20
  - wireless mesh networks, 25-27
- physical topologies
  - defining, 16
  - physical bus topologies, 17
- PtMP network topologies, 25
- PtP network topologies, 24
- ring topologies, 18-19
- star topologies, 19
  - advantages/disadvantages of, 20
  - hubs, 19
  - switches, 19
  - wiring, 505
- troubleshooting, 504
  - mesh topologies, 506
  - star topologies, 505-506
- wireless mesh network topologies, 25-27
- wireless topologies
  - ad hoc wireless topologies, 22-23
  - infrastructure wireless topologies, 22-23
  - mesh network topologies, 25-27
  - PtMP network topologies, 25
  - PtP network topologies, 24

- traceroute command, 351-355**
- tracert command, 123, 351-355**
- traffic shaping, 154, 408-409**
- training, administration, 304**
- translational bridges, 138**
- transmission rates (data), cabling and, 213-214**
- transparent bridges, 138**
- transport layer**
  - OSI seven-layer networking model, 47, 49
  - TCP/IP four-layer networking model, 50
- trap managers, 84**
- Trojan horses, 451-452**
- troubleshooting**
  - antennas (wireless), 263, 267-268, 299
  - AP, 497
  - AP coverage, 263-264
  - bridges, 497
  - buses, 498
  - cable Internet access, 196-197
  - connectivity
    - client connections, 498
    - duplexes, 502
    - media connections, 498-501
    - port speeds, 502
  - documentation (administration), advantages of, 304
  - DSL Internet access, 194
  - hardware, 496-497
  - hubs, 496, 505
  - ipconfig command, 371
  - modems, 196
  - networks
    - black holes, 487-488
    - broadcast storms, 487
    - DNS, 490
    - duplicate IP addresses, 489

## troubleshooting

- gateways, 489
- ipconfig command, 371
- mismatched MTU/MUT black holes, 487-488
- missing/bad routes, 488
- modules, 488
- port configuration, 487
- power failures, 488
- proxy ARP, 486
- routing loops, 486
- routing problems, 486
- subnet masks, 489
- switching loops, 486
- ping command, 359-360
- POTS Internet access, 198
  - dial tones, 199
  - ISP, 199
  - modems, 199-200
  - phone numbers, 199
  - physical connections, 199
- procedures
  - determining changes, 478
  - determining escalation, 480-481
  - documenting findings, 482
  - establishing plans of action, 479-480
  - establishing theory of probable cause, 478
  - identifying the problem, 477-478
  - implementing solutions, 480
  - testing theory of probable cause, 479
  - verifying full system functionality, 481
- RF channels, 269, 299
- routers, 497
- satellite Internet access, 202
- SSID, 300
- switches, 497, 505
- TCP/IP client configurations, 499-501
- topologies, 504
  - mesh topologies, 506
  - star topologies, 505-506
- VLAN, 503-504
- WEP, 300
- wireless networks, 298-300
- wiring, 490-491
  - attenuation, 493
  - bad wiring, 494
  - cable placement, 496
  - connectors, 494
  - crossover cables, 495-496
  - crosstalk, 492-493
  - DB loss, 495
  - determining where cable is used, 491-492
  - EMI, 492-493
  - FEXT, 493
  - interference, 492-493
  - NEXT, 492
  - open impedance mismatch (echo), 494
  - open/short faults, 494
  - schematics, 309
  - split cables, 495
  - TXRX reversed cables, 495-496
- trunking, 131**
- TTL (Time To Live), 358**
- tunneling, 32**
  - client-to-site tunneling, 418
  - IPSec, 417-418
  - L2TP, 416
  - PPTP, 415-416
  - site-to-site tunneling, 418
- twisted pair cable, 214-216**
  - categories of, 216-218
  - longitudinal separators, 217

SOHO network configuration, 171

STP cable, 215

UTP cable, 215

**twisted-pair networks, connecting to, 499**

**two-factor authentication, 445**

**two-way satellite systems, 191, 201**

**TXRX reversed cables, troubleshooting, 495-496**

**Type A connectors, 226**

**Type B connectors, 226**

## U

**UDP (User Datagram Protocol), 56-57, 69**

network layer (layer 3), 47

RTP and, 68

**unicast addresses, 102**

**unicast IPv6 addresses, 105**

**Unknown host error messages, 358**

**unmanaged wireless topologies. See ad hoc wireless topologies**

**updating**

antivirus software, 457

distance-vector routing, 124

documentation, 312

security, 457

**UPS (uninterrupted power supplies), 393-394**

**URL filtering, firewalls and, 462**

**USB (Universal Serial Bus) connectors, 226**

**user account policies, 315**

**UTP (unshielded twisted-pair) cable, 215**

cable Internet access, 195

EMI, 213

## V

**vampire taps. See T connectors (taps)**

**variant viruses, 450**

**VDI (virtual desktop interface), 163**

**VDSL. See VHDSL**

**verifying**

backups, 401

full system functionality (troubleshooting procedures), 481

wiring installation, 239-240

wiring termination, 239-240

**vertical (backbone) cabling, 231, 233**

**vertical (main) cross-connects, 232**

**vetting email, 457**

**VHDSL (Very High Bit Rate DSL) Internet access, 192-193**

**video files, presentation layer (layer 6), 48**

**violations (security), reporting, 316**

**virtual circuits, Frame Relay connections, 184-185**

**virtual desktops, 162-163**

**virtual PBX (private branch exchanges), 164**

**virtual servers, 163**

**virtual switches, 163-164**

**virtual-circuit packet switching, 176-177**

**virtualization, 162**

VLAN, 35-36

administration, 36

advantages/disadvantages of, 36

MAC address-based VLAN memberships, 37-38

memberships, 37-38

organization, 36

performance, 36

port-based VLAN memberships, 37

## virtualization

- protocol-based VLAN memberships, 37

- security, 36

- segmentation, 38

## VPN, 32

- 802.1Q IEEE specification, 36

- access methods, 34

- advantages/disadvantages of, 34-35

- analog modems and, 34

- cable connections and, 34

- clients, 34

- components of connections, 33-34

- cost, 34

- dedicated broadband connections and, 34

- DSL connections and, 34

- encryption, 34

- ISDN and, 34

- L2TP and, 34

- LAN-to-LAN internetworking, 33

- PPTP and, 34

- reliability, 35

- remote access, 33

- scalability, 35

- security, 35

- servers, 34

- wireless connections and, 34

**viruses, 450-452**

- antivirus software, features of, 456-457

- scanning for, 456-457, 461

**VLAN (virtual local area networks), 35-36**

- 802.1Q IEEE specification, 36

- administration, 36

- advantages/disadvantages of, 36

- memberships, 37-38

- organization, 36

- performance, 36

- security, 36

- segmentation, 38

- troubleshooting, 503-504

- trunking, 131

**VoIP (Voice over IP), 68**

- RTP, 68-69

- SIP, 68

- virtual PBX, 164

**voltage event recorders, 340****VPN (virtual private networks), 32, 414**

- access methods, 34

- advantages/disadvantages of, 34-35

- analog modems and, 34

- cable connections and, 34

- clients, 34

- connections, components of, 33-34

- cost, 34

- dedicated broadband connections and, 34

- DSL connections and, 34

- encryption, 34

- ISDN and, 34

- L2TP and, 34

- LAN-to-LAN internetworking, 33

- PPTP, 34, 415

- reliability, 35

- remote access, 33

- scalability, 35

- security, 35

- servers, 34

- wireless connections and, 34

**VPN concentrators, 158, 469****VTP (VLAN Trunking Protocol), 132****VUE testing service, scheduling exams, 4****vulnerability scanners, 470**

## W

**wall jacks, SOHO network configurations, 169**

**WAN (wide area networks), 11, 175.**  
**See also MAN (metropolitan area networks)**

ATM, 186-187

Frame Relay, 184-187

ISDN, 178-179, 187

PSTN Internet access, 200

SONET, 182-183, 187

switching, 176

    circuit switching, 177-178

    packet switching, 176-177

T-carrier lines, 180-181, 187

X.25, 183-184, 187

**WAP (wireless application protocol), 22**

**war chalking, 455-456**

**war driving, 455**

**warm recovery sites (disaster recovery), 404**

**warm swaps, 403**

**WDM-PON (wavelength division multiplexing passive optical networks), 183**

**websites, ACL, 158**

**WEP (Wired Equivalent Privacy), 290-291**

    cracking, 455

    troubleshooting, 300

**Wi-Fi detectors, 347**

**WiMax (Worldwide Interoperability for Microwave Access), 204**

**windowing (flow control), 47**

**WINS (Windows Internet Name Service), 80**

**wireless access points, 149. See also AP (access points)**

    LAN and, 22

    OSI model, 150

**wireless connections, VPN and, 34**

**wireless Internet access, 203**

**wireless mesh networks, 25-27**

**wireless networks, 259**

    802.11 wireless standards (IEEE), 284, 286-287

    802.11a wireless standard (IEEE), 271, 285-286

    802.11b wireless standard (IEEE), 285-286

    802.11b/g wireless standard (IEEE), 269-270

    802.11g wireless standard (IEEE), 285, 287

    802.11n wireless standard (IEEE), 270, 285-287

    antennas, 264

        adjusting, 263

        configuring wireless connections, 279

        directional antennas, 266

        gain values, 265

        interference, 267

        MIMO antennas, 285

        omnidirectional antennas, 265-266

        polarization, 267

        ratings, 265

        replacing, 263

        signal quality, 267

        troubleshooting, 263, 267-268, 299

    AP, 259-261

        beacons, 272

        bridges, 261

        bridges, AP as, 276

        BSA and, 263

        BSS, 262, 276

        BSSID and, 262

        ESS, 262, 276

## wireless networks

- ESSID and, 262
- security, 262
- SSID and, 262
- troubleshooting coverage, 263-264
- wireless device communication, 276-277
- beacons, 272-273
- communication between wireless devices, establishing, 275
  - association, 276
  - authentication, 277
  - reassociation, 276
  - RF channels, 277
  - security, 277-278
  - SSID, 277
  - troubleshooting, 298-300
- connections, configuring, 278, 281-282
- data rates, 271-272
- infrared wireless networking, 274-275
- infrastructure wireless networks, 261
- interference, 300-301
- OFDM, 274, 287
- repeaters, 264
- RF channels, 268, 270
  - 802.11a wireless standard (IEEE), 271
  - 802.11b/g wireless standard (IEEE), 269-270
  - 802.11n wireless standard (IEEE), 270
  - configuring wireless connections, 281
  - frequency hopping, 273
  - narrowband transmissions, 273
  - nonoverlapping channels, 268-269
  - overlapping channels, 269

- troubleshooting, 269, 299
- wireless device communication, 277
- security
  - AP, 262
  - WEP, 290-291, 300
  - WPA, 292
  - WPA Enterprise, 294-295
  - WPA2, 293
- spread spectrum technology, 273
  - DSSS, 274, 287
  - FHSS, 273, 287
- SSID, 262
  - beacons, 272
  - configuring wireless connections, 278, 281
  - troubleshooting, 300
  - wireless device communication, 277
- throughput, 271-272
- time stamps, beacons, 272
- troubleshooting, 298-300
- war chalking, 455-456
- war driving, 455
- WEP cracking, 455
- WLAN, 260-261
- WPA cracking, 455
- wireless topologies**
  - ad hoc wireless topologies, 22-23
  - infrastructure wireless topologies, 22-23
  - mesh network topologies, 25-27
  - PtMP network topologies, 25
  - PtP network topologies, 24
- wiring**
  - 110 blocks (T568A, T568B), 235-236
  - 568A wiring standard, 227
  - 568B wiring standard, 227
  - attenuation, 213, 493
  - bad wiring, troubleshooting, 494

- baseband transmissions, TDM, 211
- broadband transmissions
  - BPL, 211
  - FDM, 211
  - HomePlug Powerline Alliance, 212
  - IEEE 1901, 212
  - IEEE 1905, 212
- cable Internet access, 195
- cable placement, troubleshooting, 496
- coaxial cable, 214, 218-219
- connectors, troubleshooting, 494
- crossover cabling, 148, 228-230, 495-496
- CSU/DSU, 238
- data transmission rates, 213-214
- DB loss, troubleshooting, 495
- demarcation points, 237-238
- EMI, 492-493
- fiber-optic cable, 213-215, 219-221
- full-duplex mode, 212
- half-duplex mode, 212
- horizontal cabling, 231-232
- horizontal cross-connects, 232
- hub and switch cabling, 148
- IDC, 235
- IDF telecommunications rooms, 236
- installation, verifying, 239-240
- intermediate cross-connects, 232
- layouts, documentation (administration), 306
- loopback cabling, 231
- MDF telecommunications rooms, 236
- media connectors
  - BNC connectors, 221
  - F-Type connectors, 223
  - fiber connectors, 224
  - RG-6 connectors, 223
  - RG-59 connectors, 223
  - RJ-11 connectors, 222
  - RJ-45 connectors, 223
  - RS-232 standard connectors, 225
  - Type A connectors, 226
  - Type B connectors, 226
  - USB connectors, 226
- media converters, 141, 226-227
- media interference, 212-213
- NIC installations, 142
- open impedance mismatch (echo), troubleshooting, 494
- open/short faults, troubleshooting, 494
- optical cable testers, 345
- patch panels, 234
- plenum cable, 221
- punchdown tools, 235, 340
- risers, 491
- rollover cabling, 230
- schematics, 307-310
- simplex mode, 212
- smart jacks, 238
- snips, 339
- SOHO networks, 169, 171
- split cables, troubleshooting, 495
- star topologies, 505
- STP cable, 215
- straight-through cabling, 228
- strippers, 339
- switch and hub cabling, 148
- T-carrier lines
  - T3 lines, 181
  - WAN configurations, 180-181, 187
- T568A wiring standard, 228
- T568B wiring standard, 228
- termination, verifying, 239-240



troubleshooting, 490-491

- attenuation, 493
- bad wiring, 494
- cable placement, 496
- connectors, 494
- crossover cables, 495-496
- crosstalk, 492-493
- DB loss, 495
- determining where cable is used, 491-492
- EMI, 492-493
- FEXT, 493
- interference, 492-493
- NEXT, 492
- open impedance mismatch (echo), 494
- open/short faults, 494
- split cables, 495
- TXRX reversed cables, 495-496

twisted pair cable, 214-216

- categories of, 216-218
- longitudinal separators, 217
- STP, 215
- UTP, 215

TXRX reversed cables, troubleshooting, 495-496

UTP cable, 213, 215

vertical (backbone) cabling, 231, 233

vertical (main) cross-connects, 232

wire crimpers, 339

**wiring closets. See telecommunications rooms**

**WISP (Wireless Internet Service Providers), 203**

**WLAN (wireless local area networks), 260**

- AP, 261
- security, 289
- wireless AP, 149

**workgroup hubs, 141**

**worms, 451-452**

**WPA (Wi-Fi Protected Access), 292**

**WPA cracking, 455**

**WPA Enterprise, 294-295**

**WPA2 (Wi-Fi Protected Access version 2), 293**

**WPAN (wireless personal area networks), 11**

## X

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### X.25

- PAD, 184

- WAN configurations, 183-184, 187