

1 Assessing the risk of intercepting VoIP calls

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5 Abstract

6 Voice-over-IP (VoIP) solutions and services for corporate telephony are usually mar-
7 keted as 'cost-free' and 'secure': this paper shows that both statements are false in
8 general. Though being no doubt about the economical benefits resulting from the
9 adoption of VoIP products instead of the standard telephony, hidden costs related
10 to VoIP services security arise whenever a company intends to assure the privacy of
11 its phone conversations. This conclusion is extensively justified in literature and this
12 article aims at reasserting it by analysing the risk that a VoIP phone call may be in-
13 tercepted when travelling across the Internet. The purpose of deriving a well-known
14 conclusion consists in proving that a general and formal risk assessment method
15 can be used in place of ad-hoc methods not only without losing the strength in the
16 results but also adding up a sound mathematical and engineering foundation.

17 *Key words:* VoIP security, Risk assessment

18 1 Introduction

19 Voice-over-IP (VoIP) services have seen a great raise of interest and popularity
20 in recent years, probably because simple yet effective products, i.e. *Skype* [1],
21 have appeared in the market, promising high-quality and low-cost substitutes
22 for the traditional telephony. However, they are beginning to cause a new set
23 of problems, despite being mature enough to partly fulfil these expectations.
24 In this respect, security is undoubtedly the most questionable aspect of VoIP:
25 in the world of traditional telephony, the privacy and security of conversations
26 are guaranteed up to the physical layer of a network; a phone call can be heard
27 by an intruder either by directly listening to the call, i.e. being in the same

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28 room, or by violating the physical security of the phone network itself or its
29 devices, i.e. by putting a phone in parallel on the same line.

30 The problem of VoIP security has been addressed by many researchers in the
31 telecommunication and in the Internet security fields [2–7] (see also Section 6
32 for further discussion), as well as by newspapers, i.e. see [8–10]. What emerges
33 so far is that VoIP security is more than just Internet security because of the
34 service’s distinctive features: a phone call is in fact a real-time communication,
35 thus any external action causing a delay does actually interfere with its normal
36 flow, disturbing what is meant to be observed.

37 The intrinsic security problems are also increased by VoIP technology mar-
38 keting strategies, which have engendered a number of misbeliefs and wrong
39 expectations even impairing the evaluation of the risks connected with the
40 adoption of VoIP-based solutions. In particular, marketing slogans such as
41 ‘a cost-free solution’¹ and ‘a solution as secure as your network’ convey the
42 misleading information according to which VoIP services are both secure and
43 (almost) cost-free, thus evidently underestimating security-related costs and
44 efforts. Hence, despite the presence of mature, stable and solid VoIP products
45 offering important economical benefits, it is to be pointed out how a knowl-
46 edge of the security and privacy risks associated to their use unfortunately is
47 still lacking.

48 In the light of the above sketched considerations, the present paper discusses
49 the application of a simple yet effective formal risk assessment methodology
50 to analyse the risk of intercepting a VoIP phone call traversing the Internet.
51 This situation is perceived as a major threat by those companies moving from
52 traditional telephony to VoIP services as for their internal phone system: the
53 risk analysis will prove that the ‘cost-free solution’ and ‘as secure as your net-
54 work’ slogans are both false, since the adoption of VoIP solutions can involve
55 a factual risk and, all the more, the natural and effective countermeasures
56 aimed at mitigating it, are not cost-free and can even strongly impact on the
57 overall security system of the company network itself.

58 In particular, this article takes into consideration the case of a multi-branched
59 company internally communicating and exchanging information through the
60 Internet: the potential attacker operates in the Internet and her/his goal con-
61 sists in capturing a live conversation between two phones within the private
62 networks. Besides, here it is going to be considered a more specific situation
63 involving four diverse scenarios: an isolated hacker, a malicious Internet Ser-
64 vice Provider (ISP) lying somewhere in the Internet, a malicious ISP on the
65 route of the phone call and, finally, the case of the VoIP traffic travelling
66 in a Virtual Private Network (VPN). The above listed cases are quite com-

¹ This slogan represents an extreme situation, since lots of VoIP-related services actually require the payment of small fees, i.e. a Skype call to a PSTN number.

67 mon in those geographically distributed organisations planning to move from
68 traditional telephony to VoIP.

69 A distinctive and unusual aspect of the present analysis and of the scenar-
70 ios taken into consideration lies in the assumption that the attacks cannot
71 compromise the private networks. Such a postulation has to be regarded as a
72 limitation allowing to confute the slogan ‘as secure as your network’; it will
73 in fact be demonstrated that there is a real risk of intercepting phone calls
74 even presupposing ‘your network’ as being perfectly secure. Moreover, since
75 the attack vectors to break the security of VoIP services inside a private net-
76 work are well studied, see Section 6, ‘internal’ threats are widely covered by
77 the existing literature.

78 However, since it is here taken into account only a subset of the possible
79 threats, aggregating the others (i.e. DNS poisoning, WiFi interception, etc.)
80 as subclasses of general vulnerabilities, the related countermeasures will be
81 general when addressing a class of specific vulnerabilities.

82 Therefore, by expanding the results in [11], where only the scenario of an iso-
83 lated attacker has been accounted for, this essay evaluates in depth the risk of
84 the call interception coming from the Internet. It will be concluded that VoIP
85 solutions are cost-effective and their security can be ensured up to a reason-
86 ably high level; however they are definitely not cost-free and have a significant
87 impact on the overall security of the networks hosting them. It is to be pointed
88 out that these conclusions are well-known when the literature dealing with the
89 same problem is considered. Hence, the novelty of this contribution lies in the
90 way the results are derived.

91 The method allowing us to draw these conclusions on a strong scientific basis is
92 in fact used to analyse a general scenario rather than a specific case. Moreover,
93 this work shows how to draw conclusions from a risk analysis not strictly de-
94 pending on the analysts’ expertise, since diverse experts will achieve equivalent
95 (in a strict mathematical sense, see [15] and Sections 3 and 5) results.

96 Therefore, although the above reported weaknesses are well-known due to a
97 wide number of empirical studies, see Section 6, their structured analysis has
98 been thus far conducted only by means of ad-hoc methods: this paper intends
99 to convey the idea that general and formal risk-assessment methodologies are
100 as suitable as ad-hoc methods, since they lead to the same results, though
101 being simpler to apply because of their standardisation. They even produce
102 sounder results because their reliability is certified by a supporting mathemat-
103 ical theory.

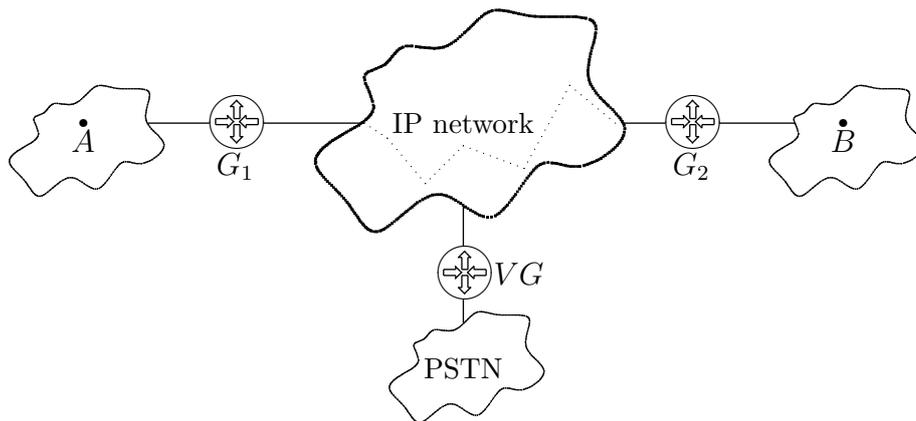


Fig. 1. The VoIP architecture

104 **2 The VoIP architecture**

105 The standard VoIP architecture, see Figure 1, is based on a set of hardware or
 106 software *IP phones* over an IP network; moreover, the IP network, usually the
 107 Internet, can be connected to a traditional phone system (PSTN) by means
 108 of a *VoIP gateway* transforming VoIP calls and conversations into phone calls
 109 to/from a PBX. In addition, the IP phones may benefit from a *voice server*
 110 providing auxiliary support to the VoIP services, i.e. translation from user
 111 names to IP addresses and vice versa.

112 The main components of the architecture are:

- 113 • *IP phone*: a terminal (*A* and *B* in the figure) with native VoIP support and
 114 the possibility to directly connect to an IP network;
- 115 • *VoIP gateway*²: a network device (*VG* in the figure) converting signals
 116 from/to the telephony interfaces (POTS, T1/E1, ISDN, E&M trunks) and
 117 the VoIP protocols;
- 118 • *Voice server*: a network server providing the management and administra-
 119 tive functions with the necessary support to the routing of the calls across
 120 the network; in a system based on H.323, the server is known as the *gate-*
 121 *keeper*; in SIP/SDP, the server is called *SIP server*; in a system based on
 122 MGCP or MEGACO, the server is named *call agent*;
- 123 • *IP network*: an interconnection structure based on the TCP/IP protocol
 124 family; the IP network can be a private wide-area network, an intranet, or
 125 the Internet.

² As usual, the term ‘gateway’ refers to a device connecting different networks; from now on the term ‘gateway’ alone is reserved to router gateways, the devices connecting networks on the Internet, while ‘VoIP gateway’ is used when referring to the device translating VoIP into switched telephony and vice versa.

126 As it has been stated in the Introduction, this work aims at evaluating the *wire*
 127 *tapping* risk in a VoIP system, i.e. the risk of successfully intercepting a live
 128 conversation between two IP phones. The core principle lying at the basis of
 129 the approach selected for the present risk analysis [12] consists in taking into
 130 consideration the dependencies among the system vulnerabilities: evidently,
 131 these dependencies are strictly related to the system architecture.

132 The most direct way to perform a wire tapping attack is to break the security
 133 of the private networks hosting the two communication end-points: if an in-
 134 truder is allowed to enter them, s/he can dispose of a wide range of techniques
 135 to listen to VoIP conversations. These threats have been analysed at length in
 136 the literature [13,14] as discussed in Section 6. However, this form of attack is
 137 usually seen as unrelated to the VoIP traffic; on the contrary, it is usually be-
 138 lieved — as far as the commercialisation of VoIP services is concerned — that
 139 ‘a secure network gives a secure VoIP system’. The absolute security of private
 140 networks is thus assumed in this paper so as to confute the false beliefs accord-
 141 ing to which VoIP services security is reduced to private network security. Not
 142 only will the analysis finally prove, see Section 5, the importance of private
 143 networks security — which constitutes the major weakness as for the security
 144 of VoIP conversations — but it will also highlight further ways to break the
 145 security of VoIP systems, whose protection will involve significant economical
 146 costs. As a matter of fact, the balance between VoIP technology security and
 147 its economical advantages seem not as clear as the market typically promises.

148 In this respect, four scenarios can be identified, where it seems possible to carry
 149 out a VoIP phone call interception without breaking the private networks’
 150 security:

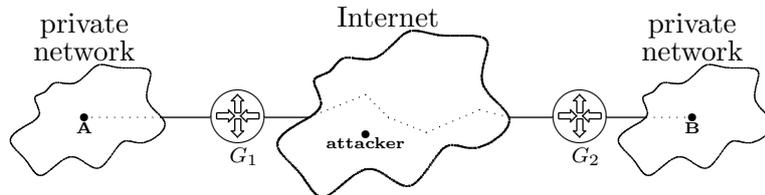


Fig. 2. The first scenario: an isolated attacker in the Internet

- 151 • *Scenario I: an isolated attacker in the Internet.* In this scenario, represented
 152 in Figure 2, the IP phones *A* and *B* lie in two private networks delimited
 153 by the G_1 and G_2 gateways (the *border gateways*) connecting them to the
 154 Internet. Here a hacker is supposed to be in the public Internet with the
 155 scope of intercepting a conversation crossing the Internet from *A* to *B*.
- 156 • *Scenario II: a malicious ISP outside the route of the conversation.* The
 157 difference between this scenario, see Figure 3, and the previous one lies in
 158 the presence of a malicious ISP outside the route of the conversation instead
 159 of the isolated hacker: it is to be pointed out how an ISP’s knowledge and

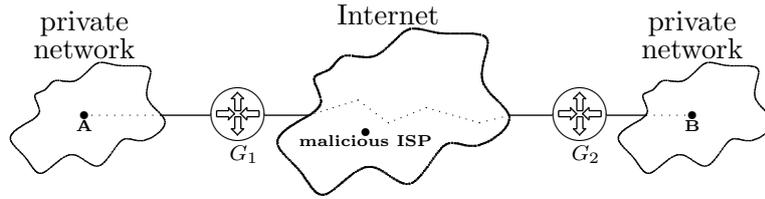


Fig. 3. The second scenario: a malicious ISP outside the route of the conversation

160 ‘status’, availability of devices as well as possibility of managing a piece of
 161 the Internet are usually deemed as a major advantage when security attacks
 162 are at issue, especially as opposed to a malicious individual’s more modest
 opportunities.

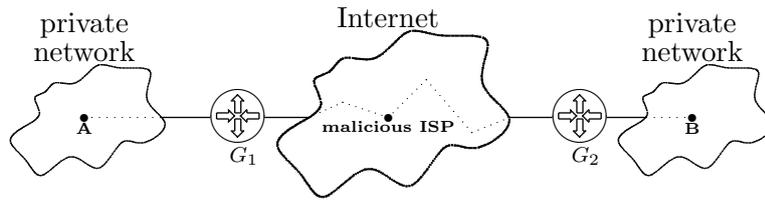


Fig. 4. The third scenario: a malicious ISP on the route of the conversation

163
 164 • *Scenario III: a malicious ISP on the route of the conversation.* In this con-
 165 text, Figure 4, the point where the wire tapping attack is performed is
 166 located in a malicious ISP lying on the route of the conversation. ISPs are
 167 usually reliable companies providing their clients with a secure transport
 168 of data and communications: however, a few recent cases, i.e. see [9, 10],
 169 have revealed that even major telecommunication companies have some-
 170 times been involved in security incidents where they acted as attackers. It
 171 seems thus worth considering what may happen when VoIP conversations
 are exposed to the action of a malicious ISP.

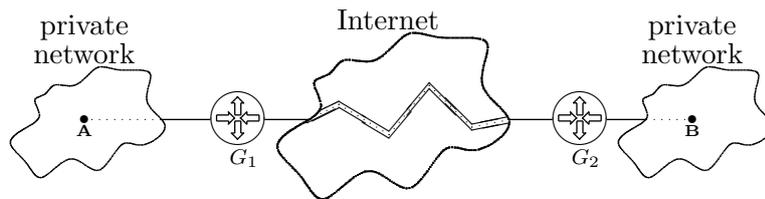


Fig. 5. The fourth scenario: the conversation travels in a VPN

172
 173 • *Scenario IV: the conversation travels in a VPN.* In Figure 5 a VPN is
 174 adopted to improve the level of security in the architecture. The VPN links
 175 together the private networks where the IP phones are located. In this con-
 176 text, the conversation between *A* and *B* takes place as a communication
 177 between the private networks embedded in the VPN channel: the VPN
 178 traffic is usually encrypted by the border gateways before being transmit-
 179 ted through the Internet. This is the reason why it is interesting to evaluate
 180 the possibility of intercepting a VoIP phone call in this situation.

181 The above outlined scenarios are exhaustive covering as they do any possible
182 position of a potential attacker operating in the Internet both in the case the
183 VoIP traffic is inspectable and it is not (scenario IV). These scenarios can
184 and should quite obviously be dealt with more specifically when analysing a
185 concrete situation: for instance, if countermeasures have been taken to protect
186 a system traffic such as BGP, some of the attacks considered in this paper
187 cannot be launched. This is the reason why the scenarios should be regarded
188 as general frameworks where detailed analyses of concrete situations should be
189 conducted: interestingly enough, it should be noted that the detailed analyses
190 are direct extensions of the scenarios taken into account.

191 **3 Measuring the risk**

192 Risk assessment aims at quantitatively evaluating the danger of an undesired
193 event occurring in a given environment. As far as this paper is concerned, the
194 environment has been described in Section 2 as one of the reference architec-
195 tures represented in Figures 1, 2, 3 and 4; furthermore, the undesired event is
196 evident, that is to say the interception of a VoIP phone call.

197 Therefore, this section intends to define a specific notion of risk as well as
198 illustrating the methodology employed to evaluate it. The risk assessment
199 procedure is in fact based on a general engineering methodology described
200 in other publications ; some introductory information could be found in [12]
201 while, as for the related mathematical treatment, the reader is referred to [15].
202 This section offers a concise overview of the risk assessment procedure in order
203 to allow a better understanding of its application to the VoIP phone call
204 interception.

205 As for the present paper's approach, the risk is a function on two variables: the
206 damage potential, that is to say the average loss caused by an attack, and the
207 level of exploitability measuring the easiness to break a system component, as
208 defined in [16]. In this specific case, the risk assessment procedure intends to
209 determine the exploitability levels.

210 In brief, the risk assessment procedure consists of five steps:

- 211 (1) The possible threats to the system are modelled by means of an attack
212 tree [17]: the root node represents the attack goal and, recursively, the
213 children can be alternative subgoals, each one satisfying the parent goal
214 (or subtree) or partial subgoals, whose composition satisfies the parent
215 goal (and subtree). The tree's leaves stand for the vulnerabilities of the
216 system enabling the attacks modelled by the subtrees.
- 217 (2) The dependencies among the identified vulnerabilities are determined: a

218 vulnerability v depends on a vulnerability w if and only if v may be-
219 come easier to utilise to attain the attack goal when w has already been
220 compromised.

221 (3) To each vulnerability v in the attack tree is associated a numerical index
222 $E_0(v)$, called its *initial exploitability*, measuring the chances that v may
223 be successfully used to break the security of the system. Similarly, the
224 dependencies between pairs of vulnerabilities are weighted on the same
225 metric: a value $E(v|w)$ is assigned to each pair (w, v) of dependent vul-
226 nerabilities, meaning that the exploitability of v becomes $E(v|w)$ when
227 w has been compromised.

228 (4) The exploitability $E_i(v)$ of each single vulnerability v is updated to a new
229 value $E_{i+1}(v)$ to take into account its dependencies, until the values reach
230 a fixed point, that is to say when the effects of the dependencies have
231 been fully considered. As proved in [15], the iteration process converges
232 in finite, bounded time, ensuring the termination of the process.

233 (5) The risk associated to the threat under examination is finally computed
234 by recursively aggregating the exploitabilities along the attack tree. The
235 exploitability of an **or** subtree is the easiest (maximum value) of its chil-
236 dren, and the exploitability of an **and** subtree is the most difficult (min-
237 imum value) of its children. Finally, the aggregated exploitability of the
238 root node, which measures the level of feasibility of the attack, is com-
239 bined with the damage potential to assess the risk of the threat.

240 The first step generates an attack tree, whose leaves form set V of the system
241 vulnerabilities. Likewise, Step 2 produces the *dependency graph* $G = \langle V, D \rangle$,
242 whose nodes are the system vulnerabilities and whose edges are the depen-
243 dencies: an edge $(v, w) \in D$ means that the exposition of w seems easier when
244 v has been compromised.

245 In Step 3, the evaluations $E_0(v)$ of the initial exploitability of every vulnera-
246 bility and the weightings $E(v|w)$ of the identified dependencies are produced.
247 The values $E(v|w)$ obey the constraint $E(v|w) > E_0(v)$, meaning that the
248 exploitation of w eases the abuse of v . These numerical values lie in the range
249 $[0, 10]$ where 0 means *impossible to exploit* and 10 means *immediate*. The ex-
250 ploitability values are chosen by security experts conducting the risk analysis
251 by taking into account the relative difficulty in making use of the various
252 vulnerabilities. Although this evaluation is subjective depending on to the
253 experts, it is remarkable the fact that the whole risk assessment procedure
254 depends just on the ordering of the exploitability values, as mathematically
255 proved in [15]. As a matter of fact, since different metrics with the same or-
256 dering structure are equivalent, it follows that most of the seemingly different
257 evaluations are actually the same, despite using different values.

Then, in Step 4, the notion of exploitability is generalised by means of the
function family $E: \mathbb{N} \times V \rightarrow [0, 10]$ mapping the vulnerabilities to $[0, 10]$; thus

the values $E_i(v)$, with i varying over natural numbers, are associated to the vulnerability v . The initial value $E_0(v)$ has been fixed in Step 3, while the other values are calculated by means of:

$$E_{i+1}(v) = \max(E_i(v), \{\min(E(v|w), E_i(w)) : (w, v) \in D\}) \quad (1)$$

258 whose rationale is to include the potential influence of the dependencies in
259 evaluating the exploitability of a vulnerability v . This influence manifests itself
260 when it is easier to attack a connected vulnerability w both because $E_i(w)$ is
261 higher, that is to say that w is easier to exploit, and, when w is compromised,
262 the misuse of v is simplified, that is its exploitability becomes $E(v|w)$.

263 Finally, during Step 5, the outcome of Step 4, that is the fixed point values
264 in the iteration of the formula (1), is distributed along the nodes of the at-
265 tack tree. The result is an attack tree where every node is decorated by an
266 exploitability value: then, by applying the risk function, one may calculate the
267 risk of the root node and, if needed, the risk of every subtree as the risk of the
268 root of the subtree.

269 4 The risk analysis of the VoIP scenarios

270 4.1 Step 1: construction of the attack tree

271 An attack tree [17] describes how an attacker may break the security of a
272 system: the attacker's goal is the root of the tree. In the present case, the goal
273 consists in intercepting a VoIP phone call crossing the Internet. Intercepting
274 a call means that the attacker is able to listen to the communication and
275 understand its content: in particular, it is to be pointed out that the exact
276 copy of an encrypted VoIP communication is not considered as an interception,
277 since its content, that is the conversation, is not disclosed. On the contrary,
278 a real time listening is not different from making a copy. Therefore, the main
279 goal of the attack tree generates two subgoals whose aim is to get a copy of
280 the communication and to understand its content. The latter goal, although
281 difficult, is quite standard: given an encrypted communication and being able
282 to know how the data is encoded, the attacker would have to break or guess the
283 encryption key and decode the data to retrieve the original conversation. The
284 goal of copying the communication is more interesting: in fact, the scenarios
285 of Section 2 play a crucial role in the way an attacker may act.

286 The attacker is assumed to know how to identify the communication s/he
287 is interested in intercepting: this hypothesis implies that the attacker knows
288 something about the structure of the private networks at the end-points of the

- Goal:** To intercept a VoIP phone call
- AND** 1. To copy the communication
 - OR** 1.1. To access a gateway on the path
 - AND** 1.1.1. To identify a gateway on the path
 - OR** 1.1.1.1. It is a border gateway (V_3)
 - 1.1.1.2. To identify an intermediate gateway on the path
 - AND** 1.1.1.2.1. To trace the route between the communication end-points (V_4)
 - 1.1.1.2.2. To choose a weak gateway on the detected route (*)
 - 1.1.2. To control the identified gateway
 - AND** 1.1.2.1. To connect to the administration channel of the gateway (telnet, ...) (V_5)
 - 1.1.2.2. To force the administrator's password
 - OR** 1.1.2.2.1. Default or weak password (V_1)
 - 1.1.2.2.2. To sniff the password (V_2)
 - 1.1.3. To identify the communication in the traffic crossing the identified and controlled gateway
 - XOR** 1.1.3.1. The traffic lies in a VPN
 - 1.1.3.1.1. To decode the VPN traffic (V_8)
 - 1.1.3.2. The traffic is inspectable
 - AND** 1.1.3.2.1. To copy the control channel (*)
 - 1.1.3.2.2. To identify the media channels (*)
 - 1.1.3.2.3. To copy the media channels (*)
 - 1.2. To divert the traffic through a malicious gateway
 - AND** 1.2.1. To identify a gateway on the path (see case 1.1.1)
 - 1.2.2. To poison the route between a border gateway and the identified gateway
 - OR** 1.2.2.1. It is a intra-autonomous system gateway
 - 1.2.2.1.1. To announce a false OSPF bandwidth (V_6)
 - 1.2.2.2. It is a inter-autonomous system gateway
 - 1.2.2.2.1. To announce a false BGP route (V_7)
 - 1.2.3. To identify the communication in the traffic (see 1.1.3)
2. To decode the content of the communication
 - AND** 2.1. To understand the coding algorithm
 - OR** 2.1.1. To guess the coding algorithm (*)
 - 2.1.2. To read the algorithm in the control channel (*)
 - 2.2. To determine the encryption key (+)

Fig. 6. The combined attack tree

289 communication of interest. This knowledge usually allows to determine the IP
 290 addresses of the gateways on the frontiers of the private networks: according to
 291 the initial information, the attacker may either use the networks registration
 292 data the Domain Name System, the `whois` service or trace the routes to some
 293 known internal point within the private networks. Alone or combined, these
 294 information disclosure techniques enable the attacker to learn the IP addresses
 295 of the frontier gateways; this will be therefore taken for granted from now on.

296 Moreover, because of the scenarios taken into consideration, and because this
297 article focuses on confuting the misleading thesis according to which VoIP
298 services can be added to existing private networks without altering their secu-
299 rity posture and economical costs, the risk analysis will begin by presupposing
300 that private networks cannot be directly attacked. As already hinted at in the
301 Introduction, this attitude is quite common during the transition period from
302 traditional telephony to VoIP services employment: this is the reason why the
303 assumption inevitably confines the risk analysis to those scenarios recognised
304 as risky. The most dangerous scenarios will be eventually result to be those
305 usually considered as trustworthy, that is to say the attack from a ‘reliable’
306 ISP and the one inside the private networks.

307 The attack tree is shown in Figure 6: it has been constructed by expanding
308 the main goal in two subgoals, as already described. The second one (case
309 2) has been decomposed in two subgoals: the first one exploits the fact (case
310 2.1.2) that the information about the voice encoding is written in the control
311 channel. In fact, a VoIP call operates on a double connection [18]: a control
312 channel, utilized to determine the parameters of the communication, start and
313 stop voice transfers, identify the connection of the media channel, etc.; and
314 a media channel, whose function consists in transporting the voice from one
315 end-point to the other.

316 The vulnerabilities, i.e. the leaves of the attack tree, marked with a (*), are
317 considered to be immediate since, when the attack reaches that point in the
318 tree, the difficulties in exploiting its vulnerabilities will already be overcome.
319 On the contrary, the (+) marks on the vulnerabilities mean that they can-
320 not be evaluated in isolation: for instance, in (case 2.2), if the voice is not
321 encrypted, as in most cases, it is possible to immediately exploit the vulner-
322 ability; however, if the media channel makes use of a strong encryption, the
323 same vulnerability becomes almost impossible to attain, thus the whole (case
324 2) subgoal results impracticable.

325 Going into further detail, it is to be highlighted that the first subgoal (case
326 1 in the attack tree) may be reached either by gaining control of a gateway
327 on the route followed by the communication to be copied, or by diverting the
328 route. In the first case, the attacker can access the gateway as system manager
329 (case 1.1.2) and then single out the communication of interest in the crossing
330 traffic (case 1.1.3): if the communication does not travel in a VPN tunnel
331 (case 1.1.3.2 in the attack tree, corresponding to the scenarios I, II and III),
332 the attacker can easily obtain the RTP ports of the media channels involved in
333 the communication by inspecting the control channel and consequently copy
334 them; if the communication travels in a VPN tunnel (case 1.1.3.1 and the
335 fourth scenario), the control channel cannot be directly inspected, thus the
336 VPN traffic has to be decoded.

337 In the second case, if the attacker chooses to divert the traffic (case 1.2), s/he
338 will consequently poison the route in such a way that the communication will
339 flow through a malicious gateway under her/his control (case 1.2.2): then, he
340 may go on listening to the communication as already described (cases 1.1.1,
341 1.1.2 and 1.1.3 in the attack tree). In both cases, the first step consists in
342 individuating a suitable gateway in the route followed by the communication
343 (cases 1.1.1 and 1.2.1): the gateway may be either a border gateway, i.e. a
344 gateway on the frontier of one of the private networks, or an intermediate
345 gateway; the selection will depend on its vulnerability to attacks, a feature
346 which can be easily tested for every gateway on the identified route.

347 As a matter of fact, VoIP protocols peculiarities limit the possibilities of an
348 attacker and, as a consequence, the shape of the attack tree: in fact, the
349 admissible attacks must not interfere with the existing connections on the
350 gateways, otherwise the VoIP call will be influenced and therefore drop. This is
351 due to the fact that VoIP calls are real-time, streaming connections, hence any
352 loss or detour will highly probably bringing the communication to conclusion,
353 thus destroying what an attacker intended to observe.

354 Moreover, an attack to a gateway involves a stricter subset of the techniques
355 the Internet attacker has generally at her/his disposal: the attacker can reach
356 his/her goals only by avoiding influencing any existing connection. For in-
357 stance, the category of *denial of service* attacks is banned, since they aim at
358 substituting a device after its collapse due to resource shortage: as for the VoIP
359 traffic, a gateway collapse can delay the voice call due to a network congestion,
360 thus causing the call to drop. Similarly, since the goal is to copy an existing
361 connection, the attacks to access a gateway limit to trying to login as system
362 manager: most examples of threats involving the exploitation of software bugs
363 in the operative system are either not deep enough to permit to copy the de-
364 sired connections, or even too invasive, making the existing connections die
365 or be delayed. Consequently, the attack tree in Figure 6 can be deemed quite
366 exhaustive in the development of the scenarios taken into account.

367 To sum up, the identified vulnerabilities are listed in Table 1. A few remarks
368 are all the more worth reporting as follows:

- 369 • Identification of a gateway's address is fundamental in order to attack it,
370 either by accessing it or diverting its traffic. V_3 vulnerability implies that,
371 from the information regarding the conversation target of the attack, which
372 has been assumed to be learnt, the potential intruder may reconstruct the
373 IP addresses of the gateways on the frontiers of the private networks.
- 374 • The case 1.1.1.2.1 in the attack tree requires to trace the route between the
375 conversation end-points and, in particular, between the two gateways on the
376 frontiers of the private networks. This goal can be accomplished by means
377 of the `traceroute` service, calculating the route between two nodes in the

Table 1
Detected vulnerabilities

Vulnerability	Description
V_1	The identified gateway has a weak authentication mechanism
V_2	A link connected to the identified gateway can be sniffed
V_3	Information disclosure on the private networks
V_4	The source routing option is enabled in one of the gateways on the frontier of the private networks
V_5	The identified gateway can be remotely controlled from the attacker's position in the Internet
V_6	The identified gateway exchanges OSPF announces with its neighbours
V_7	The identified gateway exchanges BGP announces with its neighbours
V_8	The encryption algorithm or the encryption key of the VPN channel is weak

378 Internet as well as reporting an estimate of the round trip time. By using the
 379 source routing option of the IP protocol [19], one can make a `traceroute`
 380 from a malicious host to one of the border gateway follow a route crossing
 381 the other border gateway. In this manner, it is possible to see the optimal
 382 route between the two border gateways as well as estimating the round trip
 383 time between every pair of nodes in the route. This is the reason why the
 384 source routing option enabled in one of the border gateways has been listed
 385 as V_4 vulnerability in the table.

- 386 • V_6 and V_7 vulnerabilities have been introduced to model the fact that, in
 387 order to poison the route between the border gateways, one has to announce
 388 a false route to a neighbour that is a legitimate gateway on the legal route.
 389 This is hardly ever possible, since only ‘important’ gateways are used to
 390 announce long-range routes, though it is still likely to construct false an-
 391 nounces if one has the control of a malicious gateway credited as a legal
 392 OSPF or BGP gateway by its neighbours.
- 393 • V_8 vulnerability has been introduced because decrypting a VPN, see case
 394 1.1.3.1.1, depends on the adoption of a weak algorithm or a weak set of
 395 encryption keys.

396 The identified vulnerabilities are differently important in the light of the di-
 397 verse scenarios. Table 2 shows a qualitative evaluation of the difficulty in
 398 exploiting the vulnerabilities in the scenarios taken into consideration. V_8 vul-
 399 nerability makes sense only within the fourth scenario, while the vulnerabili-
 400 ties ranging from V_1 to V_7 influence the possible attacks only within the other
 401 scenarios, hence the ‘?’ signs.

Table 2

The difficulty in exploiting the vulnerabilities in the scenarios

Vulnerability	Isolated hacker	Off-path malicious ISP	On-path malicious ISP	VPN
V_1	easy	easy	very easy	?
V_2	very difficult	very difficult	very easy	?
V_3	on average	on average	very easy	?
V_4	difficult	difficult	easy	?
V_5	difficult	difficult	very easy	?
V_6	very difficult	difficult	very easy	?
V_7	very difficult	difficult	very easy	?
V_8	?	?	?	very difficult

402 4.2 Step 2: the dependency graph

403 The identified vulnerabilities are not independent: in fact, it suffices to break
 404 one of them to easier exploit the others as well. The overall framework, encoded
 405 as a dependency graph, see Section 3, is represented in Figure 7.

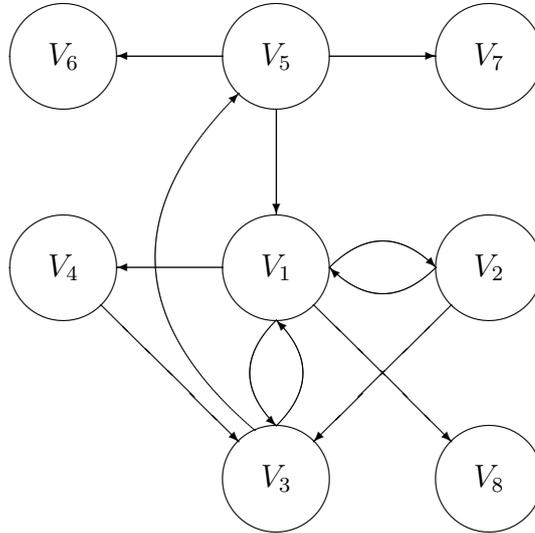


Fig. 7. The dependency graph

406 Its edges can be explained as follows:

- 407 • exploiting a weak authentication in the identified gateway, i.e. V_1 vulnerabil-
 408 ity means having control of the gateway, thus V_2 vulnerability is immediatly
 409 achieved; moreover, if the identified gateway is a border gateway, V_3 , V_4 and

Table 3
The difficulty in exploiting the dependencies

	V_1	V_2	V_3	V_4	V_5	V_6	V_7	V_8
V_1	-	very easy	difficult	difficult	-	-	-	difficult
V_2	difficult	-	difficult	-	-	-	-	-
V_3	difficult	-	-	-	difficult	-	-	-
V_4	-	-	easy	-	-	-	-	-
V_5	on average	-	-	-	-	difficult	difficult	-
V_6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
V_7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
V_8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

- 410 V_8 vulnerabilities are achieved as well.
- 411 • misusing V_2 vulnerability means that the traffic on a link connected to the
412 identified gateway can be observed by the attacker; if the administrator
413 of the gateway connects via the sniffed link, V_1 is attained; moreover, the
414 content of the traffic allows the attacker to acquire information about the
415 private networks when the gateway forwards the traffic originated from or
416 directed to a private net, thus simplifying the exploitation of V_3 vulnerabil-
417 ity.
- 418 • exploiting V_3 vulnerability means collecting useful information about the
419 private networks; if the identified gateway is a border gateway, then the
420 collected information may reveal that the gateway is controlled also from
421 outside, simplifying V_5 , and may even give suggestions to guess the password
422 of the gateway, thus simplifying V_1 .
- 423 • It is evident that achieving V_4 means discovering the route between the two
424 border gateways, thus implying an information disclosure, i.e. V_3 .
- 425 • abusing V_5 means being aware that the identified gateway can be remotely
426 controlled, which simplifies V_1 ; the way to acquire this knowledge usually
427 reveal some suggestions of the system traffic originating from the gateway,
428 in particular the enabled routing protocols, thus allowing the exploitation
429 of V_6 and V_7 vulnerabilities.

430 Hence, from a different viewpoint, the difficulty in exploiting a vulnerability
431 — given the successful misuse of a depending one — is summarised in Table 3:
432 every entry in the table qualitatively measures the difficulty in attaining the
433 vulnerability in the column, taking into account the previous exploitation of
434 the vulnerability in the row: for instance, in the case the column is V_3 and the
435 row is V_4 , the table cell will measure $E(V_3|V_4)$.

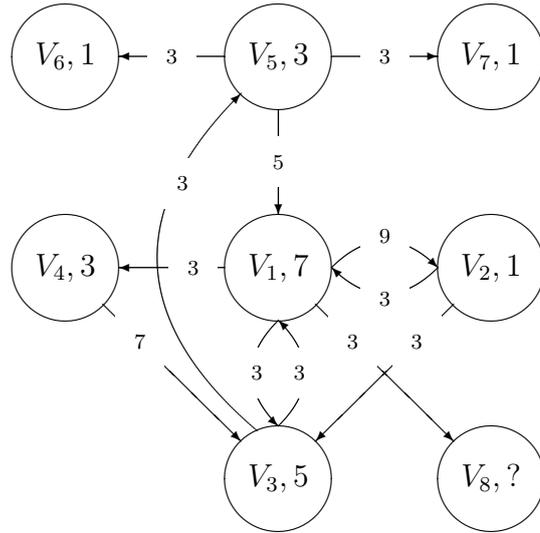


Fig. 8. The weighted dependency graph in the hacker scenario

436 As a matter of fact, the dependencies change neither in their presence nor in
 437 their evaluation in the scenarios introduced in Section 2: in fact, the scenarios
 438 act by changing the degree of exploitability of the single vulnerabilities,
 439 making dependencies useful or useless according to the initial exploitability
 440 assessment.

441 *4.3 Step 3: evaluating exploitabilities*

442 In the previous steps, a qualitative evaluation of the ability to exploit various
 443 vulnerabilities has been accounted for. The qualitative judgement is debatable
 444 to the extent that it has been conceived by security experts, basing their
 445 evaluation on their experience and knowledge. The reader could either agree
 446 on the evaluations provided or continue applying the method starting with a
 447 different viewpoint: further on, see Section 5, it will be highlighted that the
 448 initial assessment will have a weak influence on the conclusions of the present
 449 work. Nevertheless, the application of the risk assessment methodology, as
 450 described in Section 3, is needed so as to justify the conclusions themselves,
 451 as it will appear in the end.

Table 4

Conversion of the qualitative evaluations into quantitative ones

very easy	easy	on average	difficult	very difficult	impossible
9	7	5	3	1	0

452 Therefore, qualitative evaluations are converted into numbers, following the
 453 metric shown in Table 4: the exploitability values are in the range 0–10. The
 454 resulting dependency graphs in the various scenarios are depicted in Figures 8,
 455 9, 10 and 11.

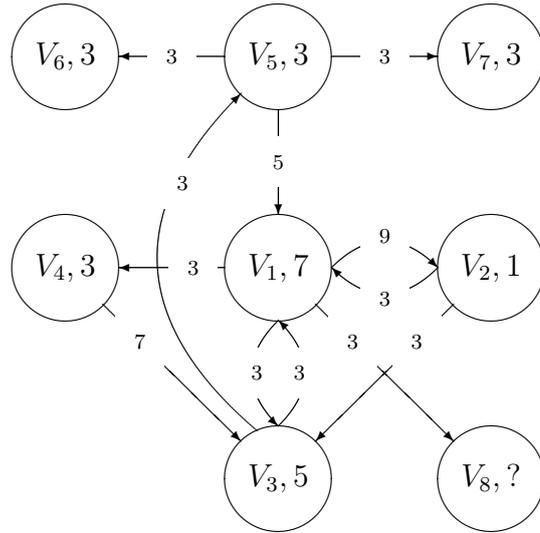


Fig. 9. The weighted dependency graph in the off-path ISP scenario

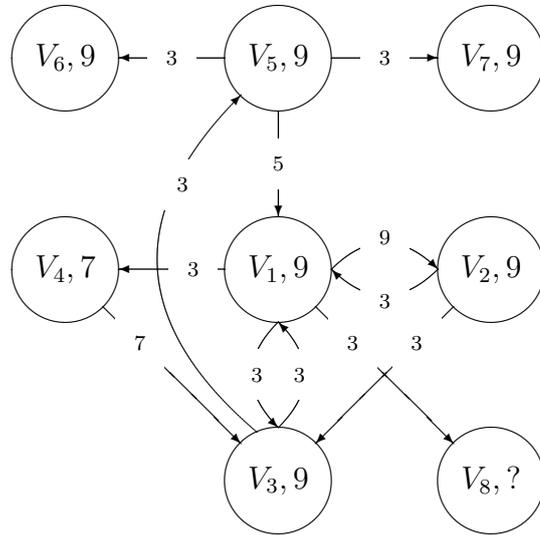


Fig. 10. The weighted dependency graph in the on-path malicious ISP scenario

456 In the first scenario, the initial assessment reveals that most vulnerabilities
 457 are difficult to be exploited due to the attacker's low status: an hacker does
 458 not have direct access to a trusted gateway, and thus s/he cannot poison the
 459 Internet routes (V_6 and V_7); s/he cannot either sniff a link directly connected to
 460 a gateway on the path followed by the conversation (V_2); he may use the source
 461 routing option of a gateway (V_4) or the control channel of a gateway (V_5), i.e.
 462 by trying to connect via the SSH or telnet protocols; these vulnerabilities
 463 are nonetheless difficult to misuse in her/his position. On the contrary, a weak
 464 authentication on the gateway (V_1) or, to a less extent, collecting information
 465 about the private networks can be successfully used to harm.

466 Differently, in the second scenario, see Figure 9, the attacker holds a higher
 467 status in the Internet, that is the hacker is an ISP with a trusted gateway

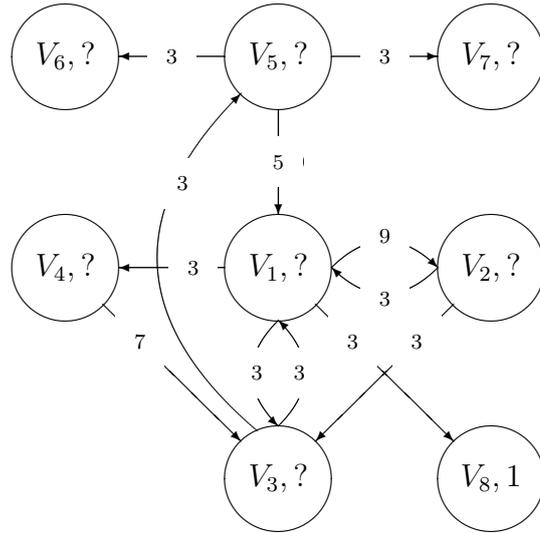


Fig. 11. The weighted dependency graph in the VPN scenario

468 exchanging routing information with its neighbours. As for the first scenario,
 469 V_6 and V_7 vulnerabilities are easier to exploit since, if the attacker's gateway
 470 directly exchanges routing information with a gateway located on the conver-
 471 sation path, it is easier to poison its routes. Of course, this is a relative
 472 judgement: a combination of proximity and clever misuse of the attacker's
 473 gateway is required to successfully mount this kind of attack, hence the cor-
 474 responding exploitability value is still 'difficult'.

475 The third scenario, in Figure 10, illustrates what happens when the attacker
 476 is an ISP lying on the route followed by the conversation. In this case, all
 477 vulnerabilities can be very easily exploited, since the gateway through which
 478 the conversation flows is controlled by the attacker: it is just a matter of
 479 identifying the conversation among the many connections.

480 The fourth and last scenario, see Figure 11, describes the situation where the
 481 VoIP call does not merely travel in the Internet, being embedded as it is in a
 482 VPN channel; the conversation is thus encrypted and not easily separable from
 483 the other connections in the channel. In this case, it is usually very difficult to
 484 decrypt the VPN channel; moreover, the exploitation of the other vulnerabil-
 485 ities should not influence the final difficulty in launching a successful attack
 486 to the system. In Section 4.5 it will be proved that, in fact, the aggregated
 487 exploitability of the root node of the attack tree depends mainly on V_8 , as
 488 expected.

489 *4.4 Step 4: propagating the dependencies*

490 As it has already be pointed out in Section 3, the propagation of the dependen-
 491 cies is repeatedly calculated by applying formula (1): the results are displayed
 492 in Table 5.

Table 5
 Propagation of dependencies

iteration	$E(V_1)$	$E(V_2)$	$E(V_3)$	$E(V_4)$	$E(V_5)$	$E(V_6)$	$E(V_7)$	$E(V_8)$	scenario
0	7	1	5	3	3	1	1	?	I
1	7	7	5	3	3	3	3	≥ 3	
2	7	7	5	3	3	3	3	≥ 3	
0	7	1	5	3	3	3	3	?	II
1	7	7	5	3	3	3	3	≥ 3	
2	7	7	5	3	3	3	3	≥ 3	
0	9	9	7	9	9	9	9	?	III
1	9	9	7	9	9	9	9	≥ 3	
2	9	9	7	9	9	9	9	≥ 3	
0	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	1	IV
1	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	≤ 3	
2	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	≤ 3	

493 In particular, the unknown ('?') values on V_8 vulnerability have been dealt
 494 with by establishing a lower bound for the corresponding exploitability value.
 495 In this way, there emerges the amount of influence induced by the dependen-
 496 cies on the exploitability of V_8 in the scenarios I, II and III. Instead, in the
 497 fourth scenario, the unknown values have not been lower-bounded since, as it
 498 will be highlighted in the following section, their influence on the overall risk
 499 assessment is limited to their upper bounding of V_8 vulnerability.

500 *4.5 Step 5: aggregation and risk assessment*

501 In order to determine the exploitability of the root node in the attack tree,
 502 i.e. the feasibility of intercepting a VoIP phone call, the exploitability values
 503 of the leaves are aggregated on every subtree as described in Section 3. The
 504 attack tree obtained as the result of the aggregation process is shown in Fig-
 505 ure 12: a label, indicating the exploitability values in the four scenarios under
 506 examination, is attached to every node; as already said, the nodes marked
 507 with (*) are immediate, i.e. their label is [I: 10, II: 10, III: 10, IV: 10]. The
 508 case 2.2 is marked with the [I: x , II: x , III: x , IV: x] label, whose exact value
 509 depends on the employed instance of the VoIP protocol; in particular, the
 510 value x represents the feasibility to decrypt the VoIP media channel.

Goal: To intercept a VoIP phone call [**I:** ≤ 3 , **II:** ≤ 3 , **III:** ≤ 9 , **IV:** ≤ 3]

AND 1. To copy the communication [**I:** ≤ 3 , **II:** ≤ 3 , **III:** ≤ 9 , **IV:** ≤ 3]

OR 1.1. To access a gateway on the path [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:** ≤ 3]

AND 1.1.1. To identify a gateway on the path [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

OR 1.1.1.1. It is a border gateway (V_3) [**I:**5, **II:**5, **III:**7, **IV:**?]

1.1.1.2. To identify an intermediate gateway on the path [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

AND 1.1.1.2.1. To trace the route between the communication end-points (V_4) [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.1.1.2.2. To choose a weak gateway on the detected route (*)

1.1.2. To control the identified gateway [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

AND 1.1.2.1. To connect to the administration channel of the gateway (telnet, ...) (V_5) [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.1.2.2. To force the administrator's password [**I:**7, **II:**7, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

OR 1.1.2.2.1. Weak password (V_1) [**I:**7, **II:**7, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.1.2.2.2. To sniff the password (V_2) [**I:**7, **II:**7, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.1.3. To identify the communication in the traffic crossing the identified and controlled gateway [**I:**10, **II:**10, **III:**10, **IV:** ≤ 3]

XOR 1.1.3.1. The traffic lies in a VPN [**I:**10, **II:**10, **III:**10, **IV:** ≤ 3]

1.1.3.1.1. To decode the VPN traffic (V_8) [**I:** ≥ 3 , **II:** ≥ 3 , **III:** ≥ 3 , **IV:** ≤ 3]

1.1.3.2. The traffic is inspectable [**I:**10, **II:**10, **III:**10, **IV:**?]

AND 1.1.3.2.1. To copy the control channel (*)

1.1.3.2.2. To identify the media channels (*)

1.1.3.2.3. To copy the media channels (*)

1.2. To divert the traffic through a malicious gateway [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:** ≤ 3]

AND 1.2.1. To identify a gateway on the path (see 1.1.1)

1.2.2. To poison the route between a border gateway and the identified gateway [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

OR 1.2.2.1. Intra-AS gateway [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.2.2.1.1. To announce a false OSPF bandwidth (V_6) [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.2.2.2. Inter-AS gateway [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.2.2.2.1. To announce a false BGP route (V_7) [**I:**3, **II:**3, **III:**9, **IV:**?]

1.2.3. To identify the communication in the traffic (see 1.1.3)

2. To decode the content of the communication [**I:** x , **II:** x , **III:** x , **IV:** x]

AND 2.1. To understand the coding algorithm [**I:**10, **II:**10, **III:**10, **IV:**10]

OR 2.1.1. To guess the coding algorithm (*)

2.1.2. To read the algorithm in the control channel (*)

2.2. To determine the encryption key (+) [**I:** x , **II:** x , **III:** x , **IV:** x]

Fig. 12. The evaluated attack tree

511 Slightly surprisingly, the first and second scenarios get the same results, which
512 means that the different status held by an hacker and an off-path ISP does
513 not affect the risk under analysis. The final exploitability value in the root
514 node can be easily lowered by encrypting the media channel, to the detriment
515 of a wider bandwidth consumption. With no encryption in the VoIP protocol,
516 the source of the exploitability value corresponds to case 1.1.2, which entails
517 the ability to remotely control the identified gateway.

518 The third scenario highlights that, unless encryption is used to protect the
519 content, the interception of a VoIP phone call by a malicious ISP lying on the
520 conversation path is immediate. Moreover, except for conversation encryption,
521 no security measure can be effective, since the origin of the exploitability value
522 of the root node is not a single case in the attack tree, but the whole set of
523 leaves in the subtree of case 1.

524 Finally, when the conversation travels in a VPN, it is difficult to achieve the
525 goal of the root node because of the VPN complex decoding, case 1.1.3.1.1.

526 As a matter of fact, the origin of the exploitability values in the root node, in
527 the various scenarios, have been traced in the attack tree to find out the single
528 vulnerability or the combination of vulnerabilities which determine the whole
529 tree's overall exploitability level. This analysis has revealed that scenarios I
530 and II are essentially equivalent and that the major source of risk consists
531 in the ability to remotely control a gateway on the route followed by the
532 conversation. Furthermore, the investigation has undoubtedly pointed out that
533 by encrypting the media channel, i.e. the content of the conversation, the
534 overall risk can be lowered. Likewise, the fourth scenario has been reduced to
535 the VPN decoding by scrutinizing the aggregation process. On the contrary,
536 the analysis has highlighted that it is not possible to guarantee security in the
537 case of the third scenario: any local countermeasure will have no chance to
538 improve the security of the system, since the origin of the risk is spread on
539 the whole tree.

540 **5 Evaluation**

541 The analysis has so far revealed that the only scenario really at risk is the
542 third one, where a malicious ISP is lying on the route followed by the phone
543 call. It is also to be pointed out that small variations in the exploitability
544 values do not significantly change the final outcome, as the reader is invited
545 to check: nonetheless, the final result of Step 5 is similar to the one derived
546 in Section 4.5. This stability in the risk assessment is due to the origin of the
547 exploitability of the root node in the attack tree: small variations in the initial
548 exploitability values and in the weightings of the dependencies do not modify

549 the prominent part of the attack, i.e. the set of its enabling vulnerabilities.
550 Therefore, combined with the invariance under ordering equivalence of the
551 methodology, see [15], even different experts would get the same qualitative
552 conclusion.

553 It can be hence asserted that the application of the risk assessment method-
554 ology has effectively supported the conclusion that the only significant risk
555 in the interception of a VoIP phone call is a malicious ISP, that is to say
556 ‘when the attack comes from outside the private networks’. It has been fur-
557 ther demonstrated that the natural countermeasures applied to contrast this
558 significant risk consists in tunnelling the traffic which travels between the
559 private networks through an encrypted VPN channel.

560 It can thus be further inferred that the adoption of the VoIP technology as a
561 substitute for the traditional telephony is not cost-free at all: the encryption
562 and decryption of the voice in a conversation in fact requires time, thus result-
563 ing in a bandwidth consumption caused by the security solution; moreover, the
564 encrypted traffic is larger in size than the decrypted one, thus magnifying the
565 use of the VPN bandwidth. Furthermore, it is to be considered that, if (1) a
566 VoIP phone call requires 8Kbit/s to ensure the proper quality and the correct
567 information exchange between the end-points, (2) the encryption/decryption
568 process introduces a delay of 1ms every second, and (3) an encrypted VoIP
569 communication needs twice the space of a plain conversation, then the VPN
570 will need to allocate a bit more than 16Kbit/s to the VoIP connection so as to
571 allow its correct development. Thus the adoption of a VoIP solution requires
572 (a) the installation and maintenance of a VPN between the private networks
573 and (b) the doubling of the bandwidth dedicated to the VoIP service. Both
574 (a) and (b) obviously involve additional costs and specific resource allocation.

575 It is also to be noted that in the scenarios taken into consideration the secure
576 solution may require to increase the security posture of the private networks (if
577 the VPN is not already used) and, of course, it will introduce a wider resource
578 allocation, that is to say the bandwidth, involving a potential increase in
579 economical costs³. Anyway, it can be concluded that the promise of a cost-
580 free telephony proves to be a false illusion and that the possibility to adopt a
581 VPN solution — and thus benefiting from a potential convenience — should
582 be evaluated in the light of each single case and context.

583 Oppositely and complementarily, one may trust the ISPs between the two pri-
584 vate networks: it is clear that little control over their action is possible. Trust
585 can be introduced in the analysis of Section 4.5 by considering a risk function
586 parametrised by a measure of trustworthiness of the ISPs: the difficulty in de-

³ The bandwidth-related costs are rapidly decreasing due to the increase in wide-
bandwidth connections. Nevertheless, the structural costs of a VPN-enabled device
are still not to be neglected.

587 veloping a sound measure to combine the exploitability values with a measure
588 of trust is evident, and it comes from the different nature of the two elements.
589 In fact, while the exploitability values are justified on a technical basis, the
590 trust in the ISPs' correct behaviour comes from a set of social rules granted
591 by laws, contracts, etc.

592 Nevertheless, although it is a fact that the great majority of the ISPs are
593 trustworthy, there have always been rumours about misbehaviours, see i.e. [9,
594 10]. Despite the large amount of positive behaviours in comparison with a
595 limited set of bad cases, the easiness of performing an interception by an
596 ISP, as shown in the previous analysis, justifies the question whether trust is
597 enough as a protection measure. Apart from the answer, the fact of relying on
598 the moral integrity of ISPs can engender a risk with a very high exploitability,
599 thus the promise of a telephony 'as secure as your networks' proves to be false.

600 Finally, the attack patterns breaking the security of the private networks —
601 either because the attacker is inside one of these networks, or because the
602 external attacker is able to gain control of a component in these networks
603 and use it, once compromised, to intercept the phone call — have not been
604 considered in this work. In Section 6, an overview of related publications will
605 confirm that 'internal' attacks have already been widely touched upon and
606 that a number of technical countermeasures are possible: also from these works
607 it can be inferred that the internal attack is the most dangerous one since,
608 although less exploitable than the on-path ISP scenario, it requires a less
609 demanding status of the attacker. As far as the aims of the present article are
610 concerned, it should be highlighted that an internal attack does not falsify
611 the promise that the VoIP telephony is 'as secure as your networks', since the
612 fact that an internal attack can be mounted means that the private networks
613 are, to some extent, insecure. On the contrary, the internal attack patterns,
614 specific to VoIP services, are dangerous allowing as they do to expand the
615 actions an attacker may perform on the private network. As a consequence,
616 VoIP cannot be considered cost-free any longer, since the widening of the
617 possible targets of an attack can bring about, sooner or later, an increase in
618 the security maintenance costs of the networks.

619 **6 Some related publications**

620 Voice over IP, convergence and real-time communication are concepts that
621 undoubtedly triggered off a revolution in the ICT market: also in literature
622 there are many works [20–25] pointing out the advantages of such a new and
623 innovative way of communicating. On the contrary, the scientific community
624 agrees that the spread of VoIP services has encountered limits exactly because
625 of security problems. For instance, NIST [26] asserts that the fact that the

626 digitised voice is assumed to travel in packets, just like other data, make
627 people believe that the existing network architecture and tools can be used
628 without modifying them — a consideration emerged also from the analysis
629 reported in Section 5.

630 It must be underlined that the VoIP technology actually increases complica-
631 tions in the existing networks; it is thus deemed to be utmost important, in
632 agreement with the VoIP Security Alliance [27], to study ad-hoc security solu-
633 tions for the VoIP system. Lots of publications can be found dealing with the
634 general threats connected to the adoption of VoIP technology and the related
635 countermeasures; in particular, in NIST [26] the challenge lying at the basis
636 of the VoIP security concept as well as the necessary steps to secure a VoIP
637 network are illustrated; also in Tanase [28] the main VoIP-technology-related
638 threats and consequential countermeasures are reported; in Bruschi et al. [29]
639 the voice performance over IPsec (a possible instance of the scenario IV) is
640 scrutinized. Several other works can be found offering an overview of general
641 threats and related countermeasures, i.e. [5, 30–32].

642 Also [33] provides a detailed survey of the main potential threats carried out to
643 the reliability and security of IP-based voice systems; in particular, the threats
644 to VoIP systems are here divided up into categories; then potential attacks for
645 each of the threat categories are detailed and the various mitigation techniques
646 are presented; finally, diverse recommendations related to each category are
647 introduced on the basis of the previous analysis. As the above brief overview
648 testifies to, it can be pointed out that [33] is a quite useful starting point to
649 evaluate the risk associated to different attacks on a VoIP system. However,
650 compared with the present paper, [33] cannot be considered as a risk analysis,
651 firstly because it does not define neither a qualitative nor a quantitative metric
652 and secondly because the (potential) resulting dangers are never quantified. It
653 is nonetheless to be accounted for as a valuable support for a risk assessment
654 analysis thanks to its being a methodical and detailed information source
655 about VoIP security.

656 All these works relate to the present paper in that they provide the necessary
657 tools and techniques to deal with that scenario where private networks are un-
658 der attack: the many analyses doubtless reveal that this scenario is well-known
659 and, at least theoretically, there are strong methods to supply hardening so-
660 lutions for it.

661 Taking a slightly different slant, [34] investigates the VoIP performance when
662 traditional security solutions (firewall, encryption, etc.) are adopted: the work
663 is quite interesting in that it directly contributes to establish scenarios I, II
664 and III.

665 Another interesting study is offered by X. Wang et al. [35], where the tracking

666 of anonymous peer-to-peer VoIP calls on the Internet are taken into account:
667 according to the analysis actually there are many users willing to anonymise
668 their conversations, though several practical techniques allow to effectively
669 track anonymous VoIP calls on the Internet. [35]’s main aim consists in iden-
670 tifying the weakness of some of the currently deployed anonymous communi-
671 cation systems: these techniques are obviously supposed to be useful in the
672 case 1.1.1.2.1 of the attack tree in Section 4.1, where the goal is to trace the
673 route between the communication end-points.

674 In T. Peng et al. [36], the main focus is placed on the vulnerabilities of the
675 SIP proxies against denial of service attacks (DoS); an overview of state-of-
676 the-art countermeasures against this type of attacks is provided. It should be
677 noticed that the attacks taken into consideration refer to the initial setup of
678 the communication session since, as it has been remarked in Section 4.1, DoS
679 attacks usually disturb VoIP conversations up to their loss.

680 Compared with the above mentioned works, the approach adopted in the
681 present paper is different in that — in agreement with those considering se-
682 curity as a process characterised by ordered phases — risk is quantitatively
683 evaluated by means of a formal assessment methodology defined in previ-
684 ous works: hence, instead of listing and classifying threats affecting the VoIP
685 system and their related countermeasures, the present paper tries to system-
686 atically analyse the attack patterns allowing to successfully use these threats.

687 Although it is evident that the *wire tapping* risk is worth analysing, the
688 reader may wonder on what basis the methodology described in Section 3
689 can be deemed adequate. In general, risk, trust, security requirements map-
690 ping and component interdependence are concepts strictly interconnected and
691 which have been extensively debated thus far: for instance, Baskerville [37]
692 describes the evolution of different methods aimed at measuring the risks that
693 could sometimes be combined to improve result accuracy. As for the system-
694 atic approaches, in O. Sami Saydjari et al. [38] a system security engineering
695 methodology is dealt with to discover the system vulnerabilities and to de-
696 termine what countermeasures are best suited to deal with them: the leading
697 paradigm consists in *analysing information systems through an adversary’s*
698 *eyes*. An interesting method together with the related tools to address se-
699 curity issues when VoIP services are employed is presented in H. Abdelnur
700 et al. [39], where, in particular, it is mentioned that, in order to estimate
701 some VoIP’s vulnerabilities and threats, specifically related to SIP [18] and
702 RTP [40] protocols, a tool named ‘Fuzzy Packet’ has been developed. [39]’s
703 final aim is the realisation of an intrusion prevention system for a smart VoIP
704 infrastructure, capable of performing advanced self-defence operations.

705 In comparison with the above reported contributions, the present paper’s ap-
706 proach — starting from its initial definition in [12] — has been based on the

707 structured evaluation of the single vulnerabilities along with their mutual de-
708 pendencies. In this respect, the results in [38,41] are similar, although they do
709 not propose any formal methodology based on a strict mathematical founda-
710 tion. In fact, the distinctive aspect of the selected approach — especially as
711 opposed to the previously briefly touched upon — is the mathematical formal-
712 isation of the risk assessment method to derive its characterising properties [15],
713 which — in particular the often repeated fact that the results depend only on
714 the order of the values in the metric — allowed risk assessment methodology
715 to be used to develop a general analysis of the *wire tapping* risk.

716 Though security risks have been extensively dealt with in the framework of
717 risk management methodologies [42–44], information security experts do not
718 agree on the best or most suitable method to assess the probability of computer
719 incidents [45].

720 In literature there are many works about risk management methodologies [38,
721 42–44, 46, 47] and, among these, there are some interesting practical appli-
722 cations [48, 49]. Considering risk assessment as a decision support tool, Fen-
723 ton [46] proposed the use of Bayesian networks. Instead, since the present pa-
724 per’s approach towards objective risk assessment is based on the abstraction
725 over values, what matters is the *structure* of the metrics. Hence, objectivity is
726 achieved by considering the values in the metric not as *absolute measures*, but
727 as *relative evaluations of risks*, see [15] for a detailed discussion. Therefore, in
728 agreement with [38,46,50,51], the information computed by the present model
729 can be specialised to a decisional support to find out the ad-hoc security so-
730 lutions for a specific implementation of the VoIP system.

731 **7 Conclusion**

732 This paper has discussed the problem of assessing the risk of the interception
733 of a VoIP phone call in the Internet with the aim of confuting the usual mar-
734 keting promise of offering a ‘cost-free’ and ‘secure’ telephone service. Moreover,
735 the ultimate scope was for this article to certify a general and formal risk as-
736 sessment method by pointing out that its results coincide with the well-known
737 theses already derived by means of ad-hoc methods.

738 The analysis has proved that, even limiting the possible attacks to those not
739 involving private networks, the only way to secure a VoIP conversation con-
740 sists in encrypting its content, either by adopting a protocol which supports
741 encryption, or by tunnelling the conversation in a VPN. Moreover, this solu-
742 tion is secure in the sense that no ‘external’ (conducted exclusively within the
743 Internet) attack has a significant probability to successfully intercept VoIP
744 phone calls among private networks, though it impacts on the management

745 and maintenance of private networks in terms of economical costs.

746 The other possible attack vector is the compromising of one of the private
747 networks: this pattern has been extensively studied, thus the reader is referred
748 to Section 6 for some references. As a matter of fact, the hardening actions on
749 private networks security posture are always welcome, though the ‘internal’
750 attack vector is not needed to disprove the false marketing slogans usually
751 promoting VoIP solutions.

752 The leit motiv concept unravelling through the whole paper points to the
753 method utilized to derive the conclusions: it has in fact been repeatedly high-
754 lighted that a general risk assessment methodology has been applied to the
755 wire tapping threat; then, the risk analysis has revealed that some general and
756 objective assertions hold, for instance, the weakness of the non-encrypted con-
757 versations when travelling through a gateway owned by a possibly malicious
758 ISP.

759 The investigation has also shown — by means of a case study — that a risk
760 assessment procedure, usually employed to analyse concrete and specific sit-
761 uations, can be fruitfully applied to derive useful conclusions also in a more
762 general setting. Furthermore, since the derived conclusions coincide with those
763 derived in specific situations by means of ad-hoc methods, it should be put in
764 evidence that the suggested approach can be fruitfully extended to other sim-
765 ilar problems. This is all the more true, when one considers that a supporting
766 mathematical theory has been utilized, thus providing the drawn conclusions
767 with an objective value, since every expert conducting the same analysis will
768 derive similar evaluations in a formal sense.

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