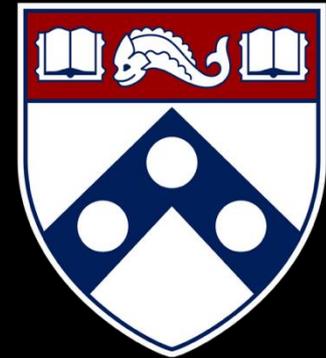


# Secure Systems Engineering and Management



A Data-driven Approach



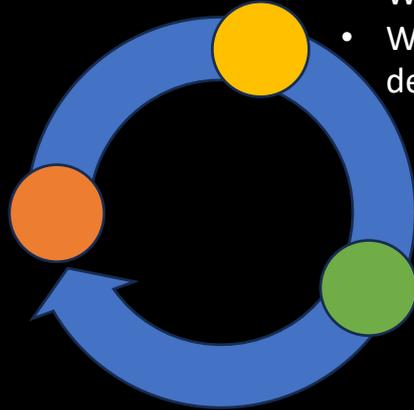
## Measuring Direct and Indirect Outcomes

**Michael Hicks**  
UPenn CIS 7000-003  
Spring 2026

# Evidence-based security

## Outcomes

- Hosts compromised,
- Vulnerabilities exploited,
- Revenue lost, ...



## Analysis

- What are the (still) successful vectors of attack?
- Where is risk (still) greatest?
- What interventions could be deployed cost-effectively?

## Intervention

- Engineering,
- Operations,
- Policy,
- Education, ...

# What to measure?

## Outcomes

- Hosts compromised,
- Vulnerabilities exploited,
- Revenue lost, ...

## Intervention

- Engineering,
- Operations,
- Policy,
- Education, ...

## Measuring Security Practices and How They Impact Security

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### ABSTRACT

Security is a discipline that places significant expectations on lay users. Thus, there are a wide array of technologies and behaviors that we exhort end users to adopt and thereby reduce their security risk. However, the adoption of these “best practices” — ranging from the use of antivirus products to actively keeping software updated — is not well understood, nor is their practical impact on security risk well-established. This paper explores both of these issues via a large-scale empirical measurement study covering approximately 15,000 computers over six months. We use passive monitoring to infer and characterize the prevalence of various security practices in situ as well as a range of other potentially security-relevant behaviors. We then explore the extent to which differences in key security behaviors impact real-world outcomes (i.e., that a device shows clear evidence of having been compromised).

### CSS CONCEPTS

• Security and privacy → Intrusion detection systems; • Networks;

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However, establishing the value provided by these security practices is underexamined at best. First, we have limited empirical data about which security advice is adopted in practice. Users have a plethora of advice to choose from, highlighted by Reeder et al.'s recent study of expert security advice, whose title — “152 Simple Steps to Stay Safe Online” — underscores both the irony and the variability in such security lore [35]. Clearly few users are likely to follow all such dicta, but if user behavior is indeed key to security, it is important to know which practices are widely followed and which have only limited uptake.

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To summarize, our existing models of security all rely on end users to follow a range of best practices. However, we neither understand the extent to which they are following this advice, nor do we have good information about how much this behavior ultimately impacts their future security.

This paper seeks to make progress on both issues — the prevalence of popular security practices and their relationship to security outcomes — via longitudinal empirical measurement of a large population of computer devices. In particular, we monitor the online

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- Hosts compromised,
- Vulnerabilities exploited,
- Revenue lost, ...

## Intervention

- Engineering,
- Operations,
- Policy,
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## A Large-Scale Measurement of Cybercrime Against Individuals

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### ABSTRACT

We know surprisingly little about the prevalence and severity of cybercrime in the U.S. Yet, in order to prioritize the development and distribution of advice and technology to protect end users, we require empirical evidence regarding cybercrime. Measuring crime, including cybercrime, is a challenging problem that relies on a combination of direct crime reports to the government – which have known issues of under-reporting – and assessment via carefully-designed self-report surveys. We report on the first large-scale, nationally representative academic survey (n=11,953) of consumer cybercrime experiences in the U.S. Our analysis answers four research questions: (1) What is the prevalence and (2) the monetary impact of these cybercrimes we measure in the U.S., (3) Do inequities exist in victimization?, and (4) Can we improve cybercrime measurement by leveraging social-reporting techniques used to measure physical crime? Our analysis also offers insight toward improving future measurement of cybercrime and protecting users.

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• Human-centered computing → Empirical studies in HCI; User studies; • Security and privacy → Economics of security and privacy.

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### 1 INTRODUCTION

While cybercrime protection is an area of significant focus in human-computer interaction (HCI) research [10], relatively little is known about the prevalence and severity of the cybercrimes we aim to prevent. Most efforts to quantify the size and cost of crime still focus solely on physical crimes (e.g., robbery, assault), ignoring the reality of digital victimization [5, 6].



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Yet, in an empirical science of HCI, “measurements create certain possibilities for action and exclude other possibilities” [59]. That is, data – or a lack of it – guides system design. In the presence of data on people’s digital experiences of crime (i.e., cybercrime incidence), for example, HCI researchers and security technologists may prioritize the design of certain cybercrime protections over others. In the absence of such data, researchers may instead privilege the goals of technology companies or state entities that fund their research [59] or turn to computational transformations – “solve[ing] a computationally tractable transformation of a problem rather than the problem itself” [7] – to prioritize design and intervention. As such, recent research in HCI [10] and in cybersecurity [66] calls for measurement of cybercrime to provide appropriate context for the data-driven design of interventions, with the former noting that: “it is critical that we examine and make explicit the impact of crime...to inform safer, intelligent and just digital and non-digital spaces for all.”

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Perceived monetary losses are a significant driver of research agendas. For example, research efforts to get users to choose strong passwords or adopt two-factor authentication generally assume that these measures would significantly reduce losses [29]. Work appearing in CHI that addresses efficacy of phishing countermeasures and training [21, 51, 79] routinely cites the Gartner estimates of phishing monetary losses as a justification for research on phishing prevention [1]. As monetary loss is not only a common justification for the prioritization of cybercrime interventions but also the metric used in existing government statistics that are leveraged to decide the funding awarded for cybercrime research, we focus on cybercrimes – computer- or internet-enabled crimes – where a victim suffers a monetary loss.

Our work addresses four primary research questions, the first three of which are:

**RQ1** What is the prevalence of six representative cybercrimes in the U.S.?

<sup>3</sup>Best known as “Nigerian Prince” or 419 scams [25].

<sup>4</sup>For more detail regarding our selection criteria see Section 3.1.

# Two Papers, One Question: How Bad Is It?

|                 | DeKoven et al.                               |
|-----------------|----------------------------------------------|
| <b>Analogy</b>  | “Does the medicine work?”                    |
| <b>Measures</b> | Whether security practices reduce compromise |
| <b>Approach</b> | Passive network monitoring                   |

**Complementary:** Network monitoring sees what users can't report; surveys capture the human experience that network data cannot.

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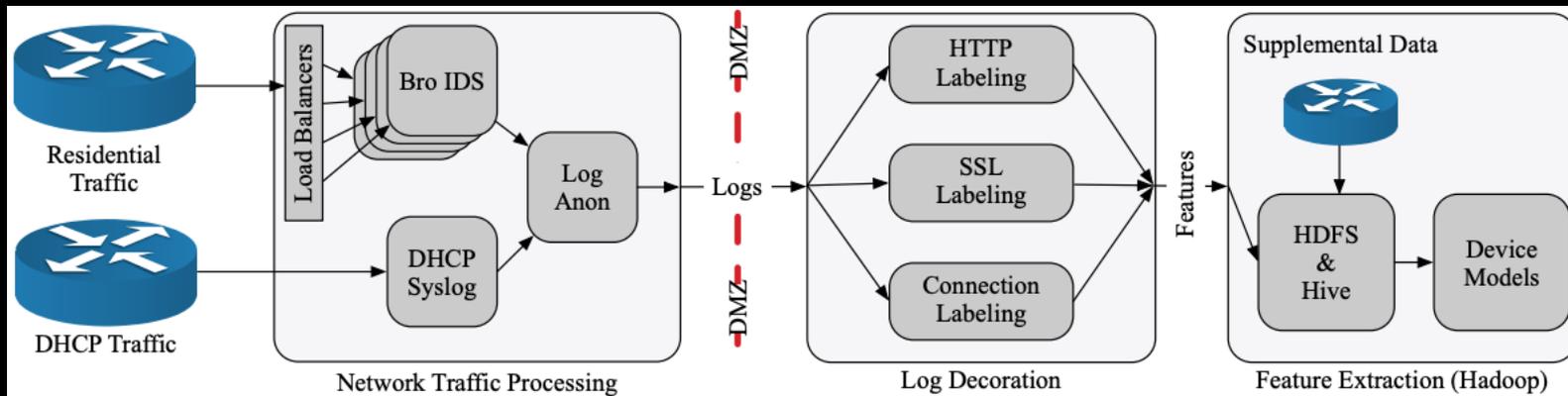
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# Research Questions and Security Outcomes

1. **Prevalence:** To what extent are common security “best practices” actually adopted by real users?
2. **Efficacy:** When adopted, do these practices actually reduce the likelihood of compromise?

# Measurement Setup



- **~15,000 desktop/laptop devices** on a university residential network
- **6 months** of observation (June–December 2018)

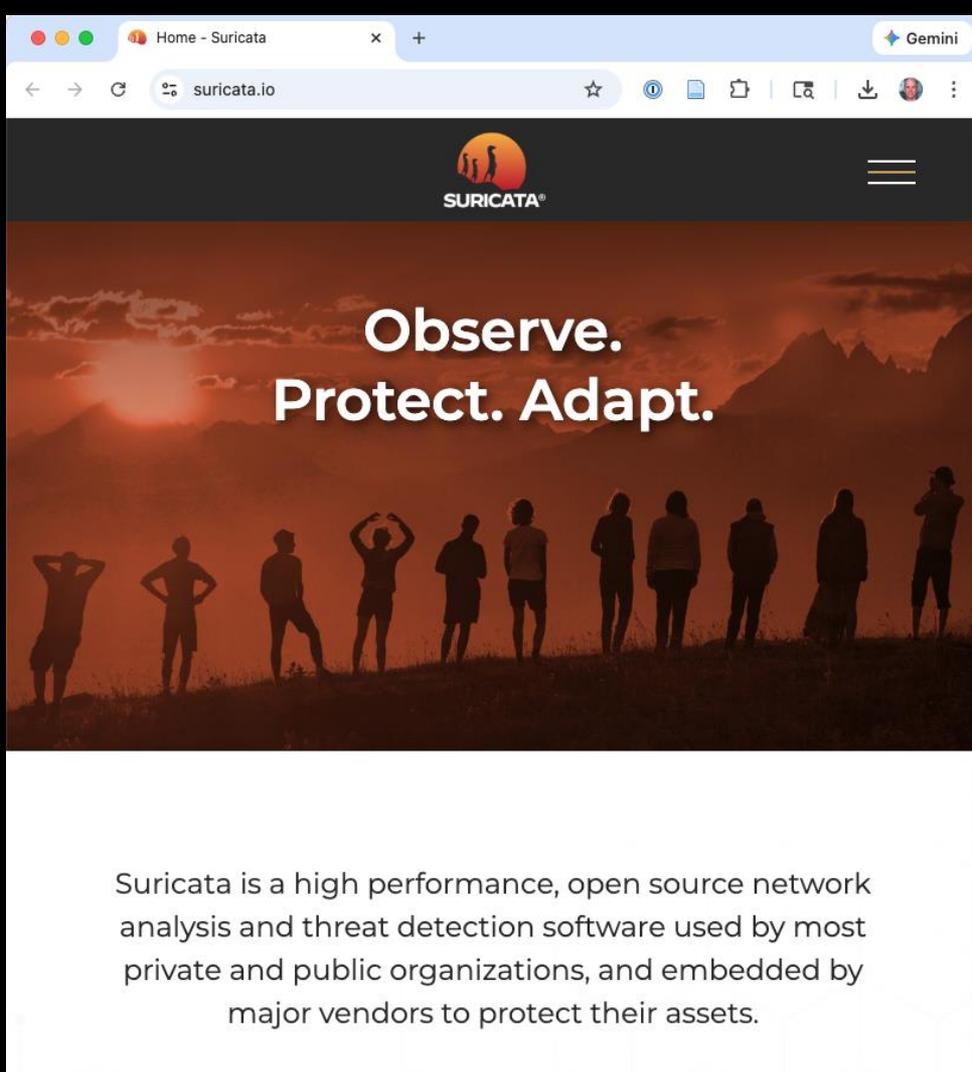
# Inferring Device Features from Traffic

**68 custom network signatures** infer a device profile from traffic alone:

| Traffic Signal                           | Inferred Feature           |
|------------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Host: <code>avast-update.com</code>      | Antivirus: Avast           |
| User-Agent: ... Windows NT 10.0          | OS: Windows 10             |
| DNS: <code>tracker.torproject.org</code> | Tor usage                  |
| Version change in UA string              | Software update event      |
| IAB Content Taxonomy match               | Website categories visited |

# Detecting Compromise

- Campus **Suricata IDS**
  - Restricted to **post-infection behavior** (e.g., C&C communication), not pre-compromise activity
- Rules manually curated to **remove frequent false-positive triggers**
- **Overall compromise rate: 4.5%** (682 of 15,291 devices)

The image shows a browser window displaying the Suricata website. The browser's address bar shows 'suricata.io'. The website header features the Suricata logo, which consists of a stylized orange sun with silhouettes of people, and the text 'SURICATA®'. Below the header is a large banner with a sunset background and silhouettes of people on a hill. The banner text reads 'Observe. Protect. Adapt.' in white. Below the banner is a white section with black text describing Suricata as high-performance, open-source network analysis and threat detection software.

Home - Suricata x + Gemini

suricata.io

**SURICATA®**

**Observe.  
Protect. Adapt.**

Suricata is a high performance, open source network analysis and threat detection software used by most private and public organizations, and embedded by major vendors to protect their assets.

# Key Results: Individual Security Practices

| Finding                        | Detail                                                                      | Verdict                      |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| OS matters                     | Windows 3.9× more likely compromised than macOS                             | ✓ Robust                     |
| Risky software                 | Thunderbird 33%, P2P 13%, Tor 12%, Adobe AIR 10%                            | ✓ Robust                     |
| Web activity volume            | More traffic → more compromise (“miles driven”)                             | ✓ Robust                     |
| Gaming / hobby sites           | Strongest content predictor of compromise                                   | ✓ Robust                     |
| Updates don’t help (much)      | No significant protective effect; compromised devices updated <i>faster</i> | ⚠ Surprising                 |
| AV doesn’t help (in this data) | AV users: 7% compromised vs. non-AV: 4%                                     | ⚠ Survivorship bias          |
| Password managers              | 8% compromise (vs. 4% baseline)                                             | ⚠ Confounded by user profile |

# Statistical Methods Used

| Test                             | Paper's Use                      | What It Tests                              |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| <b>Mann-Whitney U</b>            | OS/browser update speed          | Two independent groups, same distribution? |
| <b>Wilcoxon signed-rank</b>      | Before/after compromise updates  | Paired observations differ?                |
| <b>Kolmogorov-Smirnov</b>        | Web content categories           | Two distributions differ in any way?       |
| <b>Chi-Square</b>                | Software features vs. compromise | Association between categorical variables  |
| <b>Bonferroni</b>                | Applied to KS, Chi-Square        | Controls family-wise error rate            |
| <b>LASSO logistic regression</b> | Feature importance ranking (§6)  | Binary classification + variable selection |

# Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test

## Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test: Same Device, Before vs. After Compromise



Time →

Each device is its own control — paired data requires a paired test  
Result: devices update significantly faster after compromise ( $p = 4.8 \times 10^{-12}$ )

- Before compromise (days between updates)
- ◆ After compromise (days between updates)
- - - Compromise event

# Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test

**The paired-data cousin of Mann-Whitney U**

- **Procedure:**

1. Compute difference for each pair
2. Rank the absolute differences
3. Compare rank sums of positive vs. negative differences

- **Null hypothesis:** Differences are symmetric around zero

**Paper's use:** Devices update significantly faster *after* compromise than before ( $p = 4.8 \times 10^{-12}$ )

# Which features matter most when considered together?

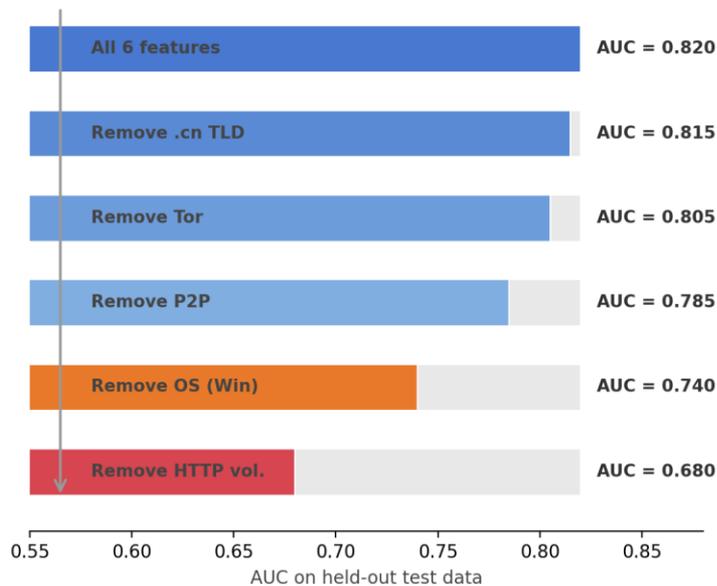
Approach: LASSO (L1 regularization) logistic regression

- **Why?**
  - Outcome is binary (compromised or not)
  - Hundreds of features → need automatic variable selection
    - Penalty shrinks unimportant coefficients to **exactly zero**
- **Why AUC-ROC?** With 4.5% base rate, accuracy is misleading
  - 95.5% by always predicting “clean”

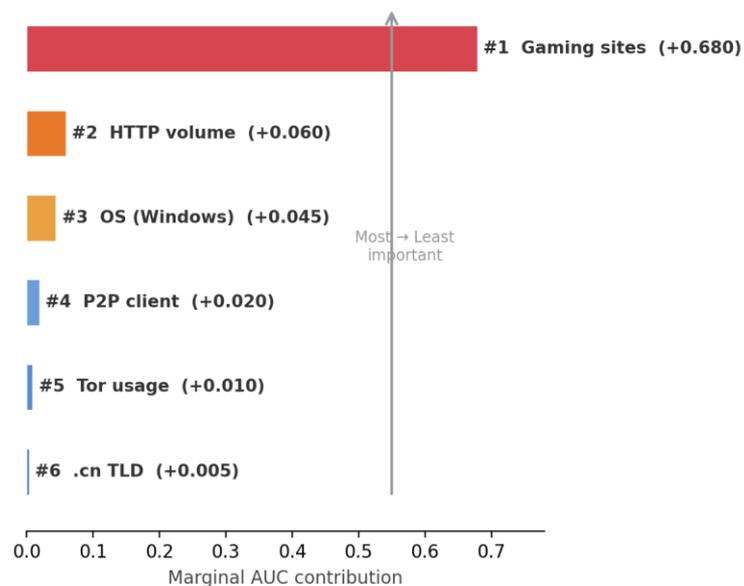
# Feature Ranking: Greedy Deletion

## Greedy Deletion Algorithm for Feature Importance

### 1. Remove least important feature each step



### 2. Read in reverse → importance ranking



Hypothetical data inspired by DeKoven et al. Table 9 — actual values differ

# Why Not Multiple Linear Regression with AIC?

|                           | <b>LASSO + Greedy Deletion</b>               |
|---------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| <b>Complexity penalty</b> | Aggressive; built-in variable selection      |
| <b>Evaluation</b>         | Out-of-sample performance (AUC)              |
| <b>Scalability</b>        | Handles hundreds of features well            |
| <b>Output</b>             | Clear feature ranking with AUC contributions |

# Key Results from LASSO Analysis

- **Behavioral features dominate** — web content and traffic volume matter more than security software
- **Visiting gaming sites** is the single strongest predictor of compromise (+68–76% AUC contribution)
- **HTTP traffic to .cn TLD** is a strong signal for macOS devices
- **IE User-Agent string** is an artifact — actually reflects QQ chat and Qihoo 360 usage, not Internet Explorer

# Broader Lessons from DeKoven et al.

1. **Evidence-based security is hard** — confounders everywhere, randomized experiments nearly impossible
2. **Correlation  $\neq$  causation is especially tricky** — Tor users are more compromised, but is Tor the cause?
3. **Best practices may signal more than they protect** — password manager users aren't compromised *because of* the tool
4. **Volume of activity is the strongest predictor** — more web activity  
→ more exposure → more risk

# A Large-Scale Measurement of Cybercrime Against Individuals

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<sup>1</sup>Best known as “Nigerian Prince” or 419 scams [25].

<sup>2</sup>For more detail regarding our selection criteria see Section 3.1.

# Four Research Questions

1. **Prevalence** — What is the prevalence of various cybercrimes against U.S. *individuals*?
2. **Monetary Impact** — What is the financial cost?
3. **Inequities** — Do demographic disparities exist in who is victimized?
4. **NSUM** — Can the network scale-up method improve cybercrime measurement?

What are past approaches and their problems?

Source:

# FBI Internet Crime Complaint Center (IC3)

- Victims of crime volunteer information
- Last 5 years: 2000 per day

The screenshot shows the 'Complaint Form - Internet Crime' page on ic3.gov. It features a navigation menu and a progress bar with seven steps: 1. Who is Filing this Complaint?, 2. Complainant Information, 3. Financial Transaction(s), 4. Information About The Subject(s), 5. Description of Incident, 6. Other Information, and 7. Privacy & Signature. Step 1 is currently selected. Below the progress bar, there is a section titled 'Who is Filing this Complaint?' with a list of instructions: a red asterisk (\*) indicates a required field; all other fields are optional; and users should not provide Personally Identifiable Information (PII) such as Social Security numbers or dates of birth.

FBI IC3 estimates that only 10-12% of cybercrimes are reported

## File a Complaint with Us

**!** If you or someone else is in immediate danger, please call 911 or your local police.

The IC3 focuses on collecting cyber-enabled crime. Crimes against children should be filed with the [National Center for Missing and Exploited Children](#). Other types of crimes, such as threats of terrorism, should be reported at [tips.fbi.gov](https://tips.fbi.gov).

 **File A Complaint**

## How You Can Help



**Tell us what happened.**

File a report to share information with the FBI. IC3 is the main intake form for a variety of complaints — everything from cyber-enabled frauds and scams to cybercrime — so file a report even if you are unsure of whether your complaint qualifies.



**Your contribution and our mission.**

Your report helps us fulfill our mission of protecting the American people. While we cannot guarantee a response to every complaint, your report is still valuable. It helps us understand the broader threat landscape. Furthermore, in those cases where we are able to take action, we will work to provide justice.

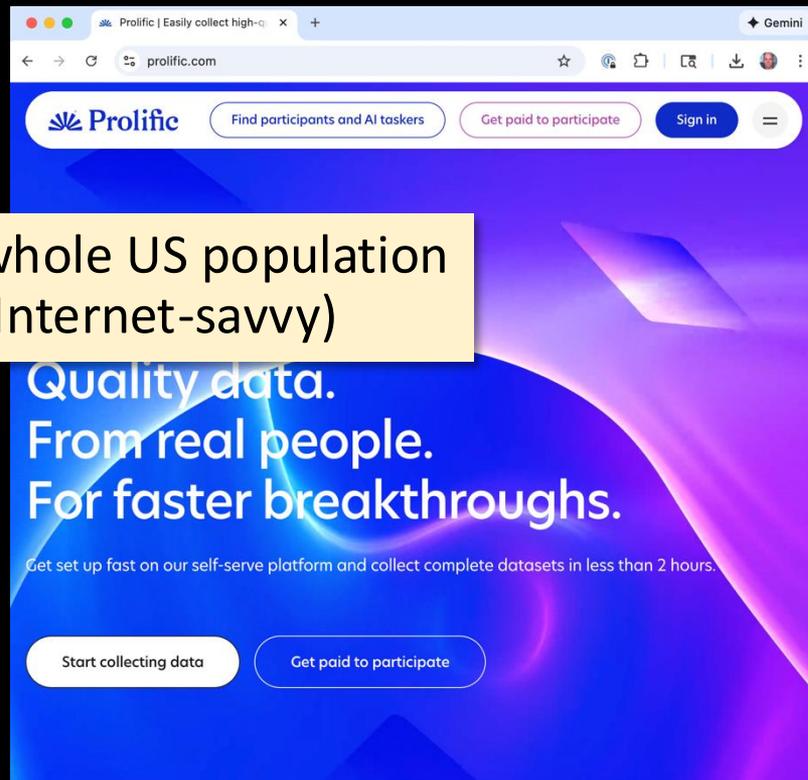
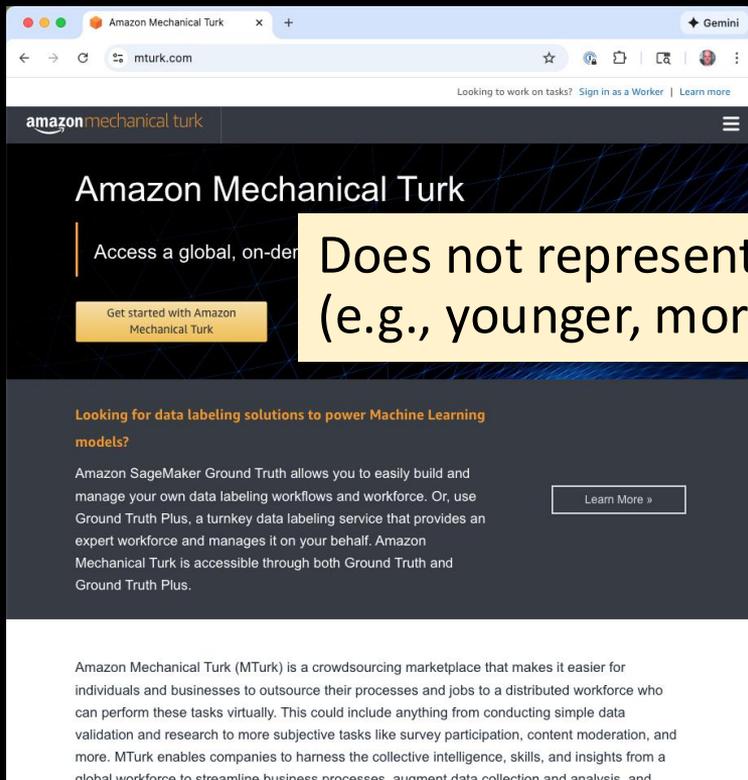


**Protect yourself and others.**

If you have suffered from a cyber-enabled crime, please know that you are not alone. Use the resources on this site to learn more about how to protect yourself and others from cybercrime.

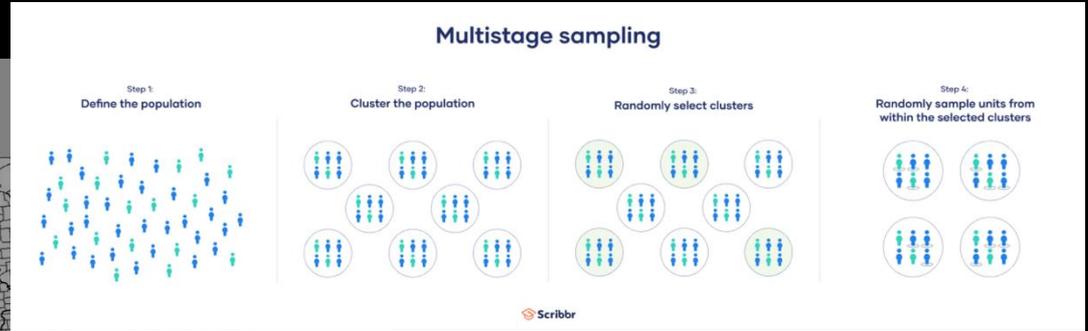
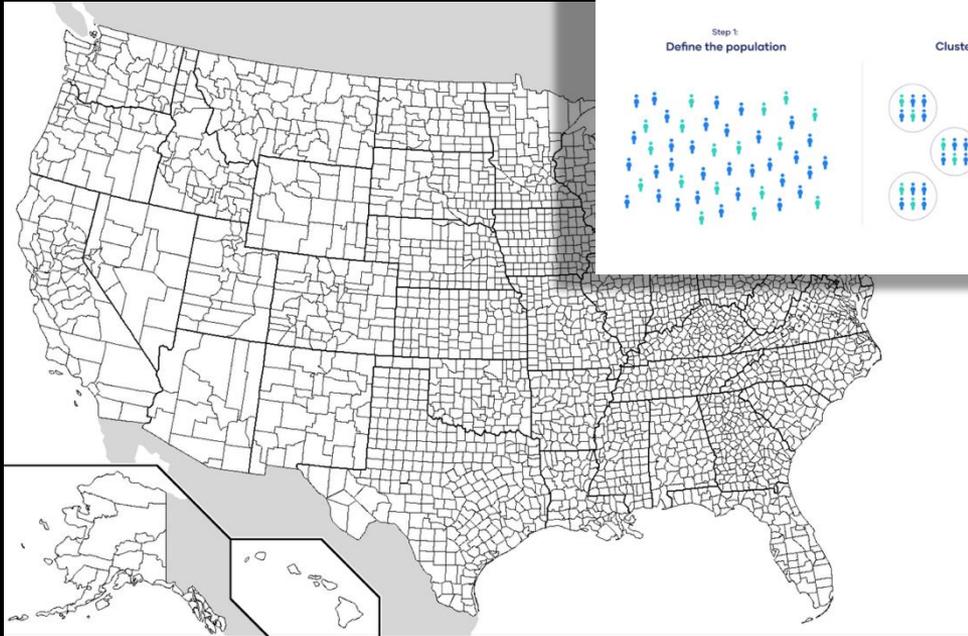
Source

# Recruiting paid participants on-line



Whole population

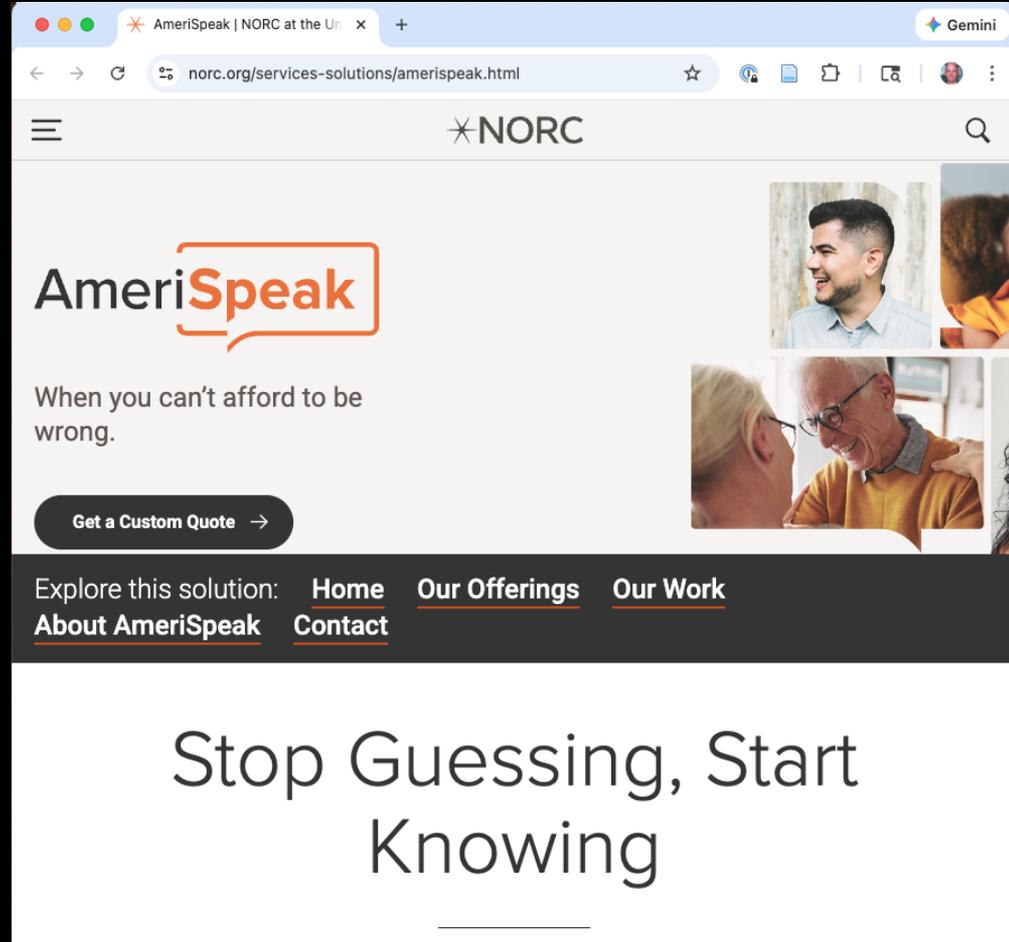
# Multistage (and probabilistic) sampling



Select a committed  
“panel” for repeat surveys

# AmeriSpeak Panel

- **Probability-based panel** operated by NORC at the University of Chicago
- Households selected via **area probability + address-based sampling**
- Multi-mode recruitment: mail, telephone, **in-person field interviewers**
- Covers **~97% of U.S. household population**
- Used by major government-funded studies



The screenshot shows a web browser displaying the AmeriSpeak website. The browser's address bar shows the URL `norc.org/services-solutions/amerispeak.html`. The website header includes the NORC logo and a search icon. The main content area features the AmeriSpeak logo, the tagline "When you can't afford to be wrong.", and a "Get a Custom Quote" button. A navigation menu below the main content lists "Home", "Our Offerings", "Our Work", "About AmeriSpeak", and "Contact". The main headline at the bottom of the page reads "Stop Guessing, Start Knowing".

AmeriSpeak

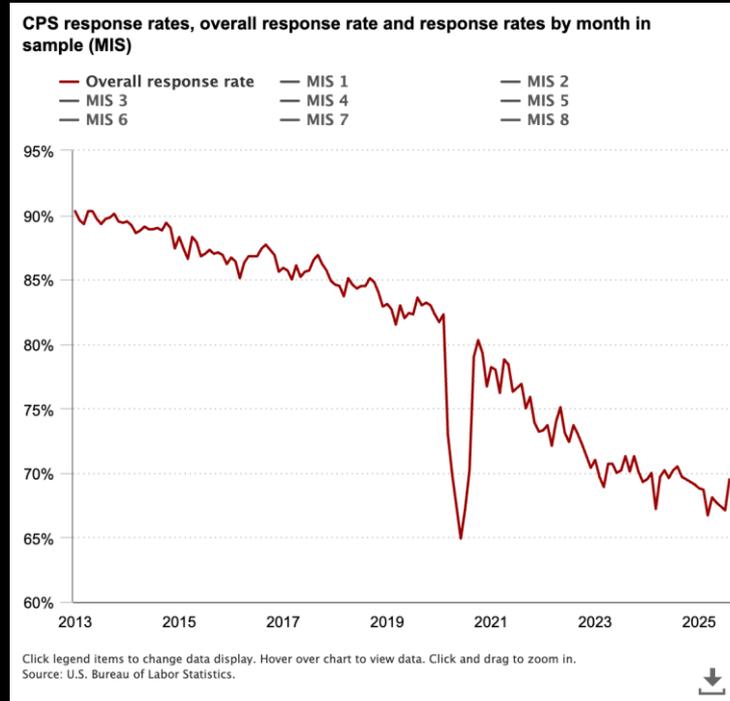
When you can't afford to be wrong.

Get a Custom Quote →

Explore this solution: [Home](#) [Our Offerings](#) [Our Work](#)  
[About AmeriSpeak](#) [Contact](#)

Stop Guessing, Start Knowing

# Aside: Concern with response rate



# Two Samples, One Study

|                         | General Sample         | “Rare Event” Sample  |
|-------------------------|------------------------|----------------------|
| <b>N</b>                | 1,002                  | 10,951               |
| <b>Purpose</b>          | Estimate common crimes | Estimate rare crimes |
| <b>Crime base rates</b> | High enough (~6–23%)   | Very low (<1%)       |

**Why two sizes?** Statistical power for rare events

- A 0.5% crime in  $N=1,002 \rightarrow \sim 5$  victims (too few)
- A 0.5% crime in  $N=10,951 \rightarrow \sim 55$  victims (enough for basic estimation)

# RQ1: Cybercrime Prevalence

Roughly 1 in 8 U.S. adults per year.

Rates are **much higher** than FBI IC3 data

| Crime Type                  | Annualized Prevalence |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------|
| Banking / Credit Card Fraud | ~12%                  |
| Non-Delivery Scam           | ~3%                   |
| Non-Payment                 | ~0.3%                 |
| Overpayment                 | ~0.2%                 |
| Extortion                   | ~0.1%                 |
| Advance Fee                 | ~0.1%                 |

Based on the general sample

# How Probability Sampling Changes Statistics

**Without survey weights** (e.g., DeKoven et al.):

- Proportion = count / total
- Standard CI formulas apply directly

**With survey weights** (Breen et al.):

- Weighted proportion =  $\Sigma(\text{weight} \times \text{indicator}) / \Sigma(\text{weight})$
- CI must account for survey design (not just sample size)

Source:

# National Crime Victimization Survey

- Annual interview of representative sample of about 240,000 persons in about 150,000 US households
- Non-fatal personal crimes, officially reported or not

National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS)

**Data Collection Status:** Active  
**Frequency:** Annual  
**Latest Data Available:** 2024

**Data Experts:** Rachel Morgan, PhD, BJS Statistician  
Rebecca Bielamowicz, PhD, BJS Statistician  
Emilie Coen, DrPH, BJS Statistician  
Susannah Tapp, PhD, BJS Statistician  
Alexandra Thompson, BJS Statistician  
Erin Tinney, PhD, BJS Statistician  
Jennifer Truman, PhD, BJS Statistician

**Collection Period:** 1973–2024

The BJS National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) is the nation's primary source of information on criminal victimization. Each year, data are obtained from a nationally representative sample of about 240,000 persons in about 150,000 households. Persons are interviewed on the frequency, characteristics, and consequences of criminal victimization in the United States. The NCVS collects information on nonfatal personal crimes (i.e., rape or sexual assault, robbery, aggravated and simple assault, and personal larceny) and household property crimes (i.e., burglary/trespassing, motor vehicle theft, and other types of theft) both reported and not reported to the police. Survey respondents provide information about themselves (e.g., age, sex, race and Hispanic origin, marital status, education level, and income) and whether they experienced a

Source:  
National Crime  
Victimization Survey  
Identity Theft Supplement

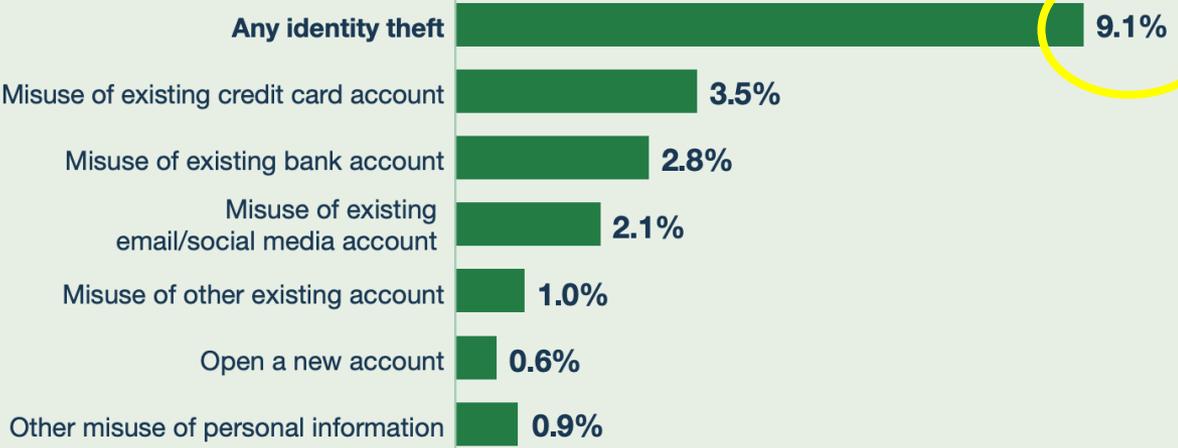
- Followup questionnaire to NCVS
- Done roughly every two years
  - Last done in 2021

The screenshot shows a web browser window with the URL [bjs.ojp.gov/data-collection/identity-theft-supplement-its#0-0](https://bjs.ojp.gov/data-collection/identity-theft-supplement-its#0-0). The page header features the Department of Justice seal and the Bureau of Justice Statistics logo. A yellow 'Menu' button is located in the top right corner. The main heading is 'Identity Theft Supplement (ITS)'. Below this, the page lists: 'Data Collection Status: Active', 'Frequency: Approximately every 2 years', and 'Latest Data Available: 2021'. It also identifies 'Data Experts: Alexandra Thompson, BJS Statistician' and 'Collection Period: 2008, 2012, 2014, 2016, 2018, and 2021'. A paragraph describes the survey's administration to persons aged 16 and older, detailing the types of identity theft incidents covered. A yellow 'Methodology' section is partially visible at the bottom, starting with 'The ITS collected individual data on the prevalence of, and victim response to, successful misuse of an existing account, misuse of personal information to open a new account, or misuse of personal information for other fraudulent purposes. Respondents were asked whether they experienced any of these types of misuse in their lifetime and in the 12 months prior to the interview.'

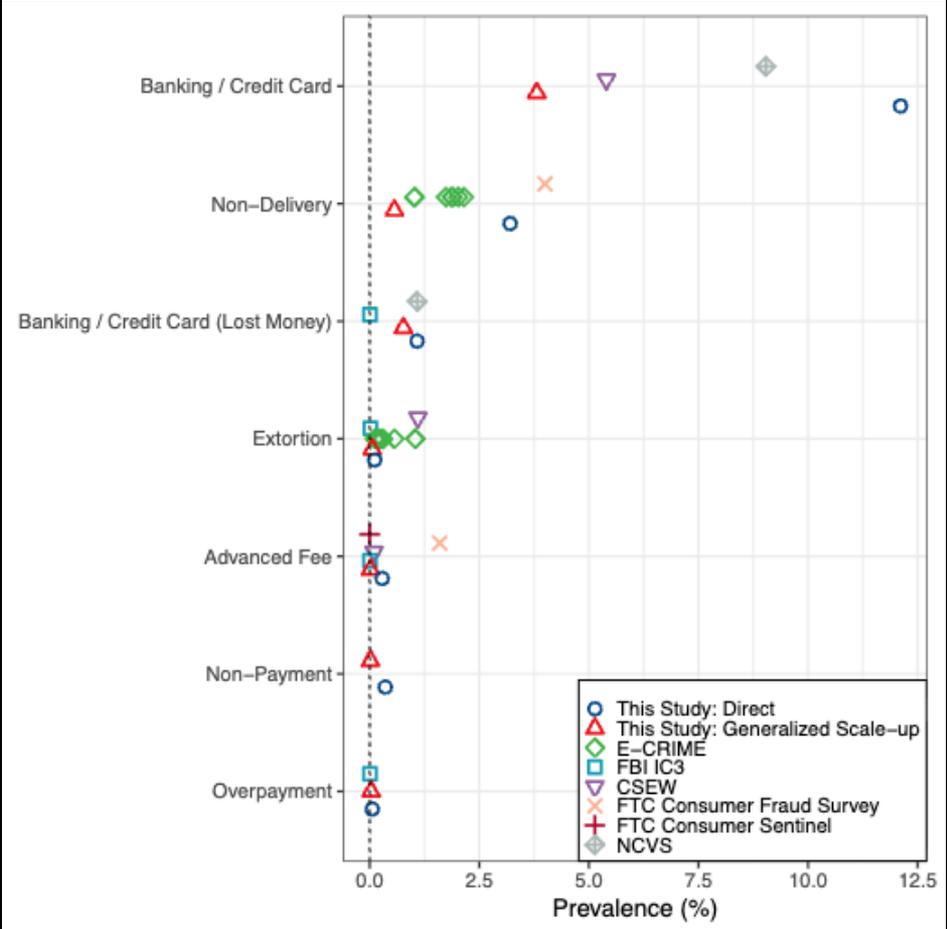
Lower prevalence  
(but not the same  
methodology,  
questions)

# Victims of Identity Theft, 2021

In 2021, **23.9 million persons (9% of all U.S. residents)** reported that they had been a victim of identity theft.



# Comparing other data sources



# RQ2: Monetary Impact

Median losses are modest

| Cybercrime           | Prevalence          | Money Lost (Dollars) |                 |                 |
|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|                      | Direct Estimate (%) | Median               | Q <sub>10</sub> | Q <sub>90</sub> |
| Bank/CC (any)        | 12.110              |                      |                 |                 |
| Bank/CC (lost money) | 1.082               | 265.95               | 32.34           | 1000.00         |
| Non-Delivery         | 3.205               | 57.05                | 15.00           | 300.00          |
| Advanced Fee         | 0.280               | 500.00               | 14.32           | 3000.00         |
| Non-Payment          | 0.344               | 100.00               | 13.66           | 700.00          |
| Extortion            | 0.116               | 300.00               | 56.65           | 1442.25         |
| Overpayment          | 0.052               | 88.01                | 35.00           | 854.27          |

Distribution is heavily right-skewed

# RQ3: Demographic Inequities

Look ma! No LASSO!



**Weighted logistic regression** with demographic predictors: age, race/ethnicity, gender, income, education, internet skills

Key findings:

- **No single “victim profile”** across all crime types — patterns vary
- **Internet skills** matter: higher skill associated with different victimization patterns
- Some crimes show income/education associations, but direction isn't always intuitive

All associations are **observational**, not causal!

# Limitations

- **COVID-19 timing** (July–September 2020) may have affected both cybercrime rates and survey participation
- **English-only** survey misses non-English-speaking populations
- **Recall and recognition bias** — victims may not accurately recall or identify experiences
- **Cross-sectional** — single snapshot, no ability to measure trends
- **NSUM** (not covered) **underperformed** — barrier effects made it produce underestimates rather than the hoped-for improvement

# Some Takeaways

- 1. Cybercrime on individuals had modest effect** — Most crimes are rare, but some are common (credit card fraud), and in general cost users little  
“a typical consumer stands to lose \$22.90 ( $= \$6.87 \div 0.3$ ) and in the worst 90th percentile case a consumer stands to lose \$111.87 annually”
- 2. Corporate estimates of crime seem much higher** — Gartner, McAfee, Norton, ...

# Backup: Network Scale-Up Method (NSUM)

# NSUM: What It Is & Why You'd Want It

**Problem:** Direct surveys only capture victimization the respondent **recognizes and is willing to report.**

**NSUM idea:** Ask people about **people they know** instead of themselves:

“How many people do you know who experienced [cybercrime X]?”

**Why this might help:**

- Even if *you* wouldn't report your own victimization, friends/family might mention theirs
- Aggregating across many respondents' networks could capture hidden victimization
- Has worked in **public health** for estimating hard-to-count populations (IV drug users, sex workers)

# How NSUM Works

- 1. Estimate each respondent's network size** — “How many people do you know named Emily? Walter? Ralph?” (12 calibration names with known population frequencies)
- 2. Ask about the target** — “How many people do you know who experienced [crime X]?”
- 3. Basic estimate:** Prevalence  $\approx$  (reported crime contacts) / (total network size)
- 4. Correction factors (Generalized NSUM):**
  - **Degree ratio:** Do victims have larger/smaller networks?
  - **Visibility factor:** What fraction of a victim's network *knows* about the crime?

# What We Expected vs. What Happened

**Expectation:** NSUM estimates should be **higher** than direct self-reports (capturing hidden victims, like in public health).

**Reality:** NSUM estimates were **lower** in every crime category.

| Crime Type            | Direct Estimate | NSUM Estimate |
|-----------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| Banking / Credit Card | ~12.1%          | ~3.9%         |
| Non-Delivery          | ~3.2%           | ~0.6%         |
| Non-Payment           | ~0.3%           | ~0.02%        |
| Extortion             | ~0.1%           | ~0.06%        |

# What NSUM's Failure Tells Us

**NSUM is not a universal fix for under-reporting.** It requires that network members *know about* each other's status.

**Why it works in public health:** Being an IV drug user or sex worker is often known/observable to close contacts.

**Why it fails for cybercrime:** Victimization is private, brief, embarrassing — invisible even to close contacts.

**The silver lining:** This is itself a finding — cybercrime is a largely *private* experience, which means:

- Social support for victims may be lacking
- Community-based interventions face adoption challenges
- Future NSUM attempts could focus on closer contacts (family, close friends)