# Literature Review Outline

1. **Introduction**
   1. A systematic review was conducted to identify studies on cybersecurity, cyber risk management behavior, cyberinsurance, and theoretical studies on Protection Motivation Theory and the theory of planned behavior.
      1. The database was used to search the terms including: *cybersecurity, cybersecurity risk, online privacy, cyberinsurance, Protection Motivation Theory, theory of planned behavior, cybersecurity and age, cybersecurity and gender, cybersecurity and ethnicity, digital divide, online risk, social media, information sharing, cybersecurity practices, cybersecurity perceptions,* and *mobile security.*
      2. Publications were restricted to peer-reviewed journals and only recent publications (since year 2011) were used except for a minority of earlier seminal publications.
      3. Reference lists in publications were also used to screen for acceptable studies.
      4. There is a potential for selection bias as the search was limited to published, peer-reviewed studies written in English. However, due to the nature of the study, sources applicable to Internet-use in the United States were of interest.
   2. Inadequate cyber safety measures significantly impact the security of privacy and economic stability individuals (Choi et al., 2015); Onarlioglu et al.,2012; Othmane et al., 2013; Pfleeger & Caputo, 2012).
      1. Human error accounts for 50% to 75% of data breaches.
      2. $20 billion in economic losses are a result of cybersecurity breaches (Choi et al., 2013; Lagrule, 2015).
      3. Factors such as age, gender, and ethnicity have not adequately been examined in contexts of technology use, accessibility, and safety practices (Chakraborty et al., 2013; Maaß, 2011; Sánchez, Kaplan, & Bradley, 2015; Kisekka et al., 2013; Sofo & Sofo, 2014; Thelwall, 2011; Whitty et al., 2015).
      4. The proposed study will examine cybersecurity practices and perceptions using Protection Motivation Theory and the theory of planned behavior (Crossler & Bélanger, 2014; Saeri et al., 2014; Salleh et al., 2012).
   3. Transition to next section.
      1. Research has shown that cybersecurity risks are not always adequately addressed or realized (Claar & Johnson, 2012; Hettema et al., 2014).

# Cybersecurity Risks

* 1. Cybersecurity risks threaten micro-level stability such as individual financial stability and unethical use of personal information as well as

macro-level stability including organizational and governmental stability and functionality (Choi et al., 2013; Levy et al., 2013; Onarlioglu et al., 2012; Othmane et al., 2013; Pfleeger & Caputo, 2012).

* 1. Human error and misuse is a substantial factor in cybersecurity breaches (Choi et al., 2013; Lagrule, 2015).
     1. There is a gap in consistent data on the impact of human behaviors and perceptions on safe security practices (Choi et al., 2013; Crossler & Bélanger, 2014; Onarlioglu et al., 2012; Othmane et al., 2013; Pfleeger & Caputo, 2012; Saeri et al., 2014; Salleh et al., 2012).
     2. There is also a need to examine perceptions that keep individuals from adopting safe security practices (Claar & Johnson, 2012; Crossler & Bélanger, 2014).
  2. Transition to next section.
     1. Protection Motivation Theory is a framework often used to analyze behavioral factors that affect security adoption behaviors.

# Protection Motivation Theory

* 1. Protection Motivation Theory is used to understand fear and risk motivation (Crossler & Bélanger, 2014; Salleh et al., 2012).
     1. Crossler and Bélanger (2014) found that the literature is not consistent on the effect of perceived severity and vulnerability with safe security practices.
     2. Salleh et al. (2012), found that cybersecurity behaviors were mediated by all of the tenets of PMT.
  2. Perceived vulnerabilities, perceived severity, previous incidents, and response efficacy affect the adoption of safe security practices (Anwar et al., 2015; Choo et al., 2015; Crossler & Bélanger, 2014; Salleh et al., 2012).
     1. Skill is not as much of a factor as perceptions and beliefs in the adoption of safe security practices (Anwar et al., 2015; Choo et al., 2015; Crossler & Bélanger, 2014; Salleh et al., 2012).
     2. More research is needed to separate insider deviant behavior and misbehavior, understand hackers, and improve security compliance (Crossler et al., 2013).
  3. Some research suggests perception of responsibility and personal and work boundaries also affect the adoption of safe security practices (Ifinedo, 2012; McBride et al., 2012; Safa et al., 2015; Warkentin et al., 2012).
     1. Individuals that do not feel continuity in organizational cybersecurity policies and their role in the organization are less likely to consistently adopt and use safe security practices (Ifinedo, 2012; McBride et al., 2012; Safa et al., 2015; Warkentin et al., 2012).
  4. Cultural differences in risk perceptions affect security habits (Bada et al., 2014; Crossler et al., 2013; Whitty et al., 2015).
  5. Threat appraisals may be more successful in promoting safe security practices than coping appeals (Boss et al., 2015; Lee, 2011).
  6. Transition to next section.
     1. The theory of planned behavior is also used to examine cybersecurity behavior by linking beliefs to behaviors.

# Theory of Planned Behavior

* 1. The theory of planned behavior posits that subjective norms mediate behavior intentions (Ajzen, 1991; Saeri et al., 2014).
  2. Tenets of the theory of planned behavior, including security experience and involvement, attitude, subjective norms, threat appraisal, and self- efficacy, positively affect user behavior (Claar & Johnson, 2012; Ifinedo, 2012; Safa et al., 2015; Sommestad & Hallberg, 2013).
     1. Online behaviors, attitudes, and normative beliefs are mediated through intentions (Burns & Roberts, 2013).
     2. Perceived behavioral control affects security behaviors (Burns & Roberts).
     3. Technical knowledge, organizational impact, and attacker assessment are correlated with cybersecurity awareness (Mejias, 2012).
  3. Cultural differences affect sharing behavior (Hassandoust et al., 2012).
  4. Security incidents affect safe security practice adoption (Lee & Lee, 2012).
  5. Transition to next section.
     1. Online habits, social media practices, and information disclosure results in a privacy paradox between social interaction and cybersecurity practices (Lewis, 2011; Taddicken & Jers, 2011; Trepte & Reineke, 2011; Ziegele & Quiring, 2011).

# Information Disclosure and Privacy

* 1. Cybersecurity misconceptions, smart device use, lack of awareness, and information disclosure behavior affect security risks (Geneiatakis et al., 2013; Henshel et al., 2015; Manson & Pike, 2014; McClain et al., 2015; Onarlioglu et al., 2012, Othmane et al., 2013; Pfleeger & Caputo, 2012; Salem & Stolfo, 2011; Wang, 2013).
  2. Social capital theory has been used to explain information-sharing behavior.
     1. Lack of sharing leads to reduced user experience and may be seen as anti-normative in some contexts (Ellison et al., 2011; Joinson et al., 2011; Papacharissi & Gibson, 2011).
     2. Privacy can be seen as a way to control personal information or to control outside perceptions (Debatin, 2011; Yao, 2011).
     3. Privacy is dynamic and defined by users (Hartmann, 2011).
  3. Social networking provides avenues for self-presentation and new avenues for presenting the self (Krämer & Haferkamp, 2011; Papacharissi & Gibson, 2011).
     1. Social networking and the ability to present the self may conflict with privacy maintenance (Krämer & Haferkamp, 2011).
  4. Transition to next section.
     1. Cybersecurity practices are affected by access, technological exposure, and perceptions mediated by age, ethnicity, and sex.

# Cybersecurity Practices and the Digital Divide

* 1. Research has shown older individuals and women are greatly impacted by cybersecurity threats (Sánchez et al., 2015).
  2. Social media use in older individuals has doubled from 2009 to 2010 (Maaß, 2011).
     1. Email and internet searches are the most commonly used Internet functions in older individuals (Maaß, 2011).
  3. Individuals over the age of 55 are more vulnerable to cybersecurity threats (Sánchez et al., 2015).
  4. Older individuals are more likely to disclose private information online (Chakraborty et al., 2013; Kisekka et al., 2013).
     1. Older adults are influenced by friends on social media and may feel more comfortable with sharing information when they observe their friends sharing information (Chakraborty et al., 2013).
  5. Older individuals also face barriers, such as medical issues, to acquiring technological skill (Sofo & Sofo, 2014).
  6. Specific cybersecurity concerns, such as cyberbullying and stalking, affect women more frequently (Thelwall, 2011).
     1. Some women are more likely to use Internet websites due to the perceived safety of communicating online verses in person (where the threat of physical violence is a possibility) (Thelwall, 2011).
  7. Transition to next section.
     1. Cybersecurity measures can be taken to aid in providing technological security.

# Cyberinsurance

* 1. Cyberinsurance and safety measures, including decoy information fogging, can provide individuals and network providers with solutions to dealing with cybersecurity threats (Bowen et al., 2011; Pal & Hui, 2012; Pal et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2014; Stolfo et al., 2012; Toregas & Zahn, 2014; Zang & Lui, 2014).
  2. Risk estimation can be calculated using connection network information, user behavior, health insurance models, and prediction markets (Bandyopadhyay, 2012; Barracchini & Addessi, 2014; Bonner, 2012; Garrie & Mann, 2014; Herath & Herath, 2011; Lazka, 2014; Pal & Hui, 2012; Pal et al., 2014; Pandey & Snekkenes, 2014; Stolfo et al., 2012; Toregas & Zahn, 2014; Zang & Lui, 2014).
     1. Some research, however, suggests that cyberinsurance is

impractical because security is interdependent on an individual’s own security and network security (Schwartz et al., 2013).

* + 1. Biener et al. (2015) argue that because cyber systems are designed in similar ways, they are vulnerable to the same risks; therefore, cyberinsurance can be designed based on risk estimation.
  1. Transition to next section.
     1. Several methodological issues in the literature on cybersecurity must be addressed.

# Summary

* 1. Self-reporting may be a limiting factor in the quantitative studies that assessed cybersecurity behaviors.
  2. There is a lack in consistency in qualitative studies on cybersecurity behaviors (Boss et al., 2015; Choi et al., 2013; Crossler & Bélanger, 2014; Onarlioglu et al., 2012; Othmane et al., 2013; Pfleeger & Caputo, 2012; Saeri et al., 2014; Salleh et al., 2012).
  3. Cyberinsurance has been theoretically examined, but user perceptions on cyberinsurance have not been addressed (Bandyopadhyay, 2012; Barracchini & Addessi, 2014; Lazka, 2014; Pal & Hui, 2012; Pal et al., 2014; Pandey & Snekkenes, 2014; Stolfo et al., 2012; Toregas & Zahn, 2014; Zang & Lui, 2014).

# Conclusion

* 1. In order to improve cybersecurity awareness and safe security practice adoption, research needs to analyze decision-making processes, attitudes and beliefs, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control factors that mediate cybersecurity behaviors.
  2. Future research should focus on analyzing the effect size, the homogeneity of samples, digital divide effects, cyberinsurance perceptions, sensitivity analyses, robustness of results, the accuracy of self-reported and questionnaire data, and the ability of Protection Motivation Theory and the theory of planned behavior to accurately describe cybersecurity practices.

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