

Cybersecurity and financial stability^a

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^aThis paper represents the authors' personal opinions and does not necessarily reflect the views of the Deutsche Bundesbank or the Financial Markets Authority of New Zealand.

Two observations

- Digital transformations of banks gathering pace ..

The Sum of Bank IT Spending Across North America, Europe, Asia-Pacific, and Latin America Will Grow to US\$309 billion by 2022



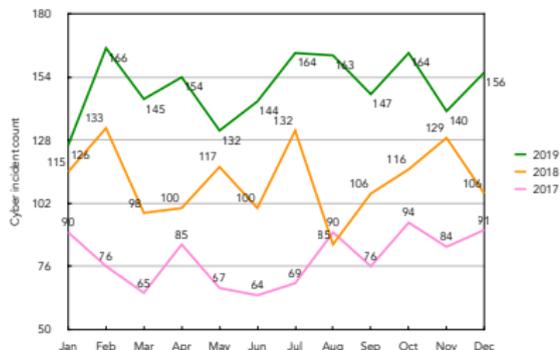
Two observations

- Digital transformations of banks gathering pace ..

The Sum of Bank IT Spending Across North America, Europe, Asia-Pacific, and Latin America Will Grow to US\$309 billion by 2022



- ... but so too are cyber attacks on financial institutions



▶ Classification of cyber attacks

▶ Recent examples

Our research agenda

- **Kashyap and Wetherilt (2019)** emphasise the role of shared services (e.g., digital platform) in creating common vulnerabilities that amplify cyber shocks
- **Duffie and Younger (2019)** argue that cyber attacks can morph into wholesale bank runs
- **Eisenbach et al (2021)** estimate there to be negative spillovers in wholesale funding markets following a cyber attack on a large U.S. based bank

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- **Eisenbach et al (2021)** estimate there to be negative spillovers in wholesale funding markets following a cyber attack on a large U.S. based bank
- **Our paper:** theoretical model of cybersecurity and financial stability
- Key message
 - ▶ Cybersecurity is a **public good** = $\begin{cases} \text{Free riding problem} & \downarrow \\ \text{Rollover risk} & \uparrow \end{cases}$

- Banks own safe legacy assets funded by equity and debt (subject to runs)
- IT infrastructure (software / hardware) required to manage assets
 - ▶ Outsourced to a 'platform' that serves multiple banks
 - ▶ But, the platform has a vulnerability that can be exploited using malicious code to cause outages (e.g., Stuxnet exploited vulnerabilities in industrial control systems)
 - ▶ Attackers must deploy their code in banks' systems that interface with the platform
- Banks have initial endowments and choose how much to invest in
 - ▶ **Cybersecurity** (public good) → monitor and repel unauthorised intrusions
 - ▶ **Operational resilience** (private good) → backup systems to mitigate outages

- Cybersecurity is a **weakest-link public-good** (Varian, 2004)
 - ▶ Platform correlates cyber risks (Lipp et al., 2018, Canella et al., 2019).
 - ▶ Draw on Cornes (1993) in modelling cybersecurity as a “weaker-link” public good – positive externalities, and higher marginal product for lower investment levels

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- Three elements of cyber attacks
 - ▶ **Attack intensity** is uncertain → ‘attribution problem’ (Hayden, 2011)
 - ▶ Cause **outages** that temporarily suspended operations (Cloudflare, 2021)
 - ▶ Generate **long-lasting damages** for victims (Lewis et al., 2020)

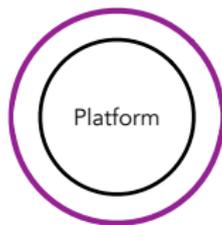
The 'cyber' ingredients

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- Disruptions mitigated through investments in **operational resilience** (e.g., data vaults, resilience planning), which is a **private good**
 - ▶ **Sheltered Harbor** is a certification for banks that implement robust safeguards

- Investment in cybersecurity (theory): Gordon and Loeb (2002), Varian (2004), Anderson and Moore, (2006), Grossklag et al (2008), Kamhoua et al (2014)
- Investment in cybersecurity (empirical): Aldasoro et al (2020), Gogolin et al (2021), Jamilov et al (2021)
- Cybersecurity and financial stability: Kashyap and Wetherilt (2019), Duffie and Younger (2019), Eisenbach et al (2021)

Model

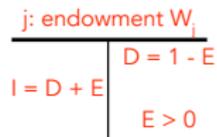
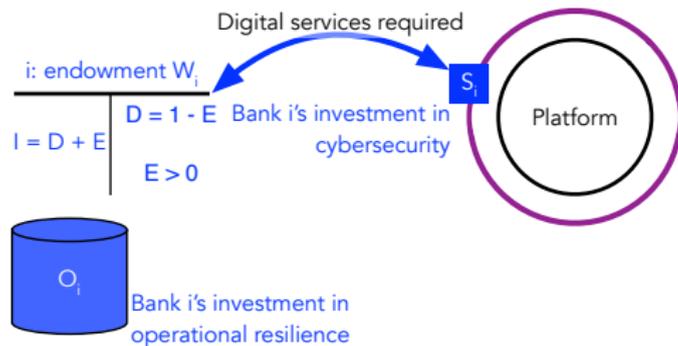
$$\begin{array}{c|c} \text{i: endowment } W_i & \\ \hline I = D + E & \begin{array}{l} D = 1 - E \\ E > 0 \end{array} \end{array}$$



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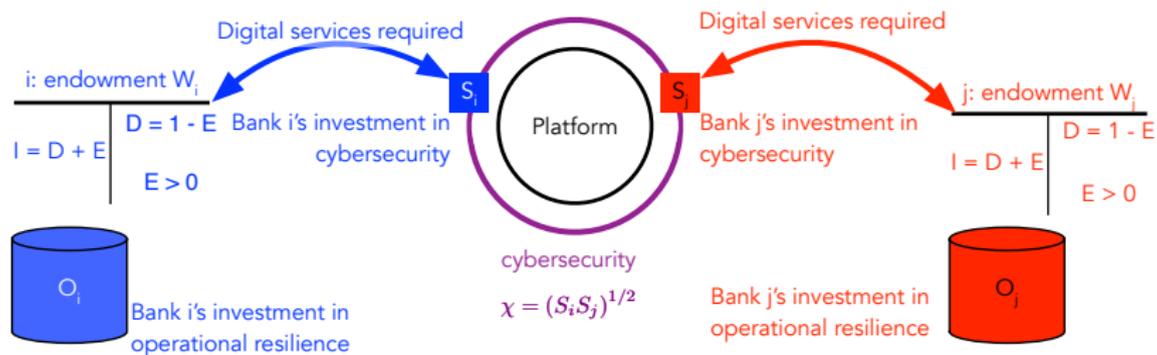
Safe investment Return $R > 1$; Face value of debt $F > 0$

Investment decisions ($t = 0$)



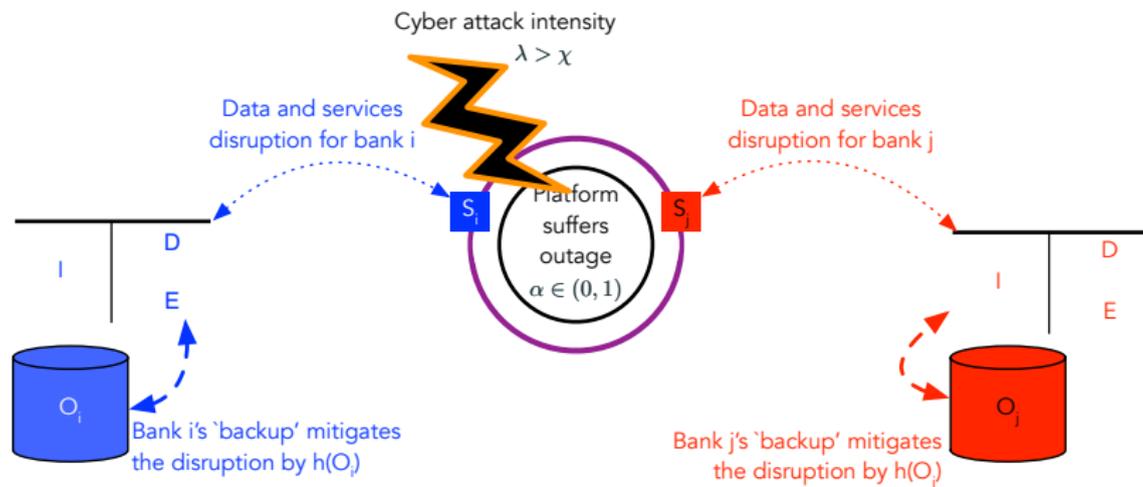
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Cyber attack and disruption to the platform ($t = 1$)



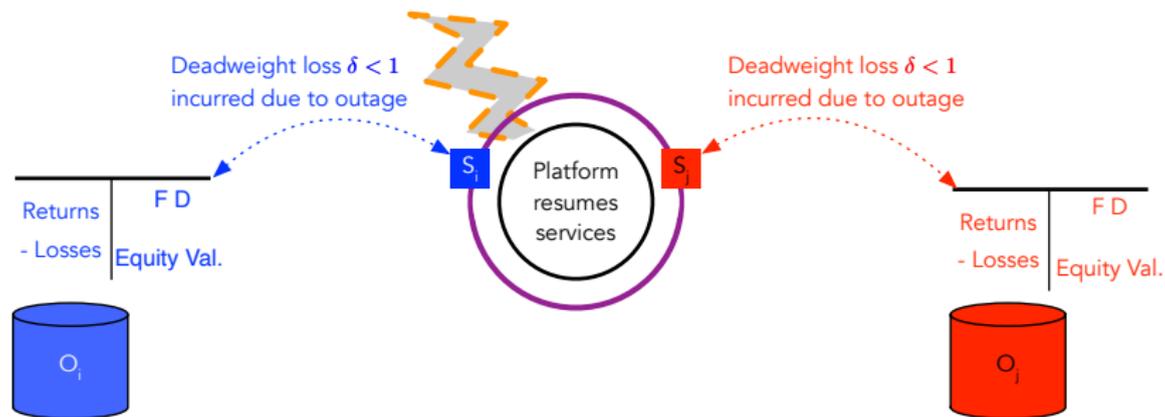
If $\ell_b \in (0, 1)$ of debt is withdrawn, bank b fails due to illiquidity whenever $R(1 - \alpha(1 - h(O_b))) - \ell_b FD < 0$

- Attack intensity: $\lambda \in [0, \bar{\lambda}]$
- Outage shock: $\alpha \in [0, 1]$
- Rollover decisions delegated to fund managers (Rochet and Vives, 2004)
 - ▶ Fund managers' 'conservatism', $\gamma \leq 1 \rightarrow$ measure of rollover risk
 - ▶ Larger $\gamma \rightarrow$ greater incentives to withdraw
- Fund manager k (bank b) receives a noisy private signal

$$x_{bk} = \alpha + \varepsilon_k,$$

with $\varepsilon_k \in [-\varepsilon, \varepsilon]$; withdraw decision based on the signal

Platform resumes operations and debts mature ($t = 2$)



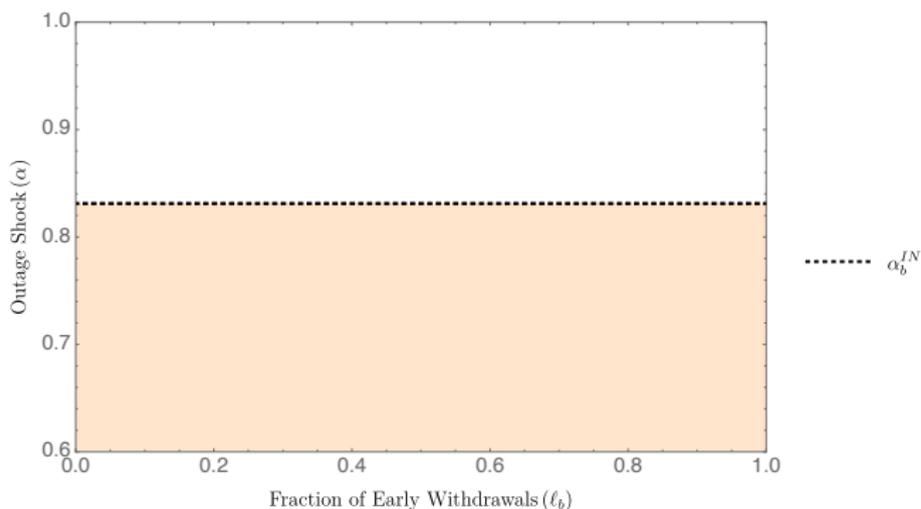
Bank b fails due to **insolvency** whenever $R(1 - \alpha\delta(1 - h(O_b))) - \ell_b FD < (1 - \ell_b) FD$

Equilibrium

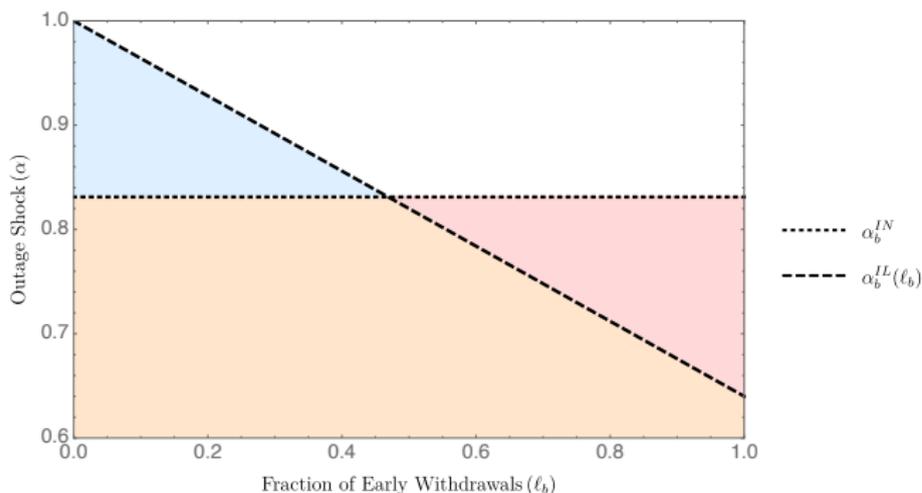
- Focus on threshold strategies
 - ▶ Fund manager k rolls over debt with bank b whenever $x_{bk} < x_b^*$
- Equilibrium consists of
 - ▶ At $t = 1$: given choices (O_b^*, S_b^*) the threshold strategy x_b^* maximises fund managers expected payoff and the bank fails whenever $\alpha > \alpha_b^*$ following a successful cyber attack
 - ▶ At $t = 0$: given (x_b^*, α_b^*) , bank b chooses (O_b^*, S_b^*) to maximise expected equity value given the budget constraints, and the choices of the other bank

- **Illiquidity** threshold: $\alpha_b^{IL}(\ell_b) \equiv \frac{R - \ell_b FD}{R(1 - h(O_b))}$
- **Insolvency** threshold: $\alpha_b^{IN} \equiv \frac{R - FD}{R\delta(1 - h(O_b))}$

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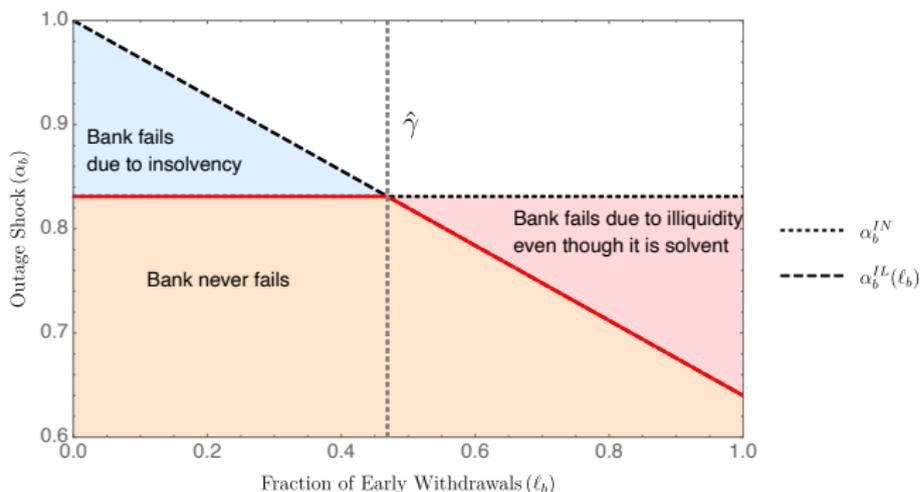


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Bank failure

- **Illiquidity** threshold: $\alpha_b^{IL}(\ell_b) \equiv \frac{R - \ell_b FD}{R(1 - h(O_b))}$
- **Insolvency** threshold: $\alpha_b^{IN} \equiv \frac{R - FD}{R\delta(1 - h(O_b))}$



Proposition

There exist a unique failure threshold:

$$\alpha_b^* = \begin{cases} \alpha_b^{IN} & \text{if } \gamma < \hat{\gamma} \\ \alpha_b^{IL}(\gamma) & \text{if } \gamma \geq \hat{\gamma} \end{cases} .$$

- Funding conditions matter: illiquidity risk arises only when γ is large
- Greater investment in cybersecurity increases fragility

- Bank b chooses its investments in cybersecurity and operational resilience
 - ▶ Maximise expected equity value, π_b
 - ▶ Taking as given the the investment by other banks, \vec{S}_{-b}

$$\begin{aligned}
 \max_{O_b, S_b} \pi_b &\equiv \overbrace{\text{Prob}\left(\lambda \leq \chi(S_b, \vec{S}_{-b})\right)}^{\text{Probability cyber attack fails}} \times \overbrace{[R - FD]}^{\text{Equity value}} \\
 &+ \underbrace{\text{Prob}\left(\lambda > \chi(S_b, \vec{S}_{-b})\right)}_{\text{Probability cyber attack successful}} \times \underbrace{\int_0^{\alpha_b^*(O_b)} EV_2(\alpha, O_b) d\alpha}_{\text{Equity value depending on outage}}
 \end{aligned}$$

where $EV_2(\alpha, O_b) = R(1 - \alpha \delta(1 - h(O_b))) - FD$, and $O_b + S_b = W_b$

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Trade-off

- Investing more in cybersecurity reduces the incidents of successful cyber attacks and thereby the likelihood of earning higher returns
- But, conditional on the cyber attack being successful the bank is more fragile and susceptible to failing the more it invests in cybersecurity

Benchmark 1: No free-riding problem and no rollover risk

- Planner accounts for how each banks' decisions influence other banks
- When $\gamma < \hat{\gamma}$, failure driven by insolvency: failure threshold α_b^{IN}
- **Samuelson Condition**

$$\sum_{b=1}^N \frac{\overbrace{(R - FD) - \int_0^{\alpha_b^{IN}} EV_2(\alpha, O_b) d\alpha}^{\equiv \partial \pi_b / \partial \chi}}{\underbrace{(\bar{\lambda} - \chi) \int_0^{\alpha_j^{IN}} (\partial EV_2 / \partial O_j) d\alpha}_{\equiv \partial \pi_j / \partial O_j}} = \frac{1}{\partial \chi / \partial S_j}.$$

- Free-riding leads to under-provision of cybersecurity

Benchmark 2: No free-riding problem but with rollover risk

- When $\gamma \geq \hat{\gamma} \rightarrow$ failure driven by illiquidity; failure threshold $\alpha_b^{LL}(\gamma)$

■ Samuelson Condition

$$\sum_{b=1}^N \frac{\overbrace{(R - FD) - \int_0^{\alpha_b^{LL}(\gamma)} EV_2(\alpha, O_b) d\alpha}^{\equiv \partial \pi_b / \partial \chi}}{(\bar{\lambda} - \chi) \underbrace{\left[EV_2(\alpha_b^{LL}(\gamma)) \frac{\partial \alpha_b^{LL}(\gamma)}{\partial O_j} + \int_0^{\alpha_b^{LL}(\gamma)} (\partial EV_2 / \partial O_j) d\alpha \right]}_{\equiv \partial \pi_j / \partial O_j}} = \frac{1}{\partial \chi / \partial S_j}$$

- Two effects of rollover risk on marginal rate of substitution
 - 1 MB from an extra unit of cybersecurity is higher ($\alpha_b^{LL}(\gamma) < \alpha_b^{IN}$)
 - 2 MB from higher operational resilience is also higher (since run is 'inefficient')
- First effect dominates \rightarrow over-provision of cybersecurity (relative to Benchmark 1)

- Assume $\gamma \geq \hat{\gamma} \rightarrow$ failure driven by illiquidity

Proposition

Bank b 's investments, (S_b^*, O_b^*) , given beliefs $(\vec{S}_{-b}^e, \vec{O}_{-b}^e)$, solves:

$$\frac{\partial \pi_b / \partial \chi}{\partial \pi_b / \partial O_b} = \frac{1}{\partial \chi / \partial S_b}.$$

Cybersecurity investment is increasing in the endowment, $\partial S_b^* / \partial W_b > 0$, iff $W_b \leq \widehat{W}$.

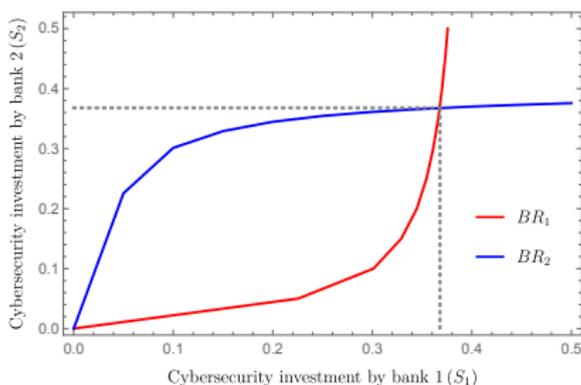
- Two countervailing effects from an increase in W_b
 - 1 Mechanical increase in O_b (for given S_b) \rightarrow reduces MRS
 - 2 Diminishing returns from investing in operational resilience \rightarrow increases MRS
- Second effect dominates when $W_b \leq \widehat{W}$
- But, what are the consequences on the system level?

Proposition

There exist two Nash equilibria: all banks, $b = 1, \dots, N$

(i) invest nothing in cybersecurity, $S_b^* = 0$, and $O_b^* = W_b$ in operational resilience;

(ii) invest $S_b^* \in (0, W_b)$ in cybersecurity and $O_b^* = W_b - S_b^*$ in operational resilience.



Proposition

Suppose $W_1 < \widehat{W} < W_2$. Following a mean-preserving spread increase in banks' endowments, equilibrium cybersecurity, $\chi^* = (S_1^* \times S_2^*)^{1/2}$, is reduced.

Normative implications

- Compare laissez faire outcome with Benchmark 1

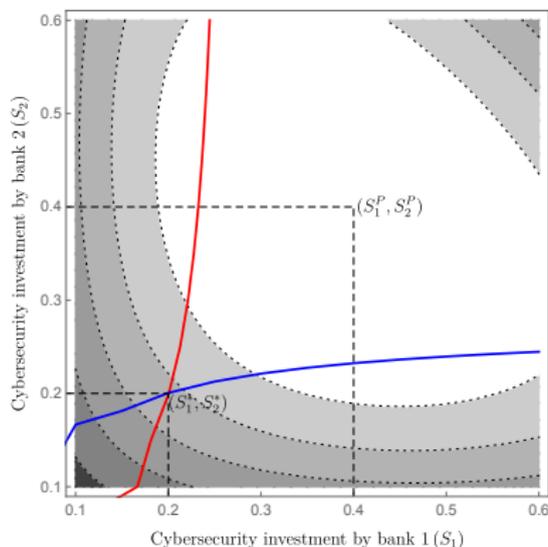
- Compare laissez faire outcome with Benchmark 1

Proposition

There exists a critical γ^c , such that for $\gamma \leq \gamma^c$, there is under-investment in cybersecurity, $S_b^ < S_b^P$; while, for $\gamma > \gamma^c$, there is over-investment, $S_b^* > S_b^P$.*

- For small $\gamma \rightarrow$ run risk is low \rightarrow weak incentives to invest in cybersecurity
 \therefore compared with Benchmark 1, free-riding exerts a stronger influence \rightarrow under-investment in cybersecurity and under-provision of the public good
- For larger $\gamma \rightarrow$ run risk is higher \rightarrow stronger incentives to invest in cybersecurity
Benchmark not impacted by rollover risk \rightarrow influence of rollover risk dominates
 \rightarrow over-investment in cybersecurity and a too low operational resilience.

Normative implications ($\gamma < \gamma^C$)



- Benchmark outcome can be achieved by
 - 1 Imposing at $t = 0$ banks invest optimally (e.g., stress-tests)
 - 2 Penalising banks at $t = 2$ that did not exhibit 'due care' following a cyber attack (e.g., recent SEC penalties on financial institutions)

Testable hypotheses

Prediction

An increase in intensity of cyber attacks reduces relative investment in cybersecurity.

- $\bar{\lambda} \uparrow \rightarrow$ given χ , more likely that security is breached leading to outages and disruptions \rightarrow MRS decreases \rightarrow less investment in cybersecurity

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Prediction

The more banks are subject to rollover risk, the more they invest in cybersecurity.

- $\gamma \uparrow \rightarrow$ MRS increases \rightarrow more investment in cybersecurity

- We develop a model to study cybersecurity and financial stability
 - ▶ Common IT infrastructure correlate risks across banks
 - ▶ Cybersecurity is a weakest-link public good
- Investment in cybersecurity trades-off lowering the probability of a successful cyber attack and raising fragility in the event of a successful attack
- Laissez faire outcome is constrained inefficient → role for regulation/supervision of cybersecurity
- Several testable implications for investment in cybersecurity (go through even after endogenising face value of debt)

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Thank you!

Classification of cyber events

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- **Confidentiality** of data is breached
 - ▶ Losses may stem from liability due to damages caused to customers or from competitors learning about a bank's trading strategies
- **Availability** of data is compromised
 - ▶ Losses may stem from bank capital or liquidity becoming immobilised
- **Integrity** of data is impaired
 - ▶ Losses may stem from inability to perform core activities

▶ return

Recent attacks on financial institutions

- Europe & South-East Asia (May 2021): Insurance firm AXA subject to **ransomware attack** → **integrity of data** processed by a third-party IT firm compromised
- Hungary (September 2020): **Telecommunications systems** suffered **DDoS attack** → **availability of data** and services compromised for banks
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- **Key ingredient**
 - ▶ Disruptions involved common IT infrastructure (platforms)