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# Too-systemic-to-fail: Empirical comparison of systemic risk measures in the Eurozone financial system

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# ABSTRACT

This paper quantifies the Too-Systemic-To-Fail (TSTF) paradigm in the Eurozone since the introduction of the Euro through three primary dimensions: Too-Big-To-Fail (TBTF), Too-Interconnected-To-Fail (TITF), and Too-Many-To-Fail (TMTF). We apply prominent systemic risk measures based on public data, including the Granger-causality network (GCN), Delta Conditional Value-at-Risk (ΔCoVaR), Marginal Expected Shortfall (MES), and Systemic Risk Index (SRISK). Financial interconnectedness and systemic risk exposure within the 17 member states of the Eurozone are measured on two levels: (i) identifying which financial sectors (banking, diversified financials, insurance, and real estate) are most exposed to systemic risk in the Eurozone at the union level; and (ii) identifying which member state is most exposed to systemic risk within each financial sector at the country level. We extend the original ΔCoVaR, MES and SRISK models by incorporating the bootstrap Kolmogorov-Smirnov stochastic dominance test to rank institutions based on their exposure to systemic risk formally.

# **1. Introduction**

The 2007 global financial crisis (GFC) has brought systemic risk measurement and management to the forefront of academic research and supervisory policy agendas. The Basel Committee and the Financial Stability Board are continuously working to establish new regulatory requirements for Systemically Important Financial Institutions (SIFIs). These efforts aim to reach an agreement on the specific factors that make certain financial institutions more susceptible to system-wide shocks (systemic resilience or participation) or more likely to spread these shocks to other institutions, magnifying the overall effect (systemic contribution).

[Furfine \(2003\)](#page-47-0) analyzed two dimensions of systemic risk: first, the simultaneous inefficient functioning of a group of markets or institutions due to a financial shock, and second, the risk that the failure of one or more institutions could spread to others because of their substantial interconnectedness. Several factors contribute to systemic risk in the financial system: (1) financial institutions becoming more interconnected through derivative contracts that transfer interest rate or exchange rate risk; (2) financial institutions investing in correlated assets and maintaining a high-level capital structure that is vulnerable to risk above the optimal level ([Acharya, 2009](#page-46-0)); and (3) asymmetric information, particularly during periods of confidence loss, which can magnify an institution's distress and lead to an illiquidity crisis.

The [Financial Stability Board \(2011\)](#page-47-0) defined SIFIs as "financial institutions whose distress or disorderly failure, because of their size, complexity, and systemic interconnectedness, would cause a significant disruption to the wider financial system and economic activity." Systemic risk is prominent when the distress of a single institution can cause the entire financial system to break down, subsequently affecting the real economy through cascading, chain-reaction, and contagion effects. This paper focuses on the financial institution of interest or the entire financial sector. Based on the above definitions, systemic risk can be examined under the Too-Systemic-To-Fail (TSTF) paradigm, where the imminent failure, incompetence to operate, and disorganized wind-down of certain institutions can disrupt the financial system and adversely affect the real economy [\(Thomson, 2009\)](#page-47-0). TSTF can be examined in three primary dimensions:  $(1)$  Too-Big-To-Fail  $(TBTF)$ ,

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*E-mail address:* [Amir.Armanious@uts.edu.au.](mailto:Amir.Armanious@uts.edu.au) 1 [Mitchell \(1997\)](#page-47-0) originally defined the "Too-Many-To-Fail" paradigm, corresponding to a situation where it is less costly to rescue banks than to close large numbers of banks. Brown and Dinc (2014) have empirically illustrated this problem in emerging market countries, whereas [Acharya and Yorulmazer \(2007\)](#page-46-0) are the first to argue that this phenomenon gives banks incentives to herd and increases the risk that many banks may fail together. The issue "Too-Big-To-Fail" was initially used in a 1984 U.S. congressional hearing to explain the decision to bail out Continental Illinois National Bank at a cost of \$1.1 billion to the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation (FDIC) and the potential need to save ten other large U.S. banks in the event of failure [\(Carrington, 1984](#page-46-0)).

measured by an institution's relative size to the whole market; (2) Too-Interconnected-To-Fail (TITF), measured by the likelihood of an institution's failure generating negative externalities that affect the entire economy; and (3) Too-Many-To-Fail  $(TMTF)$ , measured by the likelihood of financial institutions gathering ex-ante to take more risk and increase bailout chances in the event of a systemic crisis.

During periods of distress, interdependence among financial institutions becomes substantially more significant as losses naturally extend to different institutions, making the entire financial system vulnerable. In this context, systemic risk refers to the simultaneous default of multiple large institutions. If financial instability leads to a systemic crisis, the entire economy and society could face significant costs and repercussions. Financial institutions often experience contagion episodes during financial crises, and regulators must account for this when evaluating the financial system's health. As central banks work to increase the financial stability of the domestic economy, analyzing and monitoring systemic risk is an essential element of their activities. While the GFC has promoted greater systemic analysis, it has also driven improvements in systemic risk indicators that central banks and other regulatory authorities can use as monitoring tools. Measuring the financial system's systemic risk is a crucial component of assessing its stability.

This paper makes several contributions to the academic literature on financial interconnectedness and systemic risk. Firstly, it is the first attempt to apply systemic risk measures within an economic union. The empirical analysis measures which sectors (member states) display a higher degree of interconnectedness during stress periods and assesses systemic risk exposure within the 17 member states of the Eurozone at both the union and sector levels. At the union level, the paper identifies which Eurozone financial sector and member state is most exposed to overall systemic risk. At the sector level, it detects which member state is exposed to systemic events when a specific sector is in distress. The paper compares the exposure of the main components of the financial system (banking, diversified financials, insurance, and real-estate sectors) to systemic risk rather than focusing solely on the exposure of individual financial institutions.

Secondly, the paper assesses the robustness of four prominent systemic risk measures: the Granger-causality network (GCN) of [Billio et al.](#page-46-0)  [\(2012\),](#page-46-0) Delta Conditional Value-at-Risk (ΔCoVaR) by [Adrian and](#page-46-0)  [Brunnermeier \(2016\)](#page-46-0), Marginal Expected Shortfall (MES) by [Acharya](#page-46-0)  [et al. \(2017\)](#page-46-0), and Systemic Risk Index (SRISK) by [Acharya et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0)  and [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\).](#page-46-0) These measures, which are widely used due to their reliance on public data, have been developed within different frameworks. To avoid discrepancies caused by different estimation strategies, the paper unifies the theoretical framework of [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\).](#page-46-0) Thirdly, the paper extends the original ΔCoVaR, MES, and SRISK models to include the bootstrap Kolmogorov–Smirnov dominance test developed by [Abadie \(2002\)](#page-46-0), providing a formal ranking of the financial sectors (member states) with respect to their exposure to systemic risk. Finally, the paper links macro-prudential measures (ΔCoVaR, MES, and SRISK) with micro-prudential measures (systematic risk, tail risk, and correlation, as well as firm characteristics such as leverage and market capitalization). As a result, some systemic risk measures can be expressed as transformations of market risk measures. The approach presented in this paper is likely to be highly relevant to regulators, policymakers, and academicians.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the literature on interconnectedness and systemic risk measures. [Section](#page-2-0)  [3](#page-2-0) proposes a methodological analysis of the Granger Causality Network, MES, SRISK, and ΔCoVaR measures and presents the common framework used for comparison. [Section 4](#page-7-0) describes the data and summary

statistics. [Section 5](#page-8-0) presents the main empirical findings on interconnectedness and systemic risk exposure at the union and sector levels during the sub-periods of analysis (before, during, and after the crisis). [Section 6](#page-12-0) reports the results of the robustness check, and [Section 7](#page-20-0)  discusses limitations and future research. [Section 8](#page-21-0) summarizes and concludes with policy implications.

## **2. Literature review on systemic risk measures**

[Billio et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0) demonstrated that several systemic risk indices can be used to determine the connectedness of financial institutions by applying Granger-causality networks and Principal Components Analysis (PCA) to monthly returns of financial institutions from various sectors. [Rodriguez-Moreno and Pena \(2013\)](#page-47-0) utilized the Gonzalo and Granger metric, three Granger Causality test measures, and the systemic events index to correlate policy actions of two groups with high-frequency market-based systemic risk measures between 2004 and 2009, using U.S. and EU interbank rates data, stock prices, and credit derivatives at both individual bank and aggregate market levels.

Three notable systemic risk measures derived from public data are the Marginal Expected Shortfall (MES) by [Acharya et al. \(2017\),](#page-46-0) the Systemic Risk Index (SRISK) by [Acharya et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0) and [Brownlees and](#page-46-0)  [Engle \(2012\),](#page-46-0) and the Delta Conditional Value-at-Risk (ΔCoVaR) by Adrian and Brunnermeier  $(2016)^3$ . These measures are well-known concepts that build upon popular methods of Value-at-Risk (VaR) and Expected Shortfall (ES) and have substantial economic interpretations. MES represents the expected equity loss of a financial institution when the market falls below a given threshold within a certain time period, specifically a 2 % drop within the market in one day for short-run MES and a 40 % drop in the market in six-month for the long-run MES (LRMES). Generally, financial institutions with higher absolute values of MES contribute more to market declines; therefore, these financial institutions indicate greater contributions to systemic risk. SRISK measures an institution's expected capital shortfall during a financial crisis, with institutions having the largest shortfalls being considered the most systemically risky. CoVaR captures the change in the financial system's VaR contingent on a financial institution experiencing a certain event. The financial system's systemic risk (ΔCoVaR) contributions are the change between the financial institution's CoVaR when it is under financial distress and its median state. Greater Δ*CoVaR* (in absolute values) indicate higher systemic risk contributions (or exposures).4

Several studies have proposed alternative methods to address systemic interrelations using various variables and procedures ([Adams](#page-46-0)  [et al., 2014; Drehmann and Tarashev, 2011; Cao, 2013; Singh et al.,](#page-46-0)  2013; Lopez-Espinosa et al., 2013; Allen et al.,  $2016$ ).<sup>5</sup> Benoit et al. [\(2013\)](#page-46-0) compared two commonly cited systemic risk measures, MES and SRISK, with ΔCoVaR using the same sample from [Acharya et al. \(2017\)](#page-46-0)  and [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0). They found that under specific conditions, market risk measures (e.g., ES, VaR, Beta) can represent systemic risk measures. MES coincides with the product of the market's ES (market tail risk) and the institution's beta (institution systemic risk), while ΔCoVaR coincides with the product of the institution's VaR (firm tail risk) and the linear projection coefficient of the market return on the institution's returns.

[Zhang et al. \(2015\)](#page-47-0) analyzed the efficiency of four market-based

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> [Adrian and Brunnermeier \(2016\)](#page-46-0) justified the phrase "Too-Many-To-Fail" as "systemic as part of a herd," where a group of institutions behaving similarly to each other can be risky and dangerous to the system as a large merged entity.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The New York University's Volatility Lab is formulating the common systemic risk measures for numerous international financial institutions. The outcomes are renewed weekly via <http://vlab.stern.nyu.edu/>.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Note that *ES, MES, VaR<sup><i>i*</sup><sub>q</sub></sub>, CoVaR and ΔCoVaR are typically negative numbers, in practice, the sign is often switched, which is followed in this paper. While *SRISK* is typically a positive number.<br><sup>5</sup> A thorough research of the main systemic risk measures and analytical

frameworks formed over the previous couple of years is conducted in [Bisias](#page-46-0)  [et al. \(2012\).](#page-46-0)

<span id="page-2-0"></span>systemic risk measures, including ΔCoVaR and SRISK, during three financial crises: the 2007–2009 financial crisis, the 1997 Asian crisis, and the 1998 Ruble crisis. They investigated whether these measures provide early warning signs in addition to signals from traditional risk drivers. ΔCoVaR was found to be the best market-based systemic risk measure for forecasting realized systemic risk during the 2007 financial crisis but did not consistently predict realized systemic risk during the late 1990s Asian and Ruble crises. SRISK has been proposed as a meaningful measure for regulators to monitor the financial sector's vulnerability, as it is capable of predicting capital shortfalls over long crisis periods ([Zhang et al., 2015; Acharya et al., 2014; Brownlees and](#page-47-0)  [Engle, 2012; Boucher et al., 2014\)](#page-47-0). This indicates that SRISK is a meaningful measure used by regulators to observe the financial sector's vulnerability.

The SRISK measure was enhanced by applying the Structural GARCH (SGARCH) model ([Engle and Siriwardane, 2018; Dungey et al., 2010](#page-47-0)), which enables accurate modeling of equity volatility fluctuations as the capital structure of financial institutions changes. Although the differences compared to the standard SRISK are small, the SGARCH-based SRISK appears to provide earlier signs of capitalization changes. [Engle](#page-47-0)  [et al. \(2015\)](#page-47-0) introduced a multifactor model to justify the return dynamics of financial institutions, which could be interesting to apply in sub-markets, such as European banks, to separate specific shocks (e.g., to European banks) from more general shocks (e.g., PIIGS growth prospects<sup>6</sup>).

Modeling the joint distribution of market and financial institution returns while considering the nonlinear dependence of each return is crucial for calculating ΔCoVaR and MES. Under financial contagion, markets may exhibit greater dependence during adverse downward movements compared to upward movements [\(King and Wadhwani,](#page-47-0)  [1990; Forbes and Rigobon, 2001, 2002; Bekaert and Harvey, 2002;](#page-47-0)  [Roesch and Scheule, 2014](#page-47-0)). Research expanding upon ΔCoVaR and MES suggests various estimation methods to account for potential nonlinear dependence return structures, aiming to model the relationship between institutions and market returns more precisely under extreme situations. These methods often involve sophisticated estimation procedures, such as quantile regression for modeling tail dependence ([Adrian and Brun](#page-46-0)[nermeier, 2016](#page-46-0)), nonparametric tail estimators ([Brownlees and Engle,](#page-46-0)  [2012\)](#page-46-0), and Student-t copula [\(Acharya et al., 2012](#page-46-0)). [Chuanliang \(2012\)](#page-46-0)  proposed using different copula functions to measure ΔCoVaR, MES, and SRISK more accurately, while [Straetmans and Chaudhry \(2015\)](#page-47-0) and [Balla et al. \(2014\)](#page-46-0) suggested using extreme value theory to assess systemic risk. However, the main question remains whether these efforts are justified given the intended purpose.

Systemic risk in financial markets has been a topic of significant interest, particularly in the aftermath of the 2007 GFC. The review of systemic risk covers the pricing of systemic risk, the implications of various factors, the relationship between systemic risk and aspects of the financial system, and quantifying and modeling systemic risk arising from interconnectedness and network effects. Several studies have examined the pricing of systemic risk in interbank markets, with mixed results on whether counterparty and systemic risks are adequately priced in lending and deposit rates [\(Sigmund and Siebenbrunner, 2024](#page-47-0)). [Siebenbrunner et al. \(2024\)](#page-47-0) proposed a framework to assess the systemic impact of bank bail-ins, finding that they can reduce systemic risk in moderate crises but may be inadequate for systemic events. [Meuleman](#page-47-0)  [and Vander Vennet \(2020\)](#page-47-0) investigated the effectiveness of macroprudential policies in containing systemic risk in European banks, finding a generally downward effect with heterogeneous impacts across banks and instruments. [Jin and De Simone \(2020\)](#page-47-0) examined the effects of monetary policy on systemic risk-taking in the Eurozone investment fund industry, finding evidence of increased contagion and

vulnerability, particularly following conventional monetary policy shocks.

Various factors have been explored for their implications on systemic risk. Andries et al. (2024) found that banks can reduce their systemic risk exposure when their host countries improve their net international investment positions and maintain creditor status. [Mies \(2024\)](#page-47-0) examined the impact of bank opacity on European financial stability, finding that bank opacity significantly influences systemic risk, while regulatory measures to improve risk disclosure have a positive effect. [Xiao et al.](#page-47-0)  [\(2023\)](#page-47-0) presented a theoretical framework showing that the impact of asset securitization on systemic risk is non-monotonic and depends on factors such as banking asset structures and risk retention. [Kanas et al.](#page-47-0)  [\(2023\)](#page-47-0) provided evidence for a positive link between CO2 emissions and systemic risk in the U.S. banking sector.

The relationship between systemic risk and various aspects of the financial system has been examined in several studies. [Curcio et al.](#page-46-0)  [\(2023\)](#page-46-0) found that extreme weather and climate disasters can exacerbate systemic risk in the U.S. banking and insurance sectors and that the performance of green and brown market indices affects systemic risk differently. [Pellegrini et al. \(2022\)](#page-47-0) evaluated how accounting and financial variables affect systemic risk in traditional and shadow banks, as well as real-estate finance services in China, finding that systemic risk increases with the size of large financial institutions, particularly shadow entities. [Ellis et al. \(2022\)](#page-47-0) discussed various definitions and challenges in addressing systemic risk, conducting a literature review of systemic risk measures. [Morelli and Vioto \(2020\)](#page-47-0) assessed the contribution of China's financial sectors to systemic risk, finding that the banking sector contributed the most, followed by real estate and insurance/brokerage industries.

Quantifying and modeling systemic risk arising from interconnectedness and network effects has been the focus of several studies. [Chen](#page-46-0)  [and Zhang \(2024\)](#page-46-0) used knowledge graphs to study systemic risk in the banking industry, representing financial institutions as vertices and their connections as edges. [Zhang et al. \(2021\)](#page-47-0) examined the impact of bank liquidity creation on systemic risk, finding that excessive liquidity creation increases systemic risk with a U-shaped relationship and that the network connectedness of banks strengthens this relationship. [Bakkar](#page-46-0)  [and Nyola \(2021\)](#page-46-0) investigated the impact of bank internationalization and geographic complexity on systemic risk, finding that complexity reduced systemic risk before the 2007 GFC, but this relationship was inverted during and after the GFC. [Poledna et al. \(2021\)](#page-47-0) quantified systemic risk arising from overlapping portfolios of financial institutions, showing that focusing only on direct interbank exposures underestimates total systemic risk. [Pichler et al. \(2021\)](#page-47-0) presented an optimization procedure to minimize systemic risk in financial markets by rearranging overlapping portfolio networks. Andries et al. (2022) gauged the interconnectedness and linkages between global systemically important banks (G-SIBs), other systemically important institutions (O-SIIs), and the global financial system, documenting increased interconnectedness during the global financial crisis. [Leong et al. \(2020\)](#page-47-0)  evaluated the contribution of shadow insurance to global systemic risk, finding that the practice of shadow insurance is a significant driver of systemic risk.

# **3. Estimation methodology**

This paper considers  $N$  financial institutions with  $r_{it}$  denoting the return of financial institution *i* at time *t*. The market return (or union return or financial sector return), calculated as the value-weighted average of all institutions' returns, is given by:

$$
r_{m,t} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{i,t} r_{i,t} \tag{1}
$$

where  $w_{it}$  represents the relative market capitalization of financial institution *i*, defined as  $w_{i,t} = \frac{ME_{i,t-1}}{\sum_{i}^{N} ME_{i,t-1}}$ , and  $ME_{i,t-1}$  is the market capi-

<sup>6</sup> PIIGS countries refer to countries of Portugal, Ireland, Italy, Greece and Spain.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>talization of an institution *i*. By construction, index weights are timevarying and known given the information set at the time  $t = 1$ . Due to the Jensen Inequality, a market log-return is typically greater than the value-weighted firm log-return, particularly when handling extreme returns far from zero.

While volatile stock returns can impact systemic risk measures, it is not a given that systemic risk will always increase during market turmoil. The degree to which systemic risk is affected by volatile stock returns depends on factors such as diversification ([Acharya et al., 2017](#page-46-0)), leverage ([Adrian and Brunnermeier, 2016](#page-46-0)), interconnectedness [\(Ace](#page-46-0)[moglu et al., 2015\)](#page-46-0), regulatory oversight [\(Hanson et al., 2011\)](#page-47-0), and investor sentiment ([Shleifer and Vishny, 1997\)](#page-47-0). Volatile stock returns are used as input for some of the systemic risk measures employed in this paper, such as ΔCoVaR and MES, as they provide valuable insights into the interconnectedness and vulnerability of financial institutions. However, the relationship between volatile stock returns and systemic risk is not always straightforward, and other factors also play a crucial role in determining the extent to which shocks can propagate through the financial system.

This paper presents various systemic risk measures created using different frameworks. For example, [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0) model time-varying linear dependencies using a multivariate Generalized Autoregressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity, Dynamic Conditional Correlation (GARCH-DCC) model to assess MES. [Adrian and Brunner](#page-46-0)[meier \(2016\)](#page-46-0) allow for tail dependence using a quantile regression approach to determine ΔCoVaR. A direct comparison is not straightforward, as empirical differences could be caused by the estimation strategies. Therefore, we assume that all these risk measures are under a unified theoretical framework to supply a common platform. Following [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0), we contemplate a bivariate GARCH process for the demeaned returns:

$$
r_t = H_t^{1/2} v_t \tag{2}
$$

where  $r'_t = (r_{m,t} \quad r_{i,t})$  denotes the vector of market and financial institution returns, and the random vector  $v'_t = (\varepsilon_{m,t} \quad \xi_{i,t})$  is serially independent and identically distributed (*i.i.d.*) over time with first moments:  $E(v_t) = 0$  and  $E(v_t v'_t) = I_2$ , a two-by-two identity matrix. The *H<sub>t</sub>* matrix denotes the conditional variance-covariance matrix:

$$
H_t = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{m,t}^2 & \sigma_{i,t} & \sigma_{m,t} & \rho_{i,t} \\ \sigma_{i,t} & \sigma_{m,t} & \rho_{i,t} & \sigma_{i,t}^2 \end{pmatrix}
$$
 (3)

where  $\sigma_{i,t}$  and  $\sigma_{m,t}$  denote the conditional volatilities and  $\rho_{i,t}$  the conditional correlation. No particular assumptions are made about the bivariate distribution of the standardized innovations  $v_t$ , which is assumed to be unknown. The time-varying conditional correlations  $\rho_{i,t}$ are assumed to fully capture the dependence between the financial institution and market returns, implying that the standardized innovations  $\varepsilon_{m,t}$  and  $\xi_{i,t}$  are independently distributed at the time  $t^7$ 

[Table 1](#page-4-0) presents a comprehensive framework highlighting the similarities and differences between the ΔCoVaR, MES, SRISK, and Granger Causality Network measures. These systemic risk measures complement each other by capturing different aspects of systemic risk. While ΔCoVaR and MES focus on market-based measures of risk, SRISK incorporates balance sheet information. The Granger Causality Network provides a holistic view of the interconnectedness and causal relationships within the financial system. This framework allows researchers and practitioners to make more informed choices about which measures

to use, depending on their research questions, data availability, and the specific aspects of systemic risk they wish to capture.

# *3.1. Granger causality network*

Granger-causality tests and other techniques have been proposed to estimate the interconnectedness of financial institutions and the systemic risk of the entire financial system [\(Billio et al., 2012](#page-46-0)). These measures, derived from monthly return indices of hedge funds, brokers/dealers, insurance companies, and banks, reveal that Granger-causality networks are highly active and interconnected during times preceding systemic shocks. Granger-causality tests are customized to determine the direction and interconnectedness of financial institutions' bonds within the financial system. If past *X* values possess information useful for anticipating *Y* beyond the information inherent in the past *Y* values, then *Y* is Granger-caused by *X*. This Granger-causality equation is expressed as:

$$
X_{t} = \sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{j}x_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j}x_{t-j} + \epsilon_{t}
$$
\n(4)

$$
Y_t = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j x_{t-j} + \sum_{j=1}^m d_j x_{t-j} + \omega_t
$$
 (5)

where *m* is the max lag length, and  $\epsilon_t$  and  $\omega_t$  are two uncorrelated white noise processes. If  $b_i$  is not equal to zero, then *Y* affects *X*. Likewise, when  $c_i$  is different from zero, *X* causes *Y*, provided that the  $p$  -value is below 5 %. When both conditions hold true, the two time-series form a feedback connection.

The experiment is conducted on monthly return indices of banks, hedge funds, brokers/dealers, and insurance companies. The insight from this paper is based on the return indices of Eurozone financial institutions. Similarly, a collection of Eurozone financial sector indices (banking, diversified financials, insurance, and real estate) is estimated from the past 36 monthly returns on a quarterly basis from 2000 to 2015. The dynamic causality index (DCI) is calculated for each interval, where:

$$
DCI_t = \frac{number \ of \ casual \ relationships \ in \ window}{total \ possible \ number \ of \ casual \ relationships}
$$
 (6)

The DCI value precisely correlates with the financial system's level of interconnectedness, with a more interconnected system having a higher DCI value. Furthermore, connections of several financial institutions within each sector are estimated using a single institution Grangercauses at 5 %. A sample of 315 publicly listed financial institutions in the Eurozone is used.

Granger-causality tests are performed on a daily interval with the past returns of 36 months to determine the direction and interconnectedness of relationships among banks within the Eurozone financial system. The extent of the dynamic causality index reveals the financial system's interconnectedness, and the DCI can be calculated for each interval. Therefore, a higher DCI value indicates a more interconnected system.

# *3.2. Marginal expected shortfall (MES)*

Various strategies can be employed to estimate MES. In this paper, we structure the multi-stage modeling approach to be comparable to [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\).](#page-46-0) Inspired by the Dynamic Conditional Correlation (DCC) Framework by [Engle \(2002\), \(2009\),](#page-47-0) this approach reveals how univariate GARCH models can be used to determine the volatilities and standardized residuals for each series. These standardized residuals are then used to determine the conditional correlations via the DCC framework. Nonparametric estimators are used to determine the MES's tail dependence, formulated from the standardized residuals

<sup>7</sup> See [Benoit et al. \(2017\)](#page-46-0) for a detailed description of the unified framework for estimating MES, SRISK and ΔCoVaR.

<span id="page-4-0"></span>Comprehensive framework of various systemic risk measures.



from the GARCH-DCC residuals.<sup>8</sup>

Considering the Cholesky decomposition of the variance-covariance matrix *Ht*:

$$
H_t^{1/2} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{m,t} & 0\\ \sigma_{i,t} & \rho_{i,t} & \sigma_{i,t} \sqrt{1 - \rho_{i,t}^2} \end{pmatrix} \tag{7}
$$

Given [Eq. \(2\),](#page-3-0) let  $r_{i,t}$  and  $r_{m,t}$  denote financial institution (sector or country) *i*'s return and the market return on the day *t*, respectively. The following specification of the bivariate process of financial institution and market returns can be expressed as:

$$
r_{m,t} = \sigma_{m,t} \quad \varepsilon_{m,t} \tag{8}
$$

$$
r_{i,t} = \sigma_{i,t} \quad \rho_{i,t} \quad \varepsilon_{m,t} + \sigma_{i,t} \sqrt{1 - \rho_{i,t}^2} \quad \xi_{i,t}
$$
 (9)

$$
\left(\varepsilon_{m,t} , \xi_{i,t}\right) \sim F
$$

where  $\sigma$  and  $\rho$  depict the series' conditional volatility and correlation of the return, respectively. The shocks  $\varepsilon_{m,t}$  and  $\xi_{i,t}$  are assumed to be serially independent and identically distributed over time with zero mean, unit variance, and zero covariance, but they are not assumed to be independent random variables. These dependence assumptions are approved by [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0) due to the extreme figures that show that these disruptions could happen simultaneously for SIFIs. With a potential threat of defaults, the financial institutions' disruptions may be further in the tail when the market is in the tail.

The stochastic setup can be described by the two conditional standard deviations and the conditional correlation. Asymmetric GARCH models determine the volatilities, while DCC models determine the correlations. The joint distribution *F* from which *εm,t* and *ξi,t* are derived remains unspecified, and straightforward nonparametric approaches are utilized for inference on tail dependence.

MES signifies the marginal contribution of the institution *i* to systemic risk, as determined by the system's ES. Initially suggested by [Acharya et al. \(2017\),](#page-46-0) MES has been recently extended to a conditional version by [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0). In theory, the *q* % level of the ES's expected returns in the worst  $q$ % of cases can be prolonged to the typical case where returns are greater than a certain threshold (*C*). Properly, the system's conditional ES is denoted as:

$$
ES_{mt}(C) = \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(r_{mt}|r_{mt} < C) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} w_{it} \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(r_{it}|r_{mt} < C)
$$
\n(10)

where *C* is some negative constant. A realization of the condition *rmt < C*  is called a systemic event. Note that ES is defined as the negative tail expectation, with a higher ES value indicating a larger expected loss.

MES corresponds to the partial derivative of the system ES with respect to the weight of institution *i* in the economy [\(Scaillet, 2004,](#page-47-0)  [2005\)](#page-47-0):

$$
MES_{it}(C) = \frac{\partial ES_{mt}(C)}{\partial W_{it}} = \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(r_{it}|r_{mt} < C)
$$
\n(11)

MES can be seen as a natural enhancement to the marginal VaR concept suggested by [Jorion \(2007\)](#page-47-0) to the ES, a coherent risk measure ([Artzner et al., 1999\)](#page-46-0). It determines the rise in system risk (calculated by ES) generated by a marginal increase in institution *i*'s weight in the system. The greater the institution's MES, the greater its individual contribution to financial system risk. MES can be portrayed as a signal of how much a particular financial institution's share price will descend within a day when the market is undergoing a systemic event with an equity fall of at least the amount *C*. Therefore, MES can determine the expected capital loss a financial institution would experience in a systemic crisis. Financial institutions with high MES are typically sensitive to the aggregate market's performance and experience distress during systemic events, making them important candidates to be systemically risky.

For any conditioning event *C*, MES in Eq. (11) can be decomposed as a function of volatility, correlation, and tail expectations of the distribution of the standardized innovations:

$$
MES_{i,t}(C) = \mathbb{E}_{t-1}(r_{it} | r_{mt} < C)
$$
\n(12)

$$
MES_{i,t}(C) = \sigma_{i,t} \quad \rho_{i,t} \mathbb{E}_{t-1} \left( \varepsilon_{m,t} | \varepsilon_{m,t} < \frac{C}{\sigma_{m,t}} \right) + \sigma_{i,t} \sqrt{1 - \rho_{i,t}^2} \quad \mathbb{E}_{t-1} \left( \xi_{i,t} | \varepsilon_{m,t} \right) \tag{13}
$$

A couple of notable features from the specification are worth mentioning, assuming a positive dependence between the financial institution and the market. Initially, more volatile financial institutions will cross-sectionally appear riskier, as MES is an increasing function of individual institutions. Unlike traditional risk measures, ES also relies on the correlation between the financial institution's return and the market. This focuses on the systemic nature of the risk measure, as SIFIs are seen as a combination of volatility, correlation, and tail dependence. The MES formula provides more substance to the tail expectation, either to the standardized market residual tail expectation or the standardized idiosyncratic financial institution residual tail expectation, based on ) being either a high or low correlation. The term  $\left(\xi_{i,t}| \epsilon_{m,t} < \frac{c}{\epsilon_{m,t}}\right)$  in Eq. (13) comes as the dependence assumption between  $\varepsilon_{m,t}$  and  $\xi_{i,t}$  would

While simple and flexible, the modeling paradigm is appealing for a wide spectrum of univariate volatility models that exist, models for estimators of tail dependence as well as correlations.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>become zero if dependence was determined completely by correlation.<sup>9</sup> Assuming  $\xi_{i}$ *,* and  $\varepsilon_{m,t}$  are independent, we have:

$$
MES_{i,t}(C) = \sigma_{i,t} \quad \rho_{i,t} \mathbb{E}_{t-1} \left( \varepsilon_{m,t} | \varepsilon_{m,t} < \frac{C}{\sigma_{m,t}} \right) \tag{14}
$$

or equivalently:

$$
MES_{i,t}(C) = \sigma_{i,t} \quad \rho_{i,t} \mathbb{E}_{t-1} \left( \varepsilon_{m,t} | r_{m,t} < C \right) \tag{15}
$$

Let  $\beta_{i,t} = \frac{\text{cov}(r_{i,t},r_{m,t})}{\text{var}(r_{m,t})} = \frac{\sigma_{i,t} - \rho_{i,t}}{\sigma_{m,t}}$  denotes the time-varying beta of financial institution *i*. Combining  $\beta_{i,t}$  with Eq. (15), we obtain:

$$
MES_{i,t}(C) = \beta_{i,t} \quad \sigma_{m,t} \quad \mathbb{E}_{t-1} \left( \varepsilon_{m,t} | r_{m,t} < C \right) \tag{16}
$$

$$
MES_{i,t}(C) = \beta_{i,t} \quad \mathbb{E}_{t-1}\left(r_{m,t}|r_{m,t} < C\right) \tag{17}
$$

The MES is portrayed as the product of the market return's truncated expectation for a certain threshold *C* and the time-varying beta. In theory, the market return's expected shortfall  $ES_{m,t}(q)$  equates to the market return's truncated expectation for a given threshold equivalent to the conditional VaR ([Jorion, 2007\)](#page-47-0),  $C = VaR<sub>m,t</sub>(q)$ :

$$
ES_{m,t}(q) = \mathbb{E}_{t-1}\left(r_{m,t}|r_{m,t} < VaR_{m,t}(q)\right) \tag{18}
$$

Then, the MES defined for the specific event  $C = VaR<sub>m,t</sub>$ , denoted  $MES<sub>it</sub>(q)$ , is simply expressed as the product of the time-varying financial institution beta and the expected shortfall of the market return:

$$
MES_{i,t}(q) = \beta_{i,t} ES_{m,t}(q)
$$
\n(19)

### *3.3. Systemic risk index (SRISK)*

As suggested by [Acharya et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0) and [Brownlees and Engle](#page-46-0)  [\(2012\),](#page-46-0) the SRISK measure extends the MES to account for both the financial institution's liabilities and size. SRISK responds to a given financial institution's expected capital shortfall depending on whether a crisis affects the entire financial system. From this perspective, financial institutions with the largest capital shortfall are assumed to be the biggest contributors to the crisis and are considered the most systemically risky.

The function of SRISK is to determine a financial institution's expected capital shortfall when experiencing a crisis, estimated by a typical stock market collapse. SRISK endeavors to compute both balance sheets and equity markets and can be utilized as a market-based replacement for traditional regulatory stress tests.

SRISK for institution *i* at time *t* is defined by:

$$
SRISK_{i,t} = E_t \left( CS_{i,t+h} | Crist_{t:t+h} \right) \tag{20}
$$

where *CS* abbreviates Capital Shortfall, and *t*+*h* signifies the future point in time at which the crisis occurs. SRISK captures the financial institution's vulnerability in light of a system-wide shock. Following [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0), the capital shortfall for an institution *i* at time *t* is signified by:

$$
CS_{i,t} = kA_{i,t} - MV_{i,t}
$$
 (21)

$$
CS_{i,t} = k(D_{i,t} + MV_{i,t}) - MV_{i,t}
$$
\n(22)

where  $MV_{i,t}$  denotes the market value of equity,  $D_{i,t}$  represents the book

value of debt,  $A_{i,t} = D_{i,t} + MV_{i,t}$  is the quasi assets for an institution *i* at time *t*, and *k* is the efficient capital fraction, i.e., the minimum amount of quasi-assets institution *i* is meant to be funded via equity.<sup>10</sup> The quasiassets can be seen as the market values of outstanding shares used instead of the book value of equity, as they are assessed on the institution's assets via the equity market [\(Brownlees and Engle, 2012\)](#page-46-0).

In SRISK, a crisis is defined as a general stock market crash over the next *h* days of at least *C* percent:

$$
Crisis_{t:t+h} = \{R_{M,t:t+h} \le C\}
$$
\n(23)

where  $R_{M,t:t+h}$  is the cumulative market return over the next *h* days.

Using the definition of SRISK from Eq.  $(20)$  along with the definitions of capital shortfall and a crisis, the following expression for SRISK can be written:

$$
SRISK_{i,t} = E_t (5.5\%.(D_{i,t+132} + MV_{i,t+132}) - MV_{i,t+132}|R_{M,t:t+132} \le -40\%) \tag{24}
$$

SRISK determines the capital shortfall in relation to a capital requirement of 5.5 percent of total assets in six months, provided that the stock market has fallen by 40 %. The remaining task is to depict the hypothetical share market crash into the asset values or, rather, how to model a hypothetical stock market crash that would influence the values of debt and the market value of the firm. With the simple assumption that the expected value of debt is unaffected by the crisis ([Brownlees and](#page-46-0)  [Engle, 2012\)](#page-46-0):

$$
E_t(D_{i,t+132}|R_{M,t:t+132} \leq -40\%) = D_{i,t}
$$
\n(25)

In practice, this assumption may not hold due to the use of hybrid debt, such as resolution regimes with bail-in. These features could suggest that the minimal value of debt will be reduced when a financial institution is in difficulty, resulting in a lower capital shortfall.

To ascertain an approximation of the expectation of the financial institution's market value conditional on a general stock market crash, it must be divided into two parts. One demonstrates what the market value is nowadays, and the second relates the expectation of the percentage the market value will fall based on a general stock market crash. [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0) denote the latter as LRMES:

$$
E_t\big(MV_{i,t+132}|R_{M,t:t+132} \leq -40\%) = MV_{i,t} \quad (1+LRMES_{i,t})
$$
 (26)

where

$$
LRMES_{i,t} = E_t\big(MV_{i,t+132}|R_{M,t:t+132} \le -40\% \big)
$$
\n(27)

To compute the time-varying dependence between a particular financial institution and the stock market, [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0)  proposed the DCC. They suggested using GARCH models to model the univariate return series' time-varying variances. The joint model is identified as the GARCH-DCC model, and highlighting the use of dynamic models is fundamental when determining SRISK.<sup>11</sup> The variances are computed via univariate GARCH models, and a multivariate DCC model is used for the correlations.

The estimation of SRISK is based on the same framework as that of MES. According to [Engle et al. \(2015\),](#page-47-0) the capital shortfall of a given

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> If  $\varepsilon_{m,t}$  and  $\xi_{i,t}$  are independent, the conditioning event becomes irrelevant and by assumption  $\mathbb{E}_{t-1}$   $\xi_{i,t} = 0$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> While a leverage ratio of three percent ( $k = 3$ ) is the current proposal from the Basel Committee of Banking Supervision, [Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0) use a slightly stricter percentage  $(k = 5.5)$  for European Financial Institutions and k=8 for American financial institutions. This paper utilizes a higher *k* of 5.5 percent for the Eurozone systemic risk analysis. 11 While using various models for determining *LRMES*, [Brownlees and Engle](#page-46-0) 

[<sup>\(2012\)</sup>](#page-46-0) compared SRISK outcomes. They discovered that SRISK estimates gathered via the dynamic GARCH-DCC model Granger-causes SRISK estimates using both static and other dynamic models. In the end, the GARCH-DCC model is the most appropriate for LMRES and SRISK modeling as it ensures the most accurate signal.

<span id="page-6-0"></span>financial institution *i* is defined as:

$$
CS_{i,t} = kD_{i,t} - (1 - k)(1 - LRMES_{i,t})W_{i,t}
$$
\n(28)

where  $D_{i,t}$  and  $W_{i,t}$  denote the book value of total liabilities and equity of the institution *i*, *k* is a prudential capital ratio of equity to assets, and LRMES is given by the following equation:

$$
LRMES_{i,t} = LRMES_{i,t:t+T} = -\mathbb{E}_{t-1}(R_{i,t:t+T}|R_{m,t:t+T} \le -40\%)
$$
\n(29)

where  $R_{i,t:t+T}$  and  $R_{m,t:t+T}$  are cumulative returns defined as:

$$
R_{i,t:t+T} = \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{T} r_{i,t+j}\right) - 1 \text{ and } R_{m,t:t+T} = \exp\left(\sum_{j=1}^{T} r_{m,t+j}\right) - 1 \tag{30}
$$

LRMES is estimated at a time horizon of six months, and *T* is set at 126 trading days (6 months). Then, the LRMES is approximated without simulation by:

$$
LRMES_{i,t} = - (exp(18 * MES_{i,t}(q)) - 1) = 1 - exp(18 * MES_{i,t}(q))
$$
 (31)

Finally, the SRISK contribution of a given institution to the risk of the system, following [Acharya et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0), is given by:

$$
SRISK_{i,t} = \max(0; CS_{i,t})
$$
\n(32)

$$
SRISK_{i,t} = \max(0; required capital - available capital)
$$
 (33)

$$
SRISK_{i,t} = \max(0; k(D_{i,t} + (1 - LRMES_{i,t})W_{i,t}) - (1 - LRMES_{i,t})W_{i,t})
$$
\n(34)

where  $k$  is the prudential capital ratio and  $D_{i,t}$  is the book value of total liabilities. It is worth noting that if we define the leverage as  $L_{i,t} = (D_{i,t} + D_{i,t})$  $W_{i,t}$ */* $W_{i,t}$ *,* SRISK becomes:

$$
SRISK_{i,t} = \max(0; (kL_{i,t} - 1 + (1 - k)LRMES_{i,t})W_{i,t})
$$
\n(35)

We discovered that SRISK increases with leverage and also acknowledges the relationship of a financial institution with the system via LRMES. The latter coincides with the expected fall in a financial institution's equity value if the market falls more than a given threshold within the next six months. [Acharya et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0) suggest estimating it via the daily MES (determined by a threshold *C* equal to 2 %) as *LRMES<sub>it</sub>*  $\approx$  1 − exp(18  $*$  *MES<sub>it</sub>*). This estimation equates to the institution's expected losses over a six-month period, obtained on the condition that the market drops more than 40 % over the next six months. Since SRISK is a function of MES, the potential nonlinear dependence in returns is considered in the calculation of nonlinear MES as given in Eq.  $(13)$ . Therefore, the linear version of SRISK can be determined by MES, as shown in [Eq. \(19\), in](#page-5-0) the definition of SRISK.

As a function of both the equity market expected shortfall, an institution's time-varying *β* (systematic risk), and the institution's joint tail risk with the market, LRMES tends to crash if the market crashes. Both effects can vary over time based on the use of dynamic econometric models.

The parameters can be approximated using two techniques: the timeconsuming one-step approach, where the full likelihood is maximized, or the two-step approach, where the standardized residuals are calculated for estimating the DCC model's parameters. [Engle \(2009\)](#page-47-0) sees the two-step approach as stable and, most of the time, close to the one-step approach. Since the two-step approach is less time-consuming, it is used in this paper.

[Brownlees and Engle \(2012\)](#page-46-0) suggest calculating SRISK for the entire financial sector as follows:

$$
SRISK_t = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \max(0; SRISK_{i,t})
$$
\n(36)

where *N* stands for the number of financial institutions within the financial sector under study. Eq. (36) revolves around the notion that

financial institutions with capital surpluses do not take over institutions with capital shortfalls during a crisis, meaning capital surpluses cannot cover capital shortfalls. The purpose behind this is that possible capital shortfalls happen in a crisis, i.e. when the entire system is undercapitalized.

# *3.4. Delta conditional value-at-risk (ΔCoVaR)*

There is a distinction between the conditioning event and the direction between MES and ΔCoVaR. MES investigates an institution's returns when the financial system is under distress and experiencing losses, whereas the original CoVaR (contribution  $Cov a R<sub>a</sub><sup>sys|*i*</sup>$ ) acts in reverse and investigates the financial system's returns when an institution is under financial distress. The difference is not due to the two measures' few intrinsic properties but is rather tied to the usage that has been done for each. In this paper, we use exposure CoVaR (*CoVaR<sup>i|sys</sup>*) only, which is constructed with the same conditioning logic as MES.

CoVaR measures the degree to which a tail event in a financial institution spills over and causes or worsens a tail event in another institution (sector or country).  $CoVaR_q^{i|sys}$  can be defined as a conditional VaR, that is,  $VaR^i_{q,t}$  of the financial institution *i*, conditional on the event that the financial system, *sys*, is under stress ( $r^{sys} = VaR^{sys}_{q,t}$ ). In other words, we can implicitly define  $CoVaR_{q,t}^{i|sys}$  by the *q* -quantile of the conditional probability:

$$
Pr(r_t^i \leq CoVaR_{q,t}^{i|sys}|r_t^{sys} = VaR_{q,t}^{sys}) = q
$$
\n(37)

where  $r_t^i$  refers to the asset return of a financial institution, *i*. More simply, Eq. (37) avers that when the return of the financial system, *sys*, falls below a threshold value, the probability that losses of the financial institution *i* exceed CoVaR equals *q*.

VaR of each institution, *i*, is computed by estimating the following univariate model:

$$
r_t^i = \mu_t^i + \varepsilon_{i,t} \tag{38}
$$

where  $\mu_t^i = q_0 + q_1 r_{t-1}^i$ ;  $\varepsilon_{i,t} = z_{i,t}$   $\sigma_{i,t}$  and  $z_{i,t}$  is *i.i.d.* with zero mean and unit variance, and the conditional variance has the standard GARCH (1,1) specification:

$$
\sigma_{i,t}^2 = \beta_0^i + \beta_1^i \varepsilon_{i,t-1}^2 + \beta_2^i \sigma_{i,t-1}^2 \tag{39}
$$

Given a distributional assumption for *z* and, hence, the *q*-quantile of the estimated conditional distribution, we can compute the VaR of each institution  $i$  for each time period.<sup>12</sup>

Then, for each institution *i*, we estimate a bivariate GARCH model with Engle'[s \(2002\)](#page-47-0) DCC specification for returns of the institution and the financial system. Let  $r_t = (r_t^{sys}, r_t^i)'$ , whose joint dynamics are given by:

$$
r_t = \mu_t + \varepsilon_t \tag{40}
$$

$$
\varepsilon_t = \sum_t^{1/2} z_t \tag{41}
$$

where  $\Sigma_t$  is the (2×2) conditional covariance matrix of the error term  $\varepsilon_t$ and  $\mu_t$  is the (2×1) vector of conditional means, and the standardized innovation vector  $z_t = \sum_t^{-1/2} (r_t - \mu_t)$  is *i.i.d.* with  $E(z_t) = 0$  and  $Var(z_t) =$  $I_2$ . We define  $D_t$  to be the (2*x*2) diagonal matrix with the conditional variances  $\sigma_{x,t}^2$  and  $\sigma_{y,t}^2$  along the diagonal, so that  $\{D_{xx}\}_t = \{\Sigma_{xx}\}_t$ ,  $D_{yy}$ <sub>*t*</sub> = { $\Sigma_{yy}$ }<sub>*t*</sub> and { $D_{xy}$ }<sub>*t*</sub> = 0 for *x,y* = *s,i*. The conditional variances

 $12$  For VaR calculations via univariate GARCH models, refer to Duffie and Pan [\(1997\)](#page-46-0) and [Giot and Laurent \(2003\)](#page-47-0).

<span id="page-7-0"></span>are modeled as *GARCH*(1*,* 1):

$$
\sigma_{x,t}^2 = \theta_0^x + \theta_1^x \varepsilon_{x,t}^2 + \theta_2^x \sigma_{x,t-1}^2
$$
\n(42)

$$
\sigma_{y,t}^2 = \theta_0^y + \theta_1^y \epsilon_{y,t}^2 + \theta_2^y \sigma_{y,t-1}^2
$$
\n(43)

and the conditional covariance  $\sigma_{xy,t}$  is:

$$
\sigma_{xy,t} = \rho_{xy,t} \quad \sqrt{\sigma_{x,t}^2 \quad \sigma_{y,t}^2} \tag{44}
$$

Let  $C_t = D_t^{-1/2} \Sigma_t D_t^{-1/2} = {\rho_{xy}}_t$  be the (2*x*2) matrix of conditional correlations of *εt*. Following [Engle \(2002\)](#page-47-0), we specify the conditional correlation matrix as follows:

$$
C_t = diag(Q_t)^{-1/2} \quad x \quad Q_t \quad xdiag(Q_t)^{-1/2} \tag{45}
$$

$$
Q_{t} = (1 - \delta_{1} - \delta_{2})\overline{Q} + \delta_{1}(u_{t-1}u_{t-1}') + \delta_{2}Q_{t-1}
$$
\n(46)

where  $\overline{Q}$  is the unconditional covariance matrix of  $u_t = \{ \epsilon_{x,t} / \sigma_{x,t} \}$ *x*=*s,i*  and  $diag(Q_t)$  is the (2x2) matrix with the diagonal of  $Q_t$  on the diagonal and zeros off-diagonal.

Once we estimate the bivariate density  $pdf_t(r_t^{sys}, r_t^i)$  for each  $r_t =$  $(r_t^{sys}, r_t^i)'$  pair in the above steps; we proceed to obtain our  $Covar^{i|sys}_{q,t}$ measure for each financial institution *i* and time period *t*. Given the definition of *CoVaR* in [Eq. \(37\), it](#page-6-0) follows that:

$$
Pr(r_t^i \leq CovaR_{q,t}^{i|sys}|r_t^{sys} = VaR_{q,t}^{sys}) = q
$$
\n(47)

$$
\frac{\Pr(r_t^i \leq CoVaR_{q,t}^{il;ys}|r_t^{sys} = VaR_{q,t}^{sys})}{\Pr(r_t^{sys} = VaR_{q,t}^{sys})} = q
$$
\n(48)

By definition of 
$$
VaR_{q,t}^{sys}
$$
,  $Pr(r_t^{sys} = VaR_{q,t}^{sys}) = q$  so:  
\n $Pr(r_t^i \leq CovaR_{q,t}^{ijss}, r_t^{sys} = VaR_{q,t}^{sys}) = q^2$  (49)

If we let  $x, y = i$ , *sys*, given the  $VaR_{q,t}^{sys}$  estimates, we can numerically solve the following double integral for  $\mathit{CoVaR}_{q,t}^{i|sys}$ 

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{Cov a R_{q,t}^{\text{Jsys}}} \int_{-\infty}^{Va R_{q,t}^{\text{Sys}}} p df_t(x, y) \, dy \, dx = q^2 \tag{50}
$$

It is worth noting that the time-varying correlation between  $r_t^{sys}$  and  $r_t^i$ ensures that the  $CoVaR^{ilsys}_{q,t}$  of a given financial institution has a timevarying exposure to its  $VaR^i_{q,t}$ .

# **4. Data**

The sample employed in this paper comprises publicly listed financial institutions from the 17 Eurozone member states: Austria, Belgium, Cyprus, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, and Spain. The initial sample comprises 639 European financial institutions, but 324 are excluded due to insufficient data coverage during the analysis period.<sup>13</sup> The resulting sample contains 315 European financial

institutions representing four main sectors: banks, diversified financials, insurance, and real-estate.<sup>14</sup> Appendix A provides the number of financial institutions within each sector for all Eurozone member states.

The primary reason for limiting the sample to institutions with complete data is to ensure consistency and comparability across different systemic risk measures. Missing data could introduce biases and distortions, as some measures may be more sensitive to data gaps than others. While this approach may lead to survivorship bias, it is a necessary trade-off to maintain the integrity of the analysis. To mitigate the impact of survivorship bias, the excluded financial institutions did not fail or undergo acquisitions due to financial distress. Moreover, the analysis is extended to a broader set of institutions, not just banks. A comprehensive sensitivity analysis assesses the impact of including or excluding certain institutions on the overall results, revealing no significant deviations attributable to survivorship bias. Although some financial institutions may have discontinued operations or been acquired during the observation period, the remaining sample of 315 institutions represents a significant portion of the Eurozone financial system. These institutions, typically larger and more systemically important, likely provide a reasonable representation of overall systemic risk dynamics.

In contrast to previous research (see [Beltratti and Stulz, 2012](#page-46-0); [Acharya et al., 2017](#page-46-0); [Brownlees and Engle, 2012](#page-46-0)), the sample is not restricted to financial institutions with total assets exceeding 10 billion; smaller financial institutions are included as well. Most systemic risk studies focus only on large financial institutions, the so-called "TBTF" ([Acharya et al., 2017; Adrian and Brunnermeier, 2016; Engle et al.,](#page-46-0)  [2015\)](#page-46-0). However, [Allen et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0) note that smaller, more interconnected financial institutions could have significant systemic risk potential due to common risk factors. [Kashyap and Stein \(2000\)](#page-47-0) point out that smaller financial institutions (those in the bottom ninety-fifth percentile by size) facing liquidity challenges are the main drivers of aggregate declines in loan supply. Consequently, focusing solely on the largest financial institutions may not capture the true nature of potential systemic risk. TITF and TMTF institutions could contribute to systemic risk even more than TBTF institutions.

The sample covers the period from January 3, 2000, to December 31, 2015. This timeframe provides a suitable platform to assess the systemic risk exposure of Eurozone financial institutions, as it includes several significant events (e.g., the U.S. subprime mortgage crisis, the Lehman Brothers collapse, and the European sovereign debt crisis). The pre-crisis period is defined as Q1 2000 - Q2 2007, the crisis period as Q3 2007 - Q4 2010 (when the majority of U.S. and Eurozone systemic events occurred), and the post-crisis period as Q1 2011 - Q4 2015.

Daily equity-adjusted prices (accounting for capital operations such as splits and dividends), value-weighted market index returns, number of shares outstanding, and book values of total liabilities are obtained from the Bloomberg database for the sample period. Most financial institutions in the sample have 4,173 daily return observations. Appendix B lists these institutions and their sector classification within each member state. For each financial institution, a weighted average of the returns of the remaining financial institutions in the sample serves as a proxy for the financial system (sector or member state). This approach ensures that the resulting system return portfolios are representative of the Eurozone financial system, allowing for the study of potential spillover effects between a stressed institution (sector or member state) and the financial system. Moreover, it rules out any spurious correlation that may arise due to sizeable disparities in the composition of the financial system proxy.

[Table 2](#page-8-0) presents the summary statistics of the Eurozone financial index returns and Eurozone member state financial sector returns for the entire period. The returns range from -76–45 %, with a daily average of

 $13$  Excluding financial institutions could result in selection bias in the outcome (Weiß [et al., 2014](#page-47-0)). [Vallascas and Keasey \(2013\)](#page-47-0) emphasized that financial institutions' transparency levels impact their systemic potential, with greater transparency associated with lower systemic risk potential. This statement encourages caution in omitting financial institutions with greater systemic risk, as doing so will bias the results. To reduce potential bias, we clarify that all excluded financial institutions have a minimum of one missing annual report

for publicly accessible data.  $\frac{14 \text{ This broad classification by sector is categorized according to the Bloom-} }{14 \text{ This broad classification by sector.}}$ berg GICS Industry Group Name.

<span id="page-8-0"></span>Summary statistics on returns.



Notes: The table displays the summary statistics for daily index returns of Eurozone financial sectors and each member state financial index from January 2000 to December 2015 (Overall Period). STD denotes the standard deviation. *JB* refers to the Jarque-Bera test for normality. The Jarque-Bera statistics are statistically significant at 1 %. ES and VaR are estimated under the assumption of  $q = 5%$  level.

-0.02 % across all member states. Four member states show average positive returns, while the remaining thirteen member states register average negative or zero returns. The evidence indicates that returns have been low for member states during the crisis period. Table 2 shows that the standard deviation ranges from 1.06 % to 3.94 %, with the average estimated at 1.99 %, higher than the average daily returns. As the standard deviation is a crude measure of risk, this finding suggests that investors are likely to face large losses at a given return. The evidence in Table 2 indicates that the return distributions are leptokurtic, with an average kurtosis of 25.77 and an average skewness of -0.40. Skewness and kurtosis have significant effects on asset allocation, option pricing, other financial market activities, and risk management. Investors typically seek stocks characterized by low negative skewness and low kurtosis [\(Kim and White, 2004\)](#page-47-0). High negative skewness is generally caused by high turnover and infrequent high returns over prior periods. The Jarque-Bera statistic firmly rejects the null hypothesis of normality in the return distributions, proving the occurrence of massive losses during stress periods. The ranking of member states based on the highest ES is not exactly the same as the one produced by VaR, due to differences in their estimation procedures.

Although stock prices may exhibit under- and over-reaction during periods of market stress, they remain a valuable input for systemic risk analysis for several reasons: (1) The Efficient Market Hypothesis (EMH) posits that stock prices reflect all available information about an institution's value. While market efficiency may be reduced during turmoil, stock prices still incorporate important information about investor expectations and market sentiment. (2) Institutional investors and market makers, with significant resources and expertise, play a dominant role in financial markets. Their informed investment decisions help maintain a reasonable degree of market efficiency, even during periods of stress. (3) Financial turmoil is often characterized by a loss of investor confidence, which can lead to significant price movements. These price movements, while potentially over-reacting in the shortterm, provide valuable signals about systemic risk dynamics. (4) While stock prices may not be perfectly efficient during times of turmoil, they are likely to be more efficient than other potential inputs for systemic risk analysis, such as credit default swap (CDS) spreads or bond yields, which can be subject to illiquidity and other distortions.

It is essential to note that systemic risk measures are not solely reliant on stock prices. They also incorporate information about interconnectedness and contagion within the financial system, which can be captured through network analysis and Granger causality tests. There are several reasons why stock returns remain a widely used and relevant measure in systemic risk analysis: (1) Stock returns are publicly available data, making them accessible to a wide range of researchers and practitioners. (2) Stock returns reflect the collective expectations and sentiment of market participants, which can provide valuable insights into the perceived riskiness of financial institutions ([Baker and Wurgler,](#page-46-0)  [2006\)](#page-46-0). (3) Stock returns are available at high frequencies, such as daily or even intraday, allowing for more timely monitoring and analysis of systemic risk dynamics [\(Acharya et al., 2017](#page-46-0)). (4) There is a well-established body of literature and methodological approaches for analyzing systemic risk using stock returns [\(Adrian and Brunnermeier,](#page-46-0)  [2016; Brownlees and Engle, 2017; Acharya et al., 2012](#page-46-0)). (5) The use of stock returns allows for easier comparison of systemic risk across different financial institutions, sectors, and regions, as many institutions are publicly-traded. While stock returns may have limitations, such as being subject to short-term volatility and not capturing all aspects of financial risk, they remain a valuable and widely used tool in systemic risk analysis.

# **5. Empirical analysis and results**

## *5.1. Granger causality connections*

This section uses the Granger causality test outlined in [Eqs. 4 to 6](#page-3-0) to analyze the interconnectedness of Eurozone financial institutions over the 2000–2015 period. The 36-month rolling window estimate of the dynamic causality index (DCI) ranges from 0.0522 to 0.2134 over the sample period, as shown in [Fig. 1.](#page-9-0) The DCI provides valuable information on the time-varying interconnectedness of Eurozone financial institutions, demonstrating that the level of connectedness fluctuates

<span id="page-9-0"></span>

**Fig. 1.** Eurozone Financial Sector Dynamic Causality Index. Notes: The graph displays the DCI interconnectedness among the 315 financial institutions in the Eurozone on a quarterly basis from Q2 2000 to Q4 2015. We estimate DCI for sub-samples in an overlapping form by using returns from a widow of the previous 12 quarters. The level of interconnectedness in the financial system is measured by the magnitude of DCI, so a highly connected financial system is captured by a higher value of DCI and vice versa. **Fig. 2.** Granger Causality Network for Eurozone Financial Sector (pre-crisis

reasonably over time and spikes during periods of systemic shocks.

For example, the DCI exhibits a weak upward trend in the early sample period, reaching a minimum of 0.0522 in Q3 2000 before increasing to approximately 0.1448 in Q2 2004, when the Greek government declared its national statistics unreliable, and its budget deficit exceeded the 3 % Maastricht treaty limit ([Cline and Wolff, 2012](#page-46-0)).<sup>15</sup> The DCI continued to fluctuate, spiking to 0.2124 in Q4 2008 following the collapse of Lehman Brothers and the onset of the subprime crisis, which disrupted the interbank payment system. It remained elevated in Q1 2009, reaching a higher peak of 0.2126 in Q2 2009 with the eruption of the Eurozone sovereign debt crisis and commands for France, Spain, Greece and Ireland to reduce their budget deficits. The DCI reached its highest level of 0.2134 in Q3 2009 as PIIGS countries implemented bailouts and austerity measures. Despite a downward trend post-crisis, the DCI continued to exhibit local peaks corresponding to key financial events (Weiß [et al., 2014\)](#page-47-0).

Figs. 2–4 display network diagrams of the statistically significant Granger causality relationships at the 5 % level among the daily returns of the 315 Eurozone financial institutions for three subsamples corresponding to tranquil and crisis periods. The curved lines connecting institutions indicate Granger causality relationships, where the returns of one institution at the date *t* Granger causes the returns of another at the date *t*+1. A GARCH process is used to adjust the relationships for autocorrelation and heteroskedasticity.

Figs. 2–4 show the Granger causality network within the Eurozone financial system's institutions. They can be seen as a proxy for how shocks could spillover within the system. It demonstrates the system's interconnections. The network diagrams show an increasing number of causal relations among the institutions since 2004. In the pre-crisis period (Q3 2004-Q2 2007), there were 13,836 significant links. This rose to 19,821 during the 2007 GFC and 2009 Eurozone crisis period before falling slightly to 18,905 post-crisis (Q3 2010-Q2 2013). This suggests that the Eurozone financial system becomes much more densely interconnected during crises compared to tranquil periods.

The figures also suggest that the Eurozone financial system becomes much more densely linked during financial crises when compared with



period). Notes: Linear Granger causal relationships are displayed in a network diagram among the daily returns of 315 financial institutions in the Eurozone. The total number of 13,836 significant Granger causality relationships are present at a 5 % level within the pre-crisis sample (Q3 2004-Q2 2007). See Appendix (C) for the full list of financial institutions within each sector.



**Fig. 3.** Granger Causality Network for Eurozone Financial Sector (crisis period). Notes: Linear Granger causal relationships are displayed in a network diagram among the daily returns of 315 financial institutions in the Eurozone. The total number of 19,821 significant Granger causality relationships are present at a 5 % level within the crisis sample (Q3 2007-Q2 2010). See Appendix (D) for the full list of financial institutions within each sector.

more periods of tranquility. For example, amongst the financial institutions in the pre-crisis period, the total number of causal relationships was 13,836, but these institutions became extremely interconnected during the crisis period, with 19,821 links, with an approximate increase of 43 %.

[Table 3](#page-10-0) presents the total number of significant Granger causal relations for each financial sector across the subperiods. The interconnectedness rankings changed over time. In the pre- and post-crisis periods, the real estate sector had the most connections, followed by diversified financials and banks, with insurance the least connected. However, during the crisis, the banking sector became the most

<sup>15</sup> Maastricht Treaty was signed in 1992 among 12 European Union members to attain the Economic and Monetary Union (EMU). The Stability and Growth Pact (SGP) was agreed upon in 1997 and went into force with the introduction of the Euro in 1999. It harmonizes the fiscal policy and unifies the monetary policy. All Eurozone members need to maintain low inflation, low-interest rates, a maximum of 60 % public debt and a maximum of 3 % budget deficit.

<span id="page-10-0"></span>

**Fig. 4.** Granger Causality Network for Eurozone Financial Sector (post-crisis period). Notes: Linear Granger causal relationships are displayed in a network diagram among the daily returns of 315 financial institutions in the Eurozone. The total number of 18,905 significant Granger causality relationships are present at a 5 % level within the post-crisis sample (Q3 2010- Q2 2013). See Appendix (E) for the full list of financial institutions within each sector.

interconnected, followed by diversified financials, real estate, and insurance. Notably, insurance was consistently the least connected, while diversified financials ranked second across all periods.

Although the number of connections varied across samples, the proportion of connections within each sector was relatively stable. For example, the banking sector accounted for 27.52–32.09 % of total connections in each period. Banks ranked third pre- and post-crisis with 3,807 and 5,314 significant connections, respectively (27.52 % and 28.11 % of the total). However, they became the most connected sector during the crisis, with 6,361 significant relations (32.09 % of the total).

Overall, the Granger causality results indicate that Eurozone financial institutions became increasingly interconnected during the crisis period. While the number of causal relations decreased slightly postcrisis compared to pre-crisis levels, it remained elevated, suggesting the Eurozone financial system may be susceptible to systemic risk due to the high degree of interconnectedness among institutions.

# *5.2. Systemic risk measures*

The high interconnectedness of Eurozone financial sectors demonstrated by the Granger-causality network raises the question of which sectors have the greatest exposure to systemic events in Europe. This is investigated using the ΔCoVaR, MES, and SRISK systemic risk measures discussed in [Section 3.3.2](#page-7-0)–4, which enable the financial sectors to be ranked in order of systemic importance. Following [Brownlees and Engle](#page-46-0) 

[\(2012\),](#page-46-0) MES and SRISK are estimated using a GARCH-DCC model, with the threshold *C* set at a 2 % one-day market drop for short-run MES and a 40 % six-month drop for LRMES, assuming a 5 % coverage rate. ΔCoVaR is estimated using the same GARCH-DCC framework to allow comparison across the risk measures.

The main objectives of any systemic risk analysis are to rank financial institutions, sectors or member states according to their systemic risk exposure (or contribution) and thereby identify SIFIs. However, the results discussed in this section should be interpreted cautiously for two reasons: firstly, using period averages of the ΔCoVaR, MES and SRISK risk measures does not necessarily imply that one member state or sector was systemically riskier than another over the full sample period. Secondly, the analysis relies solely on daily estimated values of the risk measures. It is possible that constructing high confidence interval estimates for ΔCoVaR, MES and SRISK or setting high minimal prudential capital requirements for SRISK could lead to a member state or sector that appears less risky becoming a significant source of systemic risk exposure.

We measure systemic risk exposure at two levels within the 17 Eurozone member states: (i) Identifying which financial sector and member state has the highest exposure to overall Eurozone systemic risk at the union level. (ii) Identifying which member state is most exposed to systemic risk within each financial sector (banking, diversified financials, insurance and real estate). [Table 4](#page-11-0) provides descriptive statistics of the systemic risk measures for each Eurozone financial sector. MES and LRMES produce the same sector rankings within each period, while ΔCoVaR, MES and SRISK yield different rankings that also vary across periods. In absolute terms, the insurance sector has the highest average systemic risk exposure according to ΔCoVaR, MES and LRMES, while the banking sector is highest based on SRISK during the crisis period. Insurance ranked second most exposed for all risk measures in the crisis, while real estate was least exposed for all measures pre-crisis.

[Table 5](#page-12-0) shows that the member states most exposed to Eurozone stress events are the PIIGS (as a group of member states), Spain, Italy and France according to all systemic risk measures, though the specific ranking varies across measures, consistent with the TBTF paradigm. [Table 6](#page-13-0) demonstrates that each risk measure produces different rankings of the financial sectors within each member state. The divergence in rankings is not due to instability in a particular measure but rather reflects their fundamental differences. Therefore, the results from a single risk measure should not be generalized. Instead, integrating multiple systemic risk measures into a broader framework is necessary to capture the various dimensions of systemic risk.

The tail risk measure dynamics in [Fig. 5](#page-14-0) provide a relatively poor fit for the PIIGS countries during the crisis period, with several large ES and VaR exceptions in late 2009 and early 2011–2012. The market VaR reached extreme levels around October 2009 when Greece, Portugal and Spain launched austerity measures, and the overall financial market stumbled. However, the PIIGS experienced their most severe episodes in late 2008 and late 2012. Because the broader financial market was recovering slightly during these periods, the VaR estimates for PIIGS were less extreme at these points.

## **Table 3**

Linear granger causality connections.



Notes: This table reports the number of linear Granger causality connections among the daily returns of the four Eurozone financial sectors for three equal sub-periods of three years: pre-crisis period (Q3 2004-Q2 2007), crisis period (Q3 2007-Q2 2010) and post-crisis period (Q3 2010- Q2 2013). The linear Granger causal relationships are statistically significant at 5 %.

<span id="page-11-0"></span>Eurozone financial sectors average systemic risk measures.



Notes: The table ranks the average exposure of systemic risk measures according to ΔCoVaR, MES, LRMES and SRISK of each Eurozone financial sector. Simple averages and standard deviations are computed within the four periods: overall period (2000–2015), pre-crisis period (Q3 2004 - Q2 2007), crisis period (Q3 2007 - Q2 2010) and post-crisis period (Q3 2010 - Q2 2013). Standard deviations and average MES, LRMES and ΔCoVaR figures are expressed as a percentage, while SRISK figures are expressed in terms of million Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *q* = 5% level.

[Fig. 6](#page-15-0) plots the average daily conditional volatility series for the PIIGS member states and the Eurozone financial index over 2000–2015. Volatility was high in the early 2000s, likely associated with the 2001 dot-com recession, followed by an extended period of low volatility until spiking again in early 2008 as the economy experienced a significant pre-crash bubble. Volatility peaked in 2009, 2010, and 2011 during the European sovereign debt crisis and the implementation of various bailout plans. It then began slowly decaying but remained elevated compared to pre-crisis levels. The correlation between PIIGS and the overall market is relatively low but spikes during times of distress, as seen in 2002, 2003, 2009 and 2012.

[Fig. 7](#page-15-0) displays the evolution of the three main systemic risk measures (ΔCoVaR, MES, SRISK) for the PIIGS over 2000–2015. All measures rose around late 2008, with SRISK increasing much more in relative terms than the others. MES and ΔCoVaR follow a similar pattern as SRISK, peaking in October 2008 and spiking again in March 2009 and August 2011.

[Fig. 8](#page-15-0) shows a strong relationship between average ΔCoVaR and MES but a weak association of SRISK with both ΔCoVaR and MES. This could be explained by the TITF paradigm related to MES and ΔCoVaR, while SRISK captures both the TBTF effect through liabilities and the TITF effect through beta.

[Fig. 9](#page-16-0) plots the time-series average of PIIGS member states' standard financial risk measures (systematic risk, tail risk, correlation) and its exposure to systemic risk (ΔCoVaR, MES, and SRISK) over time. The time series analysis indicates that MES could be explained by VaR and ES, while beta exhibits similar spikes but a somewhat different overall pattern of MES over time. There is a strong relationship between ΔCoVaR and VaR, as also reported by [Adrian and Brunnermeier \(2016\)](#page-46-0), [Benoit et al. \(2013\), Andreev et al. \(2005\),](#page-46-0) and Boucher et al.  $(2014)^{16}$ . Conditional volatility shows a similar pattern to ΔCoVaR, while conditional correlation poorly reflects the changes in ΔCoVaR over time. ES and LRMES display a trajectory similar to SRISK, while leverage matches it mainly during the crisis period. Market capitalization and beta move in the opposite direction of SRISK, with SRISK rising when the market value of equity (beta) falls and vice versa. Liability is only weakly related to SRISK.

[Fig. 10](#page-17-0) displays a cross-section plot of member state's average standard financial risk measures (systematic risk, tail risk, correlation) and its exposure to systemic risk (ΔCoVaR, MES, LRMES, and SRISK). The cross-sectional analysis shows a strong positive relationship between MES and beta ( $R^2 = 0.8506$ ), implying that 5 % MES-based systemic risk rankings of member states largely mirror rankings based on sorting by time-varying beta. However, there are only weak associations

<sup>16</sup> An inferior relationship between ΔCoVaR and VaR was demonstrated in [Girardi and Ergün](#page-47-0)'s (2013) time series analysis due to the alternative meanings of ΔCoVaR used by Girardi and Ergün and not from the alternative CoVaR meanings.

<span id="page-12-0"></span>Eurozone member states average systemic risk measures.



Notes: The table ranks the average exposure to systemic risk measures according to ΔCoVaR, MES, LRMES and SRISK of each member state in the Eurozone. Simple averages and standard deviations are computed within the crisis period (Q3 2007-Q2 2010). Standard deviations and average MES, LRMES and ΔCoVaR figures are expressed as a percentage, while SRISK figures are expressed in terms of million Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *q* = 5% level. See panels (A), (B) and (C) in Appendix (F) for systemic risk exposure values during the overall period (2000–2015), pre-crisis period (Q3 2004-Q2 2007) and the post-crisis period (Q3 2010- Q2 2013), respectively.

of MES with the tail risk measures ES and VaR, as well as between a state's VaR and its ΔCoVaR exposure to system-wide risk, consistent with findings by [Adrian and Brunnermeier \(2016\)](#page-46-0), [Girardi and Ergün](#page-47-0)  [\(2013\),](#page-47-0) [Benoit et al. \(2013\)](#page-46-0), [Andreev et al. \(2005\)](#page-46-0) and [Boucher et al.](#page-46-0)  [\(2014\).](#page-46-0) Conditional volatility is also only weakly related to ΔCoVaR, though conditional correlation explains 99.6 % of the cross-sectional variance in state-level ΔCoVaR. The SRISK scatter plots show it is highly correlated with firm characteristics (liabilities and market capitalization) but not with the standard financial risk measures (systematic risk and tail risk). This suggests that regulating the risk of individual financial institutions, sectors or countries through tools like ES or VaR may not be optimal for protecting the overall financial system against systemic risk.

[Table 7](#page-18-0) presents the ranking of systemic risk measures, standard financial risk metrics and firm characteristics as of December 31, 2015. The MES ranking tends to identify the same SIFIs as rankings based on conditional correlation, beta and liabilities, with five, four and four out of eighteen member states (including PIIGS), respectively. Interestingly, the ΔCoVaR ranking is driven more by correlation than by the institution's individual VaR, with eight member states having matching ranks on ΔCoVaR and correlation. The SRISK ranking is highly sensitive to liabilities and market capitalization rather than leverage.

[Fig. 11](#page-19-0) shows that as of December 31, 2015, the Eurozone member states with the highest SRISK were France (€186.66 billion), the PIIGS (€82.68 billion), Germany (€56.28 billion) and Italy (€42.99 billion), while those with the lowest SRISK were Finland ( $\epsilon$ -19.46 billion), Ireland ( $\epsilon$ -15.90 billion) and Belgium ( $\epsilon$ -13.98 billion). This suggests that SRISK is influenced by economy size, with larger economies tending to have higher SRISK (relatively). To facilitate cross-country comparison, SRISK can be expressed as a percentage of GDP or stock market capitalization. On this basis, Greece had the highest SRISK to GDP at 8.63 %, followed by France (8.51 %) and Portugal (3.68 %), indicating less influence on the size of the economy. In terms of the stock market, Portugal's SRISK represented 140.44 % of its market cap, the highest proportion, followed by Greece (119.85 %), France (67.79 %) and Italy (29.20 %), highlighting the sensitivity of the PIIGS to systemic events.

Finally, [Table 8](#page-19-0) indicates that ΔCoVaR, MES and LRMES are typically associated with the number of institutions (capturing the TMTF paradigm) and the degree of connectedness via beta (reflecting the TITF paradigm), consistent with findings by [Markose et al. \(2010\)](#page-47-0). Based on its definition, SRISK can be viewed as a compromise between the TBTF paradigm (through liabilities and market capitalization) and the TITF paradigm (through Granger causal connections), implying that large and highly interconnected institutions elevate systemic risk scores.

# **6. Robustness check**

The dominance test aims to assess the significance of the rankings

<span id="page-13-0"></span>Average systemic risk measures of each financial sector within member states.



## <span id="page-14-0"></span>**Table 6** (*continued* )



Notes: The table ranks the average exposure to systemic risk measures according to ΔCoVaR, MES, LRMES and SRISK of each member state in the Eurozone. Simple averages and standard deviations are computed within the crisis period (Q3 2007-Q2 2010). Standard deviations and average MES, LRMES and ΔCoVaR figures are expressed as a percentage, while SRISK figures are expressed in terms of million Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *α* = 5% level. See Appendix (G), (H) and (I) for systemic risk exposure values during the overall period (2000–2015), pre-crisis period (Q3 2004-Q2 2007) and the post-crisis period (Q3 2010- Q2 2013), respectively.



**Fig. 5.** Return vs Tail Risk Measures (VaR and ES). Notes: The left-side graph displays the asset return, VaR and ES of PIIGS countries, while the right-side graph displays the market return, VaR and ES. The analysis covers the overall period (2000–2015). Tail risk measures are generated under the assumption of *q* = 5% level. Return, VaR and ES figures are expressed as a percentage.

<span id="page-15-0"></span>

**Fig. 6.** Conditional Volatility and Correlation. Notes: The right-side graph displays the conditional volatility of the PIIGS returns, the middle graph displays the conditional volatility of the market returns, and the right-side graph displays the correlation between PIIGS returns and the market returns. The analysis covers the overall period (2000–2015). Conditional volatility and correlation are expressed as a percentage.



**Fig. 7.** Time Series Evolution of Systemic Risk Measures for PIIGS Member States. Notes: The graph displays the ΔCoVaR and MES (left axis) and the *SRISK* (right axis) of PIIGS countries within the overall period (2000–2015). Average ΔCoVaR and MES figures are expressed as a percentage while average SRISK is expressed in terms of Billion Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of  $q = 5%$  level.



**Fig. 8.** Cross-Section Evolution of Systemic Risk Measures for Eurozone Member States. Notes: Each point represents a member state of the Eurozone. Averages are calculated for the overall period (2000–2015). The right-side graph displays the relationship between average MES (y-axis) and SRISK (x-axis), the middle graph displays the relationship between average MES (y-axis) and ΔCoVaR (x-axis), and the right-side graph displays the relationship between average SRISK (y-axis) and ΔCoVaR (x-axis). Average MES and ΔCoVaR figures are expressed as a percentage, while average SRISK figures are expressed in terms of Billion Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of  $q = 5%$  level.

obtained from different systemic risk measures (MES, SRISK, and ΔCoVaR) to determine whether a given financial sector (member state or institution) *i* contributes more to systemic risk than another financial sector (member state or institution) *j*. The standard KS test was not employed due to the estimation procedure providing "estimated" cumulative distribution functions (CDFs) for the systemic risk measures (ΔCoVaR, MES, and SRISK), which may introduce a nuisance parameter to the null hypothesis, known as the Durbin problem ([Durbin, 1973](#page-47-0)). This issue can threaten the distribution-free nature of the standard KS test. To overcome the Durbin problem that arises when applying the KS test to two CDFs that are not distribution-free, Abadie'[s \(2002\)](#page-46-0) bootstrapping strategy was utilized.

<span id="page-16-0"></span>

**Fig. 9.** Time-Series Analysis of Macro-prudential and Micro-prudential Measures. Notes: This figure shows the time-series average of daily systemic risk measures and standard financial risk measures. The estimation covers the period from January 3, 2000 to December 31, 2015. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *q* = 5% level. MES, LRMES, ES, ΔCoVaR, VaR, conditional volatility and conditional correlation figures are expressed as a percentage, while SRISK, liability and market capitalization figures are expressed in terms of Billion Euros.

The bootstrap KS test is suitable for two primary reasons. First, the test compares the entire CDFs rather than focusing on mean values, which are sensitive to outliers and may lead to false conclusions from statistical tests based on these values. Second, the KS test is nonparametric and asymptotically distribution-free, eliminating the need for assumptions about the underlying distribution. This is in contrast to statistical tests based on mean values (e.g., Student-*t* tests or two-sample *z*-tests), which may have a higher risk of errors if the datasets are not normally distributed. The two-sample bootstrap KS test is applied to compare the CDFs of the MES (or SRISK or ΔCoVaR) for two financial sectors (or member states or institutions). The two-sample KS test statistic for the dominance test is defined as follows:

$$
D_{mn} = \left(\frac{mn}{m+n}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \sup\nolimits_{x} |A_m(x) - B_n(x)|
$$
\n(51)

where  $A_m(x)$  and  $B_n(x)$  represent the CDFs of the MES (or SRISK or ΔCoVaR) related to two financial sectors (or member states or institutions), and *m* and *n* are the sizes of the two samples. For example, the null hypothesis for MES is defined as follows:

<span id="page-17-0"></span>

**Fig. 10.** Cross-Sectional Analysis of Macro-prudential and Micro-prudential Measures. Notes: The scatter plot shows the cross-sectional link between the time-series average of Eurozone member state's risk in isolation, measured by ES and VaR, firm characteristics, measured by leverage and market capitalization, and the timeseries average exposure to systemic risk, measured by MES, SRISK and ΔCoVaR. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *q* = 5% level. Each point represents a member state of the Eurozone. Averages are calculated for the overall period (2000–2015). Average MES, LRMES, ES, ΔCoVaR, VaR, conditional volatility and conditional correlation figures are expressed as a percentage, while average SRISK, liability and market capitalization figures are expressed in terms of Billion Euros.

$$
H_0: |MES^{Banks}| > |MES^{Insurance}|
$$
\n(52)

The interpretation of the null hypothesis and the comparison of the results of the bootstrap KS stochastic dominance tests rely on the absolute values of MES and ΔCoVaR, while SRISK figures are already positive.

The bootstrap KS dominance test compares the CDFs of the systemic

risk measures (MES, SRISK, and ΔCoVaR) related to two different financial sectors (banks, diversified financial, insurance, and realestate). Results are presented in [Table 9.](#page-20-0) We test whether the diversified financial sector is less or equally risky for the system compared to the real-estate sector. The *p*-value indicates that the null hypothesis is rejected at the 1 % significance level, implying that the diversified financial sector is systemically riskier than the real-estate sector within

<span id="page-18-0"></span>

an 
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Systemic risk measures and firm characteristics values and ranking.



Notes: In the upper panel, we report the values of systematic risk measures and firm characteristics for each member state in the Eurozone on December 31, 2015. Marginal expected shortfall (MES), delta conditional value at risk (ΔCoVaR), expected shortfall (ES), value at risk (VaR) and conditional correlation (*ρ*) are expressed as a percentage, while systemic risk index (SRISK), market capitalization (MV) and liabilities (LTQ) are expressed in billion Euros. Conditional beta (*β*) and leverage (LVG) are expressed in units. In the middle panel, we rank each Eurozone member state based on MES, SRISK, ΔCoVaR, ES, VaR, *β*, MV, LTQ, LVG, and *ρ*, respectively. In the lower panel, we report the number of concordant pairs between two macro-prudential risk measures or micro-prudential risk measures. MES, ΔCoVaR, ES, VaR and *ρ*  figures are expressed as a percentage while SRISK, MV and LTQ figures are expressed in terms of billion Euros and *β* and LVG are times. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of  $q = 5\%$  level.

<span id="page-19-0"></span>

**Fig. 11.** SRISK of Eurozone Member States as of December 31, 2015. Notes: SRISK is expressed in terms of Billion Euros while SRISK/ nominal GDP and SRISK/ Market Capitalization are expressed as a percentage.



Too-systemic-to-fail measures.



Notes: In the upper panel, we report the values of too-systemic-to-fail and systematic risk measures for each Eurozone financial sector during the crisis period (Q3 2007- Q2 2010). MV and LTQ stand for market capitalization and liabilities (expressed in million Euros), which is a measure of too-big-to-fail, GCC and *β* stands for Grangercausality connections (expressed as a number of connections) and beta, which is a measure of too-interconnected-to-fail, # Institutions is the number of institutions within each sector, which is a measure of too-many-to-fail, ΔCoVaR, MES and LRMES are expressed as percentages while SRISKis expressed in million Euros. In the lower panel, we rank each Eurozone sector based on these measures. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *q* = 5% level.

the Eurozone. Results concerning the following two comparisons, *Insurance* ≤ *DFinancial* and *Insurance* ≤ *Realestate*, are more straightforward. The null hypothesis is rejected at the 1 % significance level in each case, confirming that the insurance sector is systemically riskier than the diversified financial sector and the real-estate sector, respectively.

Regarding the comparison between the banking sector and the other three sectors (*Banks* ≤ *Insurance*, *Banks* ≤ *Financial* and *Banks* ≤ *Realestate*), results indicate that the null hypothesis is rejected at the 1 % significance level in each scenario, emphasizing that the banking sector is systemically riskier than the insurance sector, the diversified financial sector, and the real-estate sector, respectively. The dominance test results also suggest that, for each comparison pair, the contributions of each financial sector to systemic risk are statistically different from each other.<sup>17</sup>

The bootstrap KS dominance test confirms the rankings generated by each systemic risk measure. Based on MES and  $\Delta \text{CoVaR},$  the diversified financial sector is systemically riskier than the insurance sector, which is

 $^{17}\,$  Due to space constraints, KS dominance tests for Eurozone financial sectors (pre-crisis, crisis, and post-crisis), member states (overall, pre-crisis, crisis, and post-crisis), and member states within each financial sector (overall, pre-crisis, crisis, and post-crisis) are available upon request.

<span id="page-20-0"></span>KS dominance test for Eurozone financial sectors (Overall Period).



Notes: The null hypothesis "*Banks* ≤ *Realestate*" means that the systemic risk measures (MES, SRISK and ΔCoVaR) related to the banking sector are lower (or equal to), in absolute value, than the systemic risk measures (MES, SRISK and ΔCoVaR) related to the real-estate sector. Therefore, the null hypothesis signifies that the banking sector is less or equally systemically risky than the real-estate sector.

riskier than banks, with the real-estate sector being the least SIFI. In contrast, based on SRISK, the banking sector has the highest systemic risk exposure, followed by diversified financials, insurance, and realestate, respectively.

# **7. Limitations and future research**

While stock returns provide valuable insights into systemic risk dynamics, relying solely on this measure has its limitations. To comprehensively assess systemic risk, it is crucial to consider additional factors that may be less sensitive to short-term fluctuations in stock prices. These factors include CDS spreads, bank-level stress tests, balance sheet data, interconnectedness metrics, and regulatory information [\(Cont](#page-46-0)  [et al., 2013\)](#page-46-0). Incorporating these elements can provide a more robust understanding of the potential vulnerabilities within the financial system.

Deriving a bank's systemic risk indicator exclusively from equity prices may not capture the full extent of its financial health and potential impact on the broader financial system. Although equity prices offer valuable market-based signals, they should be complemented by other solvency-related information. To address this concern, certain systemic risk measures, such as SRISK, integrate additional data beyond equity prices. SRISK utilizes both the market value of equity and the book value of debt to estimate a bank's capital shortfall during a crisis, thus providing a more comprehensive assessment of systemic risk by combining market and balance sheet information. To ensure the relevance and timeliness of these systemic measures, future research should focus on incorporating more frequent data, enabling regulators and market participants to gain a real-time understanding of potential vulnerabilities.

While including data from both public and private financial institutions would undoubtedly enhance the analysis, practical constraints related to data availability pose a challenge. Access to confidential financial information of private financial institutions is limited. However, it is important to acknowledge that the publicly traded European financial institutions included in our analysis represent a significant portion of the overall financial sector, capturing a substantial part of the sector's systemic risk dynamics. Moreover, publicly traded financial institutions often serve as dominant players within the financial system,

exhibiting high levels of interconnectedness with other institutions. Their activities and exposures can have significant spillover effects on both public and private financial institutions, making them crucial subjects for systemic risk analysis.

To facilitate a more comprehensive understanding of systemic risk, regulatory bodies and private financial institutions should strive to release more information. The exclusion of non-listed financial institutions has several implications. Firstly, it may fail to capture the full picture of systemic risk within the Eurozone financial system, as these institutions play a significant role in the broader financial ecosystem. Non-listed financial institutions may have different business models, risk profiles, and exposure patterns compared to their publicly traded counterparts, and their exclusion may result in missing important insights into the diversification of systemic risk. Additionally, non-listed financial institutions may be subject to different regulatory frameworks and oversight mechanisms, which could impact their risk management practices and overall contribution to systemic risk. The collective impact of non-listed financial institutions, particularly in terms of their interconnectedness with larger institutions, could be significant and should be taken into account for a comprehensive understanding of systemic risk.

To address the exclusion of non-listed financial institutions, future research could explore alternative data sources and methodologies. This could include using regulatory data, aggregated balance sheet information, or network-based approaches that incorporate information from other financial institutions and market participants. Regulatory bodies could play a role in facilitating a more comprehensive understanding of systemic risk by releasing more frequent and detailed financial information on non-listed financial institutions, albeit with appropriate safeguards for confidentiality. Non-listed financial institutions themselves could contribute to the understanding of systemic risk by voluntarily releasing more frequent and detailed financial information while maintaining appropriate levels of confidentiality. Furthermore, researchers could conduct sensitivity analyses to assess the impact of including or excluding certain non-listed institutions on the overall results, providing a deeper understanding of the potential biases associated with their exclusion. By addressing these implications and exploring potential avenues for incorporating information on non-listed financial institutions, future research can contribute to a more holistic

<span id="page-21-0"></span>understanding of systemic risk within the Eurozone financial system. Expanding the scope of analysis beyond publicly traded financial institutions and integrating a wider range of data sources will enable policymakers and market participants to make more informed decisions and effectively mitigate potential risks to financial stability.

## **8. Conclusion and policy recommendations**

The lack of a universally accepted academic definition for systemic risk has led to a multitude of interpretations, with a typical definition describing it as a disruption in the functioning of financial services caused by the impairment of all or parts of the financial system, resulting in a negative impact on the real economy. Consequently, the numerous definitions have given rise to a correspondingly large number of systemic risk measures, each focusing on different aspects of the phenomenon. To effectively capture the various facets of systemic risk, it is crucial to apply multiple systemic risk measures simultaneously. As highlighted by Rodríguez-Moreno and Pena (2013), the duration of typical turmoil in the financial system can have multiple causes, making reliance on a single systemic risk measure potentially inappropriate or undesirable. [Ellis et al. \(2014\)](#page-47-0) echoed this sentiment, arguing that the diversity of the financial system makes it unlikely for a single systemic risk measure or financial stability policy instrument to be universally applicable.

This paper evaluates interconnectedness and systemic risk exposure in the Eurozone financial sector by employing four prominent systemic risk measures: the Granger-causality Network by [Billio et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0), Marginal Expected Shortfall (MES) by [Acharya et al. \(2017\),](#page-46-0) Systemic Risk Index (SRISK) by [Acharya et al. \(2012\)](#page-46-0) and [Brownlees and Engle](#page-46-0)  [\(2012\),](#page-46-0) and Delta Conditional Value-at-Risk (ΔCoVaR) by [Adrian and](#page-46-0)  [Brunnermeier \(2016\)](#page-46-0). We assess systemic risk exposure at both the union level and the financial sector level (encompassing banking, diversified financials, insurance, and real estate). To facilitate comparisons, we unify the theoretical framework of the three measures. The sample period spans from 2000 to 2015 and is divided into three sub-periods: pre-crisis, crisis, and post-crisis.

By calculating Granger causality network connections for each financial institution within each financial sector in the Eurozone, we find that the Eurozone financial sectors have become increasingly interrelated over the past sixteen years, elevating the risk of systemic events. This finding aligns with the abundant evidence that correlation among financial markets has gained global significance, underscoring the need for mitigating controls. The SRISK definition, which considers market capitalization and liabilities, tends to assign higher systemic risk scores to large institutions, aligning with the "Too Big to Fail" (TBTF) paradigm. In contrast, MES and ΔCoVaR are more attracted to interconnected institutions via the beta and VaR, respectively, which is more closely associated with the "Too Interconnected to Fail" (TITF) paradigm ([Markose et al., 2010\)](#page-47-0). Thus, SRISK can be viewed as a compromise between the TBTF paradigm (via liabilities) and the TITF paradigm (via beta).

The empirical analysis, which applies the major systemic risk measures to Eurozone financial institutions, reveals that different systemic risk measures (MES, SRISK, and ΔCoVaR) produce different rankings of SIFIs at both the sector and country levels. This indicates that a single systemic risk measure is insufficient to capture the multidimensional nature of systemic risk. The divergence in systemic risk rankings is not attributable to the instability of a particular measure but rather to their fundamental differences. Consequently, the results of a single systemic risk measure cannot be generalized; instead, there is a need to integrate multiple systemic risk measures within a larger framework to capture the various aspects of systemic risk. The SIFIs rankings derived from macro-prudential measures (ΔCoVaR, MES, and SRISK) reflect similar rankings to those obtained from micro-prudential measures (ES and VaR) and market risk measures (beta, liability, and market capitalization). As a result, a one-factor linear model can explain the majority of the variability in systemic risk estimates, indicating that systemic risk measures fall short in determining the multiple facets of systemic risk.

In the time-series dimension, there is a strong relationship between MES with VaR and ES. The time-varying beta tends to increase during economic downturns, rendering MES procyclical. The empirical ΔCoVaR of a member state (sector) is strongly correlated with its VaR and conditional volatility. Consequently, if a certain member state (sector) aims to minimize its systemic risk score, given that the key driver of the country's MES or ΔCoVaR is the ES or VaR of its index return, the country must reduce the leptokurtosis and/or skewness of its index return distribution. SRISK is highly related to leverage, particularly during relatively distressed periods, and negatively related to market capitalization. The spikes in ES and LRMES are consistent with the spikes in SRISK. In the cross-sectional domain, a strong positive relationship exists between MES and institution beta, indicating that financial institutions' systemic risk rankings based on MES mirror rankings obtained by assigning institutions based on betas. A similar result was discovered for SRISK with liabilities and market capitalization, as well as for ΔCoVaR and conditional correlation.

We develop a dominance test for the empirical results using the bootstrap Kolmogorov-Smirnov test proposed by [Abadie \(2002\).](#page-46-0) The bootstrap KS stochastic dominance test provides evidence that the ranking of systemic risk exposure is significant, confirming that a certain sector (member state) has a higher systemic risk exposure compared to another sector (member state). The results are consistent for the three systemic risk measures (MES, SRISK, and ΔCoVaR) at the three levels (union, sector, and member state) for all sub-periods (overall, pre-crisis, crisis, and post-crisis).

# **CRediT authorship contribution statement**

**Amir Armanious:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Software, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization.

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# **Appendix A. Financial institutions within each financial sector in Eurozone members**

![](_page_21_Picture_401.jpeg)

(*continued* )

![](_page_22_Picture_289.jpeg)

Notes: Data is extracted from Bloomberg. This broad classification by sector is categorised according to the Bloomberg GICS Industry Group Name.

![](_page_22_Picture_290.jpeg)

![](_page_22_Picture_291.jpeg)

![](_page_23_Picture_290.jpeg)

![](_page_24_Picture_328.jpeg)

![](_page_25_Picture_298.jpeg)

(*continued* )

![](_page_26_Picture_255.jpeg)

# **Appendix C. Number of granger causality connections of each Eurozone financial institution (Pre-Crisis Period)**

![](_page_26_Picture_256.jpeg)

![](_page_27_Picture_258.jpeg)

![](_page_27_Picture_259.jpeg)

![](_page_28_Picture_259.jpeg)

![](_page_28_Picture_260.jpeg)

![](_page_29_Picture_257.jpeg)

![](_page_29_Picture_258.jpeg)

![](_page_30_Picture_246.jpeg)

#	Ticker	<b>Sector</b>	Country	# of Connections
265	<b>ABHA GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	18
266	<b>ADL GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	20
267	<b>AGR GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	47
268	<b>BBI GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	28
269	<b>BBR GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	33
270	<b>BFK GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	41
271	<b>DAL GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	28
272	<b>DEO GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	67
273	<b>DGR GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	30
274	DIC GR Equity	Real	Germany	49
275		Real		37
276	GWK3 GR Equity	Real	Germany	57
	<b>HAB GR Equity</b>		Germany	
277	<b>KBU GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	44
278	<b>LBN GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	27
279	<b>LBR GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	41
280	<b>MUK GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	49
281	<b>SGB GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	48
282	SIN GR Equity	Real	Germany	21
283	<b>SMWN GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	38
284	SPB GR Equity	Real	Germany	33
285	<b>STG GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	42
286	<b>TEG GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	50
287	<b>WEG1 GR Equity</b>	Real	Germany	17
288	<b>ASTAK GA Equity</b>	Real	Greece	43
289	<b>KAMP GA Equity</b>	Real	Greece	29
290	<b>KEKR GA Equity</b>	Real	Greece	38
291	<b>LAMDA GA Equity</b>	Real	Greece	40
292	AE IM Equity	Real	Italy	48
293	<b>BNS IM Equity</b>	Real	Italy	77
294	<b>BRI IM Equity</b>	Real	Italy	44
295	<b>GAB IM Equity</b>	Real	Italy	24
296	NR IM Equity	Real	Italy	15
297	RN IM Equity	Real	Italy	66
298	PZC MV Equity	Real	Malta	33
299	<b>BEVER NA Equity</b>	Real	Netherlands	10
300	<b>CORA NA Equity</b>	Real	Netherlands	57
301	<b>ECMPA NA Equity</b>	Real	Netherlands	75
302	<b>GROHA NA Equity</b>	Real	Netherlands	31
303	<b>NSI NA Equity</b>	Real	Netherlands	62
304	<b>VASTN NA Equity</b>	Real	Netherlands	34
305	<b>WHA NA Equity</b>	Real	Netherlands	93
306	<b>CEV SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	114
307	<b>COL SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	34
308	<b>FICIS SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	82
309	<b>ILV SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	44
310	<b>LIB SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	17
311	<b>MTB SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	54
312		Real		125
	<b>QBT SM Equity</b>		Spain	
313	<b>STG SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	43 27
314 315	<b>TST SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	21
<b>Total</b>	<b>UBS SM Equity</b>	Real	Spain	13,836

**Appendix D. Number of granger causality connections of each Eurozone financial institution (Crisis Period)** 

![](_page_30_Picture_247.jpeg)

![](_page_31_Picture_259.jpeg)

![](_page_32_Picture_258.jpeg)

![](_page_33_Picture_258.jpeg)

![](_page_33_Picture_259.jpeg)

![](_page_34_Picture_240.jpeg)

![](_page_34_Picture_241.jpeg)

# **Appendix E. Number of granger causality connections of each Eurozone financial institution (Post-Crisis Period)**

![](_page_35_Picture_251.jpeg)

![](_page_36_Picture_257.jpeg)

![](_page_37_Picture_257.jpeg)

![](_page_37_Picture_258.jpeg)

![](_page_38_Picture_257.jpeg)

![](_page_38_Picture_258.jpeg)

![](_page_39_Picture_244.jpeg)

# **Appendix F. Eurozone Member States Average Systemic Risk Measures**

![](_page_39_Picture_245.jpeg)

![](_page_40_Picture_270.jpeg)

Notes: The table ranks the average exposure to systemic risk measures according to *MES, LRMES, SRISK and*Δ*CoVaR* of each member state in the Eurozone. Simple averages and standard deviations are computed within the overall period (2000–2015) in panel (A), pre-crisis period (Q3 2004-Q2 2007) in panel (B), and post-crisis period (Q3 2010- Q2 2013) in panel (C). Standard deviations and average *MES, LRMES and*Δ*CoVaR* figures are expressed as a percentage while *SRISK* figures are expressed in terms of billion Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of  $q = 5\%$  level.

# **Appendix G. Average systemic risk measures of each financial sector within member states (Overall Period)**

![](_page_41_Picture_238.jpeg)

![](_page_42_Picture_265.jpeg)

![](_page_42_Picture_266.jpeg)

Notes: The table ranks the average exposure to systemic risk measures according to *MES, SRISK and*Δ*CoVaR* of each member state in the Eurozone. Simple averages and standard deviations are computed within the overall period (2000–2015). Standard deviations and average *MES and*Δ*CoVaR* figures are expressed as a percentage while *SRISK* figures are expressed in terms of billion Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *α* = 5% level.

# **Appendix H. Average systemic risk measures of each financial sector within member states (Pre-crisis Period)**

![](_page_42_Picture_267.jpeg)

j.

![](_page_43_Picture_261.jpeg)

![](_page_43_Picture_262.jpeg)

![](_page_43_Picture_263.jpeg)

![](_page_44_Picture_265.jpeg)

Notes: The table ranks the average exposure to systemic risk measures according to *MES, SRISK and*Δ*CoVaR* of each member state in the Eurozone. Simple averages and standard deviations are computed within the pre-crisis period (Q3 2004-Q2 2007). Standard deviations and average *MES and*Δ*CoVaR* figures are expressed as a percentage while *SRISK* figures are expressed in terms of billion Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *α* = 5% level.

![](_page_44_Picture_266.jpeg)

![](_page_44_Picture_267.jpeg)

![](_page_45_Picture_246.jpeg)

<span id="page-46-0"></span>![](_page_46_Picture_508.jpeg)

Notes: The table ranks the average exposure to systemic risk measures according to *MES, SRISK and*Δ*CoVaR* of each member state in the Eurozone. Simple averages and standard deviations are computed within the post-crisis period (Q3 2010- Q2 2013). Standard deviations and average *MES and*Δ*CoVaR* figures are expressed as a percentage while *SRISK* figures are expressed in terms of billion Euros. All risk measures are generated under the assumption of *α* = 5% level.

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