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## Credit risk spillover between financials and sovereigns in the euro area during 2007-2015

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Olivier Vergote **Credit risk spillover between  
financials and sovereigns in the  
euro area during 2007-2015**

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**Note:** This Working Paper should not be reported as representing the views of the European Central Bank (ECB). The views expressed are those of the author and do not necessarily reflect those of the ECB.

## **Abstract**

This paper presents time-varying contagion indices of credit risk spillover and feedback between 64 financials and sovereigns in the euro area, where spillover is identified based on bilateral Granger causality regressions. Over-identification of contagion between financials' true credit risk and sovereign credit risk is avoided 1) by controlling for common factors; 2) by relying on fair value CDS spreads as the credit risk measure for financials. The results show that in particular the run-up to the financial crisis and the more intense phases of the crisis were associated with credit risk contagion and feedback. The institutions identified as most central to the network during those episodes are known to have played important roles during the crisis. Furthermore, the tense periods were short-lived and sovereign-to-bank spillover is found to normalise when policy makers took measures to stem the crisis. Finally, a proxy for the value of implicit government guarantees to the financial sector was still positive towards the end of the sample, suggesting the financial-sovereign nexus had not been removed yet by new bank resolution mechanisms and regulatory changes.

*Keywords:* bank-sovereign nexus, credit risk, spillover, contagion, feedback loops, Granger causality.

*JEL Classification:* C45, E44, E65, G01, G13, G28, H81.

## Non-technical summary

Financial institutions and sovereigns influence each other's probability of default and this type of credit risk spillover has played an important role in the euro area. Both groups had been weakened directly by the global financial crisis, but their mutual exposure has exacerbated their position further. This undoubtedly was the case for the period 2010-2012 associated with sovereign debt crisis, but such spillover has in fact played a role throughout the financial crisis between 2007 and 2015, as also results in this paper show. Financial-sovereign linkages have also been an important motivation for many of the crisis interventions by policymakers.

The need to monitor and assess cross-linkages became clear during the crisis and will remain of interest at the very least for crisis prevention. Looking ahead, the monitoring of sovereign-financial risk spillover and feedback loops could also reveal if that nexus has been sufficiently disarmed by the new policy initiatives such as the new institutional framework for banking supervision and resolution in the euro area and new regulatory requirements world wide.

Several studies have put forward measures that could help addressing this need and this paper contributes to the literature in several ways. First, it develops a time-varying contagion index by extending the econometric framework by Billio et al. (2013) to also control for common factors such that the index does not simply pick up broad increases in risk aversion or a broad deterioration in economic fundamentals. The resulting network of bilateral spillovers between financial institutions and sovereigns can be studied for specific periods in time or the overall degree of contagion can be summarised by a time-varying index. The results show that not controlling for common factors leads to higher percentages of spillover for most of the period. However, the timing of peaks and troughs of the contagion indices remain broadly the same suggesting that the identification of strong spillover periods would not depend on controlling for common factors.

As a second contribution, the paper makes clear that the level of identified contagion relies strongly on the type of credit risk measure used. This paper focuses mainly on fair value credit default swap (FVCDS) spreads as a measure of the true credit risk of financial institutions. The FVCDS are derived using contingent claims analysis (i.e. derivatives pricing models) by Moody's Analytics. In addition, the paper relies on credit default swap spreads for financials and sovereigns as observed in the market. The fact that market-based CDS spreads of financials can be severely downward biased, i.e. default risk is under-priced because CDS also price how government guarantees reduce the default risk to debt holders, is well-known. However, the implications of the difference between market-based and fair value CDS for contagion indices had not been studied yet.

Comparing contagion indices based on market CDS versus those based on FVCDS for financials shows that market-based CDS often overstate the level of spillover, in fact by up to twice as much. Market CDS do not just reflect spillover to the intrinsic risk of a bank, but to a large extent reflect how the faith of both financial and sovereign are also linked through the value of the guarantee. For developing a measure of systemic risk this may not be a desirable feature as one would like to focus on the impact on the intrinsic risk of financials and not the risk transfers via guarantees. For instance, high levels of spillover identified from sovereign to financials' market CDS in non-stressed countries does not need to imply that there is high systemic risk, because the spillover rather shows how the guarantee keeps financials' market CDS in pace with sovereign market CDS.

Focusing on the spillover between FVCDS and sovereign CDS while controlling for common factors, episodes of bank-sovereign credit risk contagion and feedback are identified that coincide with well-known periods of high financial tension during the crisis. In particular, the intensification of the crisis at end-2008 and the sovereign debt crisis starting mid-2010 were associated with feedback loops. However, contagion from the elevated sovereign credit risk to that of financials appears to have come with a delay during the sovereign debt crisis, i.e. it worsened the situation of financials mainly as of mid-2011 while the sovereign debt crisis had started the latest as of mid-2010.

Despite the recent policy initiatives to break the vicious circle between banks and sovereigns, the results also suggest that certain institutions may still be considered too important to fail or that their orderly resolution may lack credibility. In particular, the paper recalls that the difference between fair value and market-based CDS of financials can be used to gauge the price of the implicit government guarantees. Applying that to the euro area, we see that the value of guarantees rose again towards the end of the sample, suggesting that despite new resolution and bail-in options for financials and new regulation more may be needed to soften the financial-sovereign nexus.

As a third contribution, the paper identifies the most central institutions within the euro area spillover network using eigenvector centrality. This allows us to detect systemically important institutions, which can be important for understanding the build-up of risk and crisis prevention. The results show that many of the names appearing at the top of the centrality ranking indeed played central roles during the crisis.

Finally, the paper illustrates that the timing of crisis intervention by policymakers correlates with normalisation of sovereign-to-bank spillover. This evidence relates particularly to central bank measures and hence suggests those were effective at shielding banks. We notice in particular a link with rising excess liquidity levels as a result of certain central bank operations, purchases under the Securities Markets Programme and announcement of Outright Monetary Transactions. More generally, fiscal adjustments and changes to euro area governance are expected to have added to the normalisation and prevented the same tensions from flaring up again.

*“We affirmed that it is imperative to break the vicious circle between banks and sovereigns, and we reached a number of important agreements to this effect ...” European Council President Van Rompuy at the European Parliament, 3 July 2012.*

## **1. Introduction**

Credit risk spillover between financial institutions and sovereigns has played an important role in the euro area. Both groups had been weakened directly by the global financial crisis, but their mutual exposure has exacerbated their position further. This undoubtedly was the case for the period 2010-2012 associated with sovereign debt crisis, but such spillover has in fact played a role throughout the financial crisis between 2007 and 2015, as also results in this paper show.

The need to monitor and assess cross-linkages became clear during the crisis and will remain of interest to both the private and public sectors. For investors, analysing the risk of financial institutions and sovereigns is vital for position taking, whereby understanding the links among those institutions is crucial. For the public, the crisis had painful consequences and tax money and jobs remain at stake as long as governments may need to bail-out institutions regularly or financial crises frequently lead to recessions. For policy makers including governments, banking supervision and central banks, the accurate and timely measurement of contagion remains important to spot when it builds up and to be able to respond to emerging threats. Looking ahead, the monitoring of sovereign-financial risk spillover and feedback loops could reveal if that nexus has been sufficiently disarmed by the new policy initiatives.

Financial-sovereign linkages have been an important motivation for many of the crisis interventions around the world. In the euro area, the acute situation of liquidity shortage for banks at the height of the sovereign debt crisis in late 2011 led the European Central Bank (ECB) to conduct two long-term refinancing operations (LTROs) with a maturity of three years, which in the summer of 2012 was followed by the announcement of Outright Monetary Transactions (OMT) aimed at addressing the growing financial fragmentation in the Eurozone (Constâncio, 2014). At the political level, euro area governance was revised. The negotiations among Member States culminated in a report by the European Council President listing elements for breaking the link between banks and sovereigns including the establishment of the Single Supervisory Mechanism (SSM) for the banking sector and the setting up of the operational framework for direct bank recapitalisation through the European Stability Mechanism (ESM) (Van Rompuy, 2012). Later on, the Single Resolution Mechanism (SRM) was created to allow the orderly resolution of banks, including big ones, and hence also to address the bank-sovereign nexus by minimising the exposure of public money. The list of relevant initiatives is much longer, but these institutional interventions appear pivotal looking ahead.

Spillover among financials and sovereigns takes place through many channels with large potential for amplification through feedback loops. Financials are exposed to each other directly e.g. through money market trades and bank bond holdings, which entail both counterparty and funding risk. Financials are exposed to sovereigns through government bond holdings, which can weigh on both the value of their assets and on their funding cost level. In turn, sovereigns are exposed to financials through explicit guarantees (such as deposit insurance schemes) or implicit guarantees to the financial sector (i.e. contingent liabilities) if institutions are considered too big/connected to fail. In case the sovereign is perceived to become financially weak, the credit risk can spill back to the financial sector as

the probability of official support shrinks. In addition, all these spillovers can easily cross borders in line with cross-country security holdings and other exposures of the financial industry. Moreover, credit quality of one sovereign can affect that of another also directly if it is perceived to be in a similar situation. For instance, a worsening of the Greek situation typically led to an increase in the credit default swap (CDS) spread of Portuguese sovereign debt as market participants considered that country to be the next in line for a potential default and hence the cost of protection against such default had to rise. In the euro area, the joint monetary policy implies that sovereign bonds are indirectly linked via the policy rate setting and the treatment in the collateral framework. Moreover, Member States share the default risk of the ESM which should also be reflected in their credit spreads. Finally, the rising risk perception and lower confidence could weigh on the economic outlook and give rise to feedback loops via the real economy, e.g. via lower expected tax payments, need for fiscal stimulus or higher expected non-performing loans.

While the individual channels and drivers of such spillover activity are interesting by themselves, there is still a clear need to measure the degree of spillover at the aggregate level in order to obtain a view on the built-up of risks on a continuous basis. BIS (2011) documented the main channels, while Acharya et al. (2014) and Ejsing and Lemke (2011) among others provided empirical evidence on the feedback between financial and sovereign credit risk for the euro area during the first crisis years. Other studies focused on specific channels such as Angeloni and Wolff (2012) who focused on the impact of holdings of government debt on banks' stock market value. Theoretic foundations for the 'diabolic loop' have been put forward by e.g. Cooper and Nikolov (2013). Despite the many insights gained from this literature, there remains the need to obtain an overview of the spillovers and the build-up of risk in the system at the macro level. Measures able to summarise the situation



across channels at country level on a continuous basis would at the very least be of interest for crisis prevention.

Several studies have put forward measures that could help addressing this need, where we can distinguish two approaches. The first approach aggregates information on the connectedness between institutions obtained from Granger causality tests at the level of individual entities. Billio et al. (2012) proposed such measures for monthly stock returns and Billio et al. (2013) applied them to study credit risk spillover among financials and sovereigns; see also IMF (2013) and Merton et al. (2013). One advantage of their method is that bilateral Granger causality tests can be applied to an unlimited set of entities. The second approach was put forward by Diebold and Yilmaz (2014) and relies on vector autoregression (VAR) which they applied to stock market returns to study volatility connectedness between entities. Alter and Beyer (2014) applied the model to bank and sovereign CDS prices as observed in the market to identify spillover. VAR has the advantage that the dynamics between entities can be estimated jointly, but limitations stem from the identifying assumptions and the dimensions of the VAR, thus the number of entities that can be studied at once. However, Demirer et al. (2015) suggested lasso methods to address dimensionality issues for VAR. Furthermore, relying on a VAR approximation of the process, Barigozzi and Brownlees (2014) present an algorithm to estimate sparse long-run partial correlation networks among a large set of time series. The method also allows for extraction of sparse Granger networks.

Important advantages of the measures proposed by these studies are the fact that they infer the probability of default at the level of individual institutions before aggregating that information, and, in addition, rely on network measures to assess and summarise the interconnectedness and risk among those institutions. This way, the methods measure risk

that macroeconomic analysis tends to underestimate gravely since it does not consider connectedness between institutions and transmission of risks.

The paper contributes to the literature in several ways. First, it develops a contagion index by extending the econometric framework by Billio et al. (2013) to also control for common factors such that the index does not simply pick up broad increases in risk aversion or a broad deterioration in economic fundamentals. This approach is consistent with the views expressed by e.g. Bekaert et al. (2005) that contagion is a form of extreme spillover and that spillovers by themselves are a normal phenomenon. Alter and Beyer (2014) extended the VAR approach by including common factors and we consider here the same adjustment in the context of bilateral Granger causality regressions. The resulting network of bilateral spillovers between financial institutions and sovereigns can be studied for specific periods in time or the overall degree of contagion can be summarised by a time-varying index.

The study is based on a broad set of financials including commercial and investment banks and insurance companies as all those business models can give rise to systemic risks. For instance, the financial crisis has shown that not only banks were too big to fail, but large insurers such as AIG could prove systemic in case of a large shock. The different business models in this group are expected to attach different weights to the different contagion channels, but we do not explore those differences further. The number of entities involved in the analysis entirely depends on data availability.

The results show that not controlling for common factors leads to higher percentages of spillover for most of the period. As a general deterioration in conditions can drive the credit risk of both entities in the bilateral Granger causality regression, controlling for that deterioration reduces the spillover identified between the entities. However, the timing of peaks and troughs of the contagion indices remain broadly the same suggesting that the

identification of strong spillover periods would not depend on controlling for common factors.

As a second contribution, the paper makes clear that the level of identified contagion relies strongly on the type of credit risk measure used. This paper focuses mainly on fair value credit default swap (FVCDS) spreads as a measure of the true credit risk of financial institutions. The FVCDS are derived using contingent claims analysis (i.e. derivatives pricing models) by Moody's Analytics. Hereby, balance-sheet information and market data are combined to measure the riskiness of individual institutions at business day frequency. In addition, the paper relies on credit default swap spreads for financials and sovereigns as observed in the market. Many of the empirical studies analysing financial contagion via CDS have used market-based CDS, e.g. Alter and Beyer (2014) rely on bank and sovereign CDS and find increased interdependency of banks and sovereigns during the sovereign debt crisis. The fact that market-based CDS spreads of financials can be severely downward biased, i.e. default risk is under-priced because CDS also price how government guarantees reduce the default risk to debt holders, is well-known.<sup>1</sup> However, the implications of the difference between market-based and fair value CDS for contagion indices had not been studied yet.

Comparing contagion indices based on market CDS versus those based on FVCDS for financials shows that market-based CDS often overstate the level of spillover. Market CDS do not just reflect spillover to the intrinsic risk of a bank, but to a large extent reflect how the faith of both financial and sovereign are also linked through the value of the guarantee. For developing a measure of systemic risk this may not be a desirable feature as one would like to focus on the impact on the intrinsic risk of financials and not the risk transfers via guarantees.

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<sup>1</sup> An important reason is that bank CDS spreads do not only capture the fundamental credit risk of the bank, but also the (implicit or explicit) guarantee by the government. As a result, observed CDS spreads are biased downwards in the presence of a strong sovereign who is expected to step in when a systemically important bank or the banking sector is in trouble. One well-known example is the case of Ireland when the government announced to stand ready to support its banking system towards the end of 2008, with bank CDS dropping significantly while sovereign CDS starting to rise. While this event clearly illustrates spillover from bank to sovereign, it shows also how observed bank CDS may not be reliable indicators of the intrinsic risk of banks.

For instance, high levels of spillover identified from sovereign to financials' market CDS in non-stressed countries does not need to imply that there is high systemic risk, because the spillover rather shows how the guarantee keeps financials' market CDS in pace with sovereign market CDS. Overall, this reveals an important choice to the researcher in terms of credit risk measure depending on which question she seeks to answer.

Focusing on the spillover between FVCDS and sovereign CDS while controlling for common factors, episodes of bank-sovereign credit risk contagion and feedback are identified that coincide with well-known periods of high financial tension during the crisis. In particular, the intensification of the crisis at end-2008 and the sovereign debt crisis starting mid-2010 were associated with feedback loops. However, contagion from the elevated sovereign credit risk to that of financials appears to have come with a delay during the sovereign debt crisis, i.e. it worsened the situation of financials mainly as of mid-2011 while the sovereign debt crisis had started the latest as of mid-2010. This appears consistent with the observation that the financing conditions in the economy and the transmission of monetary policy were also particularly impacted starting as of mid-2011, see e.g. ECB (2013) for evidence on financial fragmentation.

Despite the recent policy initiatives to break the vicious circle between banks and sovereigns, the results also suggest that certain institutions may still be considered too important to fail or that their orderly resolution may lack credibility. In particular, the paper recalls that the difference between fair value and market-based CDS of financials can be used to gauge the price of the implicit government guarantees. This measure has been studied by Li et al. (2011) and Gray and Jobst (2011) and offers an interesting variable to monitor. The value of guarantees rose again towards the end of the sample, suggesting that despite new resolution and bail-in options for financials and new regulation more may be needed to soften the financial-sovereign nexus.

Third, the most central institutions within the network are identified using eigenvector centrality. This allows us to detect systemically important institutions, which can be important for understanding the build-up of risk and crisis prevention. The results show that many of the names appearing at the top of the centrality ranking indeed played central roles during the crisis.

Fourth, the paper illustrates that the timing of crisis intervention by policymakers correlates with normalisation of sovereign-to-bank spillover. This evidence relates particularly to central bank measures and hence suggests those were effective at shielding banks. We notice in particular a link with rising excess liquidity levels as a result of certain central bank operations, purchases under the Securities Markets Programme (SMP) and announcement of OMT. More generally, fiscal adjustments and changes to euro area governance are expected to have added to the normalisation and prevented the same tensions from flaring up again.

These findings are relevant, because by linking the developments in the contagion index to the timing of measures taken by central banks and governments, the paper shows that the proposed index contains meaningful information. At the same time, the easing of contagion that followed such measures sheds some light on the efficacy of those measures. Furthermore, the fact that a limited number of contagion episodes are identified points out the risk of over-identification of contagion if control variables are omitted or market CDS are used for financials.

The paper relates to different strands of the literature. Given the reliance on fair value CDS data the work is related to the literature on contingent claims analysis applied to macro-financial risk. See in particular Gray et al. (2008) who advocated this approach that is based on risk-adjusted balance sheets as it can capture non-linearities in the build-up of risk. For applications to credit risk spillovers among financials and sovereigns see for instance Gray and Jobst (2011) and Merton et al. (2013). The survey by Bisias et al. (2012) lists contingent

claims analysis among a broad set of measures that can be employed for systemic risk analysis.

In addition, the paper relates especially to the network measures proposed by Billio et al. (2013) and Diebold and Yilmaz (2014). More studies have started to apply and extend their methods. Bostanci and Yilmaz (2015) apply the VAR-based estimator to a broad set of sovereign CDS and find emerging markets are the most important transmitters of shocks, even during the Eurozone crisis. Chen et al. (2013) apply Granger causality tests to systemic risk measures to study the impact between banks and insurers. They find that the impact of banks on insurers is stronger than vice versa. Demirer et al. (2015) find that yield volatilities of European government bonds and bank stock return volatilities were closely connected by October 2011 and links with non-euro area entities were also strong. Theoretical underpinnings of financial contagion in networks have been provided by in particular Allen and Gale (2000) and Freixas et al. (2000). Simulations of the potential fragility of financial systems have been carried out by e.g. Gai and Kapadia (2010). Furthermore, Acemoglu et al. (2015) and Battiston et al. (2012) found that the structure of the network and degree of diversification are important determinants of systemic risk.

The bank-sovereign nexus has also been investigated by several other authors using various methodologies. Apart from the papers cited above, Kallestrup (2012) found sovereign credit risk to depend critically on the fragility in the banking sector, while Kallestrup et al. (2012) identified interaction between bank and sovereign CDS premia including through guarantees. Similarly, Alter and Schüler (2012) studied bank and sovereign credit spreads and found evidence of spillover around bailouts. IMF (2014) derived various stylised facts on the problems with banks that are too important to fail. More generally, the paper relies on the insights by Forbes and Rigobon (2002) and Bekaert et al. (2005) in terms of the identification of financial contagion.

The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 discusses the credit risk data used for the study. In Section 3, aggregate statistics are presented as a first step in the spillover analysis and the role of government guarantees is explained. Section 4 estimates credit risk spillover based on Granger causality regressions of FVCDS and sovereign CDS while controlling for common factors. Section 5, aggregates the information in contagion indices and discusses spillover between financials and sovereigns in the euro area. In Section 6, the impact of the choice for FVCDS as the credit risk measure and the impact of controlling for common factors on contagion indices are explored. Section 7 discusses the entities most central to the network in various sub-periods. In Section 8, the impact of crisis intervention on the indices is discussed. Section 9 concludes.

## **2. Credit risk data**

The study is based on daily credit risk data for financial institutions and sovereigns for the sample period 3 January 2007 to 31 March 2015. As financial news is priced rapidly, daily frequency should have advantages in identifying the spillover timely compared to lower frequency variables.

The dataset consists of fair value CDS spreads, market CDS spreads and control variables for which descriptive statistics of daily changes are provided in the Annex. The sample covers a broad set of jurisdictions but the analysis focuses on the 64 financials and sovereigns from the euro area. Throughout the paper, the stressed euro area has been defined as the so-called GIIPS countries (i.e. Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, and Spain), plus Cyprus and Slovenia, covering a total of 30 financials from these countries. These countries were also the ones facing significant credit rating downgrades. The non-stressed euro area is defined as Austria, Belgium, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, the Netherlands, and Slovakia, covering 19 financials from some of these countries. Data are missing for the other euro area countries.

The selection of financial firms is entirely determined by the trading activity of CDS contracts for the firm and whether Moody's calculates fair value CDS for the same firm.

### **2.1 Fair value CDS spreads capture the intrinsic credit risk of the financial institution**

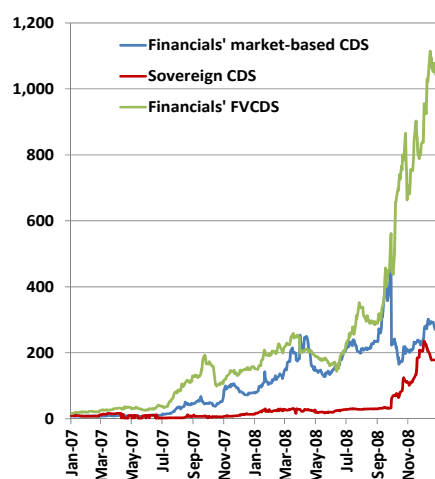
As a measure of the true credit risk of a financial institution this paper relies on fair value credit default swap spreads (FVCDS) instead of CDS spreads observed in the market. Market CDS spreads can be severely biased by government guarantees, i.e. if it were sure that a government would step in to protect bank debt from default, the market value of buying protection against this default and thus its CDS price would be zero, while the true credit risk of the bank could be high. For example, when the Irish government announced deposit guarantees on 30 September 2008, sovereign CDS jumped up and kept increasing while market-based CDS of financials dropped and remained subdued (Figure 1). At the same time, FVCDS kept increasing showing that equity holders feared to be diluted. Starting from the same Irish example, Acharya et al. (2014) more generally find that bank CDS and sovereign CDS are negatively correlated when the guarantee is introduced and the correlation can turn positive later on when deteriorating sovereign creditworthiness spills over to the financial sector. The latter most likely reflects how both the sovereign's true credit risk rises and the value of its bailout potential shrinks. Also King (2009) found that bank CDS spreads narrowed following several other rescue packages. For much the same reasons, Schweikhard and Tsismelidakis (2009) conclude that market CDS prices are unreliable to monitor the health of financial institutions.

Fair value CDS are derived using contingent claims analysis and this paper relies on Moody's Analytics (KMV CreditEdge) as the source of such daily data for financials. Moody's derive FVCDS based on a Merton-type credit model, i.e. relying on option pricing methodology to assess contingent claims of institutions. In a first step, this structural credit model derives the



expected default frequency (EDF) of the firm. For this purpose, it assumes that default occurs when the value of a firm's assets is insufficient to meet its contractual obligations, i.e. the asset value drops below the value of the obligations, and defines the distance to default as the difference between the value of assets and obligations. The value of a firm's assets and its volatility are derived using the Merton (1974) option pricing formula with input from equity prices.<sup>2</sup> By assuming asset returns are normally distributed the probability of the distance to default turning negative in the future (i.e. EDF) is derived.<sup>3</sup> In a second step, the FVCDS are estimated as the CDS spread level that corresponds to the EDF of the firm based on historical relations (Dwyer et al., 2010).

Figure 1: Credit risk in Ireland at the start of the crisis (bps)



Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

Overall, FVCDS reflect the fundamental credit risk of the firm as assessed by the equity market and are an estimate of what the CDS price would be if there were no government

<sup>2</sup> As government intervention by its very nature favours debt holders over shareholders, equity prices reflect the firm's risk better than debt instruments. The market value of the firm's equity is modelled as a call option and risky debt as the default-free value of debt minus an implicit put option. The put option basically captures the payoff function of the (government) guarantee on the underlying assets of the institution.

<sup>3</sup> Crosbie and Bohn (2003) explain how Moody's has actually extended the stylised Merton model by 1/ calibrating the default point (i.e. value of outstanding debt) more carefully; and 2/ instead of assuming normality, using the empirical density based on historical default cases and distances to default.

guarantees. Therefore, the correlation of FVCDS for financials and market-based CDS for sovereigns will only reflect the presence of any government guarantees to the extent that it affects the sovereign CDS price and spills over to the fundamental credit risk of financials, and not how it at the same time lowers the market CDS price of financials.

FVCDS have a number of advantages compared to accounting data or macroeconomic variables. An important advantage is that the methodology relying on option pricing captures the non-linearity in the build-up of risk at the level of the individual institution before that information is aggregated, i.e. the same amount of loss in asset value has an increasing impact on its FVCDS. Furthermore, FVCDS are based on market prices, which reflect the collective expectation of the value of the security according to investors who have the necessary resources to gather and base their judgement on the relevant information. Accounting data are not necessarily marked to market, implying they do not need to reflect current risk and are released infrequently implying they provide information with a lag. In practice FVCDS are also used by e.g. CreditGrades, jointly developed by four leading institutions in the credit market.

FVCDS remain a proxy variable for true credit risk and rely on a number of assumptions and calibrations. There is a risk that calibrations based on historic data become outdated and FVCDS dataset need a revision at certain points in time; we are aware of at least one such revision by Moody's. In particular the choice of discount factor and estimation of the risk premium is important. Furthermore, as for market-based CDS, FVCDS are mainly available for the larger institutions, though they start to be developed also for smaller institutions. We do not expect our FVCDS data to contain flaws that could fundamentally affect our results.

## **2.2 Market-based CDS spreads for sovereigns and financials**

The dataset is extended with daily market-based CDS spreads for the same set of financials and sovereigns for contracts of 5-year maturity. The CDS data were obtained from Credit Market Analyses (CMA), which according to Mayordomo et al (2014) has advantages to other sources in terms price discovery. Time series of market CDS spreads with prolonged periods of missing or stale spreads are considered to signal insufficient market liquidity and those financials are excluded from the sample, while spreads that are missing for only a few days are interpolated. Failing banks remain in the sample until that moment.

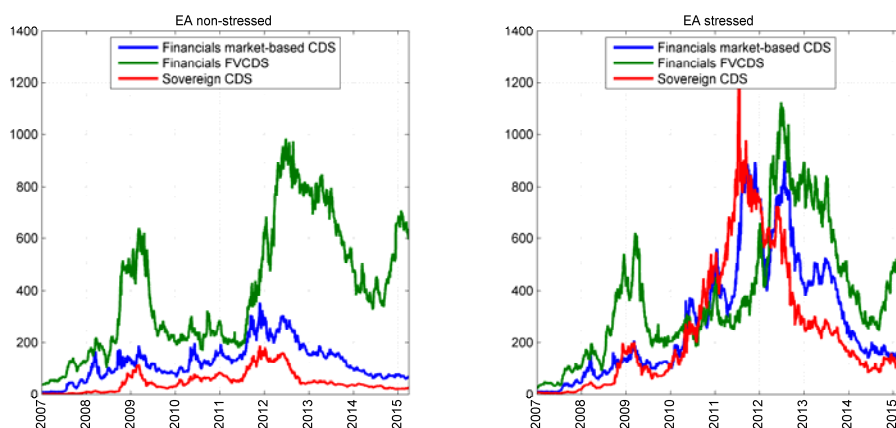
The sovereign CDS spreads used in this study are entirely market based and FVCDS of sovereigns are not considered. The reason is that such FVCDS are difficult to derive and no convincing dataset was found. To the extent that the ESM absorbed risk from Member States, the sovereign CDS spreads may be downward biased just like market-based CDS spreads for financials that benefit from government guarantees. The measure of sovereign credit risk used in this study may hence underestimate the fundamental risk of the sovereign although the strong rise in the spreads for stressed sovereigns suggests they still contain a lot of relevant information.

### **3. Developments in aggregate credit risk statistics and the role of government guarantees**

A first look at aggregates of the three types of credit risk data shows they varied strongly across time and suggest spillover took place between sovereigns and financials. Figure 2 presents the simple median of financials' market CDS, financials' fair value CDS and sovereign market-based CDS, while making the distinction between non-stressed and stressed euro area countries. The financial and sovereign CDS (blue and red lines respectively) show very different levels and dynamics between stressed and non-stressed countries, but in both cases financial and sovereign CDS are strongly correlated. This is consistent with the role of

the value of the guarantee as discussed in Sub-section 2.1. Furthermore, for non-stressed countries, the observed financial CDS (blue) stayed much below the FVCDS (green), which is consistent with the sovereign being relatively strong and the value of the government guarantee to the financial sector being relatively large. In stressed countries, financial CDS (blue) even exceeded the FVCDS (green) at some point, which appears to reflect how the sovereign CDS spread increased strongly over time and the value of its guarantee became small.<sup>4</sup>

Figure 2: The median financial CDS, median sovereign CDS, and median financial FVCDS spreads for non-stressed (lhs) and stressed (rhs) euro area countries (bps)



Note: FVCDS stands for fair value credit default swap spreads.

Source: CMA, Moody's Analytics.

Focusing on the FVCDS series, we notice how intrinsic financial credit risk had increased when the crisis intensified at end-2008 and decreased during 2009. This risk increased again sharply as of mid-2011 to reach even higher levels on average before decreasing gradually. The downturn in economic growth, the worsening of funding conditions of banks and the higher sovereign risk observed in those two sub-periods are consistent with the worsened financial position of banks. Towards the end of the sample, FVCDS rose again suggesting

<sup>4</sup> The series for Italy suggest that it was less stressed than the other countries. When Italy is excluded from the stressed euro area sample, the median financial CDS reached even higher levels.

intrinsic risks of financials rose again in a context of weaker economic fundamentals, while not being apparent from average financial and sovereign CDS developments. For a comparison to the developments in the US and UK see Annex 2.

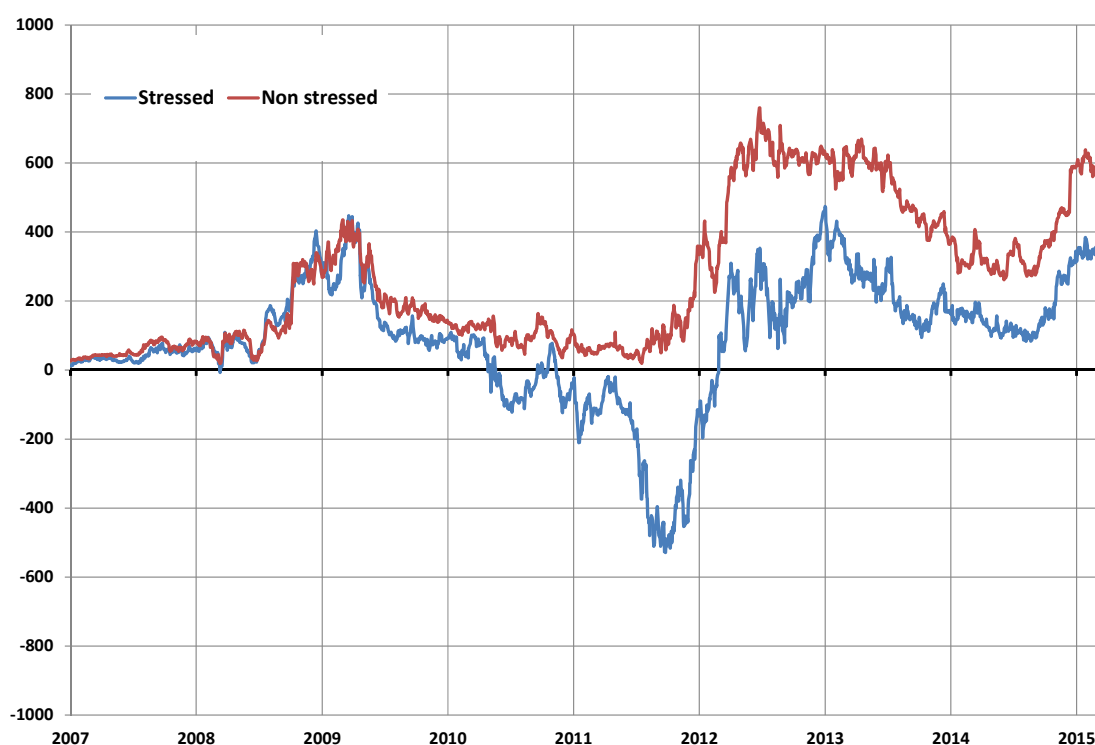
The difference between the (median) fair value CDS spread and (median) market-based CDS spread of financials can be seen as a proxy variable for the price of the government guarantee (Figure 3). These government guarantees have a value but are not on the balance sheet of the sovereign; they are off-balance-sheet liabilities. Moreover, the guarantee can be implicit making it additionally difficult to gauge its value. Nevertheless the difference between fair value and market spreads should be a good proxy for its price, although this assumes FVCDS do a good job at estimating the true risk and market-based CDS fully incorporate the government guarantee. Guarantee proxies have been studied in the literature; see in particular Gray and Jobst (2011) who analysed the total value of specific government guarantees. Applying such a proxy to our dataset reveals interesting developments for the euro area.

The price of the guarantee can be seen as a function of three elements. First, it increases with the risk faced by the financial firms. Second, it depends on the financial strength of the sovereign and its ability to cover the risk and bail-out firms. Third, it depends on the bank resolution options available to the authorities. If financials are not too important to fail and credible resolution mechanisms exist then the government is less likely to rescue them and the value of the guarantee should be close to zero.

The price of the guarantees rose as of end-2008, suggesting the increase in risk at the time of the collapse of Lehman Brothers was a dominant driver, while sovereigns were still considered to be financially strong. However, by the time of the sovereign debt crisis as of 2010, the government guarantee had lost its credibility for stressed countries. The data suggests that the price of the guarantee turned negative for stressed countries, which appears to indicate that the economy had reached the stage where the financial weakness of the

government had become a burden on the system of financial institutions. In particular, market-based CDS rose above the FVCDS (Figure 2) leading to negative price proxy in Figure 3. At that point in time the guarantee became worthless and the presence of a weak sovereign raised the default probability for financials beyond that implied by their intrinsic risk. As of mid-2011, the intrinsic risk of banks increased while the situation of stressed sovereigns stabilised such that the price of the guarantee rose again to reach positive levels. The creation of the Single Resolution Mechanism, bank recapitalisations and new regulatory reforms that came in place towards the end of the sample did not bring the value of guarantees to zero suggesting banks and sovereigns had not been fully disconnected. Either certain institutions were still perceived as too important to fail or resolution or bail-in threats are not credible enough. Also IMF (2014) found that the expected probability that systemically important banks will be bailed out remained high also outside the euro area.

Figure 3: Price of the government guarantee (bps)



Note: calculated as median Fair Value CDS spread minus median market-based CDS spread for entities in the stressed and non-stressed euro area, respectively.

Source: CMA and Moody's analytics.

#### 4. The degree of credit risk contagion gauged by Granger causality

Granger causality tests are used as a tool to investigate credit risk linkages between individual financials and sovereigns (Billio et al., 2013). An important aim of the below study is to use that tool to look for excess correlation, i.e. correlation over and above what one would expect from economic fundamentals. Therefore, we do not study the connections between the raw time series, but control first for common factors and heteroskedasticity. Let  $V_t$  be the fair value CDS of a financial institution or the market-based CDS of a sovereign on day  $t$ ,  $t = 1, \dots, T$ , and

$$\Delta V_t = c + \sum_{j=1}^z \varphi_j F_j + \sigma_t \varepsilon_t, \quad (1)$$

$$\sigma_t^2 = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}^2 + \beta_1 \sigma_{t-1}^2,$$

where  $F_j$ ,  $j = 1, \dots, z$ , are common factors. The second line of the model controls for time-varying variance by a GARCH(1,1) specification. Controlling for heteroskedasticity excludes picking up correlation owing to increased volatility as a sign of contagion, see e.g. Pindyck and Rotemberg (1990), Boyer et al. (1999), and Forbes and Rigobon (2012).

The common factors are meant to capture broad developments in credit risk fundamentals, which may drive the credit risk of two individual entities up and hence raise the correlation between them without that there is a direct link or contagion between these entities. This way the study focuses on excess correlation which relates to an aspect of contagion of the kind discussed by e.g. Bekaert et al. (2005).

A large set of control variables is collected to capture broad developments in many relevant market segments and risks. To capture broad developments in the business climate, credit risk

and market uncertainty, the set includes two broad stock indices (EU and US total market respectively), twelve stock indices for individual euro area countries, two broad CDS indices (iTraxx Europe and CDX US; both investment grade), two broad implied volatility indices (VSTOXX and CBOEVIX) and three such indices for individual countries. In addition, as proxies for the financial sector climate and growth expectations, one stock index for euro area financials, two price earnings ratios for the euro area (total market and its financial component), and fourteen price earnings ratios for individual euro area countries are included. Finally, the short-term money market rate (EONIA) and the slope of the yield curve (i.e. spread between 2-year OIS rate and 10-year OIS rate) and the USD/EUR exchange rate are included to capture changes in the monetary policy stance, expectations of future short-term rates and economic activity, and exchange rate developments.

Three principal components (i.e.  $z=3$ ) are extracted from the forty control variables to serve as common factors in (1). The selection of three components is based on the scree test and the components together explain 83% of variation. Descriptive statistics are provided in the Annex.

In a second step, the residuals of (1) are used to perform bilateral Granger causality tests. For residual time series  $X_t$  and  $Y_t$ ,  $t = 1, \dots, T$ , let

$$X_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i X_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i Y_{t-i} + \epsilon_t,$$

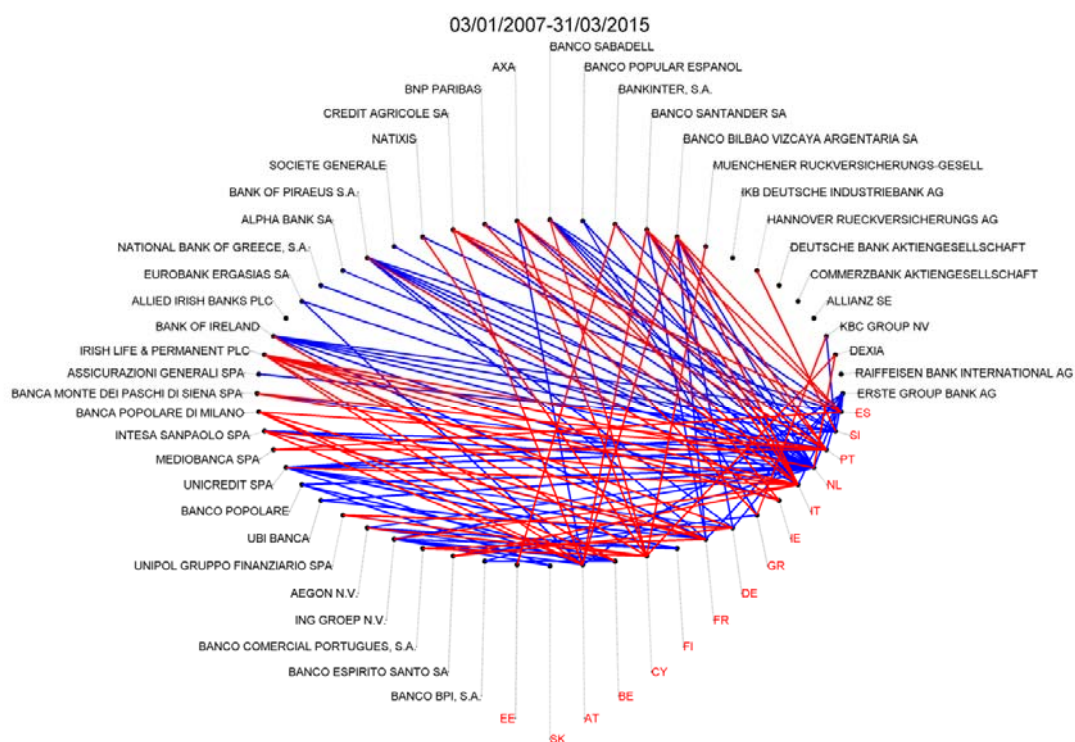
$$Y_t = \sum_{i=1}^m \gamma_i X_{t-i} + \sum_{i=1}^m \varphi_i Y_{t-i} + \eta_t.$$

$Y$  Granger causes  $X$  if the estimated coefficients  $\hat{\beta}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , are significantly different from zero.  $X$  Granger causes  $Y$  if the estimated coefficients  $\hat{\gamma}_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, m$ , are significantly different from zero. Feedback occurs if both sets of coefficients are significant at the same time. For the results presented below, significance was verified by  $F$ -tests, and for each



estimation the optimal lag length  $n$  and  $m$  was selected based on the Akaike information criterion.<sup>5</sup> The visualisation of the results benefited from the work by Seth (2010).

Figure 4: Credit risk connections: financial to sovereign (blue) and sovereign to financial (red) in the euro area



Note: statistically significant credit risk spillover based on Granger causality tests for the full sample. Sovereign-to-financial spillover in red and financial-to-sovereign spillover in blue.

Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

<sup>5</sup> In practice, selecting a small number of lags tended to reduce the economic content of the contagion indices introduced below, which would suggest spillover can often take a couple of days and using too few lags removes that information. Therefore, the Akaike information criterion, which typically selects a larger number of lags than e.g. the Bayesian information criterion, appeared the more appropriate criterion in this context. The algorithm allows for a maximum of five lags which did not restrict the estimations as the optimal lag was found to be smaller in almost all cases.

Using Granger causality can be seen as verifying a second aspect of contagion. Namely, as pointed out by Constâncio (2012) contagion can mean transmission is sequential, and this is checked here in a statistical sense. Figure 4 shows the euro area entities considered and the lines indicate statistically significant Granger causality relations between the entities for the full sample period, where blue indicates that a financial firm is the driver of a sovereign and red indicates that a sovereign is the driver of a financial firm. The picture suggests a lot of significant spillover directly between financials and sovereigns. Extending this to connections among financials and among sovereigns would show many more connections. For interpreting the results, it needs to be remarked that Granger causality remains a statistical concept and each significant connection should not be taken as evidence of actual balance sheet exposure between entities but as indicative of credit risk spillover. In the next sections more value will be attached to aggregates of these connections.

## 5. Time-varying contagion index

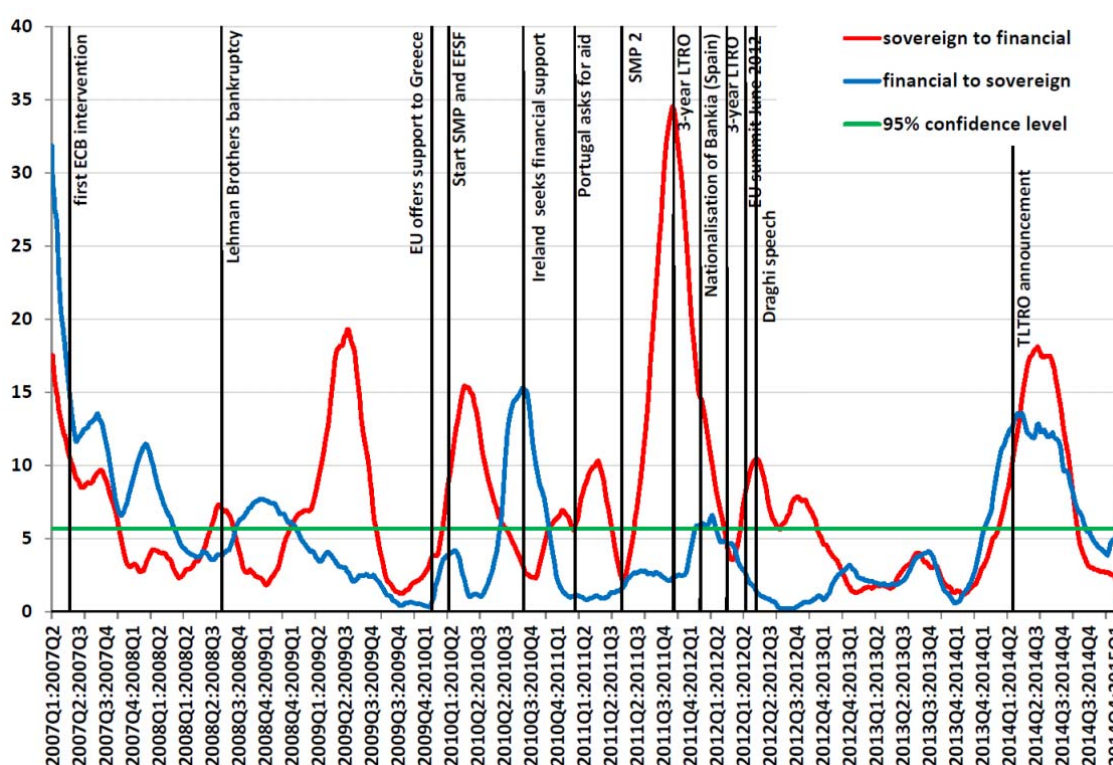
Aggregating the information from significant connections between individual entities makes it easier to interpret developments at the macro level and computing the connections within a moving time window allows real-time monitoring of contagion. Following Billio et al. (2013) we count the number of significant connections at each point in time. Adding time-variation to the analysis can be seen as introducing a third aspect of contagion, namely that contagion occurs if the transmission is different. Define the index of contagion from  $N$  number of financials to  $M$  number of sovereigns as

$$CI_{t,financial \rightarrow sovereign} = \frac{100}{NM} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^M I_{t,i \rightarrow j},$$

where  $I_t$  is an indicator function for when the Granger causality F-test is significant at time  $t=1, \dots, T$ . This contagion index captures the percentage of significant connections from

financials to sovereigns over time. Likewise, an index for sovereign-to-financial contagion can be defined, or for other groupings such as for domestic connections versus cross-border connections. Although we do not explore more options in this paper, the index could be generalised by weighing links by the degree of spillover, e.g. based on the size of estimated coefficients of the regressions.<sup>6</sup>

Figure 5: Contagion indices for stressed euro area countries (%)



Note: percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed by a 2-month average. The horizontal green line indicates the 95% confidence level. Vertical lines indicate economic and institutional events.

Source: CMA and Moody’s Analytics.

<sup>6</sup> If as argued by Acemoglu et al. (2015) it is rather the structure of the network of financials and the size of shocks hitting the network that determine the extent of financial contagion, then more sophisticated measures will be needed to monitor risk at the macro level. In other words, the number or strength of links would not necessarily be decisive for systemic risk and the on-going research would need to find ways to account for the (changes in) network structure that do determine that risk.

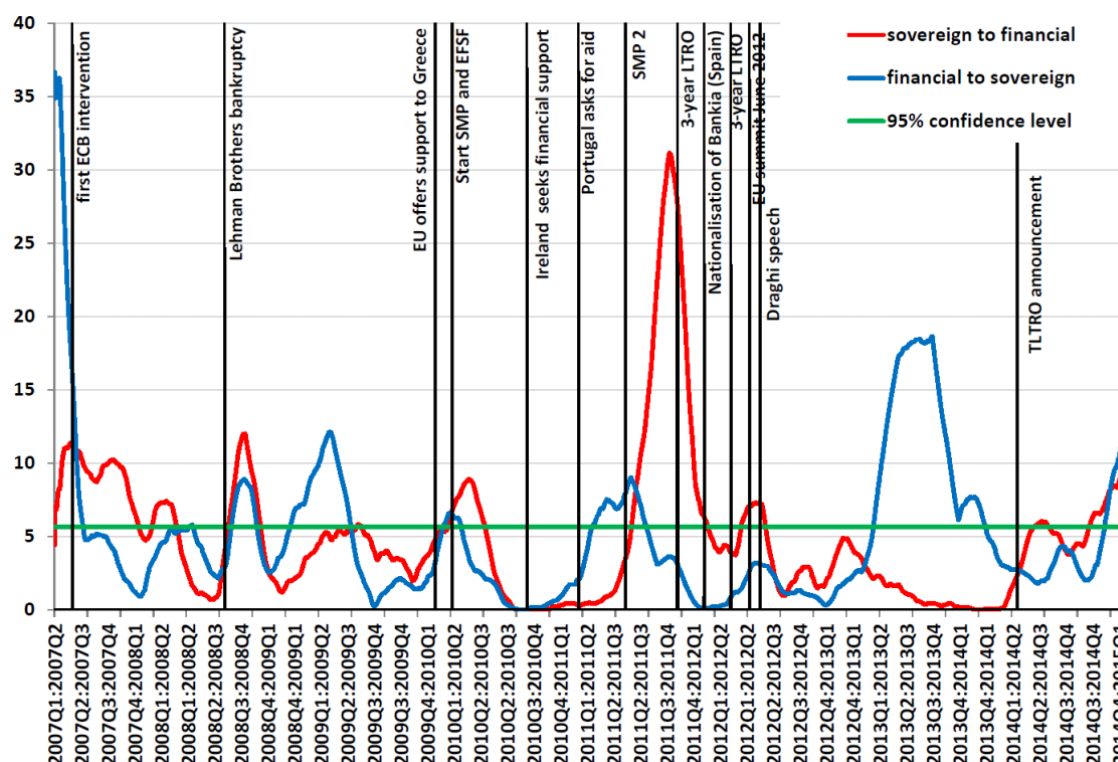
Applying the contagion indices to the euro area, several periods with significant spillover between sovereigns and financials can be identified for the stressed countries. Figure 7 shows the sovereign-to-financial and financial-to-sovereign contagion indices for the stressed euro area estimated in a six-month moving window and smoothed by taking its two-month average. We notice that:

1. The pre-crisis period is characterised by a high share of significant connections, suggesting that entities already impacted each other's credit risk beyond what broad risk indicators suggested around that time. Taken at face value, this result suggests that the indicators had a predictive value as broad risk indicators had not signalled the build-up of risk at that time. However, a larger pre-crisis sample would be needed to investigate pre-crisis connectivity with more certainty, especially if one wanted to establish a benchmark for connectivity in 'normal times'. Unfortunately, a larger historic dataset could not be obtained to allow such research.
2. At the start of the global financial crisis in 2008 spillovers from financials only just breached the 5% significance level, while the level of median financial FVCDS and median sovereign CDS increased sharply (Figure 2). This is consistent with a strong deterioration in broad financial conditions and a broad re-pricing of credit risk in that period, which is not fully classified as contagion by the estimations. The financial turmoil period and the intensification of the crisis after the collapse of Lehman Brothers is rather characterised by a disconnection of credit risk spillovers.
3. In 2009, strong spillover from sovereigns to financial is identified, which given the temporary improvement in median FVCDS at that time (Figure 2) rather points at positive spillover from decreasing sovereign spreads. The result is also consistent with that of Billio et al. (2013) who found spillover of sovereign risk to have played an

important role already before the sovereign debt crisis in the euro area impacted broad financial markets.

4. At the start of the sovereign debt crisis in 2010, sovereign CDS developments are found to have weighed on financials' FVCDS, followed by a period where financials weighed on sovereigns. This sequence could be indicative of a negative feedback loop that materialised over a longer period of time.
5. The percentage of significant connections from sovereigns to financials peaked in the second half of 2011, which is consistent with the political turmoil at that time and the height of the sovereign debt crisis. The sovereign risk spillover persisted into 2012, while financial FVCDS and sovereign CDS stood at very high levels (Figure 2). In fact the high FVCDS may be a driver of the worsening of the funding conditions for banks which called for the introduction of longer-term refinancing operations by the ECB.
6. Spillover between both groups became significant again in 2014, but judging from the declining trend of median sovereign CDS and median FVCDS (Figure 2), this also appears to point to positive contagion.
7. Towards the end of the sample, financial-to-sovereign spillover became again significant consistent with the higher level of FVCDS (Figure 2). This suggests the measures announced to break the sovereign-bank nexus (e.g. launch of the SRM, bail-in proposals, and re-capitalisation options via the ESM), of which some were already implemented, were not fully effective yet.

Figure 6: Contagion indices for non-stressed euro area countries (%)



Note: percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed as by 2-month average. The horizontal green line indicates the 95% confidence level. Vertical lines indicate economic and institutional events.

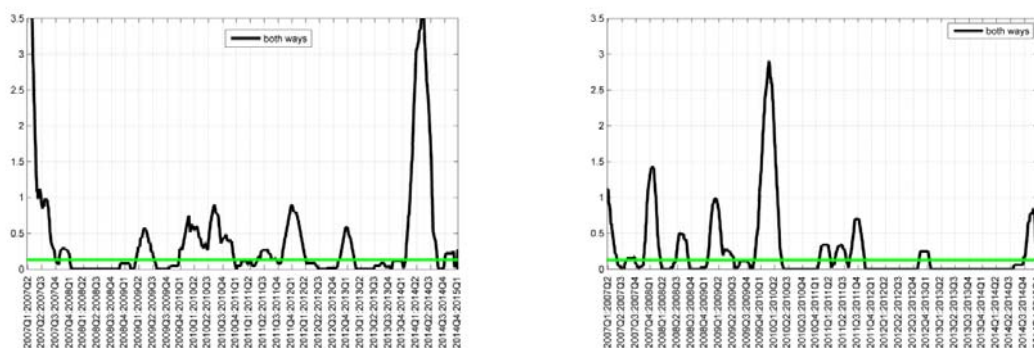
Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

Also non-stressed countries were characterised by significant spillovers though to a smaller extent (Figure 6): 1) in the run-up to the financial crisis, connections in both directions are found to be significant but in particular for financials affecting sovereigns; 2) at end-2008, the spillover occurred briefly in both direction; 3) In 2011, higher spillover from financials to sovereigns is followed by higher spillover from sovereigns to financials, again suggesting negative feedback loops; 4) In 2013, significant spillover from financials to sovereigns is identified, which rather points to positive contagion given the decline in median FVCDS (Figure 2); and 5) the rise in contagion at the end of the sample is consistent with the

significant uncertainty in the effective implementation of some new policies with the aim to break the sovereign-bank nexus.<sup>7</sup>

Overall, Figure 2 suggests that financial FVCDS followed the sharp trends in sovereign CDS with some lag, in particular during the sovereign debt crisis, which would be consistent with the financial position of the sovereign eventually impacting the fundamentals of financials. In turn, high percentages of sovereign-to-financial suggests it also occurred contemporaneously and financial-to-sovereign connections in Figure 5-6 suggest that positions of financials also weighed on that of sovereigns at certain points in time.

Figure 7: Feedback index - stressed (lhs) and non-stressed (rhs) euro area countries (%)



Note: percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed by a 2-month average. The horizontal green line indicates the 95% confidence level.

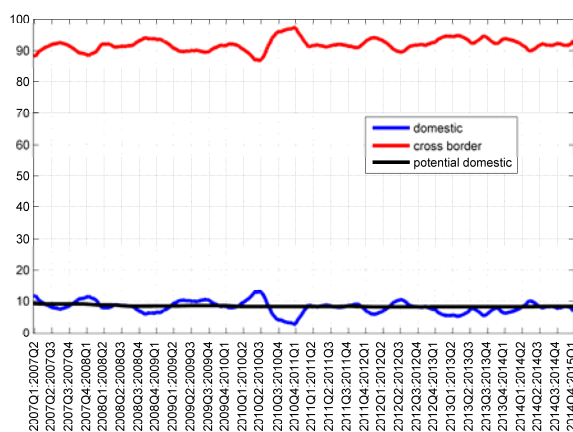
Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

Although the feedback loops may hence occur with some lag, the main crisis episodes are found to be associated with contemporaneous feedback loops. Figure 7 repeats the exercise of Figures 5-6, but the contagion index now only counts the connections where feedback is

<sup>7</sup> It can be verified that the same chart for the US would show no significant red line as the sovereign credit risk was not a driving factor during the US crisis. However, a lot of connections existed throughout the crisis among US financials.

found, i.e. the connection is significant in both directions between sovereign and financial. The results show that for stressed euro area countries, especially the run-up to the crisis and the sovereign debt crisis in 2010-2011 were associated with feedback loops. The feedback loop at the end of the sample again points to positive contagion as in Figure 5. The results for non-stressed countries suggest that negative dynamics existed also there, although we know from Figure 2 that sovereign credit risk was larger for stressed countries.

Figure 8: Share of domestic versus cross-border connections (%)



Note: percentage of significant Granger causality connections that concerns domestic spillover versus cross-border spillover. The black line indicates the average expected domestic share for the given network of jurisdictions.

Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

Spillover in the euro area was largely cross-border and that share of connections was broadly stable except during 2010. We adjust the contagion index to compute the share of domestic connections and the share of cross-border connections. This follows an approach similar to Demirer et al. (2015) who studied cross-country and within-country connectedness based on volatility shocks among banks situated around the globe and find that cross-country



connectedness already rose in 2006 possibly linked to tighter U.S. monetary policy. Here, the calculation is applied to all euro area financials and sovereigns and allows for all possible connections among those. The share of domestic connections is importantly determined by the structure of the jurisdiction in the network, for instance: the larger the number of countries, the smaller the potential share of domestic connections in the network. As shown in Figure 8, within the euro area network, the expected share of domestic connections, i.e. assuming a neutral distribution of spillovers among institutions, remains just below 10% throughout the sample. We notice that the actual domestic share has stayed fairly close to that except in 2010. At the start of the sovereign debt crisis, the share of domestic spillover first rose above the average expected level to then fall noticeably below that expectation, suggesting domestic spillover eventually crossed borders.

## **6. The role of common factors and market-based CDS for financials**

Given the difference between fair-value and market CDS spreads for financials, one would expect that the spillover of each of these to and from sovereigns can look quite different. The literature studying credit risk spillover has so far not paid much attention to the difference in results, though the interpretation of the results of each paper were typically consistent with the data type chosen. For example, Acharya et al. (2014) and Alter and Beyer (2014) rely on market CDS while Merton et al. (2013) emphasise the use of FVCDS type as input. Below, we discuss what happens to Figures 5 and 6 when market-based CDS are used; see the figures in Annex 3 and note the different scale on the Y-axis.

Using market-based CDS for financials, spillover is found to be higher on average and up to twice as high, reflecting how changes in the value of the guarantee drive both financial and sovereign CDS as priced in the market, while FVCDS exclude that component. Comparing Figure 5 to Figure A3.1 for stressed euro area countries, it is apparent how sovereigns affect

financials in a statistically significant manner throughout the period and more intensively during 2009-2012 associated with the sovereign debt crisis. This is consistent with results in the literature, where e.g. Alter and Schüller (2012) found sovereign CDS to have increased importance in the price discovery mechanism of banks' market-based CDS series after government interventions. The higher spillover in Figure A3.1 appears also to capture how the credit risk of a weak sovereign interacted with financials' credit risk as priced in the market by first providing or confirming the presence of guarantees and later seeing the value of that guarantee weakening, each time also leading to a re-pricing of financials' CDS. The peaks of the sovereign-to-financial contagion indices often coincide in both Figures, except for end-2011 and 2014 when sovereign risk spilled over more strongly to FVCDS and the intrinsic risk of financials deteriorated. The financial-to-sovereign indices show more clear differences in the timing of peaks depending on whether developments in market CDS or FVCDS are used.

For non-stressed euro area countries, Figure A3.2 also shows a different picture than Figure 6 and also here the deterioration in sovereign CDS appears to spill over more strongly to financials' market CDS as the guarantee is re-assessed by market participants at certain points in time, while intrinsic risk of the financial institutions is not necessarily affected. The positive spillover of FVCDS to sovereign CDS in 2013 (Figure 6) is not observable when using financials' market CDS (Figure A3.2) suggesting government guarantees already kept financials' market CDS at low levels.

The results suggest that the higher spillover detected with financials' market CDS does not just reflect spillover to the intrinsic risk of a bank, but to a large extent reflects how the faith of both financial and sovereign are always linked through the value of the guarantee. When choosing the type of credit risk measure, the researcher basically chooses whether she wants to allow the guarantees to influence the correlations. For developing a measure of systemic

risk this may not be desirable. For instance, the high spillover detected from sovereign to financials' market CDS in non-stressed countries does not imply that we have high systemic risk, because it is rather the guarantee that keeps financial CDS close to the low sovereign CDS. Also for stressed countries, higher correlation owing to changes in the value of the guarantee does not need to imply a higher systemic risk.

Overall, the results depend on the type of credit data used and market CDS may overstate the level of spillover. If one wants to concentrate on the developments in the intrinsic risk of financials and is not interested in the impact of the risk transfer owing to the presence of guarantees on financials' CDS, then one should rely on FVCDS. The higher spillover detected with market CDS does not need to imply that systemic risk is higher as it may simply reflect higher correlation owing to financials and sovereign shifting risk among each other.

An additional issue where the literature has followed different approaches is the need to control for common factors. For example, Alter and Beyer (2014) included control variables when deriving aggregate spillover measures, but most other related papers did not pay much attention to that when proposing econometric specifications. The VAR approach without control variables would then rely on the credit risk developments of other institutions included in the model to control for broad risk developments, which appears a strong assumption to make, while bilateral Granger causality regression would not at all control for common factors. Annex 4 presents what happens to Figures 5 and 6 if we do not control for common factors.

Not controlling for common factors leads to somewhat higher percentages of spillover for most of the period. As a general deterioration in conditions can drive the credit risk of both entities in the bilateral Granger causality regression, controlling for that deterioration reduces the spillover identified between the entities. Figures A4.1 and A4.2 present the contagion

indices without filtering for common factors while still controlling for heteroscedasticity. Comparing those to Figures 5 and 6 shows that the level of spillover is often overestimated and thus also the significance of it in many periods, which could wrongly classify a deterioration in broad risk as contagion. However, the timing of peaks and troughs of the indices remain broadly the same suggesting that the identification of strong spillover periods would not depend on the pre-filtering.

### **7. Institutions most central within the network of spillovers**

The network of spillover connections allows us to assess the importance of individual institutions within the network. In the context of contagion, eigenvector centrality provides an interesting measure of the influence of a node in the network as it also takes into account the centrality of nodes it is connected to; a node is important if it is linked to other important nodes. Let  $A=(a_{ij})$  be the adjacency matrix of the network with  $n$  nodes, i.e.  $i=1, \dots, n$  and  $j=1, \dots, n$ , and element  $a_{ij}=1$  if spillover between nodes  $i$  and  $j$  is statistically significant in either direction, and otherwise  $a_{ij}=0$ . As explained by e.g. Newman (2010) the centrality vector  $x$  is then the eigenvector of the adjacency matrix  $A$ , i.e. centrality  $x$  satisfies  $\lambda x = Ax$  in matrix form, with  $\lambda$  the largest eigenvalue of  $A$ .

Applied to a network of credit risk spillover, eigenvector centrality allows us to detect systemically important institutions, which can be important for understanding the build-up of risk and crisis prevention. The values of the resulting centrality vector offer a way to rank institutions; see also Dungey et al. (2012) for another application to crisis-related networks. Table 1 presents the top-10 of euro area financials and sovereigns identified as most significant to the network based on eigenvector centrality and considering all potential links between these entities, i.e. not only financial-to-sovereign and sovereign-to-financial, but also

inter-financial and inter-sovereign connections to fully take into account the chains of connections.

The tool is applied to each of eight sub-periods: a pre-crisis period (2007:01-2007:06), the financial turmoil at the start of the crisis (2007:08-2008:10), intensification post-Lehman (2008:10-2009:03), temporary improvement (2009:06-2009:11), and periods that coincided with ECB measures such as the two rounds of the Securities Markets Programme (SMP1: 2010:05-2010:10) and (SMP2: 2011:08-2012:01), three-year LTROs and the announcement of Outright Monetary Transactions (OMT: 2012:02-2014:06) and the latest period (2014:07-2015:03). The latter sub-periods are named after the measures taken by the ECB, but those periods were also characterised by measures taken by the banks and governments, the introduction of new regulation and changes to euro area governance, which are important to take into account when interpreting developments. Annex 5 presents the networks corresponding to the sub-periods, but showing only the financial-to-sovereign and sovereign-to-financial spillovers; many more connections exist within both groups.

Many of the names appearing at the top of the centrality ranking indeed played central roles during the crisis judging from media reports (Table 1) and the changes in the ranking show how the network structure changed across time. As regards the pre-crisis period, Unipol is known to have undergone a restructuring in 2007 and IKB was among the first European banks to declare financial trouble due to the subprime crisis in the US. During the turmoil period, Allied Irish Banks already appears in the ranking and was bailed out by the Republic of Ireland as of 2009. Also certain Greek, Belgian and French banks with known exposures to the global financial crisis appear in the ranking, with for instance KBC receiving government aid in 2008.

Short after the Lehman crisis, Cyprus, Greece, Ireland and Portugal are already identified as central entities, thus a considerable time before the sovereign debt crisis more clearly began

to impact financial markets in 2010, but also certain sovereigns from core euro area countries are identified as central. This is consistent with Billio et al. (2013) finding high centrality of GIIPS sovereigns before 2010. During the sovereign debt crisis (i.e. periods indicated as SMP1 and SMP2) certain large Italian, Irish and Spanish banks and Greece are identified as central. For example, market CDS of Unicredit and Intesa Sanpaolo were under pressure at that time reflecting doubts about the ability of the Italian government to guarantee deposits and Irish Life & Permanent PLC was heavily affected by the Irish banking crisis. Portugal and Spain enter the list in the second stage, with for instance Banco Popular seeking recapitalisation in 2012.

In the last two sub-periods, mainly financials from stressed countries rank as most central, which is consistent both with the easing of tensions and the remaining uncertainty about the outlook for institutions in those countries.

Table 1: Top-10 of central entities in eight sub-periods

Rank	Pre-crisis	Financial turmoil	Post-Lehman	Improvement
1	UNIPOL GRUPPO FINANZIARIO SPA	UNIPOL GRUPPO FINANZIARIO SPA	Cyprus	UNICREDIT SPA
2	IKB DEUTSCHE INDUSTRIEBANK AG	BANCA MONTE DEI PASCHI DI SIENA SPA	Belgium	EUROBANK ERGASIAS SA
3	UNICREDIT SPA	KBC GROUP NV	Greece	BANCO SABADELL
4	Italy	ALLIED IRISH BANKS PLC	Ireland	BANCO BILBAO VIZCAYA ARGENTARIA SA
5	Netherlands	UBI BANCA	Portugal	BANCO POPOLARE
6	BANCO BILBAO VIZCAYA ARGENTARIA SA	NATIXIS	Netherlands	BNP PARIBAS
7	CREDIT AGRICOLE SA	EUROBANK ERGASIAS SA	Spain	BANCO ESPIRITO SANTO SA
8	France	BANCO ESPIRITO SANTO SA	IKB DEUTSCHE INDUSTRIEBANK AG	MEDIOBANCA SPA
9	ALLIANZ SE	DEUTSCHE BANK AKTIENGESELLSCHAFT	Austria	DEUTSCHE BANK AKTIENGESELLSCHAFT
10	Portugal	ALPHA BANK SA	Slovakia	ERSTE GROUP BANK AG
Rank	SMP1	SMP2	3-yr LTROs & OMT	Latest
1	UNICREDIT SPA	BANCO POPULAR ESPANOL	DEXIA	Cyprus
2	INTESA SANPAOLO SPA	Portugal	BANCO SANTANDER SA	BANCA MONTE DEI PASCHI DI SIENA SPA
3	IRISH LIFE & PERMANENT PLC	ING GROEP N.V.	NATIONAL BANK OF GREECE, S.A.	DEXIA
4	BANCA MONTE DEI PASCHI DI SIENA SPA	Finland	IKB DEUTSCHE INDUSTRIEBANK AG	IKB DEUTSCHE INDUSTRIEBANK AG
5	Greece	UNICREDIT SPA	BANKINTER, S.A.	RAIFFEISEN BANK INTERNATIONAL AG
6	ING GROEP N.V.	INTESA SANPAOLO SPA	BANCO BILBAO VIZCAYA ARGENTARIA SA	BANCO SANTANDER SA
7	NATIXIS	Spain	ALPHA BANK SA	ERSTE GROUP BANK AG
8	AXA	IKB DEUTSCHE INDUSTRIEBANK AG	BANCO ESPIRITO SANTO SA	BANCO BILBAO VIZCAYA ARGENTARIA SA
9	ASSICURAZIONI GENERALI SPA	BANCO POPOLARE	BANCA POPOLARE DI MILANO	UBI BANCA
10	UBI BANCA	CREDIT AGRICOLE SA	EUROBANK ERGASIAS SA	UNIPOL GRUPPO FINANZIARIO SPA

Note: the ranking is based on the eigenvector centrality of the network of spillovers among euro area financials and sovereigns in each sub-period.

Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

## 8. The impact of crisis intervention on contagion indices

Taking a closer look at the contagion indices, it is apparent how sovereign-to-financial contagion proved short-lived and normalisation coincided with the launch of crisis measures by various policy makers. We focus in particular on central bank measures which aim to avoid liquidity shortages and the need for fire sales, and hence dampen the risk of contagion. Figure 9 presents the sovereign-to-financial spillover (observed in the non-stressed countries<sup>8</sup>) together with excess liquidity that prevailed in the euro area, i.e. the amount of bank reserves held at the central bank above required reserves, and with the size of the government bond portfolio resulting from the Securities Markets Programme of the ECB. Excess liquidity rose during the period as soon as the fixed-rate full allotment procedure was introduced for refinancing operations with the ECB as of October 2008 and when the ECB conducted special longer-term refinancing operations such as two 3-year LTROs launched in December 2011 and March 2012, respectively. Such operations helped banks to cover funding needs for 3 years. The SMP did not lead to higher excess liquidity as the purchases were sterilised, but had a more direct impact in sovereign bond markets; see for instance Ghysels et al. (2016).

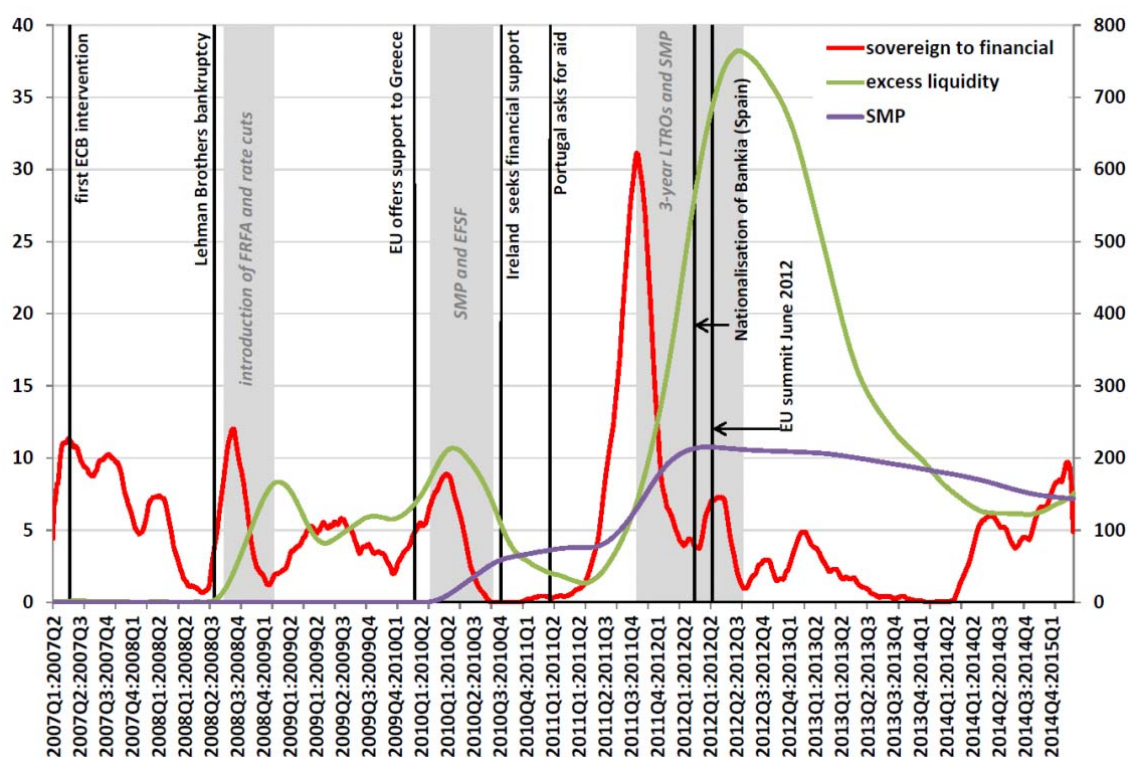
We observe three episodes of particular interest (grey areas in Figure 9) where normalisation of spillover coincided with the launch of new crisis measures. In the first episode, the central bank allowed excess liquidity to rise to fulfil liquidity needs of the banks which appears to have reduced their exposure to sovereign stress. In the second episode, sovereign-to-bank contagion dropped in the presence of SMP purchases and the launch of the European Financial Stability Facility (EFSF) foreseeing loans to troubled sovereigns. In the third episode, SMP purchases restarted, but the decline in sovereign-to-bank contagion seems more strongly correlated with the rise in excess liquidity which resulted from the 3-year LTROs. At

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<sup>8</sup> Using the sovereign-to-bank spillover observed in the stressed countries leads to similar conclusions.

a later stage, the June 2012 EU Summit on euro area governance and the ‘whatever it takes’ speech by ECB President Draghi are expected to have contributed to the easing of tensions.

Figure 9: Sovereign-to-financial contagion index (lhs, %), excess liquidity and SMP portfolio (rhs, EUR bn)



Note: red line shows the percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed by a 2-month average for the non-stressed euro area countries. Excess liquidity and SMP portfolio were smoothed the same way to enable comparison. Vertical lines indicate economic and institutional events. Grey areas indicate episodes of coinciding ECB measures and normalising credit risk spillover.

Source: Bloomberg, CMA, ECB and Moody’s Analytics.

## 9. Conclusion

This paper presented measures of credit risk spillover between sovereigns and financials that allow monitoring over time. The study is based on fair value CDS spreads of individual



financial institutions as a measure of their credit risk and identifies interconnectedness and contagion for the euro area based on Granger causality tests as suggested by Billio et al. (2013). The paper highlighted how the identified contagion is typically much higher if one uses market-based CDS as a credit risk measure of financials as this allows the value of government guarantees to boost the correlation with sovereign CDS. The paper paid special attention to controlling for common factors when constructing contagion indices to avoid over-identification. In this respect, the research design is of practical use for the construction of contagion indices going forward.

Several episodes of financial-sovereign credit risk contagion and feedback are identified. In particular, the run-up to the financial crisis, the post-Lehman period and the sovereign debt crisis are associated with feedback loops. The measures may also pick up positive contagion as for instance during the recovery periods in 2009 and 2014, suggesting that the average trend in spreads remains important input to interpret the results. Furthermore, it was found that the contagion from the sovereign debt crisis to the fundamental credit risk of financials started gradually in 2010 and the main impact came with a delay in particular when that crisis intensified mid-2011. Towards the end of the sample period, credit risk of financials was found to still stand at elevated levels and spillovers to pick up again. Estimates suggest that the value of implicit government guarantees to financials had not declined to zero despite the progress made in terms of a framework for bank resolution, regulatory changes and bank recapitalisations.

In addition, the paper showed that the normalisation in sovereign-to-financial spillover coincided with the launch of specific policy measures to stem the crisis. These results reflect positively on the effectiveness of the measures taken as contagion spells are shown to be temporary. Furthermore, network measures such as eigenvector centrality identified entities as most central that are known to have played important roles during the crisis.

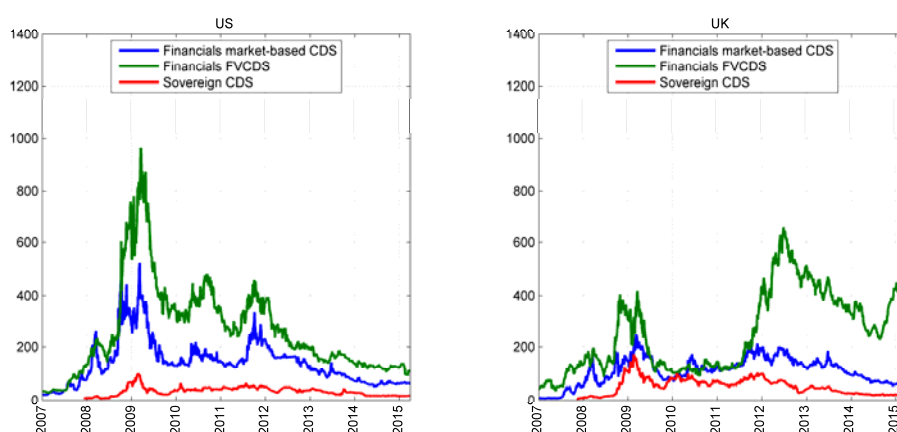
Although, the contagion indices proposed by the paper are expected to pick up rising credit risk spillover in the system and to go a long way in dealing with the identification problems inherent to the contagion literature as discussed by e.g. Rigobon (2002), it needs to be kept in mind that Granger causality remains a statistical concept. A need for cross-checking the results with other systemic indicators remains.



## Annex 2: Aggregate statistics for the US and UK

Figure A2 shows the median financial CDS, median sovereign CDS and median financial FVCDS for the US and UK. The financials are all those US and UK based institutions of Table A1. The FVCDS levels suggest high levels of stress in the US as of end-2008 following the collapse of Lehman Brothers. However, the US government guarantee kept a high value as suggested by the large spread between fair value CDS and market CDS of financials. The decrease in credit risk of financials towards the end of the sample is telling about how the situation has improved in the US. The developments in the UK seem to resemble those in the non-stressed euro area although the median FVCDS stood at somewhat lower levels.

Figure A2: The median financial CDS, median sovereign CDS and median financial FVCDS spreads for the US (lhs) and UK (rhs) (bps)



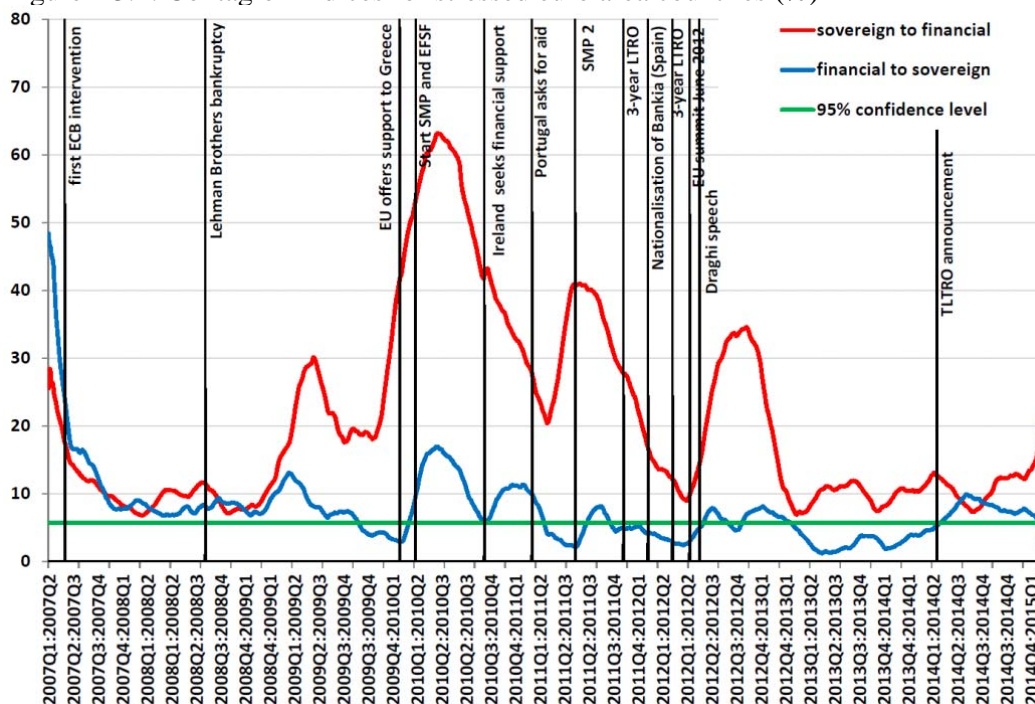
Note: FVCDS stands for fair value credit default swap spreads.

Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

Results for other jurisdictions and institutions listed in Table A1 can be obtained upon request.

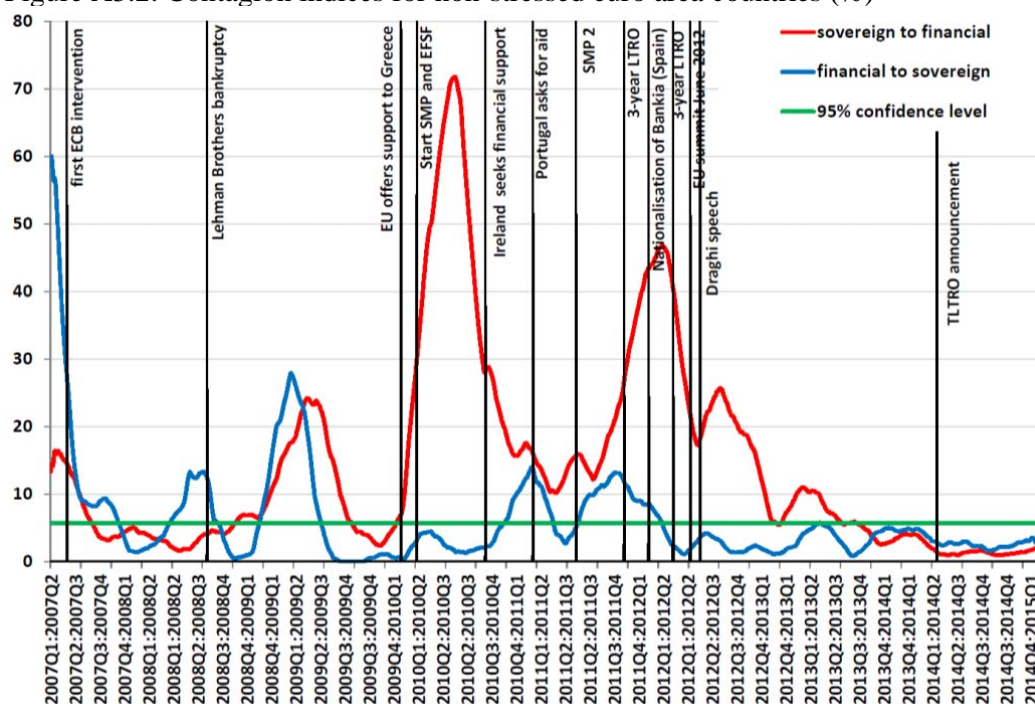
### Annex 3: contagion index using market-based bank CDS

Figure A3.1: Contagion indices for stressed euro area countries (%)



Note: percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed by a 2-month average. The horizontal green line indicates the 95% confidence level. Vertical lines indicate economic and institutional events. Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

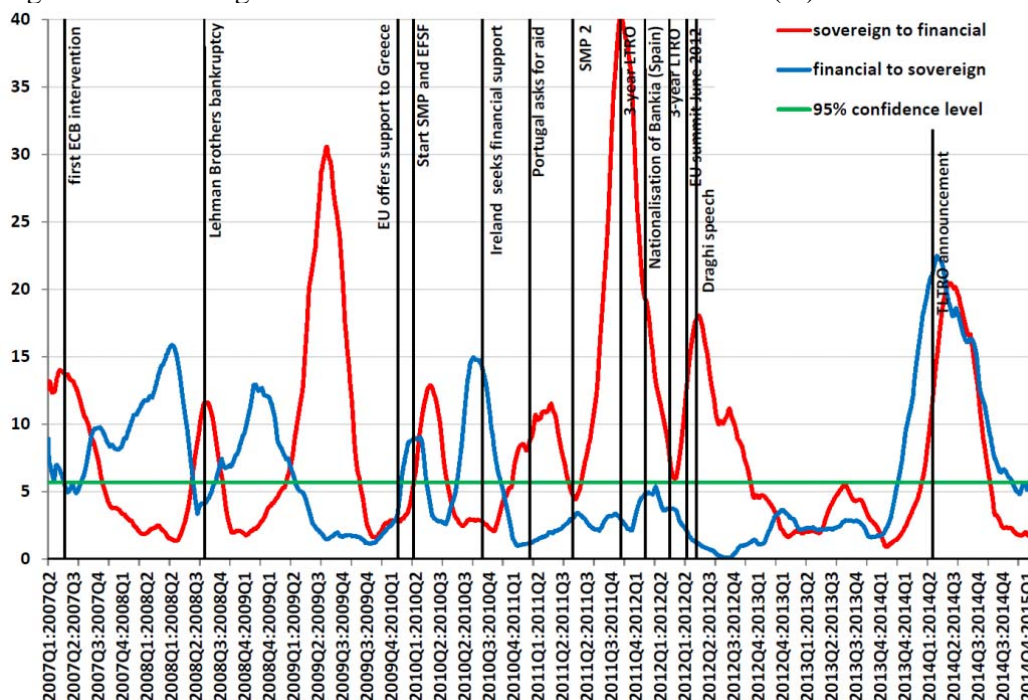
Figure A3.2: Contagion indices for non-stressed euro area countries (%)



Note: percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed by a 2-month average. The horizontal green line indicates the 95% confidence level. Vertical lines indicate economic and institutional events. Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

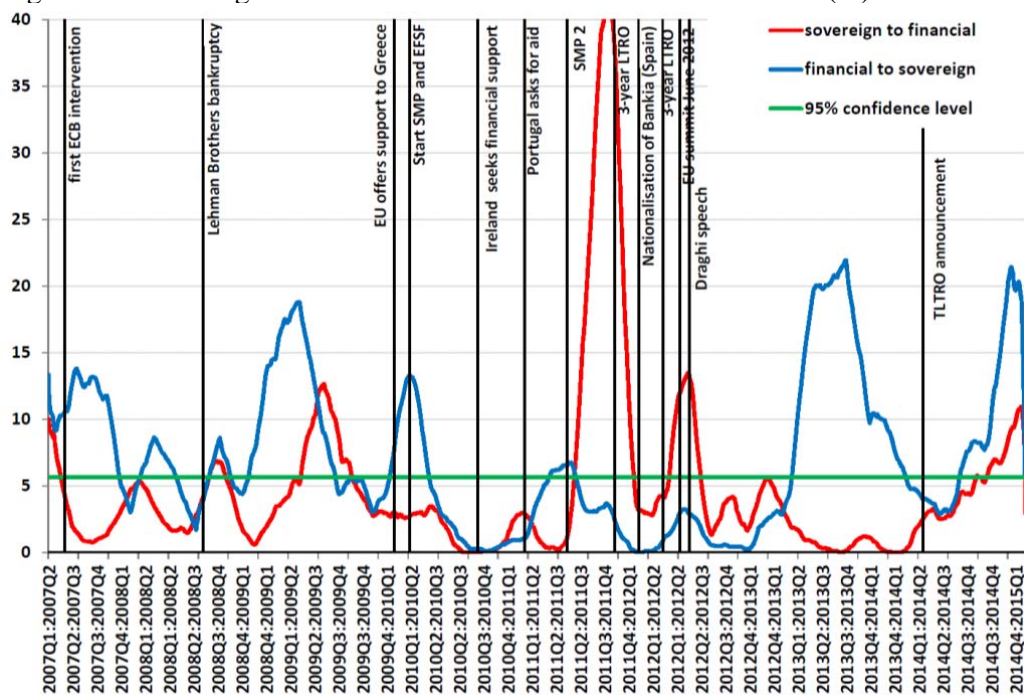
#### Annex 4: contagion index not controlling for common factors

Figure A4.1: Contagion indices for stressed euro area countries (%)



Note: percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed by a 2-month average. The horizontal green line indicates the 95% confidence level. Vertical lines indicate economic and institutional events. Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

Figure A4.2: Contagion indices for non-stressed euro area countries (%)

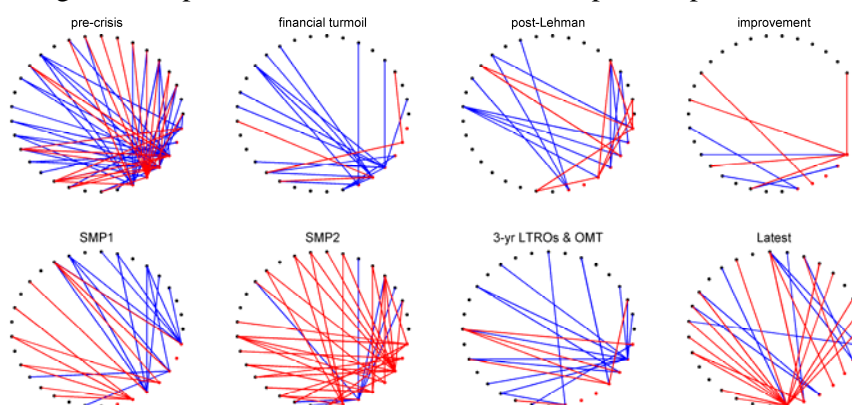


Note: percentage of statistically significant Granger causality connections estimated in a 6-month moving window and smoothed by a 2-month average. The horizontal green line indicates the 95% confidence level. Vertical lines indicate economic and institutional events. Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

### Annex 5: Static spillover networks in selected sub-periods

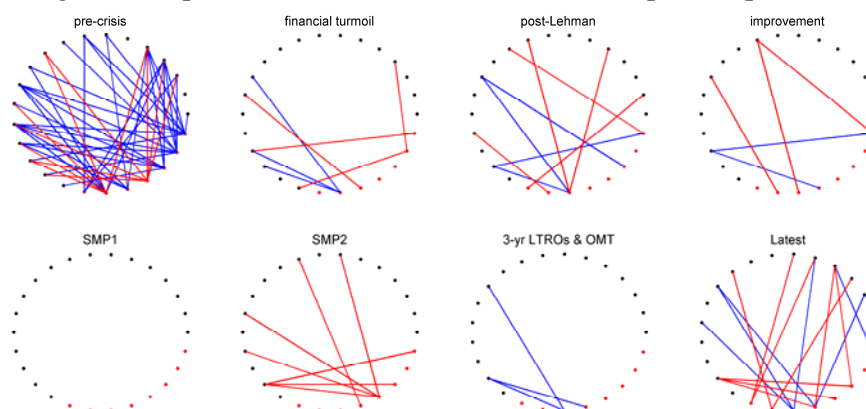
Figures A5.1 and A5.2 estimate the Granger equations in eight sub-periods for the stressed and non-stressed euro area countries respectively. Each point on the circle represents a financial firm or a sovereign, where the names of the entities have been removed, but the sovereigns are located in the bottom right quadrant of each circle. The eight sub-periods are: a pre-crisis period (2007:01-2007:06), the financial turmoil at the start of the crisis (2007:08-2008:10), intensification post-Lehman (2008:10-2009:03), temporary improvement (2009:06-2009:11), and periods that coincided with ECB measures such as the two rounds of the Securities Markets Programme (SMP1: 2010:05-2010:10) and (SMP2: 2011:08-2012:01), three-year LTROs and the announcement of Outright Monetary Transactions (OMT : 2012:02-2014:06) and the latest period (2014:07-2015:03).

Figure A5.1: Significant spillovers in the stressed euro area per sub-period



Note: statistically significant credit risk spillover between entities based on Granger causality tests; 1% significance level. Black nodes represent financials, red nodes sovereigns. Sovereign-to-financial spillover in red and financial-to-sovereign spillover in blue. Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

Figure A5.2: Significant spillovers in the non-stressed euro area per sub-period



Note: statistically significant credit risk spillover between entities based on Granger causality tests; 1% significance level. Black nodes represent financials, red nodes sovereigns. Sovereign-to-financial spillover in red and financial-to-sovereign spillover in blue. Source: CMA and Moody's Analytics.

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