SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL FOR ONLINE PUBLICATION

Appendix A: Comparison of Methodologies

Table 6. Comparison of Methodologies

Model	Comparison of Methodologies Advantages	Disadvantages	Fields of application
Input- output model	 Partial equilibrium (quantities only) and partial optimization¹ No supply constraints Clear distinction between direct and indirect impacts Identification of supply chain linkages Allows scenario modelling Allows differentiation between sectors Simplicity and transparency Allows to measure ripple effects Reliable data collection methodology Allows to analyze the impact of inoperability in a particular sector 	 Availability of reliable primary data Does not capture inter-industry linkages changes over time Assumption of constant returns on scale; fixed technical coefficients, infinite and perfectly elastic resources; infinite and perfectly elastic supply of resources; resources are efficiently used; linearity No substitution between inputs to production processes No mechanism for price adjustments Inability to incorporate the reactions of economic agents to disasters² Overestimation of indirect economic losses³ Determination of the impacts only in a short-term horizon⁴ 	 Natural catastrophes (e.g., Hallegatte, 2008) Critical infrastructure systems (e.g., Lin et al., 2016) Material use and emissions (e.g., Guevara and Domingos, 2017)
Com- putable general equilib- rium models	General equilibrium (prices and quantities) and full optimization Demand and supply Captures sector interdependences due to its price-quantity interconnectedness Behavior of economic agents are modelled explicitly through utility and profit maximizing assumptions Promising if the shocks under consideration affect many countries and sectors concurrently Allow for the possibility of input substitution Non-linearity improves the representation of the	 Extensive data requirement No differentiation between direct and indirect impacts Based on the neoclassical concepts of optimization and rationality Assumptions about the market structure (perfect competition); production function; maximization behavior of households; Armington assumption⁵; nonconvexities in production; social welfare; absence of market failures Results are sensitive to the applied elasticities Insufficient empirical foundation of the theoretical framework High mathematical complexity 	 Natural gas price effects (e.g., Zhang et al., 2017) Valuation of air pollution co-benefits (e.g., Bollen, 2015) Corporate income tax reform proposals (e.g., Bhattarai et al., 2017) Electricity system (e.g., Langarita et al., 2019) Tourism contribution to poverty alleviation (e.g., Njoya and Seetaram, 2017) Impact of disease vaccination strategies (e.g., Miller et al., 2018)

¹ (West, 1995). ² (Poledna et al., 2018). ³ (Koks et al., 2015).

⁴ (Koks et al., 2015).

⁵ The Armington assumption states that products from different import sources, although similar, are imperfect substitutes (Armington, 1969).

	actual economic conditions (e.g. economies of scale) - Determination of the impacts in the short-, medium- and long-term horizon ¹⁵	 Black-box critique: low transparency and inexplicit indication of the factors driving the results ⁶ Underestimation of indirect economic losses ¹⁴ 	
Econo-	 Well-established set of criteria for model valuation⁷ Forecasting capabilities, statistical rigorousness, provision of stochastic estimates⁸ 	 Require consistent time-series data over a long period of time Extrapolation of the past Difficulty in distinguishing direct and indirect effects⁹ 	 Natural disasters (Sahin and Yavuz, 2015; Okon, 2018) Impact on emigration due to natural disasters (Saldaña-Zorrilla and Sandberg, 2009)

⁶ See Piermantini and Teh (2005).
⁷ See Rose (2004).
⁸ See Okuyama (2007)
⁹ See Rose (2004).

Appendix B: Industry classification

Table 7. Sectors Included in the Input-Output Tables of the OECD (OECD, 2018)

Industry code	Industry name
D01T03	Agriculture, forestry and fishing
D05T06	Mining and extraction of energy producing products
D07T08	Mining and quarrying of non-energy producing products
D09	Mining support service activities
D10T12	Food products, beverages and tobacco
D13T15	Textiles, wearing apparel, leather and related products
D16	Wood and products of wood and cork
D17T18	Paper products and printing
D19	Coke and refined petroleum products
D20T21	Chemicals and pharmaceutical products
D22	Rubber and plastic products
D23	Other non-metallic mineral products
D24	Basic metals
D25	Fabricated metal products
D26	Computer, electronic and optical products
D27	Electrical equipment
D28	Machinery and equipment, nec
D29	Moto vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers
D30	Other transport equipment
D31T33	Other manufacturing; repair and installation of machinery and equipment
D35T39	Electricity, gas, water supply, sewerage, waste and remediation services
D41T43	Construction
D45T47	Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles
D49T53	Transportation and storage
D55T56	Accommodation and food services
D58T60	Publishing, audiovisual and broadcasting activities
D61	Telecommunications
D62T63	IT and other information services
D64T66	Financial and insurance activities
D68	Real estate activities
D69T82	Other business sector services
D84	Public administration and defence; compulsory social security
D85	Education
D86T88	Human health and social work
D90T96	Arts, entertainment, recreation and other service activities
D97T98	Private households with employed persons

Appendix C: Cyber Risk Taxonomy

The aim of a classification or taxonomy is to provide a practical and consistent framework for categorizing, understanding, and comparing cyber risk scenarios (Hansman and Hunt, 2005). Early taxonomies such as Bishop's (1995) concentrated on categorizing security vulnerabilities in software to assist security practitioners in maintaining secure systems. Howard (1997) analyzed 4,299 cyber incidents and not only classified them according to the categories attacker, target, and result, but also included intangible factors such as the attacker's motivation. The cyber-attack taxonomy proposed by Hansman and Hunt (2005) is based on four dimensions (i.e., attack vector, attack targets, vulnerabilities, and payloads 11), whereby additional dimensions can be added as needed. While almost any cyber-attack can be categorized by these taxonomies, only the one developed by Applegate and Stavrou (2013) is capable of illustrating the complex interactions between attackers, actors and other potentially related events. Even though a wide array of taxonomies exists, none is able to capture all aspects of every conceivable cyber risk perfectly.

In this paper, Howard's (1997, 2015) taxonomy is applied to classify different cyber risk scenarios. This common language is widely accepted because it is simple and is used by incident response teams as well as by the US Department of Defense. In comparison to the taxonomies discussed above, it also includes more intangible factors such as an attacker's motivation. Additionally, the broad taxonomy considers the whole attack process. This is especially useful

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¹⁰ Satisfactory taxonomies should have classification categories with the following six characteristics: mutually exclusive, exhaustive, unambiguous, repeatable, accepted (i.e., logical and intuitive), and useful (i.e., provides an insight into the field of inquiry) (Amoroso, 1994). A taxonomy is, however, only an approximation of reality and might be inadequate in some respects.

¹¹ Payloads are the malicious mechanisms that exploit the vulnerability of a system (Yadav and Rao, 2015).

when classifying cyber risk scenarios as they usually describe the entire attack process. Furthermore, while the categories of the taxonomy are given, the characteristics are diverse and may be extended if technical developments should make it necessary.

Howard's (1997, 2015) taxonomy classifies cyber risk scenarios by seven categories: attacker(s), tool, vulnerability, action, target, unauthorized result, and objectives (see Figure 4). While cyber incidents are characterized by all categories, the actual cyber-attacks are only described by the categories 2–5 and the cyber events by the categories 4–5. The dotted arrow indicates that an incident may be comprised of a single or multiple attacks. The definitions of the different characteristics of the taxonomy are given in Table 7.

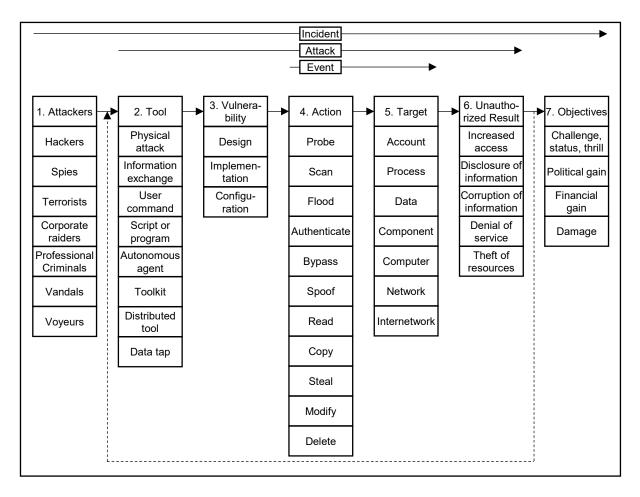


Figure 4. Computer and Network Incident Information Taxonomy (Howard, 2015)

Table 8. Definitions of the Characteristics of the Computer and Network Incident Information Taxonomy (Howard, 2015)

2015)	
Characteristic	Definition
Incident	Group of attacks that can be distinguished from other attacks because of the
	distinctiveness of the attackers, attacks, objectives, sites, and timing.
Attack	A series of steps taken by an attacker to achieve an unauthorized result.
Event	Action directed at a target that is intended to result in a change of state, or status, of the target.
Attackers	Individual who attempts one or more attacks in order to achieve an objective.
Hackers	Attackers who attack computers for challenge, status, or the thrill of obtaining access.
Spies	Attackers who attack computers for information to be used for political gain.
Terrorists	Attackers who attack computers to cause fear, for political gain.
Corporate raiders	Employees (attackers) who attack competitors' computers for financial gain.
Professional criminals	Attackers who attack computers for personal financial gain.
Vandals	Attackers who attack computers to cause damage.
Voyeurs	Attackers who attack computers for the thrill of obtaining sensitive information.
Tool	Means of exploiting a computer or network vulnerability.
Physical attack	Means of physically stealing or damaging a computer, network, its components, or its supporting systems (e.g., air conditioning, electric power, etc.).
Information ex-	Means of obtaining information either from other attackers (e.g., through an
change 	electronic bulletin board) or from the people being attacked (commonly called social engineering).
User command	Means of exploiting a vulnerability by entering commands to a process through
	direct user input at the process interface. An example is entering UNIX com-
	mands through a telnet connection or commands at a protocol's port.
Script or com- mand	Means of exploiting a vulnerability by entering commands to a process through the execution of a file of commands (script) or a program at the process interface. Examples are a shell script to exploit a software bug, a Trojan horse log-in
	program, or a password-cracking program.
Autonomous agent	Means of exploiting a vulnerability by using a program or program fragment that operates independently from the user. Examples are computer viruses or worms.
Toolkit	Software package that contains scripts, programs, or autonomous agents that exploit vulnerabilities. An example is the widely available toolkit called rootkit.
Distributed tool	Tool that can be distributed to multiple hosts, which then can be coordinated to anonymously perform an attack on the target host simultaneously after some time delay.
Data tap	Means of monitoring the electromagnetic radiation emanating from a computer or network using an external device.
Vulnerability	Weakness in a system allowing unauthorized action.
Design	Vulnerability inherent in the design or specification of hardware or software whereby even a perfect implementation will result in a vulnerability.
Implementation	Vulnerability resulting from an error made in the software or hardware implementation of a satisfactory design.
Configuration	Vulnerability resulting from an error in the configuration of a system, such as having system accounts with default passwords, having "world write" permission for new files, or having vulnerable services enabled.
Action	Step taken by a user or process in order to achieve a result,11 such as to probe, scan, flood, authenticate, bypass, spoof, read, copy, steal, modify, or delete.
Probe	Access a target in order to determine one or more of its characteristics.
Scan	Access a set of targets systematically in order to identify which targets have one or more specific characteristics.
Flood	Access a target repeatedly in order to overload the target's capacity.
Authenticate	Present an identity to a process and, if required, verify that identity, in order to access a target.
Bypass	Avoid a process by using an alternative method to access a target.
Spoof	Masquerade by assuming the appearance of a different entity in network communications.

Read	Obtain the content of data in a storage device or other data medium.
Сору	Reproduce a target leaving the original target unchanged.
Steal	Take possession of a target without leaving a copy in the original location.
Modify	Change the content or characteristics of a target.
Delete	Remove a target or render it irretrievable.
Target	Computer or network logical entity (account, process, or data) or a physical entity (component, computer, network or internetwork).
Account	Domain of user access on a computer or network that is controlled according to
	a record of information, which contains the user's account name, password, and use restrictions.
Process	Program in execution, consisting of the executable program, the program's data and stack, its program counter, stack pointer and other registers, and all other information needed to execute the program.
Data	Representations of facts, concepts, or instructions in a manner suitable for communication, interpretation, or processing by humans or by automatic means. Data can be in the form of files in a computer's volatile memory or nonvolatile memory, or in a data storage device, or in the form of data in transit across a transmission medium.
Component	One of the parts that make up a computer or network.
Computer	Device that consists of one or more associated components, including processing units and peripheral units, that is controlled by internally stored programs and that can perform substantial computations, including numerous arithmetic operations or logic operations, without human intervention during execution. Note: may be stand-alone or may consist of several interconnected units
Network	Interconnected or interrelated group of host computers, switching elements, and interconnecting branches.
Internetwork	Network of networks.
Unauthorized result	Unauthorized consequence of an event.
Increased access	Unauthorized increase in the domain of access on a computer or network.
Disclosure of in-	Dissemination of information to anyone who is not authorized to access that in-
formation	formation.
Corruption of information	Unauthorized alteration of data on a computer or network.
Denial of service	Intentional degradation or blocking of computer or network resources.
Theft of re- sources	Unauthorized use of computer or network resources.
Objectives	Purpose or end goal of an incident.

Appendix D: Cyber risk scenarios

Table 1. Summary of Scenarios

N	o Scenario Authors	Description/Attack goal	When [*]	Where*	What [*]	How [*]	Threat actor	Estimated frequency	Estimated sever- ity / economic im- pact	Required know-how and resources of attackers	Persistence of the attack	Example
1	Supervi- Dejung sory con-(2017) trol and data ac- quisition network/ industrial control system extortion	In a supervisory control and data acquisition network/industrial control system extortion scenario, simple process variables are maliciously modified to change the product properties. Victims are e.g. critical infrastructure providers (i.e., electric grid, oil/gas/water networks).	Exploit	Adminis- trative In- terface			Politically, economically or religiously motivated state sponsored attackers (potentially supported by insiders).	n.a.	business interrup-	how and re- mote access to the industrial	Potential to persist for three weeks.	The first supervisory control and data acquisition network/industrial control system attack was on Maroochy Shire Wastewater Treatment Plant in Australia (Abrams and Weiss, 2008).
2	Cloud Risk Service Manage- Provider ment So- Failure lutions Inc. (2016); Dejung (2017); World Eco- nomic Forum (2014)	tions of many com-	Control	Cloud Web In- terface	Creden- tial Ac- cess	e.g. John the Rip- per	Criminals with the goal of earning money through extor- tion.	Very low as the big four CSP typically achieve over 99.9% reliability of service. However, due to insufficient observational data, an assessment of the likelihood of a catastrophic failure of these systems is not possible through statistical means.	access cloud services.)	,	A few hours up to one month of per- sistence are conceivable.	In 2016, the world's largest Software-as-a-Service (SaaS) customer relationship management provider, Salesforce, experienced a system outage that lasted more than two business days, resulting in customers losing four hours of CRM data (Nicastro, 2016).
3	Health Dejung sector (2017) and hos- pitals scenar- ios	A sophisticated cyber-attack that infiltrates several hospitals and becomes active at the same time, resulting in non-availability of hospitals for two to three weeks.	Control		Com- mand and Con- trol		,	Likelihood of successful attacks that affect more than 10% of a country's hospitals is assumed to be low to medium as architecture, implementation, and configuration of	Max. economic impact is assumed to be 0.2% of GDP.	, ,		In 2017, a massive ransomware, known as WannaCry, attack has shut down work at 16 hospitals across the UK (Brandom, 2017).

							the malware are individual.				
4	Municipal Tra- services utman compro- and Or- mised merod (2018)	Malware is deployed on city administrative service systems, disabling civil services functions for an entire city.	Device Network Services	Access	e.g. SamSam	Politically motivated state sponsored attackers. Also, criminals pursuing extortion.		Estimates from the SamSam ransomware attack on the city of Atlanta indicate that the total cost of disturbance was around \$20m.	need to design a phishing email relevant to city employ- ees that will	nite if the at- tack is not en- tirely remedi- ated as ran- somware can	In 2018, the city of Atlanta was infected with the SamSam ransomware. The city decided not to pay the \$51,000 payment and instead took city services offline for over a week, incurring costs of around \$17m for restoring the IT infrastructure (Armerding, 2018).
5	Telecom-Dejung munica- (2017) tion sce- narios	Malware targets e.g. a router or modem with 50% market share and results in the deletion of the firmware whereby the devices must be replaced.	Device Firm- ware/ Device Web In- terface		BCMUPn P_Hunte	Criminals (with the aim of earn- ing money through extor- tion) or politi- cally, economi- cally or reli- giously moti- vated state sponsored at- tackers.	n.a.	0.35% of GDP in the first scenario and 0.03% in the second scenario.	The second scenario requires less time and resources than the first on. However, a Border Gateway Protocol (BGP) attack might require less know-how and is therefore to be expected more frequently.	tence of seven days is assumed in the first sce- nario, while the persis- tence in the second sce- nario is ex- pected to be	In 2017, the Spanish tele- communication company Telefónica was affected by the ransomware WannaCry (Teoh et al., 2018).
6	tack sce- lutions nario lnc. (2016); Ruffle et	The aim of this sce- C nario is to take hostage of many companies by disabling IT functionality to obtain payoffs. Many enterprises are attacked, and high ransom payments are demanded.	Network	Com- mand and Con- trol	Petya	Criminals with the goal of earning money through extor- tion.	Ruffle et al. (2014) estimate the frequency of such an event at one percent.	According to Ruffle et al. (2014) the overall global loss is estimated between \$4.5 trillion to \$15 trillion. Additionally, they predict a plunge of the financial markets similarly to the financial crisis in 2008.	plementation of ransomware targeted at companies takes time and requires sophis-	short perception of a few days as the attack is expected to be	The three best-known ransomware versions currently in use are CryptoWall, CTB-Locker and TorrentLocker (Richardson and North, 2017).

Note: The criteria marked with * are adopted from the attack anatomy proposed by Falco et al. (2018).

Appendix E

Scenario 1: Supervisory Control and Data Acquisition Network/ICS Extortion

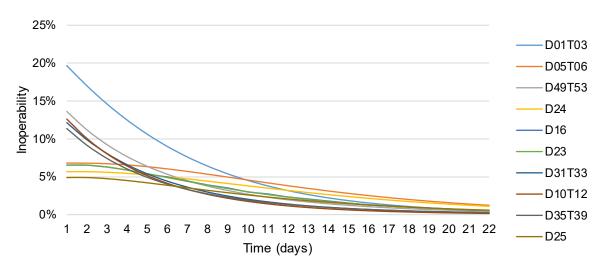


Figure 1. Inoperability Development of the Top 10 Inoperable Sectors

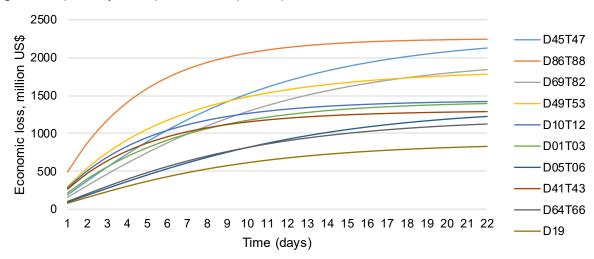


Figure 2. Cumulative Economic Losses for the Top 10 Affected Sectors

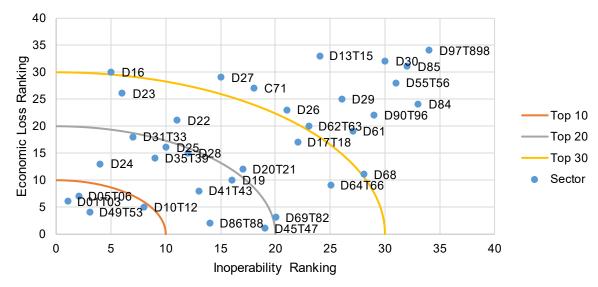


Figure 3. Dynamic Cross-Prioritization Plot

Scenario 2: Cloud Service Provider Failure

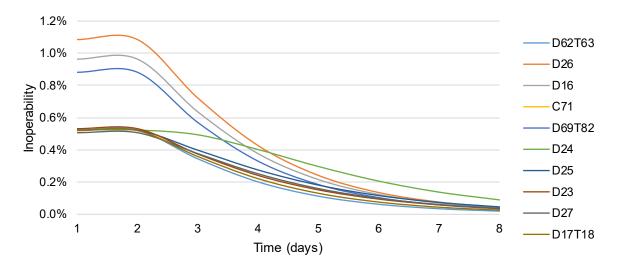


Figure 4. Inoperability Development of the Top 10 Inoperable Sectors

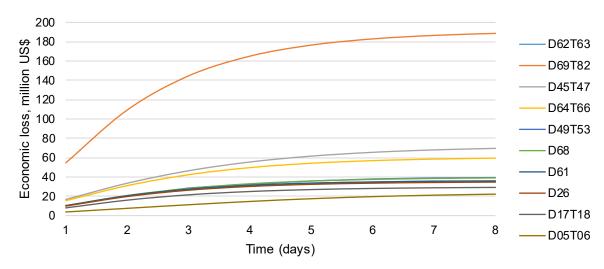


Figure 5. Cumulative Economic Losses for the Top 10 Affected Sectors

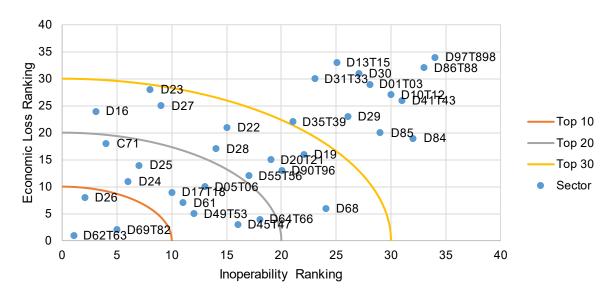


Figure 6. Dynamic Cross-Prioritization Plot

Scenario 3: Health Sector and Hospitals

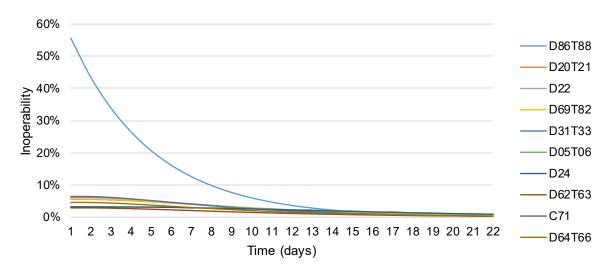


Figure 11. Inoperability Development of the Top 10 Inoperable Sectors

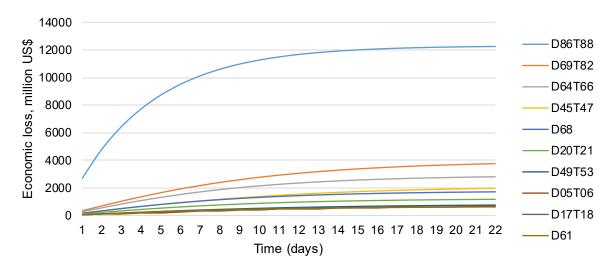


Figure 7. Cumulative Economic Losses for the Top 10 Affected Sectors

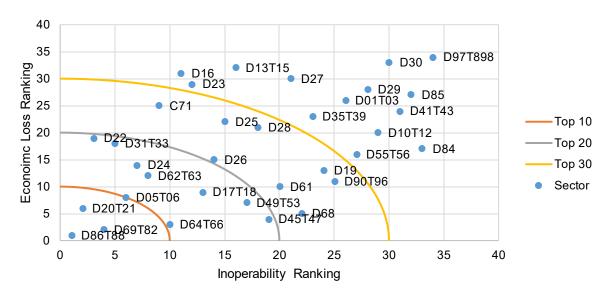


Figure 8. Dynamic Cross-Prioritization Plot

Scenario 4: Municipal Services

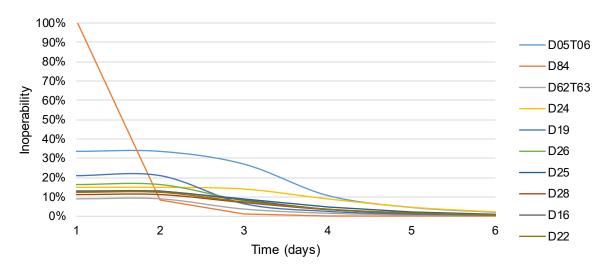


Figure 9. Inoperability Development of the Top 10 Inoperable Sectors

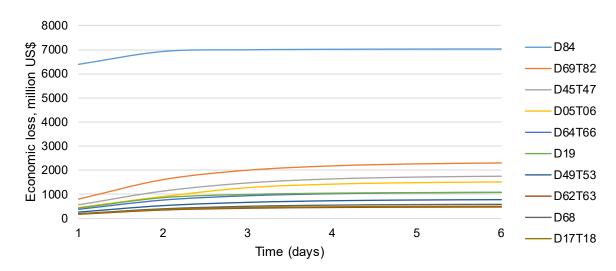


Figure 10. Cumulative Economic Losses for the Top 10 Affected Sectors

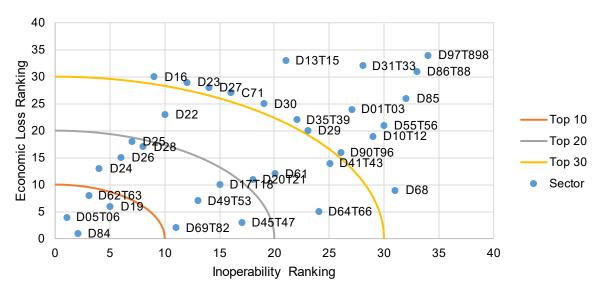


Figure 11. Dynamic Cross-Prioritization Plot

Scenario 5: Telecommunication

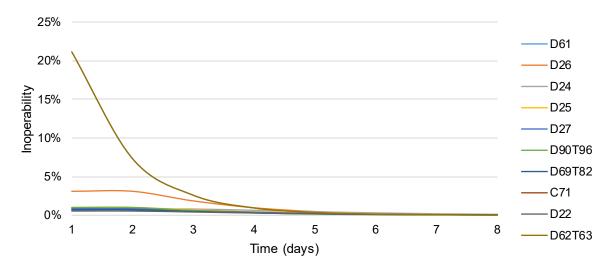


Figure 17. Inoperability Development of the Top 10 Inoperable Sectors

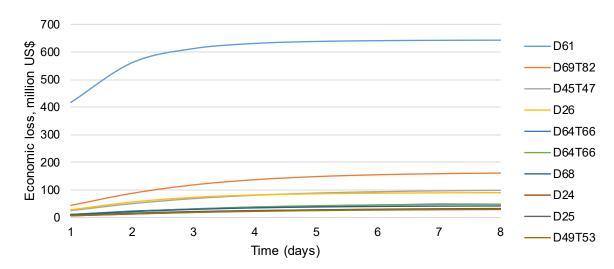


Figure 18. Cumulative Economic Losses for the Top 10 Affected Sectors

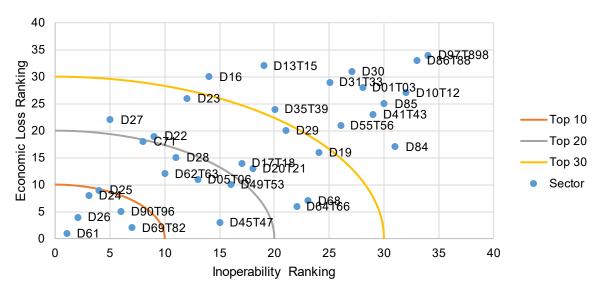


Figure 19. Dynamic Cross-Prioritization Plot

Scenario 6: Cross-Sector Attack

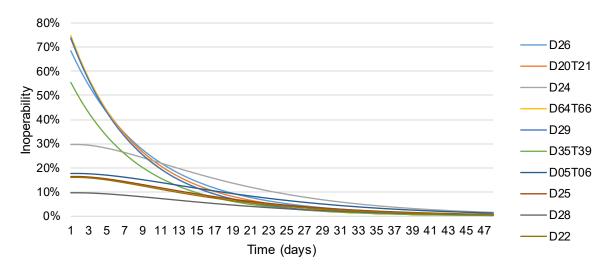


Figure 12. Inoperability Development of the Top 10 Inoperable Sectors

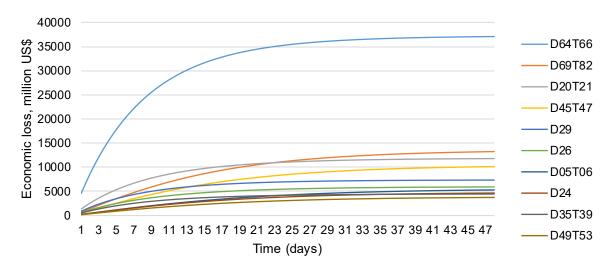


Figure 13. Cumulative Economic Losses for the Top 10 Affected Sectors

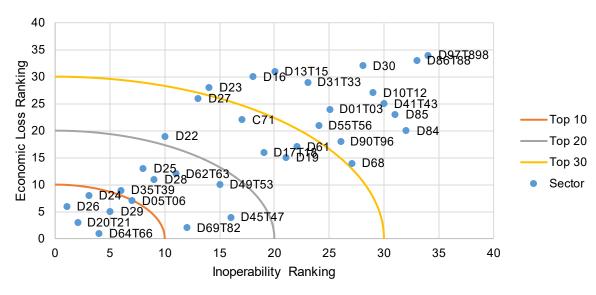


Figure 14. Dynamic Cross-Prioritization Plot

Appendix F: Calculation of Loss Estimators

In this Appendix we show the calculation of the economic loss considering scenario 1 as example. The first step is the definition of three input parameters (see Table 3 in the main body of the paper and Table 11 below), i.e. information on which sectors are affected, their initial inoperability and their recovery time. These input parameters together with the Input-Output Table for the United States (Table 12 below) are all parameters necessary to derive the economic loss for the respective scenario, which is the second step of the analysis. One key aspect in the calculations in the second step are the ripple effects from one sector to another. Considering scenario 1 as an example, although only seven sectors are directly affected, we see that also numerous other sectors are affected, because they are linked with each other in the input-output table. The inoperability of a sector then goes down over time and is driven by not only be the own recovery rate, but again also by the interdependence with the other sectors, leading to the development of inoperability over time presented in Figure 1. The economic loss of a particular sector on a certain day is then calculated as the inoperability on that day times the output of the respective sector on that day. Finally, all losses are cumulated across sectors and across time. Table 10 illustrates the two steps necessary to derive the loss estimates.

Table 10. Steps to obtain Loss Estimates

Step	Sub-steps Sub-steps
Step 1: Estimate	a) Sectors which are affected
input parameters	b) their initial level of inoperability
	c) their recovery time
Step 2: Calculate economic loss	a) Determine daily Input-Output Table with elements x_{ij} (yearly numbers (Table 12) divided by 365)
	b) Calculate technical coefficient matrix A with elements $a_{ij} = x_{ij}/x_j$ and x_j = total production output of sector j
	c) Calculate interdependency matrix $A^* = \widehat{x}^{-1}A\widehat{x}$ with \widehat{x} = diagonal matrix generated by the vector \overline{x} (industry total output) and elements $a_{ij}^* = a_{ij} x_j/x_i$
	d) Calculate $(I - A^*)^{-1}$ with $I = \text{identity matrix}$
	e) Calculate inoperability vector $q(0)$ (ratio of unrealized production with respect to "business-as-usual" production on day 0, i.e. the day of pertubation) = $[I - A^*]^{-1}c^*$ and development in the following days $q(t+1)$ =
	$KA^*q(t) + Kc^*(t) + (I - K)q(t)$ with $q(t)$ = inoperability vector at time t , K = sectoral resilience matrix, and $c^*(t)$ = perturbation vector at time t
	f) Calculate economic loss per day and per sector $q(t) x_i$
	g) Aggregate economic losses across sectors and days

All data and details of the calculation are presented in an excel spreadsheet which is available in the supplemental material; the spreadsheet also contains a simple example with only three sectors to help clarifying all calculations. For more technical details, we also refer to the references we cite in the main body of the text (Miller and Blair, 2009; Lian et al., 2007; Santos, 2006; Lian and Haimes, 2006). It is obvious that the calculations rely on manifold simplifying assumptions, but still we believe that the input-output model provides a simple, understandable, transparent and replicable way to assess potential losses from the scenarios at hand.

Table 11. Input Parameters for Scenario 1

Sector	Triangular	distribution of	inoperability c	Recovery period (days)
	min	Mode	max	
D01T03	0.05	0.10	0.15	21
D05T06	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D10T12	0.05	0.10	0.15	21
D13T15	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D16	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D17T18	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D19	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D20T21	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D22	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D23	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D24	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D25	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D28	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D26	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D27	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D29	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D30	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D31T33	0.05	0.10	0.15	21
D35T39	0.05	0.10	0.15	21
D41T43	0.05	0.10	0.15	21
D45T47	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D55T56	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D49T53	0.05	0.10	0.15	21
D61	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D64T66	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D68	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
C71	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D62T63	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D69T82	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D84	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D85	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D86T88	0.05	0.10	0.15	21
D90T96	0.00	0.00	0.00	21
D97T898	0.00	0.00	0.00	21

Table 12. Input-Output Table for all Scenarios (per annum, in USD million, taken from https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=IOTS)

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