

See discussions, stats, and author profiles for this publication at: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/340849886>

The Data that Drives Cyber Insurance: A Study into the Underwriting and Claims Processes

Conference Paper · June 2020

DOI: 10.1109/CyberSA49311.2020.9139703

CITATIONS

25

READS

1,975

6 authors, including:



Jason R. C. Nurse

University of Kent

205 PUBLICATIONS 4,162 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Louise Axon

University of Oxford

22 PUBLICATIONS 369 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Arnau Erola

University of Oxford

31 PUBLICATIONS 982 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE



Ioannis Agrafiotis

University of Oxford

54 PUBLICATIONS 1,005 CITATIONS

SEE PROFILE

The Data that Drives Cyber Insurance: A Study into the Underwriting and Claims Processes

Jason R.C. Nurse¹, Louise Axon², Arnau Erola², Ioannis Agraftotis², Michael Goldsmith², and Sadie Creese²

¹School of Computing, University of Kent, UK

j.r.c.nurse@kent.ac.uk

²Department of Computer Science, University of Oxford, UK

{first.last}@cs.ox.ac.uk

Abstract—Cyber insurance is a key component in risk management, intended to transfer risks and support business recovery in the event of a cyber incident. As cyber insurance is still a new concept in practice and research, there are many unanswered questions regarding the data and economic models that drive it, the coverage options and pricing of premiums, and its more procedural policy-related aspects. This paper aims to address some of these questions by focusing on the key types of data which are used by cyber-insurance practitioners, particularly for decision-making in the insurance underwriting and claim processes. We further explore practitioners’ perceptions of the challenges they face in gathering and using data, and identify gaps where further data is required. We draw our conclusions from a qualitative study by conducting a focus group with a range of cyber-insurance professionals (including underwriters, actuaries, claims specialists, breach responders, and cyber operations specialists) and provide valuable contributions to existing knowledge. These insights include examples of key data types which contribute to the calculation of premiums and decisions on claims, the identification of challenges and gaps at various stages of data gathering, and initial perspectives on the development of a pre-competitive dataset for the cyber insurance industry. We believe an improved understanding of data gathering and usage in cyber insurance, and of the current challenges faced, can be invaluable for informing future research and practice.

Index Terms—Cyber Insurance, Cyber risk, Underwriting, Claims, Cybersecurity, Focus Groups

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Cybersecurity incidents are now commonplace, with attackers targeting everyone from individuals to organisations and governments. To protect against attacks, there are a variety of security controls, focused across the traditional areas of prevention, detection and reaction. These are a core part of cybersecurity risk management and can additionally support cyber resilience practices [15, 28, 32]. Cyber insurance features within risk management and is a mechanism for organisations to share or transfer some of the risk they face. For instance, an organisation may purchase insurance to be covered against a data breach, and retain help recovering costs or mitigating losses related to it (e.g., customer notification expenses, business interruption from computer network downtime, incident response and costs for system restoration). As a result, cyber insurance has become increasingly popular, and has featured in a range of industry and government reports/activities including

those from Marsh, AXIS, AON, Hiscox, Deloitte, the EastWest Institute, ENISA and OECD [2, 14, 16, 20, 25, 26, 30, 34].

In this paper, we seek to better understand the cyber insurance process and thereby provide new insights into an area where there is arguably a dearth of research based on views and experience of cyber-insurance practitioners. Our aim is to develop an understanding of the crucial role that the types of data used in cyber insurance play in decision-making during the cyber-risk underwriting and insurance claim processes. To complement this, we also look at gaps that practitioners perceive that exist in current data-gathering and usage processes, and explore the topic of a pre-competitive dataset. Such a dataset could be the cornerstone for the entire cyber insurance industry in the attempt to fill gaps in data-gathering processes for underwriting and claim policies.

Given our aim, this work involves a qualitative study, and in particular a focus group with a range of experienced cyber insurers from underwriting, actuarial services, claims, breach response, and cyber operations. Through this study, we outline a series of key data points which can further inform current discussions and analytics in cyber insurance, while also paving the way for future research (on which new data points may be needed to provide more effective and efficient insurance underwriting and claims processes).

While cyber insurance has featured in research for at least two decades (with seminal works including [7, 10, 22, 24]), numerous open challenges still exist in research and practice. These span several issues across the field; for instance, there are the complexities of measuring, modelling and predicting cyber risk (especially given the evolving nature of cyber attacks, non-standard architectures of targets, and growing instances of ‘silent cyber’) [5, 11, 23, 27, 40, 42]. Beyond those more technical aspects, there are also difficulties in understanding the decisions driving the insurance underwriting and claims processes, including those relating to security control recommendations [29, 36, 38, 41]. Furthermore, we must not overlook the reality of a lack of awareness about cyber insurance, social insurance stigmas, and general negative perceptions [4, 12, 13, 25, 31]. Such negative perceptions can inhibit the uptake of cyber insurance policies, and are boosted by the rejection of large cyber claims by insurance companies, which has already started to occur [39].

In one of the most recent, comprehensive and systematic

reviews of cyber insurance, Dambra et al. [11] highlight that although the field has made some notable strides (in areas such as game theory, economics and risk management), there are several open issues in risk prediction, automated data collection, catastrophe modelling and digital forensics. A core theme across all of these issues is data, be it for analytics, modelling or incident investigations. This emphasis on data can also be witnessed in other key work, most notably in a research agenda [21] for cyber risk and cyber insurance that is advocated by insurers and academics. Here, the authors call for research into what data should be used to assess risk and to prioritise assets, and also highlight the need for discussion around what cyber-related data-collection standards (that could drive insurance and risk analysis) would actually look like.

Although limited, there have been efforts to clearly define the data used in cyber insurance. ENISA, for instance, recognising the challenges in reasoning on cyber risk without a shared understanding, have called for harmonisation of risk-assessment language used in cyber insurance [17]. Within their report, they outline a few activities and data types involved in the insurance process, including assessing industry characteristics, audit reports and security control sets. Another noteworthy contribution to the field is the Cyber Exposure Data Schema proposed by the Cambridge Centre of Risk Studies and RSM [9]. This provides an open resource to allow the capture, modelling and reporting of exposure (impacts) emerging from cyber incidents.

Where our research differs, and thus adds novelty, if compared to the two aforementioned articles, is the focus on identifying specifically the variety of data types used within the cyber insurance underwriting and claims processes. This work therefore has a wider, albeit more high-level, remit than the Cyber Exposure Schema, and it is more directed on data than ENISA's harmonisation work. Therefore, the work presented in this paper is compatible with these other articles, and may well provide avenues for future research.

The remainder of this article is structured as follows. Section II presents the methodology we adopt to conduct our research study, and thereby address our research aim. Next, in Section III we present and discuss the results of the study, considering the data currently used within cyber insurance as well as the additional data that insurers in cyber-related policies would like to have. Finally, we summarise our research and outline avenues for future work in Section IV.

II. METHODOLOGY

To address the aims of this research, we conducted a focus group study with cyber insurers. Focus groups are an excellent way to explore a topic by promoting group discussion as applied to specific questions or problems. In our case, we were interested in engaging with professionals within the cyber insurance industry on the topic of the data that they use, or would like to have access to, in making decisions about underwriting a cyber risk and processing an insurance claim. We prepared a series of questions targeted at this aim and grouped these into two broad categories:

- The types of data gathered at significant points in the cyber insurance process: These points can include data

gathered on the insurance applicant (client) before underwriting a cyber risk, during the policy period, and in the event of a cyber-insurance claim. We also sought to explore the types of data that are not currently gathered but would be ideal for insurers to have. Developing an understanding of these various kinds of data is an essential component in conducting research in the field of cyber insurance, and creating updates or enhancements to existing platforms and solutions.

- The feasibility and utility of creating a pre-competitive dataset within the cyber insurance industry: This dataset could provide a shared platform for making cyber insurance decisions (e.g., the value of a risk being underwritten) and thus broadly advance the efforts of the entire industry, while providing a basis for ongoing cyber-insurance research.

The focus group was designed to last 90 minutes and to be facilitated in a physical location convenient to the cyber-insurance professionals who participated. We audio recorded the session to allow transcription at a later date, and thereby provide a richer pool of data for analysis. The thematic data analysis approach ([8]) was adopted to allow us to assess the content, identify key codes (i.e., discrete information communicated in the text) and from these codes, construct themes (sets of related codes) based on participants' responses. These themes were used to extract key findings and form conclusions.

Given the aim of this study, it was imperative to recruit an experienced set of cyber-insurance professionals. We were assisted in this task by a series of research and project contacts, who generally adhered to snowball sampling principles. This study received ethical approval through the university's IRB panel, all participants were informed of the purpose of the study and were asked to give consent prior to participation.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Cyber insurance participants

In total, a diverse group of 12 professionals from various stages of the cyber-insurance process agreed to participate in the study. These individuals were based in the UK but engaged with cyber insurance portfolios both nationally and internationally, particularly in the US (which is currently the global largest market). Specifically, the focus group consisted of: three underwriters (professionals involved in assessing a cyber risk and determining whether to write a policy and at what premium); two actuaries (experts in measuring cyber risk and predicting financial impacts), two claims specialists (those who take the lead in determining whether an insurance claim arising from a cyber incident should be paid, and calculate the appropriate amount); two cyber training specialists (professionals who train client companies and cyber insurers about cyber risk management); a breach response specialist (personnel who focus on supporting clients in immediate response activities after a cyber incident has occurred); and three cyber operations experts (individuals specialising in various parts of operations within cyber insurance companies more generally). Thus, we effectively had all of the roles partaking in cyber

insurance procedures represented in our focus group. It is worth noting that this group of insurers engages with various segments of the insurance market spanning from very large to small clients and have experience with processing requests for large claims as well. This is advantageous as it provides insights pertaining to how insurers interact with different types of businesses and the different types of data they need for these cases.

B. Types of data gathered during the cyber insurance process

1) *Data gathered in order to determine whether to underwrite a cyber risk:* To set the foundation for the discussions, the first question posed focused on the data currently gathered by insurers about potential client businesses in order to determine their level of risk, and thus decide whether the client should be offered a policy (or at what premium). The responses to this question revolved around typical organisational characteristics such as turnover, headcount, number of (or whether) personal records held, and sector/industry. Headcount was one of the most interesting data points suggested; this was because it was viewed as a way to indicate the size of the corporation's IT estate, and thus its potential attack surface (e.g., likelihood to be targeted by phishing attacks or potential for human error).

The organisation's sector was also important to identify because it indicated whether certain specific regulations or procedures apply. For instance, a US healthcare business would need to comply with the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA), whereas for a manufacturing organisation, an insurer may be more interested in the setup of various Operational Technology (OT) and Information Technology (IT) systems.

Security-related information, as might be expected, also featured heavily in participants' responses; especially responses from underwriters. This spanned from basic data such as whether the company had a Chief Information Security Officer (CISO) and the extent to which employees received cybersecurity training, to more detailed information on IT/security setup, and the business' dependence on outsourced service providers. According to participants, these factors hinted at areas of significance when assessing the enterprise's capability (e.g., the presence of a CISO suggests the organisation may be more invested in cybersecurity practices), understanding of human cyber-risk (e.g., the focus on the human element with cyber training), and judging the potential for risks to the IT infrastructure (e.g., complexity of IT structure and dependence on external parties).

There was specific mention of checks for security controls such as firewalls and antivirus, and the frequency with which the organisation updated and patched its systems. External network scans, for example those offered by companies such as BitSight [6] and SecurityScorecard [37], were also used to gain an external, independent view of the security of the enterprise's infrastructure.

To complement these factors, claims specialists highlighted that loss history (analogous to works that capture cyber harm [1,3]) and the claims that these companies had made, if any, were also relevant factors. These would provide more

insight into the organisation including its previous or current security practices and challenges, and their responses to them.

In addition, participants were keen to stress that many other unquantifiable factors and data were important to the cyber-risk identification process. According to a cyber training specialist:

"... and a lot of the decision-making process is unquantifiable because it's to do with the interview process and the responses you're getting from the CISO who is responsible. The point is that the unquantifiable stuff is at least as important as the quantifiable stuff."

Examples of unquantifiable factors included: the experience of the cyber insurer; the way that the potential client answers questions posed by the insurer (e.g., their rigour and the extent to which they are grounded in current, as opposed to dated, technology); and the client's use of certain services over others (for instance, specialised legal counsel was viewed by insurers as more helpful after a breach than general counsel, and as such this would be a factor to consider depending on the client's responses). While slightly different, many of these aspects can be linked to the experience of the insurer and therefore demonstrate some tacit knowledge that may be difficult to capture in any underwriting modelling approach (particularly a computational one).

Beyond the consideration of specific data types, two other high-level themes emerged during our study. The first was introduced by an underwriter and centred on the reality that in addition to industry type, the amount of data gathered depends immensely on the size of the client's company. This is a key aspect as it highlights the fact that different market segments may be approached differently by insurers.

For smaller organisations (e.g., Small-to-Medium-sized Enterprises (SMEs)) for instance, it was perceived that there are too many possible clients, therefore it is overwhelming to collect detailed data and conduct formative assessments for each one. Furthermore, it is an extremely competitive cyber insurance market and these types of businesses will perceive such scrutiny as an obstacle for purchasing a policy. In such scenarios insurers may end having access to only basic information such as the proposal forms (e.g., [41]) provided by the company. This is very different to larger organisations where there is a stronger argument for more extensive data gathering (e.g., meetings with CISOs, reports and detailed presentations on the security of the organisation) considering the higher level of the risk being underwritten. One participant from the claims team expressed this point clearly when speaking about smaller organisations:

"There's a bit of a commercial trade off here on the amount of detail you go into the application form because if you ask too many questions, it's too onerous, but if you don't ask enough questions it comes back to bite you."

The second theme relates to the first and pertains to the business element of the market. Participants deemed that the types of data mentioned above are useful and can help in making decisions, however, assessing the risk level or the

security posture of a company ultimately has an element of subjectivity. This inherent subjectivity in defining risk may represent a potential future cost to the insurer; that is, it is a *potential* cost not a definite one. Often, according to the participant, insurers will underwrite the risk—unless it is clearly unacceptable—and put several protective measures around it to secure the business. This suggests that in some cases, the need to increase business (e.g., clients, revenue, etc.) can outweigh the need to make the ‘perfect’ underwriting decision. This fact is important especially as it focuses on the reality of market forces instead of a drive for perfection.

We also provided to participants the opportunity to think about and propose data that is not currently gathered, but which might be helpful to them when making their decisions on the cyber security posture of an organisation.

Overall, participants’ responses to this question concentrated mainly on the security features of the organisation and on obtaining further insight into such processes. In particular, there was a desire to know more about the training and awareness measures undertaken to protect against threats (and human errors), and the extent to which backups were created, maintained and tested. These factors suggested a primary focus on the human side of risk (given that it was viewed as a gateway to numerous current attacks) and the ability of businesses to recover from incidents (with suitable backups).

One participant, a breach response expert, also suggested that external assessments (e.g., reports from penetration testing companies) would be ideal to have access to, as they provided an independent security review of the organisation. While these might not be trusted fully (as they were not commissioned by the insurers themselves), it could provide additional input to the decision process.

Another aspect mentioned pertained to understanding more about the business’ plans over the upcoming year. For instance, plans to migrate IT systems to the cloud, to update IT systems, to change primary firewalls, or to acquire other organisations; if such plans exist, insurers were interested in what protective activities are introduced in these cases. One underwriter commented:

“We’re just told that [something may happen] and no information about what’s actually going on; let’s say it’s a migration to the cloud or M&A [Mergers and Acquisitions] activity and they are interacting with another company, we need to know what that process is, what the road map is, any rollback contingency plans in place.”

This suggests that insurers currently may receive general information, but not at the level where they can adequately understand the risk involved. This is an interesting point considering the rate at which an underwritten cyber risk could change depending on the specifics of any of the aforementioned changes (e.g., a migration of systems to the cloud).

In discussing the topic of IT systems, one actuary suggested that it would be ideal to be able to have more insight into organisational processes and dependencies, in order to allow insurers to better consider risk aggregation in decision making. Specifically:

“If you’re an insurance company and you’ve written a thousand policies, the key issue for us is getting what services they are using, what providers, do they all have Amazon Web Services, and how reliant are they on it.”

This perspective focuses on the underlying requirement for insurers to understand more about how client organisations work. This is not only for defining value at risk and premiums, but also to elucidate systemic risk across their client insurance portfolio. Systemic risk is a crucial concern for insurers and has been explored in detail in various reports [16, 19, 35].

There were also calls for more information due to ambiguities in proposal forms returned by potential clients. The wording of these forms was, at times, viewed as too rigid and not flexible enough to cater for large numbers of organisations. This would be particularly important during engagement with smaller organisations, where proposal forms are a primary method of data gathering to make decisions on risk exposure. For instance, a question may ask, “Do you perform penetration tests on a quarterly basis? Yes / No”. This can, on occasion, force a company to select ‘No’ even if they perform tests more regularly; this can therefore be contrary to what the question is aiming to assess.

Moreover, according to one underwriter, standardised forms from some brokers may focus on topics not relevant to all clients. An example was provided that suggests that most of the forms currently concentrate on privacy (likely largely due to related laws and regulations such as the General Data Protection Regulation [18]) and business interruption. However, this emphasis may be unsuitable for some organisations, e.g., a proposal form with many privacy questions is arguably not best suited for a manufacturer.

The last point raised offered a different opinion and suggested that while having a good understanding about security controls was useful, it would be better to know about the effectiveness of the company’s controls at addressing the risk they face. Summing up the point, a cyber operations specialist said:

“For me, a lot of this is around effectiveness. All these things we are talking about, are they effective, so is training effective? If you have a training programme in place and it’s busy, it’s automated and yet it isn’t working and in fact staff are failing more phishing tests. So, it might tick a box on the proposal form that says, yep we got an automated cyber awareness training, brilliant, but it doesn’t then say that everyone’s failing it and failing it more and more each time.”

This is a salient point as it highlights the fact that security is more than the presence of controls, it must also consider their effectiveness. It further raises the question of how effectiveness can best be assessed; should companies be required to capture and present this information, or should effectiveness be part of a larger framework, such as one that would compose a pre-competitive cyber insurance dataset? In the former case, one participant expressed that it might be difficult to achieve this as it could, in effect, ‘show up’ CISOs/IT managers

that are not performing well. Given that they are often the ones with whom insurance brokers and underwriters interact, such company representatives would be increasingly reluctant to share security-control effectiveness information. Finally, there is the reality that while controls, tools and training may demonstrate increased effectiveness (e.g., more intrusions blocked or reduced phishing click rates), attackers only need to be successful once to compromise systems [33].

2) *Data gathered between writing a policy and its renewal:* The next area we explored considered the data gathered by insurers on their clients in the period between writing the policy and its renewal (typically 12 months later). In general, participants mentioned that only minimal amounts of data was gathered at this stage, if any. The most common information of interest to underwriters and claims specialists was whether there were material changes to the client's business, and in particular whether the client organisation acquired any other companies or whether they were acquired by others. While this tended to be the standard way of monitoring changes to clients in the insurance industry, this was also an area of concern because of the thresholds set before clients were obliged to notify insurers. As one cyber underwriter stated:

"It depends on the broker, the only ones [causes for insurer notification] that are written into the policy are changes in the controls if they are acquired or acquire someone else but you normally have a threshold for that, so 15% or so of your revenues and if it's under that then they're not obliged to tell us during the policy period."

This suggests that information on risk may be lacking during this period, as one might imagine a situation where, for example, two million-dollar organisations merge, and due to their similar sizes, the 15% revenue difference threshold is not met. As such, there may be no updates provided to the insurer. According to participants, there are also no contractual requirements for such a notification/update during the policy (unless clauses have been specific, e.g., pertaining to thresholds). Acquisitions can also be important to examine from the perspective of the risk profiles of organisations. As described by one underwriter:

"... say a university acquires a payment processor which would change the risk profile quite dramatically but [as] they [i.e., the payment processor] are tiny, you might not even know because it wouldn't trigger that acquisition threshold in the policy."

This raises a crucial point linked to how dynamically and significantly risk profiles of organisations can change during the lifetime of a policy, without the knowledge of the insurers who have underwritten that risk. When questioned about whether there was an opportunity to gather more data on client operations in the process leading up to a policy renewal, participants mentioned that it was possible but also challenging. One underwriter noted that it was not uncommon to receive policy renewal applications, via a broker, from large client organisations that only checked whether the organisation had changed their business or had any claims in the last 12 months. This hinted at the challenges of working with

insurance brokers, who can often act as the gatekeepers and primary interface to some clients, and to the industry more fundamentally considering the fact that if not reviewed, cyber risk can change significantly over such long periods. An underwriter picked up on exactly this point with the comment:

"The thing about cyber is that if a company hasn't made any changes or improvements in 12 months, that should lead to a premium increase because the risk is very different."

However, and as highlighted earlier, the business component often mediates such decisions, with another underwriter quickly interjecting and stating that the insurer would never be able to implement or follow through with that. The first underwriter then continued:

"But then, there's the side from a business or a competitive market standpoint: if a company comes in and says: no changes for the last 12 months. Then, we put the premium up 5 or 10% because they haven't made any positive changes, then we will lose the business because someone will just underwrite it at the price that we did last year. So, there is that side of it as well."

The difficulty in such cases therefore resides not only in identifying and gathering appropriate data about a client and their potential value at risk, but also in balancing this with the need to remain competitive in the market. This tension is an intriguing one noting how quickly risks can change. Ultimately, it may also mean that actual client risk profiles may not accurately align to how that risk is viewed on an insurer's books (and also reflected in the premiums charged).

Similar to our previous section, we allowed participants to suggest data that is not currently gathered during this period, but which they regarded as of interest to them. This resulted in a largely homogeneous set of responses, including progress on planned system or process migrations (e.g., system updates, IT changes, migrations of data to other platforms), and updates on security training activities. Some participants were keen to discover more about the security maturity of the organisation and how they responded to security developments (including incidents). To sum it up, a breach response specialist commented:

"More information on the wins and losses and how they handle them; and how they get systems back up and running and how effective are they at doing that most of the time."

This is noteworthy as it suggests an appetite — at least for some part of the insurer community — for data on effectiveness of security mechanisms and processes. The benefit in such cases is that they appreciate the reality of data breaches and therefore concentrate on response capabilities as well.

3) *Data gathered after a cyber incident:* To further expand our understanding of data gathered by insurers, we then moved to consider what data was gathered after an incident. It was clear from responses that in the event of a claim, insurers were able to gather a significant amount of data about the organisation. This could span follow-up questions in line with the proposal forms (that were gathered before underwriting

the risk) to compare those statements with actual activities, changes in systems, who has been contacted/involved in dealing with the incident, what exactly has occurred and any associated costs. These were aptly summarised by one cyber insurance claims specialist:

“First and foremost, the two prime responsibilities are to try to find out as early as possible what’s the claim going to cost so that we can reserve and to find out enough information to confirm or deny coverage as early as possible.”

Another source of valuable data was the breach response team involved in handling the incident. These teams would provide a detailed capture of how the business is actually operating and specific insight behind the cause and chain of activities involved in the cyber security incident.

While data access after an incident was not a challenge, participants highlighted that data gathering and storage was. Typically claims would need to be first stored in a standard market platform, and then this platform accessed to retrieve information about the incident. The difficulty with the platform however, was that it significantly constrained what data could be uploaded about an incident. For instance, participants identified that it was not possible to easily note the types of attack or specifics of malware involved. This would instead need to be shared over some other platform such as email. These workarounds were viewed as less than ideal and had further implications on the ability to search for past incidents, and run analytics on risks (e.g., understanding what risks clients were most exposed to within the last 12 months). This is an area that would require further work, most likely at the industry level.

C. The feasibility and utility of creating a pre-competitive dataset

Having gained insight into the various types of data that is gathered at key points in the cyber-insurance process, we shifted our attention to investigating the feasibility and utility of the creation of a pre-competitive dataset within the cyber-insurance industry. The goal of this dataset would be to provide a platform for making cyber-insurance decisions that could be shared across industry.

When posed the question about the feasibility of the creation of such a dataset, none of the participants felt that it would work, nor were they comfortable in sharing the information necessary to create it. The justification for this decision was cited to be building and maintaining a competitive advantage, in what is still a new market. As one underwriter made clear:

“[As a cyber insurer, you’ve] taken the risk to build to where you are, that’s your IP at that point, that’s your competitive advantage.”

And as emphasised by an cyber-insurance actuary:

“It’s general economics, the first adopter or first mover advantage, given you’ve invested heavily into being market leaders, why should you want to enable other people to come in and compete with you essentially?”

In discussing the feasibility of creating such a dataset further, another participant suggested that the structure of a pre-competitive dataset may already exist in the form of the proposal forms (such as those summarised in research [41]) issued by insurers. These forms gather relevant data about clients and can be shared across underwriters, and therefore, if the client information from each completed form was collected and placed in a database, that could form its basis. This was an intriguing suggestion, but one that was quickly opposed by another participant, an actuary, who highlighted the fact that companies and even clients would not be willing to share this data. He noted:

“I would argue that proposal forms are also proprietary and you wouldn’t want to share that with anyone ... Some of our clients don’t even want to send us their information as their broker, let alone share it with their re-insurers. People are insanely protective.”

These comments also relate to earlier findings and the difficulty in gathering data from clients. In this case, the challenge was not only gathering that data but encouraging insurers to share it (or/and other information) into a collaborative pre-competitive dataset.

From these and other comments made during the focus group, it was apparent that, at least based on this group, the market may not be ready to create a pre-competitive dataset. This is linked to the fact that insurers may have invested significantly in becoming market leaders and that the introduction of such a dataset would negatively impact their efforts (i.e., either by lowering barriers to enter the market or by exposing current market knowledge).

Although the idea of creating a pre-competitive dataset may not be currently feasible, we were interested to gather participants’ opinion on what types of data would be ideal to include in such a dataset. We believe this would be useful information to discuss in this setting considering that the market’s opinion on such a dataset might change as time progresses. This question resulted in a few different responses. One cyber training specialist expressed that client sector, turnover, number of employees and number of customers were enough to determine 80% of the answer to how to price risk. In his opinion, this, in addition to whether the client had a claim or not in the past, could lead to a reasonable judgement. As such, these data points would be crucial to a pre-competitive dataset.

A claims specialist offered a different perspective and suggested that the more confidential information (e.g., past incident information, actual cost of claims and breakdown of costs, etc.) would be more useful at making decisions at that stage. It may therefore be possible that different levels of data (in a pre-competitive dataset) are required at separate stages of the process. This also, of course, needs to consider appropriate laws, regulations and client preferences.

We further sought to explore participants’ opinions on the extent to which data on assets, threats, harms and controls may feature as a part of the dataset. According to one actuary however, the cyber insurance industry was not at that stage of maturity as yet. In summary:

“That information may be too hard to capture because every organisation will have different types of assets, different security setups and to standardise that and draw meaningful conclusions from it — we’re not at that stage yet.”

While an isolated response, this does highlight a real challenge behind gathering such a dataset and standardising it to the point that analytics can be performed by sector, size or other enterprise characteristics. Focusing specifically on security controls, we also sought to explore which controls participants viewed as the most effective, and would, for instance positively impact their decision of taking on a particular risk. There were various responses to this question including cybersecurity training, regular penetration testing, network segmentation, multifactor authentication, dual verification of payments, and data monitoring and control. The most common response however was in the organisation’s ability to respond to a cyber incident. One actuary commented:

“It’s not if it’s when, it’s how you handle post breach. Have you got a PR statement prepared? How do you minimise the damage?”

To build on this, participants stressed the importance of practising incident response and rehearsing how to respond in such cyber incident situations. This included identifying appropriate communication messages and settings. It was clear that members of the focus group were aware of the pervasiveness of attackers and the high likelihood of eventual breaches. These are all common principles that can be found in most cyber incident response or resilience playbooks.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

Cyber insurance is still a field in its infancy, and as such, there are several open questions pertaining to assessing cyber risk, encouraging cyber insurance adoption, calculating risk exposure, writing policies, and supporting claims and business recovery. This paper has contributed to the field by providing new insight into the types of data which cyber-insurance practitioners use on a daily basis to conduct their business. While our work has primarily engaged with UK-based participants, their experience with global portfolios means that our findings are relevant for all geographical areas. This is important given how quickly the cyber insurance market is expanding worldwide.

From our analysis of the focus group data, we identified a large range of data types gathered by insurers, and reported these within the main stages in which they are used. For instance, before a risk is underwritten, insurers are likely to be interested in security related information such as whether the company has a CISO and the extent to which employees received cybersecurity training. At the claim stage, the amount of information gathered can drastically increase and is often an opportunity to clarify key assertions made earlier in the process.

Throughout this data exploration exercise, it became apparent that generally cyber underwriters have a challenging task balancing the gathering of data from clients. If too much data is requested clients (or potential clients) may choose a

competitor but if too little data is requested, it may increase the risk to the insurer. Claims specialists also have challenges to overcome even though after an incident they do receive a significant amount of data. A primary issue here is to have in place the systems meant to capture data, and to design the platforms where data can be easily searched and analysed.

On the topic of the creation of a pre-competitive dataset, participants did not view this favourably. Their perspective was motivated by the impact of such a dataset on the competitive advantage. There was also the question of exactly what such a dataset would contain. While some individuals provided suggestions, these did not always align and such conflicts clearly represent the challenge of creating a pre-competitive dataset at present.

This work provides directions for several avenues of future work. The first involves expanding upon this research with a large-scale survey with cyber-insurance practitioners. Focus groups provide a perfect opportunity to explore topics in detail, however surveys allow such insights to be expanded upon and, to some extent, generalised. In particular, it would be valuable to use surveys to further explore the extent of the identified challenges to, and gaps in, current data collection and the reasons behind them. This could inform potential solutions that align with the capacity and requirements of the insurance community. We could also aim to examine in more detail the various market segments that exist, and how data use and needs by insurers may vary across these segments. It was clear from our work that larger organisations are subject to more exhaustive data requests however, we are yet to explore what specific types of data may be preferred by insurers depending on a company’s market segment.

A second area of research could focus on operationalising the data points mentioned (and any other data points that can be discovered), through the definition of a comprehensive model or end-to-end cyber-insurance process. This could specify key inputs and outputs, which can impact risk exposure and premiums. Such models or processes can be immensely valuable for research (i.e., in providing insights where academic and research efforts may be concentrated), but may be against the preferences of cyber insurers — this links to the resistance to the creation of a pre-competitive dataset.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was sponsored by AXIS Insurance Company, whose support is gratefully acknowledged.

REFERENCES

- [1] I. Agrafiotis, J. R. C. Nurse, M. Goldsmith, S. Creese, and D. Upton. A taxonomy of cyber-harms: Defining the impacts of cyber-attacks and understanding how they propagate. *Journal of Cybersecurity*, 4(1), 10 2018.
- [2] AON. Prepare for the expected: Safeguarding value in the era of cyber risk, 2019. URL: <https://www.aon.com/emea/c-suite/cyber-risk/default.aspx>.
- [3] L. Axon, A. Erola, I. Agrafiotis, M. Goldsmith, and S. Creese. Analysing cyber-insurance claims to design harm-propagation trees. In *International Conference On Cyber Situational Awareness, Data Analytics And Assessment (Cyber SA)*, pages 1–4. IEEE, 2019.
- [4] Barclay Simpson. Cyber insurance: Are UK businesses avoiding coverage?, 2018. URL: <https://www.barclaysimpson.com/blogs/cyber-insurance-are-uk-businesses-avoiding-coverage-82463141027>.

- [5] C. Biener, M. Eling, and J. H. Wirfs. Insurability of cyber risk: An empirical analysis. *The Geneva Papers on Risk and Insurance-Issues and Practice*, 40(1):131–158, 2015.
- [6] BitSight. Security ratings leader - cyber risk management, 2020. URL: <https://www.bitsight.com/>.
- [7] R. Böhme and G. Kataria. Models and measures for correlation in cyber-insurance. In *Workshop on the Economics of Information Security (WEIS)*, 2006.
- [8] V. Braun and V. Clarke. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology*, 3(2):77–101, 2006.
- [9] Centre for Risk Studies. Cyber exposure data schema, 2017. URL: <https://www.jbs.cam.ac.uk/faculty-research/centres/risk/publications/technology-and-space/cyber-exposure-data-schema/e>.
- [10] D. R. Cohen and R. D. Anderson. Insurance coverage for “cyber-losses”. *Tort & Insurance Law Journal*, pages 891–927, 2000.
- [11] S. Dambra, L. Bilge, and D. Balzarotti. Sok: Cyber insurance-technical challenges and a system security roadmap. In *IEEE Symposium on Security and Privacy (SP)*, pages 293–309, 2020.
- [12] DCMS. Cyber security breaches survey 2019, 2019. URL: <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/cyber-security-breaches-survey-2019>.
- [13] DCMS. Cyber security breaches survey 2020, 2020. URL: <https://www.gov.uk/government/statistics/cyber-security-breaches-survey-2020>.
- [14] Deloitte. Overcoming challenges to cyber insurance growth, 2020. URL: <https://www2.deloitte.com/us/en/insights/industry/financial-services/cyber-insurance-market-growth.html>.
- [15] B. Dupont. The cyber-resilience of financial institutions: significance and applicability. *Journal of Cybersecurity*, 5(1):tyz013, 2019.
- [16] EastWest Institute. Cyber insurance and systemic market risk, 2019. URL: <https://www.eastwest.ngo/cyberinsurance>.
- [17] ENISA. Commonality of risk assessment language in cyber insurance, 2017. URL: <https://www.enisa.europa.eu/publications/commonality-of-risk-assessment-language-in-cyber-insurance>.
- [18] European Parliament and Council of the European Union. General data protection regulation (gdpr), 2016. URL: <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/eli/reg/2016/679/oj>.
- [19] European Systemic Risk Board. Systemic cyber risk, 2020. URL: https://www.esrb.europa.eu/pub/pdf/reports/esrb.report200219_systemiccyberrisk~101a09685e.en.pdf.
- [20] European Union Agency for Cybersecurity (ENISA). Cyber Insurance: Recent Advances, Good Practices and Challenges, 2016. URL: <https://www.enisa.europa.eu/publications/cyber-insurance-recent-advances-good-practices-and-challenges>.
- [21] Falco et al. A research agenda for cyber risk and cyber insurance. In *Workshop on the Economics of Information Security (WEIS)*, 2019.
- [22] J. Figg. Cyber insurance to cover e-business. *Internal Auditor*, 57(4):13–13, 2000.
- [23] U. Franke. The cyber insurance market in sweden. *Computers & Security*, 68:130–144, 2017.
- [24] L. A. Gordon, M. P. Loeb, and T. Sohail. A framework for using insurance for cyber-risk management. *Communications of the ACM*, 46(3):81–85, 2003.
- [25] Hiscox. Cyber readiness report 2019, 2019. URL: https://www.hiscox.co.uk/sites/uk/files/documents/2019-04/Hiscox_Cyber_Readiness_Report_2019.pdf.
- [26] Insurance Journal. AXIS Launches Cyber Center of Excellence to Help Mitigate Cyber Risks, 2018. URL: <https://www.insurancejournal.com/news/international/2018/04/16/4866481.htm>.
- [27] M. M. Khalili, P. Naghizadeh, and M. Liu. Designing cyber insurance policies: The role of pre-screening and security interdependence. *IEEE Transactions on Information Forensics and Security*, 13(9):2226–2239, 2018.
- [28] I. Linkov and A. Kott. Fundamental concepts of cyber resilience: Introduction and overview. In *Cyber resilience of systems and networks*, pages 1–25. Springer, 2019.
- [29] Marsh. 2019 cyber catalyst designations: 17 cybersecurity solutions, 2019. URL: <https://www.marsh.com/us/services/cyber-risk/cyber-catalyst.html>.
- [30] Marsh and UK Government. UK cyber security: the role of insurance in managing and mitigating the risk, 2015. URL: <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/uk-cyber-security-the-role-of-insurance>.
- [31] P. H. Meland, I. A. Tøndel, M. Moe, and F. Seehusen. Facing uncertainty in cyber insurance policies. In *International Workshop on Security and Trust Management*, pages 89–100. Springer, 2017.
- [32] National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST). NIST Cybersecurity Framework, 2018. URL: <https://www.nist.gov/cyberframework>.
- [33] J. R. C. Nurse. Cybercrime and you: How criminals attack and the human factors that they seek to exploit. In *The Oxford Handbook of Cyberpsychology*. OUP, 2019.
- [34] OECD. Enhancing the role of insurance in cyber risk management, 2017. URL: <https://www.oecd.org/daf/fin/insurance/Enhancing-the-Role-of-Insurance-in-Cyber-Risk-Management.pdf>.
- [35] RAND Corporation. Systemic cyber risk and aggregate impacts, 2020. URL: https://www.rand.org/pubs/working_papers/WR1311.html.
- [36] S. Romanosky, L. Ablon, A. Kuehn, and T. Jones. Content analysis of cyber insurance policies: how do carriers price cyber risk? *Journal of Cybersecurity*, 5(1), 2019.
- [37] SecurityScorecard. Cybersecurity ratings & risk analysis, 2020. URL: <https://securityscorecard.com>.
- [38] S. A. Talesh. Data breach, privacy, and cyber insurance: How insurance companies act as “compliance managers” for businesses. *Law & Social Inquiry*, 43(2):417–440, 2018.
- [39] The New York Times. Big companies thought insurance covered a cyberattack. they may be wrong., 2019. URL: <https://www.nytimes.com/2019/04/15/technology/cyberinsurance-notpetya-attack.html>.
- [40] I. Vakili and S. Sengupta. A coalitional cyber-insurance framework for a common platform. *IEEE Transactions on Information Forensics and Security*, 14(6):1526–1538, 2018.
- [41] D. Woods, I. Agrafiotis, J. R. C. Nurse, and S. Creese. Mapping the coverage of security controls in cyber insurance proposal forms. *Journal of Internet Services and Applications*, 8(1):8, 2017.
- [42] D. Woods, T. Moore, and A. Simpson. The county fair cyber loss distribution: Drawing inferences from insurance prices. In *Workshop on the Economics of Information Security (WEIS)*, 2019.