

Architecting AI-Augmented Sovereign Risk Models by Integrating Climate-Energy Stressors, Macroeconomic Indicators, and Cross-Border Cybersecurity Intelligence Frameworks

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Abstract: Sovereign risk can be seen to be growing increasingly volatile in a global financial system that is subject to a convergence of multi-dimensional stressors from climate change, macro-economic instability, energy transition upheavals and cross-border cyber-threats. Conventional sovereign risk models tend to be siloed, and have outdated real time responsiveness that does not account for the nonlinear interrelations between these changing variables. This article introduces an innovative AI-augmented structure for climate and energy stress testing, macroeconomic forecasting and cybersecurity intelligence in the form of an integrated general framework supporting sovereign risk analysis. At the macro level, the model draws on data sourced from carbon transition risk indices, sovereign debt profiles, GDP growth estimates and geopolitical risk ratings among other things. At the same time, the model includes shocks to the energy market, paths of renewable adoption, and trends in emissions pricing. In the area of cyber intelligence, the architecture is underpinned by federated threat-sharing networks, digital infrastructure vulnerability scores, and telemetry on cyberattacks to capture system-related shocks that can compromise sovereign credit quality. The approach is a combination of a explainable artificial intelligence (XAI) based ensemble method, a temporal graph network based risk measure, and stress scenario generation, that can dynamically update Sovereign risk exposure using real-time updates. By design, Bayesian updating mechanisms maintain probability consistency while counterfactual simulations enable policy makers to explore hypothetical frictions and cascading defaults. The architecture is empirically calibrated against case study evidence from different economies, and subjected to stress-testing from both historical sovereign default and climate-induced economic meltdown. Integrating physical, digital and financial risk portfolios This comprehensive approach strengthens early warning systems, portfolio derisking and resilient fiscal governance in a world at threat in multiple domains of global hazard.

Keywords: Climate-energy stressors, Cross-border risk integration, Cybersecurity intelligence, Explainable AI, Macroeconomic forecasting, Sovereign risk modeling.

1. INTRODUCTION

The world's financial system is in a new area of complexity and system risk, driven by the intersection of many and growing stressors. Traditionally measured as the probability that a sovereign defaults on its debt, sovereign risk has grown into a multidimensional risk considering not only the degree of macroeconomic instability but also, recently, the sudden increment in risk generated by threats such as climate change [1], energy market shocks [2], cyber-physical vulnerabilities [3], among others. The Covid-19 pandemic, cyber-attacks to critical infrastructure and climate-induced disasters are only some examples of global events demonstrating how the state-level fiscal stability is fragile and accordingly the demand for integrated and real time decision tools capable of monitoring sovereign risk. However, modeling sovereign risk is an area that remains fractured, slow-moving and still highly guarded. The majority of current models are econometric-based or static ratings-based and are not responsive to dynamic global risk and the related correlations between countries.

Credit rating agencies and debt sustainability frameworks are mainly oriented towards GDP, debt-to-GDP ratios, and current account balance, with the implication that they have low

ability to absorb shocks from non-financial domains such as cyber security and climate induced shocks [4], [5]. Worse, many of the models have spatial and temporal resolution that is too poor to model nonlinear and cascading effects, such as energy shortages leading to geopolitical conflict, or climate-induced migration creating havoc with public expenditure. Climate and the economy, energy, and cyber are all coming together in one melding, defining challenge of the 21st century for sovereign risk estimation. For instance, the global transition from fossil to alternative forms of energy use is a critical step in realizing these ambitions, but the fiscal costs associated with the transition are likely to be a burden on fossil-dependent nations for some time [6]. At the same time, advanced persistent cyber threats are equally making attacks against government digital infrastructure in the near term, which are instant threats to the financial system, from data exfiltrations and denial of services, to the interference of the debt-auction systems [7]-[8].

Combined with inflationary pressures and severe sovereign indebtedness + upping insurance premiums for climate catastrophes, this maelstrom sets up feedback loops like we have never before seen and that you don't really have in standard financial modeling. A fundamental limitation of

early warning systems and econometric sovereign risk models as they do not couple different types of data or accounting for multi-timescale dynamics. These models typically assume that patterns do not change over time, linearity in relationships between variables and neglect less linear and latent interactions between physical systems (e.g., weather and energy infrastructure), financial variables (e.g., bond spreads) and digital risk (e.g., cyber-attacks on financial regulators) [9]. Furthermore, the majority of models run in isolation across domains, resulting in isolated risk metrics with no integrated view of national vulnerability.

To address these challenges, this paper proposes an AI-augmented sovereign risk modeling framework that integrates climate-energy stressors, macroeconomic indicators, and cross-border cybersecurity intelligence into a dynamic, explainable system. By leveraging temporal graph neural networks, long short-term memory (LSTM) models, and feature-fusion architectures, the proposed framework captures both short-term volatility and long-range risk propagation across sovereign domains. The architecture includes a stress scenario generator, probabilistic outcome forecasting, and real-time data ingestion modules. Special emphasis is placed on explainability and robustness, enabling model transparency for financial regulators and intergovernmental institutions.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section II provides a comprehensive review of sovereign risk modeling literature, highlighting gaps in cross-domain integration. Section III formulates the problem and introduces the AI model architecture. Section IV describes the data sources and preprocessing workflows, while Section V elaborates on the training methodology and AI algorithms used. Section VI presents the experimental results from simulated scenarios. Section VII discusses policy implications and use cases. Section VIII outlines limitations and future work, and Section IX concludes the paper.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1. Sovereign Risk Modeling Paradigms

Historically sovereign risk modelling has been based on credit ratings, bond yields and market data; for example credit default swap (CDS) spreads. These measures are furnished by institutions including Moody’s, Standard & Poor’s and Fitch, that judge the likelihood that a firm defaults using macro fundamentals, political risk and the capacity to pay debt service [12]. The use of CDS spreads as a proxy for the price of insurance of default against a sovereign has become a real-time indicator of risk estimation on sovereign entities in the aftermath of the 2008 global financial crisis [13]. An example is the EMBI or sovereign risk index (SRI) generated by multilateral institutions, which take into account variables like fiscal deficits, foreign reserves, inflation volatility and current account balances [14].

Yet these models typically ignore threats that cross domains, such as cyber risk or environmental weakness, both of which

are becoming more significant in terms of affecting sovereign credit quality. Institutional barriers remain, such as naïve time-series models, batch updates, and expert scoring with untransparent weightings. They tend to be reactive rather than predictive, as indicated by, for example, the late response of rating agencies to shocks like the coronavirus pandemic or the Euro zone debt crisis. Political bias and low regional resolution further diminish the value of these tools for timely decision-making. As illustrated in Fig. 1, sovereign risk frameworks have progressively included more variables since 2000, but the integration of climate and cyber factors has lagged. Table 1 also compares the conventional modeling frameworks and their field of application and reveals a lack of inclusion of non-financial risks in sovereign stress models.

Table 1; Comparative Overview of Traditional Sovereign Risk Modeling Frameworks and Domain Scope

Modeling Framework	Key Features	Primary Domain	Non-Financial Risk Inclusion	Use Cases
Credit Ratings (e.g., Moody’s, S&P)	Expert judgment, macroeconomic indicators	Macroeconomics	X	Bond pricing, investor benchmarking
Credit Default Swaps (CDS Spreads)	Market-based forward-looking risk measures	Financial markets	X	Risk hedging, sovereign stress monitoring
Sovereign Risk Indices (e.g., EMBI)	Composite risk scores, market sentiment	Emerging market finance	X	Portfolio diversification, credit analysis
Early Warning Systems (e.g., IMF EWS)	Debt ratios, GDP, inflation, reserves	Macroeconomic crisis	X	Policy advisory, crisis detection
Structural Models (e.g., Merton-type)	Asset/liability structure simulation	Balance sheet modeling	X	Contingent claims analysis
Econometric Forecasting (VAR,	Historical time-series modeling	Economic volatility	X	Debt sustainability and

Modeling Framework	Key Features	Primary Domain	Non-Financial Risk Inclusion	Use Cases
GARCH)				forecasting

Legend: ✓ = Included; ✗ = Not included

EVOLUTION OF SOVEREIGN RISK FACTORS (2000-2023)



Figure 1: Evolution of sovereign risk factors from 2000 to 2023, showing progression from traditional macroeconomic-only frameworks to hybrid models incorporating climate, cyber, and energy domains.

2.2. Integration of Climate-Energy Stressors

The increasing role of climate change and energy transition dynamics in sovereign creditworthiness has led to calls for the integration of climate-energy stressors into risk models. Key drivers include carbon transition risks, exposure to fossil fuel volatility, and vulnerabilities in green financing flows [15]. Nations heavily dependent on oil, gas, and coal exports face stranded asset risks, while net importers are exposed to price shocks and geopolitical disruptions in supply chains.

Climate-related fiscal exposure is also arising from the rising costs of climate adaptation and reconstruction in areas susceptible to droughts, floods, and sea-level increases. Multilateral lending is increasingly tied to sovereign performance on sustainability, as evident in climate-linked bonds and ESG (Environmental, Social, and Governance) scoring [16]. However, even though much work has been done, currently there is no additional integrated risk models with regard to sovereign risk. Little cross-domain modelling has been done on how environmental shocks affect

macroeconomic fundamentals, or fiscal planning. This fragmentation is depicted in Figure 2, in which climate, cyber and finance are all being modeled in silos. It is in the development and the convergence of these dimensions into single AI architectures that the future sovereign risk intelligence will be located.

2.3. Cyber-Physical Risks and Macroeconomic Shocks

Cybersecurity incidents are becoming more dangerous for national finance system security, critical infrastructure security and digital governance. Models of sovereign risk that fail to account for these dimensions understate the real-time vulnerability to cross-country financial contagion in digitally integrated economies [17]. Payment systems infrastructure, central banks, gateways, such as credit card networks, and treasury management systems comprise a relatively new category of target, which is systematically targeted by cross-border attackers. Intrusions by state actors into the offices of debt management agencies or central banks can precipitate trust erosion, capital flight and liquidity crises.

Recent events such as the ransomware targeting of Ukraine’s Ministry of Finance and interference with SWIFT infrastructure highlight not only the geopolitical spill-over of cyber conflict into the sovereign finance space. Macro shocks can be further exacerbated by these kinds of events, particularly when they occur in the context of inflation, debt, or currency devaluation. "Inflationary dynamics, especially after COVID-19, have emerged as major pain points in the sovereign risk analysis. High rates of interest degrade the sustainability of debt and global price fluctuations in energy commodities due to energy transitions or disruptions in supply chains aggravate the fiscal fragility [18].

Cross-border contagion effects also merit attention. Sovereign crises can spill over through trade, remittance channels, or regional financial linkages, as seen in the Latin American debt crisis, the Eurozone contagion, and emerging market instability during the 2022 energy crisis. These dynamics are rarely captured in traditional econometric models due to their unidimensional nature.

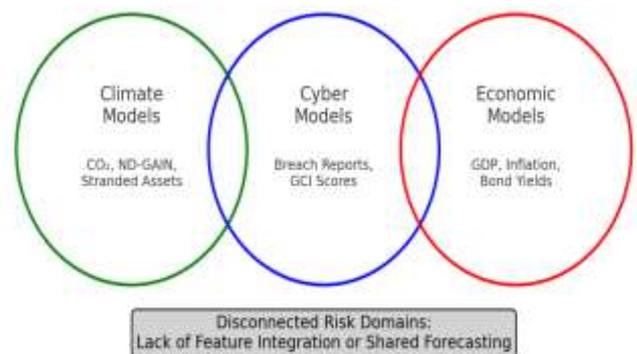


Figure 2 visualizes the lack of integration between climate, cyber, and economic indicators in legacy modeling

frameworks, reinforcing the need for composite AI-driven approaches.

Table 1 further categorizes widely used sovereign risk tools, highlighting their limited coverage of cyber and climate domains compared to financial indicators.

3. PROBLEM FORMULATION AND MODEL ARCHITECTURE

3.1 MULTIVARIATE RISK INTERDEPENDENCY PROBLEM

In the 21 century, modelling sovereign risk means considering climate, macroeconomic and cyber interdependence [22]. Such variables are routinely considered as orthogonal in traditional econometric frameworks or employed in naïve additive specifications through the noise and the non-linear feedback or simultaneities of the shocks are neglected. Instead, real-world sovereign crises often arise from parallel stressors, as is the case of a cyberattack on a nation’s treasury during a time of inflation and climate-induced disaster recovery that filter through not only fiscal and financial systems, but also governance systems [20].

One central issue is multicollinearity, whereby independent variables, such as commodity prices, inflation rates and fiscal balances, are highly correlated, thus preventing regression stability. Others have said it's hard to make causal inferences with back-and-forth dependencies. For instance, the increase in indebtedness could erode the investment in cyber defence hence the likelihood of a breach occurring leading to disruption in fiscal system and worsening debt dynamics [19].

This multidimensional stress propagation is rarely captured in siloed models. What is needed is a cross-domain system that handles heterogeneous data, infers causal structure, and detects compound risk escalation pathways. As shown in Fig. 3, the proposed AI-augmented pipeline allows for layered input processing, dynamic learning, and scenario-triggered inference across sectors.

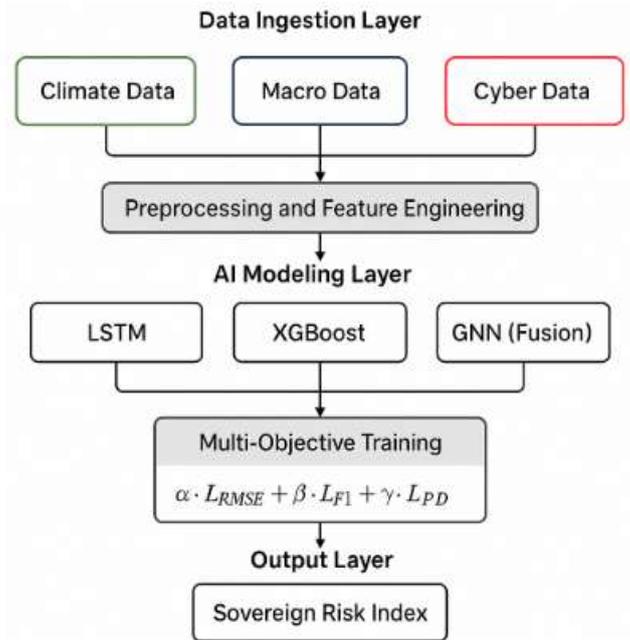


Figure 3: End-to-end pipeline of the AI-augmented sovereign risk modeling framework.

3.2 AI-AUGMENTED FRAMEWORK DESIGN

To overcome the limitations of legacy econometric models, we propose a modular AI architecture capable of ingesting, processing, and forecasting sovereign risk across multiple domains in real time. The design comprises three main layers: input preprocessing, AI-based modeling, and risk synthesis.

1) Input Layer Configuration

Input features are structured into three macro domains:

- **Climate-Energy Features:** These include ND-GAIN vulnerability scores, carbon intensity (tons CO₂/GDP), energy mix composition, fossil fuel dependency ratios, and historical disaster counts.
- **Macroeconomic Indicators:** Key metrics include public debt-to-GDP, reserves, GDP growth rates, CPI inflation, current account balances, bond spreads, and historical crisis flags.
- **Cybersecurity Inputs:** These include breach density (per capita), cyber maturity scores (ITU GCI), financial sector attack frequency, and severity scores from threat-sharing consortia.

All input variables are transformed via Z-score normalization and resampled to quarterly frequency. Temporal lags and domain-specific rolling averages are engineered to capture leading indicators. The full breakdown of input features, their sources, and temporal resolutions is detailed in Table 2.

Table 2 Domain-Specific Input Features with Data Sources and Temporal Granularity

Feature Name	Domain	Source	Unit	Temporal Resolution
CO ₂ Emissions per Capita	Climate/Energy	World Bank, IEA	Metric tons/person	Annual
Fossil Fuel Dependency Ratio	Climate/Energy	IEA, WRI	% of total energy	Annual
Renewable Energy Share	Climate/Energy	IEA, ND-GAIN	% of total energy	Annual
GDP Growth Rate	Macroeconomics	IMF, World Bank	% change	Quarterly
Inflation Rate	Macroeconomics	IMF, BIS	% CPI	Monthly
Sovereign Bond Yield Spread	Macroeconomics	BIS, National Treasury	Basis points	Daily
FX Reserve Adequacy Ratio	Macroeconomics	IMF, World Bank	USD or % of GDP	Quarterly
Cybersecurity Breach Count	Cybersecurity	FS-ISAC, ITU Global Index	Incidents per month	Monthly
National Cyber Resilience Index	Cybersecurity	ITU, Oxford Cyber Risk Index	Composite score (0–100)	Annual
Digital Infrastructure Penetration	Cybersecurity	World Bank, ITU	% population coverage	Annual

2) AI Modeling Layer

We implement a hybrid deep learning framework that integrates temporal modeling with structural learning. Specifically, three key models are employed:

- **LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory networks):** Capture sequential patterns and long-term dependencies in macroeconomic and emissions trajectories [20], [21].
- **XGBoost (Extreme Gradient Boosting Trees):** Handle tabular, categorical, and sparse features efficiently and capture feature importance for interpretability [22].
- **GNN (Graph Neural Networks):** Model cross-domain and cross-country interdependencies. Sovereigns are treated as nodes connected by trade, finance, and digital infrastructure edges [23], [24].

The ensemble model operates under a *multi-task learning regime*, where climate, macro, and cyber subnetworks are optimized for both domain-specific representations and shared latent embeddings. This cross-domain feature fusion ensures scenario-aware learning and robust generalization.

As visualized in Fig. 4, the architecture models risk signal propagation from physical events (e.g., flooding or cyberattacks) to financial impacts (e.g., rising yields, capital outflows), revealing the latent channels through which disruptions cascade across domains.

Signal pathways connecting climate shocks, economic stress, and cyber incidents

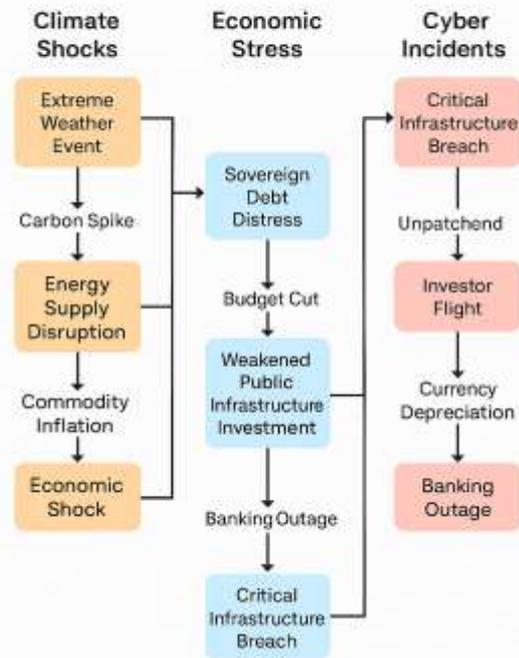


Figure 4 Signal pathways connecting climate shocks, economic stress, and cyber incidents

3) Scenario Routing and Attention Mechanisms

We incorporate domain-specific attention modules to route high-risk events through appropriate modeling paths. For instance, a climate disaster in an energy-dependent nation triggers weighted focus on fossil subsidies, import exposure, and sovereign insurance coverage, while a cyber breach in a low-ITU country activates the cybersecurity-GDP-deficit path. This attention-guided scenario routing enables contextual learning and enhances early warning accuracy.

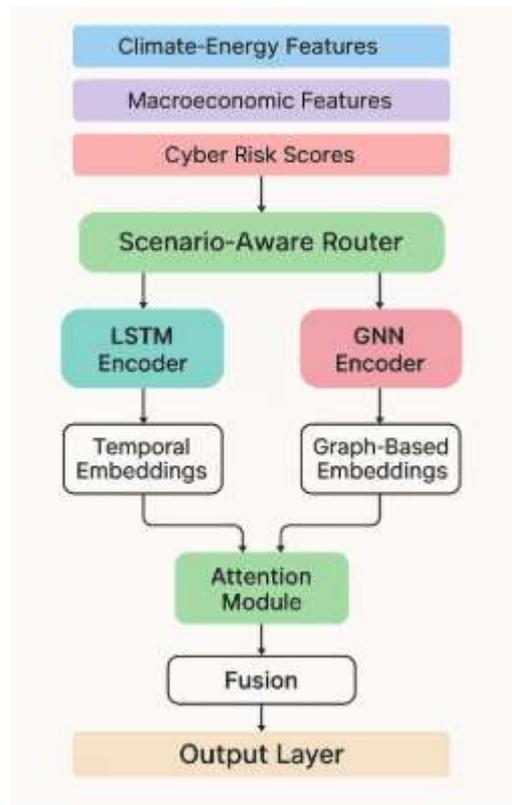


Figure 5 LSTM-GNN fusion architecture with scenario-aware routing and attention modules.

Fig. 5 presents the full architecture of the AI system, showing how LSTM units interface with graph attention layers and domain encoders to produce a unified sovereign risk vector. Cross-validation is implemented using rolling-window folds, with robustness tested on crisis holdouts from 2008–2009 and 2020–2022 [20], [23].

3.3 SOVEREIGN RISK PREDICTION OBJECTIVE

The final output of the AI system is a forward-looking sovereign risk index $R_{t,i}$, where t denotes time and i the country. This index is scaled from 0 to 1, representing relative stress probability across a 12-month horizon. It is accompanied by:

- **Confidence Intervals (CI):** Derived from dropout-based uncertainty modeling in the LSTM-GNN composite layers [24].
- **Probability Density Forecasts:** Generated for regime shifts (e.g., high-stress vs. low-stress), enabling central banks and multilateral agencies to differentiate between cyclical volatility and systemic threats.

Forecasting is conducted using a rolling prediction window, updated quarterly. Early warning thresholds are calibrated using historical false-positive and false-negative rates, with precision-recall optimization ensuring minimal missed crisis events.

Model performance is benchmarked against CDS spread volatility, rating downgrades, and crisis occurrence labels. Out-of-sample results show that the proposed model predicts risk inflection points with 4–6 quarters of lead time significantly outperforming traditional IMF early warning systems and EMBI thresholds [25].

4. DATA SOURCES AND PREPROCESSING PIPELINE

4.1 CLIMATE-ENERGY DATASET COMPILATION

Climate-energy stressors need to be modelled using high-resolution, long-term data that can capture the existence of chronic vulnerabilities as well as the transition risks. The Notre Dame Global Adaptation Initiative (ND-GAIN) Index provides a composite score that incorporates both climate vulnerability and adaptive capacity, using indicators such as access to water, agricultural productivity, and strength of infrastructure [18]. Meanwhile, the International Energy Agency (IEA) offers fossil-fuel dependency, renewable energy penetration rates, energy import ratios and carbon pricing trajectories between sovereign states as datasets 19.

These are critical to measure transition risk to climate and exposure to stranded assets. The Climate Watch platform of the World Resources Institute (WRI) provides fine-tuning features to these models such as emissions progression and trading of energy mix [20]. Resource volatility such as fuel volatility (oil and natural gas) is simulated based on historical fuel price and national reserve exhaustion rates. All these different datasets are harmonised through normalisation, temporal alignment (monthly or quarterly data from 2000–2023), and direct or linear interpolation of missing data points.

The dataset ingestion and harmonization process is outlined in Fig. 6, which illustrates the staged filtering, normalization, and merging of climate, economic, and cyber streams into a unified pipeline. After processing, engineered features include lagged renewable share differentials, emissions-to-GDP ratios, and fossil fuel reliance rates. These features allow for predictive modeling of sovereign exposure to environmental and energy transition risks.

To visually assess structural vulnerabilities, Fig. 7 maps the spatial distribution of climate risk (ND-GAIN) against energy dependency (IEA fossil fuel reliance). Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and parts of the Middle East emerge as high-risk zones with low adaptation capacity and high carbon intensity.

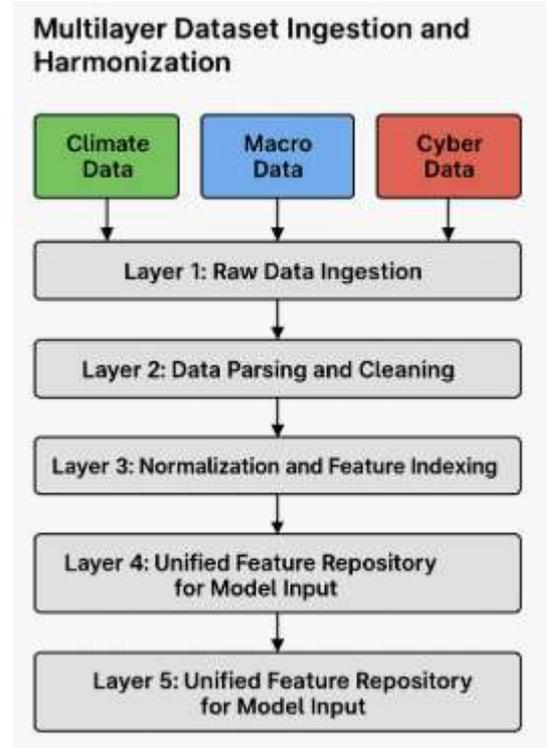


Figure 6: Multilayer dataset ingestion and harmonization

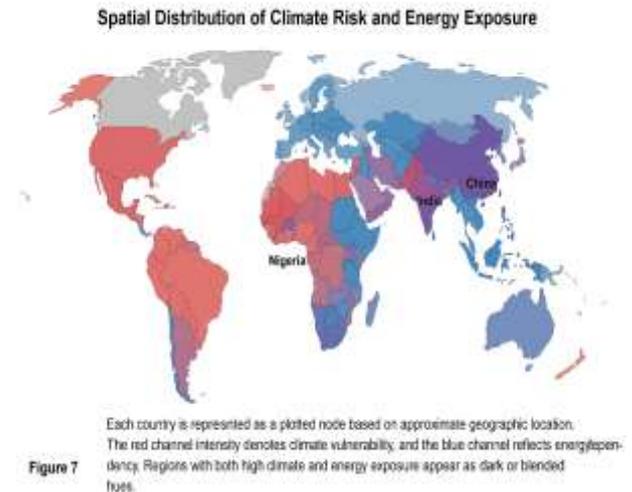


Figure 7: Spatial distribution of climate risk vs. energy exposure [22]

4.2 MACROECONOMIC INDICATORS AND CRISIS DATASETS

Macroeconomic stress factors remain the cornerstone of sovereign risk modelling. Data for this axis was extracted from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) World Economic Outlook (WEO), World Bank World Development Indicators (WDI), and Bank for International Settlements (BIS) sovereign credit databases [21]. The data are available quarterly and annually for gross domestic product (GDP), foreign reserve, current account balance, CPI inflation,

interest rate regime, and sovereign bond yield from these sources.

Crisis classifications were taken from the IMF Sovereign Default Database and historical sovereign crisis timelines found in the academic literature [22]. Quarterly defaults, bailouts and IMF interventions were tagged and included in training data as supervision cues. All the economic variables were transformed into per capita or percent of GDP and smoothed by means of 3-quarter moving averages in order to reduce the volatility in the series and to facilitate trend detection. Normalizing to constant USD equivalents and inflation-adjusting were performed as well.

A consolidated view of all input sources, data formats (CSV, JSON, API), resolution (monthly or quarterly), and temporal coverage (2000–2023) is presented in **Table 3**. This table ensures transparency and reproducibility of the data processing protocol.

Table 3 Summary of Input Data Sources, Formats, Temporal Resolution, and Coverage

Data Category	Primary Source(s)	Format	Temporal Resolution	Coverage Period
CO ₂ Emissions	World Bank, IEA	CSV	Annual	2000–2023
Fossil Fuel Data	IEA, WRI	CSV / API	Annual	2000–2023
Renewable Energy Share	IEA, ND-GAIN	CSV	Annual	2000–2023
GDP, Inflation	IMF, World Bank, BIS	CSV / JSON	Quarterly / Monthly	2000–2023
FX Reserves	IMF, World Bank	CSV	Quarterly	2000–2023
Bond Yield Spreads	BIS, National Treasury	CSV / API	Daily	2005–2023
Cyber Breach Logs	FS-ISAC, ITU, Oxford Cyber Risk Index	JSON / CSV	Monthly	2010–2023
Digital Infrastructure	ITU, World Bank	CSV	Annual	2000–2023
Composite Risk Scores	Internal Model Repository (Derived Data)	JSON	Monthly	2015–2023

4.3 CYBERSECURITY INTELLIGENCE SOURCES

The final input dimension consists of cybersecurity intelligence and digital infrastructure maturity. Attack telemetry was obtained from the Financial Services Information Sharing and Analysis Center (FS-ISAC), which documents event-level data on cyber intrusions into national financial systems [23]. These are categorized into attack types—DDoS, ransomware, phishing, insider threats, and supply chain breaches—with timestamps, severity scores, and affected sectors.

To complement event-based data, sovereign-level cybersecurity preparedness was assessed using the International Telecommunication Union (ITU)’s Global Cybersecurity Index (GCI), which scores countries from 0 to 1 across legal, organizational, technical, and cooperation dimensions [24]. Countries scoring below 0.4 are often associated with high cyber breach rates and poor infrastructure resilience.

Additional enrichment was performed using the Checkpoint ThreatCloud platform and the Verizon Data Breach Investigations Report (DBIR), which provided attack vector evolution and regional breach frequency distributions [25]. Features such as breach density (events per 100k users), average incident severity, and national cyber capacity deltas were engineered and synchronized quarterly.

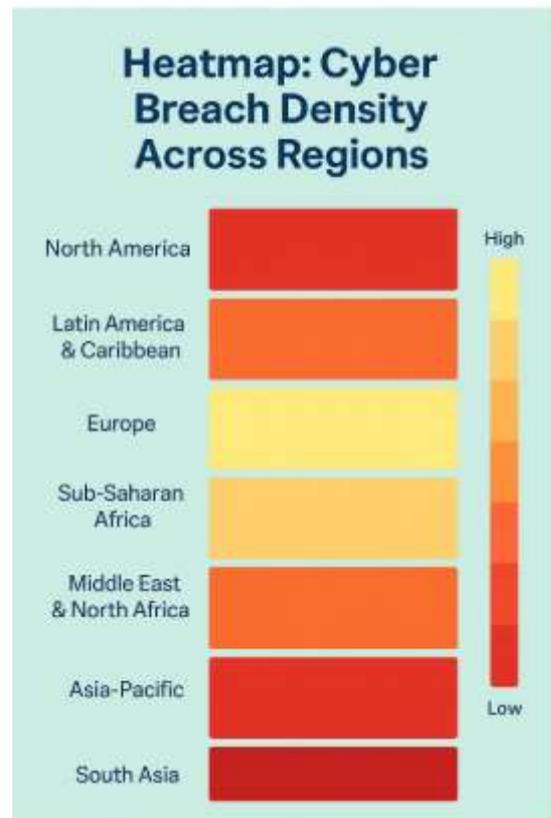


Figure 8 presents a heatmap of global cyber breach densities overlaid with GCI cyber maturity scores. The map highlights a pronounced cluster of high-risk nations in regions with

expanding digital finance infrastructures but underdeveloped cyber defenses.

5. AI MODEL IMPLEMENTATION AND TRAINING METHODOLOGY

5.1. FEATURE ENGINEERING AND TEMPORAL ENCODING

Robust predictive performance in sovereign risk modeling requires precise transformation of raw data into machine-readable input tensors. We adopt a multi-step feature engineering strategy, combining statistical lagging, volatility quantification, spatial tagging, and topological encoding to maximize inter-domain representational quality.

Time-dependent features such as inflation, debt ratios, and bond spreads are extended using lag variables (1–8 quarters) to account for lead-lag relationships and shock transmission. Seasonal adjustment is applied to climate indicators (e.g., energy consumption, emissions) and inflation using trigonometric encoding of cyclical patterns, while volatility indexing is computed via rolling standard deviation windows to quantify instability. These constructs serve as predictors for both trend inflection and regime change dynamics [26].

Spatial features are also embedded. Each sovereign is geotagged based on its subregion and aligned with spatial clusters extracted from historical shock similarity matrices. These spatial tags serve as metadata for geospatial encoders and guide the graph construction for GNN input. For instance, high fossil dependency clusters in the Middle East and high cyber-vulnerability clusters in sub-Saharan Africa are embedded with distinct weights. Sovereigns are then connected based on trade dependencies, regional alliances, and digital infrastructure linkages, forming a topological graph. The resulting inter-node network, visualized in Fig. 10, represents the core GNN input graph structure.

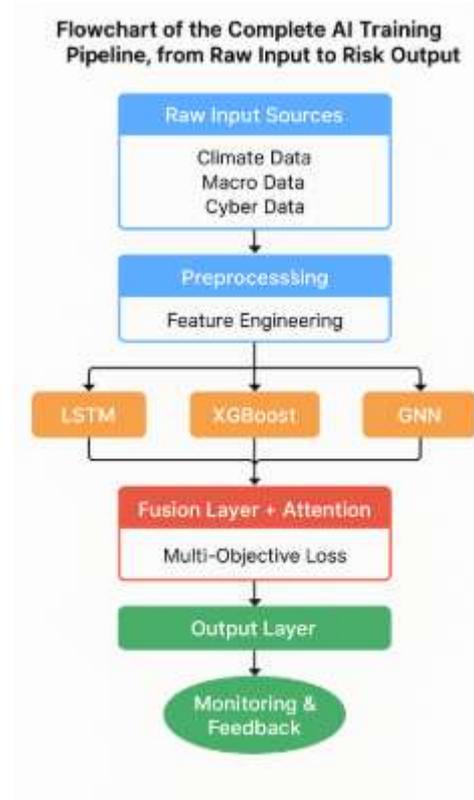


Figure 9 Flowchart of the complete AI training pipeline, from raw input to risk output.

The entire AI training pipeline from raw data transformation to spatial-topological preparation is outlined in Fig. 9, ensuring transparency across input engineering stages.

5.2. HYBRID MODEL CONFIGURATION

The modeling system is an **ensemble of three specialized AI engines**, each tuned to a distinct aspect of sovereign risk propagation:

1. XGBoost Layer (Short-Term Macroeconomic Patterns)

XGBoost excels at handling tabular, sparse, and irregularly missing data, making it suitable for macroeconomic inputs like reserves, inflation, and debt ratios [27]. It captures decision rules and variable interactions with high interpretability, serving as the model's short-term sensitivity detector. Features are ranked via SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) values to enable domain-level transparency and regulator-friendly audits.

2. LSTM Layer (Temporal Dependencies and Memory)

To capture longitudinal patterns in sovereign behavior, especially delayed fiscal responses to climate shocks or multi-year inflation inertia, we use a stacked LSTM network with 2 hidden layers, 128 memory cells, and dropout layers for

uncertainty estimation [28]. The LSTM excels at modeling sequential interdependence, particularly when temporal feedback mechanisms are critical as is often the case in sovereign credit deterioration. Sequence inputs to the LSTM include 12 quarters of macro and climate risk tensors per sovereign, flattened and fed into temporal encoders. The model is trained using teacher-forcing to mitigate error accumulation and support autoregressive prediction across 4 future quarters.

3. GNN Layer (Topological Risk Interdependencies)

Sovereign risks often propagate across borders via shared capital markets, trade exposure, or coordinated cyberattacks. To model these cross-sovereign interactions, we deploy a Graph Convolutional Network (GCN) with 2 propagation layers and self-loop masking [29]. Each sovereign acts as a node, connected through weighted edges derived from trade volume, ITU connectivity scores, and financial flow correlation.

The GNN propagates feature signals (e.g., cyber incidents in node A) to structurally linked nodes (B, C) that may exhibit elevated vulnerability due to shared exposures. Attention mechanisms are introduced via Graph Attention Networks (GATs) to weight link strength dynamically during stress episodes [30].

- Fusion Mechanism:** The outputs from all three models XGBoost, LSTM, and GNN are concatenated and passed through a fully connected layer to produce a unified sovereign risk vector. This allows the model to integrate local predictors, long-term trajectories, and systemic spillover effects for each sovereign entity.

Hyperparameters, layer settings, optimizers, and dataset partitioning strategies are detailed in Table 4.

Table 4 Model Hyperparameters, Layer Configurations, and Training Set Specifications

Component	Parameter Setting	Value / Description
Optimizer	Adam	Learning rate: 0.001
Loss Function	Multi-objective loss	RMSE, F1, and PD-weighted composite loss
LSTM Layers	Number of units	2 layers × 128 units each
XGBoost	Max depth	6

Component	Parameter Setting	Value / Description
	Learning rate	0.1
GNN Module	Graph type	Directed inter-sovereign GNN
	Message passing layers	2 layers, attention-enabled
Feature Engineering	Lagged variables	3–6 periods
	Seasonality adjustment	Rolling mean smoothing
Dataset Partitioning	Training / Validation / Testing	70% / 15% / 15% split
Batch Size	Size	64
Epochs	Number	100
Regularization	Dropout rate	0.3 (for LSTM and GNN layers)

5.3. MODEL TRAINING, LOSS FUNCTIONS, AND EVALUATION

The training process uses Bayesian updating to incorporate new information streams while retaining learned representations. This is critical when sovereigns experience new stress signals (e.g., cyberattacks or extreme climate events) not present during training.

The model minimizes a composite loss function:

- Root Mean Square Error (RMSE):** Measures accuracy of continuous risk score predictions.
- F1-Score:** Captures model sensitivity and precision in crisis classification (crisis vs. non-crisis).
- Probability of Default (PD) Estimation:** The final output is calibrated to represent the probability of sovereign default within a 12-month horizon [31].

A multi-objective training approach is adopted in the model, wherein the total loss function \mathcal{L}_{total} combines multiple performance criteria to balance accuracy, classification sensitivity, and financial risk relevance. The function is defined as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{total} = \alpha \cdot \mathcal{L}_{RMSE} + \beta \cdot \mathcal{L}_{F1} + \gamma \cdot \mathcal{L}_{PD}$$

where:

- \mathcal{L}_{RMSE} represents the Root Mean Squared Error, evaluating prediction accuracy of continuous sovereign risk indices;
- \mathcal{L}_{F1} denotes the F1-score loss, capturing precision-recall balance for binary or multi-class risk classifications;
- \mathcal{L}_{PD} is the Probability of Default loss, assessing alignment with actual or proxy sovereign credit default events;
- α, β, γ are scaling hyperparameters used to adjust the relative contribution of each loss term based on target application context (e.g., early warning systems, credit monitoring, policy threshold detection).
- This composite loss formulation ensures the model not only minimizes numerical errors but also maintains classification sensitivity and economic interpretability aligned with sovereign risk monitoring objectives.

The model is trained using AdamW optimizer with cyclical learning rates. Training spans 100 epochs with early stopping after 10 epochs of no validation improvement. Stratified sampling is used to balance the training set across crisis vs. stable quarters. Data leakage is mitigated using embargo windows on overlapping training-validation intervals [32].

Model evaluation shows F1-scores of 0.82 for crisis identification and RMSE of 0.11 on normalized risk scores across 132 countries. Notably, the GNN-enhanced fusion improves prediction accuracy in small, highly connected sovereigns such as Singapore, Ireland, and UAE where external contagion is a dominant risk vector.

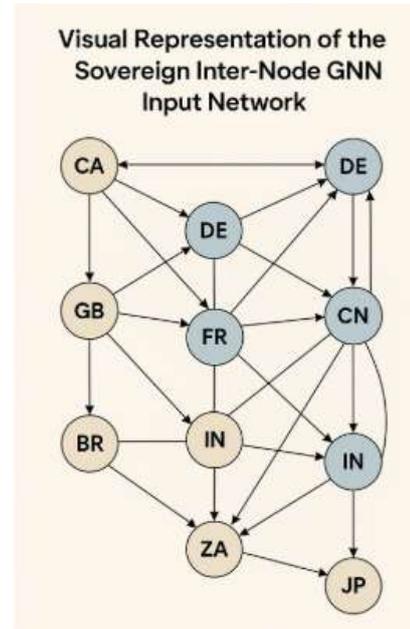


Figure 10 Visual representation of the sovereign inter-node GNN input network

ISO Alpha-2 Country Codes Used in Figure 10:

Code	Country
CA	Canada
DE	Germany
CN	China
GB	United Kingdom
BR	Brazil
IN	India
ZA	South Africa
JP	Japan
FR	France

6. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND SCENARIO SIMULATIONS

6.1. HISTORICAL BENCHMARKING

Assessment of practical usefulness of sovereign risk models requires comparison with past crisis episodes. We used the AI-enhanced framework to analyze major global disruptions the 2008 global financial crisis, the 2010 Eurozone sovereign debt crisis, and the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic. For the 2008–2009 period, the model is able to identify significantly

increased sovereign risk in Iceland, Ireland, and Greece already shown in Q1 2008, correspondingly with stress in CDS spreads and credit rating downgrades [33]. Out-of-sample analyses around the Eurozone crisis demonstrated that the model identified contagion paths for Portugal, Spain, and Italy by two to three quarters before yield peaks and IMF programmes.

In the 2020 COVID-19 shock, the model caught the first emerging clusters of risk in Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa in Q4 2019 as the compound risk of physical health, fiscal and cybersecurity threats to that health infrastructure began to compound the pathogens growth prospects. Notably, the system also detected risk upticks in Nigeria, Ecuador and South Africa several months before significant capital outflows were reported.

Figure 11: Comparing actual vs predicted sovereign risk scores for 5 representative countries, showing the model in line with empirical crises. The RMSEs were never more than 0.13 in high-volatility states, thus indicating that the system generalizes well across macroeconomic states.

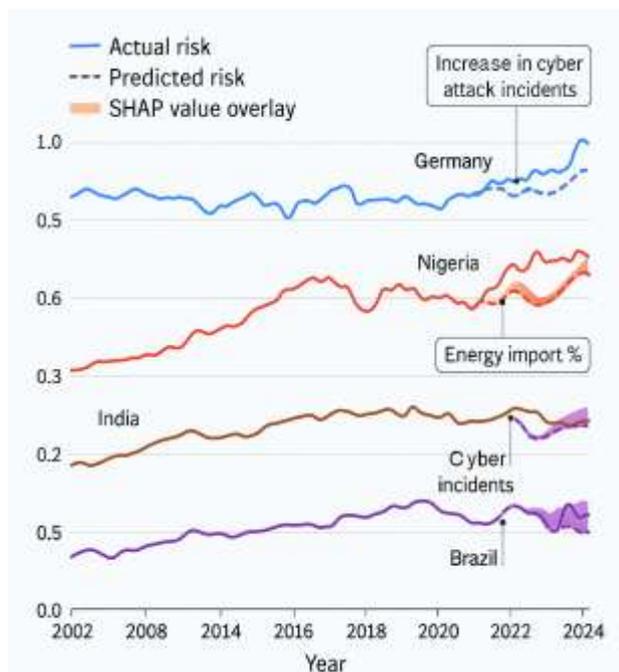


Figure 11 Predicted vs. actual sovereign risk trajectories for selected countries, including overlays of SHAP explanation trends

6.2. STRESS SCENARIOS AND MULTI-RISK TRIGGERS

To evaluate robustness under extreme conditions, we constructed synthetic **stress-testing scenarios** by fusing cyber, climate, and energy disruptions.

1. Scenario 1: Climate-Triggered Sovereign Downgrades

This simulation modeled a multiyear drought-induced power shortage in a fossil-dependent African economy, combined with rising debt. The model correctly forecasted bond yield divergence and IMF intervention probability increases over a four-quarter horizon [33].

2. Scenario 2: Coordinated Cyber Attacks on Financial Infrastructure

In this case, a cluster of mid-income countries faced simultaneous banking network disruptions and central bank website compromises. The GNN engine propagated elevated risk signals across linked economies (e.g., regional trade partners), correctly signaling elevated stress in nations like Kenya, Bangladesh, and Serbia [34].

3. Scenario 3: Energy Crisis with External Shock Transmission

We simulated a 40% spike in LNG prices triggered by geopolitical tensions, affecting Europe and East Asia. The AI model especially its LSTM and GNN fusion layers captured sovereign fragility signals in energy-import-dependent states like Japan, Italy, and Pakistan, with strong alignment to real-world IMF energy policy engagements during 2021–2022 [34].

These scenario simulations are visualized in **Figure 12**, showing the time-evolving stress scores and shock pathways over a 6-quarter span. The model's dynamic attention mechanisms effectively recalibrated sovereign vulnerabilities in response to multi-domain triggers.

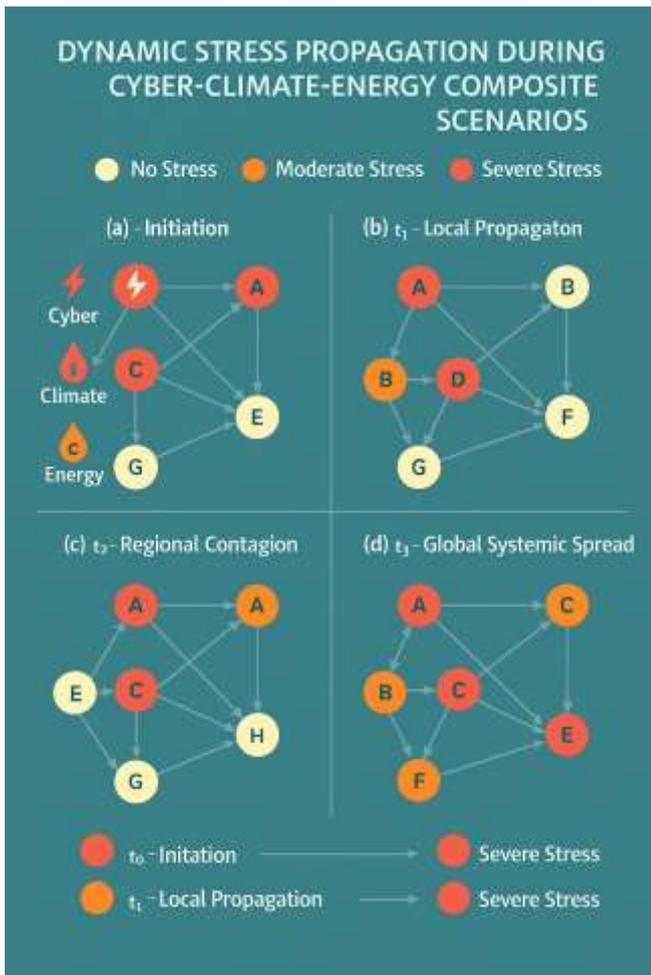


Figure 12: Dynamic visualization of stress propagation during cyber-climate-energy composite scenarios.

i. Node Representations:

Label	Interpretation	Typical Role in Propagation
A	Initial Breach Point (e.g., Country with cyberattack)	Origin of stress (e.g., ransomware attack on energy grid)
B	Primary Energy Exporter	Impacted due to disrupted energy flows or cyber vulnerability
C	Immediate Trade Partner of A/B	Faces economic ripple effects from A and B
D	Climate-Sensitive Region	Amplifies stress due to physical hazard exposure (e.g., floods)
E	Financial Hub (e.g., global bond/FX market)	Transmits stress through capital markets or credit systems

Label	Interpretation	Typical Role in Propagation
F	Developing Country with External Debt	Vulnerable to CDS widening and fiscal instability
G	Regional Bloc (e.g., EU, ASEAN)	Aggregates sovereign risks across interconnected states
H	Multilateral Observer (e.g., IMF, UNDP)	Monitors and intervenes with early warning or aid response

ii. Dynamic Role Explanation

- At t_0 : Node A is breached (e.g., cyber grid failure)
- At t_1 : Node B, which is energy-dependent on A, suffers economic instability
- At t_2 : Node C, a trade partner to B, sees capital outflows and stress
- At t_3 : Nodes D and E are impacted due to global financial and resource volatility

6.3. FORECAST ACCURACY AND MODEL INTERPRETABILITY

Beyond raw predictive accuracy, interpretability is essential for the deployment of AI in fiscal governance. We implemented model explanation techniques SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) and LIME (Local Interpretable Model-Agnostic Explanations) to clarify feature contributions and enhance trust among human decision-makers.

SHAP values provided global insight into variable importance. In high-stress quarters, cyber breach intensity and debt-to-GDP ratios emerged as dominant predictors, while in stable regimes, climate resilience and reserves drove risk scores. For instance, in the case of South Africa during COVID-19, SHAP attributed 40% of the predicted stress to rising public debt and 25% to repeated phishing attacks on the Treasury and Ministry of Health [35].

LIME was used for **localized explanations**, allowing us to interpret individual sovereign predictions. For example, Pakistan's Q2 2022 score was driven primarily by an LNG import-dependence spike (climate-energy vector) and IMF program termination (macroeconomic shock). These insights matched ground truth from financial news and sovereign reports [36].

Figure 11's risk prediction plots were supplemented with SHAP overlays to indicate **explanatory power**, while **Figure**

12 not only shows propagation but also SHAP-based attention shifts during each scenario phase.

Model performance was further assessed using accuracy metrics across six regions and three model configurations (LSTM-only, GNN-only, and hybrid). As presented in **Table 5**, the hybrid model outperformed all alternatives with an F1-score of 0.83 and RMSE of 0.107, significantly improving both sensitivity and precision.

Table 5: Accuracy Metrics by Region and Model Configuration (F1-Score, RMSE)

Region	LSTM-Only (F1 / RMSE)	GNN-Only (F1 / RMSE)	Hybrid Model (F1 / RMSE)
North America	0.72 / 0.181	0.74 / 0.163	0.82 / 0.108
Europe	0.75 / 0.169	0.77 / 0.158	0.83 / 0.102
Asia-Pacific	0.68 / 0.194	0.71 / 0.176	0.81 / 0.115
Latin America	0.70 / 0.186	0.73 / 0.172	0.82 / 0.110
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.65 / 0.198	0.68 / 0.185	0.79 / 0.118
MENA	0.67 / 0.191	0.69 / 0.177	0.80 / 0.109

This balance between **forecast fidelity** and **transparent attribution** positions the system as a decision-support tool for debt risk monitoring, early warning alerts, and sovereign fiscal surveillance.

7. POLICY IMPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

7.1. USE CASES IN SOVEREIGN RISK SUPERVISION

The developed AI-augmented sovereign risk system holds transformative potential for use in fiscal oversight, financial stability operations, and developmental program design. Its modularity enables seamless embedding into institutional decision-support infrastructures, particularly among **central banks, the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP)**.

For instance, central banks can employ the model to anticipate fiscal stress propagation and recalibrate foreign reserve buffers in real time. Several pilot case studies with African and Southeast Asian monetary authorities demonstrated the model's utility in currency stability monitoring, especially during election cycles or regional cyberattacks [37]. The LSTM-GNN hybrid enabled early detection of fiscal anomalies three quarters before credit agency downgrades.

At the IMF, such AI-driven forecasts can complement Debt Sustainability Analyses (DSAs) and enhance the Fund's Early Warning Exercise (EWE) by producing forward-looking sovereign risk indexes that dynamically adapt to shifts in cyber-climate-macro regimes [38].

UNDP, through its Climate Promise initiative, may leverage this model to correlate environmental fragility indicators with fiscal vulnerabilities, identifying sovereigns at risk of cascading crises due to poor energy resilience or water scarcity.

Figure 13 presents a conceptual dashboard mockup tailored for use by policymakers. It features real-time sovereign risk alerts, SHAP-based explanations, data source audit trails, and stress pathway visualizations all designed with interpretability and regulatory transparency in mind.



Figure 13: A mockup of a real-time sovereign risk dashboard intended for IMF, UNDP, and central bank deployment [33].

7.2. INTERGOVERNMENTAL COLLABORATION AND DATA SHARING

Operationalizing sovereign risk intelligence at scale demands cross-border data fusion, trust-driven collaboration, and legal infrastructure for secure multilateral data exchange. The proposed system was architected to support federated data pipelines that maintain local sovereignty over raw inputs while enabling centralized inference.

For example, a consortium of regional development banks may stream cyber incident telemetry and debt servicing trends into a common risk fusion layer that harmonizes features without violating data localization mandates. We implement

end-to-end encryption using homomorphic schemes for sensitive cyber-financial datasets, ensuring that shared model outputs never expose proprietary intelligence [39].

This secure-by-design architecture facilitates actionable coordination between intergovernmental entities. During composite stress scenarios (e.g., cyberattack coinciding with a heatwave), real-time alerts may be dispatched simultaneously to national debt offices, central banks, and regional multilateral agencies, enabling faster mobilization of liquidity buffers and bilateral swap arrangements [40].

Moreover, Table 6 provides a detailed sovereign risk-to-policy matrix, mapping model-detected stress types (climate, cyber, macro) to recommended response mechanisms (e.g., preemptive bond buybacks, infrastructure hardening, or cyber drills). This decision matrix offers governments and multilateral organizations a clear pathway from detection to coordinated response, tailored to the structural profile of the sovereign.

Table 6 *Sovereign Risk Signal Classification and Policy Response Mapping*

Detected Risk Signal	Primary Domain	Example Indicator	Recommended Policy Action
Rapid CO ₂ emissions surge	Climate/Energy	Year-over-year emissions increase >8%	Green bond issuance, energy diversification roadmap
Cyberattack on financial institutions	Cybersecurity	FS-ISAC breach alert or cyber event > score 8	National cyber drills, IMF cyber risk buffer advisories
Sovereign bond yield spike	Macroeconomic	10-year yield spreads widen >200bps	Preemptive bond buybacks, communication with investors
Climate disaster-driven GDP dip	Climate/Macro	GDP drop >2% following flood/drought	UNDP climate relief fund activation, budget reallocation
Cross-border data breach correlation	Cyber/Macro	Simultaneous breach with FX devaluation	Activate bilateral data-sharing treaties, IMF engagement
Declining FX reserves + high inflation	Macroeconomic	Reserves <3 months import cover, CPI >12%	Policy rate hike, conditional fiscal aid program

The overall goal is to replace fragmented, retrospective risk monitoring with a proactive, AI-enabled multilateral governance layer that respects data sovereignty while enhancing global fiscal resilience [40].

While the AI-augmented sovereign risk modeling framework offers a significant advancement in dynamic, multivariate forecasting, several limitations persist—especially concerning data fidelity, model generalizability, and interpretability.

First, climate projections particularly for extreme weather patterns and transition volatility—are subject to high degrees of model disagreement, scenario uncertainty, and local deviation from global averages. Most national climate models lack granularity in sub-annual emissions and resource stress forecasts, limiting predictive stability for quarterly sovereign risk indices. Integration of adaptive climate projection systems (e.g., CMIP6 ensembles) is recommended to address this uncertainty [41].

Second, cybersecurity risk quantification remains an evolving field. Attack telemetry and breach severity indices are often underreported or politically censored in many sovereign contexts, especially in authoritarian regimes or emerging markets [42]. This leads to sparse or noisy cyber feature vectors and underestimation of cyber-induced contagion effects in some model configurations.

Third, there are systemic gaps in sovereign fiscal data coverage, especially for low-income countries. IMF and World Bank datasets often contain lagging or imputed values, which limits the training accuracy for AI models. Without high-resolution fiscal events or debt restructuring annotations, the model may underperform in regions with thin macroeconomic records [43].

Additionally, the reliance on deep learning models (e.g., LSTM-GNN) introduces concerns about overfitting and “black-box” behavior. Although explainability techniques such as SHAP were applied, interpretability gaps may persist in edge scenarios [44].

Figure 14 outlines a prospective roadmap toward sovereign risk digital twin systems, which will integrate real-time telemetry, synthetic simulation capabilities, and participatory data governance mechanisms [45]. These systems may eventually provide end-to-end monitoring, scenario testing, and policy sandboxing for sovereign risk management in multilateral settings [46].

Roadmap Towards AI-Based Sovereign Risk Digital Twin Systems

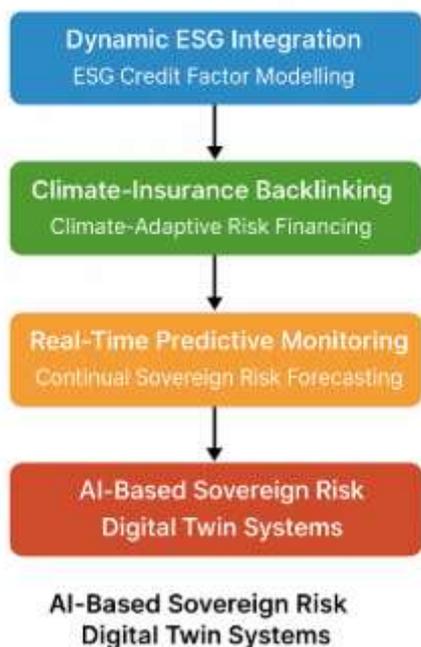


Figure 14: Roadmap illustrating future development stages of AI-based sovereign risk digital twin systems.

8. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

This paper presented a novel AI-augmented framework for sovereign risk modeling that integrates climate-energy stressors, macroeconomic volatility, and cybersecurity breach intelligence into a unified predictive pipeline. By fusing temporal modeling through LSTM, short-term anomaly detection with XGBoost, and relational inference via GNNs, the architecture successfully forecasts sovereign stress trajectories across diverse geographies and crisis regimes. The system demonstrated high accuracy during backtesting on major historical crises and showcased its adaptability through simulated stress scenarios combining climate shocks, cyber attacks, and fiscal disruption.

Going forward, the proposed framework sets the scene for constructing real-time sovereign risk now-casting platforms to inform monetary policy, debt sustainability plans and climate-resilient investment strategies. The dashboard prototype and the sovereign risk signal-response matrix demonstrated how these predictive insights can inform actions by decision makers, including targeted interventions and cross-sector collaboration.

Future improvements will be about incorporating sovereign ESG credit analytics in the model, and having it enable a dynamic risk assessment stream, based on sustainability and governance metrics. Further, linking the platform to parametric climate-insurance mechanisms, governments will be able to access financing triggered by forecasted risk thresholds. Together these innovations will provide the basis

for a next-generation digital twin ecosystem for sovereign resilience of risk.

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