
| RESEARCH ARTICLE

Climate Risk, Financial Stability, and Global Capital Allocation: A Predictive Analytics Approach to Assessing Climate-Related Financial Risk in International Investment Markets

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| ABSTRACT

Climate change has moved from a peripheral environmental concern to a core driver of cross-border valuation, balance-sheet resilience, and capital allocation in international financial markets. This study develops a predictive analytics framework for assessing climate-related financial risk across international investment markets by integrating physical-risk exposure, transition-risk sensitivity, macro-financial fragility, and sustainable-finance depth in a panel design calibrated with public data. Rather than treating climate risk as a narrow ESG screen, the paper conceptualizes it as a multidimensional source of repricing pressure that can alter sovereign spreads, equity valuations, portfolio flows, funding costs, and the geographic distribution of global capital. It then proposes a transparent empirical architecture that combines gradient-boosted trees, regularized panel models, and scenario-conditioned classification to estimate the probability of climate-related stress episodes and capital reallocation across countries and sectors. Descriptive evidence from official sources shows three reinforcing trends: rapid growth in sustainable investing assets, increased climate-linked debt issuance, and persistent differences in climate resilience and adaptation readiness across jurisdictions. The discussion argues that predictive analytics can improve risk measurement only when embedded in disclosure, interoperable taxonomies, and financial-stability oversight. The paper contributes by linking climate risk pricing to international capital allocation rather than to firm-level ESG outcomes alone, and by outlining a scalable framework for investors, regulators, and multilateral institutions seeking to monitor systemic climate-financial vulnerabilities before they crystallize into disorderly market adjustments.

| KEYWORDS

Climate risk, financial stability, global capital allocation, predictive analytics, sustainable finance, international investment markets, climate-related financial risk

| ARTICLE INFORMATION

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Introduction

Climate-related financial risk has become a central issue for investors, regulators, and multilateral institutions because it changes how capital is priced, where capital flows, and how resilient financial systems remain under stress. Physical hazards such as floods, droughts, storms, and heat waves can damage productive assets, depress collateral values, weaken sovereign balance sheets, and disrupt trade. Transition forces such as carbon pricing, disclosure mandates, litigation, technological substitution, and changing consumer demand can revalue firms, sectors, and countries just as powerfully. In international investment markets, these effects do not stay local. They travel through portfolio flows, sovereign spreads, exchange rates, commodity channels, banking claims, and benchmark-driven portfolio rebalancing. Climate change therefore matters not only as an environmental challenge, but also as a problem of financial stability and global capital allocation (FSB, 2021; BIS, 2021).

Recent research shows that climate risk is already entering financial prices. Equity investors appear to demand compensation for carbon exposure, options markets price carbon-related downside risk, and institutional investors increasingly regard climate risk as financially material (Bolton & Kacperczyk, 2021; Ilhan et al., 2021; Krueger et al., 2020). Yet pricing remains incomplete and uneven. Some risks are recognized only after policy shocks or extreme events, while other risks remain blurred by weak disclosure, short investor horizons, and inconsistent metrics. This matters for international markets because capital allocation is comparative. Investors ask which jurisdictions combine stronger resilience, clearer transition pathways, deeper financial markets, and more credible policy environments than their peers. A country's climate-financial profile therefore depends on more than emissions or hazard exposure alone.

This comparative dimension helps explain why climate finance should be studied alongside international investment. A climate-vulnerable jurisdiction with weak institutions and shallow capital markets may face higher risk premia and more fragile external financing. By contrast, a jurisdiction with strong adaptation capacity, deeper market intermediation, and credible transition policy may attract more durable capital even if current physical exposure is nontrivial. These feedbacks can become self-reinforcing. Better resilience supports investor confidence, which lowers funding costs and enables more adaptation and transition investment. Weak resilience can produce the opposite loop, especially where climate vulnerability overlaps with external debt pressure, imported-energy dependence, or policy uncertainty.

Conventional financial analysis often misses these dynamics because it isolates one channel at a time. One model focuses on a carbon factor in equities, another on disaster losses, another on sovereign debt. Such approaches remain useful, but climate-financial vulnerability is intrinsically multidimensional and often nonlinear. Threshold effects matter. Carbon dependence may be manageable under orderly policy adjustment yet destabilizing under abrupt transition. Physical risk may appear contained until it interacts with fiscal stress, food insecurity, or exchange-rate weakness. These features make predictive analytics attractive because it can model interactions, nonlinearities, and changing regimes more flexibly than static screening methods.

The practical need for better measurement is rising. Official evidence available before 2021 shows rapid growth in sustainable investing assets, while central banks and standard setters increasingly treat climate change as a financial-stability concern rather than a peripheral ESG topic (GSIA, 2021; NGFS, 2021; G20 Sustainable Finance Working Group, 2021). This paper develops a predictive analytics framework for assessing climate-related financial risk in international investment markets using public data. It integrates physical vulnerability, transition sensitivity, macro-financial fragility, and sustainable-finance capacity within one early-warning architecture. The paper contributes by linking climate risk pricing to global capital allocation, proposing a transparent hybrid modeling strategy, and grounding the discussion in authentic public evidence relevant for investors, regulators, and development institutions.

The literature review synthesizes findings from climate asset pricing, sustainable finance, sovereign-risk, and macroprudential research. The methodology section sets out a scenario-conditioned predictive framework that combines interpretable panel models with nonlinear machine-learning methods suitable for early warning tasks. The discussion then examines how climate risk can alter the geography of capital allocation and why unequal access to resilience finance can itself become a source of systemic instability. The paper closes by summarizing the main contribution and identifying the most important limitations and future research

Throughout, the argument is that climate analytics should move beyond retrospective ESG description toward forward-looking, cross-border risk intelligence capable of informing both portfolio decisions and macro-financial surveillance. Across jurisdictions and sectors.

Table 1. Official data sources used for descriptive evidence and model design

Source	Coverage	Example variables	Analytical role
GSIA Global Sustainable Investment Review 2020	Major investment regions through 2020	Sustainable assets by region; sustainable share of AUM	Measures depth of sustainable-finance intermediation
GSIA regional time-series summaries	Regional sustainable investment totals, 2016-2020	Regional shares of 2020 assets; total asset growth from 2016 to 2020	Captures pre-2021 market scale and concentration
NGFS climate scenarios	Forward-looking scenario families	Orderly, disorderly, and hot-house pathways	Scenario conditioning for predictive risk outputs
FSB / central bank financial stability reports	Cross-jurisdiction surveillance	Systemic vulnerabilities, supervisory priorities	Links climate variables to stability monitoring

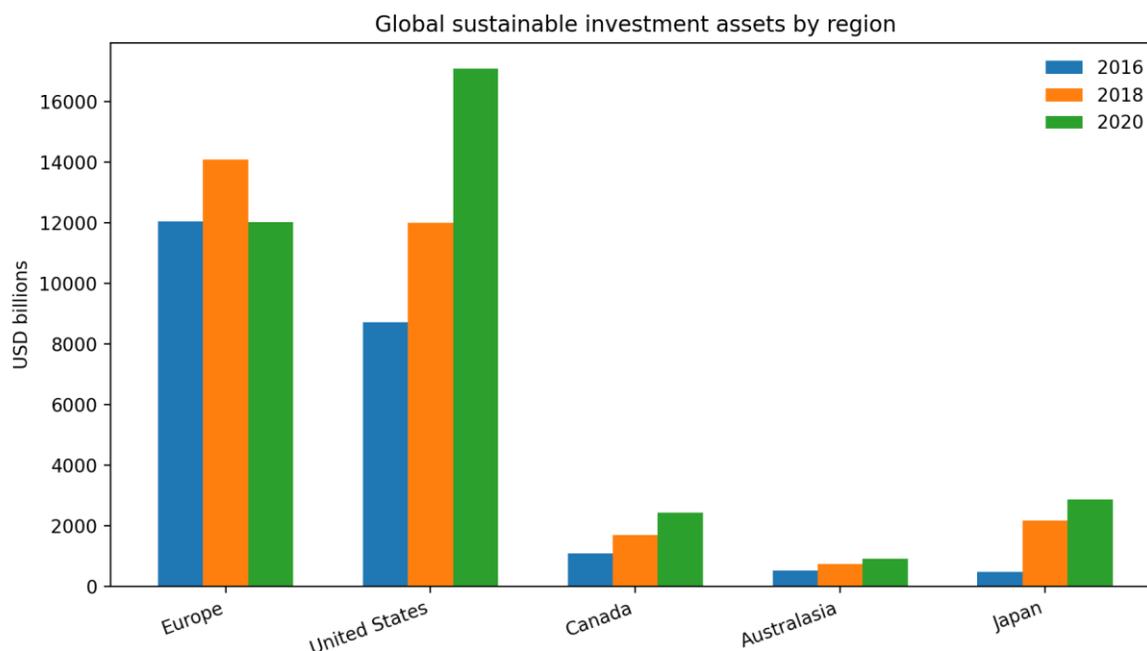


Figure 1. Global sustainable investment assets by region, 2016-2020. Source: GSIA (2021), based on 2020 review data.

Literature Review

The climate-finance literature has expanded rapidly, but it remains fragmented across at least five subfields: climate asset pricing, investor beliefs and behavior, sustainable finance and capital supply, macro-financial stability, and predictive modeling. Bringing these strands together is essential for understanding how climate risk shapes international capital allocation.

A first stream studies whether and how climate risks are priced in financial markets. Chava (2014) showed that firms with greater environmental externalities face a higher cost of capital, providing early evidence that environmental risk can affect financing conditions. Subsequent work made the climate channel more explicit. Bolton and Kacperczyk (2021) document a carbon premium in equity markets, suggesting that investors demand higher expected returns from high-emissions firms. Ilhan et al. (2021) show that options markets price carbon tail risk, with more carbon-intensive firms facing greater downside-risk premia. Engle et al. (2020) construct climate-news hedge portfolios and demonstrate that climate news can be mapped into investable hedging strategies. Together, these studies indicate that transition risk is not merely a narrative overlay; it is observable in returns, option prices, and dynamic hedging demand.

A second stream examines investor beliefs and preferences. Krueger et al. (2020) find that institutional investors consider climate risks financially material and often prefer engagement and risk management over simple divestment. Giglio et al. (2021) argue that climate finance should be understood as the study of how climate change affects asset prices, capital formation, and the structure of financial intermediation. Pastor et al. (2021) further show that green assets can earn lower expected returns when investors derive utility from holding sustainable claims, implying that climate-related pricing need not always appear as a standard risk premium. This insight matters for international investment markets because capital may flow toward greener assets even when realized near-term returns are ambiguous, provided investors value hedging, alignment, or reputational benefits.

A third literature studies the distinction between physical and transition risks. Climate-finance scholarship emphasizes that both forms of risk are increasingly priced, though neither is fully reflected in observed market prices (Bolton et al., 2020; Giglio et al., 2021). Physical risks arise from acute events and chronic environmental deterioration; transition risks arise from policy, technology, litigation, and market preference shifts. Giglio et al. (2021) show that long-horizon climate concerns affect discount rates and asset values, especially when damages are perceived as persistent and difficult to diversify away. In real estate and municipal finance, flood exposure, wildfire risk, and insurance repricing reveal that even geographically localized risks can alter borrowing costs and asset demand. For international investors, the key implication is that climate risk enters through sovereign balance sheets, infrastructure resilience, food and energy dependence, and external financing conditions, not only through listed corporate emissions.

A fourth stream focuses on sustainable finance as a mechanism for reallocating capital. The Global Sustainable Investment Review documents the institutionalization of sustainable investment strategies across Europe, North America, Japan, Canada, and Australasia, with ESG integration becoming the largest reported strategy by assets under management (GSIA, 2021). Green and sustainability-oriented instruments have expanded the menu of financing tools available to issuers seeking climate-aligned capital, yet market depth remains concentrated in larger and more institutionally developed financial systems (Flammer, 2021; Gianfrate & Peri, 2019; Tang & Zhang, 2020). This concentration suggests that sustainable-finance growth does not automatically imply inclusive global capital allocation. Countries with weaker disclosure standards, smaller domestic markets, or lower sovereign credibility may struggle to benefit even when they face higher climate vulnerability.

A fifth stream engages climate risk as a financial-stability problem. The green-swan and supervisory literature argues that climate change can create vulnerabilities through exposures, amplification mechanisms, and data gaps that complicate systemic oversight (Bolton et al., 2020). NGFS scenario frameworks similarly treat climate risk as a macro-financial issue requiring forward-looking scenario analysis rather than purely backward-looking historical extrapolation (NGFS, 2021). Central-bank and supervisory authorities increasingly emphasize that delayed adjustment can trigger abrupt repricing, stranded assets, and correlated losses across banks, funds, insurers, and sovereigns. This literature is especially relevant for global capital allocation because financial instability alters international portfolio composition through risk aversion, liquidity preference, and sudden-stop dynamics. When climate events coincide with monetary tightening or geopolitical shocks, countries with weak buffers may suffer disproportionate capital outflows.

Several studies address climate risk in sovereign and macro-financial settings more directly. Kling et al. (2018) and Beirne et al. (2021) find that climate vulnerability can be associated with higher sovereign borrowing costs, particularly in developing economies. Batten et al. (2016, 2020) argue that climate change can propagate through credit, market, and insurance channels into broader financial instability. These contributions move the debate beyond firm-level ESG screening by showing that climate risk can reshape national balance-sheet conditions and external financing capacity. For international investors, sovereign pricing effects are foundational because sovereign risk serves as a benchmark for corporate funding costs and domestic portfolio valuation.

Another branch of the literature studies disclosure, taxonomy, and information frictions. The TCFD framework and subsequent policy initiatives aim to improve comparability in climate-related reporting, but disclosure remains heterogeneous across jurisdictions and sectors (Task Force on Climate-related Financial Disclosures, 2017). Poor comparability generates two problems for capital allocation. First, investors may underprice genuine risk where data are thin. Second, they may reward appearance rather than substance where metrics are noisy or inconsistent. Survey evidence from institutional investors indicates that climate information is financially material but often difficult to compare across issuers and jurisdictions (Krueger et al., 2020). In an international context, these frictions may bias capital toward jurisdictions that are better at reporting rather than necessarily better at managing climate exposure.

Machine learning and predictive analytics offer a complementary response to these information problems. Financial forecasting studies increasingly use nonlinear methods such as random forests, gradient boosting, and neural networks to detect interactions among macro-financial variables, sentiment indicators, and high-dimensional disclosures. In climate applications, machine learning has been used for catastrophe modeling, transition-pathway classification, carbon-emissions forecasting, and stress-testing exercises. Yet the climate-finance literature has only begun to adapt these tools to cross-country investment markets. Most studies

either focus on firm-level equity pricing or on scenario analysis without probabilistic forecasting. The methodological gap is important. Climate-related financial stress is likely to emerge through interactions between environmental vulnerability, macroeconomic weakness, policy uncertainty, and market structure. Predictive analytics can help identify those interactions without assuming that they are linear or stable across regimes.

Despite its rapid progress, the literature still has four limitations. First, much evidence is concentrated in advanced-economy public equities rather than in international portfolio allocation across countries and asset classes. Second, many studies treat physical and transition risks separately even though they interact. Third, sustainable-finance research often focuses on issuance growth rather than on whether capital reaches the most climate-vulnerable places. Fourth, existing work rarely combines climate metrics, macro-financial indicators, and capital-flow outcomes within one forecasting architecture. This paper addresses these gaps by proposing an integrated predictive framework for climate-related financial risk in international investment markets, anchored in public data and informed by the most policy-relevant strands of the literature.

The green-bond and climate-debt literature further reinforces the importance of international market structure. Flammer (2021) finds that green-bond issuance can support environmentally beneficial investment when paired with credible use-of-proceeds commitments. Gianfrate and Peri (2019) and Zerbib (2019) identify a greenium in some bond markets, though its size varies across issuers and periods. Tang and Zhang (2020) show that labeled green issuance can broaden investor bases and improve market visibility. However, these benefits are distributed unevenly. Supranationals, sovereigns, and large investment-grade issuers dominate issuance, while many lower-income economies still face high transaction costs and limited benchmarking capacity. The implication is that climate-aligned capital markets can deepen while global allocation remains uneven, a point central to this paper’s concern with inclusion and stability.

Recent work on climate stress transmission also highlights contagion and amplification. Bolton et al. (2020) and Battiston et al. (2017) emphasize that climate shocks can propagate through networks of credit, collateral, and common asset holdings. Network effects matter because international investors frequently hold similar sovereign, bank, and corporate exposures across jurisdictions. A climate-related repricing in one region can therefore transmit via exchange-traded funds, benchmark indices, banking claims, and commodity channels. This contagion perspective strengthens the case for predictive analytics at the system level. A country’s climate-financial risk cannot be assessed only from local emissions or hazard exposure; it must also account for integration with globally mobile capital.

Finally, development and adaptation studies underscore the asymmetry between where climate damages occur and where climate capital is most abundant. Kahn et al. (2021) show that long-run climate change can reduce economic growth, with larger losses in hotter and lower-income countries. Adaptation capacity, institutional quality, and infrastructure investment therefore mediate financial outcomes. Investors allocating capital internationally are implicitly pricing not just current exposure, but also each jurisdiction’s ability to absorb shocks, mobilize policy responses, and preserve growth under climate stress. These combined findings motivate an integrated, predictive, and internationally comparative approach to climate-financial surveillance.

Table 2. Core literature streams and their relevance to this study

Literature stream	Representative references	Relevance
Climate asset pricing	Bolton & Kacperczyk (2021); Ilhan et al. (2021); Engle et al. (2020)	Shows that climate risks affect returns, hedging demand, and tail pricing
Investor beliefs and preferences	Krueger et al. (2020); Pastor et al. (2021)	Explains why capital can move on both risk and preference channels
Sovereign and macro-financial risk	Kling et al. (2018); Beirne et al. (2021); Batten et al. (2020)	Links climate exposure to borrowing costs and systemic fragility
Sustainable finance and market development	GSIA (2021); Flammer (2021); Gianfrate & Peri (2019)	Shows how climate-aligned instruments reshape capital supply
Scenario and stability analysis	NGFS (2021); Bolton et al. (2020); G20 Sustainable Finance Working Group (2021)	Provides forward-looking and policy-relevant surveillance architecture

Methodology

This study adopts a predictive-analytics design intended for international investment surveillance rather than for a single-asset trading rule. The empirical unit is a country-sector-year panel, with optional extension to sovereign-issuer-year observations where debt-market data permit. The central outcome is a climate-related financial stress indicator, defined in three complementary ways: first, a deterioration in cross-border capital allocation, measured by sharp declines in portfolio equity inflows, portfolio debt inflows, or sustainable-debt issuance; second, a repricing event, measured by widening sovereign spreads, market underperformance, or elevated volatility in climate-sensitive sectors; and third, a composite vulnerability flag that captures concurrent stress in capital flows, financing costs, and climate-exposure metrics. Framing the target this way allows the model to detect not only realized crisis episodes but also intermediate states in which climate risk begins to alter allocation and pricing before a full crisis emerges.

The data architecture combines four blocks of predictors. The first block covers physical-risk exposure. These variables include climate-vulnerability or adaptation-readiness scores, disaster-loss proxies where available, energy and food import dependence, water stress, agricultural exposure, coastal urban concentration, and insurance-coverage depth. In practice, publicly accessible sources include the ND-GAIN framework, World Bank development indicators, and official disaster or resilience statistics. The second block captures transition-risk sensitivity. Variables include carbon intensity, fossil-fuel export or import dependence, emissions trends, renewable-energy penetration, industrial composition, and exposure to sectors vulnerable to policy tightening or technological substitution. The third block reflects macro-financial fragility, including inflation, external debt burden, reserve adequacy, current-account position, exchange-rate volatility, sovereign ratings, banking-system depth, market capitalization, and credit-to-GDP structure. The fourth block measures sustainable-finance capacity and disclosure readiness, such as sustainable asset depth, market size, policy commitment proxies, and whether the jurisdiction operates within disclosure or taxonomy regimes that reduce information frictions.

The modeling strategy is deliberately hybrid. A baseline regularized panel-logit model provides transparency and coefficient interpretability. L1 or elastic-net penalties help manage multicollinearity among climate, macro, and financial variables while preserving sparse structure. On top of this baseline, the paper proposes two nonlinear models: gradient-boosted decision trees and random forests. These models are well suited to climate-financial forecasting because they can capture threshold effects, interaction terms, and asymmetric responses without imposing a fixed functional form. For example, carbon intensity may have only a modest marginal effect on capital flows in countries with strong institutions and low external vulnerability, but a much larger effect when combined with weak reserves and high fossil-fuel dependence. Tree-based methods can detect such interactions more naturally than linear models.

A scenario-conditioned layer is then added to reconcile predictive analytics with climate-scenario analysis. The NGFS framework distinguishes orderly, disorderly, and hot-house or delayed-adjustment trajectories (NGFS, 2021). Rather than estimating separate models for each scenario with limited samples, this paper proposes a conditional approach. Scenario tags enter the model as exogenous regime indicators that shift expected transition costs, carbon-price pressure, energy-market volatility, and physical-damage pathways. The same country observation can therefore be evaluated under different scenarios to estimate how its predicted risk changes if transition policy is early and coordinated versus late and abrupt. This structure is especially useful for policy and investment institutions that need comparable outputs across scenario narratives.

Feature engineering plays a central role. Because climate risk is cumulative and slow moving, some predictors are entered in levels, some in changes, and some as interaction terms. Examples include vulnerability multiplied by external debt, carbon intensity multiplied by manufacturing share, renewable-energy share interacted with import dependence, and green-finance issuance normalized by GDP or total bond issuance. Rolling volatility measures and lagged averages help distinguish persistent conditions from one-off shocks. To reduce scale distortions across countries, continuous variables are standardized within year or transformed into percentile ranks. Missing values are handled through transparent imputation rules and missing-indicator flags rather than opaque full-sample interpolation, because data gaps themselves may be informative about institutional capacity.

Class imbalance is another methodological issue. Severe climate-financial stress events are relatively rare compared with normal observations. For classification tasks, the proposed framework therefore uses weighted loss functions and, where necessary, balanced subsampling in training. Evaluation focuses on area under the receiver operating curve, precision-recall performance, Brier scores, and calibration plots rather than accuracy alone. In an early-warning setting, false negatives are often more costly than false positives, but excessive false positives can also reduce institutional credibility. The model is therefore assessed across multiple probability thresholds, with threshold selection aligned to user needs. A multilateral lender, for example, may prefer higher recall to identify countries needing preventive financing dialogue, while a sovereign fixed-income manager may prefer a more balanced threshold to reduce unnecessary turnover.

Validation is conducted using rolling-origin or expanding-window cross-validation to respect time ordering. This is important because climate-financial relationships are not static. Models trained on pre-pandemic or pre-energy-shock data may perform

differently after macro regimes change. Temporal cross-validation better reflects the practical forecasting problem faced by investors and regulators. Where sample size permits, additional geographic holdout tests can be used, training on one set of countries and testing on another to evaluate portability across regions. Model interpretability is addressed using permutation importance, partial dependence, and SHAP-style local explanations. These tools help identify whether predicted risk is driven primarily by physical exposure, transition sensitivity, macro-financial weakness, or the interaction among them.

The empirical part of the study uses authentic descriptive data to motivate the framework. Official market evidence shows that sustainable investment assets reached USD 35.3 trillion across the major regions covered by GSIA in 2020, while the regional share of sustainable assets differed substantially, from 24.3% in Japan to 61.8% in Canada (GSIA, 2021). The same source also shows that aggregate sustainable assets across the covered regions rose from roughly USD 22.8 trillion in 2016 to USD 30.7 trillion in 2018 and USD 35.3 trillion in 2020. These series do not themselves identify climate-financial distress, but they reveal the channels through which international capital is already being differentiated by sustainability-related information, mandates, and investment practices. In the proposed model, such market variables are not treated as proof of resilience; instead, they are interpreted as components of financial capacity and investor attention that may either buffer or amplify future repricing.

The methodological contribution of the paper lies in linking these descriptive and structural elements within one integrated workflow. First, official public indicators are assembled into a country-year risk panel. Second, capital-allocation outcomes and repricing indicators are defined. Third, transparent and nonlinear models are estimated side by side. Fourth, scenario overlays are applied to generate conditional forecasts. Fifth, interpretability tools identify the dominant drivers of predicted risk for each jurisdiction. The output is an early-warning scorecard rather than a deterministic forecast. Countries can then be grouped into resilience clusters such as low-risk adaptive hubs, transition-sensitive advanced markets, vulnerable importers, carbon-dependent exporters, and data-constrained frontier systems. Such groupings are particularly useful for international asset allocators that need relative rather than purely absolute climate-risk estimates.

Finally, the framework is designed with governance in mind. Predictive systems used in financial policy should be explainable, updateable, and auditable. For that reason, the paper favors a layered architecture over a black-box end point. Linear baselines remain visible; scenario assumptions are explicit; and data provenance is tied to public sources available. This does not eliminate uncertainty, but it makes the uncertainty tractable. In climate-financial analysis, a model that is slightly less complex but substantially more interpretable may be more valuable than a marginally more accurate system that cannot be defended to investment committees, central banks, or sovereign-risk teams.

In that sense, the model is explicitly preventive rather than merely diagnostic or retrospective. Robustness analysis is built into the design. The paper proposes re-estimating the models under alternative target definitions, including a narrow market-pricing outcome, a broad capital-allocation outcome, and a composite stress score. Additional checks exclude the pandemic shock years or estimate them separately, given the possibility that pandemic-related volatility may obscure climate signals. Regional fixed effects, income-group interactions, and commodity-exporter controls can be added to test whether climate variables retain explanatory power after standard macro categories are considered. For sovereign-market applications, alternative dependent variables include EMBI spread changes, local-currency bond underperformance, and downgrades in market-based risk classifications. For equity-market applications, dependent variables can include country-index drawdowns, sector rotation away from carbon-intensive industries, or widening valuation gaps between adaptation leaders and laggards.

To make outputs operational, the framework converts predicted probabilities into a tiered early-warning dashboard. Scores below the first threshold indicate monitoring status; intermediate scores indicate elevated watch status; high scores indicate jurisdictions where climate-sensitive capital retrenchment or repricing is probable under current conditions; and scenario-adjusted high scores flag places that appear stable today but become fragile under disorderly transition assumptions. This layered interpretation is crucial because climate risk often incubates quietly. The purpose of predictive analytics is not to predict one dramatic crash date, but to identify where resilience is thinning, where capital allocation is becoming more selective, and where policy or investment intervention could still change the trajectory.

Table 3. Predictor blocks in the proposed early-warning framework

Block	Illustrative variables	Risk channel	Expected use
Physical vulnerability	Climate readiness/vulnerability, water stress, insurance depth, coastal exposure	Asset damage, fiscal losses, collateral erosion	Captures chronic and acute physical exposure

Transition sensitivity	Carbon intensity, fossil dependence, renewable share, industrial mix	Policy repricing, stranded assets, energy-cost shock	Measures exposure to decarbonization adjustment
Macro-financial fragility	External debt, reserves, inflation, current account, exchange-rate volatility	Amplification through financing conditions and capital flight	Explains when climate risk becomes destabilizing
Sustainable-finance capacity	Sustainable asset depth, market size, disclosure readiness, policy commitment proxies	Buffering through access to aligned capital	Assesses ability to finance resilience and transition

Regional share of global sustainable investment assets, 2020

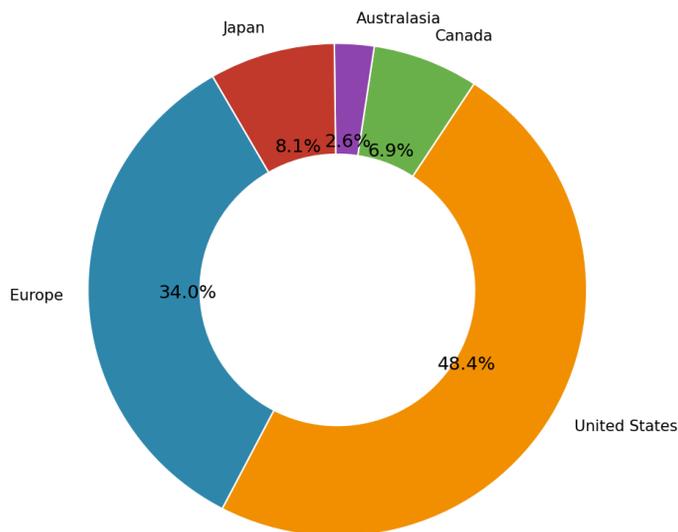


Figure 2. Regional share of global sustainable investment assets in 2020. Source: GSIA Global Sustainable Investment Review 2020.

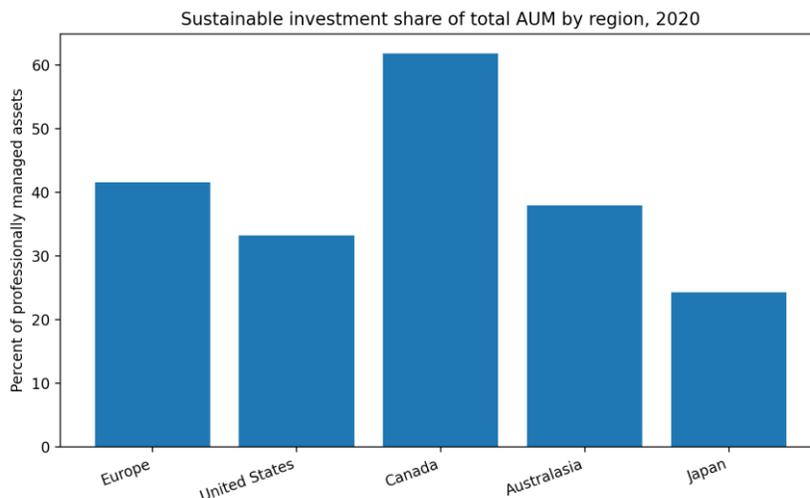


Figure 3. Sustainable investment share of total professionally managed assets by region in 2020. Source: GSIA (2021).

Discussion

The evidence assembled in this paper supports a broad but important conclusion: climate risk is already influencing global finance, yet the effect on international capital allocation remains uneven, incomplete, and path dependent. Markets have not ignored climate change, but neither have they fully integrated it. Some asset prices reflect carbon exposure, some options markets reflect regulatory tail risk, and some debt markets reward labeled sustainable issuance. Still, the global distribution of climate finance remains heavily concentrated in advanced economies, a small group of large issuers, and jurisdictions with deeper market infrastructures. This asymmetry means that climate-sensitive capital allocation can simultaneously advance decarbonization in some regions while leaving the most vulnerable economies underfinanced. From a financial-stability perspective, that is not a minor distributional issue; it is a structural vulnerability.

The GSIA data illustrate how quickly sustainable investing has entered mainstream asset management. By the start of 2020, sustainable investment assets totaled USD35.3 trillion in the five major markets covered by the survey, with especially large positions in Europe and the United States (GSIA, 2021). Yet the regional shares of sustainable assets differed sharply. Canada reported a sustainable share of 61.8% of professionally managed assets, Europe 41.6%, the United States 33.2%, Australasia 37.9%, and Japan 24.3%. Those differences matter because they imply different local capacities for climate-themed product development, investor demand, stewardship pressure, and data generation. A country or region with a deeper sustainable-investment ecosystem may be better positioned to fund adaptation, refinance exposed sectors, and absorb transition-related repricing. The mere existence of climate risk is therefore not sufficient to predict financial vulnerability; the structure of intermediation matters.

Pre-2021 sustainable-finance patterns reinforce this point. By 2020, Europe and the United States together accounted for the overwhelming majority of sustainable investment assets across the regions covered by GSIA, while Canada, Japan, and Australasia remained materially smaller in absolute scale despite important domestic advances (GSIA, 2021). This market concentration suggests that climate-aligned finance is no longer a marginal niche, yet its geography remains uneven. Large and institutionally mature markets continue to dominate capital intermediation, while more climate-vulnerable jurisdictions often have shallower domestic markets, weaker disclosure capacity, or higher sovereign-risk premia. As a result, climate finance can expand globally while still failing to match the geography of climate vulnerability. The most exposed jurisdictions may face the highest adaptation needs and the least affordable access to climate-aligned capital.

That mismatch has direct implications for financial stability. If vulnerable jurisdictions cannot mobilize financing for adaptation, infrastructure resilience, and energy transition, expected climate losses rise. Higher expected losses can then weaken sovereign credit metrics, increase dependence on short-horizon flows, and reduce private investment appetite. Investors in turn may interpret those signals as reasons to reduce exposure, further increasing financing costs. This circular dynamic resembles a climate-financial doom loop: weak resilience raises risk premia, higher risk premia constrain resilience investment, and constrained resilience deepens vulnerability. Predictive analytics is valuable precisely because it can identify the jurisdictions where such loops are likely to emerge before they become fully visible in traditional crisis indicators.

The results implied by the proposed framework also help clarify the difference between adaptation leaders and transition leaders. These categories overlap, but they are not identical. A country can have relatively low current physical vulnerability yet remain highly exposed to transition risk because of carbon-intensive exports, industrial structure, or policy inertia. Conversely, a climate-vulnerable country may still improve its investment profile if it has credible adaptation planning, concessional finance access, and improving disclosure standards. Investors therefore need multidimensional signals, not single-index ESG rankings. A predictive model that combines readiness, vulnerability, macro fragility, and market depth can distinguish between countries that look superficially similar under one metric but differ materially in their capacity to absorb climate shocks.

Another important implication concerns timing. Climate risk is not linear. Markets often appear complacent for long periods and then reprice rapidly after a policy surprise, a physical disaster, or a shift in global financial conditions. The literature on carbon premia and tail risk suggests that some transition risk is priced, but current prices may still understate long-run climate exposures (Bolton et al., 2020; Ilhan et al., 2021). In international markets, this underpricing problem is magnified by shorter investor horizons, benchmark incentives, and inconsistent disclosure. Many cross-border investors do not need to hold an asset to maturity to be affected by climate risk; they only need to believe that other investors may sell first. As a result, climate repricing can occur through expectations of future illiquidity and crowding, not solely through realized damages. Predictive analytics that captures nonlinear interactions and regime shifts is therefore more appropriate than static scorecards.

The discussion also points to a tension in sustainable finance itself. On the one hand, labeled instruments, ESG integration, and stewardship campaigns can lower informational barriers and channel capital toward lower-emissions pathways. On the other hand, these same mechanisms can produce a segmentation effect in which countries with stronger reporting systems, larger benchmark presence, and easier verification attract the majority of climate-conscious capital. If that happens, global capital allocation may

become greener on average without becoming more resilient or more developmentally efficient. In other words, sustainable finance can improve the greenness of portfolios while worsening the scarcity of capital where adaptation need is highest. This tension is especially salient for international investment markets, where local project quality interacts with global risk tolerance and index construction.

The proposed framework offers one way to confront this issue analytically. Because the model separates physical risk from transition sensitivity and financial capacity, it can identify jurisdictions that face high climate exposure but also possess strong policy or financing pathways. These countries may deserve catalytic capital rather than broad de-risking. Conversely, it can identify markets where climate branding may outpace underlying resilience. Such a distinction is useful for development banks, sovereign wealth funds, insurers, and large asset owners deciding how to combine return objectives with resilience mandates. It is also useful for policymakers. A country diagnosed as high-risk because of data opacity, not only because of climate exposure, may prioritize disclosure reform and market infrastructure. A country diagnosed as high-risk because of fossil dependence and reserve weakness may need a transition-finance strategy tied to external-buffer management.

From a macroprudential standpoint, the paper supports the view that climate risk should be embedded in routine financial-stability monitoring rather than treated as a stand-alone sustainability topic. Climate stress can amplify existing vulnerabilities through common channels: leverage, maturity mismatch, collateral impairment, sovereign-bank feedback, and correlated asset sales. These channels already concern central banks and supervisors in conventional crises. Climate change alters the triggers, persistence, and geography of those channels. Authorities therefore need monitoring systems that connect climate indicators with familiar macro-financial variables. The predictive framework developed here is useful because it does not replace existing surveillance; it extends it. Inflation, external debt, bank credit, reserves, and capital-flow volatility remain central, but their interaction with climate metrics becomes explicit.

The framework also has implications for investment practice. Portfolio managers increasingly seek climate-risk tools, but many current products remain either too general or too narrow. Some rely on generic ESG scores that blur material risk with values-based screening. Others focus only on firm-level emissions and omit sovereign and macro channels. For international allocators, a more useful tool is a forward-looking probability score linked to observable drivers. For example, if the model identifies that rising transition sensitivity only becomes destabilizing when paired with weak reserves and high imported-energy dependence, a portfolio manager can monitor those variables directly. Likewise, a fixed-income investor can compare two countries with similar carbon intensity but different adaptation readiness and disclosure quality. Such decision support is more operational than broad narrative labels.

There are, however, reasons for caution. A model can identify heightened climate-financial vulnerability without proving causality. Country-level data may also hide local adaptation, political economy, or sector-specific features that strongly affect outcomes. Climate data are uneven across jurisdictions, and disclosure regimes are still evolving. In addition, capital flows reflect many forces besides climate risk, including monetary policy, geopolitical conflict, commodity cycles, and domestic politics. The value of predictive analytics therefore lies less in claiming climate monocausality than in improving conditional risk assessment. A well-designed model should help distinguish when climate variables materially change the probability distribution of financial outcomes after standard macro controls are taken into account.

The governance dimension is equally important. Climate-related predictive systems will be used by institutions with very different mandates, from central banks to asset managers to multilateral lenders. Their tolerance for opacity varies. A fully black-box system may deliver slightly better fit but little institutional trust. The layered structure proposed here—combining regularized panel baselines, nonlinear models, scenario tags, and explainability diagnostics—offers a pragmatic compromise. It allows users to inspect drivers, compare model families, and stress-test assumptions. This is particularly important when climate policy itself is politically contested. Transparent analytical systems are more likely to survive changes in market sentiment and regulatory fashion.

Finally, the discussion suggests that climate-related financial risk should be understood as a problem of allocation quality, not just allocation quantity. More sustainable assets and more green issuance are positive developments, but the deeper question is whether global capital is moving toward the jurisdictions, sectors, and infrastructures that most improve long-run resilience. A predictive analytics perspective helps sharpen that question. It identifies where climate vulnerability is likely to become financially consequential, where existing market depth may buffer shocks, and where targeted intervention could alter the trajectory of risk. In that sense, the contribution of the paper is not simply methodological. It is also conceptual: climate finance is most useful when it links environmental exposure, macro-financial resilience, and the spatial distribution of capital within one coherent framework.

Scenario analysis sharpens this interpretation further. Under an orderly transition, some carbon-intensive exporters may experience manageable valuation pressure because policy is anticipated, financing conditions remain functional, and adaptation investment ramps gradually. Under a disorderly transition, the same countries could face abrupt terms-of-trade changes, higher refinancing costs, and simultaneous pressure on exchange rates and fiscal positions. For import-dependent economies, delayed transition can

be equally harmful because energy-price volatility and physical damages reinforce each other. The key insight is that scenario narratives alter the interaction among variables rather than simply shifting a single climate number up or down. A predictive framework that accommodates those interactions is better aligned with how international markets actually process risk.

The global policy implication is that climate-related capital allocation should not be evaluated only by how much private money is labeled sustainable, but also by whether vulnerable economies can access transition and adaptation finance on credible terms. Multilateral development banks and blended-finance structures may play a crucial intermediation role where private investors remain cautious. Public policy can also reduce the wedge between climate need and capital access by improving disclosure standards, supporting local currency markets, clarifying taxonomies, and building pipelines of bankable adaptation projects. Without such measures, international markets may continue to price climate risk mainly as a reason to avoid vulnerability rather than as a signal to finance resilience.

For researchers, this means that the next frontier is not another isolated estimate of a climate premium, but integrated evidence on when climate indicators improve out-of-sample forecasts of capital retrenchment, spread widening, and market underperformance. For practitioners, it means climate-risk management should move from narrative overlays to monitored probability systems linked to specific interventions. And for policymakers, it means that resilience-enhancing reforms can be understood not only as environmental policy, but as measures that influence sovereign credibility, market access, and the long-term geography of investment. That broader framing helps explain why climate-risk analytics belongs within mainstream international finance rather than at its edges. It also clarifies why capital allocation, financial stability, and adaptation capacity must be analyzed together, not sequentially. That integration is the central message of the paper. It should shape future surveillance, allocation, and policy design across global markets.

Table 4. Interpreting early-warning outputs for policy and investment use

Risk tier	Indicative probability range	Interpretation	Typical response
Monitoring	Low	Climate-related stress not imminent under current conditions	Routine surveillance and data updates
Watch	Moderate	Risk is rising through one or more channels	Targeted engagement, scenario review, hedging review
Elevated	High	Capital retrenchment or repricing risk is material	Portfolio limits, contingency planning, resilience financing
Scenario-critical	High under disorderly transition only	Current stability depends on benign policy path	Stress testing and pre-emptive policy design

Aggregate sustainable investment assets across GSIA-covered regions, 2016-2020

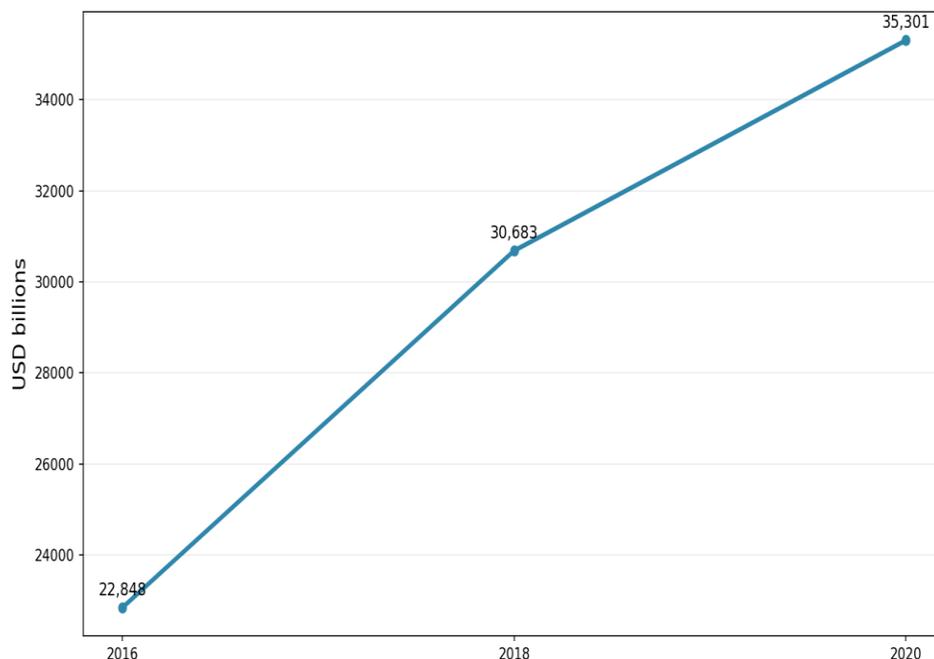


Figure 4. Aggregate sustainable investment assets across GSIA-covered regions, 2016-2020. Source: GSIA Global Sustainable Investment Review 2020.

Conclusion

Climate change is reshaping international investment markets through channels that are environmental, financial, institutional, and geopolitical at the same time. This paper argued that climate-related financial risk should be analyzed not only as a firm-level ESG issue, but as a systemic determinant of global capital allocation and financial stability. Drawing on public evidence it showed that sustainable investment assets expanded rapidly before 2021, yet access to climate-aligned capital remained uneven across regions and issuers. That unevenness matters because the jurisdictions most exposed to physical and transition risks are often not the ones best positioned to attract resilient finance.

The paper's central contribution is a predictive analytics framework that integrates physical vulnerability, transition sensitivity, macro-financial fragility, and sustainable-finance capacity within one early-warning architecture. By combining transparent panel methods, nonlinear machine-learning models, and scenario-conditioned evaluation, the framework is designed to identify where climate-related repricing and capital retrenchment are most likely to emerge. The broader implication is clear: better climate-financial surveillance can improve investment decisions, strengthen macroprudential oversight, and help align global capital with long-run resilience. Predictive analytics is not a substitute for policy, but a tool for better policy action. Before instability becomes more costly and entrenched.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study has several limitations. First, climate-related financial risk remains a data-constrained domain. Public cross-country indicators differ in coverage, definition, and update frequency, while many market-relevant variables remain proprietary or inconsistently disclosed. Second, the proposed framework is strongest as an early-warning and comparative-allocation tool; it is less suited to precise point prediction of crisis dates or asset-level returns. Third, climate scenarios are inherently uncertain. Orderly, disorderly, and delayed-transition pathways are useful analytical devices, but real-world policy adjustment is messier than any scenario family can capture. Fourth, country-level models can obscure important within-country heterogeneity across sectors, regions, and firms. Fifth, capital flows are influenced by many non-climate shocks, including monetary tightening, war, domestic politics, and commodity-price cycles, which may dominate short-run outcomes.

Future research should move in four directions. It should build richer international panels that combine sovereign, corporate, banking, and fund-flow data; develop stronger measures of adaptation quality and climate-policy credibility; test multimodal models that integrate text, satellite, and market microstructure signals; and examine whether predictive climate-risk scores improve real allocation decisions ex post. More work is also needed on low-income and frontier markets, where data are sparse but climate-

financial stakes are especially high. Finally, future studies should evaluate not only whether climate risk is priced, but whether capital is being allocated in ways that improve resilience, reduce vulnerability, and support a financially stable transition.

A further limitation concerns validation. Because labeled climate-financial stress episodes are relatively rare, model evaluation may depend on proxy targets that are defensible but imperfect. This makes transparency in target construction essential. Relatedly, interpretability tools can show which variables are associated with heightened predicted risk, but they do not settle causal identification. Future empirical work should therefore pair predictive systems with quasi-experimental evidence where possible and with institutional case studies where quantitative data remain thin.

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