



# Effect of Political Stability, Geopolitical Risk and R&D Investments on Environmental Sustainability: Evidence from European Countries by Novel Quantile Models\*

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## Abstract

This research investigates the effect of political stability and geopolitical risk on environmental sustainability (ES) by considering R&D investments in nuclear and renewable energy. Considering the high political stability and recent energy crisis and increasing geopolitical risk, the study focuses on three leading European countries. We use the load capacity factor, include data between 1985/1 and 2020/12, and apply quantile on quantile regression (QQ), Granger causality in quantiles (GQ), and quantile regression (QR) models. The study finds that in higher quantiles (i) increasing political stability stimulates the ES in Sweden and the United Kingdom; (ii) increasing geopolitical risk supports the ES in France; (iii) R&D investments increase the ES in all the countries; (iv) there are generally causal effects from the explanatory variables to the ES except some quantiles (0.45–0.50) in all the countries; (v) the power effects of the variables differ according to countries, quantiles and variables.

**Keywords:** Load capacity factor, political stability, geopolitical risk, European countries, environmental sustainability

**JEL Classification:** C32, N55, O13

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\* Data will be made available on request.

### Acronyms

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| AARDL  | Augmented ARDL                         |
| AMG    | Augmented mean group                   |
| ARDL   | Autoregressive distributed lag         |
| BDS    | Brock, Scheinkman, Dechert and LeBaron |
| BPS    | Basis points                           |
| CCE    | Common correlated effects              |
| CSARDL | Cross-sectional ARDL                   |
| DOLS   | Dynamic ordinary least squares         |
| EKC    | Environmental Kuznets curve            |
| ES     | Environmental sustainability           |
| EU     | European Union                         |
| FMOLS  | Fully modified ordinary least squares  |
| GFN    | Global Footprint Network               |
| GHA    | Global hectares                        |
| GMM    | Generalized method of moments          |
| GQ     | Granger causality in quantiles         |
| IEA    | International Energy Agency            |
| NARDL  | Non-linear ARDL                        |
| PRS    | Political risk service                 |
| PS     | Political stability                    |
| QQ     | Quantile-on-quantile regression        |
| QR     | Quantile regression                    |
| R&D    | Research and development               |
| SDGs   | Sustainable Development Goals          |
| UN     | United Nations                         |
| USD    | United States dollar                   |
| WC     | Wavelet coherence                      |

### Dependent variable

|     |                      |
|-----|----------------------|
| LCF | Load capacity factor |
|-----|----------------------|

### Independent variables

|     |                                  |
|-----|----------------------------------|
| PRI | Political risk index             |
| GPR | Geopolitical risk index          |
| NRD | Nuclear energy R&D investments   |
| RRD | Renewable energy R&D investments |

### Sample countries

|     |                |
|-----|----------------|
| FRA | France         |
| GBR | United Kingdom |
| SWE | Sweden         |

## 1. Introduction

Addressing negative externalities of economic development on the environment and ensuring ES is of great importance for policymakers in the modern era. Several steps have been taken since the UN Conference on the Human Environment in 1972 to limit anthropogenic effects on nature and harmonize increasing economic welfare and environmental pollution reduction targets. Therefore, the sustainability concept has been at the centre of economic and environmental goals, and increasing productivity and efficiency of resources have gained significance alongside limiting resource use and environmental pollution. In this context, R&D activities have become crucial. Indeed, SDGs pay specific attention to R&D efforts, of which three sub-goals of SDG-8 (specifically, 8.2, 8.3, and 8.4) are related to R&D (UN, 2023).

Eco-innovation is the traditional strategy to increase ES and economic performance (Lee and Min, 2015). Promotion of R&D activities is a need for firms and governments because of bringing a win-win opportunity. Thus, He (2006) outlined that increasing R&D efforts can increase the productivity level by boosting technical efficiency, which may help strengthen the technique effect of economic development as envisaged in the EKC hypothesis. Also, Jin *et al.* (2023) stated that increasing R&D and innovation investments particularly in the energy sector can help the development of eco-friendly technologies to curb excessive resource use and environmental deterioration. So, increasing eco-friendly technology research investments can help reallocate resources that revise production structures, increase productivity and reduce energy use and greenhouse gas emissions. Moreover, increasing R&D investments promotes invention of technologies enabling production of fewer pollutants and less waste. In this way, R&D investments can be an effective tool for achieving environmental targets (Mushafiq and Prusak, 2023; Pata, Caglar, *et al.*, 2023).

However, some researchers have asserted that R&D investments in environmental technologies are expenditures without economic benefits. Walley and Whitehead (1994) emphasized that environmental initiatives may not always increase economic performance because of the high costs of environmental challenges. So, R&D investments may not produce envisaged results in environmental performance. Palmer *et al.* (1995) suggested that R&D activities have an inherent ambiguity. Thus, R&D investments in environmental technologies may not pay off. Ambec and Lanoie (2008) stated that the environmental market mechanism can successfully allocate scarce resources. Thus, intervention in market mechanisms (*e.g.*, boosting or cutting R&D expenditures) may not help in addressing environmental problems. Therefore, how R&D investments affect environmental performance is an ambiguous research topic.

Moreover, Al-Mulali and Öztürk (2015) unveiled that both internal and international political circumstances can affect environmental performance as much as economic factors. In this regard,

environmental regulations may not be successfully implemented during times of political instability and the use of production technologies and materials against environmental standards can easily spread, which causes an increase in environmental pollution. Abid (2016) asserted that poor political conjuncture can be associated with weaker environmental implementations. Simionescu *et al.* (2023) reported that political instability can increase environmental damage and hinders the positive effects of incentives. Besides, historical evidence has shown that environmental harm of violence and turmoil increase when political instability rises. For instance, burning oil wells during Iraq–Kuwait and Iraq – United States wars caused extra greenhouse gas emissions. So, decreasing political stability can hinder investments and economic development. Thus, resource use, consumption and production can weaken and environmental pollution may not increase.

Furthermore, Riti *et al.* (2022) stated that rising GPR because of international conflicts can reduce the effectiveness of environmental initiatives. In this regard, GPR can change the behaviour of economic agents and policymakers. Increasing GPR can hinder investment in ecological technologies by entrepreneurs and incentives provided by governments. Du and Wang (2023) reported that GPR can hurdle financing eco-friendly investments. For example, some European countries have reverted to coal use for powering economic activities (IEA, 2023a) because of high GPR due to the Russia-Ukraine conflict and sanctions applied against Russia (Kartal, Pata *et al.*, 2023). Increasing GPR can change the composition of public spending, scarce resources can be withdrawn from productive areas, and environmental budgets can be allocated to unproductive areas. Also, rising GPR can lead to conventional wars, which have serious environmental consequences. For instance, the recent Nova Kakhovka dam incident in Ukraine, because of the continuing war, has caused a huge flood and natural disaster. Thus, increasing GPR can have adverse effects on every economic aspect including R&D efforts (Anser, Syed, Apergis, 2021; Anser, Syed, Lean, *et al.*, 2021b). So, economic performance can decline during high GPR times, resource use decreases, anthropogenic effect on nature may weaken and the trend of environmental pollution can revert.

By considering the above discussion, the answer to the question “*How do PS, GPR and R&D investments affect environmental pollution?*” is not clear. So, the main objective of this study is to investigate the effect of PS, GPR and R&D investments on the environmental performance of leading European countries for the period between 1985/1 and 2020/12 by performing quantile methods. In this way, the study makes the following unique contributions. Firstly, understanding the effects of PS and GPR on environmental quality can provide evidence for policymakers to shape domestic and international policies for internalizing the externalities of PS and GPR on the environment. Secondly, understanding how R&D investments drive environmental performance can provide key evidence for policymakers regarding the ecological efficiency of R&D activities. This can help shape R&D policies and reallocate resources. Thirdly,

using quantile methods allows researchers to understand the nature of the interactions between mentioned variables in different quantiles. This enables researchers to make inferences about the changes in the interactions in different quantiles. Moreover, the use of quantile-based methods can serve better in capturing non-linearities and provide robust results.

The introduction is followed by a literature review, methods, results, and a conclusion section, in said order.

## 2. Literature Review

Understanding the environmental effects of economic activities is one of the current debate topics for researchers since the prominent papers of Grossman and Krueger (1991). Early studies focused on unveiling the effect of traditional economic indicators (*e.g.*, investments, trade openness, foreign direct investment, urbanization) on the environment (Nurgazina *et al.*, 2022). The second wave of the research has investigated the effect of input-based variables (*e.g.*, electricity, renewable energy consumption and non-renewable energy consumption) on environmental performance (Pata and Çağlar, 2021; Ulussever *et al.*, 2023; Adebayo *et al.*, 2023; Akhayere *et al.*, 2023; Kartal, 2023; Pata, Erdoğan, Ozkan, 2023; Ullah *et al.*, 2023; Wang, Chandavuth, *et al.*, 2023). Besides, most of the empirical research has adopted the EKC hypothesis (Shahbaz and Sinha, 2019; Pata and Kartal, 2023). Another wave of empirical papers has focused on the type of economic activities, such as disaggregated infrastructure investments (Erdogan *et al.*, 2020), industry share in GDP (Pata, 2018; Apergis and Öztürk, 2015), agricultural value added (Agboola and Bekun, 2019; Pata, 2021), tourism (Okumus and Erdogan, 2021), disaggregated transport demand (Erdogan *et al.*, 2022) and economic growth (Ahmad, Ahmed, Khan, *et al.*, 2023; Ahmad, Ahmed, Riaz, *et al.*, 2023; Dai *et al.*, 2023) in terms of their effect on environmental performance.

Moreover, recent investigations have been focusing on the effect of institutions that determine the general framework of interactions among economic agents through various factors, such as democracy, corruption, rule of law, accountability, PS, GPR and R&D efforts. Some of the prominent recent studies about the effects of PS, GPR and R&D on the environment are presented in Table 1 with a summarized approach.

**Table 1: Literature on effect of PS, GPR and R&D on environmental degradation**

| Authors  | Sample countries             | Period          | Methodology                            | Results                   |
|--|------------------------------|-----------------|--|---------------------------|
| <b>Panel A: PS</b>                               |                              |                 |  |                           |
| <b>Al-Mulali and Öztürk (2015)</b>               | MENA                         | 1996–2012       | FMOLS                                  | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Abid (2016)</b>                               | 25 Sub-Saharan African       | 1996–2010       | GMM                                    | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Adebayo (2022)</b>                            | Canada                       | 1990–2018       | ARDL                                   | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Bildirici (2022)</b>                          | MENA and Sub-Saharan African | 1996–2018       | FMOLS, DOLS                            | Political governance (+)  |
| <b>Kartal <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>               | Finland                      | 1990/Q1–2019/Q4 | NARDL                                  | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Kirikaleli <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>           | China                        | 1990/Q1–2018/Q4 | FMOLS, DOLS                            | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Sohail <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>               | Pakistan                     | 1990–2019       | ARDL, NARDL                            | Political instability (M) |
| <b>Awosusi <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>              | Turkey                       | 1970–2018       | NARDL                                  | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Ayhan <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>                | G-7                          | 1997–2021       | QQ                                     | PS (M)                    |
| <b>Farooq <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>               | BRICS                        | 2000–2019       | FMOLS, DOLS                            | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Kartal, Kılıç Depren <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b> | United Kingdom               | 1995/Q1–2018/Q4 | NARDL                                  | Political instability (M) |
| <b>Kılıç Depren <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>         | Iceland                      | 1995/Q1–2019/Q4 | NARDL                                  | PS (–)                    |
| <b>Simionescu <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>           | 11 CEE                       | 2007–2021       | DOLS, FMOLS, CCE                       | PS (+)                    |
| <b>Panel B: GPR</b>                              |                              |                 |  |                           |
| <b>Anser, Syed, Apergis (2021)</b>               | BRICS                        | 1985–2015       | AMG                                    | GPR (+)                   |
| <b>Anser, Syed, Lean, <i>et al.</i> (2021)</b>   | Emerging economies           | 1995–2015       | AMG, FMOLS, DOLS                       | GPR (–)                   |
| <b>Zhao <i>et al.</i> (2021)</b>                 | BRICS                        | 1985–2019       | NARDL                                  | GPR (M)                   |
| <b>Hashmi <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>               | Global level                 | 1970–2015       | Bootstrap ARDL                         | GPR (–)                   |
| <b>Ul Husnain <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>           | E7                           | 1990–2015       | AMG                                    | GPR (–)                   |
| <b>Riti <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>                 | BRICS                        | 1985–2020       | Panel ARDL                             | GPR (M)                   |
| <b>Syed <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>                 | BRICST                       | 1990–2015       | CCE, AMG                               | GPR (M)                   |
| <b>Du &amp; Wang (2023)</b>                      | China                        | 1995–2020       | Quantile ARDL                          | GPR (+)                   |
| <b>Li <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>                   | BRICS                        | 2000/1–2021/1   | CSARDL                                 | GPR (–)                   |
| <b>Nawaz <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>                | Italy                        | 1997–2019       | ARDL, WC                               | GPR (–)                   |
| <b>Pata &amp; Ertuğrul (2023)</b>                | India                        | 1988–2018       | ARDL                                   | GPR (*)                   |
| <b>Sweidan (2023)</b>                            | Selected 18                  | 1992–2018       | Two-way fixed Prais-Winsten regression | GPR (M)                   |
| <b>Wang, Niu, <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>           | China                        | 1988–2021       | QR                                     | GPR (+)                   |
| <b>Panel C: R&amp;D</b>                          |                              |                 |  |                           |
| <b>Lee &amp; Min (2015)</b>                      | Japanese firms               | 2001–2010       | Panel regression                       | Green R&D (–)             |
| <b>Liu &amp; Lin (2019)</b>                      | China                        | 2000–2015       | Spatial methods                        | R&D investments (–)       |
| <b>Bilgili <i>et al.</i> (2021)</b>              | 13 developed                 | 2003–2018       | Panel QR                               | Energy R&D (M)            |
| <b>Chen <i>et al.</i> (2021)</b>                 | China                        | 2000–2016       | FMOLS                                  | R&D investments (–)       |
| <b>Jiang <i>et al.</i> (2022)</b>                | G7                           | 1990–2020       | CSARDL                                 | Environmental R&D (–)     |
| <b>Baba Ali <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>             | EU                           | 1996–2018       | Panel QR                               | R&D expenditures (–)      |
| <b>Mushafiq &amp; Prusak (2023)</b>              | EU                           | 2000–2020       | ARDL, NARDL                            | R&D expenditures (+)      |
| <b>Jin <i>et al.</i> (2023)</b>                  | Germany                      | 1974–2018       | AARDL, DOLS                            | Energy R&D (M)            |
| <b>Pata, Kartal, Erdoğan (2023)</b>              | Germany                      | 1974–2018       | Fourier ADL                            | Energy R&D (M)            |

Note: +: positive effect; –: negative effect; M: mixed results; \*: statistically insignificant effect.

Source: Authors' own elaboration

As can be seen from Table 1, the apparent characteristics of the former literature are as follows. On the methodological aspect, firstly, a great part of the former studies has investigated the effects of PS, GPR and R&D on environmental performance on multi-country samples. Secondly, first-generation panel data methods have been used widely and the possibility of cross-sectional dependence has frequently emerged in estimations, which may lead authors to estimate and infer in a biased way (Acaravci and Erdogan, 2017). Thirdly, the studies adopting time-series analyses have widely utilized linear estimation methods.

On the policy aspects, firstly, it can be inferred that exploring the environmental effects of PS, GPR and R&D is an immature research topic compared to studies investigating the role of traditional variables on environmental performance. Secondly, there is no consensus among studies on how PS, GPR and R&D drive environmental pollution. Thirdly, a few studies have investigated the environmental effects of PS by using different proxy indicators (*e.g.*, political governance, political instability, PRI). Fourthly, there has not been a consensus on which R&D indicators should be used in the estimation of the environmental effects of R&D investments. So, the studies have used either total R&D investments or energy-related R&D investments.

Unlike the previous studies, the present research seeks to answer how PS, GPR and R&D investments affect environmental pollution in leading European countries by employing monthly data and adopting several quantile estimation methods. Employing monthly data allows researchers to consider detailed characteristics of the data while utilizing quantile methods provides an opportunity to obtain information on how regressors affect environmental performance in different quantiles and consider possible non-linearities in the data. Thus, the study makes unique contributions to the literature on the mentioned aspects.

### 3. Methods

This study provides a comprehensive overview of the variables used, the data sources and the units of measurement as well as detailed explanations of these variables. Furthermore, it outlines the methodological steps employed throughout the research process.

#### 3.1 Data

The availability of data for the variables taken into consideration determines the sample period, which extends from 1985 to 2020. As the dependent variables, this study uses the LCF, which is the most comprehensive ES indicator, and the GFN (2023) is the data source for the LCF. Also, the PRS Group (2023) provided the data for the PRI, and the GPR data are sourced from Iacoviello (2023). Moreover, data for the NRD and RRD are gathered from the IEA (2023b). Detailed information about the variables can be found in Table 2.

**Table 2: Variables**

| Variable | Explanation                      | Unit        | Source            |
|----------|----------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| LCF      | Load capacity factor*            | GHA         | GFN (2023)        |
| PRI      | Country political risk index     | BPS         | PRS Group (2023)  |
| GPR      | Country geopolitical risk index  | BPS         | Iacoviello (2023) |
| NRD      | Nuclear energy R&D investments   | Million USD | IEA (2023b)       |
| RRD      | Renewable energy R&D investments | Million USD | IEA (2023b)       |

Note: \* denotes the dependent variable.

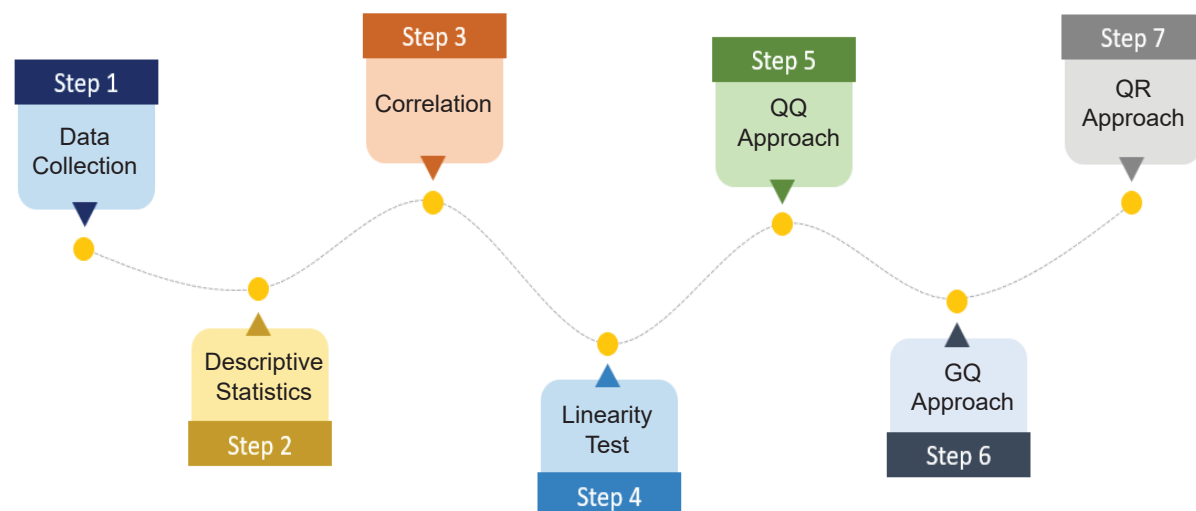
Source: Authors’ own elaboration

Taking into account that the PRI and GPR data are published monthly, while the data for the LCF, NRD and RRD are issued yearly, this study applies the quadratic-sum method, as suggested by Balçılar *et al.* (2016), Ali *et al.* (2021) and Shahbaz *et al.* (2023), to convert the LCF, NRD and RRD data into monthly frequencies. The entire dataset undergoes a logarithmic difference transformation. The study utilizes monthly data spanning from 1985/1 to 2020/12 for three leading European countries (namely, FRA, SWE and GBR).

### 3.2. Empirical methodology

Figure 1 illustrates the framework utilized in the empirical analysis. The methodology proposed in this study consists of seven essential steps, all designed to further the exploration of the research objectives and enable the investigation of causal relationships between variables.

**Figure 1: Empirical methodology process**



Source: Authors’ own elaboration



The methodology begins with the crucial initial phase of data collection, encompassing the compilation of pertinent data from four distinct sources.

Subsequently, the second and third steps involve conducting a preliminary analysis, which serves as a foundational step in comprehending the data and variables under scrutiny. This analysis entails the calculation of descriptive statistics, providing a concise summary of key characteristics and distributional properties of the variables. Furthermore, a correlation analysis is executed to explore relationships among the variables. Additionally, a normality test is conducted to evaluate the assumption of normal distribution, which holds significance for numerous statistical analyses.

As the methodology progresses, the fourth step focuses on testing fundamental assumptions underlying the dataset, thereby ensuring the validity of subsequent analyses. An assessment of linearity (BDS test) is conducted to evaluate the non-linear characteristics of the variables, thus determining the suitability of non-linear models for subsequent analyses (Broock *et al.*, 1996).

In the fifth and sixth steps, QQ and GQ approaches are conducted to measure the quantile-based relationship and causality, respectively. In contrast to conventional approaches that primarily concentrate on mean-based relationships, the QQ approach offers a deeper exploration of the connections at distinct quantiles or specific points within the distribution (Sim & Zhou, 2015). Through an examination of the associations specific to each quantile, this approach yields a more comprehensive comprehension of how variables interrelate across diverse segments of the distribution. Furthermore, the study utilizes the GQ approach to investigate quantile-based causality. Unlike traditional causality measures such as correlation or regression that primarily focus on mean effects, the GQ approach expands the analysis to encompass causal relationships at different quantiles of the distribution (Troster, 2018).

Lastly, the study incorporates the QR method to conduct for robustness. The inclusion of the QR analysis serves as an additional verification measure to ensure the consistency of the findings obtained through the QQ approach (Koenker, 2005).

## 4. Results

The findings begin by undertaking the calculation of preliminary statistics, which involves computing key summary measures and descriptive statistics to gain initial insights into the data. Additionally, correlations between variables are examined to assess the strength and direction of their relationships. This correlation analysis aids in identifying potential associations and dependencies among the variables under investigation. Furthermore, a test of linearity is conducted to evaluate the non-linear characteristics of the variables, assessing the appropriateness of non-linear models for subsequent analyses.

The study employs advanced quantitative methods to explore the data further. The QQ approach investigates quantile-specific relationships, providing a comprehensive understanding of variable associations across different quantiles. The GQ approach explores quantile-based causality relationships. Also, the study includes the QR approach as a robustness check, evaluating relationships in various quantiles. These methods enhance the analysis and ensure reliable findings.

## 4.1. Preliminary statistics

Table 3 provides an overview of the measures of central tendency and variation statistics, accompanied by the outcomes of the normality test.

**Table 3: Descriptive statistics**

| Country    | Variable | Mean  | Min.  | Max.  | Std. dev. | Jarque–Bera | Prob.  |
|------------|----------|-------|-------|-------|-----------|-------------|--------|
| <b>FRA</b> | LCF      | 0.04  | 0.04  | 0.05  | 0.00      | 79.24       | 0.0000 |
|            | PRI      | 77.09 | 67.50 | 85.00 | 3.67      | 30.88       | 0.0000 |
|            | GPR      | 0.52  | 0.14  | 2.80  | 0.31      | 4,046.61    | 0.0000 |
|            | NRD      | 63.11 | 41.77 | 95.59 | 8.52      | 33.03       | 0.0000 |
|            | RRD      | 9.09  | 0.26  | 25.14 | 8.93      | 54.56       | 0.0000 |
| <b>SWE</b> | LCF      | 0.14  | 0.10  | 0.17  | 0.01      | 8.80        | 0.0123 |
|            | PRI      | 86.74 | 78.00 | 93.50 | 3.29      | 36.76       | 0.0000 |
|            | GPR      | 0.04  | 0.00  | 0.28  | 0.03      | 2,391.97    | 0.0000 |
|            | NRD      | 0.81  | 0.03  | 2.03  | 0.61      | 51.81       | 0.0000 |
|            | RRD      | 3.03  | 0.80  | 7.40  | 1.51      | 45.20       | 0.0000 |
| <b>GBR</b> | LCF      | 0.02  | 0.02  | 0.02  | 0.00      | 50.99       | 0.0000 |
|            | PRI      | 82.04 | 73.00 | 92.50 | 4.20      | 19.72       | 0.0001 |
|            | GPR      | 0.93  | 0.23  | 5.99  | 0.61      | 16,594.11   | 0.0000 |
|            | NRD      | 14.23 | 2.38  | 68.20 | 14.54     | 174.99      | 0.0000 |
|            | RRD      | 6.09  | 0.55  | 23.42 | 5.21      | 98.68       | 0.0000 |

Source: Authors' own calculations

In FRA, the LCF variable exhibits a relatively stable pattern, with a mean of 0.04 and a small standard deviation of 0.01. The PRI variable stands out with a higher mean of 77.09, suggesting a comparatively lower level. The GPR variable shows moderate variability, as indicated by a mean of 0.52 and a standard deviation of 0.31. The NRD variable displays a wide range of values, with a mean of 63.11 and a standard deviation of 8.52. Similarly, the RRD variable demonstrates considerable variability, with a mean of 9.09 and a standard deviation of 8.93.

Moving to SWE, the LCF variable shows a higher mean value of 0.14, indicating a relatively higher level compared to FRA. The PRI variable stands out with the highest mean value among the three countries, indicating a relatively higher level. On the other hand, the GPR variable exhibits a low mean of 0.04, suggesting a lower level compared to FRA and GBR.

The LCF variable for GBR has the lowest mean value of 0.02 among the three countries, indicating a relatively lower level. The PRI variable exhibits a mean of 82.04, suggesting a moderate level. The GPR variable shows high variability, with a mean of 0.93 and a relatively large standard deviation of 0.61. The NRD variable demonstrates a wide range of values, with a mean of 14.23 and a standard deviation of 14.54. Moreover, the Jarque–Bera test statistics reveal that the variables examined in each country do not satisfy the underlying assumption of normality.

In Table 4, the correlation matrix provides insights into the relationships between variables across the different countries.

**Table 4: Correlation matrix**

| Country    |     | LCF   | PRI   | GPR   | NRD  | RRD  |
|------------|-----|-------|-------|-------|------|------|
| <b>FRA</b> | LCF | 1.00  |       |       |      |      |
|            | PRI | 0.05  | 1.00  |       |      |      |
|            | GPR | −0.01 | −0.04 | 1.00  |      |      |
|            | NRD | 0.50  | 0.02  | −0.03 | 1.00 |      |
|            | RRD | 0.31  | 0.07  | −0.01 | 0.47 | 1.00 |
| <b>SWE</b> | LCF | 1.00  |       |       |      |      |
|            | PRI | 0.01  | 1.00  |       |      |      |
|            | GPR | −0.04 | −0.06 | 1.00  |      |      |
|            | NRD | 0.08  | −0.02 | 0.04  | 1.00 |      |
|            | RRD | 0.43  | 0.05  | 0.03  | 0.29 | 1.00 |
| <b>GBR</b> | LCF | 1.00  |       |       |      |      |
|            | PRI | 0.01  | 1.00  |       |      |      |
|            | GPR | −0.05 | −0.07 | 1.00  |      |      |
|            | NRD | 0.24  | 0.03  | −0.01 | 1.00 |      |
|            | RRD | −0.20 | −0.06 | 0.03  | 0.27 | 1.00 |

Source: Authors’ own calculations

In FRA, the variables LCF and PRI exhibit a weak positive correlation ( $r = 0.05$ ), while LCF and NRD show a moderate positive correlation ( $r = 0.50$ ). Additionally, LCF and RRD demonstrate a moderate positive correlation ( $r = 0.31$ ). However, the variables GPR and all other variables have negligible correlations. The correlations between variables considered in this study are generally weak, with the highest correlation observed between LCF and RRD ( $r = 0.43$ ) in SWE. Similarly, the correlations are predominantly weak, with a negative correlation observed between RRD and LCF ( $r = -0.20$ ) in GBR. Overall, the correlation matrix highlights the varying degrees of association between the variables in different countries, indicating the presence of both positive and negative relationships.

Table 5 presents the linearity test results.

**Table 5: Linearity test results**

| Country | Variables | Dimensions |        |        |        |        | Results |
|---------|-----------|------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
|         |           | 2          | 3      | 4      | 5      | 6      |         |
| FRA     | LCF       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | PRI       | 0.0088     | 0.0031 | 0.0008 | 0.0014 | 0.0023 | N-L     |
|         | GPR       | 0.0015     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | NRD       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | RRD       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
| SWE     | LCF       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | PRI       | 0.1858     | 0.620  | 0.0137 | 0.0009 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | GPR       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | NRD       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | RRD       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
| GBR     | LCF       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | PRI       | 0.0002     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | GPR       | 0.0030     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | NRD       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |
|         | RRD       | 0.0000     | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | 0.0000 | N-L     |

Note: Values indicate  $p$ -values. N-L implies non-linear.

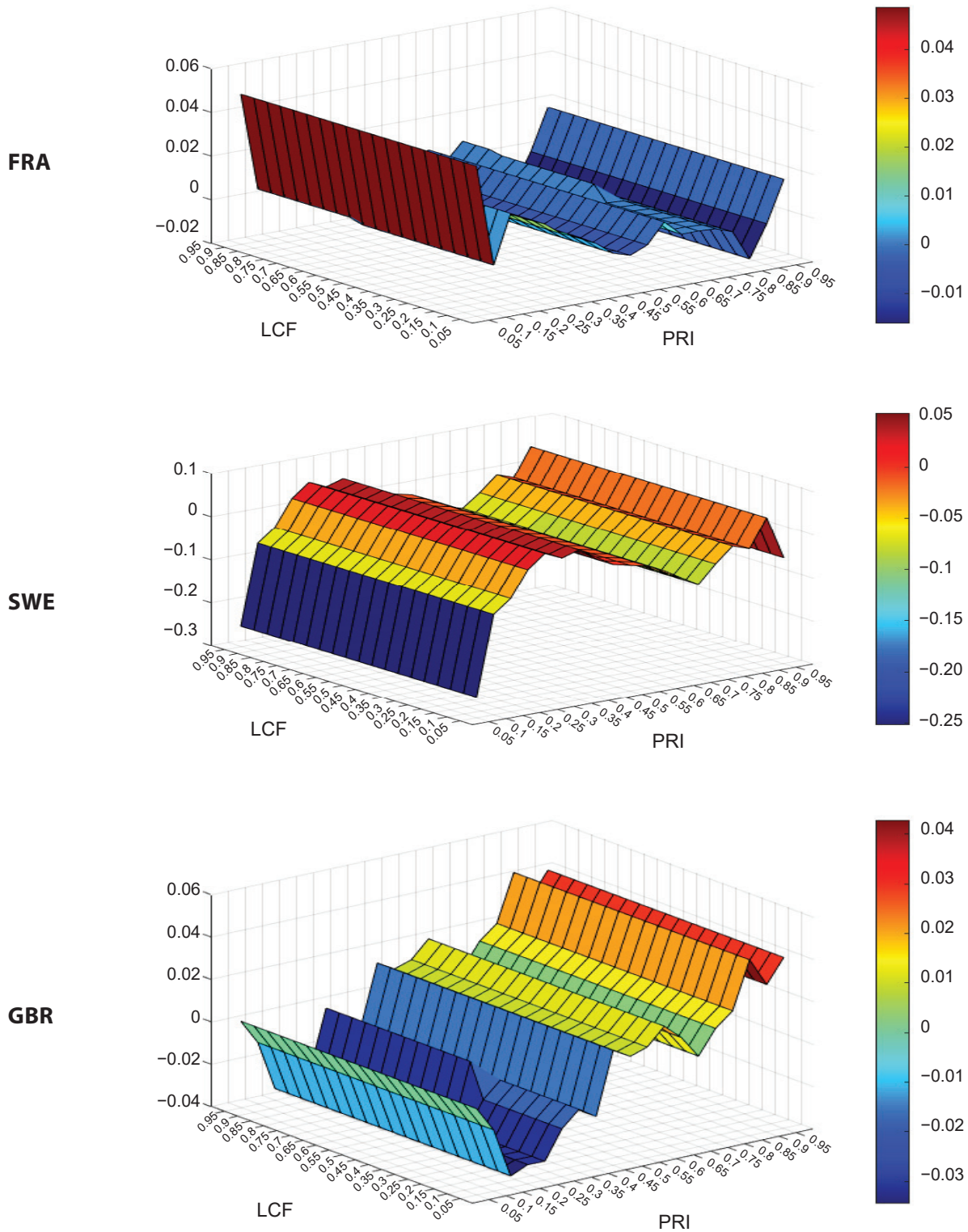
Source: Authors' own calculations

Table 5 shows the results of the linearity tests conducted for each variable in different countries. The dimensions of linearity, ranging from 2 to 6, are assessed, and the results are reported. In FRA, all the variables (LCF, PRI, GPR, NRD, RRD) exhibit a lack of linearity, as indicated by the N-L designation across all the dimensions tested. Similarly, in SWE and GBR, all the variables show a lack of linearity across the dimensions tested, with the results consistently indicating N-L with  $p$ -values of 0.0000. Notably, for SWE, there is a slight deviation in the linearity results for PRI in dimension 2, with a  $p$ -value of 0.1858, but it remains statistically significant. Overall, the linearity results suggest that the relationships between the variables in each country are non-linear, emphasizing the importance of considering non-linear modelling techniques in subsequent analyses.

## 4.2. QQ results

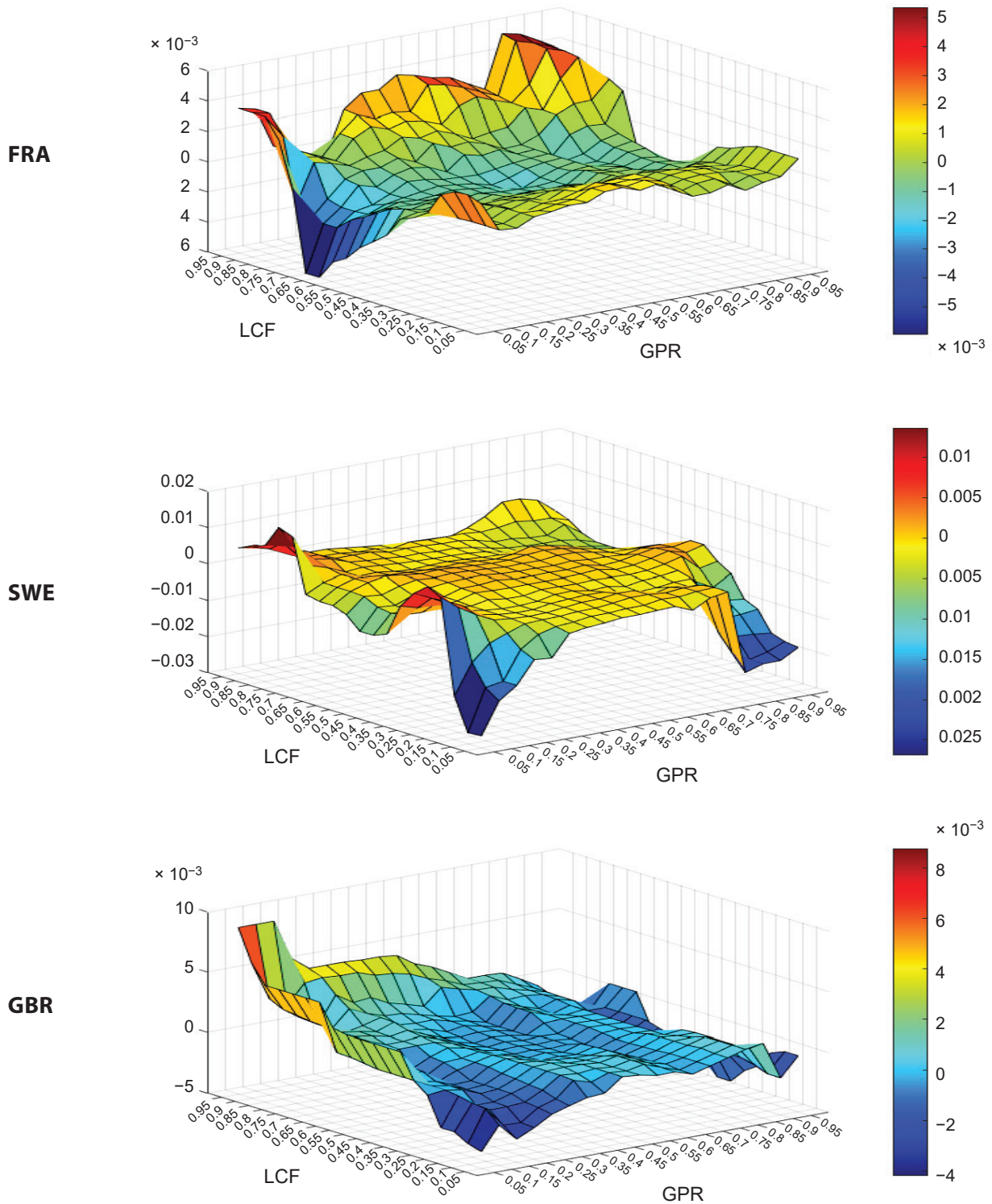
The QQ approach is a comprehensive methodology that investigates quantile-based effects, offering insights into how variations in one variable affect the distribution of another across various quantiles. The QQ approach is performed and the findings for each country are displayed in Figure 2.

Figure 2: PRI effect on LCF



Source: Authors' own elaboration

**Figure 3: GPR effect on LCF**



Source: Authors' own elaboration

It can be seen that the effect of PRI on LCF for FRA is relatively weak for each quantile as indicated from  $-0.01$  to  $0.04$ . However, this effect is relatively strong and negative in SWE, especially in the lower quantiles of PRI. Also, this effect varies from  $-0.05$  to  $0.05$  in the quantiles higher than  $0.20$  of PRI. In GBR, the effect of PRI on LCF has different characteristics than in FRA and SWE. Moreover, the sign turns from negative to positive in the area where the quantile of PRI is higher than  $0.50$ . The relationship between PRI and LCF demonstrates an interesting pattern. With the upper quantiles of  $0.5$ , as the quantiles of PRI increase, a negative effect is found on LCF. However, in the area where PRI quantiles exceed  $0.5$ , the effect on LCF increases with the lower to upper quantiles of PRI.

Figure 3 illustrates the relationship between GPR and LCF in each country.

The effect of GPR on LCF exhibits a more complicated structure within each country. In FRA, a relatively low effect is observed in the area that combines the middle quantiles of the LCF ( $0.40$ – $0.70$ ) with the lower quantiles of the GPR ( $0.05$ – $0.20$ ). Conversely, the effect of GPR on LCF is relatively high in the area that combines the lower quantiles ( $0.20$ ) with the upper quantiles of the LCF ( $0.80$ ). For SWE, the effect of GPR on LCF remains close to  $0$  across most areas, except at the points along the diagonal of the figure. In fact, the effect becomes relatively significant at these specific points. The results indicate that the effect of GPR on LCF in GBR is predominantly negative across various quantile combinations. However, there is one exceptional area, where the quantiles of LCF exceed  $0.75$  and the quantiles of GPR fall below  $0.35$ . In this particular region, the effect is noticeably positive.

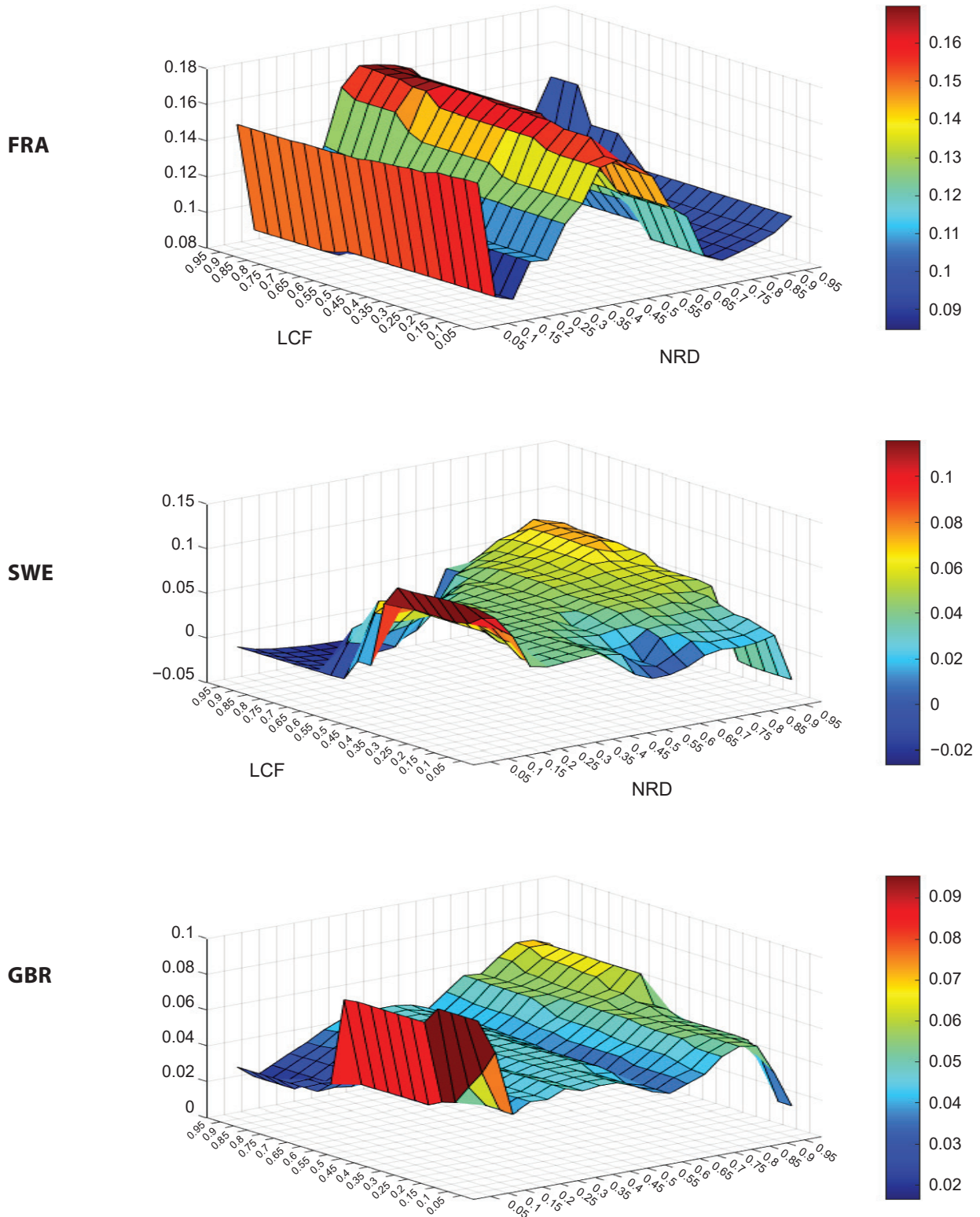
Figure 4 depicts the relationship between NRD and LCF in each country.

In the case of FRA, a significant relationship is observed in the NRD quantiles ranging from  $0.30$  to  $0.55$ . However, the effect is characterized as positive yet comparatively weak in other areas. In contrast to FRA, the relationship between NRD and LCF in SWE and GBR exhibits distinct characteristics. Specifically, within the range where the LCF quantiles exceed  $0.50$  and NRD quantiles fall below  $0.50$ , a weaker relationship is observed regarding the influence of NRD on LCF in both countries. Conversely, in the region where LCF quantiles are below  $0.50$  and NRD quantiles are below  $0.25$ , the effect of NRD on LCF is noticeably strong. Across other areas, most of the effect ranges from  $0.02$  to  $0.06$ .

Figure 5 demonstrates the relationship between RRD and LCF in each country.

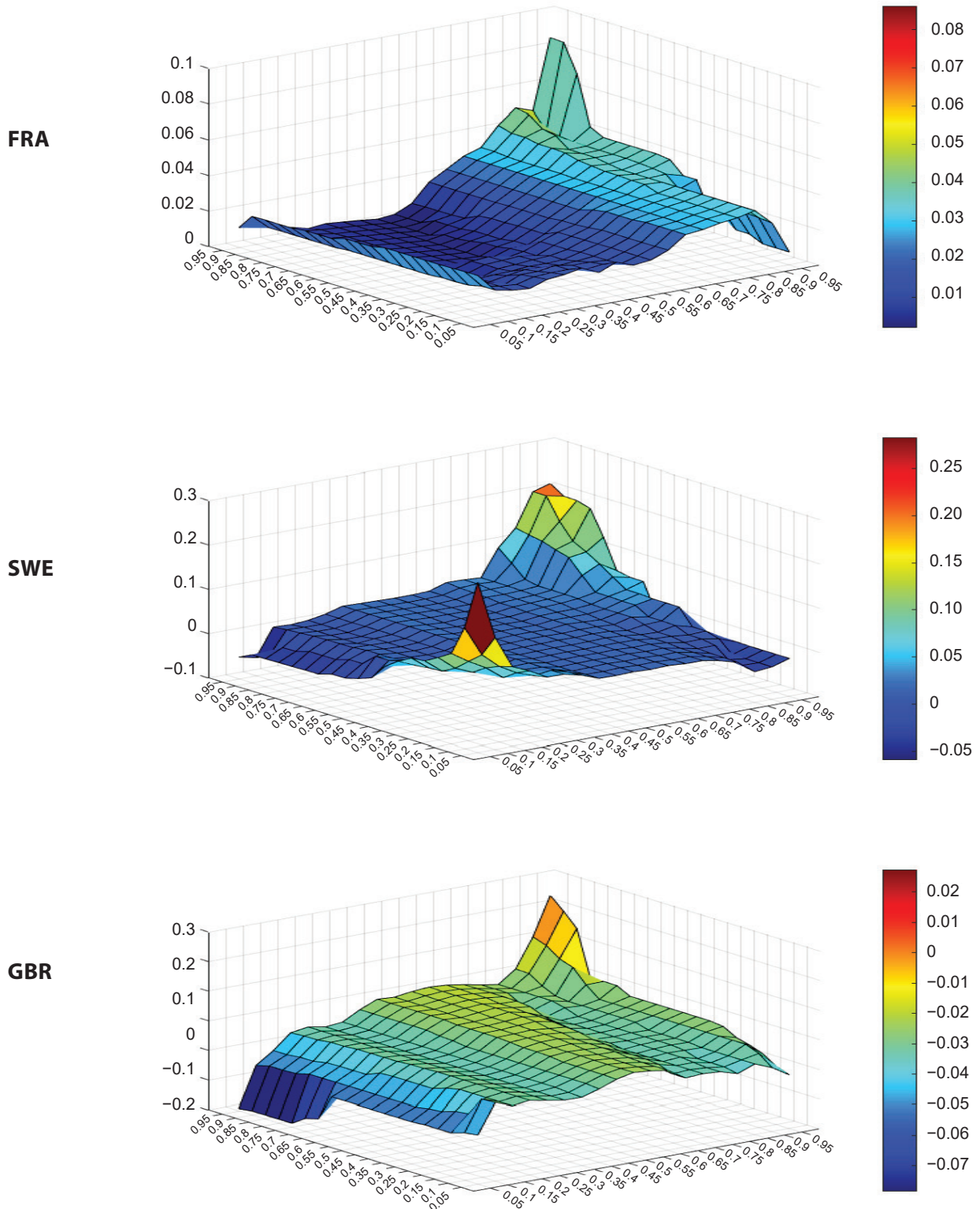


**Figure 4: NRD effect on LCF**



Source: Authors' own elaboration

Figure 5: RRD effect on LCF



Source: Authors' own elaboration

The influence of RRD on LCF falls within the range from  $-0.03$  to  $0.03$  for nearly all the combinations of quantiles in the three countries, except in certain instances characterized by diagonal combinations of quantiles. These exceptional areas can be identified as follows: Firstly, they correspond to the combinations of the highest quantiles of both RRD and LCF in FRA. Secondly, in SWE, they encompass the combinations of the highest quantiles of both RRD and LCF, as well as the combinations of the lowest quantiles of both RRD and LCF. Lastly, they involve the combinations of the highest quantiles of both RRD and LCF in GBR, as well as the region formed by the highest quantiles of LCF and the lowest quantiles of RRD.

### 4.3 GQ results

The GQ approach is applied to uncover the causal relationships between variables in each country, and the findings are reported in Table 6. It displays the path of causality and the corresponding tau values for various levels (*i.e.*, quantiles) ranging from 0.05 to 0.95.

**Table 6: GQ results**

| Country | Causality | Tau  |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |      |
|---------|-----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
|         |           | 0.05 | 0.10 | 0.15 | 0.20 | 0.25 | 0.30 | 0.35 | 0.40 | 0.45 | 0.50 | 0.55 | 0.60 | 0.65 | 0.70 | 0.75 | 0.80 | 0.85 | 0.90 | 0.95 |
| FRA     | PRI → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.43 | 0.51 | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | GPR → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.41 | 0.54 | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | NRD → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.43 | 0.51 | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | RRD → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.04 | 0.43 | 0.51 | 0.02 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| SWE     | PRI → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.51 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | GPR → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.58 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | NRD → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.50 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | RRD → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.51 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
| GBR     | PRI → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.50 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | GPR → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.51 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | NRD → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.50 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |
|         | RRD → LCF | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.01 | 0.50 | 0.01 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.00 |

Note: Numbers represent *p*-values.

Source: Authors' own calculations

In FRA, the  $p$ -values associated with the causality paths PRI  $\rightarrow$  LCF, GPR  $\rightarrow$  LCF, NRD  $\rightarrow$  LCF and RRD  $\rightarrow$  LCF are all 0.00 for all the significance levels tested, except the 0.45 and 0.50 quantiles. These  $p$ -values indicate strong evidence to reject the null hypothesis, which suggests a significant causal relationship between the variables. In both SWE and GBR, the  $p$ -values for all the causal paths (PRI  $\rightarrow$  LCF, GPR  $\rightarrow$  LCF, NRD  $\rightarrow$  LCF, and RRD  $\rightarrow$  LCF) in almost all quantiles except 0.50 are consistently 0.00 for all the significance levels. This implies strong statistical evidence to support the presence of a significant causal relationship between the variables except for the middle quantile. It is important to note that the  $p$ -values represent the likelihood of observing the test results under the assumption of no causal relationship. Therefore, the extremely low  $p$ -values obtained in this analysis suggest strong evidence in favour of the alternative hypothesis, implying the presence of a causal relationship. Overall, the GQ results provide substantial statistical support for the presence of significant causal relationships between the variables in FRA, SWE and GBR.

#### 4.4 Robustness test by QR approach

Table 7 demonstrates the results of the robustness test, specifically examining the correlation percentages between the QQ and QR approaches for different variables in each country.

**Table 7: Comparison of QQ and QR approaches**

| Country | Variable  | Correlation (%) |
|---------|-----------|-----------------|
| FRA     | PRI & LCF | 99.77           |
|         | GPR & LCF | 70.39           |
|         | NRD & LCF | 99.26           |
|         | GPR & LCF | 98.28           |
| SWE     | PRI & LCF | 99.99           |
|         | GPR & LCF | 91.61           |
|         | NRD & LCF | 38.30           |
|         | GPR & LCF | 16.82           |
| GBR     | PRI & LCF | 99.83           |
|         | GPR & LCF | 90.72           |
|         | NRD & LCF | 86.08           |
|         | GPR & LCF | 97.04           |

Source: Authors' own calculations

In both FRA and GBR, the observed correlations between variables exceed the threshold of 70%, suggesting a robust and significant positive association. In SWE, the correlations between PRI and LCF as well as GPR and LCF exhibit remarkable strength, exceeding the 90% mark, thus underscoring a highly pronounced positive correlation. Only the relationship between NRD versus LCF as well as GPR versus LCF in SWE is weak. These correlation percentages demonstrate the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables under investigation. The high correlation values observed in several cases indicate a strong positive relationship, whereas lower values indicate weaker positive relationships.

Bearing these results in mind, the analysis presents a high level of compatibility between the findings derived from two distinct approaches. This is due, in part, to the fact that the results obtained through both approaches align closely, indicating consistency and coherence in the observed outcomes. This convergence of findings lends additional credibility to the robustness and reliability of the research outcomes.

## 5. Conclusion and Policy Options

### 5.1 Conclusion

ES has been attributed importance for countries, societies and people. Accordingly, policymakers and scholars have been dealing with ES much more frequently in recent times. Also, the tension between Russia and Ukraine has resulted in increasing geopolitical risk and a recent energy crisis that hit European countries severely. Thus, European countries have had to make a hard decision for the trade-off between ensuring ES, supplying necessary energy and sustaining economic growth. Some European countries have postponed the phase-out of nuclear power and extended the lifetime of current nuclear power plants, whereas some others have relied more on fossil fuel sources. However, such decisions are of a short-term nature. Instead of these, European countries should focus on long-term solutions to get rid of the trade-off between the environment, energy and economy.

By considering the critical energy decisions that EU countries have faced, the study examines ES by including the effect of PS, GPR and R&D investments in nuclear and renewable energy. In this context, three leading European countries have been investigated for the period between 1985/1 and 2020/12 by applying novel quantile models. In summary, the study revealed that (i) increasing PS stimulates the ES in Sweden and the United Kingdom; (ii) increasing GPR develops the ES in France; (iii) R&D investments increase the ES in all the countries; (iv) there are generally causal effects from the explanatory variables to the ES except some quantiles (0.45–0.50) in all the countries; (v) the power effects of the variables differentiate according to countries, quantiles and variables; (vi) the alternative approach validates the robustness.

The results of the study are fundamentally consistent with the current studies, for instance, Awosusi *et al.* (2023), Farooq *et al.* (2023) and Kılıç Depren *et al.* (2023) for the developing effect of PRI on ES; Ul Husnain *et al.* (2022), Li *et al.* (2023) and Nawaz *et al.* (2023) for the stimulating effect of GPR on ES; and Chen *et al.* (2021), Chen *et al.* (2021) and Baba Ali *et al.* (2023) for the increasing effect of RD on ES.

The results gathered in the study can be generalized for such countries that are similar to France, the United Kingdom and Sweden. In other words, this study presents generalizable results for highly politically stable countries that have also faced high geopolitical risk and have a significant amount of R&D investments in nuclear and renewable energy. Furthermore, the study provides further findings by enriching the current literature by presenting novel outcomes.

## 5.2 Policy options

By following a comprehensive approach and applying novel quantile models, the study reveals that increasing political stability stimulates ES in Sweden and the United Kingdom in higher quantiles. Also, an increase in geopolitical risk develops ES in France. Besides, both nuclear and renewable R&D investments have an increasing effect on ES in all the countries. Moreover, there is a causal effect from the explanatory variables to ES except for some middle quantiles (*e.g.*, 0.45–0.50) in all the countries. Furthermore, the results demonstrate that the power effects of the variables differentiate according to variables, quantiles and countries. Accordingly, various policy options are discussed.

Firstly, countries should consider the effect of political stability on the environment. To recall, political stability has an increasing effect on ES in both Sweden and the United Kingdom, whereas it has a curbing effect in France. So, it is clear that political stability works in a better way in Sweden and the United Kingdom, whereas France cannot benefit from political stability for ensuring ES. Based on this determination, it can be proposed that Sweden and the United Kingdom should continue to sustain their political stability (because it is beneficial for the environment), and France should work on transforming its decision-making process by considering the negative effects of political stability on the environment to benefit from political stability. In this context, France can work on sub-components of political stability (*e.g.*, investment profile, internal and external conflict, corruption, bureaucracy quality) and transform its political stability into an eco-friendly structure.

Secondly, in contrast to the political stability case, geopolitical risk is beneficial for France, whereas it is harmful to ES in both Sweden and the United Kingdom. Accordingly, it can be suggested that Sweden and the United Kingdom should consider times of geopolitical tension to transform their economy and energy structure to an eco-friendly structure, especially focusing on a much cleaner energy transition. Thus, they can use times of geopolitical risk as leverage and benefit from it highly to sustain ES.

Thirdly, it is clear that nuclear and renewable R&D investments are highly beneficial for countries. Remember that they have a supporting effect on ES in all the countries. So, it can be easily proposed that the countries should continue to rely on R&D investments in both nuclear and renewable energy to curb environmental degradation and increase ES. While doing this, the countries should channel public R&D investments to appropriate and beneficial areas, such as energy efficiency. Thus, countries can have the opportunity to decrease energy dependency on foreign countries, improve ES and support economic growth.

Finally, it is seen from the empirical results that political stability, geopolitical risk and R&D investments in nuclear and renewable energy have a quantile-varying effect on ES according to countries. So, countries should think that there is a non-linear relationship between the variables and ES. Thus, while making any decision about the variables, countries should continuously follow up on the effects of ES and take necessary measures on time.

### 5.3 Future research

The study presents various insights for ES in leading European countries, but it still has some limitations. Since the study focuses on three countries, new studies can either include more European countries that experience energy crises or consider many more countries diversified over the world from different perspectives, such as consuming high amounts of energy and having low environmental quality, *etc.* Also, future studies can apply some other novel techniques to make detailed empirical examinations from various perspectives, such as time and frequency-varying. Moreover, new analyses can include much newer data as soon as they are published. Thus, the literature can be developed more.

### Acknowledgement

Funding: There was no funding, either externally or internally, towards this study.

Conflicts of interest: The authors hereby declare that this article was not submitted nor published elsewhere.

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