

# Dynamics and Strategies of Spanish Wine Exports in a Globalised Market

Vicente Pinilla<sup>\*</sup>, Silvia Abella<sup>\*\*</sup>, Juan Ferrer<sup>\*\*\*</sup>, Raúl Serrano<sup>\*\*\*\*</sup>

## Abstract

*This article analyses the trajectory of Spanish wine exports, explaining, first, their historical background and then their dynamics in recent decades within a highly globalised market. Subsequently, it describes the macro factors that explain the high growth of these exports, such as the incorporation of technological innovations, access to the European Union, the expansion of the protected designation of origin and the reinforcement of their quality control and the fall in wine consumption in Spain. Finally, the business strategies that have largely fostered the export boom are analysed.*

**Keywords:** Global Wine Markets; Spanish Wine Exports; Wine Firms; Wine Export Strategies

## 1. Spain in the Global Wine Market: Background

At least since the second half of the nineteenth century, Spain has had a long tradition in exporting wine. Beforehand, its presence in the international market had been mainly related to the export of sherry, particularly to the British market, but new opportunities arose for the Spanish wine industry due to the problems experienced by French production in that period. The phylloxera plague was particularly crucial, obliging France to import large volumes of wine to supply its domestic market and maintain its exports. The replanting of the French vineyards with hybrid rootstock that produced a wine with a pale colour and low alcohol content enabled the country to maintain its exports even after national production began to recover. Only the colonial preferences granted to Algeria gave rise to a gradual replacement of Spanish imports with those from this country. At the same time, Spain had also been gaining a presence in the international markets, both in northern Europe

---

\* Professor of Economic History, Universidad de Zaragoza ([vpinilla@unizar.es](mailto:vpinilla@unizar.es))

\*\* Associate Professor of Management, Universidad de Zaragoza ([sabella@unizar.es](mailto:sabella@unizar.es))

\*\*\* Associate Professor of Agricultural Economics, Universidad Politécnica de Madrid ([juanramon.ferrer@upm.es](mailto:juanramon.ferrer@upm.es))

\*\*\*\* Associate Professor of Management, Universidad de Zaragoza ([raser@unizar.es](mailto:raser@unizar.es))

and America. The type of wine demanded by France and the lack of tradition in the production of quality wines were two of the main reasons why Spain mainly produced low-quality and low-priced wines, principally in bulk (Pinilla & Ayuda, 2002; Ayuda et al., 2020a).

The domestic demand, also focused on low-priced wines, given the country's low level of economic development, reinforced this type of specialisation (Fernández & Pinilla, 2018). Within this context, the production of quality wines was limited to sherry or the table wines from the incipient production nucleus of La Rioja (Pinilla, 2024).

After the Spanish Civil War (1936-1939) and the establishment of an autarchic policy by the Franco dictatorship, the external markets were clearly neglected. The wines demanded in the domestic market were still those with a low price and a high alcoholic content, sold in bulk. Therefore, the specialisation in low-quality wines continued.

From 1950, in the developed countries, the increase in income per capita and the innovations introduced in marketing fostered the development of brands and the sale of bottled wine. In the traditional winemaking countries, this "consumption revolution" was also characterised by a decrease in the average volume consumed per person and a preference for higher quality wines, in general lighter wines in terms of body and colour (Anderson & Pinilla, 2022).

However, Spain continued to specialise in the production and export of ordinary wines to its traditional markets, principally continental Europe. The failure to adapt to the changes in demand and its concentration in the European market, whose customs union excluded Spain, meant that Spanish exports, although growing, did so at a lower rate than those of Italy or France. In fact, 95% of Spanish exports (in terms of volume) were red wines sold in bulk (Fernández, 2012). In this way, Spain continued losing relevance in the global wine market.

However, undoubtedly, the most decisive change in the market took place from the mid-1980s with the emergence of the so-called New World exporting countries (Argentina, Australia, Canada, Chile, New Zealand, United States and South Africa). The share that these countries had of the global market grew enormously. At the same time, very profound changes were taking place on an international level in terms of the consumption patterns of alcoholic drinks. The so-called convergence in the consumer patterns of alcoholic drinks meant that in countries that consumed low volumes of wine, due to a preference for other alcoholic drinks (such as the United States, Germany or Great Britain) its consumption increased. Meanwhile, in the traditional consumer countries, wine consumption fell while that of other alcoholic drinks such as beer increased (Holmes & Anderson, 2017).

It was during these years that the true globalisation of the wine market took place, with a rapid increase in the percentage of the world's wine production that was exported. In around 1980 this was a little under 15% and had increased to 40% by 2010 (Anderson & Pinilla, 2022). This resulted in a considerable growth of the global wine trade, which more than doubled between 1970-1979 and 2010-2016.

## 2. Competing in a Profoundly Globalised Market

The afore-mentioned emergence of the New World exporters, the profound changes in consumption and the entry into the global market of new countries such as China (Anderson, 2020), significantly changed the geography of international wine trade. The relative share of the traditional exporters decreased, while that of the New World countries increased. Although the expansion in trade enabled the world's two principal exporters in 1980-1989, namely France and Italy, to continue increasing their exports in absolute terms, their share in global exports fell significantly in terms of volume. In fact, the joint share of these two countries fell from 55% in 1980-89 to 35% in 2010-2016. On the other hand, the third largest traditional wine exporter, Spain, which represented only 11% of global exports in the 1980s, increased its share to 20% in 2010-2016. At the same time, the share of the New World countries (Argentina, Australia, Canada, Chile, New Zealand, United States and South Africa) rose significantly from 2% in 1980-89 to 28% in 2010-16. If we measure the exports in current values, the losses of France and Italy were lower, falling from 63% in 1980-89 to 49% in 2010-16. Only France lost market share in this case, while Italy improved slightly. Spain's earnings in terms of value were much lower than in volume, increasing from 8% to 9%. The percentage of the New World countries increased from 2% to 24% between the same dates (Anderson et al., 2017).

The most recent data show insignificant changes. In 2021-2023, France and Italy represented 34% of the volume exported, but 53% in terms of value. Spain represented 20% in volume and 8% in value. The New World countries exported 27% of the world's volume and 19% of its value (Faostat, 2025).

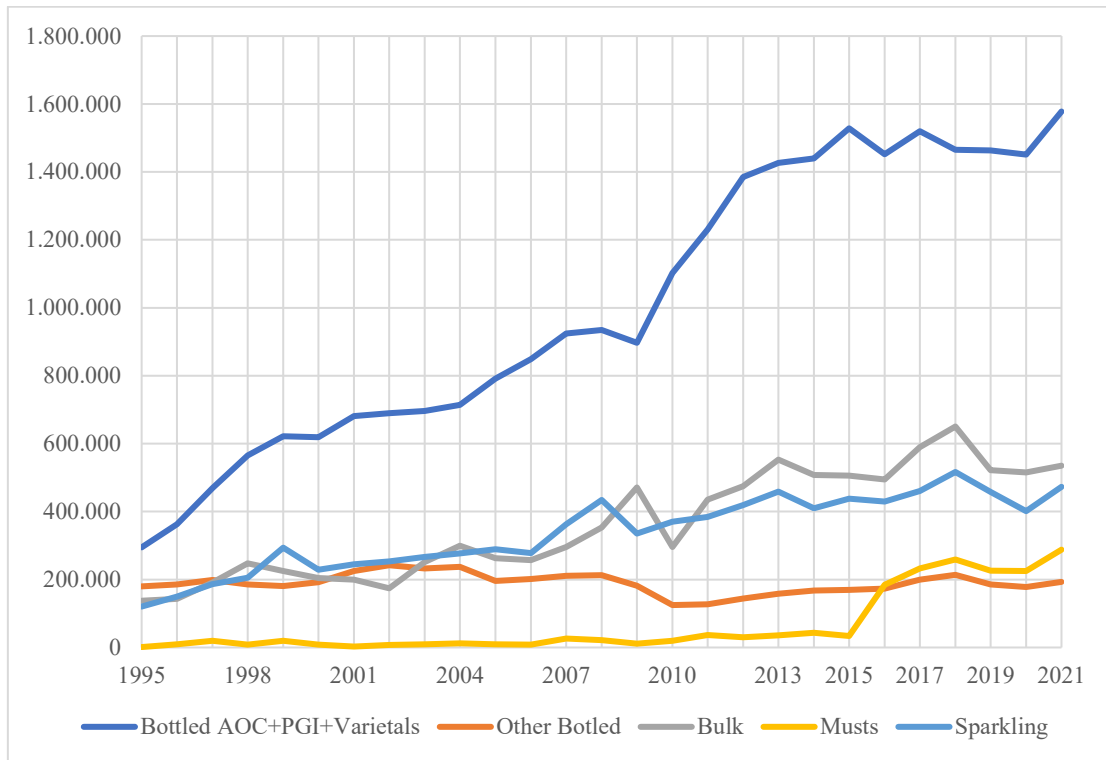
As we have seen, Spain was highly specialised in the export of wine in bulk. Therefore, it is remarkable that it was the country's bottled wine exports that experienced the most growth, given that its position was weaker in this product. In 2006-2008, Spain had a 9.2% share of world exports of this type of wine, which increased to 15.3% in 2014-2016. This represented a 67% increase, while its share of bulk wine exports increased by 31.7% and that of sparkling wine by 4.7%. In 2023, Spain's share was 14%.

In summary, Spanish exports improved their share in the global market and substantially increased in absolute terms within a context dominated by the aggressive exports of the New World countries. The results of Spain's exports were much greater in volume than in value.

As a result of this exporting boom, Spain was able to improve its position in a market that was expanding considerably: in terms of volume, it was the second largest exporter in the world in 2021-2023, very close to Italy; the third country in terms of the value of its exports; and it was also among the top three positions for its exports both in value and volume in all types of wine (bulk, sparkling and bottled).

We can distinguish between three types of wine in Spanish exports. On the one hand, its clear leadership was evident in the bottled wine exports of the Protected Designations of Origin (PDOs), the protected geographical indications (PGIs) and varietal wines. The value of the exports of these wines in 2023 was approximately five times higher than that of 1995. The hectolitres exported in bottles also doubled in the same period. Their share of the value of Spain's wine exports, within a context of strong growth, increased from 40% to 57% between 1995 and 2016. Therefore, this type of wine has been the principal driver of the export boom of Spanish wine.

**Figure 1:** Breakdown of Spanish Wine Exports (Value, Current ,000 €)



*Source:* Own elaboration based on Spanish Ministry of Industry, Trade and Tourism (2018) and OEMV (2022).

Within this group, due to its importance, we should highlight the wine from the 103 production areas with Protected Designations of Origin (PDOs). Heterogeneity is a key characteristic of the PDOs, as they vary significantly in terms of quality, value and price.

In addition to the PDO wines, the exports of bulk and sparkling wines also grew significantly. In the case of bulk wine, the high level of production (mainly in La Mancha region) was mostly exported to the French market. With respect to sparkling wines, the growth in exports has been considerable since the 1960s, characterised by a strong concentration of the market in the hands of two large business groups: Freixenet and Codorníu (Badia-Miró et al., 2022).

However, the exports of Spanish wine continue to have relatively low unit values compared to the two other large exporters. Of the five countries whose sales represent more than 4% of the global exported value (France, Italy, Spain, Australia and Chile), Spain has systematically recorded the lowest unit value. This is largely due to the prevalence of bulk wine, sold at very low prices. However, the difference in the share of the global bottled wine market between value and volume also highlights that even the exporting success of the highest quality bottled wine (PDO, PGI and varietal wines) has taken place in a relatively low value segment, principally within the commercial-premium range (Anderson et al., 2017).

Therefore, the exports of bottled wine from the protected geographical indication areas have been the principal players in the exporting boom, particularly the wines with Protected Designation of Origin (PDO). Their presence in the international markets has grown very rapidly.

Between 1997 and 2023, the volume of the exports of PDO wine grew from 3.5 million hectolitres to 14 million, which represents an increase of 300%. Furthermore, the proportion of bottled wine within the exports of the PDOs increased from 73% in 1997 to 99.7% in 2023.

### **3. A Macroeconomic Explanation of the Exporting Dynamism**

In short, over the last few decades, Spain has experienced considerable exporting dynamism which should be explained. We believe that there are several key factors in this dynamism. This section explains these factors from a macro perspective, while the following section addresses them from a micro point of view, that is, mainly that related to business behaviour and strategy.

The first important element that explains the great relevance of the external market in the present day for the Spanish wine industry is the profound incorporation of technology that took place mainly from the end of the 1980s. Innovations were introduced with a substantial delay with respect to other countries, where they had already proved to be game changing. They were implemented in grape production in aspects such as their selection or the introduction of new varieties and a much more conscientious cultivation. There was also a profound modernisation and technification process in winemaking (new presses, steel containers, temperatures control in the fermentation process and widespread bottling at source, with the control of these processes conducted by professional oenologists). In short, the traditional methods were replaced with the most modern techniques developed in other countries specialised in higher quality production, particularly France or the United States. This profound technical change enabled a high level of quality control of the wine and an adaptation to the preferences of the consumers in the global market.

Closely related to this was the institutional change, which, from a quality control perspective in the designations of origin, meant the gradual adaptation to the standards defined for them by the legal framework of the European Union, of which Spain became a member in 1986. In other words, despite the existence of designations of origin at a relatively early date, imitating the model established by France from 1927, in general, they had not acted as authentic guarantors of the quality of the wine produced. However, from the 1990s, the government bodies of the designations of origin began to establish more serious control mechanisms and the wineries themselves understood that the collective brand that represented them was important for the marketing of their products. This also fostered an increase in the number of producing areas legally considered as protected designations of origin which determined their quality standards in production. Between 1935 and 1977, a total of 24 designations of origin were created and between 1980 and 2011 a further 66 new ones emerged. Currently, there are 103 designations of origin.

Also from an institutional point of view, Spain's membership of the EU has been fundamental because it enabled it to access an enormous market in which Spain could compete on equal terms with other traditional producers such as France or Italy, which strongly boosted the exports of the agri-food sector in general and wine in particular (Clar et al., 2014; Serrano et al., 2015).

From the demand side, the gradual reduction in domestic consumption has been fundamental, particularly of low-quality wines, while the consumption of bottled wines with designation of origin has increased. The consumption per capita fell from approximately 70 litres in the 1970s to around 35 litres in the 1990s. It subsequently continued to fall and in 2023 it stood at only 20 litres (Anderson & Pinilla, 2024). The reduction in consumption particularly affected bulk wine and lower-quality wine. The consumption of bottled wine and that produced in the designations of origin multiplied ten-fold from the 1960s to the beginning of the second decade of the twenty-first century, although it was very far from compensating the fall in consumption of the other types of wine. In parallel, the increase in the consumption of beer was enormous, it grew approximately nine-fold between 1964-65 and 2012 (Delgado & Pinilla, 2023).

This brutal drop in domestic consumption was a determining factor for the internationalisation of the Spanish wine sector. For the industry, the fall in domestic demand obliged it to sell its output in the external market to survive, drastically improving its quality. This turn towards the external market was particularly profound in the designations of origin with less exporting tradition and a lower reputation in the domestic market. For example, the designation of origin of Cariñena, in Aragón, which held the fourth place in Spain in terms of its volume of production in 2023, only exported 2.3% of its output in 1989-1991. In 2011-2015, this percentage had grown to 68%. This case is not unique. Other designations of origin, such as Calatayud or Campo de Borja, also in Aragón, experienced similar increases (Gálvez et al., 2023).

In the domestic market, the adaptation of the supply to the demand not only consisted in improving the quality of the product, but also in important changes in its marketing. Wine was sold by the traditional retailers, where it was common to find bulk wine, supermarkets and hypermarkets. In the latter, there was a clear dominance of bottled wine, generally classified by types, colours and geographical areas of origin.

Therefore, the panorama of the 1980s was defined in Spain by the danger that the industry faced due to the brutal reduction in consumption, threatening its very survival, the opportunities of accessing a technological package that would lead to an improvement in quality and its access to an enormous market with no barriers to entry.

Within this context, Spanish wine exports grew very rapidly in terms of volume from the beginning of the twenty-first century and particularly after the economic crisis that began in 2008, much more than doubling those of the end of the twentieth century.

#### **4. The Strategies Employed by Spanish Companies to Compete in the Global Market**

Given that the exports of bottled wine from designations of origin have a more dynamic behaviour and generate a greater value added, this section will focus on the strategies followed by the wine companies specialised in this type of wine to obtain the results achieved.

Although when analysing business strategies there is a tendency to highlight that companies opt to obtain a competitive advantage through two alternative strategies, leadership in costs or in differentiation (Porter, 1985), the Spanish case is an example of searching for new strategies based on innovation, efficiency and the support of network economies (Ferrer et al., 2021 and 2022a). In this case, differentiated products were offered together with an improvement in efficiency in order to supply them at competitive prices. This case is not unique, as there are similar examples, such as the increase in the exports of Australian wine or Italian prosecco (Kim & Mauborne, 2005; Cox & Bridwell, 2007; Ponte, 2021). In the growth in Spanish wine exports from the designations of origin, the wineries have combined increases in value and the capture of new customers with cost-efficient models, enabling the application of highly competitive prices for their introduction into new markets (Bardají et al., 2014; Ferrer et al., 2022).

Although the final objective of the companies is to sell bottled wine at a low price, but with a certain level of quality, there have been several different ways in which this has been achieved. Many wineries have adopted the original strategy of the New World to specialise in varietal wines, in some cases varieties with a lower presence in the global market than others, that is, offering a new product in markets with a low level of competition, using Blue Ocean strategies (Kim & Mauborne, 2005). Others, such as La Rioja, have attempted to offer a product inspired by the Bordeaux style, but at a lower price and with a centenary tradition in this segment that accredits its quality. In the case of cava, a sparkling wine has been offered at a very reasonable price to compete with champagne, with a level of quality aligned with the price of the product (Badia-Miró et al., 2021; Ferrer et al., 2022a). In general, the Spanish wineries have used their strength in making wines which, for many consumers who are not willing to pay high prices, had a more than reasonable quality, as noted by many reputable prescribers, sometimes astounded by the low prices at which some of the Spanish wines are sold in relation to their quality. Therefore, they have made a substantial jump from producing and selling bulk wines in the domestic market to exporting bottled wines on the international market.

As previously mentioned, the expansion of the designations of origin and the establishment of demanding quality controls and typicity of production mechanisms within them have favoured the growth of exports. Furthermore, belonging to them has enabled the generation of virtuous dynamics that have fostered internationalisation. Clusters in the wine market are implemented through the designations of origin, grouping together companies that, on the one hand, compete with each other to sell their production but, on the other hand, collaborate to ensure the quality of the product and construct a brand that boosts their sales as it provides the consumer with information about such a heterogeneous product. In short, the designations of origin enable the information asymmetries between producers and

consumers to be reduced and foster the creation of collective quality brands (Mérel & Sexton, 2012; Shapiro, 1982). Sometimes, in this ecosystem, as well as the producing companies we can also find companies that supply inputs or services or distributors, forming what is known as domestic clustered networks. In the case of Spain it has been confirmed that the most internationalised clusters have favoured the exporting performance of the wineries (Serrano et al., 2023). Joint actions have been developed in external markets and information has been transferred between companies regarding the characteristics or possibilities of the external markets. In this way, export-supporting activities may play a crucial role in explaining export performance, particularly in enhancing export intensity. Therefore, the potential role of regulatory councils as external resources for wineries in facilitating entry into foreign markets and achieving high market penetration is underscored (Depetris-Chauvin & Fernández-Olmos, 2024). As a result, economies of scale and scope are obtained and transaction costs are reduced (Belletti et al., 2017).

In particular, for Spain it has been found that the horizontal networks, linkages with complementary institutions and companies (system linkages) have enabled a greater number of wineries to enter international markets and intensify their exports. Although the linkages with customers and suppliers (chain linkages) have not fostered the possibility of exporting or the intensity of exports, they have moderated the effect of the distances (trade barriers) between markets (Serrano et al., 2025). Thanks to these collaborative effects, the wineries have been able to offer distributors and consumers a product that satisfies their desires. In short, they have enabled companies to adapt their products to the needs and demands of their export markets and understand their institutions and regulations (Johanson & Mattsson, 2015).

The success of Spanish wineries in international markets has been based on the search for markets that adapt well to the strategies of the wineries. Therefore, the Spanish companies have sought markets with distribution channels similar to those of the domestic market. Serrano et al. (2024) showed that if the channel adjustment was adequate, it increased both the probability of exporting and the intensity of exports. As it seems that there is no significant advantage to opt for direct or indirect exports (Fernández-Olmos et al., 2024), the decisive factor is the adjustment between the strategy of the company and the characteristics of the destination market.

## 5. Conclusions

Spain was a highly relevant actor in the global wine market in the first globalisation (Pan Montojo, 1994; Pinilla & Ayuda, 2007). However, the isolation imposed during the 1940s and 1950s by the economic policy of the Franco dictatorship and the limited subsequent integration in the international market, together with the poor adaptation to a transforming market, severely damaged the Spanish wine industry on the international scene. The technical backwardness and low quality of the output were its principal obstacles.

However, coinciding with Spain becoming a member of the European Union in 1986 and the so-called invasion of the global market by the countries of the New World, the wine sector experienced transcendental changes. The incorporation of

technological innovations, the expansion of the protected designations of origin and the reinforcement of the quality controls within them, access to the single European market and a strong reduction in domestic wine consumption gave a strong impetus to exports. Of these, bottled wine from the designations of origin played a prominent role.

The wine companies were not passive actors in the process of improving quality and internationalisation but adopted conscious strategies in order to establish a strong foothold in an increasingly competitive global market. On the whole, they specialised in a product with an excellent quality-price ratio and also adapted their strategies to the conditions of their destination markets.

However, the Spanish wine industry faces crucial challenges in the coming years. The reduction in domestic consumption does not show signs of stopping and, albeit slowly, will continue this downward trend.

Furthermore, the global perspectives of consumption are not optimistic, rather the opposite, particularly since the Covid-19 pandemic and the tendency to lead healthier lives, which are seen to be incompatible with alcohol consumption, or the changes in trends in relevant emerging markets such as China (Anderson, 2023a and 2023b). The success of Spain in its internationalisation has rendered it dependent upon the fluctuations of the global market and not only from a consumption point of view. Economic crises, such as the one beginning in 2008 or health crises, such as the afore-mentioned pandemic with the enormous problems caused to the supply chains, have had a severe impact (Niklas et al., 2021; Wittwer & Anderson, 2021). If we add to this the trade war initiated by the United States government in the early months of 2025, the panorama becomes even darker. Moreover, there is enormous competition in the global market, in which other countries also deploy their own strategies to be successful.

Finally, climate change is a serious threat for vine growing in a large part of the world (Ashenfelter & Storchmann, 2016; Ollat et al., 2016), but particularly for a semi-arid climate country such as Spain. A very large part of the country's production is the lower quality and very low-priced bulk wines from La Mancha, which is highly dependent on underground water, the extraction of which has increased notably in recent decades, putting the aquifers at risk (Ayuda et al., 2020b).

Within this context, the Spanish industry may have to lower its output to adapt to a stagnant demand or one that is not very dynamic. Furthermore, without abandoning the strength of its specialisation in a bottled wine market segment in which it is highly competitive, it should attempt to climb up the value chain, reinforcing its sales of higher quality wines, which are also competitive in the market but not sufficiently well-known (Compés et al., 2024).

Climate change also requires adaptation strategies. Therefore, sustainability is a crucial challenge for Spanish wineries. Its achievement by the wineries is an objective that is fully compatible with the expansion of their sales (Ferrer et al., 2023). Moreover, the proclivity to adopt strategies that foster sustainability is higher among the wineries that produce bottled wine, export more and are positioned in the premium segment and exports (Ferrer et al., 2022b). This highlights that the objective of improving quality is clearly associated and compatible with sustainability. These strategies should be based on innovation,

mainly in carbon footprint and corporate social responsibility, and on the capacity to communicate such innovations, so that consumers perceive them as a change (García-Cortijo et al., 2021).

In the final decade of the twentieth century, the Spanish wine industry was able to carry out a substantial transformation to survive and expand, particularly in the international market. Twenty-five years later, the new challenges and threats require a considerable adaptation process to continue the dynamism of the preceding decades.

## Bibliography

- Anderson, K. (2020). Asia's Emergence in Global Beverage Markets: The Rise of Wine. *Singapore Economic Review*, 65(4), 755-779.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1142/S0217590820500162>
- Anderson, K. (2023a). The Emergence of Lower-Alcohol Beverages: The Case of Beer. *Journal of Wine Economics*, 18(1), 66-86.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2023.8>
- Anderson, K. (2023b). What's Happened to the Wine Market in China? *Journal of Wine Economics*, 18(2), 173-183.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2023.16>
- Anderson, K., & Pinilla, V. (2022). Wine's Belated Globalization, 1845–2025. *Applied Economic Perspectives and Policy*, 44(2), 742-765.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/aep.13174>
- Anderson, K., & Pinilla, V. (with the assistance of A. J. Holmes) (2024). *Annual Database of Global Wine Markets, 1835 to 2013*, University of Adelaide's Wine Economics Research Centre.  
[www.adelaide.edu.au/wine-econ/databases/global-wine-history](http://www.adelaide.edu.au/wine-econ/databases/global-wine-history)
- Anderson, K., Nelgen, S., & Pinilla, V. (2017). *Global Wine Markets, 1860 to 2016: A Statistical Compendium*. Adelaide: University of Adelaide Press.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.20851/global-wine-markets>
- Ashenfelter, O., & Storchmann, K. (2016). Climate Change and Wine: A Review of the Economic Implications. *Journal of Wine Economics*, 11(1), 105-138.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2016.5>
- Ayuda, M.-I., Ferrer-Pérez, H., & Pinilla, V. (2020a). Explaining World Wine Exports in the First Wave of Globalization, 1848–1938 (2020). *Journal of Wine Economics*, 15(3), 263-283.  
<https://doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2020.4>
- Ayuda, M.I., Esteban, E., Martín-Retortillo, M., & Pinilla, V. (2020a). The Blue Water Footprint of the Spanish Wine Industry: 1935 -2015 *Water*, 12, 1872.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/w12071872>
- Badia-Miró, M., Delgado, P., & Pinilla, V. (2022). La Producción de Cava y el Comercio Internacional (1850-2015), in Colomé-Ferrer, J., Planas, J., & Soler-Becerro, R. (eds.), *Vins, aiguardents i caves. La comercialització de la producció vinícola catalana (segles XVIII-XXI)* (pp. 229-254). Vilafranca del Penedès: Universitat Rovira i Virgili.

- Bardají, I., Estavillo, J., & Iráizoz, B. (2014). Export Performance: Insights on the Spanish Wine Industry. *European Journal of International Management*, 8(4), 392-414.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1504/EJIM.2014.062969>
- Belletti, G., Marescotti, A., & Touzard, J. M. (2017). Geographical Indications, Public Goods, and Sustainable Development: The Roles of Actors' Strategies and Public Policies. *World Development*, 98, 45-57.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2015.05.004>
- Clar, E., Serrano, R., & Pinilla, V. (2014). El Comercio Agroalimentario Español en la Segunda Globalización, 1951-2011. *Historia Agraria*, 65, 149-186.
- Compés, R., Sotés, V., & Moro, C. (Eds.). (2024). *Premium Wines in Spain. On the Road to Excellence*. Almería: Cajamar Caja Rural.
- Cox, J., & Bridwell, L. (2007). Australian Companies Using Globalization to Disrupt the Ancient Wine Industry. *Competitiveness Review*, 17(4), 209-221.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/10595420710844307>
- Delgado, P. & Pinilla, V. (2023). From Massification to Diversification: inequalities in the Consumption of Dairy Products, Meat and Alcoholic Drinks in Spain (1964–2018), in Medina-Albaladejo, F. J., Martínez-Carrión, J. M., & Calatayud, S. (eds.), *Inequality and Nutritional Transition in Economic History* (pp. 187-212), London: Routledge.
- Depetris-Chauvin, N., & Fernández-Olmos, M. (2024). Disentangling the Relationships Between Denomination of Origin Regulatory Councils Activities and Spanish Wineries' Export Performance. *Agribusiness*, 1-22.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/agr.21966>
- Faostat (2025). Trade, Food and Agriculture. Organization of the United Nations.  
[www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data](http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data)
- Fernández-Olmos, M., Wanglin, M., & Pecheux-Livat, F. (2024). Linking Spanish Wine Farmers to International Markets: Is Direct Export Better than Indirect Export in Improving Farm Performance? *Economic Analysis and Policy*, 81, 153-163.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.eap.2023.11.027>
- Fernández, E. (2012). Especialización en baja calidad: España y el mercado internacional del vino, 1950-1990. *Historia Agraria*, 56, 41-76.
- Fernández, E., & Pinilla, V. (2018). Spain, in Anderson, K., & Pinilla, V. (eds.), *Wine Globalization: A New Comparative History* (pp. 208-238). New York: Cambridge University Press.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/9781108131766>
- Ferrer, J. R., Abella-Garcés, S., & Serrano, R. (2021). Vertical and Horizontal Networks and Export Performance in the Spanish Wine Industry. *Journal of Wine Economics*, 16(4), 400-410.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2021.35>
- Ferrer, J. R., Serrano, R., Abella, S., Pinilla, V., & Maza, M. T. (2022a). The export strategy of the Spanish wine industry. *Spanish Journal of Agricultural Research*, 20(3), e0103-e0103.
- Ferrer, J. R., García-Cortijo, M. C., Pinilla, V., & Castillo-Valero, J. S. (2022b). The Business Model and Sustainability in the Spanish Wine Sector. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 330, 129810.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.129810>
- Ferrer, J. R., García-Cortijo, M. C., Pinilla, V., Castillo-Valero, J. S., & Serrano, R. (2023). Sustainability and Growth: Evidence from Spanish Wine Industry. *Spanish Journal of Agricultural Research*, 21(2), e0104.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.5424/sjar/2023212-20241>
- Gálvez, J., Pinilla, V., & Serrano, R. (2023). Cooperar y Competir: Las Denominaciones de Origen Protegidas del Vino de Aragón, 2000-2017. In Parejo, F., Rangel, J., & Linares, A. (Eds.), *Organización de la Producción, Instituciones y Cooperación Empresarial* (pp. 199-220). Madrid: Dykinson.
- García-Cortijo, M. C., Ferrer, J. R., Castillo-Valero, J. S., & Pinilla, V. (2021). The Drivers of the Sustainability of Spanish Wineries: Resources and Capabilities. *Sustainability*, 13, 10171.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/su131810171>

- Holmes, A. J., & Anderson, K. (2017). Convergence in National Alcohol Consumption Patterns: New Global Indicators. *Journal of Wine Economics*, 12(2), 117-148.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2017.15>
- Johanson, J., & Mattsson, L. G. (2015). *Internationalisation in Industrial Systems: A Network Approach*, in Forsgren, M., Holm, U., & Johanson, J. (eds.), *Knowledge, Networks and Power* (pp. 111-132). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Kim, W. C., & Mauborgne, R. (2005). Value Innovation: A Leap into the Blue Ocean. *Journal of Business Strategy*, 25(4), 22-28.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/02756660510608521>
- Mérel, P., & Sexton, R.J. (2012). Will Geographical Indications Supply Excessive Quality? *European Review of Agricultural Economics*, 39(4), 567-587.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/erae/jbr056>
- Niklas, B., Cardebat, J. M., Back, R. M., Gaeta, D., Pinilla, V., Rebelo, J., Jara-Rojas, R., & Schamel, G. (2022). Wine Industry Perceptions and Reactions to the COVID-19 Crisis in the Old and New Worlds: Do Business Models Make a Difference? *Agribusiness*, 38, 810-831.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/agr.21748>
- OEMV, 2022. *Exportaciones Españolas de Vino y Productos Vitivinícolas. Año 2021*. Spanish Wine Market Observatory. <https://www.oemv.es/exportaciones-espanolas-de-vino-ano-2021> [March 2022].
- Ollat, N., Touzard, J. M., & van Leeuwen, C. (2016). Climate Change Impacts and Adaptations: New Challenges for the Wine Industry. *Journal of Wine Economics*, 11(1), 139-149.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2016.3>
- Pan-Montojo, J. (1994). *La Bodega del Mundo (1800-1936)*. Madrid: Alianza Universidad y Ministerio de Agricultura, Pesca y Alimentación.
- Pinilla, V. (2024). *Classic Premium Wines in Spain*, in Compés, R., Sotés, V., & Moro, C. (eds.), *Premium Wines in Spain. On the Road to Excellence* (pp. 161-180). Almería: Cajamar Caja Rural.
- Pinilla, V., & Ayuda, M. I. (2002). The Political Economy of the Wine Trade: Spanish Exports and the International Market, 1890–1935. *European Review of Economic History*, 6, 51-85.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S1361491602000035>
- Pinilla, V., & Ayuda, M. I. (2007). The International Wine Market, 1850-1938: An Opportunity for Export Growth in Southern Europe? in Campbell, G., & Guibert, N. (eds.), *Wine, Society, and Globalization: Multidisciplinary Perspectives on the Wine Industry* (pp. 179-199). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ponte, S. (2021). Bursting the Bubble? The Hidden Costs and Visible Conflicts Behind the Prosecco Wine ‘Miracle’. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 86, 542-553.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jrurstud.2021.07.002>
- Porter, M. E. (1985). *The Competitive Advantage*. New York: The Free Press.
- Serrano, R., Abella, S., Ferrer, J. R., & Pinilla, V. (2025). Network Connections, Distance and Exports: Applying the Delta Model to the Internationalisation of Companies, *International Journal of Wine Business Research*.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/IJWBR-09-2024-0060>
- Serrano, R., Dejo-Oricain, N., Ferrer, J., Pinilla, V., Abella-Garcés, S., & Maza, M. T. (2023). Domestic Clustered Networks and Internationalization of Agrifood SMEs. *Agribusiness*, 39, 167-195.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/agr.21761>
- Serrano, R., Ferrer, J. R., Abella, S., & Pinilla, V. (2024). Market Entry Strategy and Export Destination in the Spanish Wine Industry. *Agricultural Economics - Zemedelska Ekonomika*, 70(12), 621-632.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.17221/107/2024-AGRICECON>

Serrano, R., García-Casarejos, N., Gil-Pareja, S., Llorca-Vivero, R., & Pinilla, V. (2015). The Internationalisation of the Spanish Food Industry: The Home Market Effect and European Market Integration. *Spanish Journal of Agricultural Research*, 13(3), 1-13.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.5424/sjar/2015133-7501>

Shapiro, C. (1982). Consumer Information, Product Quality, and Seller Reputation. *The Bell Journal of Economics*, 13, 20-35.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3003427>

Wittwer, G., & Anderson, K. (2021). COVID-19 and Global Beverage Markets: Implications for Wine. *Journal of Wine Economics*, 16(2), 117-130.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/jwe.2021.13>