

# 1           **The Impact of Policy Intervention on International Wine Demand**

2       ---The Short- and Long-run Impact of the Anti-dumping Duties on Imported  
3       Australian Wine to China

## 4       **Abstract**

5       Purpose: The purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of implementing anti-  
6       dumping duties on imported Australian wine to China in the short- and long-run,  
7       respectively.

8       Methodology: First, the Difference-in-Differences (DID) method is utilized in this  
9       study to evaluate the short-run causal effect of implementing anti-dumping duties on  
10      imported Australian to China. Second, a Bayesian ensemble method is employed to  
11      predict 2023-2025 wine exports from Australia to China. The disparity between the  
12      forecasts and counterfactual prediction which assumes no anti-dumping duties  
13      represents the accumulated impact of the anti-dumping duties in the long run.

14     Findings: The anti-dumping duties resulted in a significant decline in red & rose, white,  
15     and sparkling wine exports to China by 92.59%, 99.06%, and 90.06% respectively, in  
16     2021. In the long run, wine exports to China are projected to continue this downward  
17     trend, with an average annual growth rate of -21.92%, -38.90%, and -9.54% for the  
18     three types of wine, respectively. In contrast, the counterfactual prediction indicates an  
19     increase of 3.20%, 20.37%, and 4.55% for the respective categories. Consequently, the  
20     policy intervention is expected to result in a decrease of 96.11%, 93.15%, and 84.11%  
21     in red & rose, white, and sparkling wine exports to China from 2021 to 2025.

22     Originality: The originality of this study lies in the creation of an economic paradigm  
23     for assessing policy impacts within the realm of wine economics. Methodologically, it  
24     also represents the pioneering application of the DID and Bayesian ensemble  
25     forecasting methods within the field of wine economics.

26     **Keywords: Anti-dumping Duties, Australian Wine, China, DID, Bayesian**  
27     **Ensemble Forecast**

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## 1. Introduction

The global wine market constitutes a substantial and diverse economic sector, with wine production spanning across numerous countries worldwide, consistently captivating a growing consumer base. According to the International Organisation of Vine and Wine (OIV), global wine exports reached 1,070 million liters, achieving a record value of 37.6 billion EUR in 2022 (OIV, 2023). Given the planting and brewing cycle in the downstream grape market, the unpredictable impact of weather on supply and quality, and the restricted shelf life of the ordinary wine, disparities between supply and demand frequently arise.

The unanticipated policy intervention exacerbates this mismatch even further. Taking Australian wine exports to China as an illustration, while the UK and the USA have traditionally been the largest markets, China has emerged as a pivotal contributor to Australia's market expansion since the signing and enactment of the China-Australia Free Trade Agreement in 2015 (Wine Australia, 2022). According to DB (2022), Australian wine exports to China surged by 221% between 2015 and 2019. However, escalating trade tensions between the two nations led to the imposition of punitive tariffs on various Australian imports.

In early 2021, the Ministry of Commerce of the People's Republic of China announced an escalation in anti-dumping duties on imported Australian wines, raising the rate from 116.2% to 218% over the subsequent five years. Consequently, reported annual wine exports from Australia to China plummeted to a mere \$12 million in 2022, accounting for just 1% of the market value prior to the implementation of the duty policy (The Guardian, 2023).

Due to the changeable trade policy and strong export orientation of the major producing country, this trade dispute has placed the bilateral wine industries between Australia and China under unprecedented uncertainties (Mariani et al., 2012). Such uncertainties shape the current competitive international wine market and form the basis for future market development. Most existing literature has primarily discussed the factors influencing international wine trade based on demand theory, highlighting the impact of macroeconomic variables such as price, income, and exchange rates on wine imports and exports. Additionally, some studies have employed time series models using these variables to predict wine demand in different regions (e.g.,

63 Fogarty, 2010; Liu and Song, 2021; Storchmann, 2012). From consumers’  
64 perspective, behavioral theories including theory of planned behaviour and goal  
65 framing theory explain the influence of policy on individual purchasing decisions  
66 (Taghikhah et al., 2020). However, individual decisions in response to policy have not  
67 been expanded and reflected at a macro level on wine demand overall through  
68 rigorous analytical framework. The influence of policy interventions on wine demand  
69 has been largely disregarded and existing studies mainly focus on the domestic  
70 markets in Europe and the Americas (Carbone, 2021; Meloni et al., 2019; Pomarici  
71 and Sardone, 2020). Compared to the domestic wine demand, international wine trade  
72 is influenced by more factors, making the impact of policy intervention more  
73 complicated. To fill the research gap, this study aims to contribute to understanding  
74 the short-term effects of policy interventions and forecasting long-term counterfactual  
75 consequences of the anti-dumping duties on Australian wine exports to China,  
76 focusing on 2021 and the period 2023 to 2025, respectively.

77 The novelty of this study lies in the proposition of a rigorous economic paradigm for  
78 evaluating policy impacts on international wine demand, which can be regarded as a  
79 generic analytical framework that has wide applicability to the wine literature.  
80 Methodologically, it represents the first endeavor to investigate the causal effect of  
81 policy intervention on wine demand using the Difference-in-Differences (DID) method  
82 within the wine economics literature. Furthermore, this study pioneers the utilization of  
83 counterfactual prediction and the Bayesian ensemble method to assess policy impact,  
84 offering a more dependable and robust evaluation of future consequences of policy  
85 intervention. As a result, this research provides valuable insights for both the demand  
86 and supply facets of the wine industry. International wine traders can refer to the results  
87 to restructure their supply chains and diversify target markets, while winemakers can  
88 use the forecasts to fine-tune their production and inventory strategies for optimal  
89 operations.

90 The subsequent sections of the study are as follows: The second part reviews policy  
91 implications and demand forecasting studies within the wine field. The third section  
92 introduces the methodology and data employed in this research. The ensuing section  
93 presents the findings. The concluding section wraps up the study.

94        **2. Literature review**

95        *2.1 The wine sector and policy*

96        The wine industry constitutes a complex system encompassing both the production and  
97        consumption of wine, along with intricate product and service chains involving  
98        numerous stakeholders (Anastasiadis and Alebaki, 2021). Consequently, the wine  
99        sector is highly responsive to policy alterations, historically being subject to extensive  
100       public control and stringent policies and constraints (Meloni et al., 2019). Such policies  
101       and restrictions encompass production subsidies, price guarantees, market stabilizers,  
102       and plantation limitations (Carbone, 2021). Given the intricate nature of the wine  
103       industry and its global sensitivity to policies and restrictions, academics from various  
104       disciplines have increasingly directed their attention towards analyzing the impact of  
105       these policies and restrictions on the industry, consumers, and trade, all with broader  
106       implications for overall welfare and taxation (Carbone, 2021).

107       These policies have influenced both the supply and demand sides of the wine sector.  
108       For instance, the EU's wine policy has been extensively examined in prior literature  
109       (Meloni et al., 2019; Pomarici and Sardone, 2020, 2022; Schulz et al., 2022). It has led  
110       to substantial imbalances with surplus supply and limited export opportunities under  
111       the initial framework of the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), designed to maintain  
112       farmer income through market intervention and higher prices (Carbone, 2021). More  
113       recently, the EU's wine policy has evolved to incorporate environmental and social  
114       objectives, leading to constraints on cultivation and measures for consumer protection,  
115       such as wine labeling regulations (Pomarici & Sardone, 2020). Noev (2006) conducted  
116       a descriptive and explanatory analysis of the Bulgarian wine sector's development in  
117       response to policies related to land reform, vine area ownership, and state support over  
118       time.

119       Another type of policy often examined in wine research is taxation policy, imposed on  
120       consumption due to the health impacts of alcoholic beverages, as well as value-added  
121       tax (VAT) or import tariffs, primarily focusing on their influence on the demand side  
122       of the wine sector. Given that taxes can be quantified directly, studies on wine taxation  
123       frequently employ quantitative methods to assess their impact on wine demand. For  
124       instance, Anderson (2010) presented estimates of consumer tax equivalents for wine,  
125       beer, and spirits taxes as of 2008 across various high-income and developing countries,

126 offering descriptive evidence of the influence of diverse taxes on the prices of these  
127 alcoholic beverages. The impact of taxes on the elasticity of wine demand was explored  
128 in Cho et al. (2007), who investigated changes in demand elasticity in Canada using the  
129 Kalman filter method and the Chow test, finding that government taxation can  
130 effectively impact consumption. Similarly, Özdemir (2015) examined the repercussions  
131 of high taxation policies on Anatolian wine demand and price elasticity in Turkey, using  
132 standard ordinary least squares and maximum likelihood regressions, revealing  
133 significant policy effects on wine demand and price elasticity in Turkey.

134 While studies have examined the relationship between policy interventions and wine  
135 demand, these studies have primarily focused on domestic wine demand, with limited  
136 attention given to the impact of policies on international wine trade. Furthermore,  
137 although a few studies have utilized econometric methods, there remains a lack of  
138 evidence to discuss the causal relationship between policies and wine demand. This  
139 study marks the initial endeavor to evaluate the impact of anti-dumping duties on  
140 Australian wine exports by utilizing the DID method within a quasi-experimental  
141 design. While previous studies in commodities and services estimated policy impacts  
142 by controlling for individual and time-fixed effects (Kohl et al., 2016; Gao and Su,  
143 2019), this approach may be insufficient due to potential endogeneity, failing to  
144 adequately account for unobservable factors that vary over time among individuals.  
145 Building upon the model design by Gobillon and Magnac (2016), this research design  
146 not only incorporates individual fixed effects and time-fixed effects but also integrates  
147 interactive individual-time fixed effects. This inclusion captures the time-dependent  
148 impact of unobservable factors across countries (regions) and delivers robust findings.

## 149 *2.2 Determinants of Wine Demand*

150 Although research on wine demand is a relatively nascent field, it has extended beyond  
151 the scope of wine agriculture economics to encompass adjacent fields such as trade,  
152 finance, and environmental economics (Storchmann, 2012). Scholars have identified  
153 numerous factors that can influence wine demand or the prices of wine-related assets.

154 In the economics literature, wine consumption follows the fundamental laws of  
155 demand theory. Both domestic wine consumption and international wine trade are  
156 related to prices and income. A pivotal discovery in previous research is that the wine  
157 demand tends to be more elastic compared to other alcoholic beverages (Fogarty, 2010).

158 This signifies that individuals are more likely to adjust their consumption patterns in  
159 response to changes in the price or availability of wine (i.e., own- and substitute-price  
160 effects). When discussing international wine trade, some macroeconomic factors,  
161 including exchange rates between exporting and importing countries (Anderson and  
162 Wittwer, 2013), money supply, and interest rates (Jiao, 2017), indirectly influence wine  
163 prices. Hence, they are also identified as factors affecting wine demand. Income is  
164 another factor that has been extensively examined in previous research on wine  
165 consumption. Results have demonstrated that income elasticity can vary depending on  
166 the type of wine and the market it is being sold in (Muhammad et al., 2014; Capitello  
167 et al., 2015; Liu and Song, 2021).

168 Literature in the field of consumer behavior suggests that due to the experiential nature  
169 of wine consumption, its demand is often intertwined with factors that are challenging  
170 to quantify, such as consumers' lifestyles and "expert opinions" on quality and aging  
171 potential. Brunner and Siegrist (2011), based on a postal survey in the German-speaking  
172 part of Switzerland, discovered that individuals with better wine knowledge tend to  
173 consume more wine. The influence of expert opinions on other consumers' wine  
174 consumption was confirmed by Hilger et al. (2011) through an experimental approach  
175 conducted in a retail grocery chain. Taste trends have been recognized as influential  
176 factors in modeling and forecasting developments in the global wine market (Anderson  
177 et al., 2001). Choice experiments have also examined wine consumption to assess  
178 consumer preferences for various wine attributes, revealing a range of attributes that  
179 impact consumer choices, such as firm reputation, origin, and grapevine variety  
180 (Hertzberg and Malorgio, 2008). Therefore, wine demand is primarily influenced by  
181 price and income, along with additional social psychological factors, resulting in the  
182 sensitivity to external factors. However, to date, there has been little empirical research  
183 testing the impact of policies on wine demand. In fact, the implementation of certain  
184 policies can directly influence wine prices and consumer expectations and purchasing  
185 behaviour, especially in the international wine trade, thus having a significant impact  
186 on overall wine demand.

### 187 *2.3 Wine demand forecasting*

188 While wine is a fairly common agricultural commodity, research in wine forecasting  
189 remains underdeveloped, with only a few studies primarily focusing on specific wine  
190 price ranges and their financial value. Among the most prominent topics in wine

191 demand forecasting is the prediction of Bordeaux wine prices, carried out using  
192 univariate models (Bazen and Cardebat, 2018) and econometric models incorporating  
193 meteorological variables (Ashenfelter, 1989; Ashenfelter, 2008; Oczkowski, 2010).  
194 Another branch of studies, based on cross-sectional analyses, delves into the financial  
195 performance of fine wine investments, generating forecasts through financial pricing  
196 and machine learning models in recent studies (Yeo et al., 2015; Fernandez-Perez et al.,  
197 2019). However, these forecasts have been limited to wines at the high end of the  
198 market, lacking generalizability to the broader wine market, which is characterized by  
199 large volume and high frequency trading.

200 The literature concerning macro-level wine demand quantity forecasting remains  
201 underdeveloped. Bazen and Cardebat (2018) highlighted the lag in methodological  
202 development for wine forecasting compared to research in other commodities.  
203 Moreover, the accuracy of employed forecasting methods has been overlooked, as no  
204 studies have assessed their accuracy against actual numbers. In a recent study, Bargain  
205 (2020) utilized the gravity model to explore Chinese wine demand for various French  
206 wine-growing regions. Employing the autoregressive distributed lag (ADL) model, Liu  
207 and Song (2021) estimated and forecasted China's demand for imported bottled, bulk,  
208 and sparkling wines based on country of origin from 2019 to 2023. However, although  
209 the ADL model offers flexible forecasting without strict assumptions (e.g., fixed prices  
210 or macroeconomic conditions), its model selection process is susceptible to volatility  
211 among the data, potentially impacting forecasting performance (Athanasopoulos et al.,  
212 2018).

213 To address this issue, this study employs a Bayesian ensemble method to enhance the  
214 ADL model and generate robust forecasts for Australian wine exports to China. The  
215 bootstrap aggregation (bagging) method introduced by Breiman (1996) aims to  
216 ensemble multiple predictors calculated from bootstrapped series, thereby significantly  
217 enhancing forecasting decisions of base models. Bagging has been widely employed by  
218 scholars to estimate and forecast inflation growth (Rapach and Strauss, 2010), stock  
219 prices (Hillebrand and Medeiros, 2010), and tourism demand (Athanasopoulos et al.,  
220 2018; Song et al., 2021). To optimize the ensemble, the Bayesian model combination  
221 (BMC) is implemented in this study to further refine the bagging process. Dating back  
222 to the 1970s, the Bayesian model average or combination methods were first used to  
223 measure the parameter uncertainty and simulation uncertainty (Corlu et al., 2020).

224 Given a few candidate models from the bagging process, the posterior probabilities of  
225 the candidate models are used to quantify their likelihood with real-world data  
226 (Wasserman, 2000). The BMC method can overcome the limitation of direct bagging  
227 by determining the candidate model combination with appropriate posterior  
228 distributions. This way, models with higher marginal likelihoods are assigned greater  
229 weights in aggregation.

230 To the best of the author's knowledge, neither DID nor the Bayesian ensemble method  
231 has been employed in wine economics. This research aims to generate novel economic  
232 paradigm to assess policy impact on wine demand, providing valuable industry insights  
233 to anticipate trends in Australian wine demand taking into account the long-term impact  
234 of policy—critical for business planning and decision-making.

### 235 **3. Methodology and data**

236 This study aims to assess the impact of anti-dumping duties on Australian wine exports  
237 to China and provide comprehensive forecasts for Australian red & rose, white, and  
238 sparkling wine exports spanning from 2023 to 2025. Specifically, the DID method is  
239 employed to evaluate the short-term policy impact of the duty policy. To estimate long-  
240 term losses, the findings from the causal inference are utilized as adjustments for 2021  
241 Australian wine exports to China, enabling counterfactual forecasting by assuming the  
242 absence of the duty policy. In addition to the counterfactual prediction, the Bayesian  
243 ensemble forecasting method is employed to generate *ex-ante* forecasts for Australian  
244 wine exported to China.

#### 245 *3.1 DID model for policy assessment*

246 To identify the impact of China's anti-dumping duties on Australian wine exports, the  
247 DID model is specified as follows:

$$248 \quad \begin{aligned} \ln Export_{i,t} = & \alpha_0 + \beta_1 TW_i \times Post_t + \beta_2 \ln Y_{i,t} \\ & + \beta_3 \ln RP_{i,t} + \beta_4 D_{CAFTA} + \mu_i + \gamma_t + \mu_i \gamma_t + \varepsilon_{i,t} \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

249 where  $\ln Export_{i,t}$  represents the natural logarithm of the quantity of Australian wine  
250 exported to region  $i$  in time  $t$ . The  $TW_i \times Post_t$  term is an independent variable  
251 introduced to account for the intervention of China's anti-dumping duties on Australian  
252 wine exports, where  $TW_i$  and  $Post_t$  are dummy variables indicating China and the  
253 time of policy intervention, which occurred in the first quarter of 2021, respectively.



254 The coefficient  $\beta_1$  measures the net effect of this intervention on Australian wine  
255 exports to China.

256 Following the demand theory, the model also incorporates the effects of income and  
257 relative prices, with  $\ln Y_{i,t}$  representing income and  $\ln RP_{i,t}$  representing relative  
258 prices—the price ratio between the imported and exported markets adjusted by the  
259 exchange rate (Hummels and Klenow, 2005; Martins et al., 2017). The coefficient  $\beta_2$   
260 and  $\beta_3$  correspond to the income and relative price elasticities, respectively.

261 To account for potential "shocks" from other policies in the DID estimation, a dummy  
262 variable  $D_{CAFTA}$  is introduced to neutralize the impact of the China-Australia Free  
263 Trade Agreement.

264 To exclude other policies "shocks" from the DID estimation, a dummy variable is  
265 included to offset impact of the China-Australia Free Trade Agreement ( $D_{CAFTA}$ ). In  
266 addition to individual ( $\mu_i$ ) and time ( $\gamma_t$ ) fixed effect terms, an interactive fixed effects  
267 term ( $\mu_i \times \gamma_t$ ) is incorporated to further address endogeneity concerns in causal  
268 analyses (Bai, 2009).  $\varepsilon_{i,t}$  and  $\alpha_0$  represent the model's residual and constant term,  
269 respectively.

#### 270 *Parallel trends test*

271 The estimated DID model needs to satisfy the parallel trend assumption, implying that  
272 the experimental and control groups should exhibit similar trends. This study draws  
273 upon Beck et al. (2010) and extend the subsequent dynamic model by introducing pre-  
274 and post-dummy variables of the policy shock:

$$275 \quad \ln Export_{it} = \alpha_0 + \sum_{a=2019Q1}^{a=2021Q4} \beta_a TD_a \times TW_i + \beta_2 X_{it} + \mu_i + \gamma_t + \mu_i \gamma_t + \varepsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

276 where the  $TD_a$  is the dummy variables that encompass the two years preceding the  
277 policy's implementation and all subsequent periods thereafter (Ferrara et al., 2021).  
278 Furthermore, interaction terms between the policy and these dummy variables are  
279 formulated. If the interaction term between the pre-policy period and the policy is  
280 statistically insignificant, it implies that the dependent variables of both the  
281 experimental and control groups exhibit parallel development. Similarly, the interaction  
282 term between the post-policy period and the policy offers insights into the treatment  
283 effect of China's implementation of anti-dumping charges on Australian imported wine

284 from a dynamic standpoint. The term  $X_{it}$  denotes the control variables in equation (1).

### 285 *Placebo tests*

286 It is important to acknowledge that the estimates of the DID model might potentially  
287 be influenced by other unobservable variables. In this study, a placebo test is employed  
288 to evaluate the credibility of the estimation outcomes of the DID model for causal  
289 inference (Liu & Lu, 2015). The placebo test is structured as follows:

$$290 \quad \hat{\beta} = \beta + \sigma \frac{cov(TW \times Post, \varepsilon|W)}{var(TW \times Post|W)} \quad (3)$$

291 where  $\hat{\beta}$  represents the estimated coefficient of the policy in equation (1).  $\sigma$  denotes the  
292 impact of unobservable factors on Australia's wine exports to mainland China.  
293 Moreover,  $W$  stands for the control variables and fixed effects within the model. A  $\sigma$   
294 value of zero indicates an unbiased estimation of  $\hat{\beta}$ . However, confirming whether  $\sigma$  is  
295 truly zero is practically unfeasible. The typical approach involves randomizing the  
296 timing and location of policy implementation. In this study, a fabricated  $TW'$  and  $Post'$   
297 are introduced to replace the independent variable in the DID model. This involves  
298 randomly selecting a country (region) as the experimental group and assigning the  
299 timing of policy implementation. As  $TW'$  and  $Post'$  are generated at random, the  
300 coefficient of the policy, denoted as  $\beta$ , should theoretically equal zero. Furthermore, if  
301 the estimated  $\hat{\beta}$  equals zero, it can be inferred that  $\sigma$  is also zero, indicating that the anti-  
302 dumping tariff policy remains unaffected by unobservable factors.

### 303 *3.2 Bayesian ensemble forecasting*

304 Building on prior research in wine economics (Liu and Song, 2021), this study takes  
305 into account several influential factors for the modeling and forecasting of wine demand.  
306 For predicting wine demand in the Chinese market, the model can be formulated as  
307 follows:

$$308 \quad Export_t = A(Y_t^\gamma EP_t^\delta S_t^\theta) e_t, \quad (4)$$

309 where  $Export_t$  represents the quantity of wine exported to China in period  $t$ .  $Y_t$  denotes  
310 the income level of Chinese consumers in period  $t$ .  $EP_t$  stands for the export price of  
311 Australian wine to China, adjusted by the real exchange rate.  $S_t$  represents the  
312 substitution price or demand for other alcoholic beverages such as beer and spirits  
313 within China.  $A$  represents the constant term and  $e_t$  signifies the current error term.

314 Given that Equation (4) does not incorporate any policy variable, the trade price can be  
 315 considered independent of other determinants. Additionally, as the trade price holds  
 316 greater significance as a determinant of demand, it is more appropriate to utilize the  
 317 trade price rather than a general relative price in Equation (1) for predicting future wine  
 318 demand.

319 The ADL model, as introduced by Hendry (1995), is employed to capture the dynamics  
 320 of demand for Australian wine in this study. By applying the natural logarithm and  
 321 extending the consideration of substitutions involving the consumption of beer and  
 322 spirits within Equation (2), an ADL model of order  $(P, Q, N, M)$  for China can be  
 323 written as:

$$324 \quad \ln Export_t = \alpha + \sum_{p=1}^P \beta_p \ln Export_{t-p} + \sum_{q=0}^Q \gamma_{1,q} \ln Y_{t-q} +$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^N \delta_n \ln EP_{t-n} + \sum_{m=0}^M \theta_{1,m} \ln Beer_{t-m} + \sum_{k=0}^K \theta_{2,k} \ln Spirit_{t-k} + \zeta D_t + \varepsilon_t \quad (5)$$

325 where  $D$  represents the dummy variable accounting for seasonality and special events  
 326 like the 2008 financial crisis and the COVID-19 pandemic. The maximum lagged  
 327 orders  $P, Q, N, M,$  and  $K$  are each set to 4 to align with the quarterly frequency of the  
 328 data. The determination of lagged order selection is based on the Akaike Information  
 329 Criterion, aiming to identify the optimal equilibrium between the goodness of fit and  
 330 model complexity.

331 The Bayesian ensemble forecasting generates multiple ADL forecasts using a Bayesian  
 332 approach, and then combines these Bayesian forecasts based on each model's Bayes  
 333 factor. To begin, in order to enhance the sample size, the training data is replicated 50  
 334 times using the historical wine demand data, employing the time series bootstrapped  
 335 method proposed by Bergmeir et al. (2016). Subsequently, given the bootstrapped  
 336 training data  $X_n$ , a set of Bayesian models  $\theta_n \sim p_n(Export | \eta_n, X_n^*) \pi_n(\eta_n | X_n^*), n =$   
 337  $1, \dots, 50$  is constructed. Each of these models conditionally consist of a likelihood  $p_n$   
 338 and a prior  $\pi_n$  to estimate the bootstrapped posterior distribution of parameters  $\eta_n$ .

339 Based on the log marginal likelihood, a Bayes factor is computed to distinguish the  
 340 performance of each bootstrapped model, facilitating the assignment of higher weight  
 341 to the model demonstrating better performance (Kass and Raftery, 2019; Steel, 2020).

342 The Bayes factor between two models with equal priors is specified as

$$Bayes\ factor_{i,j} = \log p_i(Export|\boldsymbol{\eta}_m, X_i^*) - \log p_j(Export|\boldsymbol{\eta}_m, X_j^*) \quad (6)$$

343

344 After eliminating all spurious models with unreasonable signs, the ultimate model is  
345 consolidated through Bayesian model combination, using each set of parameters and  
346 its corresponding Bayes factor as the weighting factor.

### 347 *3.3 Data and model evaluation*

348 The wine exports utilized in this study encompass quarterly volumes of Australian wine  
349 exports to the top 20 markets spanning from 2005 to 2022. These markets include the  
350 US, Canada, New Zealand, the UK, the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark, Germany,  
351 Sweden, Finland, France, Ireland, China, Hong Kong SAR, Chinese Taipei, Singapore,  
352 Japan, South Korea, the UAE, and Thailand. The data source is the Australian Bureau  
353 of Statistics and comprises exports of red & rose, white, and sparkling wine<sup>1</sup>.

354 Regarding explanatory variables, income is gauged by the real GDP index of these 20  
355 import markets. GDP and CPI and exchange rates which are used to calculate relative  
356 price are all sourced from the International Monetary Fund. The export price, EP, is  
357 calculated by dividing the exported value by the exported volume, adjusted by the real  
358 effective exchange rate. To account for scale differences, all variables are transformed  
359 into indices relative to their 2010 levels.

360 In order to assess the fitting capabilities of the forecasting models, the Bayesian  
361 ensemble forecasting model is juxtaposed with four benchmark models. These  
362 benchmarks encompass three time series models—Seasonal Naïve, ETS, and  
363 SARIMA—as well as one econometric model, which is the ADL model. The  
364 comparison is based on their ex-post forecasting performance. The forecasting  
365 validation pertains to data spanning from the first quarter of 2007 to the third quarter of  
366 2022.

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<sup>1</sup> The Australian Bureau of Statistics aggregates the export data for red and rose wine into a single category. Consequently, the red & rose wine category encompasses commodity IDs 22042902, 22042991, 22042992, 22042935, and 22042965. Similarly, white wine consists of commodity IDs 22042901, 22042934, and 22042964. Sparkling wine is represented by commodity IDs 22040110, 22041011, 22041090, and 22041091. It's worth noting that the data might exhibit variations when compared with statistics published by different departments due to differing statistical scopes.

367 To gauge model performance, the following metrics are employed: root mean square  
 368 error (RMSE), mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), and mean absolute scaled error  
 369 (MASE). These metrics are calculated using the ensuing formulas:

$$370 \quad RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2} \quad (7)$$

$$371 \quad MAPE = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left| \frac{y_i - \hat{y}_i}{y_i} \right| \quad (8)$$

$$372 \quad MASE = \frac{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N |y_i - \hat{y}_i|}{\frac{1}{N-s} \sum_{i=s+1}^N |y_i - \hat{y}_{i-s}|} \quad (9)$$

373 where  $y_i$  and  $\hat{y}_i$  denote the actual and forecasted values for the training period, with a  
 374 data point length of  $N$ . RMSE and MAPE assess the average absolute and squared errors,  
 375 respectively, by which the estimates deviate from the actual values. Employing the  
 376 mean absolute error of the seasonal naïve forecasts on the training set as the  
 377 denominator, the seasonal MASE measurement provides a scale-free ratio that  
 378 compares model performance against a baseline error (Hyndman and Koehler, 2005).  
 379 In the assessment of forecasting methods, preference is given to the method exhibiting  
 380 the lowest RMSE, MAPE, and MASE.

## 381 **4. Empirical results**

### 382 *4.1 Short-run effect*

383 DID analysis was utilized to evaluate the short-run impact of the anti-dumping duties  
 384 on wine imported from Australia to China, encompassing the main DID results, parallel  
 385 trend test, and placebo test, respectively.

#### 386 *The results of DID models*

387 First, the net impact of China's anti-dumping tariff on Australian wine exports is  
 388 assessed, and the results are presented in Table 1. Models 1 to 3 sequentially examine  
 389 the impact of the anti-dumping duties on the export of red & rose, white, and sparkling  
 390 wine from Australia to China. In Model 1, the coefficient of  $TW \times Post$  is -2.6023 with  
 391 a significance level of 1%, indicating a significant decline of 92.59% in Australia's red

392 & rose wine exports to China due to the implementation of anti-dumping duties<sup>2</sup>. The  
 393 outcomes of Models 2 and 3 indicate substantial decreases of 99.06% and 90.06% in  
 394 Australia's exports of white and sparkling wines to China, respectively. These  
 395 reductions were statistically significant at the 10% and 1% significance levels,  
 396 respectively. The estimated impacts of the anti-dumping duties are highly consistent  
 397 with the statistics in relevant reports and news which record 99% slashes of total wine  
 398 trade values in 2021 (The Guardian, 2023; Wine Australian, 2022). The results also  
 399 correspond to the influence of policy on consumer behaviour, which can be further  
 400 aggregated into a significant drop in wine exports to China at the macro level  
 401 (Taghikhah et al., 2020). Both empirical evidence and previous literature findings  
 402 suggest the reliability of the DID results.

403 In terms of control variables, income significantly influences wine consumption of red  
 404 & rose wine (Model 1), aligning with demand theory. However, income's effect on the  
 405 purchase of white (Model 2) and sparkling wine (Model 3) is not statistically significant.  
 406 This discrepancy could be attributed to the limited exports of the latter two types of  
 407 wine compared to red & rose wine. Interpretation of the relative price effect requires  
 408 caution. The positive coefficients in Models 1 and 2 do not imply Australian wine is  
 409 inferior. As the trade price was substantially impacted by the anti-dumping duties, it is  
 410 not included as a primary control variable in the model to ensure the independence of  
 411 the DID term. Thus, the relative price is introduced solely to control for potential  
 412 influences of price level and exchange rate, respectively.

413 The China-Australia Free Trade Agreements' impact on Australia's wine exports to  
 414 mainland China is positive and statistically significant at the 1% level. This suggests  
 415 that the China-Australia Free Trade Agreements positively boosted Australia's wine  
 416 exports to mainland China during the study period.

417

**Table 1 Results of DID models**

Variables	Model 1 <i>lnrr_Export</i>	Model 2 <i>lnw_Export</i>	Model 3 <i>lns_Export</i>
<i>TW×Post</i>	-2.6023*** (0.3770)	-4.6660* (2.5972)	-2.3087*** (0.5008)
<i>lnY</i>	1.9558*** (0.7253)	2.1901 (1.4902)	0.5428 (0.5523)

<sup>2</sup> The model's dependent variable is in logarithmic form, and the independent variable is the dummy variable. Therefore, according to the estimation results, the actual effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable is  $\exp(\beta_1)-1$ .

$\ln RP$	1.5669** (0.7545)	3.2656*** (1.1613)	-0.0667 (0.5195)
$D_{CAFTA}$	0.6154 (0.5644)	2.3750* (1.2753)	-0.0241 (0.2995)
Cons	-2.6023*** (0.3770)	-4.6660* (2.5972)	-2.3087*** (0.5008)
Country/region FE	YES	YES	YES
Period FE	YES	YES	YES
Interactive FE	YES	YES	YES
$R^2$	0.4976	0.4176	0.5848
$N$	1360	1360	1360

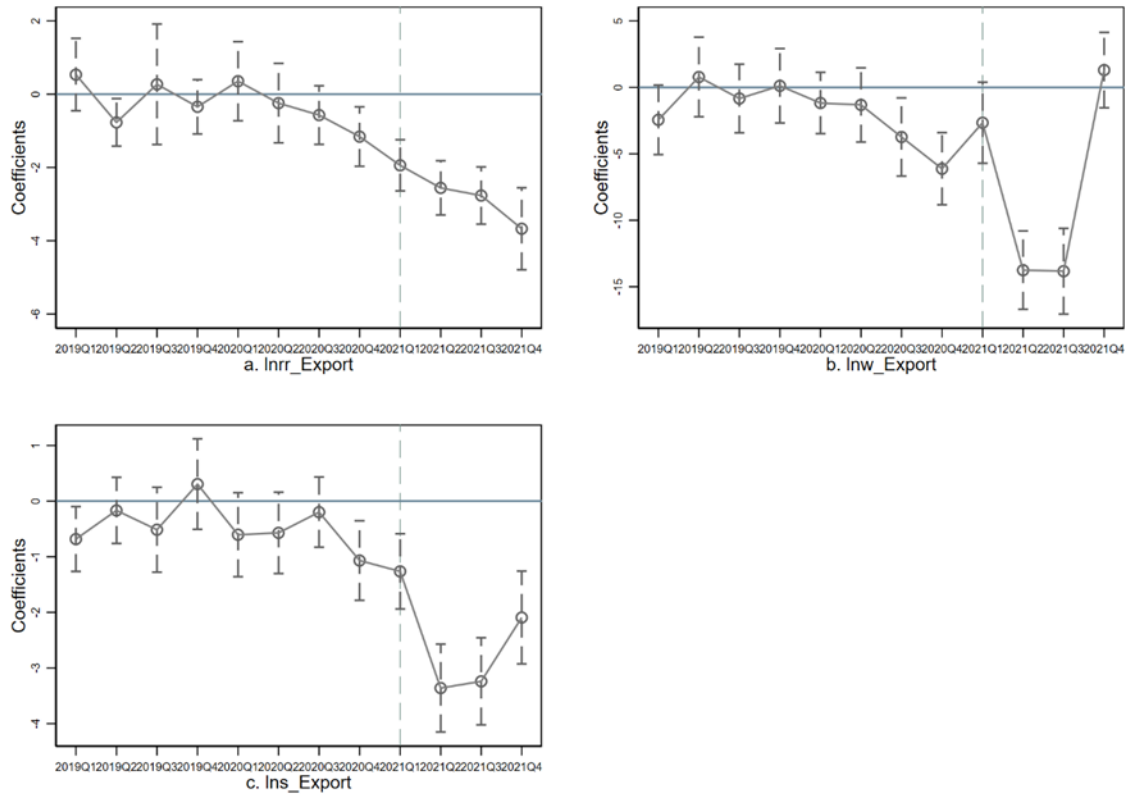
418 Notes: 1. The values in parentheses represent standard errors; 2. \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$

419

420 *The results of Parallel trend tests*

421 If, before the implementation of China's anti-dumping duty policy on Australian wine  
422 exports, the Australian wine exports to China had deviated significantly from their  
423 historical trend compared to other countries (regions), this could potentially influence  
424 the model's estimation results. To test the presence of systematic differences in the  
425 outcome variables between the experimental and control groups before the policy  
426 intervention, a parallel trend test is conducted. The results are presented in Figure 1,  
427 where the estimated coefficients of  $\beta_a$  fall within the 95% confidence intervals of their  
428 significance, based on the results of equation (2).

429 The subplots illustrate the outcomes for the exports of red & rose wine, white wine, and  
430 sparkling wine as the dependent variables, respectively. It is evident that the majority  
431 of the coefficient  $\beta_a$  estimates remain insignificant across the periods preceding the  
432 policy implementation, regardless of the dependent variable. This indicates that, for  
433 most of the periods leading up to the policy's implementation, there was no substantial  
434 divergence in the exports of various types of Australian wine to China compared to the  
435 wine exports to other control group countries (regions). This observation is consistent  
436 with the parallel trend assumption.



**Fig. 1. Parallel Trend Tests**

437

438

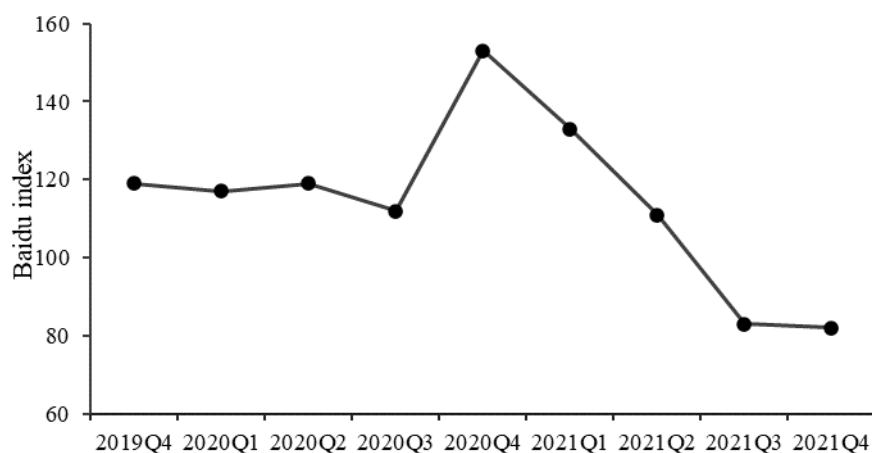
439 In Figure 1, it is evident that the interaction terms associated with the fourth quarter of  
 440 2020 exhibit significant negative values. This implies that the effects of the policy  
 441 became noticeable during this period. In other words, there was an anticipatory effect  
 442 of the policy shock on Australian wine exports. This finding is consistent with  
 443 established research that has observed anticipatory effects of economic policies  
 444 (Buettner and Madzharova, 2021), as many policies are developed, passed, and  
 445 implemented gradually over time.

446 For this study, it is important to note that while the policy intervention officially took  
 447 effect in the first quarter of 2021, the investigation initiated by the Ministry of  
 448 Commerce of the People’s Republic of China began in August 2020, followed by an  
 449 official statement. This sequence of events likely introduced uncertainty to the Chinese  
 450 market regarding the importation of wine from Australia well in advance.

451 This research also incorporates Baidu Search Enquiry Index data for each quarter  
 452 preceding and following the fourth quarter of 2020. As illustrated in Figure 3, there was  
 453 a noticeable increase in the search volume for "Australian wine" in China during the



454 fourth quarter of 2020. Subsequently, there was a decline in the search volume,  
455 indicating the proactive response of the Chinese market in anticipation of the policy's  
456 implementation.



457

458 **Fig. 2 Baidu Search Enquiry Index of “Australian Wine”**

459 Regarding red & rose wine, the policy's negative impact becomes evident as early as  
460 the first quarter of 2021, and this impact is projected to persist over time as illustrated  
461 in Figure 1. Given that red wine constitutes the largest proportion of the total quantity,  
462 its dynamic response to the policy can serve as an indicator of the overall declining  
463 trend in the quantity of Australian wine exports to China. In contrast, the negative  
464 impact of the policy on white and sparkling wines is more pronounced in the second  
465 and third quarters of 2021, with the effects tapering off in subsequent periods.

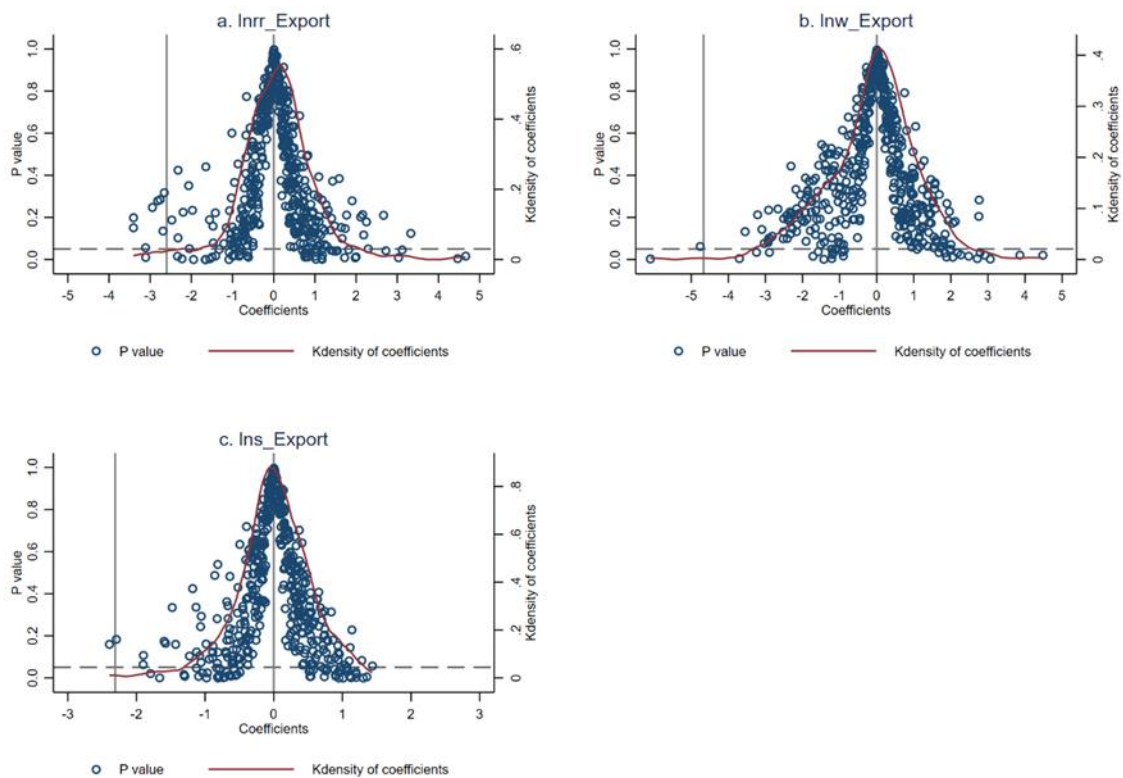
466 In summary, despite the anticipatory effects of the policy, the estimation results  
467 successfully pass the parallel trend tests. This indicates that the observed changes in the  
468 quantity of wine exported from Australia to China can be attributed to the policy itself  
469 rather than other influencing factors. Following the policy's implementation, Australia's  
470 wine exports to China experienced a significant and adverse impact.

#### 471 *The results of placebo tests*

472 In spite of the inclusion of various control variables and fixed effects in the DID model,  
473 it remains essential to assess the potential impact of unobservable factors on the policy  
474 evaluation outcomes. To address this, placebo tests are employed in this study to  
475 determine whether other random factors might account for the aforementioned  
476 estimation results (Ferrara et al., 2012; Liu and Lu, 2015).

477

478 Following equation (3), this study conducted 500 regressions with the dependent  
 479 variables encompassing the three distinct types of wine, resulting in 500 hypothetical  
 480  $\hat{\beta}$  coefficients for each case. Subsequently, a kernel density plot was generated to  
 481 visualize the distribution of their estimated coefficients and their significance, as  
 482 depicted in Figure 3. The solid line on the X-axis represents the genuine effect of the  
 483 policy on Australian wine exports to China, while the dashed line on the Y-axis signifies  
 484 the 95% confidence interval. The three subplots correspond to the density function of  
 485 red & rose, white, and sparkling wine, respectively.



486

487

**Fig. 3. Placebo tests**

488 As per Figure 3, the estimated coefficients of  $\hat{\beta}$  are primarily concentrated around 0 and  
 489 exhibit a normal distribution. The results from the two-sided test indicate that, for  
 490 different dependent variables, the probabilities of the hypothetical  $\hat{\beta}$  being larger than  
 491 the actual policy effects are only 3.2%, 0.2%, and 0.4% for red & rose, white, and  
 492 sparkling wine, respectively. These probabilities are all indicative of low likelihood  
 493 events. The p-values corresponding to the hypothetical  $\hat{\beta}$  obtained from most  
 494 regression models are greater than the 0.05 significance level, as depicted in Figure 3.

495 Given that the actual policy effects presented in Table 1 deviate significantly from the  
496 results of the placebo test, it can be inferred that the influence of other unobservable  
497 factors on the policy evaluation can be discounted.

498 The aforementioned outcomes highlight that Australia's wine exports to China  
499 underwent a substantial decline compared to other countries (regions) subsequent to  
500 China's increase in anti-dumping duties on Australian wines. Notably, considering the  
501 coefficient magnitudes, it is evident that the policy shock had the most pronounced  
502 impact on the quantity of white wines, experiencing a decrease of 99.06%. This was  
503 followed by red & rose wine (92.59%) and sparkling wine (90.06%). Throughout the  
504 study period, it was observed that red & rose wine exports constituted approximately  
505 77% of Australia's total wine exports to China. Consequently, the exports of red & rose  
506 wine exhibited the most considerable decline in absolute terms.

#### 507 *4.2 Long-run effect*

508 To explore the prospective influence of the anti-dumping duties on wine imports from  
509 Australia to China, the study employed a Bayesian ensemble method to forecast  
510 Australian wine exports to China up to the year 2025. Additionally, the investigation  
511 delved into the demand elasticities the three categories of wine.

#### 512 *Unit root and cointegration tests*

513 To assess the integration order of all variables suitable for the ADL model, the  
514 Augmented Dickey-Fuller (ADF), Phillips-Perron (PP), and Kwiatkowski-Phillips-  
515 Schmidt-Shin (KPSS) tests are employed. These tests are used to analyze the export  
516 volumes and prices of the three types of Australian wine, as well as Chinese GDP, beer,  
517 and spirits consumption in logarithmic scale.

518 The null hypothesis of the ADF and PP tests is that the data contains unit roots,  
519 indicating non-stationarity. Conversely, the null hypothesis of the KPSS test is that the  
520 data is stationary. The integration order can be determined if more than two tests yield  
521 consistent results. Following the first difference, the stationarity of each variable is  
522 assessed to categorize them as  $I(0)$ ,  $I(1)$ , or higher orders. The outcomes of the unit root  
523 tests are presented in Table 3. Nearly all variables exhibit unit roots at the level but  
524 become stationary at the first difference, implying that most integration orders do not  
525 exceed one. Hence, this study utilizes bound tests to evaluate the cointegration  
526 relationship between wine exports and its explanatory variables (Pesaran et al., 2001).

527 The bounds test, proposed by Pesaran et al. (2001), is employed to examine the  
528 cointegration relationship between the dependent variable and independent variables.  
529 In this process, all long-term coefficients are subjected to a joint test that assesses  
530 whether they significantly differ from zero, with the null hypothesis implying the  
531 absence of a long-term relationship. After conducting the general-to-specific estimation,  
532 the coefficients of lagged dependent variables are also scrutinized. The identification  
533 of a cointegration relationship between the dependent variable and its explanatory  
534 variables occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected based on  $F$ -statistics and  $t$ -  
535 statistics surpassing the upper bound threshold (Song and Lin, 2010).

536 Notably, the  $F$ - and  $t$ -statistics of Australian white and sparkling wine exports surpass  
537 the upper bound at the 1% significance level, indicating the presence of a long-term  
538 relationship. However, for red & rose wine exports, the model does not reject the null  
539 hypothesis of the bound test, suggesting that the long-run relationship between red &  
540 rose wine exports and influencing factors remains unclear. This could be attributed to  
541 the substantial decreases resulting from the imposition of anti-dumping duties on wine  
542 imported from Australia and the considerable fluctuations in international wine trade.  
543 Consequently, the findings regarding red & rose wine exports necessitate cautious  
544 interpretation.

Table 2. Results of unit root and cointegration tests

Unit root test	Red & rose volume				White volume				Sparkling volume						
	Level		Diff		Level		Diff		Level		Diff				
ADF	-0.902		-4.288	***	-3.092		-4.056	**	-1.323		-4.683	***			
PP	-17.353	*	-38.512	***	<i>I</i> (1)	-32.153	***	-39.912	***	<i>I</i> (1)	-32.886	***	-54.870	***	<i>I</i> (1)
KPSS	0.338		0.226			0.349	*	0.125			0.479	**	0.395	*	
	Red & rose price				White price				Sparkling price						
	Level		Diff		Level		Diff		Level		Diff				
ADF	-2.890		-4.736	***	-2.677		-4.342	***	-1.387		-6.324	***			
PP	-40.817	***	-36.425	***	<i>I</i> (1)	-36.948	***	-46.278	***	<i>I</i> (1)	-48.060	***	-62.523	***	<i>I</i> (1)
KPSS	0.610	**	0.067			0.592	**	0.108			0.492	**	0.280		
	GDP				Beer				Spirits						
	Level		Diff		Level		Diff		Level		Diff				
ADF	-2.086		-4.624	***	-2.945		-5.559	***	-1.798		-3.895	**			
PP	-46.290	***	-23.522	**	<i>I</i> (1)	-3.556		-18.729	*	<i>I</i> (1)	1.514		-12.312	***	<i>I</i> (1)
KPSS	1.649	***	0.678	**		0.407	*	0.540	**		0.744	***	0.976	**	
Cointegration test	Red & rose exports (k = 9)				White exports (k = 7)				Sparkling exports (k = 7)						
<i>F</i> -statistic	2.803				17.531				19.782						
<i>t</i> -statistic	-3.250				-6.904				-7.748						

Notes: 1. All the variables are tested in logarithmic scale; 2. \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$

547 *Australian wine export elasticities*

548 The statistically significant demand elasticities between the three types of wine and  
 549 their influential variables from the ADL modeling are presented in Table 3. Following  
 550 the principles of demand theory, a positive correlation is expected between income level  
 551 and demand, resulting in positive income elasticities. Conversely, price elasticities are  
 552 anticipated to be negative. However, due to the significant impact of the anti-dumping  
 553 duties' implementation, it is not statistically viable to establish a positive relationship  
 554 between the decline in Australian wine exports and an increase in Chinese income.  
 555 Among the income and price elasticities, the price elasticities are significant in two out  
 556 of the three models, emphasizing the pivotal role of price in wine export (Liu and Song,  
 557 2021). Moreover, these price elasticities also provide insights into the market positions  
 558 of different wine categories. Specifically, the demand for Australian white wine is more  
 559 responsive to price changes compared to that of sparkling wine, underscoring the  
 560 preference for sparkling wine among Chinese consumers.

561 The negative elasticities observed in beer consumption suggest that Chinese consumers  
 562 perceive red & rose and white wine similarly to beer in their daily alcoholic beverage  
 563 consumption habits. This drinking behaviour aligns with the findings of Liu & Song  
 564 (2021). However, sparkling wine is regarded as a complementary option to beer. The  
 565 elasticity indicates that a 1% increase in beer consumption leads to a 3.07% rise in the  
 566 demand for Australian sparkling wine. The positive elasticities associated with spirit  
 567 consumption are significant, at least at the 5% level. This strongly implies that Chinese  
 568 consumers view consuming foreign liquor as a symbol of social status, reserving them  
 569 for special occasions alongside spirits (Liu and Song, 2021; Lin and Tavoletti, 2013).

570 **Table 3. Demand Elasticities of Australian Wine Exports to China**

	GDP	Price	Beer	Spirit
Red & rose	-	-	-13.962 ***	8.947 ***
White	-	-2.433 ***	-9.245 *	4.566 **
Sparkling	-	-0.710 ***	3.065 **	3.203 ***

571 Note: \*  $p < 0.1$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$

572 *Model performance evaluation*

573 In terms of the in-sample forecasting performance, Table 4 displays the modeling  
 574 accuracies across the five import markets for the three types of wine, measured by

575 RMSE, MAPE, and MASE. In general, these three accuracy metrics yield consistent  
576 results. The Bayesian ensemble model demonstrates the highest forecasting accuracy  
577 in predicting red & rose and sparkling wine exports to China. While the Bayesian  
578 ensemble model's accuracy is slightly lower than that of the ADL model in estimating  
579 white wine, it still significantly outperforms the other three time series models. To  
580 assess the overall forecasting accuracy, the average performance of each model in  
581 predicting demand across all wine types has been evaluated. Here, the Bayesian  
582 ensemble model surpasses nearly all other benchmarks based on the three accuracy  
583 measurements. This overall superior forecasting performance underscores the  
584 reliability of predicting wine demand from 2023 to 2025, considering the  
585 implementation of anti-dumping duties and the impact of COVID-19.

586

**Table 4. *Ex-post* Forecasting Accuracy.**

	SNaïve	ETS	SARIMA	ADL	Bayes.ensemble
<b>Red &amp; Rose</b>					
RMSE	1.114	0.765	0.765	0.628	<b>0.613</b>
MAPE	6.225	4.287	4.235	3.713	<b>3.551</b>
MASE	1.000	0.690	0.681	0.897	<b>0.860</b>
<b>White</b>					
RMSE	1.979	1.559	1.452	<b>0.787</b>	0.803
MAPE	12.996	10.203	9.608	<b>5.061</b>	5.185
MASE	1.000	0.772	0.724	<b>0.444</b>	0.454
<b>Sparkling</b>					
RMSE	1.041	0.810	0.851	0.428	<b>0.347</b>
MAPE	7.129	5.734	5.533	2.673	<b>2.388</b>
MASE	1.000	0.787	0.756	0.446	<b>0.391</b>
<b>Average</b>					
RMSE	1.378	1.045	1.023	0.614	<b>0.588</b>
MAPE	8.784	6.742	6.459	3.816	<b>3.708</b>
MASE	1.000	0.750	0.720	0.595	<b>0.568</b>

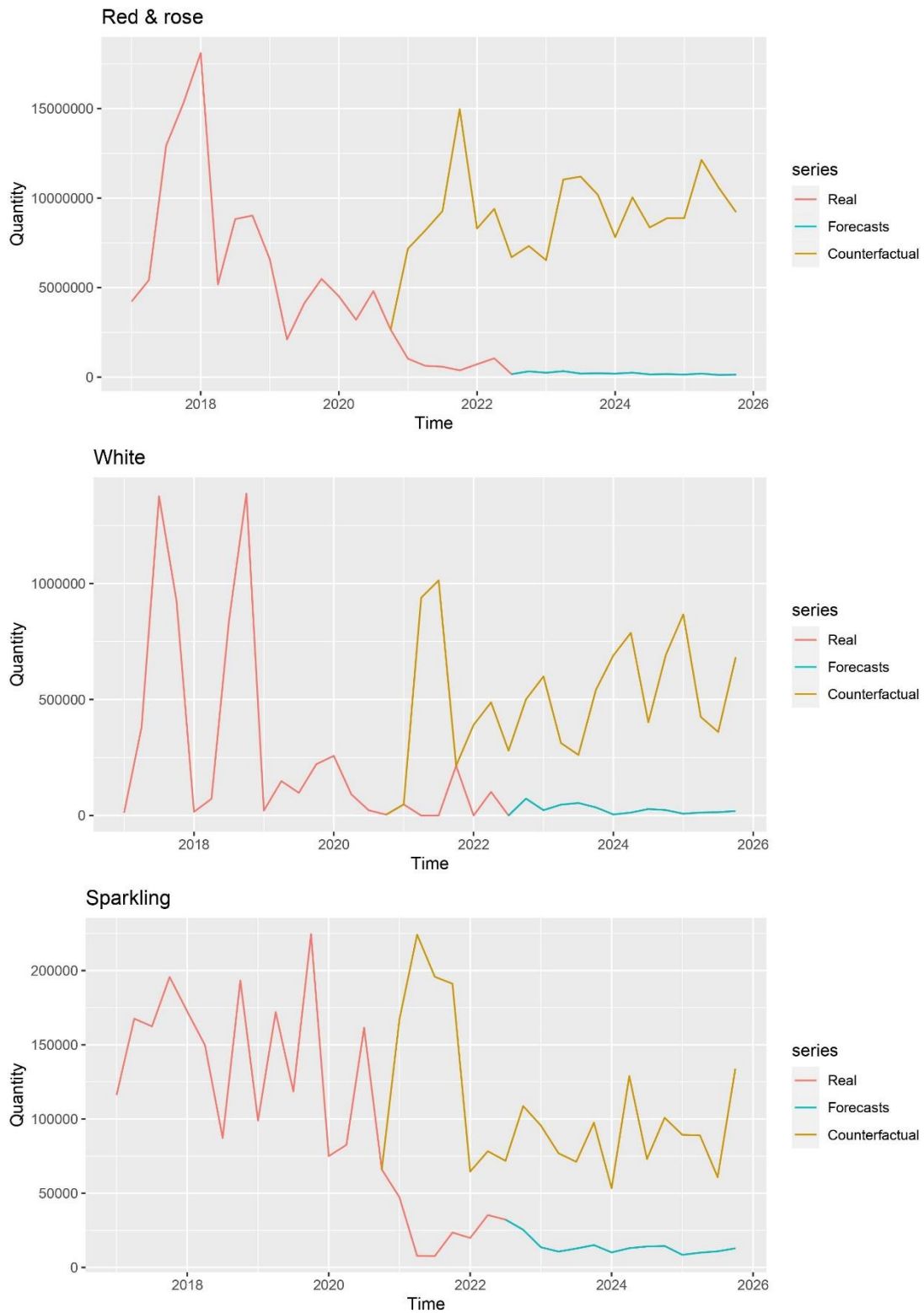
587 Note: Values in bold represent the lowest value of accuracy measurements for each model, indicating  
588 the model with the best model fitness.

589 *Ex-ante forecasts*

590 The Bayesian ensemble model was employed to generate *ex-ante* quarterly wine  
591 demand forecasts for the three types of wines in the Chinese market from 2023 to  
592 2025. Additionally, counterfactual forecasts were generated from 2022 to predict how  
593 anti-dumping duties would impact wine demand. The scenario assumes the absence of  
594 anti-dumping duties. In practice, the quarterly impacts of the anti-dumping duties are  
595 added back to the 2021 Australian wine exports to China, based on the DID  
596 estimations in Fig. 1. To prevent the tariff from affecting wine trading prices in the

597 counterfactual forecasting, export prices after 2021 are extended using the univariate  
598 forecasting model based on the normal period. Fig. 4 illustrates the quarterly historical  
599 data, *ex-ante* forecasts, and counterfactual predictions from 2017 Quarter 1 to 2025  
600 Quarter 4, while Table 5 presents the annual forecasts and the calculated average  
601 annual growth rate (AAGR). Overall, most wine demand forecasts exhibit significant  
602 fluctuations due to the implementation of anti-dumping duties on imported wine from  
603 Australia to China.





604

605 **Fig. 4. Historical, *Ex-ante* forecasting, and Counterfactual Forecasts of Imported**  
 606 **Australian Wine from 2017 to 2025.**

607 In terms of the *ex-ante* forecasts, the wine demand for all three types of wine is expected  
 608 to remain at a low level since the anti-dumping duties were initiated in 2021, and it is

609 projected to continuously decrease with an Average Annual Growth Rate (AAGR) of -  
610 21.92%, -38.90%, and -9.54%, respectively. This indicates a substantial impact due to  
611 the anti-dumping duties. According to the counterfactual predictions, the demand for  
612 red & rose wine in the Chinese market could increase to nearly 40.83 million, with an  
613 AAGR of 3.2%. Meanwhile, white wine demand might experience an average annual  
614 growth rate of 20.37%, reaching 2.33 million in 2025. The demand for sparkling wine  
615 in the Chinese market appears to be more stable than the other two types of wines, both  
616 historically and in terms of predictions. However, a notable level shift occurs in the  
617 counterfactual predictions compared to the original forecasts. In this way, the  
618 accumulated losses caused by the implementation of anti-dumping duties from 2021 to  
619 2025 are 96.11%, 93.15% and 84.11% for red & rose, white and sparkling wine,  
620 respectively.

**Table 5. *Ex-ante* and Counterfactual Australian Wine Demand Forecasts.**

Year	Red & rose		White		Sparkling	
	<i>Ex-ante</i>	Counterfactual	<i>Ex-ante</i>	Counterfactual	<i>Ex-ante</i>	Counterfactual
2019	18,318,737.40	-	488,622.00	-	614,019.85	-
2020	15,183,267.40	-	375,254.50	-	385,103.50	-
2021	2,629,177.70	39,609,491.00	262,428.00	2,213,973.90	86,289.15	778,308.40
2022	2,262,182.78	31,725,559.60	174,962.03	1,658,001.41	112,792.18	323,470.81
2023	992,871.89	38,958,984.79	158,656.53	1,714,522.71	52,116.52	341,255.75
2024	771,148.29	35,104,254.28	68,620.32	2,570,817.21	51,752.48	356,184.12
2025	605,311.53	40,826,881.00	54,172.56	2,334,103.00	42,235.57	373,038.41
AAGR 2023-2025	-21.92%	3.20%	-38.90%	20.37%	-9.54%	4.55%
Accumulated loss (%)		96.11%		93.15%		84.11%

Note: Accumulated loss= 1-(*Ex-ante*/Counterfactual)

## 5. Conclusions

### *Discussion*

To conclude, this study utilized the DID methodology to investigate the short-run effect of anti-dumping duties on Australian wine exports to China, and a Bayesian ensemble ADL model was employed to predict the continuous long-run effect up to 2025. Parallel and placebo tests were conducted in the DID analysis to examine the robustness of the results. The imposition of anti-dumping duties on imported Australian wine led to a significant decline in red & rose, white, and sparkling wine exports to China in 2021, with decreases of 92.59%, 99.06%, and 90.06%, respectively, compared to a scenario without such policy intervention. The significant drop corresponds to the previous literature related to the responsiveness and sensitivity of overall wine demand to policy (Carbon, 2021), and indirectly reflects potential disturbances in individual purchasing behaviour (Taghikhah et al., 2020) that aggregated to the reduction of wine demand at the macro level. Consistent with the industrial news and reports, this policy had a substantial impact on freezing wine exports from Australia to China (The Guardian, 2023; Wine Australian, 2022).

Turning to the long-run effect, alongside co-integration tests and elasticity analysis, the forecasting performance of the proposed Bayesian ensemble method was evaluated by generating *ex-post* forecasts and comparing them with results from various benchmark forecasting models. The findings demonstrate that, on average, the Bayesian ensemble method exhibited the highest accuracy in forecasting Australian wine exports to China. According to the *ex-ante* forecasts, influenced by the anti-dumping duties, wine exports to China will continue to decline with average annual growth rates of -21.92%, -38.90%, and -9.54% for red & rose, white, and sparkling wines, respectively, from 2023 to 2025. Counterfactual predictions suggest that, without anti-dumping duties, red & rose, white, and sparkling wine exports to China would increase by 3.20%, 20.37%, and 4.55%, respectively. By quantifying the difference between actual and counterfactual forecasts, the continuation of the anti-dumping duty policy could lead to decreases of 96.11%, 93.15%, and 84.11% in red & rose, white, and sparkling wine exports to China between 2021 and 2025.

Considering that Australian white and sparkling wines hold limited market shares and that the accumulated decrease in red & rose wine amounts to 96.11%, this suggests that Australian wine could nearly exit the Chinese market within the next three years. Although neither China nor Australia is each other's top wine trade partner, the quantity and value of trade significantly

contribute to both countries' international wine business markets.

### *Research significance*

Differing from other macro-level studies, this research incorporates policy factors into the analysis framework of wine demand. It was found that the implementation of anti-dumping tax policies significantly reduced Australia's wine exports to China. It implies that when forecasting wine demand for a country or region, it's crucial to consider not only market factors but also policy factors, thereby enriching the literature in this field. This study also makes the following two empirical contributions. First, differing from the previous commodities and services studies that independently consider the individual- and time-fixed effects when using the DID method for policy assessment, this study is the first to address the potential endogeneity in the international trade markets by incorporating the individual and time effects as well as their interactive terms. This DID quasi-experimental design provides guidelines for policy evaluation in a complex market environment where the time-dependent impact of unobservable factors occurs. Second, this study introduces a novel forecasting method, the Bayesian ensemble, to improve time series forecasting performance with fluctuating data. The Bayesian ensemble method is robust and superior because it integrates multiple Bayesian estimations from bootstrapped series according to their Bayesian factors.

Practically, policy impact analysis can assist the wine industry in better preparing for changes, especially during turbulent periods. Although the movement to end the tariff on Australian barley exports by China starting from Aug 2023 provides a positive perspective for Australian wine export, both countries are planning to diversify markets and explore substitute markets to meet demand and manage supply. Therefore, New World wines such as Chilean and New Zealand wines should strategically develop plans to expand the market share in China. New World winemakers and merchants should organize more promotional activities for Chinese customers. The government should endeavour to engage with China under the One Belt One Road scheme to reduce wine tariffs. There is also an opportunity to promote domestic wine to Chinese consumers. Addressing the challenge of high costs, including production techniques and taxation, could involve government interventions like tax deductions or subsidies to promote domestic wine and fill the demand gap created by the absence of Australian wine. For Australia, wine traders should explore markets in other countries and regions, seeking new trading partners to diversify the destination markets of Australian wine exports, thus reducing the vulnerability to overwhelmingly influences from policy changes in one particular destination.

### *Research prospects and limitations*

This study advances the wine economic literature by applying cutting-edge causal inference and Bayesian ensemble methods to investigate policy intervention impacts on international wine demand. It establishes a rigorous economic framework to assess policy impacts in the short and long run, contributing to the wine economic literature. This framework can be extended to other wine markets to explore potential future market fluctuations caused by external shocks such as carbon-neutral policies.

One limitation of this study is the scope of analysis due to data availability constraints. Future studies could broaden the analysis to encompass the global wine market, developing a more comprehensive framework for policy impact analysis. Additionally, this study did not account for potential simultaneous impacts, like the pandemic's influence on international wine demand, in the short-run analysis. In the future, advanced causal inference methods could be integrated to identify the effects of various external shocks occurring simultaneously on international wine demand.

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