

1 Do Sustainability Strategies Affect Technical Efficiency? Evidence from Italian GI 2 Wine Farms

3 Alberto Ceccacci¹, Andrea Mattia Pacifico², Luca Camanzi³, Giulio Malorgio⁴

4
5 ¹ Council for Agricultural Research and Economics, Research Centre for Policy and Bioeconomy
6 (CREA-PB), Borgo XX Giugno, 74 06121, Perugia (PG), Italy, Email: alberto.ceccacci@gmail.com

7 ² Department of Agricultural and Food Sciences, University of Bologna, Viale Fanin 50, 40127, Bologna,
8 Italy, Email: andreamattia.pacifico@unibo.it

9 ³ Department of Agricultural and Food Sciences, University of Bologna, Viale Fanin 50, 40127, Bologna,
10 Italy, Email: luca.camanzi@unibo.it

11 ⁴ Department of Agricultural and Food Sciences, University of Bologna, Viale Fanin 50, 40127, Bologna,
12 Italy, Email: giulio.malorgio@unibo.it

13
14 Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Andrea Mattia Pacifico, Department of
15 Agricultural and Food Sciences, University of Bologna, Viale Fanin 50, 40127, Bologna, Italy, Email:
16 andreamattia.pacifico@unibo.it. This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer
17 review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which
18 may lead to differences between this version and the Version of Record.

19
20 Please cite this article as:

21
22 Ceccacci A., Pacifico A.M., Camanzi L., Malorgio G. (2026), Do Sustainability Strategies Affect
23 Technical Efficiency? Evidence from Italian GI Wine Farms, **Wine Economics and Policy**, Just
24 Accepted.

25 DOI: 10.36253/wep-19801

26

27 **Abstract**

28 Sustainability has become a central objective of agricultural policies and business strategies as resource
29 constraints and societal expectations increasingly affect production systems. The global wine industry is
30 undergoing a structural transformation in which sustainability is no longer voluntary but increasingly
31 required for market access. In this context, sustainability-oriented strategies adopted by wine farms, such
32 as agri-environmental measures, certification schemes, and labor-related practices, may influence not
33 only environmental and social outcomes but also their productive performance. In Italy, the world's
34 leading wine producer by volume, these dynamics are particularly evident among Geographical
35 Indication (GI) producers, for whom sustainability is a strategic lever to preserve the terroir underpinning
36 product value. This study investigates whether sustainability-oriented strategies are associated with
37 differences in technical efficiency among Italian GI winegrape producers. The analysis adopts a
38 Stochastic Frontier Analysis framework in which technical inefficiency is modelled as a function of farm
39 characteristics and sustainability-related determinants, drawing on a balanced panel of 2,044
40 observations from the Italian Farm Accountancy Data Network for the period 2021–2023. The results
41 reveal significant heterogeneity in technical efficiency. Our main finding is that organic certification
42 entails a significant short-run efficiency penalty among Italian GI winegrape producers, while
43 participation in agri-environmental schemes under the CAP is associated with improved efficiency,
44 suggesting that public policy instruments can partially, though not fully, compensate for the productive
45 costs of sustainability transitions. Diversification and on-farm processing are also associated with higher
46 inefficiency, reflecting the scope mismatch between the estimated frontier and the full range of activities
47 in which vertically integrated firms deploy their resources. Overall, the findings carry direct implications
48 for management and policymaking in support of the sustainability transition of the Italian GI wine value
49 chain.

50 **Keywords:** Stochastic Frontier Analysis; Sustainability; Technical efficiency; Wine economics.

51 **1. Introduction**

52 Over the past decades, sustainability has become a defining challenge for agricultural systems, driven by
53 intensifying climate change impacts, natural resource depletion, and rising regulatory and societal
54 expectations for environmental responsibility [1], [2]. Within the European Union (EU), sustainability
55 has been progressively mainstreamed through major policy frameworks, notably the Common
56 Agricultural Policy (CAP) and the Farm to Fork Strategy. The latter explicitly frames sustainability as a
57 core principle of food systems governance [3], and promotes environmental cross-compliance, agri-

58 environmental payments, and social conditionality mechanisms [4]. These initiatives are embedded
59 within the broader framework of the European Green Deal, which outlines a roadmap toward climate
60 neutrality by 2050 and identifies agriculture as a key sector for reducing greenhouse gas emissions,
61 protecting biodiversity, and enhancing resource efficiency [5].

62 Among agricultural sectors, the global wine industry is undergoing profound structural transformation
63 [6]. Wine production is characterized by high capital intensity, high sensitivity to climate variability, and
64 exposure to input and market dynamics [1], [7]. Driven by the dual pressures of climate change and
65 shifting consumer preferences for high-quality, ethically produced goods, sustainability has evolved from
66 a voluntary corporate social responsibility goal into a fundamental requirement for market access and
67 competitiveness. According to the International Organisation of Vine and Wine (OIV), sustainability
68 entails a comprehensive approach that integrates economic viability, product quality, environmental
69 protection, and the preservation of cultural and landscape values [8]. Within the wine sector, this concept
70 translates into environmental stewardship, climate change mitigation and adaptation through the
71 conservation of ecosystems, operational efficiency, and social responsibility toward workers, local
72 communities, and cultural identity [1], [9].

73 The sector is deeply embedded in territorial and cultural contexts, particularly within quality-oriented
74 systems based on Geographical Indications (GI) (i.e., IGT, DOC, and DOCG) wines, where product
75 value is closely tied to terroir-specific attributes, local knowledge, and landscape preservation. In these
76 settings, sustainability becomes a critical driver of quality differentiation, territorial identity, and long-
77 term competitive advantage [10]. In Italy, the world's leading wine producer by volume, this
78 transformation is particularly visible among producers of GI wines [11], [12]. For these quality-oriented
79 farms, sustainability is not merely an environmental concern but a strategic necessity to preserve the
80 *terroir* that underpins their economic value [13], [14]. Understanding how sustainability-oriented
81 practices are embedded within production and organizational processes is therefore increasingly
82 recognized as crucial for guiding the long-term development and resilience of the wine sector under
83 growing environmental and climatic pressures [15].

84 However, the integration of sustainability into the wine value chain often creates complex trade-offs.
85 Although the adoption of organic practices or social certifications enhances the "green" value of the final
86 product, it remains unclear how these strategies impact the internal technical efficiency of the production
87 process [16]. Existing research often treats economic efficiency and environmental sustainability as
88 separate performance dimensions [17], [18]. Previous studies have largely focused on structural and
89 territorial determinants of efficiency in viticulture, without explicitly incorporating sustainability-

90 oriented strategies as inefficiency determinants. Fertő and Bojnec (2023) examined the effect of CAP
91 subsidies on technical efficiency in Hungarian wine farms, finding that aggregate subsidy payments are
92 negatively associated with efficiency [19]. However, their analysis does not distinguish between specific
93 policy instruments, notably agro-climatic-environmental (AEC) scheme participation, nor does it account
94 for value-chain transformation strategies such as on-farm processing and diversification. Similarly, Ait
95 Sidhoum et al. (2023) analyzed the effects of AEC schemes on farm-level eco-efficiency across EU
96 member states using the Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) and focused on dairy and crop production
97 rather than viticulture [20]. No study to date has jointly examined the productive efficiency implications
98 of AEC participation, organic certification, and value-chain transformation strategies among Italian GI
99 winegrape producers using a representative panel dataset.

100 Against this backdrop, this study investigates whether environmental and social strategies, such as
101 participation in agri-environmental measures, certification schemes, and labor-related practices, are
102 associated with differences in technical efficiency. While organic certification may entail transition and
103 compliance costs that temporarily reduce efficiency, AEC scheme participation could prove compatible
104 with, or even supportive of, productive performance, given the incentive structures embedded in CAP
105 payments [19], [20]. Structural and geographical heterogeneity may mediate the relationship between
106 sustainability strategies and efficiency outcomes, with larger farms and specific AEC contexts potentially
107 moderating both the adoption of green practices and their productive implications [18], [19].
108 Specifically, the study is guided by two interrelated research questions. RQ1: To what extent do green
109 practices, specifically organic certification and participation in AEC schemes, trade off with productive
110 efficiency among Italian GI winegrape producers? RQ2: Do firm size and territorial location
111 systematically influence the efficiency gap across producers? To this end, we employ a stochastic frontier
112 analysis (SFA) approach, in which we model technical inefficiency as a function of farm characteristics
113 and sustainability-related determinants. The empirical analysis is based on farm-level data from the Farm
114 Accountancy Data Network for Italy (FADN/RICA), focusing on Italian GI producers. This approach
115 enables us to disentangle the efficiency implications of distinct sustainability strategies and to derive
116 policy-relevant insights for the transition of the Italian GI wine value chain. The remainder of the paper
117 is organized as follows. Section 2 reviews the relevant literature on efficiency and sustainability in
118 agricultural and wine systems. Section 3 presents the empirical model and data. Section 4 reports the
119 results of the stochastic frontier estimation. Section 5 discusses the findings along three dimensions:
120 structural and social factors, environmental strategies, and value-chain transformation. Section 6
121 concludes with policy implications and directions for future research.

122 2. Literature review on integrating sustainability into firms' efficiency analysis

123 The concept of efficiency has long been a central reference point within economics, operations research,
124 and policy analysis. Traditionally, it has been defined in narrowly economic or technical terms,
125 emphasizing the relationship between inputs and outputs, cost minimization, productivity maximization,
126 and optimal resource allocation, which have been interpreted as core elements of economic sustainability
127 by enhancing firms' viability, competitiveness, and long-term capacity to operate in the market [21].

128 However, a growing body of literature has highlighted important limitations of this perspective,
129 particularly regarding the insufficient integration of environmental and social sustainability
130 considerations [22], [23]. Efficiency gains achieved through intensive resource use or through the
131 externalization of environmental costs may therefore prove unsustainable over the long term. Porter and
132 Van der Linde (1995) challenged the notion of an inherent trade-off between environmental protection
133 and economic performance, arguing that innovation-induced environmental improvements can enhance
134 resource productivity and firms' competitiveness [24]. Subsequent contributions have refined this view
135 by emphasizing that complementarities between economic performance and sustainability outcomes are
136 not automatic but context-dependent and contingent on firms' strategic choices and institutional settings,
137 as articulated in the shared value theory [25].

138 By contrast, the social dimension remains comparatively underexplored. Aspects such as labor
139 conditions, equity, health impacts, and generational renewal are rarely incorporated into efficiency
140 models due to their complexity and the lack of standardized measurement frameworks [26], [27]. As a
141 result, efficiency outcomes may legitimize practices that appear economically optimal but are socially
142 unsustainable in the long run.

143 Efficiency and sustainability are two fundamental concepts in the management of natural resources, yet
144 significant discrepancies can arise between them. These discrepancies frequently occur in decision-
145 making processes regarding ecosystem management, where trade-offs between efficiency and
146 sustainability must be considered in an integrated manner [28]. Despite their differences (efficiency
147 focuses on avoiding wasteful behavior, while sustainability aims to maintain critical aspiration levels),
148 these two concepts are not necessarily mutually exclusive in the pursuit of optimal long-term solutions
149 in the intertemporal allocation of resources [29].

150 These conceptual challenges have motivated the development of analytical approaches capable of
151 integrating sustainability dimensions into performance measurement. In particular, environmental
152 considerations have been incorporated into efficiency analysis through methodological extensions of
153 Data Envelopment Analysis (DEA) and SFA that account for undesirable outputs such as emissions and

154 waste [30], [31]. While the comparison between efficiency and sustainability in agricultural production
155 is well documented [32], [33], applications to viticulture and wine production have mainly focused on
156 environmental indicators such as energy and water efficiency [34]. The relationship becomes more
157 complex when considering the social dimension, although Social Life Cycle Assessment can be used in
158 wine research to evaluate the social sustainability of wine production processes [35] or through efficiency
159 frameworks based on farm-level indicators [14].

160 The urgency to identify strategies capable of generating both efficient and sustainable outcomes has also
161 been emphasized in the agri-food supply chain literature, where integrated performance frameworks are
162 increasingly advocated [36]. Overall, the reviewed literature points to a persistent gap between the
163 methodological advances in integrating sustainability into efficiency analysis and their systematic
164 application to quality-oriented wine systems, particularly with regard to the joint assessment of
165 environmental strategies, CAP instruments, and value-chain transformation. This gap motivates the
166 empirical framework developed in the following sections.

167 **3. Materials and methods**

168 **3.1. Model specification**

169 To model the production process of wineries and to investigate how sustainability-related strategies are
170 associated with productive performance, we adopt a SFA approach based on the one-step inefficiency
171 effects model [37]. This framework enables us to modeling technical inefficiency as a function of farm
172 characteristics and environmental and social determinants. Technical efficiency is widely employed as
173 an empirical proxy for the economic dimension of sustainability [38], [39]. Compared to non-parametric
174 alternatives such as DEA, SFA decomposes deviations from the production frontier into a stochastic
175 noise component and a one-sided inefficiency term, allowing formal statistical inference on both
176 technology parameters and inefficiency determinants [40]. The one-step specification is preferable to the
177 two-step approach, in which efficiency scores are estimated first and then regressed on exogenous
178 variables. As Wang and Schmidt (2002) demonstrate, this sequential procedure violates the distributional
179 assumptions maintained in the first stage and yields downward-biased parameter estimates [41]. By
180 simultaneously estimating the production frontier and the inefficiency equation via maximum likelihood,
181 the one-step model avoids this inconsistency, which is particularly relevant in panel settings with
182 exogenous inefficiency determinants. Previous studies have adopted this perspective while treating
183 social, environmental, and structural attributes as determinants of inefficiency rather than as direct
184 measures of sustainability [42]. Accordingly, we employ the inefficiency effects model to assess how

185 these attributes are associated with the efficiency dimension, without equating overall sustainability with
186 technical performance [38], [42].

187 The analysis is conducted under the assumption of the following production function (Eq. 1):

$$y_{it} = f(x_{it}; \alpha) + v_{it} - u_{it} \quad (1)$$

188 where y_{it} is the output generated by the firm, x_{it} are the inputs to production, v_{it} indicates stochastic
189 noise and u_{it} represents technical inefficiency. The random errors are assumed to be i.i.d. following a
190 normal distribution $N(0, \sigma_v^2)$, while we model inefficiency as a function of exogenous variables. The
191 inefficiency determinants function follows the form: (Eq. 2)

$$u_{it} = \delta_0 + z_{it}\delta + w_{it} \quad (2)$$

192 where z_{it} is a vector of technical inefficiency explanatory variables, δ is a vector of parameters, and w_{it}
193 is the i.i.d. error term. Positive coefficients in the inefficiency equation indicate higher inefficiency (i.e.,
194 lower technical efficiency), whereas negative coefficients are associated with lower inefficiency (i.e.,
195 higher technical efficiency).

196 We conduct model specification tests to identify the appropriate functional form (i.e., Cobb-Douglas
197 versus Translog), to confirm frontier existence, and to assess the distribution of inefficiency effects. We
198 then apply maximum likelihood to estimate simultaneously the parameters of the SFA and the model for
199 inefficiency effects. We perform all estimations using Stata 18 [43].

200

201 3.2. Data

202 A set of farm-level variables among wine producers under Italy's GI schemes was extracted from the
203 Italian FADN. The dataset provides harmonized structural, economic, social, and environmental
204 information on agricultural holdings through an annual sample survey conducted in all European Union
205 Member States according to a common methodology [44].

206 The selection of variables is informed by the literature on wine production processes and agricultural
207 sustainability [14], [18]. Specifically, the production frontier includes utilized grape-growing area, labor
208 costs, energy costs, pesticides and fertilizers expenditures. Output is measured as total grape production
209 in kilograms. The inefficiency effects equation includes the core sustainability determinants of interest,
210 organized into three dimensions: (i) social and structural factors, including farmer's age and gender, farm
211 size, altitude, and regional location; (ii) environmental strategies, encompassing organic certification,
212 participation in AEC schemes, and the proportion of expenditures on pesticide classified as toxic relative
213 to total pesticide expenditures (ToxicShare); (iii) value chain transformation, captured by the presence
214 of on-farm processing (transformation of grapes into wine), and diversification into non-agricultural

215 activities (e.g., agritourism). AEC scheme participation involves a multi-year contractual commitment
216 under CAP Rural Development Programmes, agreed prior to the production period, and is therefore not
217 simultaneously determined with annual input allocations. ToxicShare reflects the historical composition
218 of the farm's pesticide portfolio rather than a period-specific optimization choice. Both variables are
219 therefore treated as predetermined determinants of inefficiency.

220 The inclusion of farmer age and gender as inefficiency determinants follows an established practice in
221 the agricultural efficiency literature and responds to specific features of the Italian wine sector. Younger
222 farmers tend to combine higher propensity toward technological innovation and sustainability adoption
223 with structural disadvantages in access to land and credit, generating theoretically ambiguous effects on
224 short-run efficiency [45], [46]. Female farm holders in Italy face persistent structural inequalities in
225 resource endowments, including access to land, capital, and inputs, documented as primary drivers of
226 performance gaps in the Italian agricultural sector [47]. In the viticulture sector specifically, persistent
227 social norms have historically limited women's access to landownership and decision-making [48].
228 Moreover, female farmers have been shown to display stronger orientations toward resource efficiency
229 and sustainability practices, including participation in agri-environmental schemes [45]. We base the
230 empirical analysis on a balanced panel dataset of 2,044 observations observed over the 2021–2023
231 period.

232 4. Results

233 4.1. Descriptive statistics

234 Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the variables included in the analysis. Sustainability-related
235 attributes, including organic certification, diversification, farmer demographics, and participation in AEC
236 schemes, display relatively low adoption rates, with mean values ranging from 0.11 to 0.23. Expenditures
237 on toxic pesticides account for approximately 24% of total pesticide spending, suggesting a non-
238 negligible reliance on chemically intensive practices within the sample.

239 From an economic perspective, the cost structure of production is strongly labor- and input-intensive.
240 Labor represents the largest cost component, averaging €19,346 per farm. Among variable inputs,
241 pesticides account for 37.6% of expenditures, followed by fertilizers (22.6%) and energy (6.8%),
242 highlighting the central role of input management in shaping both productive performance and the
243 resource-use dimension of sustainability.

244 Average input productivities confirm the structural heterogeneity of the sample. Labor productivity
245 displays particularly strong positive skewness (skewness = 21.70; kurtosis = 545.80), reflecting the

246 coexistence of highly intensive and more extensive producers. A robustness checks excluding
 247 observations above the 99th percentile in labor productivity yields efficiency scores with a Pearson
 248 correlation of 0.9968 and a Spearman rank correlation of 0.9965 ($p < 0.001$) with the baseline
 249 specification, confirming that outliers do not materially affect the frontier estimation. Most farms operate
 250 in inland hilly areas (46%), belong to medium–large economic size classes (€100,000–€500,000; 32%),
 251 and are located in North-Eastern Italy (35%). The average vineyard area exceeds the national mean (2.8
 252 ha), likely reflecting the exclusion of small farms from the FADN sampling frame. Additionally, 27% of
 253 wineries engage in on-farm processing, indicating the presence of vertically integrated production models
 254 extending beyond primary grape cultivation.

255

256 **Table 1.** Descriptive statistics

Type	Variable	Description	Unit	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Output	Grapes	Grape production	Kg.	851.32	1641.50	9	51160
	Fertilizer	Fertilizer expenditure	€	2424.67	5408.00	1	83966
	Pesticides	Pesticide expenditure	€	3845.51	6960.88	19	97560
Inputs	Land	Agricultural area	Ha.	9.06	13.52	1.36	277.17
	Labor	Labor costs	€	19345.76	33805.46	80	672000
	Energy	Energy costs	€	1114.22	4470.69	1	58072
	Organic	Organic certification	Dummy	0.19	0.39	0	1
	Female	Female farmer	Dummy	0.23	0.42	0	1
	Diversified	Farms undertaking income diversification activities outside primary agricultural production (e.g., agritourism)	Dummy	0.15	0.36	0	1
	Young	Young farmer	Dummy	0.11	0.32	0	1
	AEC	Farms receiving payments under agro-climatic-environmental measures	Dummy	0.21	0.41	0	1
	ToxicShare	Share of expenditure on pesticides classified as toxic relative to total pesticide expenditure	Proportion	0.24	0.39	0	1
	Processing	On-farm processing	Dummy	0.27	0.44	0	1
Inefficiency determinants	<i>Altitude</i>						
	Hills inland	Farms located in inland hilly areas	Dummy	0.46	0.50	0	1
	Hills coastal	Farms located in coastal hilly areas	Dummy	0.12	0.33	0	1
	Mountains	Farms located in mountainous areas	Dummy	0.13	0.34	0	1
	Plains	Farms located in plain areas	Dummy	0.29	0.45	0	1
	<i>Economic size</i>						
	[8k–25k)	Standard Output €8,000–25,000	Dummy	0.14	0.34	0	1
	[25k–50k)	Standard Output €25,000–50,000	Dummy	0.24	0.43	0	1
	[50k–100k)	Standard Output €50,000–100,000	Dummy	0.27	0.45	0	1
	[100k–500k)	Standard Output €100,000–500,000	Dummy	0.32	0.47	0	1

Type	Variable	Description	Unit	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
	$\geq 500k$	Standard Output $\geq \text{€}500,000$					
	<i>Geographic location</i>						
	Centre	Farms located in Central Italy	Dummy	0.15	0.36	0	1
	Islands	Farms located in Italian island regions	Dummy	0.10	0.30	0	1
	South	Farms located in Southern Italy	Dummy	0.20	0.40	0	1
	North-West	Farms located in North-Western Italy	Dummy	0.20	0.40	0	1
	North-East	Farms located in North-Eastern Italy	Dummy	0.35	0.48	0	1

257 *Notes:* All dummy variables take value 1 if the condition holds and 0 otherwise.

258 4.2. Stochastic frontier results

259 The stochastic frontier estimates reveal considerable heterogeneity in technical efficiency among Italian
260 quality-oriented wineries, confirming that farms in the sample are inefficient (Table 2). Likelihood ratio
261 tests confirm that the Translog form (LR $\chi^2(15) = 130.52$) is appropriate and that inefficiency effects
262 are statistically significant (LR $\chi^2(19) = 384.57$). Moreover, the lambda parameter is significantly
263 different from zero, indicating that deviations from the frontier are predominantly attributable to
264 inefficiency rather than stochastic noise. The Translog specification uses logarithmic transformations of
265 the continuous production-frontier variables for both econometric and interpretative reasons: it linearizes
266 the multiplicative relationships between inputs and output, stabilizes variance across observations, and
267 reduces the influence of extreme values, while yielding coefficients interpretable as output elasticities.
268 Geographical conditions, such as regional location and altitude are significantly associated with
269 efficiency differentials, reflecting differences in agro-climatic conditions and territorial contexts [18].
270 Farm size is also significantly associated with efficiency differentials.

271 In terms of Utilised Agricultural Area (UAA) classes, average efficiency scores range from 0.67 (<5 ha)
272 to 0.68 (5-15 ha), 0.65 (15-40 ha) and 0.63 (>40 ha), which suggests the importance of also considering
273 the capital value and technological endowment (e.g., technological status) of the farm¹. Furthermore,
274 operating in the Southern and North Eastern regions of Italy has a positive effect on efficiency, although
275 the use of monetary units for production variables may partly reflect regional differences in input prices.

276

277 **Table 2.** Stochastic Frontier Analysis (SFA) results

Variable	Frontier Coefficient (β)	Std. Err.	p-value	Inefficiency Coefficient (δ)	Std. Err.	p-value
ln(Fertilizers)	-0.013	0.041	0.750	–	–	–
ln(Pesticides)	0.341	0.099	0.001	–	–	–

¹ Performing an auxiliary regression with UAA classes instead of Economic size does not report statistically significant effects of the former on inefficiency.

Variable	Frontier Coefficient (β)	Std. Err.	p-value	Inefficiency Coefficient (δ)	Std. Err.	p-value
ln(Land)	1.092	0.172	0.000	–	–	–
ln(Labor)	0.004	0.090	0.964	–	–	–
ln(Energy)	0.096	0.030	0.001	–	–	–
ln(Fertilizers) × ln(Pesticides)	0.005	0.008	0.565	–	–	–
ln(Fertilizers) × ln(Land)	-0.014	0.014	0.326	–	–	–
ln(Fertilizers) × ln(Labor)	-0.009	0.010	0.351	–	–	–
ln(Fertilizers) × ln(Energy)	-0.004	0.003	0.109	–	–	–
ln(Pesticides) × ln(Land)	-0.011	0.039	0.771	–	–	–
ln(Pesticides) × ln(Labor)	-0.041	0.020	0.038	–	–	–
ln(Pesticides) × ln(Energy)	-0.021	0.006	0.001	–	–	–
ln(Land) × ln(Labor)	0.066	0.037	0.073	–	–	–
ln(Land) × ln(Energy)	0.048	0.011	0.000	–	–	–
ln(Labor) × ln(Energy)	-0.012	0.006	0.062	–	–	–
ln(Fertilizers ²)	0.022	0.004	0.000	–	–	–
ln(Pesticides ²)	0.003	0.014	0.835	–	–	–
ln(Land ²)	-0.203	0.043	0.000	–	–	–
ln(Labor ²)	0.014	0.010	0.179	–	–	–
ln(Energy ²)	0.001	0.003	0.682	–	–	–
Organic	–	–	–	0.194	0.076	0.011
Female	–	–	–	0.016	0.066	0.803
Diversified	–	–	–	0.224	0.075	0.003
Young	–	–	–	-0.056	0.085	0.509
AEC	–	–	–	-0.166	0.079	0.036
ToxicShare	–	–	–	0.068	0.071	0.340
Processing	–	–	–	0.717	0.091	0.000
Alt_hills_inland	–	–	–	0.220	0.085	0.010
Alt_hills_coastal	–	–	–	-0.293	0.126	0.020
Alt_mountains	–	–	–	0.070	0.115	0.543
EconSize [25–50k)	–	–	–	-0.271	0.099	0.006
EconSize [50–100k)	–	–	–	-0.372	0.113	0.001
EconSize [100–500k)	–	–	–	-0.465	0.128	0.000
EconSize ≥ 500k	–	–	–	-0.581	0.222	0.009
Reg_Islands	–	–	–	-0.146	0.117	0.211
Reg_South	–	–	–	-0.877	0.148	0.000
Reg_NW	–	–	–	-0.035	0.085	0.683
Reg_NE	–	–	–	-0.724	0.118	0.000
Year	–	–	–	-0.029	0.055	0.597
Constant	2.498	0.537	0.000	0.228	0.173	0.188
Log-likelihood				-923.641		

278

279 The Translog production frontier reveals a technology structure in which land is the dominant input ($\beta =$
280 1.092, $p < 0.001$), confirming vineyard area as the primary determinant of grape output among Italian GI

281 producers. The negative and highly significant squared term for land ($\beta = -0.203$, $p < 0.001$) indicates
282 diminishing marginal returns as farm size increases. Pesticide expenditure is the second most influential
283 input ($\beta = 0.341$, $p < 0.001$), while energy contributes modestly but significantly ($\beta = 0.096$, $p < 0.001$).
284 Fertilizer and labor expenditures are not statistically significant at the first-order level. Among the
285 squared terms, only that of fertilizers is significant ($\beta = 0.022$, $p < 0.001$), indicating a non-linear effect.
286 Among interaction terms, pesticides \times labor ($\beta = -0.041$, $p = 0.038$) and pesticides \times energy ($\beta = -0.021$,
287 $p < 0.001$) are negative and significant, indicating substitutability between chemical inputs and both
288 labor-intensive and energy-efficient practices. Land \times energy ($\beta = 0.048$, $p < 0.001$) is positive and
289 significant, reflecting complementarity between farm scale and mechanized operations. Labor \times energy
290 ($\beta = -0.012$, $p = 0.062$) is marginally significant and negative. The sum of first-order coefficients implies
291 increasing returns to scale at the sample mean (≈ 1.52), moderated by the concavity of the land response
292 at higher acreage levels. Turning to the inefficiency equation, on-farm processing exhibits the largest
293 positive coefficient ($\delta = 0.717$, $p < 0.001$), followed by diversification ($\delta = 0.224$, $p = 0.003$) and organic
294 certification ($\delta = 0.194$, $p = 0.011$). AEC scheme participation is the only sustainability-related variable
295 associated with reduced inefficiency ($\delta = -0.166$, $p = 0.036$). Economic size displays a monotonic
296 efficiency gradient, from $\delta = -0.271$ for the [25k–50k) class to $\delta = -0.581$ for farms exceeding €500,000
297 in Standard Output (all significant at $p < 0.01$). Among regional dummies, South ($\delta = -0.877$, $p < 0.001$)
298 and North-East ($\delta = -0.724$, $p < 0.001$) are significantly more efficient than the reference group. Coastal
299 hilly areas are associated with lower inefficiency ($\delta = -0.293$, $p = 0.020$) while inland hills show higher
300 inefficiency ($\delta = 0.220$, $p = 0.010$). Demographic variables (Female, Young), ToxicShare, mountainous
301 altitude, and most regional dummies are not statistically significant.

302 Evidence from the Mann–Whitney test (Table 3) reveals significant differences between wineries
303 engaged in on-farm processing and those specializing exclusively in grape production. Transforming
304 wineries exhibit lower technical efficiency while simultaneously displaying stronger sustainability
305 profiles, as reflected in higher adoption rates of organic certification and diversification strategies. By
306 contrast, demographic characteristics such as farmer age and gender do not exert a statistically significant
307 influence on efficiency, nor does the share of toxic pesticides in total expenditure. Participation in AEC
308 schemes is associated with improved efficiency, although the effect remains only marginally significant
309 (5% level) and should therefore be interpreted with caution pending further investigation of the specific
310 measures involved.

311

312

313 **Table 3.** Means, standard deviation and Mann-Whitney statistics for social and environmental sustainability variables.

	Transformation_No (N=1499)		Transformation_Yes (N=545)		Mann— Whitney z	P-value
	Mean	St.Dev.	Mean	St.Dev.		
Organic	0.15	0.36	0.30	0.46	-7.34	0.00
Female	0.22	0.41	0.25	0.44	-1.57	0.12
Diversified	0.09	0.29	0.31	0.46	-11.87	0.00
Young	0.11	0.31	0.13	0.33	-1.20	0.23
AEC	0.20	0.40	0.23	0.42	-1.72	0.09
ToxicShare	0.23	0.39	0.26	0.42	-0.89	0.38
Efficiency	0.72	0.17	0.53	0.20	18.02	0.00

314

315 Overall, the results point to systematic differences between specialized and vertically integrated wineries.
 316 While grape-focused farms achieve higher efficiency levels, transforming wineries exhibit stronger
 317 environmental and organizational orientations, suggesting the presence of short-run trade-offs between
 318 technical efficiency and broader sustainability strategies.

319 5. Discussion

320 The wine sector represents a particularly relevant context for sustainability analysis, given its strong
 321 interdependence between economic performance, environmental stewardship, organizational
 322 complexity, and social value creation [2], [49].

323 This study provides empirical evidence on how economic, environmental, and social dimensions of
 324 sustainability coexist and interact within Italian wineries. By adopting an SFA framework, the analysis
 325 highlights the role of structural, organizational, and territorial factors in shaping heterogeneous
 326 sustainability pathways across firms. Given the static and short-term nature of the empirical setting, the
 327 analysis does not capture longer-term dynamics, such as gradual technological change or the evolving
 328 impacts of climate change [50]. Interpreting the estimates through the lens of organizational adaptation
 329 provides several insights into how sustainability-oriented strategies interact with productive performance
 330 in quality-differentiated wine systems.

331 In what follows, results are discussed according to the three main dimensions included in the inefficiency
 332 model: social and structural factors, environmental strategies, and value chain transformation.

333 5.1. Social and structural factors

334 From a structural perspective, the prominent role of economic size reinforces the interpretation of
 335 efficiency as structurally embedded within firms' organizational capacity [51], [52]. Wineries that invest
 336 the most in their growth, anticipate future challenges and interact with interest groups are more likely to
 337 be inclined towards adopting sustainability measures [53]. Larger wineries tend to benefit from greater

338 organizational capacity, which supports more efficient resource allocation, investment in innovative
339 technologies, and the integration of sustainability practices into production decisions [1]. These
340 capabilities may facilitate the adoption of sustainability-oriented strategies that require upfront
341 investments and more complex organizational structures.

342 Territorial conditions further reinforce the interpretation of efficiency as context dependent.
343 Geographical location and altitude capture heterogeneous agro-climatic and institutional conditions that
344 shape production practices and adaptation strategies [54]. In this regard, high-altitude viticulture is often
345 associated with environmental benefits and ecosystem services, while lowland areas tend to be more
346 oriented toward intensive production systems [14], [55]. The strong regional effects, particularly the
347 efficiency advantage of Southern and North-Eastern producers, likely reflect differences in production
348 system specialization, input market organization, and territorial infrastructure [56], [57]. The efficiency
349 advantage of coastal hilly areas over inland zones reflects more favorable microclimatic conditions for
350 viticulture.

351 The use of monetary input values may partly reflect regional differences in price levels, notably lower
352 costs of goods and services in Southern Italy, which could reduce measured input expenditure and
353 improve apparent efficiency. Furthermore, southern GI wine systems tend to be characterized by higher
354 degrees of production specialization, warmer and more stable climatic conditions that reduce weather-
355 related output variability, and in several appellations, lower yield restrictions compared to Northern GI
356 disciplinaries [57]. Disentangling price effects from genuine technological advantages would require
357 input quantity data, and we acknowledge this as a limitation of the current analysis.

358 *5.2. Environmental strategies*

359 The negative and significant interaction term between pesticides and labor in the estimated frontier
360 provides a technological foundation for interpreting the inefficiency results. Farms adopting labor-
361 intensive vineyard management, as is common among organic producers, face a technology that trades
362 chemical input reductions against higher labor requirements, without a proportional output gain [58].
363 This pattern is economically coherent and consistent with production theory: the higher inefficiency
364 associated with organic certification reflects the productive cost of operating under binding chemical-
365 input restrictions rather than any intrinsic managerial or technological deficiency. Similarly, the negative
366 interaction between pesticides and energy suggests that farms investing in precision or energy-efficient
367 technologies progressively reduce their reliance on chemical inputs, a pattern consistent with the long-
368 term logic of integrated production systems even if not fully captured by static efficiency scores [59].

369 Sustainability-oriented strategies are understood as additional constraints imposed on the production
370 problem [40]. Wineries adopting organic certification or participating in AEC schemes operate under
371 binding restrictions on input use, notably chemical inputs, that shift their production possibilities relative
372 to unconstrained producers. Within a static SFA framework, the resulting efficiency gap between organic
373 and non-organic producers is therefore an expected and economically coherent outcome, not necessarily
374 a signal of suboptimal management. The observed inefficiency reflects the cost of the constraint, not the
375 failure of the strategy.

376 The positive association between AEC participation and efficiency is particularly relevant from a policy
377 perspective. AEC payments function as a compensation mechanism for the efficiency costs associated
378 with greener production practices, contributing to the provision of environmental public goods and
379 reinforcing the social legitimacy of wine producers in responding to societal expectations for
380 environmental responsibility [60]. Investments related to organic certification and diversification do not
381 automatically translate into immediate efficiency gains and often require complementary capabilities to
382 become effective [61]. Overall, the direction of the two coefficients, i.e., positive for organic certification
383 and negative for AEC participation, suggests that current payment levels only partially offset the
384 productive costs of organic conversion. Nonetheless, the positive association between AEC participation
385 and lower inefficiency supports the policy rationale for maintaining and refining agri-environmental
386 payment schemes within the post-2027 CAP framework [62].

387 *5.3. Value chain transformation*

388 Value-chain transformation indicators, specifically on-farm grape processing and diversification into
389 non-agricultural activities such as agritourism are both positively and significantly associated with
390 technical inefficiency. The processing coefficient, the largest in magnitude across all inefficiency
391 determinants, reflects the fundamentally distinct production logic of on-farm winemaking relative to
392 primary viticulture. Vertical integration requires capital endowments, specialized labor, and managerial
393 capacity that are largely unrelated to the input combinations driving grape production efficiency, and
394 whose contribution is not captured by the output variable used in the frontier estimation. This
395 interpretation is further supported by the positive and significant complementarity between land and
396 energy in the estimated frontier, which suggests that scale-intensive farms allocate mechanized
397 operations predominantly toward grape production rather than downstream transformation. The lower
398 efficiency scores of vertically integrated wineries therefore reflect a scope mismatch between the

399 estimated frontier and the full range of activities in which their resources are deployed, rather than
400 suboptimal vineyard management [52], [57].

401 Sustainability pathways are increasingly shaped by firms' positioning along the value chain [63], [53].
402 Production-focused wineries tend to rely on specialized and input-intensive structures aimed at
403 maximizing short-term productive performance, whereas those engaged in transformation and
404 diversification adopt more complex, sustainability-oriented strategies along the value chain. Although
405 such strategies may increase organizational complexity and shift managerial attention away from core
406 production activities in the short term, they can be interpreted as adaptive responses that enhance
407 resilience to climatic, market, and regulatory risks. This is particularly relevant in quality wine systems,
408 where differentiation, reputation, and risk management often generate benefits that materialize over
409 longer horizons than those captured by static efficiency frameworks. In this regard, circular business
410 models and sustainability-oriented management systems, including precision viticulture and smart
411 farming, reflect a strategic shift toward data-driven and circular production processes that improve
412 environmental performance through more selective input use, even when these benefits are not fully
413 captured by static efficiency measures [64], [63], [49]. Consistent with existing evidence, value-added
414 and diversification strategies may therefore contribute to more resilient development trajectories despite
415 being associated with lower technical efficiency, reflecting the structural heterogeneity of the Italian wine
416 sector [57], [65].

417 Growing demand for eco-labels and certification-related signals, together with consumers' willingness
418 to pay price premiums for wines with environmental and social attributes, provides a market-based
419 rationale for sustainability strategies whose benefits may not be immediately reflected in productive
420 efficiency [66], [67]. Diversification strategies may further strengthen the territorial value of quality wine
421 production by reinforcing linkages with tourism and local identity, thereby supporting broader
422 sustainability objectives beyond short-term productive performance [63], [68].

423 **6. Conclusions**

424 This study examined how environmental and social strategies relate to technical efficiency among Italian
425 GI grapevine producers by adopting a SFA approach. The findings reveal substantial heterogeneity in
426 productive performance and indicate that sustainability-oriented choices may entail differentiated short-
427 run efficiency implications depending on the strategy adopted.

428 First, participation in agri-environmental schemes is associated with lower inefficiency, suggesting that
429 CAP-related measures can support sustainability transitions without compromising productive

430 performance. Second, organic certification is linked to higher short-run inefficiency, a pattern consistent
431 with adjustment and compliance costs rather than with structurally lower productive potential. Third,
432 indicators of value-chain transformation, including on-farm processing and diversification into non-
433 agricultural activities, also correlate with higher inefficiency, likely reflecting increased organizational
434 complexity and the reallocation of resources away from core production activities during phases of
435 strategic adaptation.

436 The results carry direct policy and managerial implications. Organic certification is associated with an
437 inefficiency increase, while AEC scheme participation is associated with an inefficiency reduction,
438 suggesting that current AEC payments only partially compensate for the productive costs imposed by
439 organic conversion. Farms undertaking organic certification face a net efficiency penalty that existing
440 agri-environmental payment levels may not fully absorb. Designing compensation mechanisms that are
441 explicitly calibrated to the productive costs of organic transition would more effectively support the
442 sustainability transition of GI wine producers while preserving their competitiveness. From a managerial
443 standpoint, the results suggest that producers considering organic certification should anticipate short-
444 run efficiency losses and plan accordingly, particularly in terms of labor organization and input
445 substitution strategies.

446 Taken together, these findings suggest that observed inefficiencies should not be interpreted solely as
447 indicators of suboptimal performance, but rather as manifestations of ongoing organizational and
448 production restructuring within sustainability-oriented business models.

449 From a policy and value-chain perspective, the results highlight the importance of designing instruments
450 and private standards capable of reducing transition costs while strengthening firms' learning processes
451 and managerial capabilities, particularly for smaller wineries and for those undertaking more complex
452 transformation pathways. Enhancing advisory services, facilitating investment mechanisms, and tailoring
453 agri-environmental incentives to quality/GI contexts may help align sustainability objectives with
454 competitiveness and long-term resilience across the Italian wine value chain.

455 This study has several limitations. Our short-term SFA provides a snapshot of efficiency differentials but
456 does not capture dynamic processes such as technological learning or capital accumulation; future
457 research should adopt dynamic efficiency approaches to assess whether the observed trade-offs evolve
458 as firms accumulate organizational and technological capabilities. The use of grape production in
459 kilograms as output may understate the performance of quality-focused producers who intentionally
460 restrict yields, while the use of monetary input values may introduce price-related components into the
461 efficiency estimates. Finally, the heterogeneity in input productivity distributions suggests the presence

462 of qualitatively distinct production clusters, whose identification represents a promising direction for
463 future research. Notwithstanding these limitations, this study provides novel empirical evidence on the
464 productive efficiency implications of sustainability-oriented strategies among Italian GI winegrape
465 producers, offering actionable insights for the design of agri-environmental instruments and managerial
466 decisions in quality wine systems.

467 **References**

- 468 [1] S. Morandi, I. Zinno, Sustainable practices in the wine sector: firm perspectives and actions, *Int. J.*
469 *Wine Bus. Res.* 37(4) (2025) 640–676. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJWBR-01-2025-0005>
- 470 [2] B. Rugani, L. Lamastra, A common framework for sustainability indicators in the wine sector:
471 Dream or reality?, *Curr. Opin. Environ. Sci. Health.* 31 (2023) 100408.
472 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.coesh.2022.100408>
- 473 [3] European Union, Farm to Fork Strategy. For a fair, healthy and environmentally-friendly food
474 system, Brussels, 2020. https://food.ec.europa.eu/horizontal-topics/farm-fork-strategy_en
475 (accessed 27 January 2026)
- 476 [4] European Union, Regulation (EU) 2021/2115 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 2
477 December 2021, *Off. J. Eur. Union* L435 (2021). <http://data.europa.eu/eli/reg/2021/2115/oj>
478 (accessed 27 January 2026).
- 479 [5] European Commission, The European Green Deal, Brussels, 2019. [https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-](https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52019DC0640)
480 [content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52019DC0640](https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52019DC0640) (accessed 27 January 2026)
- 481 [6] A.M. Pacifico, M. Calvia, G. Malorgio, What is driving the performance of Italian wine
482 cooperatives?, *Ital. Rev. Agric. Econ.* 80(3) (2025) 117–130. <https://doi.org/10.36253/rea-16585>
- 483 [7] M. Guerra, F. Ferreira, A.A. Oliveira, T. Pinto, C.A. Teixeira, Drivers of environmental
484 sustainability in the wine industry: A life cycle assessment approach, *Sustainability* 16(13) (2024)
485 5613. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su16135613>
- 486 [8] OIV, OIV guidelines for sustainable viticulture adapted to table grapes and raisins: production,
487 storage, drying, processing and packaging of products, 2011.
- 488 [9] V. Di Chiara, L. Cei, E. Pomarici, Is there any economic penalty for sustainability? A difference-
489 in-differences analysis of Italian wineries, *Sustainability* 17(22) (2025) 10162.
490 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su172210162>
- 491 [10] D. Cristallo, Geographical indications and biodiversity: An overview of regulatory challenges and
492 critical perspectives, *New Medit* 3 (2025) 47–58. <https://doi.org/10.30682/nm2503e>

- 493 [11] OIV, World Wine Production Outlook 2025, International Organisation of Vine and Wine, Dijon,
494 France, 2025. <https://www.oiv.int/press/oiv-releases-2025-world-wine-production-first-estimates>
495 (accessed May 15, 2026).
- 496 [12] R. da Rocha Oliveira Teixeira, S. Arcuri, A. Cavicchi, F. Galli, G. Brunori, D. Vergamini, Can
497 alternative wine networks foster sustainable business model innovation and value creation? The
498 case of organic and biodynamic wine in Tuscany, *Front. Sustain. Food Syst.* 7 (2023) 1241062.
499 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2023.1241062>
- 500 [13] R. Nirosha, J.P. Mansingh, Mapping the sustainability of geographical indication products: A
501 systematic literature review, *Discov. Sustain.* 6 (1) (2025) 549. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s43621-025-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s43621-025-01332-4)
502 [01332-4](https://doi.org/10.1007/s43621-025-01332-4)
- 503 [14] R. Sardone, S. De Leo, D. Longhitano, R. Henke, The new CAP and the challenge of sustainability:
504 A synthetic indicator for the Italian wine sector, *Wine Econ. Pol.* 12(1) (2023) 63–80.
505 <https://doi.org/10.36253/wep-13468>
- 506 [15] K.E. Gannon, D. Conway, M. Hardman, A. Nesbitt, S. Dorling, J. Borchert, Adaptation to climate
507 change in the UK wine sector, *Clim. Risk Manag.* 42 (2023) 100572.
508 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.crm.2023.100572>
- 509 [16] S.L. Golicic, Changes in sustainability in the global wine industry, *Int. J. Wine Bus. Res.* 34(3)
510 (2021) 392–409. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJWBR-03-2021-0021>
- 511 [17] C. Bernini, F. Galli, Economic and environmental efficiency, subsidies and spatio-temporal effects
512 in agriculture, *Ecol. Econ.* 218 (2024) 108120. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2024.108120>
- 513 [18] M. Santos, X.A. Rodríguez, A. Marta-Costa, Productive efficiency of wine grape producers in the
514 North of Portugal, *Wine Econ. Pol.* 10 (2) (2021) 3–14. <https://doi.org/10.36253/wep-8977>
- 515 [19] I. Fertő, Š. Bojnec, The common agricultural policy subsidies and the technical efficiency of
516 Hungarian wine farms, *Int. J. Wine Bus. Res.* 35(3) (2023) 413–426.
517 <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJWBR-09-2022-0032>
- 518 [20] A. Ait Sidhoum, C. Canessa, J. Sauer, Effects of agri-environment schemes on farm-level eco-
519 efficiency measures: Empirical evidence from EU countries, *J. Agric. Econ.* 74(2) (2023) 551–569.
520 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1477-9552.12520>
- 521 [21] M.J. Farrell, The measurement of productive efficiency, *J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. A.* 120 (3) (1957) 253–
522 290. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2343100>
- 523 [22] R.U. Ayres, A.V. Kneese, Production, consumption & externalities, *Am. Econ. Rev.* 59 (1969) 282–
524 296.

- 525 [23] H.E. Daly, Elements of environmental macroeconomics, in: R. Costanza (Ed.), Ecological
526 Economics: The Science and Management of Sustainability, Columbia University Press, New York,
527 1991, pp. 32–46.
- 528 [24] M.E. Porter, C. Van der Linde, Green and competitive: Ending the stalemate, *Harv. Bus. Rev.* 73(5)
529 (1995) 120–134.
- 530 [25] M.E. Porter, M.R. Kramer, Creating shared value, *Harv. Bus. Rev.* (2011).
531 <https://hbr.org/2011/01/the-big-idea-creating-shared-value> (accessed 26 January 2026).
- 532 [26] R. Gray, D. Collison, Can't see the wood for the trees, can't see the trees for the numbers?
533 Accounting education, sustainability and the public interest, *Crit. Perspect. Account.* 13(5) (2002)
534 797–836. <https://doi.org/10.1006/cpac.2002.0554>
- 535 [27] J. Elkington, *Cannibals with Forks: The Triple Bottom Line of 21st Century Business*, Capstone,
536 Oxford, 1997.
- 537 [28] L. Hein, *Economics and Ecosystems: Efficiency, Sustainability and Equity in Ecosystem*
538 *Management*, Edward Elgar Publishing, Cheltenham, 2010.
- 539 [29] B. Glaser, *Efficiency versus Sustainability in Dynamic Decision Making: Advances in*
540 *Intertemporal Compromising*, Springer, Berlin, 2002.
- 541 [30] Y.H. Chung, R. Färe, S. Grosskopf, Productivity and undesirable outputs: A directional distance
542 function approach, *J. Environ. Manag.* 51 (3) (1997) 229–240.
543 <https://doi.org/10.1006/jema.1997.0146>
- 544 [31] R. Färe, S. Grosskopf, C.A.K. Lovell, C. Pasurka, Multilateral productivity comparisons when some
545 outputs are undesirable: A nonparametric approach, *Rev. Econ. Stat.* 71 (1) (1989) 90–98.
546 <https://doi.org/10.2307/1928055>
- 547 [32] M.T. Zaki, L.S. Rowles, J. Hallowell, K.D. Orner, A data-driven framework to inform sustainable
548 management of animal manure in rural agricultural regions using emerging resource recovery
549 technologies, *Clean. Environ. Syst.* 13 (2024) 100188. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cesys.2024.100188>
- 550 [33] H.-P. Weikard, L. Hein, Efficient versus sustainable livestock grazing in the Sahel, *J. Agric. Econ.*
551 62 (1) (2011) 153–171. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1477-9552.2010.00275.x>
- 552 [34] A.A. Martins, A.R. Araújo, A. Graça, N.S. Caetano, T.M. Mata, Towards sustainable wine:
553 Comparison of two Portuguese wines, *J. Clean. Prod.* 183 (2018) 662–676.
554 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.02.057>

- 555 [35] G. Arcese, M.C. Lucchetti, I. Massa, Modeling social life cycle assessment framework for the
556 Italian wine sector, *J. Clean. Prod.* 140 (2017) 1027–1036.
557 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.06.137>
- 558 [36] L. Aramyan, J. van Iwaarden, End-to-end performance measurement systems for agri-food supply
559 chains, in: *Frontiers in Agri-food Supply Chains: Frameworks and Case Studies*, Burleigh Dodds
560 Science Publishing, 2024. <https://doi.org/10.19103/AS.2023.0122.09>
- 561 [37] G.E. Battese, T.J. Coelli, A model for technical inefficiency effects in a stochastic frontier
562 production function for panel data, *Empir. Econ.* 20(2) (1995) 325–332.
563 <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01205442>
- 564 [38] W. Huang, G. Manevska-Tasevska, H. Hansson, Does ecologization matter for technical efficiency
565 in crop production? A case of Swedish agriculture, *Land Use Policy.* 138 (2024) 107068.
566 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.landusepol.2024.107068>
- 567 [39] E. Muñoz-Nuñez, O. Romero-Arenas, S.E.S. Gómez, R.R. Luna, R.M. Pérez, M. Huerta-Lara,
568 Stochastic frontier model for the evaluation of the sustainability of urban gardens in Puebla, Mexico,
569 *Urban Sci.* 9 (5) (2025) 164. <https://doi.org/10.3390/urbansci9050164>
- 570 [40] S.C. Kumbhakar, C.A.K. Lovell, *Stochastic Frontier Analysis*, Cambridge University Press,
571 Cambridge, 2003.
- 572 [41] H.-J. Wang, P. Schmidt, One-step and two-step estimation of the effects of exogenous variables on
573 technical efficiency levels, *J. Prod. Anal.* 18(2) (2002) 129–144.
574 <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1016565719882>
- 575 [42] A.A. Sidhoum, K.H. Dakpo, L. Latruffe, Trade-offs between economic, environmental and social
576 sustainability on farms using a latent class frontier efficiency model: Evidence for Spanish crop
577 farms, *PLoS One.* 17 (1) (2022) e0261190. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0261190>
- 578 [43] StataCorp, *Stata Statistical Software: Release 18*, StataCorp LLC, College Station, TX, 2023.
- 579 [44] C. Cardillo, A. Di Fonzo, C. Liberati, The farm's orientation towards sustainability: An assessment
580 using FADN data in Italy, *Land* 12 (2) (2023) 301. <https://doi.org/10.3390/land12020301>
- 581 [45] I. Fertó, Š. Bojnec, Gender equality and green entrepreneurship in farms, *Sustain. Dev.* 33(3) (2025)
582 3985–4008. <https://doi.org/10.1002/sd.3337>
- 583 [46] European Commission, *CAP Evaluation Insights: Generational renewal in the agricultural sector
584 and young farmers*, Directorate-General for Agriculture and Rural Development (2025).

- 585 [47] M. Amato, A. Coppola, M. Furno, F. Verneau, Gender disparities in agricultural entrepreneurship:
586 evidence from Italy using FADN data, *Agric. Econ.* 13(1) (2025) 46.
587 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40100-025-00390-6>
- 588 [48] C. Brito, S. Pereira, S. Martins, A. Monteiro, J.M. Moutinho-Pereira, L. Dinis, Strategies for
589 achieving the sustainable development goals across the wine chain: a review, *Front. Sustain. Food*
590 *Syst.* 8 (2024) 1437872. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2024.1437872>
- 591 [49] D. Sarri, S. Lombardo, A. Pagliai, C. Perna, R. Lisci, V. De Pascale, M. Rimediotti, G. Cencini, M.
592 Vieri, Smart farming introduction in wine farms: A systematic review and a new proposal,
593 *Sustainability* 12(17) (2020) 7191. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12177191>
- 594 [50] D. Grazia, C. Mazzocchi, G. Ruggeri, S. Corsi, Grapes, wines, and changing times: A bibliometric
595 analysis of climate change influence, *Aust. J. Grape Wine Res.* (2023) 9937930.
596 <https://doi.org/10.1155/2023/9937930>
- 597 [51] E. Annunziata, T. Pucci, M. Frey, L. Zanni, The role of organizational capabilities in attaining
598 corporate sustainability practices and economic performance: Evidence from Italian wine industry,
599 *J. Clean. Prod.* 171 (2018) 1300–1311. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2017.10.035>
- 600 [52] A. Urso, G. Timpanaro, F. Caracciolo, L. Cembalo, Efficiency analysis of Italian wine producers,
601 *Wine Econ. Pol.* 7 (1) (2018) 3–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wep.2017.11.003>
- 602 [53] M.C. García-Cortijo, J.R. Ferrer, J.S. Castillo-Valero, T. Gonçalves, A. Marta-Costa, V. Pinilla, J.
603 Rebelo, R. Serrano, Sustainability determinants in the Iberian wine industry, *New Medit* (2023) 3–
604 22. <https://doi.org/10.30682/nm2304a>
- 605 [54] E. Merloni, L. Camanzi, L. Mulazzani, G. Malorgio, Adaptive capacity to climate change in the
606 wine industry: A Bayesian network approach, *Wine Econ. Pol.* 7(2) (2018) 165–177.
607 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wep.2018.11.002>
- 608 [55] D. Modena, G. Cola, D. Bianchi, M. Bolognini, S. Mancini, I. Foianini, A. Cappelletti, O. Failla, L.
609 Brancadoro, Alpine viticulture and climate change: Environmental resources and limitations for
610 grapevine ripening in Valtellina, Italy, *Plants* 12(11) (2023) 2068.
611 <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants12112068>
- 612 [56] M. Raimondo, C. Nazzaro, A. Nifo, G. Marotta, Does the institutional quality affect labor
613 productivity in Italian vineyard farms?, *Wine Econ. Pol.* 9(2) (2020) 113–126.
614 <https://doi.org/10.36253/wep-7833>

- 615 [57] E. Pomarici, A. Corsi, S. Mazzarino, R. Sardone, The Italian wine sector: Evolution, structure,
616 competitiveness and future challenges of an enduring leader, *Ital. Econ. J.* 7(2) (2021) 259–295.
617 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40797-021-00144-5>
- 618 [58] A. Merot, J. Wery, Converting to organic viticulture increases cropping system structure and
619 management complexity, *Agron. Sustain. Dev.* 37(3) (2017) 19. [https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-017-0427-9)
620 [017-0427-9](https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-017-0427-9)
- 621 [59] A. Matese, S.F. D. Gennaro, Technology in precision viticulture: a state of the art review, *Int. J.*
622 *Wine Res.* 7 (2015) 69–81. <https://doi.org/10.2147/IJWR.S69405>
- 623 [60] E. Pomarici, R. Sardone, EU wine policy in the framework of the CAP: Post-2020 challenges,
624 *Agric. Econ.* 8 (1) (2020) 17. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40100-020-00159-z>
- 625 [61] A. Amatucci, V. Ventura, D. Frisio, Performance and efficiency of national innovation systems:
626 Lessons from the wine industry, *Wine Econ. Pol.* 13 (1) (2024). [https://doi.org/10.36253/wep-](https://doi.org/10.36253/wep-14637)
627 [14637](https://doi.org/10.36253/wep-14637)
- 628 [62] R. Henke, T. Pomponi, M. Vassallo, G. Mazzocchi, A. Monteleone, A. Sorrentino, The new CAP
629 and the participative method in decision-making: A textual analysis of the Italian case, *J. Common*
630 *Mark. Stud.* 63(6) (2025) 1822–1844. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcms.13703>
- 631 [63] R. Mura, F. Vicentini, L.M. Botti, M.V. Chiriaco, Achieving the circular economy through
632 environmental policies: Packaging strategies for more sustainable business models in the wine
633 industry, *Bus. Strategy Environ.* 33 (2) (2024) 1497–1514. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.3556>
- 634 [64] V. Chkareuli, G. Darguashvili, D. Atstaja, R. Susniene, Assessing the financial viability and
635 sustainability of circular business models in the wine industry: A comparative analysis to traditional
636 linear business model—Case of Georgia, *Sustainability* 16(7) (2024) 2877.
637 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su16072877>
- 638 [65] B. García-Cornejo, J.A. Pérez-Méndez, D. Roibás, A. Wall, Efficiency and sustainability in farm
639 diversification initiatives in Northern Spain, *Sustainability* 12 (10) (2020) 3983.
640 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12103983>
- 641 [66] G. Gastaldello, M. Bošnjak, I. Schäufole-Elbers, G. Schamel, Are consumers willing to pay more
642 for sustainable wine? A pre-registered systematic review and meta-analysis, *Food Qual. Prefer.* 134
643 (2025) 105655. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2025.105655>
- 644 [67] C. Santini, A. Cavicchi, L. Casini, Sustainability in the wine industry: Key questions and research
645 trends, *Agric. Econ.* 1 (1) (2013) 9. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2193-7532-1-9>

646 [68] G.P. Agnusdei, P.P. Miglietta, A.M. Pacifico, G. Malorgio, Rurality as a driver of tourist demand
647 in the Salento area: A systemic approach, *Rural Soc.* 33(2) (2024) 67–82.
648 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10371656.2024.2371190>
649

Just Accepted