

SPANISH REGIONS IN GLOBAL
VALUE CHAINS: HOW IMPORTANT?
HOW DIFFERENT?

2020

BANCO DE **ESPAÑA**
Eurosistema

Documentos de Trabajo
N.º 2026

Elvira Prades-Illanes and Patrocinio Tello-Casas

**SPANISH REGIONS IN GLOBAL VALUE CHAINS:
HOW IMPORTANT? HOW DIFFERENT?**

SPANISH REGIONS IN GLOBAL VALUE CHAINS: HOW IMPORTANT? HOW DIFFERENT?

Elvira Prades-Illanes and Patrocinio Tello-Casas ^(*)

BANCO DE ESPAÑA

(*) We are very grateful to Bart Los for supplying to us the EUREGIO dataset. We also thank Javier Sánchez Bachiller and Paloma Villanueva for providing essential tools at early stages of this project. We would like to thank Enrique Moral-Benito and José Manuel González Mínguez for useful comments and suggestions. Mailing address: Banco de España, calle de Alcalá, 48, Madrid, Spain; corresponding authors: elvira.prades@bde.es and patry.tello@bde.es. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and should not be attributed to Banco de España.

The Working Paper Series seeks to disseminate original research in economics and finance. All papers have been anonymously refereed. By publishing these papers, the Banco de España aims to contribute to economic analysis and, in particular, to knowledge of the Spanish economy and its international environment.

The opinions and analyses in the Working Paper Series are the responsibility of the authors and, therefore, do not necessarily coincide with those of the Banco de España or the Eurosystem.

The Banco de España disseminates its main reports and most of its publications via the Internet at the following website: <http://www.bde.es>.

Reproduction for educational and non-commercial purposes is permitted provided that the source is acknowledged.

© BANCO DE ESPAÑA, Madrid, 2020

ISSN: 1579-8666 (on line)

Abstract

The recent release of EUREGIO, a novel global input-output database with regional detail for EU countries, allows to analyze the participation of EU regions in Global Value Chains and their implications for the propagation of sector-specific shocks. We focus on Spanish regions to exploit the granular information embedded in this database. We first characterize foreign and domestic trade inter-linkages of Spanish regions and sectors. Using an extended version of the *Leontief* scheme, we compute upstream output and value added multipliers. Then, we calculate indicators developed in the Global Value Chain literature to breakdown each region trade flows, both exports and outflows, into value added components. Finally, by means of examples, we analyze the role of networks (domestic or foreign) in the propagation of demand shocks (from customers to suppliers), to evaluate the heterogeneous impact across regions and to illustrate the potential of this approach. Our findings indicate that Spanish regions participate differently in Global Value Chains and this fact may have important implications in the propagation of shocks. According with our results, the strongest user-supplier linkages are usually within the same sector, and, in general, with industries within the same region or other Spanish regions. The Basque Country is the region with sectors with the largest total output-multipliers and Catalonia with the lowest ones. Concerning their participation in Global Value Chains, the Basque Country is the most integrated region in the *backward* segment of the value chain, closely followed by Madrid, while Catalonia –and a lesser extent Canary Islands– shows a comparatively low participation. Concerning the *forward* participation, Catalonia shows the largest one on exports, while Madrid and the Basque Country in outflows.

Keywords: Global Value Chains, input-output structure, networks, EUREGIO.

JEL classification: F14, F15.

Resumen

La reciente disponibilidad de la base de datos EUREGIO, una tabla *input-output* global con desagregación regional para los países de la Unión Europea, permite investigar cómo participan las regiones en las cadenas globales de valor y de qué manera se produce la propagación de *shocks* a lo largo de la cadena de producción. En este documento se utiliza EUREGIO para ilustrar cómo un *shock*, en un determinado sector de España, genera un efecto arrastre distinto, tanto a escala nacional como por comunidades autónomas (CCAA), dependiendo de los vínculos intersectoriales que mantenga, dentro de la misma región, con otras regiones de España y con el resto del mundo. Para ello, en el marco *input-output* se calculan multiplicadores de valor añadido y de producción a escala sector-CCAA, identificando sus tres componentes: regional, nacional y externo. A continuación se usa EUREGIO para descomponer los flujos comerciales en términos brutos de cada región española en sus componentes en términos de valor añadido y, por tanto, estimar la participación de las CCAA en las cadenas globales de valor. Combinando estas dos ramas de la literatura es posible valorar si sectores-regiones que son importantes desde una perspectiva de valor añadido no lo son necesariamente desde una perspectiva de *input-output*, y viceversa. Los resultados confirman que un sector presenta los vínculos más estrechos con el mismo sector y, en general, con otros sectores ubicados en la misma comunidad autónoma y con sectores de otras regiones españolas. De las cuatro CCAA analizadas, el País Vasco es la región que presenta los multiplicadores más elevados, y Cataluña, los menores. Asimismo, los cálculos confirman una gran heterogeneidad en la participación de las CCAA en las cadenas globales de valor. El País Vasco es la comunidad más integrada en el segmento *backward*, seguida de Madrid, mientras que la participación de Cataluña y, en menor medida, Canarias es comparativamente baja. En cambio, Cataluña es la que presenta una mayor participación en el segmento *forward* de la cadena de valor en el caso de las exportaciones, mientras que el País Vasco y Madrid en el caso de los flujos comerciales con otras CCAA.

Palabras clave: cadenas globales de valor, tablas *input-output*, redes, EUREGIO.

Códigos JEL: F14, F15.

1 Introduction

Globalization and, in particular, the reallocation of the several stages of a production process across the world (the so-called Global Value Chains, GVCs), has intensified linkages between countries. The decline in transportation costs and the reduction in barriers to trade have made easier for firms to locate their production and to source their inputs across national borders. This fragmentation of the production process has significantly increased trade in intermediate goods and services, making gross exports a less significant measure of their economic relevance for a country. And, at the same time, it has made input-output linkages more intense and more complex across countries, and also within a country. As the OECD paraphrases “what a country does”, that is, the activities a firm or region is involved in, matters more for growth and employment than “what a country sells”.

Notwithstanding, the process of fragmentation of production is not only taking place at the country level. Also the regions within countries are participating differently in this process. Some regions may export directly to a foreign country, while others might do it indirectly, by providing parts, components or intermediate services to more export-oriented regions. On this background, a proper assessment of domestic and foreign linkages of regions within a country becomes more relevant (see Los and Timmer (2018)). However, despite being fragmented and extended at domestic regional level, studies that take into account the regional dimension in the analysis of GVCs are relatively scarce and focused on a few countries. This is explained by the lack of data and the difficulties to extend at a regional level the methodology usually employed at a country level. An input-output (IO) table, that synthesizes all flows of goods and services into and out an economy, as well as, their origin and destinations, provides an appropriate framework to analyze both within and inter-country linkages.¹ Until very recently, only national IO tables and international IO tables (such as the World Input Output Database, WIOD), with no information about the regional distribution of trade flows within a country, were available. If the focus of the analysis is at the country or inter-country level, these IO tables may be sufficient. However, in countries where regions differ significantly in terms of, for example, their production structure, their size or geographical location, the regional dimension gains relevance to explain, for example, differences in firms’ participation in GVCs or in their network linkages.

Moreover, the increasing interlinkages among countries and regions affect shock spillovers. The propagation of shocks throughout the Spanish regions does not only depend on the nature of the shock *per se*, whether it is demand or supply driven, it also depends on the industry specific supplier-user domestic and international linkages. The IO structure of the Spanish regions’ production network is key to understand how external and domestic shocks propagate across Spain and how much each regions’ output, as well as, the aggregate one, is affected.² As Spanish regions differ in many dimensions taking into account input-output interlinkages could be particularly relevant.³ One way to address this issue is to extend the available global input-output table (the above mentioned WIOD) to include the regional dimension.

¹Input-output analysis allows taking into account multiple cross-national, as well as, regional, border movements of the same goods and services.

²See Caliendo et al. (2018), Acemoglu et al. (2015) and Baqaee and Farhi (2019).

³For more details on Spanish regional differences see Artola et al. (2018).

The release of a novel database EUREGIO built by Thissen et al. (2018) allows to explore for each EU region their participation in GVCs and to analyze the propagation of sector-specific shocks through the production chain. In this dataset, they extend the WIOD 2013 release with regional detail for EU countries at the NUTS2 level. This global input-output dataset provides information on trade linkages across the EU regions, as well as, with other non-EU countries, from 2000 to 2010. The sectoral breakdown, 14 sectors, is less detailed than in WIOD but provides detailed regional data instead. This database can be used to improve our knowledge of input-output linkages of Spanish regions within Spain (that is, regional linkages), but also with regions in other European countries (foreign linkages) and within the same region (domestic linkages). On this background, in a first step, we compute region-industry specific output multipliers (also known as *backward* output multipliers) to characterize inter-linkages among sectors and regions, both within Spain and with other countries, as in Izquierdo et al. (2019). This framework allows to trace out the effect of demand and supply shocks and to assess their impact on each Spanish region and at national level. This approach also allows to identify the most systemic region-sector pair in Spain in terms of its economy-wide impact. Next, to better understand the channels (that is, regional, domestic or international) through which these effects propagate, we exploit the richness of the EUREGIO database to build some basic *backward* indicators (i.e. the amount of imported inputs used to produce exported goods) and *forward* indicators (i.e. exported intermediate inputs that where be utilized by the recipient region to produce exports) of GVC participation at regional level. Basically, we decompose gross exports (trade with other countries) and outflows (trade with other regions within the same country) into different value added components following an extended version of the Koopman et al. (2014) decomposition approach, that is extensively used in the GVC literature at country level.

As far as we know, this is the first paper that explores Spanish domestic and foreign intersectoral-interregional trade linkages, to better understand Spanish regions dependence of both national and international inputs, as well as, their participation in GVCs. For the sake of simplicity, we will focus the analysis to four selected regions (The Basque Country, Canary Islands, Catalonia and Madrid). The main findings of our analysis could be summarized as follows:

- **The user-supplier linkages are usually stronger within the same sector, and, in general, with industries within the same region or other Spanish regions.** This pattern is quite similar across the four analysed Spanish regions, although there are some differences, being the Basque Country the region showing the highest dependence on national inputs (both from the same region and from other Spanish regions) and Catalonia the lowest. And, Madrid is the region with the highest foreign dependency.
- **The propagation of sector-specific demand shocks through input-output linkages, and their aggregate economic impact, differs across Spanish regions.** The *upstream output multipliers* (that is, the impact of shocks that propagate from customers to suppliers), which are computed at region-sector pair level, reflect differences in the regional production network. By regions, industries in the Basque Country show the largest total output-multipliers and in Catalonia the lowest. Being Madrid and the Basque country the regions that show the largest spillover effects to

other countries. Concerning value added multipliers, Catalonia, on average, presents the largest domestic value added multipliers and the Basque Country and Canary Island, the largest regional ones. By type of sectors, services show lower total output multipliers than manufacturing, although, in terms of value added multipliers, services show a larger domestic (and regional) multiplier than manufacturing. Madrid shows high value added domestic multipliers in the services sectors.

- **GVC participation varies strongly across Spanish regions.** The Basque country presents the highest *backward* participation, both in exports and outflows. That is, their exports register the highest content of inputs that are purchased from other regions, both in the regional (RC) and the international segment (FC), closely followed by Madrid, while Catalonia shows a comparatively low participation in outflows. Canary Island is placed to downsize. Concerning the *forward* participation in production networks, Catalonia shows the largest participation on exports, while Madrid and the Basque Country present the largest one in outflows.
- Finally, **based on Spanish regions input-output linkages and to show the potential of this approach we explore the impact of two type of demand shocks.** Firstly, we find that an increase in US import tariff is expected to impact more negatively on Madrid's and the Basque Country's value added, while Canary Islands is one of the least affected. As regards the degree of exposure to Brexit, Madrid and Catalonia are the most exposed, while Canary Islands is among the least one.

The paper is organized as follows. First, in **section 2** we present the motivation of the paper and an overview of the literature in this field. In **section 3** we explain the main features of the EUREGIO dataset and the methodology used to decompose gross trade flows into value added terms and the methodology applied to compute upstream output and value added multipliers. Next, in **section 4** using the EUREGIO database, we identified the Spanish regions and sectors with higher propagation effects -within the same region and to other regions and countries- and build a basic GVC integration indicator for Spanish regions from trade flows measured in value added terms. In **section 5**, based on these linkages, we explore the spillover effects derived from some specific demand shocks, such as, a decline in the US demand -driven by an increase in tariffs-, a decline in the demand from the United Kingdom -due to Brexit- and the impact from regional specific shocks within Spain. And, finally in **section 6**, the main conclusions and a follow up are presented.

2 Motivation and literature review

This paper is related to two strands of the literature. The first one focuses on the role of GVCs in shaping international trade flows and the second one on the role of input-output network linkages in propagating sectoral shocks within and across countries. By merging these two approaches at the regional level, we can assess whether a given region is highly interconnected to other regions, either located in the same country or in a foreign one, as

well as, the ability to measure the actual value added generated by a region in its trade flows. Overall, we can assess whether region-industries that are important from a value added perspective may not necessarily be from an input-output perspective and vice-versa. The fast expansion of GVCs has increased the interest for understanding its role in shaping global trade flows, as well as, for properly measuring *backward* and *forward* trade linkages between sectors across countries. The fragmentation of the production process in various stages, which are often located in different countries, causes intermediate goods and services cross national borders several times before being finally consumed. Under this production scheme, value is added at each stage of the chain. As official statistics measure international trade in gross flows, and inputs are counted any time they cross a border, they mask the real value added by a country to its exports. Similarly, input-output linkages among sectors, both within and across countries, are deeply affected by the fragmentation of production implied by GVCs. On this background, the use of value added trade flows and of GVCs indicators, to complement the conventional measures of trade, has received an increasing attention in international trade literature. Nevertheless, research on the role of regions, at sub-national level, on GVC participation, as well as, on shaping the national production network, is relatively new.⁴

In **figure 1** we provide a simple example of a stylized value chain across three regions within country A. This figure describes the production process of a final product, in which the last stage of production takes place in Region 3. This simple example illustrates how the participation of the three regions in the production process can be different. The producers of intermediate inputs in Region 2 sell directly to the industry-of-finalization in Region 3, and are considered as first tier suppliers. These first tier suppliers also use intermediate inputs from other region (Region 1, as well as, from the same region) so as to produce their intermediate goods. Region 1 will be considered a second tier suppliers. In this example, industries in Region 2 (and Region 1) also add value to the production of the final product sold by the industry-of-finalization in Region 3. And, the final product can be consumed within the same region (Region 3), in other region in the same country -outflow- or in other country -export- (Region 4 in country B).

Since the early 2000s, different measures to assess *participation* and *position* of countries along the GVCs have been proposed (see Hummels et al. (2001) and Koopman et al. (2014)), some of them based on the first available global IO table. It is well documented that countries' involvement in GVCs was steadily expanding since the 1990s up to the Great Recession, when their expansion stalled. According to ECB calculations, the foreign value added embedded in euro area exports, a measure of the *backward* participation in GVCs, rose from about 15% of gross exports at the onset of the 1990s to around 25% before the global trade collapse, and it remained relatively close to that level in 2016. In this context of higher globalization, a new strand of international trade literature has emerged, analyzing the role of GVCs in the transmission of shocks (such as the global financial crisis in 2008) and their impact for trade, productivity and economic development at country or country-sector level (Huidrom et al. (2019), and ECB-WorkingGroup (2019)).⁵

⁴Acemoglu et al. (2012) and Caliendo et al. (2018) highlight the importance of sectoral and regional linkages to explain the aggregate impact of a productivity shock in the US.

⁵Based on the World Input-Output database (WIOD), 2016 release, the ECB has built several measures of the euro area participation in GVCs, in particular, the valued-added content in exports, which captures the domestic content of exports. The foreign value added in euro area exports mentioned in this paragraph has been calculated as the inverse of the domestic content of exports.

So far, while the importance of GVCs and the participation of countries have received a lot of attention by researchers, the analysis at regional level is relatively scarce. However, if the globalization process has impacted regions differently, GVCs and IO indicators at national level may hide important disparities at regional level. Case studies on regions in China and Japan (see Meng and Yamano (2017)) show that GVC integration varies widely across regions, with some regions providing inputs mainly to attend the domestic demand, but other regions export indirectly providing inputs to direct exporting regions. In fact, even if a domestic region is not engaged in much direct trade with foreign countries, it can nonetheless be an important supporting player of global production networks by providing parts, components, and intermediate services to more export-oriented regions within the country. For example, if a firm located in a Spanish region supplies a German car manufacturer with a component -e.g car seats- and the German firm sells this car to a British consumer, the Spanish region relies on the final demand of UK instead on the German one. Similarly, if the Spanish firm decides to source the textile required to manufacture that seat from China switching from a firm located in other Spanish region, the economic dependence between these two Spanish regions weakens. Ultimately, regional trade linkages, and the fact that materials produced in a region might be used as inputs in others, are key in propagating external and domestic shocks spatially and across sectors. Therefore, typical GVC and IO indicators at country-level may hide important differences at sub-national level, as is easily illustrated in **figure 1**.

Research focused on OECD countries also finds a huge variation in regions' participation in GVCs. They estimate that the value-added produced within GVC activities by a region, as a share of total value added, fluctuates by around 10 percentage points across regions within a country, being especially large in the case of Spain (see OECD (2018)). Differences in specialization patterns, as well as, in labour force skills, across Spanish regions and geographical location (inland or coastal region), among other factors, may contribute to explain discrepancies in the degree and pattern of internationalization of each Spanish regions, as well as, in industry supplier-user linkages. On this background, it seems crucial to improve our knowledge of Spanish regions' involvement in GVCs and of the input-output structure of the national production network at regional level.

Based on the accumulated empirical evidence, the role of GVCs in shaping a region structure production and their economic performance has increased the interest of both economists and politicians in better understanding inter-regional and international trade linkages, as a potential drivers of economic divergences between regions within a country.⁶

⁷ This interest has also led to the academia to develop a proper theoretic framework. Based on the empirical evidence from Acemoglu et al. (2012) and Acemoglu et al. (2015), that production networks amplify regional-local shocks, Caliendo et al. (2018) for the US and Frohm and Gunnella (2017) for euro area countries build a model that integrates both sectoral and regional linkages. This theoretical framework serves to rationalize the mechanism behind the industry-regional IO multipliers calculated in this paper.

⁶Chapter 3, "Global trends and regional links: Jobs, clusters and global value chains", in OECD (2018) finds that higher GVC participation is positively correlated with stronger economic performance at regional level. And, greater integration of regional economies into GVCs is associated with an increase of regional productivity and employment rates (Rusticelli et al. (2017)).

⁷Gains and costs from trade are not equally distributed across different regions of the same country, leading to an increased in regional inequality if mechanism for regions loosing from globalisation are not implemented.

The lack of a publicly available global IO table with regional details explains the existence of only few studies at regional level. Conventional global IO tables only contain information of foreign trade linkages at country level, and data on the regional distribution of trade flows within and across countries were not available, ignoring the regional heterogeneity within the country and, then, limiting their use to study the participation of regions in GVCs, as well as, regional production networks.⁸ Despite its limitations, it is important to highlight that the global IO table allowed to better understand inter-country linkages through international networks, providing policy makers new insights into the commercial relations between nations.⁹

In recent years, some progress has been made in the construction of global IO tables with regional detail but limited to few countries. For example, Dietzenbacher, Guilhoto and Imori (2013) included Brazilian regions in the WIOD and, similarly, Cherubini and Los. (2012) extended the WIOD to include four Italian NUTS1 regions. Wang et al. (2017) did the same for China and Meng and Yamano (2017) present analytical results based on regional disaggregation of China and Japan. To fill this data gap a new database (EUREGIO) has been built by Thissen et al. (2018).

The next section includes a short description of the EUREGIO dataset, as well as, the methodology used in this paper to assess trade linkages, both at the national and international level, of Spanish regions. Briefly, we use this dataset to compute region-sector specific multipliers that take into account the IO sectoral-regional linkages. These calculations rely on the so-called Leontief matrix that will be described next. The approach used to build GVC participation indicators is also briefly described in the following section.

3 Data and methodology

In this section we describe (1) the main characteristics of EUREGIO dataset, (2) the structure of the IO table with regional breakdown and (3) the methodology used to compute input-output multipliers (that is, the technical and total requirements coefficients at industry-regional level) and (4) the procedure use to decompose gross flows into value added terms following the literature to construct GVC participation indicators. The total requirement coefficients allows to assess how domestic and external demand-supply shocks propagate through Spanish regions. While the decomposition of regional trade flows in

⁸Despite the absence of a global IO tables with regional details, the WIOD has been used, for example, to assess the impact of an external shock in a specific region within a country. This requires, first, to evaluate the inter-country impact and then to conduct a top-down analysis at the domestic regional level. Nevertheless, this procedure may potentially lead to a biased estimation if the country has domestic regions with differences in terms of regional economic endowments, geographic locations, developmental stages, industrial structures and foreign dependency. Global IO tables with a regional dimension capture all these interdependences, allowing a more realistic assessment of interregional and international linkages than the one based on gross trade figures, because it enables researchers to measure the net value added in each region or country.

⁹In addition to the WIOD, there are others global input-output databases that can be used to identify input-output linkages across countries and sectors and generating standard measures of GVC participation and value-added exports consistent with the literature. Among these databases the most used are the Trade in Value-Added Statistics (TiVA) and the EORA MRIO database.

value added, both *outflows* (that is, trade with other regions within the same country) and *exports* (that is, trade with other countries), allows to better understand the participation of Spanish regions in domestic and international production networks.

3.1 The database: EUREGIO

The EUREGIO dataset is constructed using the WIOD 2013 release as a benchmark, in which the EU countries are geographically disaggregated into regions at the NUTS 2 level. The dataset incorporates regional details in global input-output tables relative to the production structure and trade for all major EU countries for the time span 2000 to 2010. It includes 249 regions from 24 European countries and 16 non-EU countries, a rest of the world and 14 industries at NACE REV. 1 classification. This is a unique longitudinal and consistent dataset on trade across EU regions. A detailed description of the construction methodology can be found in Thissen et al. (2018) and a brief summary of the different steps to construct the dataset can be found in **appendix A**. The results reported in the rest of the paper are based on the year 2010 tables, the most recent data available. Note that since 2011 no significant changes have been observed in the international fragmentation of production, both across time and across countries, the year 2010 is a good approximation of current GVC links because most of the growth in GVC integration took place before that year.

The EUREGIO dataset is being recently extensively used among researchers to exploit its country-regional dimension to explore a wide variety of issues.¹⁰ For example, it has been employed to analyze the short run effects of Brexit on European regions (see Los et al. (2017) and Los and Chen (2016)) or to better understand voters behaviour in Brexit referendum (see Wannicke (2018)). The EUREGIO database was also central in the European Commission's regional CGE model (see Mercenier et al. (2016)).

As far as we are aware, this dataset is the first one that provides regional disaggregation of multiple countries within global input-output tables. Still, it is not free from limitations, associated mostly with some simplification assumptions used in its construction and derived from input-output models.¹¹ Basically, the indicators computed using the EUREGIO rely on the the following assumptions: (i) homogeneity in output production technology within each industry-region pair;¹² (ii) zero rates of substitution between inputs across industries; (iii) absence of economies of scale; (iv) static framework in which IO linkages do not react

¹⁰The structure of the EUREGIO table differs from both a domestic IO and a global IO. In a country's domestic input-output table, the domestic inter-industry relationships are explicitly considered, but imports and exports are treated as exogenous variables. That means that spillover effects from the rest of the world can not be analyzed. A global IO table solves this problem by combining countries' national IO table and trade statistics. A global database, such as WIOD, contains detailed information of both inter-country (trade data) and inter-industry (national IO tables) linkages. The EUREGIO database adds the regional dimension, including trade between domestic and foreign regions.

¹¹Note that the following limitations apply to all IO tables, for more details on this see Izquierdo et al. (2019) and Miller and Blair (2009).

¹²Indicators based on IO database implicitly assume that exporters and non-exporters in a specific industry share the same technology. Bernard et al. (2003) showed that technologies are often quite different (see Tybout (2008) for an overview articles). One of the reasons for this is that differences between exporters and non-exporters are not confined to input requirements per unit of output, but also relate to prices paid for production factors, affecting the inverse of the *Leontief* coefficients.

to shocks; and (v) absence of capacity constraints. It is important to bear in mind that these assumptions will affect the sectoral and regional multipliers estimated and, therefore, the impact from the simulated shocks, as well as, the computed GVCs indicators.¹³

Despite the previous drawbacks, the EUREGIO keeps clear advantages compared to official trade statistics. One way to reduce the bias introduced for some of these assumptions would be to include more. We highlight the following: (i) it includes inter-regional gross trade of goods and services, which is usually not included in official sources and (ii) trade in value added can be computed, both for inter-regional (outflows and inflows) and foreign trade (exports and imports).¹⁴

Prior to any calculation, we made some quality checks to assess to what extent the EUREGIO database offers a right picture of the Spanish regions.¹⁵ Basically, we compare the main variables in the database with official statistics (see **figure 2**). Overall, data related to Spanish regions fits relatively well the official data in terms of value added (**Panel A**) and sectoral breakdown into agriculture, industry, construction, market and non market services (**Panel B**). As regards exports (**Panel C**) and inter regional flows (**Panel D**), the official data only provides information on trade in goods, therefore we expect EUREGIO flows to be above the ones reported by official sources.¹⁶ Overall, the fit seems quite reasonable, notwithstanding, there is one exception, that is Catalonia, as official data points to higher trade flows than the one reported by EUREGIO.

3.2 Methodology

The IO table provides quantitative information about the economic transactions that each sector makes in a year, either by buying or selling intermediate inputs, from/to other sectors located in the same region or in other regions within the same country or from/to different countries. In an IO framework the structure of an economy is characterized by the trade flows across sectors. The world input-output table with regional dimension pro-

¹³One way to reduce the bias introduced for some of these assumptions would be to include more industry detail in the EUREGIO table, since indicators derived from relatively aggregated tables tend to be affected by aggregation bias, see Miller and Blair (2009).

¹⁴In this paper, we classify each transaction according to the first final destination when it crosses the regional border: as outflows (exports) those flows that have as a first destination other Spanish regions independently if these flows are finally absorbed in that region (country) or crosses the regional (national) border again once they have been transformed or assembled. For example, if a good exported from Madrid to Germany (gross export) is then transformed and exported by Germany to Catalonia for final absorption there, it is classified initially as an export from Madrid to Germany and not as an outflow of Madrid to Catalonia. Nevertheless, the EUREGIO database allows to follow each flow until the region or country where is finally absorbed and, therefore, to properly measure where the final demand comes from, as well as, the value added along the production chain.

¹⁵Needless to say that due to the strong assumptions and the data aggregation restrictions the data in EUREGIO do not necessarily match any region data. See Thissen et al. (2018) for a more detailed explanation.

¹⁶The C interreg database contains information from 1995 to 2017 on trade flows of goods between the Spanish regions (NUTS2) and provinces (NUTS3), specifying the origin and destination of the flows, distinguishing between 5, 16 and 30 different types of products and considering 4 transport modes (road, railway, ship and airplane). Flows are measured in tons (Tm.) and monetary value (euros). The EUREGIO contains information of both interregional and international trade at regional level for Spanish regions at NUTS2 level, including both goods and services, while only monetary values are provided.

vides quantitative information about the user-supplier linkages along the value chain like those depicted in **figure 1**. There are differences across industries and regions that affect the way each region participates in the production chain, as well as, the way it contributes to the aggregate impact of a specific shock.

A stylized version of a multi-regional and a multi-country IO table is represented in **table 1**. It describes a world consisting of two countries (A and B) plus an aggregate of countries labeled as “Rest of the World” (RoW). A and B both consist of two regions (A1 and A2 and B1 and B2, respectively) and the economy of each of these regions and the RoW is divided into two industries (I1 and I2). Z is a $(RI \times RI)$ matrix that contains the amount of sales of intermediate products by each industry in the rows to the industries in the columns (expressed in a common currency, Euros in our paper). R stands for the number of regions and I for the number of industries. Matrix Y accounts for a $(RI \times RD)$ matrix that contains the values of sales by each region-industry pair in the rows for each final use purpose. D accounts for the number of final demand components (that is: private and public consumption, investment and changes in inventories). For simplicity, we collapse all the demand components into just one final demand, so it results in a vector y of final demand $(RI \times 1)$. Row-wise summation of supplies for intermediate use and for final use gives gross output of each industry in all regions, represented by the last column x $(RI \times 1)$. In this stylized version of a IO table, the row vector v' comprises information about the remuneration for production factors (including labour and profits on physical and intangible capital). This vector contains the value added by industries in each of the regions and countries. x' is a row of elements which are obtained by summing over the elements in the corresponding column. Thus, it gives the value of all production factors used in a production process. Double-entry bookkeeping ensures that the values in the bottom row (x') are equal to the values in the rightmost column (x).

We can use matrix notation to represent the above described IO interlinkages. From the market clearing assumption, in a input-output framework, it is assumed that the output produced in each industry i is either used as intermediate input by other sectors or consumed as final demand. Based on this assumption and the above mentioned double-entry, we get the following identity:

$$x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n z_{ji} + y_i = \sum_{j=1}^n z_{ij} + v_i \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n) \quad (1)$$

The middle expression illustrates that the output of industry i is used as a intermediate input by any other industry j (z_{ji}) or as final consumption y_i . And, the expression on the right comes from the production function of industry i , where (z_{ij}) measures the requirement of input j for the production of output in sector i (x_i) and where v_i the value added by the own sector i .

Let define a_{ij} , as the requirement of input j to produce a unit of output i , that is $a_{ij} = z_{ij}/x_i$ (similarly, $a_{ji} = z_{ji}/x_j$).¹⁷ Substituting in **equation 1**, we can rewrite the first expressions as:

¹⁷Note that both z_{ij} and x_i are expressed in nominal terms. For simplicity in the notation we assume unitary prices. Nevertheless, a revenue IO notation will include prices and will read as follows a_{ij} measures the Euros required by industry i from industry j ($p_j z_{ij}$) for producing one Euro of output ($p_i x_i$), that is, $a_{ij} = (p_j z_{ij})/(p_i x_i)$

$$x_i = \sum_{j=1}^n z_{ji} + y_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ji}x_j + y_i \quad (i = 1, 2, \dots, n) \quad (2)$$

Adding through all sectors ($n = RI$ in our regional framework), we can re-write these expressions into matrix notation.

$$X = Z + Y = AX + Y \quad (3)$$

Where X is the column vector of gross output, Z a matrix of intermediate inputs, Y the column vector of final demand and A the matrix of intermediate inputs required per unit of output, that equals $Z(X)^{-1}$. Intuitively, any element in matrix A , a_{ij} , captures the importance of an specific industry (for example j) as a direct supplier for any industry (for example i), proxied by the cost share of intermediate inputs using to produce a unit of output. The A matrix gives a quantitative description of the global production network and it is known as the technical coefficient matrix. This is not only determined by technology, but also by interregional and international sectoral linkages.

However, industry i requirements from industry j are not restricted to those captured by a_{ij} , because industry i also uses inputs from e.g. industry k , which at the same time requires inputs from industry j . This indirect input requirements, as well as, the direct ones, are captured by the so-called inverse of the *Leontief* matrix (B). After some rearrangements in **equation 3**, we get to the well-known expression:

$$X = (I - A)^{-1}Y = BY \quad (4)$$

By pre-multiplying **equation 4** with the diagonal matrix of value added shares \hat{V} ($RI \times RI$)¹⁸ we obtain the VA vector by region-sector pair on the right hand side and the value added weighted contains all the necessary information in terms of value-added production by source:

$$\underbrace{VA}_{(RI \times 1)} = \underbrace{\hat{V}}_{(RI \times RI)} \underbrace{X}_{(RI \times 1)} = \underbrace{\hat{V}B}_{(RI \times RI)} Y \quad (5)$$

In our regional extended IO framework we use these matrixes to estimate the aggregate upstream impact that can be expected from a one-Euro increase in the output of a given sector in a Spanish region or in the rest of the world. For technical details of how the inverse of the *Leontief* matrix is calculated with a global IO table with regional extension see Chen et al. (2018) and Bentivogli et al. (2018).

Under the described IO framework, each cell in the inverse of the *Leontief* matrix provides information about the importance of a given industry (in a Spanish region or in a foreign one) as a direct and indirect input-supplier to any other industry within the same country or in the rest of the world. For example, we can assess whether a specific industry in Madrid relies more on domestic (within the Madrid region), on other Spanish regions or on foreign input-suppliers.

¹⁸The on-diagonal elements of this matrix contains the generated value added per unit of output ($w_{sj} = v_{sj}/x_{sj}$, for a given region s and sector j). A hatted matrix indicates that is a diagonal matrix.

3.2.1 Calculation of multipliers

The described inverse of the *Leontief* matrix can be used to characterize how a region sector-specific shocks propagate to the rest of the economy through IO linkages and to evaluate their aggregate impact on a country (or region) economic performance. Based on these matrices, we can compute IO multipliers that summarize the aggregate impact that can be expected from a given shock, such as a one-Euro increase in the output of a specific region-sector pair. Depending of the nature of the shock that leads to this increase (either demand or supply driven shock), its propagation along the production network will be different. A supply shock will propagate *downstream* (from suppliers to costumers), while a demand shock will propagate *upstream* (from costumers to suppliers), what requires to build different multipliers to estimate its aggregate economic impact.

The intuition is simple, imagine an exogenous increase in the final demand of Spanish cars. The car sector reacts by increasing its production to meet this additional demand. As the car sector uses inputs from other sectors -the car sector suppliers-, they also expand their production. Under this demand driven shock, the propagation works from the car sector -the customer- towards their suppliers. By contrast, under a supply driven shock the propagation works in the opposite direction, from suppliers to customers. A positive productivity shock to a given sector, for example, energy, leads to a decline in the price of that sector's production, encouraging its clients industries -the ones using its inputs to produce- to employ that input more intensively and thus to increase their own production. In practice, the differences between downstream and upstream multipliers depend on whether we consider rows (that is, how the the inputs from industry i are used by other industries j to produce) or columns (that is, the inputs required for industry i from all industries j to produce) of the *Leontief* matrix.

In this paper, we will focus on final demand shocks (from customer to suppliers) and their aggregate impact on gross output and on value added in each Spanish region. To this end, we build two type of multipliers: (a) the upstream-output multipliers and (b) the upstream-value added multipliers. In order to capture more clearly the industry and regional dimension, one of the main contributions of this paper, we breakdown the $n = RI$ element into region-industry pairs:

$$UpstreamOutputMultiplier_{ri} = \sum_{j=1}^I \sum_{s=1}^R b_{ij}^{rs} \quad (6)$$

$$UpstreamValueAddedMultiplier_{ri} = \sum_{j=1}^I \sum_{s=1}^R w_{js} b_{ij}^{rs} \quad (7)$$

The *Upstream Output multipliers* of a demand shock faced by sector i in region r , leads to an increase in gross output that equals the column sum in the *Leontief* matrix. Where b_{ij}^{rs} captures the direct and indirect input of each supplier region-industry pairs $j - s$ being required by the shocked region-industry pair $i - r$. The *Upstream Value Added multipliers* weights each b_{ij}^{rs} component by w_{js} , that is the value added weighted share coefficient ($w_{js} = v_{js}/x_{js}$, being v_{js} the value added and the output x_{js} of sector j in source region s).

In practice, the *Upstream Output multipliers* in **equation 6** for each sector-region pair are computed summing the columns of the B matrix. It computes the aggregate increase in gross output, measured in Euros, due to an additional Euro demand of output faced by region r and industry i . While the *value added multipliers* in **equation 7** measures the aggregate increase in value added (GDP) by summing up the columns of the matrix $\hat{V}B$ from **equation 5**. It is measured in Euros, per Euro of additional output in industry i . The difference between both multipliers is that, in the second one, each cell in the summing columns has been weighted by the ratio of value added over gross output in the supplier sector, while in gross output multipliers no weights are required. Therefore, value added multipliers are driven not only by propagation through sectoral linkages but also by the VA-output ratios of the sectors, that is, the capacity to generate value added. By definition, the sum of each column of matrix VB equals to one. This implies that when an extra Euro of demand for industry i in region r is injected into the economy, total additional income, as measured by value-added changes in all sectors, increases exactly by one Euro (see Sancho (2018)).¹⁹

3.2.2 Decomposition of regional gross trade flows into Value Added

In addition to the computation of the above described multipliers, which are useful to assess across sectors spillovers, the IO framework can be used to obtain quantitative indicators of GVC participation, by keeping track of the inter-industrial relationships. The global IO table allows to decompose trade flows into value added according to origin, complementing the official trade figures which are measured in gross terms. In this paper, we employ the methodology proposed by Koopman et al. (2014) (KWW14) to decompose international trade flows into value added. In an interregional-intercountry framework the KWW14 approach to decompose gross trade flows has to be adapted to take into account the fact that regions' trade flows can be directed both to other countries (gross exports) and to other regions within the same country (gross outflows). In this paper, regional flows have been classified either as outflows or exports according to the first final destination after leaving the Spanish regions. Based on Meng and Yamano (2017), that introduce interregional trade into the general KWW14 framework, we initially decompose each Spanish regions exports and outflows into three components according to the origin of inputs: (1) the domestic value added content - inputs within the same region, the Domestic Content, DC-, (2) inputs acquired to another region within the same country - the Regional Content, RC- and (3) inputs purchased from abroad (Foreign Content, FC) (see **figure 3**). The last two components tell us how much a region's exports (that is, sales outside the country) or outflows (that is, sales to other regions in the same country) depend on intermediate inputs and services from other countries -imports- or from other regions within the same country -inflows-. These indicators provide information about the degree of *backward* participation of a region in domestic or international networks and, to some extent, allows to assess their participation in GVCs. If these indicators differ across regions, the sub-national dimension become key in explaining the aggregate and regional effects of supply and demand shocks.

¹⁹This makes perfect sense since in a static model with no technical progress there cannot be endogenous growth. Value injected in i is exactly equal to value created (i.e. 1 Euro) in the global economy although its sectoral distribution will be unequally distributed.

As an example, we present the equations for the bilateral flows connecting a source region s and a recipient region r (gross trade outflows O_{sr} or gross exports E_{sr}) and compute separately the domestic content ($DC = VA_{ss}$), the content embed that comes from other regions within the country ($RC = VA_{ps}$), and the foreign content ($FC = VA_{fs}$).²⁰ In this decomposition the double counted term is embedded in the three components.²¹

$$Gross_trade_flows_{sr} = DC_{ss} + RC_{ps} + FC_{fs}, \quad p \neq s \quad (8)$$

These three components can be obtained from the previous Value Added matrix, fixing zeros in the required cells in the \hat{V} matrix in equation **equation 5**.

As regards the DC_{ss} component:

$$DC_{ss} = \underbrace{\hat{v}_s}_{(1 \times RI)} \underbrace{B}_{(RI \times RI)} \underbrace{e_{sr}}_{(RI \times 1)} \quad (9)$$

where e_{sr} is a vector that contains the value of trade flows from the source region s to the recipient region r . v_s is the vector of value added coefficients of region s , that is the value added created per unit of gross output in region s . This $(1 \times RI)$ vector contains the value-added coefficients for each industry in region s and zeroes otherwise. Basically, the DC_{ss} picks the on-diagonal block in the *Leontief* inverse (B) for region s , pre-multiplies with the value added coefficients for region s in each sector and post-multiplies with the values of exports to the recipient region. A similar approach is followed to get the other two components RC_{ps} and FC_{fs} , that takes the appropriate off-diagonal blocks of matrix (B) for region s and the appropriate value added coefficient. A detailed description of how obtain the KWW breakdown of gross trade flows from IO tables is found in Amador et al. (2015) and in Bentivogli et al. (2018). Note that this breakdown bridges with the literature on GVCs that uses the blocks of the inverse of the *Leontief* matrix to develop measures on GVC participation, either *backward* (i.e. the amount of imported inputs used to produce exported goods) or *forward* (i.e. exported intermediate inputs that where be utilized by the recipient region to produce exports).

²⁰Bilateral flow decomposition of value added in trade with a sectoral approach is provided by Wang et al. (2018), building upon the original KWW14 decomposition. Recall that KWW encompass the Vertical Specialization (VS) measure proposed by Hummels et al. (2001) and the value added absorbed abroad by Johnson and Noguera (2012).

²¹Double counting arises when an intermediate input crosses the same border more than once. This includes the domestic content that returns home embodied in imports or inflows but leaves the region again, as well as, the part of the FC and the RC that crosses the region border several times and is a source of multiple counting in official trade statistics. This component of gross exports is greater in countries which play a prominent role in the supply-chain trade of their regions, which lead to greater back and forth trade in intermediates recorded in official gross statistic. According to the available estimates at country level (see Solaz (2018)), the "double-counted intermediate exports produced at home" term accounted about 0.2% of total Spanish gross exports in 2010, and this share has remained relatively stable between 1995 and 2011. By contrast, the "double-counted intermediate exports produced abroad" has increased its weight on total exports along that period, from 3.6% in 1995 to 7.0% in 2011, but still hardly accounted about a 24% of the total FC. Bentivogli et al. (2018) provide some evidence at regional level, they estimate that for Italian regions the double counting term in gross exports and outflows is low and quite homogeneous across regions.

Following KWW14, the previous three terms (DC, FC and RC) they can be additionally be split into different value added components, enriching the analysis.²² In **appendix B** regional gross trade flows are divided into nine terms. The first two elements represent the DVA embed in final and intermediates -goods or services- trade flows that will be absorbed by direct importers (VAX1 and VAX2, respectively). The third one (VAX3) denotes the domestic value-added embed in intermediates that the direct importer will use to produce goods or services to export to third regions, either within the country or to a region located abroad. This term measures the *forward participation* either in the domestic or international segments of the value chain. The fourth and fifth terms (VAX4 and VAX5) accounts for the domestic value embed in intermediate trade flows that return to the source region as final or as intermediates. The sixth element is the pure double counting terms in domestic value added (DDC), that is, the intermediates produced at home that cross the same border more that twice. Therefore, the Domestic Content term is defined as the aggregation of these six elements: VAX1, VAX2, VAX3, VAX4, VAX5 and DDC. The seventh (TERM7) and eighth (TERM8) terms represent the foreign and the regional value added embed in final or intermediate trade flows, respectively. These last two terms are frequently used to measure the *backward participation* value chains, where we can break into the regional and international segments. And, finally, the last element (TERM9), denotes the double-counted term embed in intermediate trade flows produced in other regions or countries.

In the next section, we describe the main results obtained from implementing the previous methodology by using the EUREGIO database.

4 Spanish regions within and between cross country linkages: Main stylised facts

The EUREGIO dataset will be used to estimate region-specific IO multipliers, which allows to study how sector-specific shocks propagate through the Spanish economy and impact the aggregate output, as well as, to compute trade flows in value added, that are useful to assess a Spanish region integration in production networks, at regional or international level -GVCs-.

4.1 Domestic and international input-output linkages

4.1.1 Direct requirements

Regional inter-sectoral linkages are crucial to understand how (domestic or foreign) demand and supply shocks propagate across sectors and regions. **Figure 4** depicts the graphical

²²Paraphrasing Koopman et al. (2014) pag 10: “Intuitively, there are at least two reasons for a country’s exports of value added to be smaller than its gross exports to the rest of the world. First, the production for its exports may contain foreign value added or imported intermediate goods. Second, part of the domestic value added that is exported may return home after being embodied in the imported foreign goods rather than being absorbed abroad. In other words, exports of value added are a net concept; it has to exclude from the gross exports both foreign value added and the part of domestic value added that is imported back to home”. The pure double-counting terms concerns intermediate inputs that cross the same regional or foreign borders several times.

representation of the direct requirement matrices A , that is, the technical coefficients, computed from the EUREGIO database for selected Spanish regions: Madrid, Catalonia, Canary Islands and the Basque Country. We choose these regions because they differ in features, such as sectoral specialization (manufacturing vs. services) or geographic location (coastal vs. interior), that may explain differences in the way a given shock impact each region and the country as a whole, as well as, in their participation in GVCs.²³ As it was described in section 3.2.1, the technical coefficients a_{ij} capture the importance of an specific industry (for example j) as a direct supplier for any industry (for example i). In the above mentioned figure, any node represents the calculated technical coefficient for a recipient-supplier industry pair for selected regions. For example, a recipient sector (the vertical axis) in a specific Spanish region (for example, Madrid) requires, to produce one unit of output, inputs from a supplier sector (the horizontal axis), that can be located in Spain (for example Catalonia) or in a foreign country (for example, Germany).

Total direct requirements are depicted in the blue panels in **column A**. The darker the color of the node, the stronger the linkage between the supplier and the recipient sector is. White or pale nodes point to a low user-supplier connection between two sectors. The vertical color bar on the right displays the relationship between the intensity of the color and the technical coefficient values.²⁴ For example, in Canary Islands, sector *ss2-Mining, quarrying and energy supply* spends about 2 cents Euro on purchases from sector *ss5-Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel, etc.* to produce a Euro of output. The main stylized facts are the following: (i) the strongest linkages are usually within the same sector, that is, the recipient-supplier pair shows the darkest node on the diagonal; (ii) the manufacturing sector uses more inputs from other industries to produce a unit of output than the service sector does; (iii) the service content in manufacturing is high, as indicated by nodes being more intense below the 45 degree diagonal; (iv) services are less dependent on intermediate inputs from other industries, as they are more reliant on labor and capital inputs than material inputs; and, finally, (v) among manufacturing, sectors *ss5-Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel and chemicals* and *ss8-Other manufacturing industry* are more frequently used as inputs in other sectors for production.²⁵

In columns **B**, **C** and **D** we breakdown the technical coefficients by geographical origin of inputs. Intuitively, these coefficients capture the dependence of industry i from suppliers industries j located in any of the three areas. The red panels account for the inputs provided by industries within the same region and the purple panels the direct requirements from other regions within Spain. Finally, the green panels depict the requirements from abroad, that is, from foreign suppliers. We can observe that, on average, Spanish industries rely more on domestic and other regions inputs than on the imported ones, reflecting lower transportation and information costs.²⁶ One exception is the energy sector (sector *ss5-Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel, etc.*) where inputs are sourced mainly from foreign

²³A more detailed description of differences across Spanish regions is included in **appendix C**.

²⁴For technical reasons, in these charts, sectors numbering, in both horizontal and vertical axes, are slightly different from the one described in **appendix A**. Sectors *ss6&ss7* are named as sector *ss6*, and, consequently, sector *ss7* in the chart corresponds to *ss8* in the appendix and so on. For simplicity, and to keep homogeneity along the paper, in the text, but not in these charts, when a specific sector is mentioned, the numbering of the appendix is the reference.

²⁵On this background, needless to say, the importance to take into account a larger breakdown at sectoral level than the one used in this paper.

²⁶Similarly, Luu et al. (2019) found that internal linkages among domestic sectors are generally much denser than the external linkages with sectors in different countries.

countries, in line with the large dependence of the Spanish economy from imported energy. On the opposite side, the construction sector (ss9), as expected, uses intensively Spanish inputs, mainly, domestic ones.

The described pattern is quite similar across the four analyzed regions, although the (domestic and regional) input-output linkages across the 14 considered sectors seem to be less intensive in the case of Catalonia.²⁷ In other words, on average, the Catalan industry depends less on national inputs than industries in other Spanish regions do, while is quite similar in imported inputs. This finding suggests that a decline in the production of a Catalan sector, that is provoked by a decrease in the final demand of Catalan products, is expected to have a lower direct impact on other sectors production compared to a similar shock to the same sector in other regions outside Catalonia. By contrast, the Basque Country's industry shows the strongest national sectoral linkages, specially within the same region (panel B), reflecting the well developed industrial sector in this area and their coastal location. This finding points at some agglomeration effect in the industrial sector in the Basque Country, where firms have strong linkages with other firms in the same region compared to the ones observed in other Spanish regions.²⁸ Similarly in Madrid and Canary Islands both domestic and regional dependencies are relevant, although linkages between domestic sectors are less stronger than in the Basque Country. Interestingly, in Madrid input-output networks are particularly strong in the services sector, mainly, in the *business* (ss14), *financial* (ss13) and *non-market services sectors* (ss15)(partly related with its role as capital of Spain but also as headquarter of multinational firms). Finally, Madrid's and the Basque Country's industries source services from other regions but also from other countries.²⁹

4.1.2 Total requirements

The previous analysis is based on the technical coefficient matrix that only captures the direct requirement from each sector to produce a unit of output in a given sector, that is, the importance of industry j as a direct supplier of industry i . However, with the fragmentation of production across regions and countries, indirect linkages gain relevance. On this background, it is crucial to look also at the so-called inverse *Leontief* matrix, where each element (i, j) measures the importance of industry j as a direct and indirect supplier of industry i . **Figure 5** shows the graphical representation taking into account both direct

²⁷A note of caution as regards Catalonia estimates. As it has been mentioned above, there is a discrepancy between Catalan flows- both exports and outflows- estimated by EUREGIO and those estimated by the Institut d'Estadística de Catalunya in their regional input-output tables. This gap accounts for around 5% of regional value added both in outflows and exports of intermediate goods and services. Assuming the input-output interlinkages described by EUREGIO are a good proxy of the Catalan input-output network, an increase in the total volume of trade flows will only affect the darkness (intensity) of each node but not its number. Therefore, the conclusions about the structure of the Catalan network remains mostly unchanged. On the other hand, the output multipliers are underestimated by approximately 5% if we assume the gap is homogeneously distributed across sectors. Notwithstanding, the impact on the VA multipliers is expected to be lower.

²⁸Ramos and Moral-Benito (2018), using a unique administrative dataset of Spanish exporters to document the existence of exporters' geographical agglomeration by export destination, find that firms selling to countries with worse business regulations, a dissimilar language and a different currency tend to cluster significantly more.

²⁹In Madrid imported services are broadly spread across sectors while in the Basque Country is mainly used as input by *the energy sector* (ss5) and, to a lesser extent, by *the financial sector* (ss13).

and indirect requirements.³⁰ As expected, the inclusion of indirect linkages across sectors leads to an increase in the intensity of the nodes in comparison with **Figure 4**, where only direct linkages are represented. These two figures easily illustrate how important to consider all existing linkages across sectors is when spillover effects from sector-specific shocks are analyzed.

4.1.3 Upstream multipliers and its implications for shock propagation

In **table 2** and **table 3, Panel A**, we summarize the total input requirements needed to produce a Euro of output of a specific sector, i.e. the *upstream multiplier*, for selected regions and sectors. An upstream output multiplier is the sum of each column of the *Leontief* matrix for each sector-region pair, allowing quantify the propagation of demand shocks (from consumers to suppliers) along the production chain and their aggregate impact. Total **upstream** output multipliers are reported in column **a**. As calculations are based on the global IO table with regional detail, we can breakdown the total multipliers according to the supplier's region of origin. The upstream propagation will affect the output in the same region (the domestic multiplier, column **b**), in other regions within Spain (the regional multiplier, column **c**) and in a foreign country (the foreign multiplier, column **d**). We show the 3 most and the 3 less systemic industries in terms of upstream propagation effects on foreign countries. We follow this criteria because one of the aim of this paper is to investigate Spanish regions linkages with other countries through GVCs and the expected impact from a demand shock (domestic or foreign) that might filter to other countries. The logic behind the upstream propagation of demand-side shocks is simple. As a result of a exogenous increase in the demand of a given product, a firm (a industry) has to increase their production to meet this rise in demand. Similarly, those industries (the suppliers) that provide inputs to the shocked sector (the costumer) expand their production. In this framework, the demand shock propagates from the consumer sector to the supplier one.

On average, Catalan-sectors record the lowest upstream output multipliers, specially, to other Spanish regions. While the Basque Country, is the region with sectors with larger multipliers, both domestic and regional ones. Looking at region-industry pair multipliers, both ss05-*Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel and chemicals* and ss6&ss7-*Electrical, optical and transport equipment* have the largest output multipliers, but about half of its value filters to foreign countries. For example, the pair ss6&ss7-the Basque Country shows an output multiplier of 3. If there is an exogenous increase in the demand of cars produced in the Basque country by Germany by 1 million euros, this will lead to an increase in the car production in that region to meet the increase in demand. Thus, the rise in production requires additional inputs from industries located in the Basque country, from other Spanish regions and from other countries. The upstream propagation would result in a final increase of 1.60 million of euros of total output in the Basque Country, 0.58 million of euros in other Spanish regions output and 0.83 million euros of output in other countries.³¹

³⁰This figure presents the requirement coefficients, that is, the total inputs required to produce one Euro of output. In general terms, the main messages from the technical coefficients remain unchanged, although additional nodes appear in the requirement figures illustrating the indirect linkages.

³¹The output multipliers are affected by a double-counting problem, but they are the ones capturing propagation effects trough out the IO network *per se*. Other multipliers (such as, employment of value added) alleviate this problem but they are driven by other factors apart from the IO structure, as the VA-output ratio of sectors in the VA multiplier.

As regard services, output multipliers are lower than in manufacturing, but they usually show higher linkages across the domestic networks than manufacturing sectors do. And, services domestic multipliers are much more larger than the foreign ones.³²

In **tables 4 to table 7**, the upstream multipliers for the 14 sectors and the 4 analyzed regions are presented in **Panels A**. Turning to total output multipliers, the highest value usually corresponds to sector ss9-*Construction* (that ranges from 3.17 in the Basque Country to 2.88 in Canary Island). The largest domestic output multiplier is also showed by sector ss9, followed by sectors ss12-*Transport, storage and communication* and ss6&ss7-*Electrical, optical and transport equipment*. This is quite common across the four analyzed regions. As expected, ss5-*Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel and chemicals* and ss6&ss7 show the highest foreign output multipliers. However, there is not a clear common pattern across regions in the case of the highest regional multiplier: ss2-*Mining, quarrying and energy supply* in Madrid, ss3-*Food, beverages and tobacco* in the Basque Country, ss4-*Textiles and leather* and ss6&ss7 in Canary Islands and ss3-*Food, beverages and tobacco* and ss8-*Other manufacturing* in Catalonia.

To get a sense of the advantage of a global IO as compared to a national one we compute in **column b.1** the domestic multipliers when using the domestic IO table and in **column b.2** the ripple effect when using the global IO table. The ripple effects refers to the impact on domestic activity due to an increase in demand on a specific domestic output which, at the same time, require inputs from these sector by other regions or sector to produce the inputs required by the initially shocked region. These ripple effects are specially relevant for Madrid and the Basque Country, being almost negligible in other regions.³³

However, to properly assess the aggregate impact of a regional-sector specific demand shock on Spanish VA (or GDP), not only the above mentioned propagation pattern of the shock is relevant, but also the sector size. The combination of both, input-output linkages and sectors size, are embedded in the so-called value added multipliers. These multipliers estimate the aggregate increase in value added -measured in Euros- per Euro additional of output in a sector in a given region.³⁴

Similarly, for each region, in **tables 4 to table 7**, in **Panels B** we compute the multipliers in value added and decompose it by geographical origin. By construction total value added per unit of production equals to one.³⁵ As expected, in the 4 selected regions, services sectors rely less on foreign inputs than the manufacturing sectors do. Similarly, ss1-*Agriculture* and ss9-*Construction* show a large fraction of domestic value added. Sec-

³²Madrid seems to have low upstream propagation effects to other industries. This result is not unexpected, providing Madrid production structure is biased to services, in particular, public services, that usually do not rely so much on inputs from other industries.

³³Across-sector spillovers also depend on the degree to which some sectors purchase inputs from other sectors and on how they bring sectors than do not, otherwise, trade directly closer to each other, acting as conduction of shocks and causing cascade effects. These sectors are known as "hub" in the literature.

³⁴The aggregate impact of a sector-specific shock on national GDP will also depend on the VA to output ratio of this sector. For example, a demand shock in a sector that requires relatively little input from other industries may have a large aggregate impact in terms of GDP (of the country) if this sector and/or their input suppliers have a large value added to output ratio. That is the reason why output multipliers are better indicators to capture propagation across sectors.

³⁵For more details on this see Koopman et al. (2014) and Miller and Blair (2009).

tors ss5-*Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel and chemicals* and ss6&ss7-*Electrical, optical and transport equipment* are the industries that require more foreign inputs to produce a unit of output. As regards regional multipliers, again a larger disparity is observed across regions being sectors ss2-*Mining, quarrying and energy supply* in Madrid, ss3-*Food, beverages and tobacco* in the Basque Country and in Catalonia and ss4-*Textiles and leather* in Canary Island, the ones showing the highest regional multipliers.

In sum, the propagation through input-output linkages of sector-specific shocks, and their aggregate impact, differs across Spanish regions. An exogenous demand shock that affect the manufacturing sector will generate a larger aggregate impact on total (domestic and foreign) output than a similar shock on services. However, while in the last case spillover effects have an impact mainly on Spanish aggregate output, demand shocks on manufacturing also affect foreign aggregate output.

4.2 Trade flows

4.2.1 Gross trade flows

Figure 6 in **panel A** shows each region exports and outflows in goods and services in gross terms in 2010, as a share of total Spanish exports or outflows.³⁶ As expected Catalonia was the largest exporter, while Madrid was the Spanish region with the highest outflows. Madrid is mainly a provider of intermediate inputs, both to other regions in Spain and also abroad (see **panel B**). Trade flows in Catalonia and in the Basque Country also show a bias toward intermediate inputs, although less pronounced in the case of exports. Interestingly, Canary Islands ships mainly final goods and services to other Spanish regions, while intermediate inputs weigh more in exports.

A sectoral breakdown highlights significant differences in regional trade. Madrid and the Basque country present a lower concentration of outflows across sectors than Catalonia and Canary Islands do. In particular, Catalonia's sales to other Spanish regions are concentrated in two sectors (ss14-*Real state, renting and business activities* and ss15-*Non-market-services*), that account about 65% of total outflows in 2010. Similarly, in Canary Islands only two sectors (ss11-*Hotels and Restaurants* and ss15-*Non-market-services*) made up near to 51%. Finally, concerning exports, Catalonia and the Basque Country are more oriented toward manufactures, while services have a higher weight in Madrid and Canary Island total exports.

Differences in trade flows partly reflect heterogeneity in regional economic structure, as well as, in its geographic location and its role as a multinational hub or the region where the capital of Spain is located.³⁷ For example, in Madrid, market-services accounted for

³⁶In this section, we have modified Catalonia's gross trade to correct the undervalued bias identified in EUREGIO data for this region. The share of intermediate and final goods and services in total trade flows have been kept in line with EUREGIO original data. Similarly, it is assumed that linkages across sector and geographical areas do not be affected by the re-scale of flows.

³⁷In Spain, a highly decentralized country, the role of Madrid as the core of the public administration weakens. For example, in 2016 about 36% of general government expenditure was made by regional governments in Spain.

about 70% of total region value added in 2010, well above the national average (close to 50%), while in Catalonia and, mainly, in the Basque country the industrial sector made up around 20% and 25% of each region value added compared to 10% in Madrid. By contrast, the non-market service sector largely contributes to the value added in Canary Islands (21% of the total), as well as the market-service sector (60%) compared to the national average.

In **figure 6 panel C** exports and outflows are re-sized in terms of regional value added to better compare across regions. Outflows clearly outweighed exports in all regions, except in Catalonia where both types of flows were quite similar. The share of gross outflows and exports of goods and services over regional value added ranges from 87% of the regional value added for the Basque Country to 66% for Catalonia, compared to the all regions average (79%). In Madrid, this share is clearly above the non-weighted all Spanish regions average (83%) while Canary Islands places below (68%). Concerning outflows, the national average on value added is 54%, about 30 percentage points higher than for exports. Madrid and the Basque Country are on the upper side, while Catalonia and Canary Islands are below the all regions average. Inter-regional trade in market services in Madrid and in manufacturing in the Basque Country (here the outflows of oil-derived products are relevant) explain the large weight of regional sales in these two regions. By contrast, the relatively low outflows in the construction sector in Catalonia and in manufacturing in Canary Islands explain the relative low share of outflows compared to the national average. Being Catalonia and the Basque Country, the regions with the highest share of exports over regional VA.

Finally, concerning the degree of external openness (i.e. the share of total gross exports and imports over regional VA (see **figure 6 panel D**), Catalonia and the Basque Country are placed at the top, followed by Madrid and, at the bottom, Canary Islands. In line with gravity trade, bilateral trade between two countries is proportional to country size, and inversely proportional to distance. Catalonia and the Basque Country -foreign borders- clearly have a above-average degree of trade openness.

In short, gross outflows clearly outweighed exports in all regions, except in Catalonia where both type of flows were quite similar. As expected Catalonia was the largest exporter in gross term, while Madrid was the Spanish region with the highest outflows in absolute terms. Being Madrid mainly a provider of intermediate inputs, both in exports and outflows, as well as, Catalonia and the Basque Country, while Canary Islands show a bias towards final goods and services in outflows. A sectoral breakdown highlights significant differences in regional trade. Madrid and the Basque country present a lower concentration of outflows in a few sector than Catalonia and Canary Islands do. Finally, the Basque Country and Madrid are mainly oriented to the regional markets (share of regional sale on VA), while Catalonia to foreign markets.

4.2.2 Trade in value added

The structure of the EUREGIO dataset allows to decompose a Spanish region's gross trade flows into value added components by source (see appendix C). We applied the above described KWW gross export decomposition method adapted to take into account the regional dimension embedded in the international IO table. Following KWW, a region's gross exports and outflows can be initially broken into three main components: the

DC, the FC and the RC. The last two components provide useful information about the degree of *backward* participation of Spanish regions in production networks, as well as, the inter-regional or international nature of their dependence on inputs. While, one of the terms embed in the DC, the above described VAX3 element, is a good indicator of the *forward* participation in the production chain.

The international and interregional fragmentation of production process has led to significant differences between exports and outflows in gross and value added terms. **Figure 7** summarizes the evolution of the main three estimated components (DC, FC and RC) in the 19 Spanish regions *exports* (**panel A**) and outflows (**panel B**) since 2000 to 2010.³⁸ The data confirms that there are large differences in GVC participation across Spanish regions and these differences remained relatively stable over the analyzed period. Looking at the most recent period, the share of DC in regional gross exports modestly declined between 2007 and 2010, as well as, the FC content in regional exports. By contrast, an increase in the RC embedded in regional exports was observed in the same period. Both manufacturing and, to a lesser extent, the service sector, explain these trends. Differences across regions remained large, although regions in the lower percentile increased the share of DC in their exports along that period- the bottom 25th of regions in terms of the share of DC in exports increased this ratio-.

As regards *outflows*, the share of DC remained relatively stable over the 2000 to 2010 period, and the dispersion across regions declined modestly, but kept large. Similarly to exports, the FC content of outflows decreased while the RC increased marginally. Both manufacturing and services sectors drove the above described performance of the FC and RC content of regional outflows in that period.

Next, we examine in detail the four selected Spanish regions. **Figure 8**, in **panels A** and **B**, presents the share of DC, RC and FC embedded in gross exports and in gross outflows in regional VA.³⁹ This share provides a measure of the overall importance of exports and outflows for the regional economy. The data reveal that there are notable differences across Spanish regions. According to this indicator, Catalonia and Madrid are the regions that incorporate more DC in their sales outside the region (53.5% and 49.6% of regional VA, respectively), followed by Canary Islands (44.1%) and the Basque Country (43.1%). The aggregate figure hides a different pattern when exports and outflows are considered separately.

As regard *exports*, in Catalonia the share of DC over regional VA is at the top (23.1%), followed by the Basque Country (13.7%) and with Canary Islands at the bottom (10.3%). A large disparities also emerge in the case of *outflows*, with DC shares ranging from 36.5% of regional value added in Madrid to 29.5% in the Basque Country.⁴⁰ As it was expected, the

³⁸The EUREGIO database includes data for Ceuta and Melilla, that have been excluded for the analysis due to its small size and the volatility of their trade.

³⁹As in the previous section, for Catalonia, the decomposition refers to the modified figures for gross exports and outflows. Here it is assumed that the three components keeps the proportion in total trade flows estimated from the original EUREGIO data no matter the absolute level.

⁴⁰These disparities can be partly explained by the specialization patterns of these regions. Focusing on outflows, in Madrid, the large share of DC over the regional value added reflects the importance of services in their sales, highlighting that the capital of Spain is located in this region and, therefore, it sells central government services to other Spanish regions. Differently, in the Basque Country, the lower share of DC it is related with the location of oil refineries in this area.

DC in outflows as a share of regional VA is significantly larger than the same share of DC for exports in all regions, reflecting that, on average, regional linkages are more important than the foreign ones.⁴¹ Finally, the share of FC outpaces the RC one, both in exports and outflows, except in Canary Islands, where the share of both RC and FC are quite similar, reflecting the sector structure in this area (ss9-*Construction* and ss11-*Hotels and restaurants* are quite important-). The last finding illustrates the well known high import dependence of the Spanish economy.

The DC in exports and outflows as a share of regional VA is an indicator of the economic importance of these flows for the economic performance of the region, but not of its degree of participation of GVCs, neither the inter-regional or the international segment of the chain. For example, a region might have a high share of DC of exports in regional VA only because exports account for a large fraction of their output, no matter how much the import (or regional) content of each unit of exports is. In this example, a high share of DC may not be related with a low participation in GVCs, but the opposite. To overcome this drawbacks, Hummels et al. (2001) proposed to compute a vertical specialization indicator. In that paper vertical specialization was defined as the import content of gross exports, that is, the value of imports needed to produce a country's exports. The higher this value, the more a country relies on imports to produce its exports and the higher its participation in GVCs is. Domestic value added in exports is the complement of the import content of exports.⁴² In our paper, we initially compute the ratio on exports (and outflows) for the three main components: DC, FC and RC. The FC and RC ratios can be used to evaluate each regions's *backward participation* in international and interregional value chains.⁴³

Figure 8 presents the share of DC, of FC and of RC on gross regional exports (**panel C**) and on gross outflows (**panel D**). The highest DC ratio is observed in Catalonia, both for exports (70.2%) and, mainly, for outflows (91.7%). The other three Spanish regions show a quite similar ratios in gross exports (ranging from 44.8% to 50.6%), while differences appear on the outflows side (ranging for 51.6% to 70.2%)(see **Figure 8, panel C and D**). According to this measure, Catalonia would be the Spanish region that is less integrated in the *backward* segment of value chains. This is mainly explained by the lowest RC embedded in both exports and outflows, compared to the other three regions, while the FC is quite similar in case of exports but lower in outflows. The Basque country is the region that employed more intensively foreign inputs, both in exports (33.8%) and outflows (27.8%), closely followed by Madrid (32% and 19.6%, respectively). Being Canary Islands and the Basque Country the regions that present the largest share of RC (22.9% and 21.4% in exports and 16.4% and 20.6% in outflows, respectively). To summary, Catalonia is the Spanish region less involved in the *backward* segment of GVCs, the Basque Country and Madrid the most *backward* integrated in the international segment of the value chain, while the Canary Islands and the Basque Country the most involved in the interregional one.

Despite its simplicity, the computed vertical specialization indicator (the FC or RC terms) has some drawbacks. For example, two regions with similar DC per euro in their exports,

⁴¹This applies to both intermediate and final goods and services.

⁴²This is the case when the pure-double counting, that is the intermediate input that cross the same border several times, is low, as it seems the case in Spain.

⁴³When interpreting the results, it is important to bear in mind that in the three-term decomposition of gross trade flows, the double-counting term is included in the three components, the DC, the FC and the RC components. This is not necessarily a problem if these double-counting terms are small, like it seems to be the case in EU countries, as well as, in Spain as we show later in this paper. See also Bentivogli et al. (2018) for Italian regions and Solaz (2018) for Spain.

would have similar vertical specialization indicator regardless of the percentage of exported output (50% or 1%). Additionally, the indicator values can be biased by construction if regions are strongly specialized in upstream activities. For example, if a region is specialized in mining activities with a low import content, would be categorized with a low integration in value changes, although its exports are used as intermediate inputs in other countries exports. The *forward* participation in GVCs is missing in this previous indicator.

To solve these drawbacks, we propose an alternative decomposition of gross trade flows, where the DC term is additionally broken into five elements. **Figure 9**, in **panel A**, shows the FC and the RC, as well as, these new terms as a share of total gross flows. The first two elements, VAX1 and VAX2 are the domestic value added directly absorbed by the direct buyer (other Spanish regions or other country). $VAX3_{dom}$ and $VAX3_{for}$ represent the source region's value added that the direct buyer sells, respectively, to other Spanish regions or to other country. These two figures are a good proxy of the *forward* participation of Spanish regions in the domestic and the international segment of the production networks. DVA45 is the value added embed in a region's sales that eventually returned at home and, the last term, DDC, represent the double-counting embed in the domestic content, that it, basically two way trade in intermediate produced in the source region's. This decomposition improves the analysis at least in two dimensions. First, the results confirm that value added embed in total trade in intermediate good and services directly absorbed by the direct buyer (VAX2) outpaces the one embed in final good and services trade (VAX1), except in Canary Island. And, second, Spanish regions participation in GVCs takes place mainly in the *backward* segment (RC and FC), while the *forward* segment ($VAX3_{dom}$ and $VAX3_{for}$) is quite low except in Catalonia, in particular, in the international segment ($VAX3_{for}$). The *backward* and *forward* participation indicators in **panel B** synthesize the previous results.

The aggregate picture hides some differences between exports and outflows. **Figure 8**, in **panels C and D**, present the above described decomposition of gross exports and outflows as share of regional VA. DVA in final goods and services directly absorbed for the direct buyer (VAX1) is more important in outflows than in exports, specially in Canary Island. While in exports Catalonia shows the largest *forward* participation in production network (VAX3), Madrid and the Basque Country present the largest one in outflows. Finally, concerning the *backward* participation of Spanish regions in GVCs, the Basque country presents the highest participation, both in exports and outflows, as well as, in the domestic (RC) and the international segment (FC), closely followed by Madrid, while Catalonia shows a comparatively low participation in outflows.

Finally, the previous indicators does not devote attention to the geography of value chains. If a Spanish region would mainly import from China and export to the U.S., the region should be considered to participate in truly global value chains, while it would not be the case if it would import from Portugal and export to France. To this aim, Los and Chen (2016) compute a novel GVC participation indicator, that measure the value added by a region to truly global value chains. This GVC Value Added is expressed as a ratio of regional GDP. According to this indicator, in Spain, richer regions like the Basque Country, Navarra, Madrid and Catalonia tend to have slightly higher GVC participation levels than poor regions like Extremadura and Castilla-La Mancha. In any case, the Spanish regions with the higher index are well below the German and the Italian ones, and quite similar to the French ones.

In short, according to the *backward* specialization indicator used in this paper, Catalonia is the Spanish region less involved in GVCs, the Basque Country and Madrid the most integrated in the international segment of the value chain, while the Canary Islands and the Basque Country the most involved in the interregional segment. Concerning the *forward*, Catalonia shows the largest participation in exports, while Madrid and the Basque Country present the largest one in outflows.

5 Case studies

In this section we study the role of regional and global input-output linkages in the transmission of economic disturbances to the Spanish economy and its regions. The nature of this exercise is an accounting exercise and with very strong assumptions. Notwithstanding, it is a useful tool to analyze the propagation of disturbances among Spanish regions taking into account both direct and indirect effects. If these indirect linkages are not taken into account, we could miscalculated the true aggregate impact from a given shock.

To streamline the analysis we will focus in a pair of shocks originating outside the euro area, namely the United States and United Kingdom, which are also interesting cases to consider given the current conjuncture and their relevance as main trading partners of the euro area. More specifically, we use the input-output framework to estimate the short-term economic impact of two demand shocks and how they propagate *upstream* (from clients to supplier): [A] a decline in US final demand driven by an increase in US tariffs to imports, [B] a similar decline in final demand in UK as a consequence of the Brexit. Finally, we trace out the effect of a similar sector-specific demand shock in two Spanish regions. We focus on shocks on demand for goods or services by region of completion, that is on final goods as Timmer et al. (2015).

5.1 A decline in US final demand

The uncertainty surrounding the past announcements of the US to increase tariffs on some EU imports has raised the interest to evaluate the economic impact of that increase. Although the direct commercial exposure of Spain to US is very low, input and output linkages may be hiding a larger negative effect than the one suggested by the official statistics. According to the TiVA database, Spanish exports of goods and services to the US amounted about 7% of total Spanish gross exports, accounting the DVA about 75% of gross exports in 2015 (the last available data). These figures point to a low impact on Spanish exports at aggregate level, although there might be significant differences across sectors and across regions.

Under the assumption that the structure of value chains remained similar to what they were in 2010, the EUREGIO input-output table allows us to estimate the direct and indirect impact on regional GDP of a 10% (y-o-y) contraction in the US final demand.⁴⁴ This

⁴⁴For simplicity, and following Huidrom et al. (2019), in this exercise we assume that a 10% increase in tariffs on imports of a certain good implies a declines in demand for that good by 8 percent. It is important to mention that these elasticities differ across countries when specific product characteristics are take into account. According to the above mentioned elasticities, a rise of import tariffs of 12.5% to EU products (goods and services) would lead to a decline of about 10% in the demand for EU products from the US.

decline in US final demand will lead to a decline in production to meet such demand. The first two columns (A) in **table 8** present the impact of a 10% decline in US final demand on gross output -over value added- and on value added for Spain and all its regions. We assume that US demand will keep the proportionality. A decline in US final demand of this size will lead to a fall in output of the Spanish Economy of -0.65% in gross terms and by -0.27% in value added. We observe that there is substantial heterogeneity among Spanish regions. Looking at the gross output, the Basque Country, Murcia and Navarre are the regions more negatively affected by the demand shock in US, while Andalusia, Catalonia and Valencian Community the least ones. However, when the shock is considered in value added terms, that is, excluding the intermediate inputs, the previous rank suffers some changes, being the Basque Country and Madrid the most negatively impacted by the contraction in the US final demand, while Andalusia and Canary Islands are the least ones.

It is also interesting to identify which sectors explain the previous findings. To this aim **table 9** presents the sector-region/country pairs that would be more affected by a decline in the US final demand. **Panel A** ranks the top 10 sector-country pairs most exposed to this decrease, while **panel B** does the same only taking into account the Spanish regions. As expected, US sectors are the most affected by a decline in the US final demand, being services sectors in the highest positions, reflecting the large share of services in GDP in developed economies. Concerning Spanish regions, **panel B** shows that Madrid and Catalonia are the most affected regions. Sector ss14-*Real state, renting and business activities* drives the decline in Madrid and ss8-*Other manufacturing* in Catalonia. Valencian Community, Andalusia and the Basque Country are the following regions in the rank, being the decline lead by the above mentioned two sectors.

This result comes from a simple accounting exercise, but it captures all the *spillover* effects to other sectors in Spanish regions and in other countries, and gives an idea about the short term economic impact caused by a decline in US final demand following a rise in US tariffs on EU products.⁴⁵

5.2 A decline in UK final demand

Once a leaving agreement has been reached, a new commercial relationship between UK and the EU is expected in the near future. Whatever this relationship, an asymmetric impact is expected across EU countries and regions within each country. The available evidence about the impact of Brexit on regions in the EU is relatively scarce. Here we use the EUREGIO to assess the exposure of Spanish regions to Brexit. As in the preceding example we use the EUREGIO database to simulate the impact of a 10% decline in UK final demand, assuming, as previously, that this decline keeps the proportionality in terms of sectors and regions. This decline leads to a fall of 0.15% in gross output and of 0.08% in value added in the case of Spain.⁴⁶ Columns B in **table 8** show the decline, in percentage,

⁴⁵Please bear in mind that this analysis suffers from important limitations, among others, it ignores the reaction of other trading partners that could generate trade diversion effects, as well as, confidence effect affecting negatively global trade.

⁴⁶Bank of Spain has estimated the possible effects on the Spanish economy of the United Kingdom's withdrawal from the EU (see *Brexit* current situation and outlook, Occasional paper, 2019). According to the simulations, in the worst scenario, annual average Spanish GDP growth would decline by between 0.1 pp and 0.2 pp.

in both the gross output and the VA of each Spanish region following a 10% decline in UK final demand. It is worth to mention that this shock has a more symmetric impact across the Spanish regions than the previous one. The impact oscillates between -0.22% to -0.09% on the regional gross output after the UK negative demand shock against a range between -1.10% to -0.29% in case of a similar shock in US.⁴⁷ Concerning the impact on gross output, the Basque Country, Murcia and Madrid are the regions more negatively affected by the demand shock in UK, while Canary Islands, Catalonia and Andalusia the least ones. However, in terms of VA, Madrid, Catalonia and Valencian Community are the regions suffering a larger decline, while Galicia, Castilla Leon and Canary Islands are the less exposed.

Turning to **table 9**, panels A and B present the top 10 most affected sector-region/country pairs across the world and within Spain. The UK regions are the most affected ones. Within Spain, panel B shows that some sectors in Madrid and Catalonia are the most affected by the shock. Sector ss14- *Real state, renting and business activities* and ss12- *Transport, storage and communications* are the most exposed to the UK demand shock. To a lesser extent, other sectors are expected to be negatively affected by the UK final demand decline, such as ss1- *Agriculture* or ss5- *Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel and chemicals*.

As in the previous example, this analysis should be seen as an accounting exercise, that is useful to illustrate which Spanish regions are the most exposed to Brexit. However, as in the previous example, it has some limitations, for example, to what extent consumer and firms in the UK and the EU will react to the future deal are ignored.

5.3 A decline in demand for final goods assembled in Madrid and the Basque Country in a specific sector

Finally, we evaluate the impact on Spanish regions of a sector-specific demand shock that impacts two Spanish regions individually. This example helps to easily illustrate that two similar shocks may have a different impact on other Spanish regions, reflecting disparities in trade and input-output sectoral linkages at domestic, regional and international level. Columns C to D in **table 8** show the estimated impact from a production decline, following a decline in final goods demand, in sector ss6- *Electrical, optical and transport equipment* in Madrid and in the Basque Country. We choose this sector because it presents one of the highest *upstream* output multipliers in both regions and its relevance in the export sector.

As expected, the largest impact, both in terms of gross output and VA, is observed in the region where the negative demand shock takes place. Nevertheless, the shock propagates to other Spanish regions, mainly when the shock comes from Madrid. Interestingly, while the shock in the Basque Country impacted mostly on sectors within the region or in other Spanish regions, when the shock occurs in Madrid, the most affected sector-region pairs are in other countries (**table 9**). This last finding reflects the importance of the input-output linkages that the Basque Country keeps with other Spanish regions, and the international linkages keeps by Madrid. Apart from the primary sector, in particular, ss2-

⁴⁷It is important to have in mind that the US and the UK shocks differ in scale, consequently the size of their impact is not directly comparable.

Mining, quarrying and energy supply, illustrating the Spanish dependence on imported energy, a negative demand shock in Madrid would generate negative spillovers effects on sector ss6-*Electrical, optical and transport equipment*, sector ss14-*Real State, renting and business activities* and sector ss10-*Distribution* in US and France. The location of multi-nationals in Madrid explains this result.

This exercise confirms that changes in production in a given sector (here sector ss6), following a demand shock, have an economic impact that extends far beyond this sector's share in value added. Any shock in Madrid seems to have larger international spillovers than a similar shock in the Basque country, with strong domestic and regional IO linkages.

6 Conclusions

The increasing importance of GVCs as mode of production is well documented at international level and has gained a lot of attention in recent years. However, GVCs can be fragmented and extended not only at the international level -i.e. across countries- but also at the domestic regional level -i.e. within a country-. In this paper we have analyzed the role and participation of Spanish regions in this process of fragmentation in production. Their degree of participation has important implications in terms of propagation of shocks. This analysis has been possible thanks to the availability of EUREGIO, a novel global Input-Output database extended to include EU regions. The database has been an useful tool to better understand linkages between industrial sectors within Spain and with other countries, in particular, in GVCs. This is particularly interesting for Spain where structural differences across regions may drive to divergences in the degree and pattern of participation in GVCs.

In this paper, we first describe each Spanish region input-output linkages within the same region, with other regions in Spain and with foreign countries. Then we applied an extension of the KWW gross export decomposition method, that takes into account the regional dimension, to Spanish regions trade flows, both exports and outflows. This methodology allowed us to better understand how global production is fragmented and extended across Spanish regions and sectors, where the value added is created and where inputs come from, that is, from the same region, from other Spanish region or from the rest of the world. Then we examine how demand shocks propagate *upstream* along the network chain (through out the domestic, regional and international input-output linkages). And finally, using indicators, commonly employed in the GVCs literature at country level, we assess the *backward* and *forward* participation of Spanish regions in the GVCs process, distinguishing between the domestic and the foreign segment.

The empirical finding confirms there are substantial disparities in the degree of participation in both the domestic -with other Spanish regions- and the international segment-with other countries- of the value chain. First, we use the regional value added content (RC) and the foreign value added content (FC) embedded in a Spanish regions *exports* and *outflows* as a measure of their involvement in the *backward* segment of value chain networks. And then, we compute a forward participation indicator as the indirect domestic value-added sold to third countries or regions (VAX3). The results suggest that the degree of input-output interconnectedness of some regions -or region-sector pair- is an additional variable

to take into account when analyzing the propagation and impact on aggregate economic activity of shocks.

In short, we highlight the main findings from our analysis. First, the strongest user-supplier linkages are usually within the same sector, and, in general, with industries within the same region or other Spanish regions, being the Basque Country the region showing the highest dependence on national inputs and Catalonia, the lowest. Second, the propagation of sector-specific demand shocks through input-output linkages, and their aggregate economic impact, differs across Spanish regions and sectors, showing sectors in the Basque Country the largest output-multipliers. Services present lower total output multipliers than manufacturing. The breakdown of total multipliers according to the input geographical origin confirms that services show a larger domestic multiplier than manufacturing, while these sectors present a higher foreign one. Third, GVC participation varies strongly across Spanish regions, being the Basque Country the most integrated in the *backward* segment of the value chain, closely followed by Madrid, while Catalonia -and a lesser extent Canary Islands- shows a comparatively low participation. Concerning the *forward* participation, Catalonia shows the largest one on exports, while Madrid and the Basque Country in outflows. Finally, a 10% decline in US or UK final demand affect Spanish regions differently. And, a similar sector-specific shock (ss6ss7) in Madrid and the Basque Country has a different impact on economic outcome in Spain and abroad. If the shock takes place in the Basque Country, it has the largest impact on sectors within this region or in other Spanish regions, while when the shock occurs in Madrid, the most affected sector-region pairs, following Madrid, are in other countries.

Although the findings described in this paper are affected by the strong assumptions implicit in the I-O framework, they allow us to illustrate how heterogeneous the industrial linkages across Spanish regions are, both within Spain and with industries in other countries. Consequently, spillovers from a demand shock in a region may differ completely from a similar shock in other region. Similarly, a foreign shock impacts differently on Spanish regions.

This paper provides some examples on how the EUREGIO database can be used to improve our knowledge of Spanish regions involvement in GVCs, but the database as well as the indicators built in this paper can be used:

1. To better assess the position of Spanish regions in GVCs. The economic benefits that regions get from GVC participation will depend on where they are located along the value chain.
2. To investigate to what extent a different degree of participation in GVC could contribute to explain economic differences across regions in the same country. This analysis adds a new perspective to the discussion on the drivers behind inequality across regions taking into consideration regional heterogeneity in terms of GVC participation.
3. And, also to assess economic policy measures. The European Union's regional Cohesion funds aim at reducing the gap between the most prosperous regions and those lagging behind in terms of per capita GDP. Input-output networks may affect the final impact from EU structural funds on economic variables.

References

- Acemoglu, D., Akcigit, U. and Kerr, W. (2015), Networks and the macroeconomy: An empirical exploration, Working Paper 21344, National Bureau of Economic Research.
URL: <http://www.nber.org/papers/w21344>
- Acemoglu, D., Carvalho, V. M., Ozdaglar, A. and Tahbaz-Salehi, A. (2012), ‘The network origins of aggregate fluctuations’, *Econometrica* **80**(5), 1977–2016.
URL: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.3982/ECTA9623>
- Amador, J., Cappariello, R. and Stehrer, R. (2015), ‘Global value chains: A view from the euro area’, *Asian Economic Journal* **29**(2), 99–120.
URL: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/asej.12050>
- Artola, C., Gil, M., Pérez, J. J. and Urtasun, A. (2018), ‘Monitoring the spanish economy from a regional perspective: main elements of analysis’, *Occasional Paper, Banco de España* (1809).
- Baqae, D. and Farhi, E. (2019), Networks, barriers, and trade, Working Paper 26108, National Bureau of Economic Research.
URL: <http://www.nber.org/papers/w26108>
- Bentivogli, V., Ferraresi, T., Monti, P., Paniccia, R. and Rosignoli, S. (2018), ‘Italian regions in global value chains: an input-output approach’, *Questioni di Economia e Finanza. Banca D Italia* (462).
- Bernard, A. B., Eaton, J., Jensen, J. B. and Kortum, S. (2003), ‘Plants and productivity in international trade’, *American Economic Review* **93**(4), 1268–1290.
URL: <http://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/000282803769206296>
- Caliendo, L., Parro, F., Rossi-Hansberg, E. and Sarte, P.-D. (2018), ‘The Impact of Regional and Sectoral Productivity Changes on the U.S. Economy’, *The Review of Economic Studies* **85**(4), 2042–2096.
URL: <https://doi.org/10.1093/restud/rdx082>
- Chen, W., Los, B., McCann, P., Ortega-Argilés, R., Thissen, M. and van Oort, F. (2018), ‘The continental divide? economic exposure to brexit in regions and countries on both sides of the channel’, *Papers in Regional Science* .
- Cherubini, L. and Los, B. (2012), ‘Regional employment patterns in a globalizing world: A tale of four italies’, *Paper presented at the 20th International Input-Output Conference, Bratislava, Slovak Republic* .
- Dietzenbacher, E., Guilhoto, J. J. M. and Imori, D. (2013), The role of Brazilian regions in the global value chain, Technical report.
- Dietzenbacher, E., Los, B., Stehrer, R., Timmer, M. and de Vries, G. (2013), ‘The construction of world input-output tables in the wiod project’, *Economic Systems Research* **25**(1), 71–98.
URL: <https://doi.org/10.1080/09535314.2012.761180>

- ECB-WorkingGroup (2019), ‘The impact of global value chains on the euro area economy’, *ECB Occasional Papers* (221).
- Frohm, E. and Gunnella, V. (2017), ‘Sectoral interlinkages in global value chains: Spillovers and network effects’, *ECB Working Papers* (2064).
- Huidrom, R., Jovanovic, N., Mulas-Granados, C., Papi, L., Raei, F., Stavrev, E. and Wingender, P. (2019), ‘Trade tensions, global value chains, and spillovers: Insights for europe’, *IMF Policy Papers* .
- Hummels, D., Ishii, J. and Yi, K. (2001), ‘The nature and growth of vertical specialization in world trade’, *Journal of International Economics* **1**(54), 75–96.
- Izquierdo, M., Moral-Benito, E. and Prades, E. (2019), ‘Propagation of sector specific-shocks within spain and other countries’, *Working Paper* (1928).
- Johnson, R. C. and Noguera, G. (2012), ‘Accounting for intermediates: Production sharing and trade in value added’, *Journal of International Economics* **86**(2), 224–236.
URL: <https://ideas.repec.org/a/eee/inecon/v86y2012i2p224-236.html>
- Koopman, R., Wang, Z. and Wei, S.-J. (2014), ‘Tracing value-added and double counting in gross exports’, *American Economic Review* **104**(2), 459–94.
URL: <http://www.aeaweb.org/articles?id=10.1257/aer.104.2.459>
- Los, B. and Chen, W. (2016), Global value chain participation indicators for european regions, Technical report.
- Los, B., McCann, P., Springford, J. and Thissen, M. (2017), ‘The mismatch between local voting and the local economic consequences of brexit’, *Regional Studies* **51**(5), 459–94.
- Los, B. and Timmer, M. P. (2018), Measuring bilateral exports of value added: A unified framework, Working Paper 24896, National Bureau of Economic Research.
URL: <http://www.nber.org/papers/w24896>
- Luu, D. T., Napoletano, M., Fagiolo, G., Roventini, A. and Sgrignoli, P. (2019), ‘Uncovering the network complexity in input-output linkages among sectors in european countries’, *ISI Growth Working Paper* .
- Meng, B. and Yamano, N. (2017), ‘Compilation of a regionally extended inter-country input output table and its application to global value chain analyses’, *Journal of Economic Structures* **6**(1).
- Mercenier, J., Álvarez Martinez, M., A.Brandsma, Comite, F. D., Diukanova, O., Kancs, A., Lecca, P., Lopez-Cobo, M., Montfort, P., Persyn, D., Rillaers, A., Thissen, M. and Torfs, W. (2016), ‘A spatial computable general equilibrium model for eu regions and sectors’, *JRC technical reports* .
- Miller, R. E. and Blair, P. D. (2009), *Input-Output Analysis: Foundations and extensions*, Cambridge University Press.
URL: <https://EconPapers.repec.org/RePEc:cup:cbooks:9780521739023>

- OECD (2018), ‘Productivity and jobs in a globalised world: How can all regions benefit?’, *OECD Report*.
- Ramos, R. and Moral-Benito, E. (2018), ‘Agglomeration by export destination: evidence from Spain’, *Journal of Economic Geography*.
- Rusticelli, E., Haugh, D., Arquie, A. and Demmou, L. (2017), ‘Going local: a regional perspective on how trade affects labour markets and inequality’, *OECD Economics Department Working Papers* (1530).
- Sancho, F. (2018), ‘Some conceptual difficulties regarding ‘net’ multipliers’, *UFAE and IAE Working Papers* 910.12.
- Solaz, M. (2018), ‘Value added and participation in global value chains: The case of Spain’, *The World Economy* **41**(10), 2804–2827.
- Thissen, M., Maureen Lankhuizen, Frank (F.G.) van Oort, B. L. and Diodato, D. (2018), EUREGIO: The construction of a global IO DATABASE with regional detail for Europe for 2000-2010, Tinbergen Institute Discussion Papers 18-084/VI, Tinbergen Institute.
URL: <https://ideas.repec.org/p/tin/wpaper/20180084.html>
- Timmer, M., Los, B., Stehrer, R. and de Vries, G. (2013), ‘Fragmentation, incomes and jobs: an analysis of European competitiveness’, *Economic Policy* **28**(76), 613–661.
URL: <https://EconPapers.repec.org/RePEc:bla:ecpoli:v:28:y:2013:i:76:p:613-661>
- Timmer, M. P., Dietzenbacher, E., Los, B., Stehrer, R. and de Vries, G. J. (2015), ‘An illustrated user guide to the world input–output database: the case of global automotive production’, *Review of International Economics* **23**(3), 575–605.
URL: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/roie.12178>
- Tybout, J. R. (2008), *Plant- and Firm-Level Evidence on “New” Trade Theories*, John Wiley Sons, Ltd, chapter 13, pp. 388–415.
URL: <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/9780470756461.ch13>
- Wang, Y., Geschke, A. and Lenzen, M. (2017), ‘Constructing a time series of nested multi-region input-output tables’, *International Regional Science Review* (40).
- Wang, Z., Wei, S.-J. and Zhu, K. (2018), Quantifying international production sharing at the bilateral and sector levels, Working Paper 19677, National Bureau of Economic Research.
URL: <http://www.nber.org/papers/w19677>
- Wannicke, V. (2018), Does trade integration in global value chains go hand in hand with anti-globalization sentiments?: A regional analysis of the Brexit referendum, Technical report.

A EUREGIO: The construction of a global I-O database with regional detail for Europe for 2000-2010

The methodology used to build the EUREGIO is described in Thissen et al. (2018). EUREGIO is the first time-series (annual, 2000-2010) of global IO tables with regional detail for the entire large trading bloc of the European Union. This database allows for regional analysis at the level of so-called NUTS2 regions. The EUREGIO tables merge data from WIOD (the 2013 release) with, regional economic accounts, and interregional trade estimates developed by PBL Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency (PBL/Regional Trade), complemented with survey-based regional input-output data for a limited number of countries. All used data are survey data and only non-behavioral assumptions have been made to estimate the EUREGIO dataset. These two general rules of data construction allows for empirical analysis focused on impacts of changes in behavior (of economies, firms, policies) without endogenously having this behavior embedded already by construction.

The construction of the time series of multi regional NUTS2 input-output tables is based on a top-down approach where national accounts in the format of national supply and use tables have been taken as given. All transactions (in current prices) have been converted to Euro values, using market exchange rates.

The different steps taken to build the EUREGIO database can be summarized as follows:

[1] Adjustment of World Input Output Database (WIOD). The WIOD international supply and use tables were taken as the starting point of the analysis.⁴⁸ The WIOD database (Timmer et al. (2013); Dietzenbacher, Los, Stehrer, Timmer and de Vries (2013)) makes a detailed distinction between final and intermediate goods trade. The supply and use tables provide detailed information on bilateral trade for 40 countries and the rest of the world. The data include 59 product categories, among which services, according to the European Statistical Classification of Products by Activity (CPA) 2002. The data are consistent with countries national accounts. The WIOD international supply and use tables are first adjusted so as: (1) to account for the distribution of the re-exports over (most likely) origin and destination countries; (2) to ensure consistency in bilateral trade flows (i.e., trade matching: exports from i to j equal imports of j from i); and (3) to guarantee that exports and imports of each country add up to their national accounts totals as presented in the WIOD database. Both adjustments have to be done before the regionalization because otherwise inconsistencies would have to be regionalized as well. The regionalization of inconsistencies is theoretically not possible since they do not exist in reality and therefore cannot be based on actual information.

[2] Regional information. Subsequently, information on sector production, investment and income developments from the Eurostat regional accounts was incorporated. After these have been made consistent with the above mentioned national accounts, the data were used to regionalize the national tables. As the outcome of this regionalization procedure, regional supply and use tables for each of the 249

⁴⁸The use the 2013 release instead of the 2016 release which has more up-dated information but it has different accounting rules and classifications which makes the construction of the regional database more complicated.

European NUTS2 regions, for 14 sectors and 59 product groups for the years 2000 to 2010, are obtained. Where available, regional survey based information on supply and use of different sectors was added. In particular, regional supply and/or use tables are available for Scotland and Wales, as well as Italy (five NUTS1 regions), Finland (21 NUTS3 regions) and Spain (15 NUTS2 regions). These tables were added as additional priors to the estimation. Regional trade is taken from the PBL Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency regional trade data for the year 2000 as a prior to the estimations for 2000-2010.

[3] Construction of tables. Taking the regionalized supply and use tables, the PBL regional trade data and the survey based regional supply and use tables as a prior, the EUREGIO supply and use tables are estimated for the years 2000-2010. The estimation approach is based on a constraint non-linear minimization approach that guarantees consistency of the regional tables with the national tables (the WIOD database). This consistency implies that adding up the regionalized supply and use tables results in the corrected national WIOD supply and use tables. The inter-regional supply and use tables that have trade, matched bilateral trade flows and no re-exports.

Tables 11 and 12 summarize the main data provide by the EUREGIO database at country and at regional level for Spain, respectively.

Concerning the industry classification in 14 economic sectors, these are the following: ss1-Agriculture; ss2-Mining, quarrying and energy supply; ss3-Food, beverages and tobacco; ss4-Textiles and leather; ss5-Coke, refined petroleum, nuclear fuel and chemicals etc.; ss6&ss7-Electrical, optical and transport equipment; ss8-Other manufacturing industry; ss9- Construction; ss10-Distribution; ss11-Hotels and restaurant; ss12-Transport, storage and communications; ss13-Financial intermediation; ss14-Real state, renting and business activities; and, ss15-Non-market services.

B The decomposition of regional gross trade flows

We apply the following decomposition to Gross Flows for each region.

$$\begin{aligned}
 uF_{s*} = & \left[V_s \sum_{r \neq s}^R B_{ss} Y_{sr} \right] + \\
 & \left[V_s \sum_{r \neq s}^R B_{sr} Y_{rr} \right] + \\
 & \left[V_s \sum_{r \neq s}^R \sum_{t \neq r, s}^R B_{sr} Y_{rt} \right] + \\
 & \left[V_s \sum_{r \neq s}^R B_{sr} Y_{rs} \right] + \\
 & \left[V_s \sum_{r \neq s}^R B_{sr} A_{rs} (I - A_{ss})^{-1} Y_{ss} \right] + \\
 & \left[V_s \sum_{r \neq s}^R B_{sr} B_{rs} (I - A_{ss})^{-1} E_{s*} \right] + \\
 & \left[\sum_{t \neq s}^R \sum_{r \neq s}^R V_t B_{tr} Y_{rs} \right] + \\
 & \left[\sum_{t \neq s}^R \sum_{r \neq s}^R V_t B_{ts} A_{sr} (I - A_{rr})^{-1} Y_{rr} \right] + \\
 & \left[\sum_{r \neq s}^R V_t B_{ts} A_{sr} \sum_{r \neq s}^R (I - A_{rr})^{-1} E_{r*} \right]
 \end{aligned}$$

Each component reads as follows:

- **VAX1** DVA embed in final exports or outflows.
- **VAX2** DVA embed in intermediate exports or outflows that are absorbed by the direct importer to produce goods or services.
- **VAX3** DVA embed in intermediate exports or outflows that are utilized by the direct importer to produce goods or services that are sold to a third region.
- **DVA4** DVA embed in intermediate exports or outflows that return to the source region as a final good or service.
- **DVA5** DVA embed in intermediate exports or outflows that return to the source region as an intermediate good or service.
- **DDC** Domestic double counting.
- **TERM7** Foreign or regional value added embed in final exports or outflows.
- **TERM8** Foreign or regional value added embed in intermediate exports or outflows.
- **TERM9** Foreign or regional double counting.

C Spanish regions: some economic features

To better understand how similar shocks could affect Spanish regions differently, it is useful to analyze how some economic variables varies across them. One indication, that regions differs in some local characteristics is that GDP growth rates vary considerably across the 19 CCAA: from an accumulated growth of 1.8% in Asturias over the period 2007-2018 to 20% in Balearic Islands and 18% in Madrid, reflecting the high degree of heterogeneity of regional business cycles within Spain.

Turning to more structural issues, GDP per capita also vary significantly across regions, with Madrid and the Basque Country as the richest regions -with real GDP per capita above 30.000 in 2018- and the regions in the South (Andalusia and Extremadura) the poorest) -with a real GDP per capita below 20.000-.

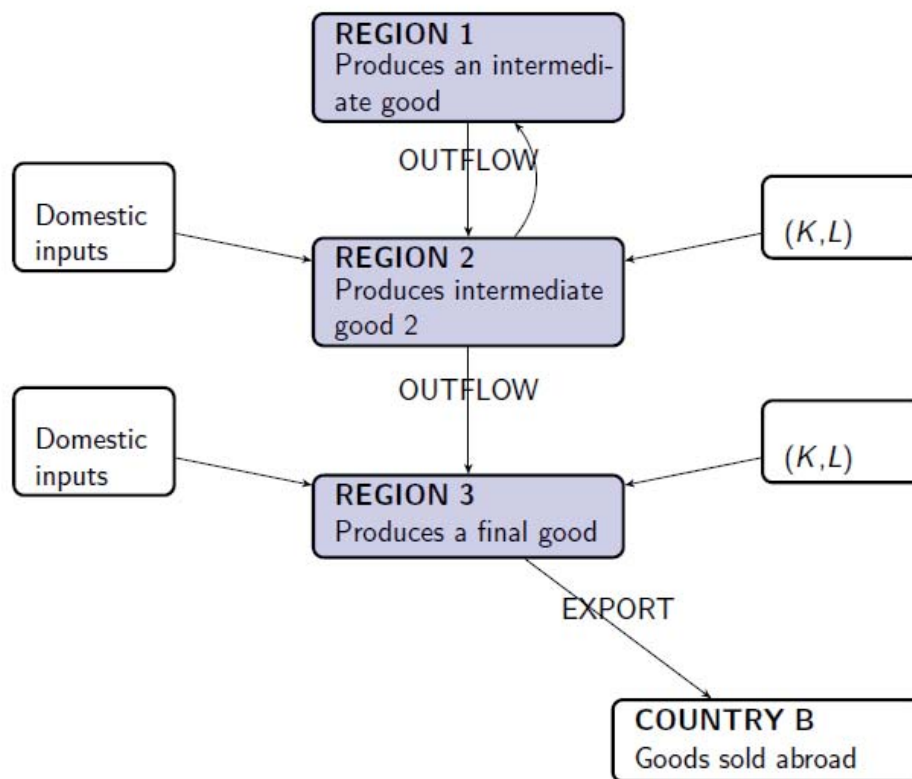
The specialization pattern of economic activity also differs across regions. The geographical concentration of some activities in some regions may reflect differences in regional productivity but also in natural resources or in geographical location. In 2017, agriculture accounts for 3% for Spain as a whole, with Castilla-La Mancha, Extremadura and Andalusia more specialized in relative terms in these activities (9%, 9% and 7% respectively), while at the other end of the spectrum lies Madrid, with less than 0.1% of its production located in primary industries. Almost 20% of Spanish Value Added (VA) is generated in industrial activities including Mining, manufacturing and Energy. The highest industrial specialization is found in the North-East regions (Navarre, the Basque Country and La Rioja), with a share in VA above or close to 30%. Balearic and Canary Islands are the lowest industrialized regions (less than 10% of VA). Non-market services represent almost 20% of GDP in Spain taken as a whole, with a maximum in Extremadura at almost 30% of GDP, and a minimum in Catalonia at about 15%. Market Services in Spain account for more than half of GDP (55% of GDP in 2017), with larger shares in Madrid and the two insular CCAAs (between 66% and 70%), and the lowest in Navarre (20%). Finally, the construction sector contributes around 6% of Spanish GDP, with similar shares across regions. Therefore, the market service sector shows a larger concentration in some regions, while the construction one is the most uniformly distributed industry.⁴⁹

In conclusion, there is a significant degree of heterogeneity among Spanish regions. Differences in the spacial distribution of economic activity for different sectors (for example, the car industry across regions) imply that sectoral shocks of similar magnitude will affect regions differently and, therefore, their aggregate impact will differ as well.

⁴⁹A more detail description of some economic features of Spanish regions can be found in Artola et al. (2018).

D Figures and tables

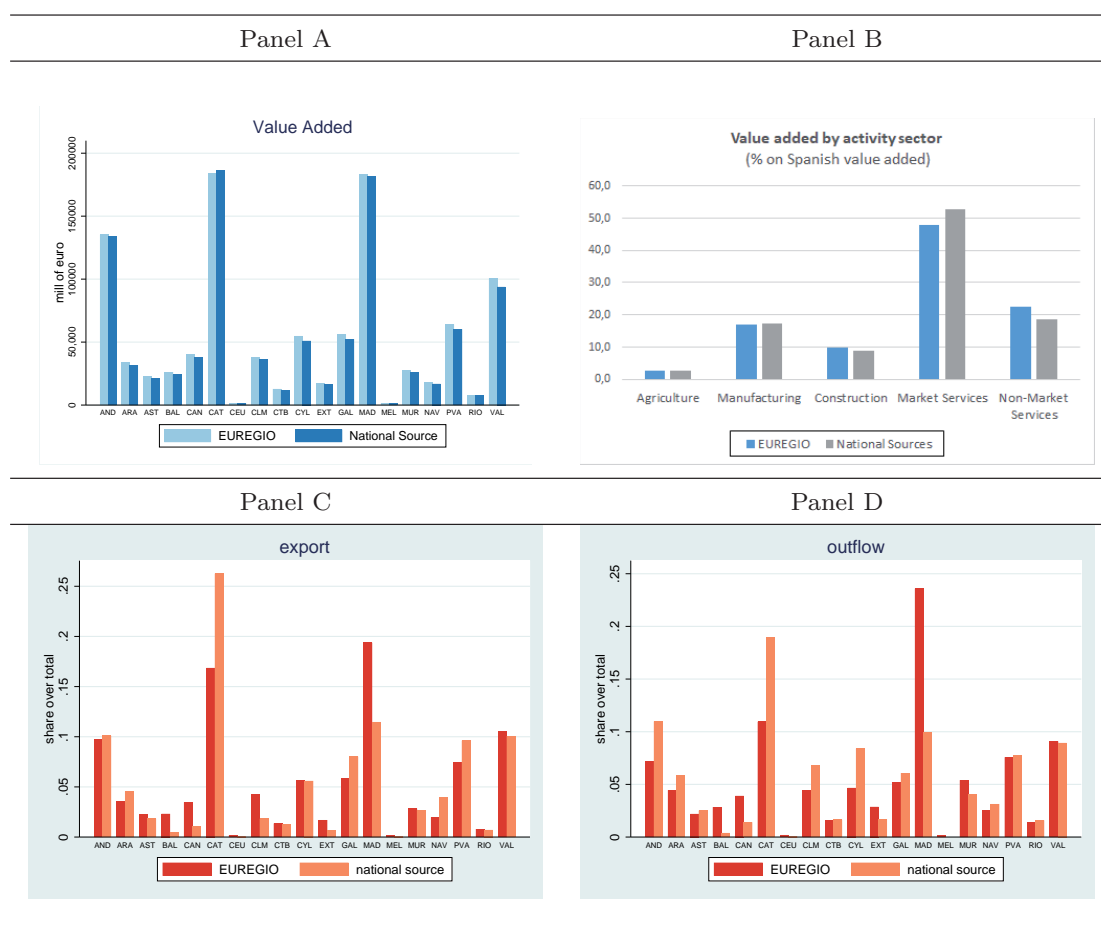
Figure 1: A STYLIZED VALUE CHAIN



Notes: This diagram illustrates how a regional value chain works. Region 1 produces an intermediate good or service which is sold to Region 2. This is computed as an *outflow*. Region 2 makes use of this intermediate input together with capital and labor to produce an intermediate good or service which is sold to Region 3. This region uses this material input to produce a final good or service which can be either consumed within the same region, sold to another region within Country A or exported to a fourth region outside country A, e.g. to Country B.

Source: Adapted from OECD (2018), Chapter 3 “Global trends and regional links: jobs, clusters and Global Value Chains.

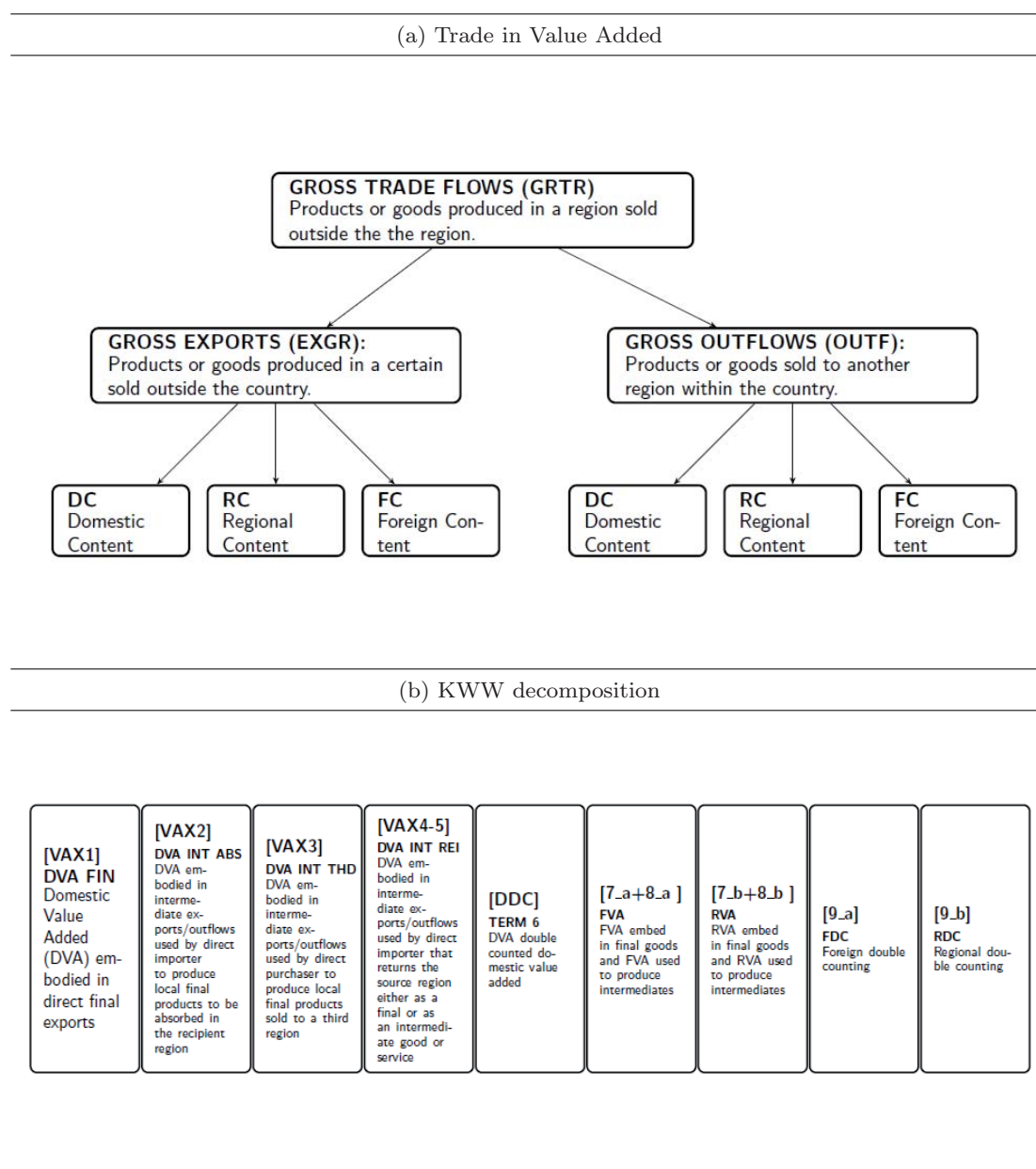
Figure 2: EUREGIO DATA QUALITY CHECK FOR 2010



Notes: In these graphs we compare the information on regional value added, outflows and exports according to EUREGIO to national official data. Note that official exports and outflows only refer to goods while EUREGIO accounts for goods and services.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release, INE, Ministerio de Industria, Comercio y Turismo, C-intereg and own calculations.

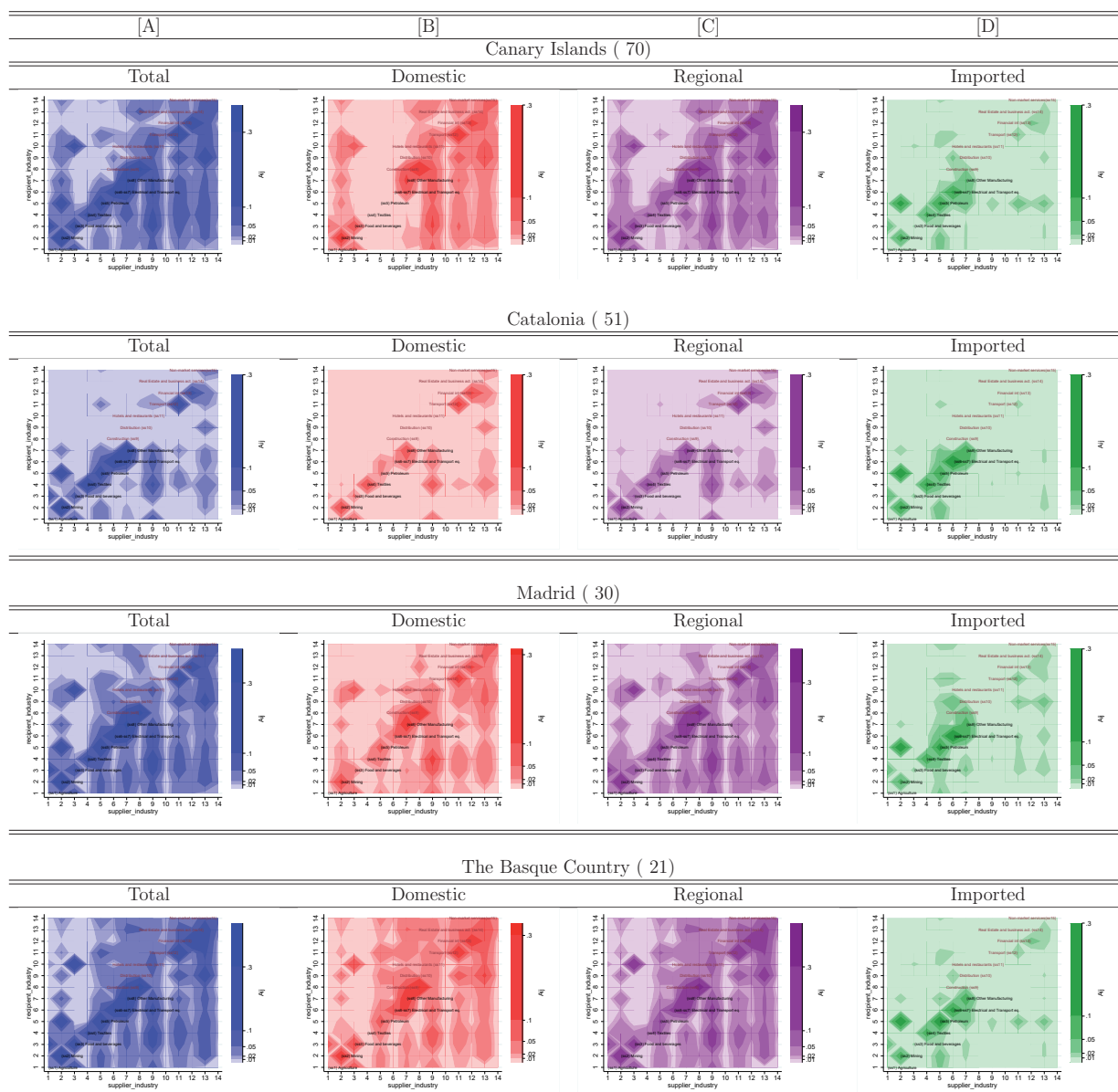
Figure 3: GROSS EXPORTS AND OUTFLOWS ACCOUNTING SYSTEM



Notes: Panel (a) decomposes *exports* and *outflows* according to three possible different origins: domestic, regional or foreign. Panel (b) shows how each flow can be further breakdown into different value added components according to Koopman14.

Source: Based on KWW (2014).

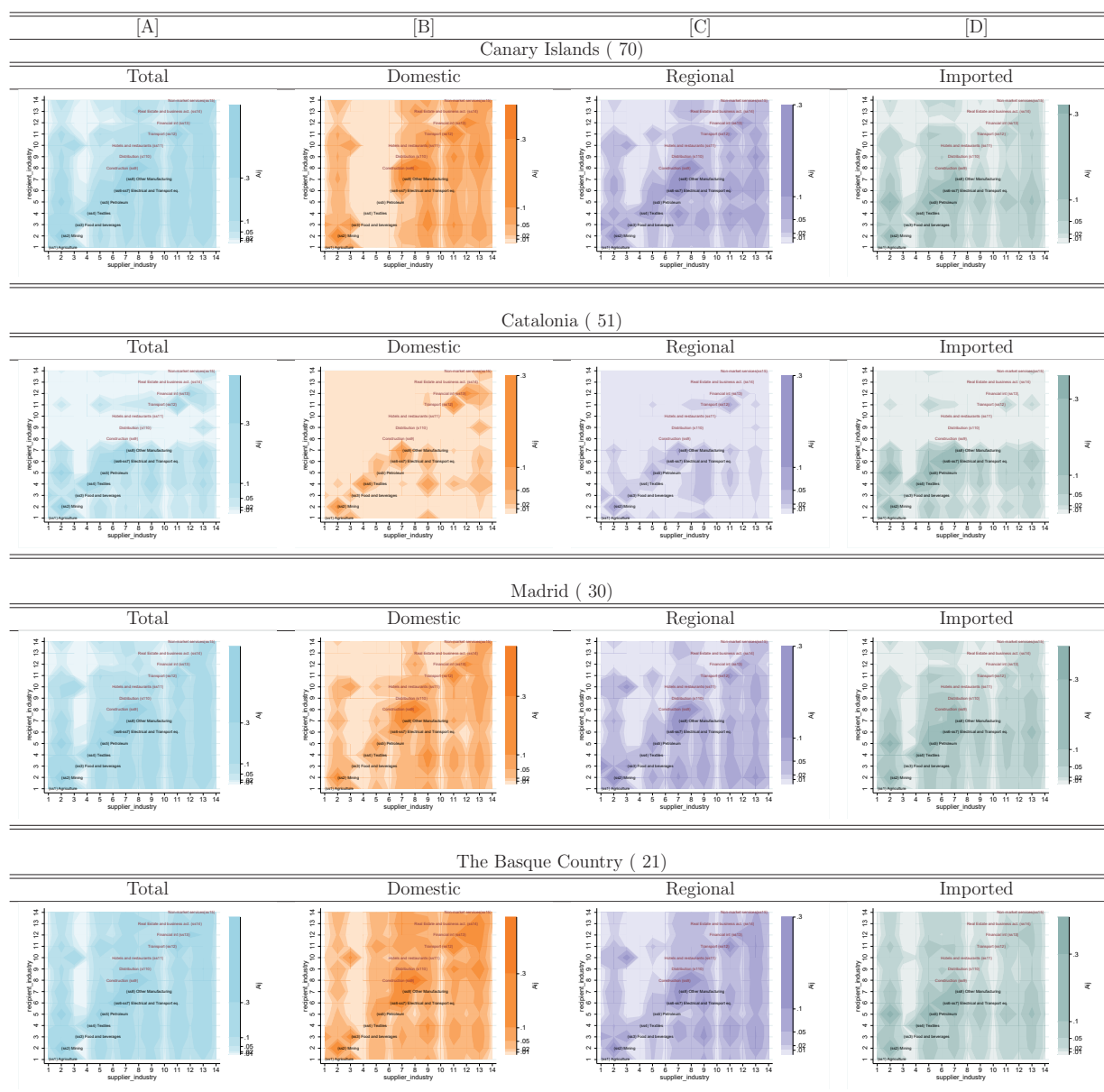
Figure 4: TECHNICAL COEFFICIENTS FOR SELECTED REGIONS IN 2010



Notes: These graphs depict the *technical coefficients*, that is, the direct requirement of inputs by industry i . Element i, j represents the amount of euros spent by industry i in goods or services from industry j as a fraction of gross output in industry i . Total technical coefficients are depicted in the blue panels, while in the red panels are depicted the technical coefficients that originate within the same region. The coefficients from other regions and from abroad are depicted in the purple and green panels respectively. Darker nodes indicate stronger linkages across sectors and regions. A contour plot method is used, showing only those shares greater than 1, 2, 5, 10 and 30 percent. Note that sectors 1 to 14 correspond to ss1 to ss15, sector 6 include ss6 and ss7.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

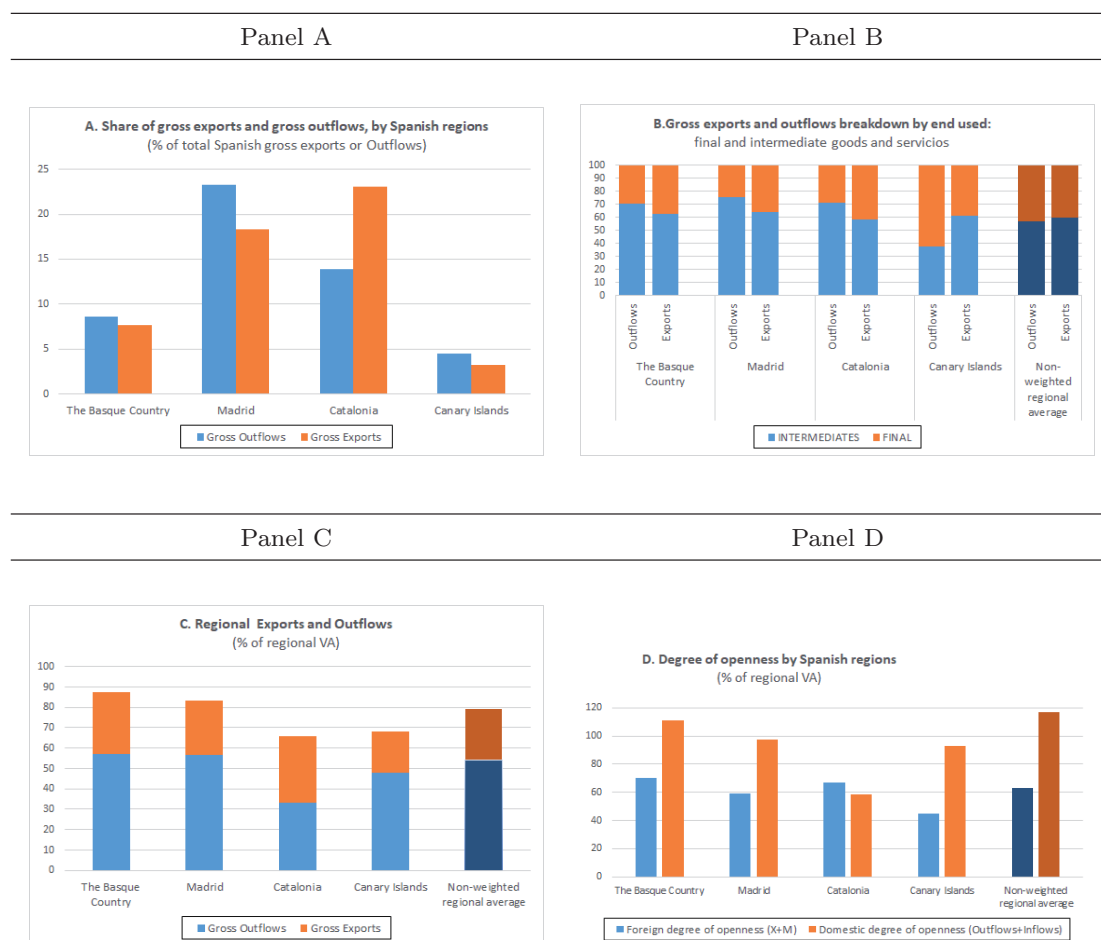
Figure 5: TOTAL INPUT REQUIREMENTS FOR SELECTED REGIONS IN 2010



Notes: These figures represent the *total input requirements* of each Spanish region constructed from the EUREGIO input-output tables for 14 industries. A darker shade implies that an industry is used by another at a higher rate than an industry-pair with a lighter color. A contour plot method is used, showing only those shares greater than 1, 2, 5, 10 and 30 percent. Note that sectors 1 to 14 correspond to ss1 to ss15, sector 6 include ss6 and ss7.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

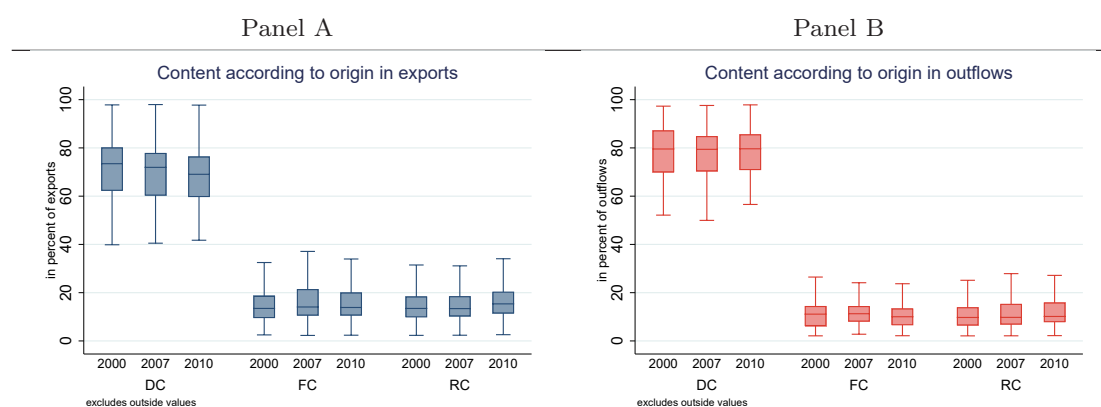
Figure 6: GROSS OUTFLOWS AND EXPORTS



Notes: Main characteristics of trade flows from selected regions.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

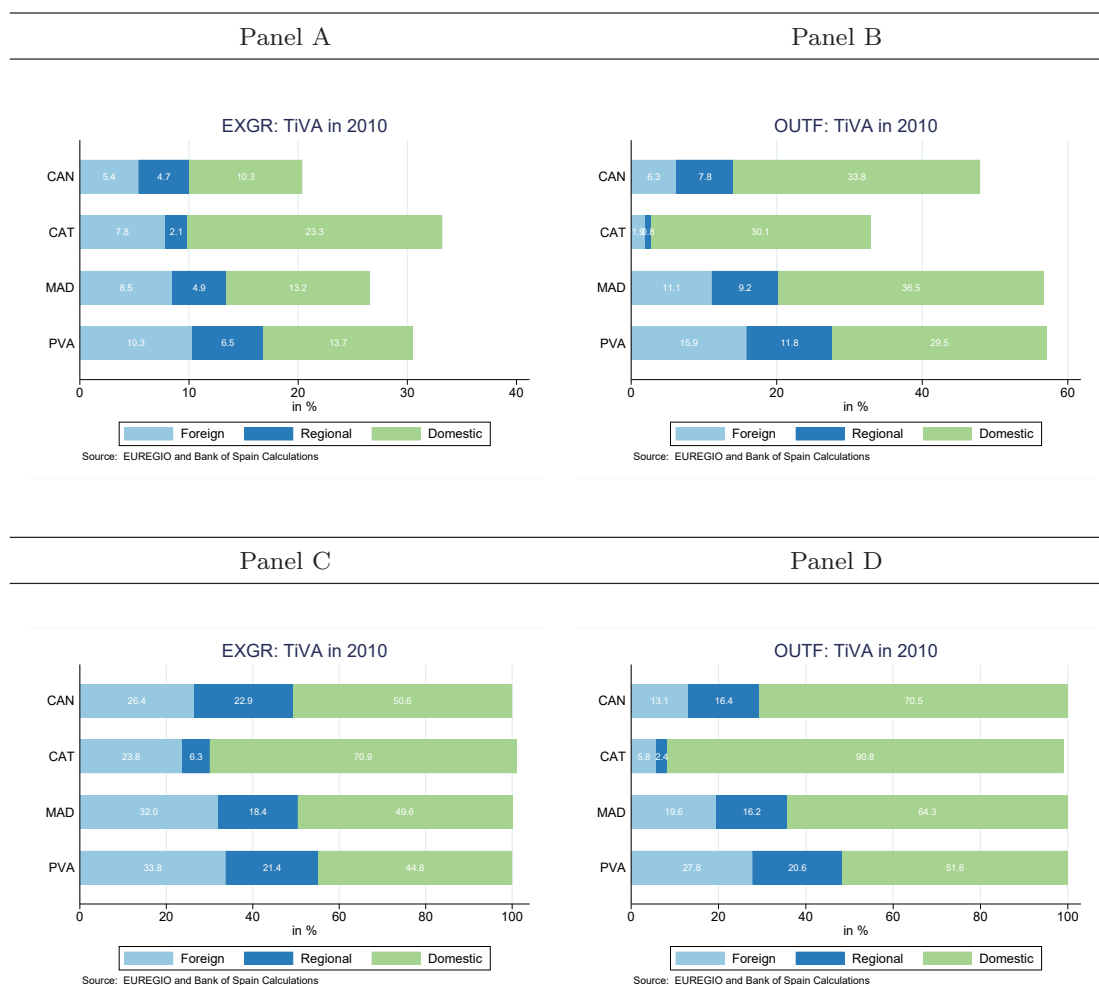
Figure 7: VALUE ADDED BY ORIGIN EMBEDDED IN SPANISH EXPORTS



Notes: These figures (box) plot the 25th and the 75th percentile and the median of the different types of Value Added generated per unit of export or outflow by Spanish regions and sectors over time.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

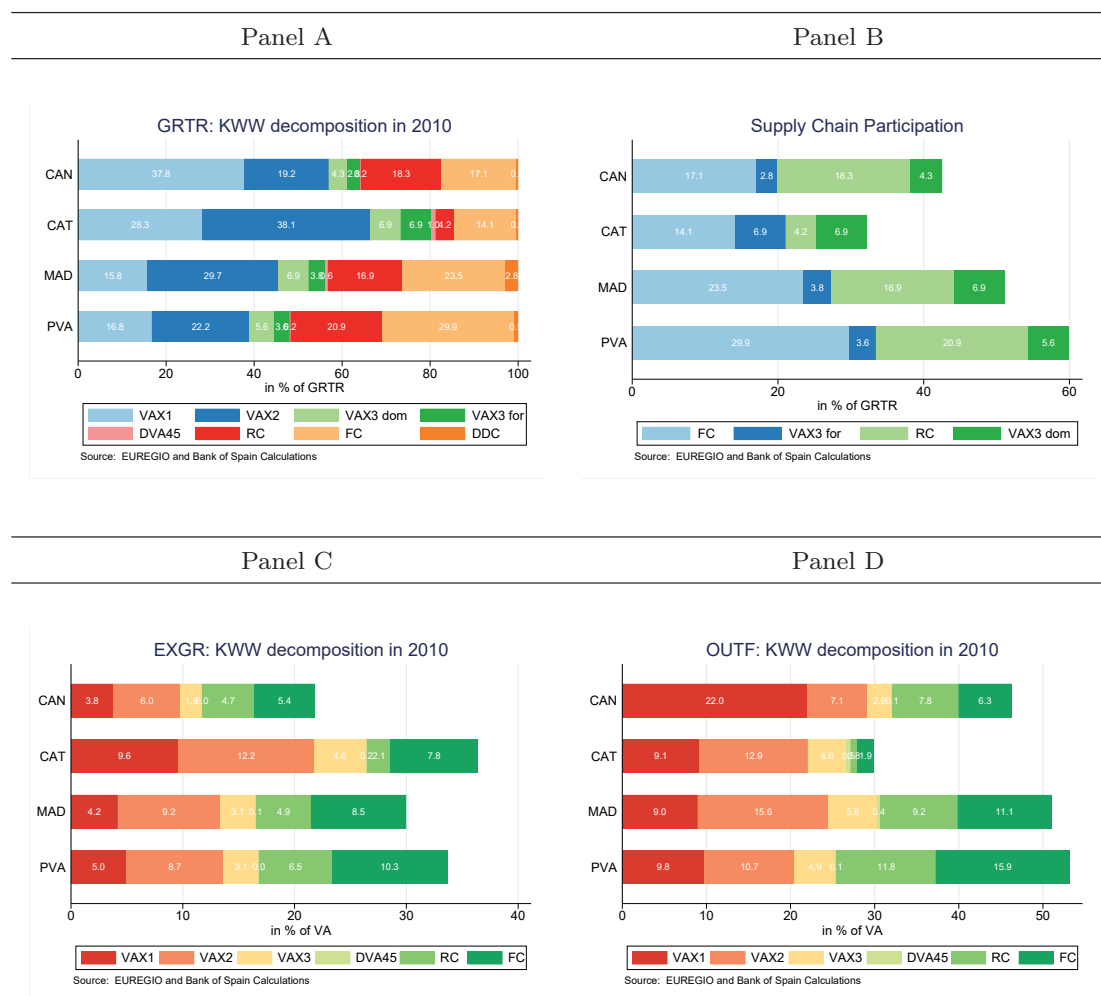
Figure 8: TRADE IN VALUE ADDED OF EXPORTS AND OUTFLOWS



Notes: **Panel A** shows the decomposition of total exports into three components according to their origin as a percentage of each region value added. We consider three possible origins: Domestic Content (DC), Regional Content (RC) and Foreign Content (FC). In **panel B** we apply the same decomposition to outflows. **Panel C** and **panel D** show exports and outflows value added components as a share of total exports or outflows respectively.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations based on KWW 2014.

Figure 9: KWW DECOMPOSITION



Notes: In **panel A** we further breakdown the domestic component of gross exports into five components according to their destination as a share of total flows. In **panel B** we just keep the components that account for the international (in *blue*) and the regional segment (in *green*), and we distinguish between the *backward* and *forward* participation in Supply Chains. Then we apply the decomposition applied in A just to gross outflows (**panel C**) and to exports (**panel D**) as a percentage of each region value added.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations based on KWW 2014.

Table 1: STYLIZED REPRESENTATION OF EUREGIO INPUT OUTPUT TABLE

			Country A				Country B				RoW		Country A		Country B		ROW	Gross	
s			Reg A1		Reg A2		Reg B1		Reg B2				Reg A1	Reg A2	Reg B1	Reg B2	Output		
			I1	I2	I1	I2	I1	I2	I1	I2	I1	I2	FD	FD	FD	FD	FD		
Country A	Reg A1	I1	Z										Y						x
		I2																	
	Reg A2	I1																	
		I2																	
Country B	Reg A1 ₁	I1																	
		I2																	
	Reg A2	I1																	
		I2																	
ROW		I1																	
		I2																	
Value Added			v´																
Gross Output			x´																

Notes: Own elaboration. Where Z is a $RI \times RI$ matrix of inter-industry and inter-region transactions of intermediate consumptions. Y is a $RI \times RD$ matrix of final demands by each region-country. x is the gross output column vector by each sector-region. v' is a row vector with value added for each sector-pair. Note that R is the number of regions, I the number of industries and D is the number of demand components in which final demand is divided. Final demand can be broke down into consumption (private or public), investment and inventories. All flows are measured in current Euros.

Table 2: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS AND VALUE ADDED DECOMPOSITION BY SECTOR

ES70 - CANARY ISLANDS							
PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.79	1.37	1.36	0.01	0.85	0.58
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.83	1.31	1.31	0.00	0.35	1.17
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.04	1.40	1.39	0.01	0.85	0.80
ss12	Transport storage and communication	2.57	1.72	1.72	0.00	0.46	0.39
ss13	Financial intermediation	1.71	1.35	1.35	0.00	0.22	0.15
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	1.75	1.36	1.36	0.00	0.26	0.13
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss04	Textiles and leather	0.1	1.4	1.00	0.40	0.36	0.25
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	0.9	21.1	1.00	0.33	0.15	0.52
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	0.4	12.1	1.00	0.34	0.34	0.32
ss12	Transport storage and communication	8.1	10.7	1.00	0.62	0.21	0.17
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.8	2.7	1.00	0.80	0.12	0.08
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	17.1	9.5	1.00	0.81	0.12	0.06
ES51 - CATALONIA							
PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.20	1.38	1.37	0.01	0.18	0.64
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.12	1.09	1.08	0.01	0.20	0.83
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	2.37	1.20	1.19	0.01	0.19	0.99
ss12	Transport storage and communication	1.57	1.23	1.23	0.00	0.17	0.18
ss13	Financial intermediation	1.29	1.22	1.22	0.00	0.04	0.03
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	1.02	1.02	1.02	0.00	0.00	0.00
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss04	Textiles and leather	1.1	6.0	1.00	0.66	0.07	0.26
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	4.1	20.0	1.00	0.56	0.07	0.37
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	2.9	23.1	1.00	0.55	0.07	0.38
ss12	Transport storage and communication	6.8	8.0	1.00	0.86	0.07	0.08
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.8	2.7	1.00	0.97	0.02	0.01
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	18.9	6.3	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00

Notes: **Panel A:** Total multipliers in gross terms takes into account regional and international feedback effects. Domestic multipliers take into account the output requirement at the region level. We further breakdown this multiplier into the pure local effect and the ripple effects. To capture the importance of taking into account we compute the overall percentage error in line with Blair and Miller (2009). **Panel B:** We include value added multipliers. Note that as all value added must be either domestic, regional or foreign the sum along each column is unity.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 3: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS AND VALUE ADDED DECOMPOSITION BY SECTOR

ES30 MADRID							
PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.65	1.46	1.42	0.04	0.47	0.72
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.85	1.34	1.31	0.04	0.44	1.06
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.01	1.29	1.24	0.04	0.51	1.22
ss12	Transport storage and communication	2.10	1.35	1.32	0.03	0.36	0.39
ss13	Financial intermediation	1.61	1.32	1.31	0.01	0.17	0.12
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	1.42	1.13	1.12	0.01	0.14	0.15
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss04	Textiles and leather	0.4	4.6	1.00	0.50	0.20	0.31
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.3	20.5	1.00	0.34	0.18	0.47
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	2.4	23.0	1.00	0.31	0.20	0.49
ss12	Transport storage and communication	10.0	10.2	1.00	0.67	0.16	0.17
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.5	2.3	1.00	0.85	0.09	0.06
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	23.4	12.4	1.00	0.86	0.07	0.07
ES21 - THE BASQUE COUNTRY							
PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.78	1.49	1.47	0.02	0.67	0.61
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.92	1.30	1.29	0.01	0.30	1.32
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.00	1.60	1.58	0.02	0.58	0.83
ss12	Transport storage and communication	2.79	1.82	1.81	0.01	0.51	0.46
ss13	Financial intermediation	2.35	1.70	1.69	0.01	0.35	0.30
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	2.28	1.71	1.70	0.01	0.30	0.27
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss04	Textiles and leather	0.3	3.6	1.00	0.44	0.30	0.26
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	5.5	24.5	1.00	0.27	0.14	0.58
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.7	22.0	1.00	0.42	0.25	0.33
ss12	Transport storage and communication	7.2	7.8	1.00	0.55	0.25	0.20
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.8	2.5	1.00	0.67	0.19	0.15
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	18.2	9.2	1.00	0.73	0.15	0.13

Notes: **Panel A:** Total multipliers in gross terms takes into account regional and international feedback effects. Domestic multipliers take into account the output requirement at the region level. We further breakdown this multiplier into the pure local effect and the ripple effects. **Panel B:** value added upstream multipliers by geographical breakdown are reported as well as the sector weight in total value added and the weight in total exports. Note that as all value added must be either domestic, regional or foreign the sum along each column is unity.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculation.

Table 4: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS AND VALUE ADDED DECOMPOSITION BY SECTOR: CANARIAS

PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss01	Agriculture	1.99	1.34	1.34	0.00	0.32	0.33
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	2.60	1.60	1.60	0.00	0.42	0.57
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	2.80	1.67	1.66	0.01	0.68	0.45
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.79	1.37	1.36	0.01	0.85	0.58
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.83	1.31	1.31	0.00	0.35	1.17
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.04	1.40	1.39	0.01	0.85	0.80
ss08	Other manufacturing	2.76	1.55	1.55	0.01	0.72	0.48
ss09	Construction	2.88	1.97	1.97	0.01	0.57	0.34
ss10	Distribution	2.20	1.52	1.52	0.00	0.42	0.25
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	2.26	1.59	1.59	0.00	0.36	0.31
ss12	Transport storage and communication	2.57	1.72	1.72	0.00	0.46	0.39
ss13	Financial intermediation	1.71	1.35	1.35	0.00	0.22	0.15
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	1.75	1.36	1.36	0.00	0.26	0.13
ss15	Non Market Services	1.85	1.45	1.45	0.00	0.22	0.18
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss01	Agriculture	1.9	4.1	1.00	0.73	0.13	0.14
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	3.9	2.4	1.00	0.57	0.17	0.26
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	2.7	12.5	1.00	0.50	0.29	0.20
ss04	Textiles and leather	0.1	1.4	1.00	0.40	0.36	0.25
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	0.9	21.1	1.00	0.33	0.15	0.52
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	0.4	12.1	1.00	0.34	0.34	0.32
ss08	Other manufacturing	3.3	22.1	1.00	0.50	0.30	0.21
ss09	Construction	10.6	0.4	1.00	0.64	0.21	0.15
ss10	Distribution	11.0	0.6	1.00	0.68	0.20	0.11
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	10.7	0.0	1.00	0.72	0.14	0.13
ss12	Transport storage and communication	8.1	10.7	1.00	0.62	0.21	0.17
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.8	2.7	1.00	0.80	0.12	0.08
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	17.1	9.5	1.00	0.81	0.12	0.06
ss15	Non Market Services	24.7	0.3	1.00	0.81	0.11	0.08

Notes: **Panel A:** Total multipliers in gross terms takes into account regional and international feedback effects. Domestic multipliers take into account the output requirement at the region level. We further breakdown this multiplier into the pure local effect and the ripple effects. **Panel B:** value added upstream multipliers by geographical breakdown are reported as well as the sector weight in total value added and the weight in total exports. Note that as all value added must be either domestic, regional or foreign the sum along each column is unity.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 5: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS AND VALUE ADDED DECOMPOSITION BY SECTOR: CATALONIA

PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss01	Agriculture	1.56	1.16	1.15	0.00	0.18	0.22
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	1.84	1.16	1.15	0.00	0.14	0.55
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	1.56	1.08	1.08	0.00	0.22	0.26
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.20	1.38	1.37	0.01	0.18	0.64
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.12	1.09	1.08	0.01	0.20	0.83
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	2.37	1.20	1.19	0.01	0.19	0.99
ss08	Other manufacturing	1.94	1.19	1.19	0.01	0.22	0.53
ss09	Construction	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
ss10	Distribution	1.13	1.07	1.07	0.00	0.04	0.02
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
ss12	Transport storage and communication	1.57	1.23	1.23	0.00	0.17	0.18
ss13	Financial intermediation	1.29	1.22	1.22	0.00	0.04	0.03
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	1.02	1.02	1.02	0.00	0.00	0.00
ss15	Non Market Services	1.20	1.06	1.06	0.00	0.05	0.08
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss01	Agriculture	1.9	5.7	1.00	0.84	0.07	0.09
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	2.3	0.6	1.00	0.70	0.04	0.25
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	2.2	3.4	1.00	0.79	0.09	0.12
ss04	Textiles and leather	1.1	6.0	1.00	0.66	0.07	0.26
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	4.1	20.0	1.00	0.56	0.07	0.37
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	2.9	23.1	1.00	0.55	0.07	0.38
ss08	Other manufacturing	6.5	16.7	1.00	0.69	0.08	0.23
ss09	Construction	9.5	0.9	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
ss10	Distribution	11.3	3.9	1.00	0.98	0.02	0.01
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	7.5	0.2	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
ss12	Transport storage and communication	6.8	8.0	1.00	0.86	0.07	0.08
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.8	2.7	1.00	0.97	0.02	0.01
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	18.9	6.3	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.00
ss15	Non Market Services	20.2	2.4	1.00	0.94	0.02	0.03

Notes: **Panel A:** Total multipliers in gross terms takes into account regional and international feedback effects. Domestic multipliers take into account the output requirement at the region level. We further breakdown this multiplier into the pure local effect and the ripple effects. **Panel B:** value added upstream multipliers by geographical breakdown are reported as well as the sector weight in total value added and the weight in total exports. Note that as all value added must be either domestic, regional or foreign the sum along each column is unity.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 6: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS AND VALUE ADDED DECOMPOSITION BY SECTOR: BASQUE COUNTRY

PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss01	Agriculture	2.14	1.41	1.40	0.01	0.38	0.35
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	2.65	1.54	1.53	0.01	0.47	0.63
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	2.94	1.67	1.65	0.02	0.74	0.53
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.78	1.49	1.47	0.02	0.67	0.61
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.92	1.30	1.29	0.01	0.30	1.32
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.00	1.60	1.58	0.02	0.58	0.83
ss08	Other manufacturing	2.82	1.57	1.56	0.02	0.55	0.69
ss09	Construction	3.17	2.11	2.09	0.02	0.66	0.39
ss10	Distribution	2.33	1.70	1.70	0.01	0.32	0.31
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	2.41	1.49	1.48	0.02	0.55	0.36
ss12	Transport storage and communication	2.79	1.82	1.81	0.01	0.51	0.46
ss13	Financial intermediation	2.35	1.70	1.69	0.01	0.35	0.30
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	2.28	1.71	1.70	0.01	0.30	0.27
ss15	Non Market Services	2.03	1.52	1.51	0.01	0.26	0.25
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss01	Agriculture	1.2	3.1	1.00	0.69	0.16	0.15
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	2.2	0.4	1.00	0.50	0.22	0.29
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	1.6	5.4	1.00	0.44	0.33	0.24
ss04	Textiles and leather	0.3	3.6	1.00	0.44	0.30	0.26
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	5.5	24.5	1.00	0.27	0.14	0.58
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.7	22.0	1.00	0.42	0.25	0.33
ss08	Other manufacturing	9.3	20.7	1.00	0.45	0.25	0.30
ss09	Construction	9.3	0.0	1.00	0.58	0.26	0.17
ss10	Distribution	9.9	0.3	1.00	0.70	0.16	0.14
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	6.2	0.0	1.00	0.61	0.24	0.16
ss12	Transport storage and communication	7.2	7.8	1.00	0.55	0.25	0.20
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.8	2.5	1.00	0.67	0.19	0.15
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	18.2	9.2	1.00	0.73	0.15	0.13
ss15	Non Market Services	20.7	0.3	1.00	0.75	0.13	0.11

Notes: **Panel A:** Total multipliers in gross terms takes into account regional and international feedback effects. Domestic multipliers take into account the output requirements at the region level. We further breakdown this multiplier into the pure local effect and the ripple effects. **Panel B:** value added upstream multipliers by geographical breakdown are reported as well as the sector weight in total value added and the weight in total exports. Note that as all value added must be either domestic, regional or foreign the sum along each column is unity.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 7: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS AND VALUE ADDED DECOMPOSITION BY SECTOR: COMUNIDAD DE MADRID

PANEL A: UPSTREAM MULTIPLIERS							
sector		Total	Domestic	local	ripple	Reg	For
		a	b	b1	b2	c	d
ss01	Agriculture	2.21	1.37	1.33	0.03	0.42	0.43
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	2.77	1.38	1.32	0.06	0.85	0.55
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	2.88	1.46	1.40	0.06	0.79	0.63
ss04	Textiles and leather	2.65	1.46	1.42	0.04	0.47	0.72
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.85	1.34	1.31	0.04	0.44	1.06
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	3.01	1.29	1.24	0.04	0.51	1.22
ss08	Other manufacturing	2.82	1.58	1.52	0.05	0.60	0.64
ss09	Construction	2.95	1.89	1.85	0.04	0.51	0.55
ss10	Distribution	2.05	1.30	1.28	0.02	0.27	0.48
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	2.38	1.54	1.51	0.04	0.52	0.32
ss12	Transport storage and communication	2.10	1.35	1.32	0.03	0.36	0.39
ss13	Financial intermediation	1.61	1.32	1.31	0.01	0.17	0.12
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	1.42	1.13	1.12	0.01	0.14	0.15
ss15	Non Market Services	1.65	1.25	1.23	0.01	0.18	0.22
PANEL B: SHARES AND VALUE ADDED MULTIPLIERS							
		value added share	export share	Multipliers in value added			
				total	dom	reg	for
ss01	Agriculture	0.2	1.5	1.00	0.64	0.17	0.19
ss02	Mining quarrying and energy supply	2.0	0.9	1.00	0.39	0.36	0.25
ss03	Food beverages and tobacco	0.9	4.2	1.00	0.38	0.34	0.28
ss04	Textiles and leather	0.4	4.6	1.00	0.50	0.20	0.31
ss05	Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals	2.3	20.5	1.00	0.34	0.18	0.47
ss06	Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.	2.4	23.0	1.00	0.31	0.20	0.49
ss08	Other manufacturing	4.2	17.4	1.00	0.48	0.24	0.28
ss09	Construction	9.1	0.0	1.00	0.57	0.19	0.24
ss10	Distribution	11.6	0.6	1.00	0.66	0.13	0.21
ss11	Hotels and restaurant	6.6	0.0	1.00	0.65	0.21	0.14
ss12	Transport storage and communication	10.0	10.2	1.00	0.67	0.16	0.17
ss13	Financial intermediation	4.5	2.3	1.00	0.85	0.09	0.06
ss14	Real estate renting and business activities	23.4	12.4	1.00	0.86	0.07	0.07
ss15	Non Market Services	22.5	2.5	1.00	0.81	0.09	0.10

Notes: **Panel A:** Total multipliers in gross terms takes into account regional and international feedback effects. Domestic multipliers take into account the output requirement at the region level. We further breakdown this multiplier into the pure local effect and the ripple effects. **Panel B:** value added upstream multipliers by geographical breakdown are reported as well as the sector weight in total value added and the weight in total exports. Note that as all value added must be either domestic, regional or foreign the sum along each column is unity.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 8: SPILLOVER EFFECTS ON SPANISH REGIONS

		USA		GBR		Madrid		Basque Country	
						ss06ss07		ss06ss07	
		[A]		[B]		[C]		[D]	
ISO	region	GO	VA	GO	VA	GO	VA	GO	VA
	SPAIN	−0.65	−0.27	−0.15	−0.07	−0.08	−0.02	−0.04	−0.01
ES11	Galicia	−0.88	−0.27	−0.16	−0.05	−0.04	−0.01	−0.02	−0.00
ES12	Asturias	−0.81	−0.26	−0.19	−0.06	−0.03	−0.01	−0.01	−0.00
ES13	Cantabria	−0.78	−0.27	−0.18	−0.06	−0.07	−0.02	−0.02	−0.01
ES21	Basque Country	−1.10	−0.34	−0.22	−0.07	−0.07	−0.02	−0.51	−0.13
ES22	Navarre	−0.91	−0.30	−0.19	−0.07	−0.07	−0.02	−0.03	−0.01
ES23	Rioja	−0.80	−0.29	−0.19	−0.07	−0.07	−0.02	−0.02	−0.01
ES24	Aragón	−0.85	−0.28	−0.15	−0.06	−0.06	−0.02	−0.03	−0.01
ES30	Madrid	−0.80	−0.35	−0.19	−0.08	−0.32	−0.08	−0.03	−0.01
ES41	Castille- León	−0.73	−0.24	−0.15	−0.05	−0.02	−0.01	−0.01	−0.00
ES42	Castille- La Mancha	−0.78	−0.27	−0.16	−0.06	−0.04	−0.02	−0.02	−0.01
ES43	Extremadure	−0.87	−0.30	−0.15	−0.06	−0.05	−0.02	−0.02	−0.01
ES51	Catalonia	−0.43	−0.29	−0.12	−0.08	−0.01	−0.01	−0.01	−0.01
ES52	Valence	−0.43	−0.25	−0.14	−0.08	−0.00	−0.00	−0.00	−0.00
ES53	Balearic Islands	−0.70	−0.26	−0.14	−0.06	−0.02	−0.01	−0.01	−0.00
ES61	Andalusia	−0.29	−0.16	−0.09	−0.06	−0.00	−0.00	−0.00	−0.00
ES62	Murcia	−0.97	−0.30	−0.20	−0.07	−0.06	−0.02	−0.03	−0.01
ES63	Ceuta	−0.76	−0.33	−0.13	−0.06	−0.00	−0.00	−0.00	−0.00
ES64	Melilla	−0.73	−0.31	−0.13	−0.06	−0.01	−0.00	−0.00	−0.00
ES70	Canary Islands	−0.65	−0.24	−0.12	−0.05	−0.02	−0.01	−0.01	−0.00

Notes: In column [GO] we report the impact on gross output over each region value added, while in column [VA] we report the impact on value added over each region value added. In column [A] we report the effect due to a decline in final demand in USA by 10 percent, in column [B] the effect of a decline in final demand in UK by 10 percent. In column [C] a decline in demand from exports in Madrid of final goods assembled in sector ss-6 and ss-7 by 10 percent. Finally, we report the pulling effects from [C] a decline in exports of final goods assembled in the Basque Country in sector ss-6 and ss-7 by 10 percent.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 9: SPILLOVER EFFECTS ON SECTORS AND REGIONS

United States USA	United Kingdom GBR	Madrid MAD	Basque Country PVA
RANKED PULLING EFFECTS ON SECTOR-REGION PAIRS			
United States ss15 Non-Market Service	GBR- Inner London ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Madrid ss6-ss7 Electrical and optical equipment and Transport equipment	Basque Country ss6-ss7 Electrical and optical equipment and Transport equipment
United States ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	GBR- Inner London ss15 Non-Market Services	Madrid ss10 Distribution	Basque Country ss8 Other manufacturing
United States ss10 Distribution	GBR- Outer London ss15 Non-Market Service	Madrid ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Basque Country ss10 Distribution
United States ss13 Financial intermediation	GBR- Outer London ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Rest of the World ss2 Mining quarrying and energy supply	Basque Country ss14 Real estate renting and business activities
United States ss12-Transport storage and communication	GBR- Inner London ss13 Financial intermediation	Madrid ss8 Other manufacturing	Madrid ss14 Real estate renting and business activities
United States ss9 Construction	GBR- Inner London ss10 Distribution	United States ss6-ss7 Electrical and optical equipment and Transport equipment	Madrid ss10 Distribution
United States ss2 Mining quarrying and energy supply	GBR- Berkshire Bucks and Oxfordshire ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	United States ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Rest of the World ss2 Mining quarrying and energy supply
United States ss11 Hotels and restaurants	GBR Berkshire Bucks and Oxfordshire ss15 Non-Market Services	Catalonia ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Basque Country ss12 Transport storage and communication
United States USA	United Kingdom GBR	Madrid MAD	Basque Country PVA
RANKED PULLING EFFECTS ON SPANISH REGIONS-SECTOR PAIRS			
Madrid ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Madrid ss12 Transport storage and communication	Madrid ss6-ss7 Electrical and optical equipment and Transport equipment	Basque Country ss6-ss7 Electrical and optical equipment and Transport equipment
Catalonia ss8 Other manufacturing	Catalonia ss12 Transport storage and communication	Madrid ss10 Distribution	Basque Country ss8 Other manufacturing
Catalonia ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Madrid ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Madrid ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Basque Country ss10 Distribution
Madrid ss8 Other manufacturing	Madrid ss15 Non-Market Service	Madrid ss8 Other manufacturing	Basque Country ss14 Real estate renting and business activities
Valencia ss8 Other manufacturing	Catalonia ss5 Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals etc	Catalonia ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Madrid ss14 Real estate renting and business activities
Andalusia ss8 Other manufacturing	Catalonia ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Basque Country ss8 Other manufacturing	Madrid ss10 Distribution
Catalonia ss5 Coke refined petroleum nuclear fuel and chemicals etc	Andalusia ss12 Transport storage and communication	Catalonia ss15 Non-Market Services	Basque Country ss12 Transport storage and communication
Basque Country ss14 Real estate renting and business activities	Catalonia ss1 Agriculture	Madrid ss12 Transport storage and communication	Catalonia ss14 Real estate renting and business activities

Notes: In column [A] we report the most affected regions and sectors worldwide due to a decline in production led by a drop by 10.0% in Final Demand in the United States (USA). In column [B] we report the most affected regions and sectors due to a decline in production led by a drop in Final Demand in the United Kingdom (GBR) by 10.0%. In columns [C] and [D] we report the region-sector pairs due to a decline in production as a result of a decline for final products assembled or produced in the region of Madrid (MAD) or in the Basque Country (PVA) region by 10.0%. For all these scenarios we report the most affected sectors within the Spanish economy.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 10: SECTOR ANALYSIS

ss06ss07			
Electrical and optical equ. and Transport equ.			
Exports			
region	Total	Final	Interm
ESP	52660.9	22207.2	30453.7
Madrid	11064.6	4433.2	6631.4
Catalonia	9511.9	4204.6	5307.3
Andalusia	5516.0	2288.0	3228.0
Comunidad Valenciana	4627.2	1972.8	2654.4
Basque Country	4427.9	2105.9	2322.0
Galicia	3262.6	1330.7	1932.0
Castilla y Leon	3166.3	1249.4	1917.0
Aragon	2333.1	956.4	1376.7
Castilla la Mancha	2149.4	884.6	1264.7
Region de Murcia	1180.8	501.8	679.0
Navarra	1158.5	500.9	657.6
Principado de Asturias	1024.4	438.7	585.7
Canary Islands	1015.2	424.7	590.5
Cantabria	753.7	321.9	431.8
Extremadura	511.8	209.1	302.7
Illes Balears	485.6	195.0	290.6
La Rioja	319.9	145.4	174.6
Ceuta	87.3	25.7	61.5
Melilla	64.8	18.5	46.3
Outflows			
ESP	7312.1	1561.3	5750.7
Madrid	3228.6	333.4	2895.2
Basque Country	1920.5	776.2	1144.3
Aragon	879.0	214.9	664.2
Navarra	595.5	150.4	445.1
Cantabria	263.5	73.1	190.4
Catalonia	248.2	0.5	247.7
Castilla la Mancha	132.6	7.2	125.4
La Rioja	12.1	1.4	10.7
Galicia	11.7	2.1	9.6
Region de Murcia	6.7	0.8	5.9
Extremadura	5.3	0.4	4.9
Ceuta	2.0	0.3	1.7
Andalusia	1.9	0.0	1.9
Comunidad Valenciana	1.9	0.0	1.9
Illes Balears	0.8	0.2	0.6
Melilla	0.7	0.2	0.5
Principado de Asturias	0.5	0.2	0.3
Castilla y Leon	0.3	0.0	0.3
Canary Islands	0.3	0.1	0.2

Notes: This table shows the importance of each region in producing goods in the ss-6 and ss-7 sector that are exported or sold to another region within Spain.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

Table 11: COUNTRY AGGREGATES IN 2010

Euro area		Sum			
cty_name		va	go	tic	reg sales
					exports
Austria (n=9)	272,005.2	544,195.0	272,189.7	78,487.1	135,107.3
Belgium (n=11)	342,538.3	750,745.5	408,207.1	169,728.6	243,331.6
Finland (n=5)	167,049.1	355,402.9	188,353.8	83,837.2	70,385.1
France (n=22)	1,868,691.4	3,554,564.1	1,685,872.7	507,974.1	459,435.6
Germany (n=41)	2,391,414.4	4,589,690.3	2,198,275.9	731,173.9	1,049,814.4
Greece (n=13)	215,742.4	344,081.2	128,338.7	60,248.4	32,319.9
Ireland (n=2)	151,329.0	342,129.8	190,800.8	12,740.4	149,159.4
Italy (n=21)	1,471,822.4	2,997,296.7	1,525,474.3	1,426,744.6	387,846.1
Luxembourg (n=1)	39,337.9	108,520.2	69,182.3	0.0	61,149.5
Malta (n=1)	5,757.4	12,211.1	6,453.6	0.0	3,799.2
Netherlands (n=12)	566,962.9	1,138,926.9	571,964.0	232,288.8	353,268.4
Portugal (n=5)	161,772.8	319,021.4	157,248.6	49,100.9	41,732.5
Spain (n=19)	1,023,564.7	2,049,092.3	1,025,527.6	425,902.0	243,016.7
Total (n=162)	8,677,988.0	17,105,877.3	8,427,889.2	3,778,225.9	3,230,365.6

Eastern europe		Sum			
cty_name		va	go	tic	reg sales
					exports
Bulgaria (n=1)	31,667.8	78,694.5	47,026.7	0.0	16,092.6
Cyprus (n=1)	16,028.7	27,624.7	11,595.9	0.0	3,412.9
Czech Republic (n=8)	140,241.6	362,357.6	222,116.0	62,976.5	103,232.7
Estonia (n=1)	13,280.8	27,875.1	14,594.3	0.0	7,418.9
Hungary (n=7)	91,129.8	208,829.3	117,699.5	29,342.0	73,555.2
Latvia (n=1)	17,207.4	35,557.4	18,350.0	0.0	6,761.8
Lithuania (n=1)	25,611.4	47,383.3	21,771.9	0.0	13,248.4
Poland (n=16)	334,553.4	713,170.9	378,617.4	96,610.6	144,513.4
Roumania (n=1)	117,392.0	236,126.4	118,734.4	0.0	35,391.9
Slovakia (n=4)	64,499.9	146,596.6	82,096.7	18,589.9	42,964.4
Slovenia (n=1)	33,158.9	68,881.0	35,722.0	0.0	17,901.2
Total (n=42)	884,771.7	1,953,096.6	1,068,324.9	207,519.1	464,493.4

Other EU		Sum			
cty_name		va	go	tic	reg
					exp
Sweden (n=8)	327,568.0	660,005.9	332,438.0	107,040.5	160,010.8
United Kingdom (n=37)	1,638,614.6	3,108,163.5	1,469,548.9	846,587.7	465,835.8
Total (n=45)	1,966,182.6	3,768,169.5	1,801,986.9	953,628.2	625,846.6

Asia		Sum			
cty_name		va	go	tic	reg
					exp
China (n=1)	4,519,796.8	13,630,904.3	9,111,107.5	0.0	1,315,143.9
India (n=1)	1,247,301.6	2,415,523.6	1,168,222.0	0.0	232,764.5
Indonesia (n=1)	539,216.8	1,050,883.5	511,666.8	0.0	129,492.2
Japan (n=1)	4,068,705.3	7,853,647.4	3,784,942.2	0.0	630,124.7
Korea (n=1)	741,662.0	1,953,157.3	1,211,495.3	0.0	392,056.1
Taiwan (n=1)	321,010.1	750,107.0	429,096.8	0.0	235,070.6
Total (n=6)	11,437,692.5	27,654,223.1	16,216,530.6	0.0	2,934,652.1

Other		Sum			
cty_name		va	go	tic	reg
					exp
Australia (n=1)	934,559.3	1,851,886.7	917,327.4	0.0	206,482.1
Brazil (n=1)	1,484,974.9	2,675,424.4	1,190,449.5	0.0	175,742.7
Canada (n=1)	1,137,260.5	2,178,709.0	1,041,448.4	0.0	338,899.8
Denmark (n=3)	217,535.9	414,576.1	197,040.2	51,959.8	107,017.2
Mexico (n=1)	769,068.3	1,308,772.8	539,704.5	0.0	215,950.3
Russia (n=1)	1,031,259.0	1,987,703.4	956,444.4	0.0	280,412.8
Turkey (n=1)	520,906.2	997,534.4	476,628.2	0.0	97,612.1
USA (n=1)	11,004,564.5	19,469,039.8	8,464,475.3	0.0	1,232,896.0
Total (n=10)	17,100,128.5	30,883,646.6	13,783,518.0	51,959.8	2,655,012.9

Rest of the world		Sum			
cty_name		va	tic	go	reg
					exp
row (n=1)	8,859,797.8	20,897,387.0	12,037,589.2	0.0	1,137,823.2
Total (n=1)	8,859,797.8	20,897,387.0	12,037,589.2	0.0	1,137,823.2

Notes: In brackets the number of EU regions for which there is detailed regional information. In column [1] value added produced by each country, in column [2] gross output, in column [3] total intermediate consumption [4] sales to other regions within the country (outflows) and [5] sales abroad (exports).

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release.

Table 12: SPANISH REGIONS

Region	VA	GO	TIC	Outflows			Exports		
				tot	int	fin	tot	int	fin
GAL	56980.5	157874.3	100893.8	24195.2	15598.1	8597.1	14849.9	8993.6	5856.3
AST	23048.7	59667.8	36619.1	10968.6	6887.9	4080.6	5778.6	3565.5	2213.1
CTB	12905.0	31425.5	18520.4	7579.7	4589.1	2990.6	3328.2	2012.7	1315.4
PVA	65922.2	186881.8	120959.6	37650.4	26678.3	10972.1	20105.2	12578.9	7526.3
NAV	18173.1	47007.9	28834.7	12294.2	7750.2	4544.0	4896.3	2975.7	1920.5
RIO	7902.9	19064.8	11161.9	6550.7	4348.0	2202.7	1957.8	1165.1	792.8
ARA	34071.7	87664.8	53593.0	20518.7	12354.2	8164.4	8729.0	5262.2	3466.7
MAD	180784.7	393913.7	213129.0	102541.7	77654.5	24887.3	48020.5	30817.7	17202.8
CYL	55567.0	146206.9	90639.8	21723.4	12260.4	9463.0	14228.9	8403.7	5825.2
CLM	37871.4	96595.1	58723.8	19875.2	12125.3	7749.9	10426.7	6179.9	4246.8
EXT	17184.6	42609.0	25424.4	15938.6	9894.7	6043.9	4049.7	2373.7	1676.0
CAT	184203.7	233661.9	49458.3	47081.4	33481.7	13599.7	41145.5	24038.0	17107.5
VAL	96830.0	130201.0	33371.0	5873.8	1924.6	3949.2	20782.2	12356.9	8425.2
BAL	26123.2	59904.8	33781.5	13081.0	5829.6	7251.4	5473.1	3394.8	2078.3
AND	133867.0	177507.1	43640.0	30419.9	15584.6	14835.4	23394.3	12137.1	11257.2
MUR	28152.3	78524.7	50372.4	28284.6	19224.8	9059.9	6811.6	4067.1	2744.5
CEU	1491.5	2852.7	1361.2	871.8	244.3	627.5	353.0	215.9	137.0
MEL	1326.7	2550.3	1223.7	721.5	292.5	428.9	305.2	188.9	116.3
CAN	41158.5	94978.3	53819.9	19731.7	7465.0	12266.7	8381.1	5164.3	3216.9

Notes: [VA] Value added [GO] Gross Output [TIC] total intermediate consumption. Total exports and total outflows are further breakdown into final and intermediate flows.

Source: EUREGIO 2018 release and own calculations.

BANCO DE ESPAÑA PUBLICATIONS

WORKING PAPERS

- 1920 LUIS J. ÁLVAREZ, MARÍA DOLORES GADEA and ANA GÓMEZ-LOSCOS: Inflation interdependence in advanced economies.
- 1921 DIEGO BODAS, JUAN R. GARCÍA LÓPEZ, JUAN MURILLO ARIAS, MATÍAS J. PACCE, TOMASA RODRIGO LÓPEZ, JUAN DE DIOS ROMERO PALOP, PEP RUIZ DE AGUIRRE, CAMILO A. ULLOA and HERIBERT VALERO LAPAZ: Measuring retail trade using card transactional data.
- 1922 MARIO ALLOZA and CARLOS SANZ: Jobs multipliers: evidence from a large fiscal stimulus in Spain.
- 1923 KATARZYNA BUDNIK, MASSIMILIANO AFFINITO, GAIA BARBIC, SAIFFEDINE BEN HADJ, ÉDOUARD CHRÉTIEN, HANS DEWACHTER, CLARA ISABEL GONZÁLEZ, JENNY HU, LAURI JANTUNEN, RAMONA JIMBOREAN, OTSO MANNINEN, RICARDO MARTINHO, JAVIER MENCÍA, ELENA MOUSARRI, LAURYNAS NARUŠEVIČIUS, GIULIO NICOLETTI, MICHAEL O'GRADY, SELCUK OZSAHIN, ANA REGINA PEREIRA, JAIRO RIVERA-ROZO, CONSTANTINOS TRIKOUPIS, FABRIZIO VENDITTI and SOFÍA VELASCO: The benefits and costs of adjusting bank capitalisation: evidence from Euro Area countries.
- 1924 MIGUEL ALMUNIA and DAVID LÓPEZ-RODRÍGUEZ: The elasticity of taxable income in Spain: 1999-2014.
- 1925 DANILO LEIVA-LEON and LORENZO DUCTOR: Fluctuations in global macro volatility.
- 1926 JEF BOECKX, MAARTEN DOSSCHE, ALESSANDRO GALESÌ, BORIS HOFMANN and GERT PEERSMAN: Do SVARs with sign restrictions not identify unconventional monetary policy shocks?
- 1927 DANIEL DEJUÁN and JUAN S. MORA-SANGUINETTI: Quality of enforcement and investment decisions. Firm-level evidence from Spain.
- 1928 MARIO IZQUIERDO, ENRIQUE MORAL-BENITO and ELVIRA PRADES: Propagation of sector-specific shocks within Spain and other countries.
- 1929 MIGUEL CASARES, LUCA DEIDDA and JOSÉ E. GALDÓN-SÁNCHEZ: On financial frictions and firm market power.
- 1930 MICHAEL FUNKE, DANILO LEIVA-LEON and ANDREW TSANG: Mapping China's time-varying house price landscape.
- 1931 JORGE E. GALÁN and MATÍAS LAMAS: Beyond the LTV ratio: new macroprudential lessons from Spain.
- 1932 JACOPO TIMINI: Staying dry on Spanish wine: the rejection of the 1905 Spanish-Italian trade agreement.
- 1933 TERESA SASTRE and LAURA HERAS RECUERO: Domestic and foreign investment in advanced economies. The role of industry integration.
- 1934 DANILO LEIVA-LEON, JAIME MARTÍNEZ-MARTÍN and EVA ORTEGA: Exchange rate shocks and inflation comovement in the euro area.
- 1935 FEDERICO TAGLIATI: Child labor under cash and in-kind transfers: evidence from rural Mexico.
- 1936 ALBERTO FUERTES: External adjustment with a common currency: the case of the euro area.
- 1937 LAURA HERAS RECUERO and ROBERTO PASCUAL GONZÁLEZ: Economic growth, institutional quality and financial development in middle-income countries.
- 1938 SILVIA ALBRIZIO, SANGYUP CHOI, DAVIDE FURCERI and CHANSIK YOON: International Bank Lending Channel of Monetary Policy.
- 1939 MAR DELGADO-TÉLLEZ, ENRIQUE MORAL-BENITO and JAVIER J. PÉREZ: Outsourcing and public expenditure: an aggregate perspective with regional data.
- 1940 MYROSLAV PIDKUYKO: Heterogeneous spillovers of housing credit policy.
- 1941 LAURA ÁLVAREZ ROMÁN and MIGUEL GARCÍA-POSADA GÓMEZ: Modelling regional housing prices in Spain.
- 1942 STÉPHANE DÉES and ALESSANDRO GALESÌ: The Global Financial Cycle and US monetary policy in an interconnected world.
- 1943 ANDRÉS EROSA and BEATRIZ GONZÁLEZ: Taxation and the life cycle of firms.
- 1944 MARIO ALLOZA, JESÚS GONZALO and CARLOS SANZ: Dynamic effects of persistent shocks.
- 1945 PABLO DE ANDRÉS, RICARDO GIMENO and RUTH MATEOS DE CABO: The gender gap in bank credit access.
- 1946 IRMA ALONSO and LUIS MOLINA: The SHERLOC: an EWS-based index of vulnerability for emerging economies.
- 1947 GERGELY GANICS, BARBARA ROSSI and TATEVIK SEKHPOSYAN: From Fixed-event to Fixed-horizon Density Forecasts: Obtaining Measures of Multi-horizon Uncertainty from Survey Density Forecasts.
- 1948 GERGELY GANICS and FLORENS ODENDAHL: Bayesian VAR Forecasts, Survey Information and Structural Change in the Euro Area.
- 2001 JAVIER ANDRÉS, PABLO BURRIEL and WENYI SHEN: Debt sustainability and fiscal space in a heterogeneous Monetary Union: normal times vs the zero lower bound.

- 2002 JUAN S. MORA-SANGUINETTI and RICARDO PÉREZ-VALLS: ¿Cómo afecta la complejidad de la regulación a la demografía empresarial? Evidencia para España.
- 2003 ALEJANDRO BUESA, FRANCISCO JAVIER POBLACIÓN GARCÍA and JAVIER TARANCÓN: Measuring the procyclicality of impairment accounting regimes: a comparison between IFRS 9 and US GAAP.
- 2004 HENRIQUE S. BASSO and JUAN F. JIMENO: From secular stagnation to robocalypse? Implications of demographic and technological changes.
- 2005 LEONARDO GAMBACORTA, SERGIO MAYORDOMO and JOSÉ MARÍA SERENA: Dollar borrowing, firm-characteristics, and FX-hedged funding opportunities.
- 2006 IRMA ALONSO ÁLVAREZ, VIRGINIA DI NINO and FABRIZIO VENDITTI: Strategic interactions and price dynamics in the global oil market.
- 2007 JORGE E. GALÁN: The benefits are at the tail: uncovering the impact of macroprudential policy on growth-at-risk.
- 2008 SVEN BLANK, MATHIAS HOFFMANN and MORITZ A. ROTH: Foreign direct investment and the equity home bias puzzle.
- 2009 AYMAN EL DAHRAWY SÁNCHEZ-ALBORNOZ and JACOPO TIMINI: Trade agreements and Latin American trade (creation and diversion) and welfare.
- 2010 ALFREDO GARCÍA-HIERNAUX, MARÍA T. GONZÁLEZ-PÉREZ and DAVID E. GUERRERO: Eurozone prices: a tale of convergence and divergence.
- 2011 ÁNGEL IVÁN MORENO BERNAL and CARLOS GONZÁLEZ PEDRAZ: Sentiment analysis of the Spanish Financial Stability Report. (There is a Spanish version of this edition with the same number).
- 2012 MARIAM CAMARERO, MARÍA DOLORES GADEA-RIVAS, ANA GÓMEZ-LOSCOS and CECILIO TAMARIT: External imbalances and recoveries.
- 2013 JESÚS FERNÁNDEZ-VILLVERDE, SAMUEL HURTADO and GALO NUÑO: Financial frictions and the wealth distribution.
- 2014 RODRIGO BARBONE GONZALEZ, DMITRY KHAMETSHIN, JOSÉ-LUIS PEYDRÓ and ANDREA POLO: Hedger of last resort: evidence from Brazilian FX interventions, local credit, and global financial cycles.
- 2015 DANILO LEIVA-LEON, GABRIEL PEREZ-QUIROS and EYNO ROTS: Real-time weakness of the global economy: a first assessment of the coronavirus crisis.
- 2016 JAVIER ANDRÉS, ÓSCAR ARCE, JESÚS FERNÁNDEZ-VILLVERDE and SAMUEL HURTADO: Deciphering the macroeconomic effects of internal devaluations in a monetary union.
- 2017 FERNANDO LÓPEZ-VICENTE, JACOPO TIMINI and NICOLA CORTINOVIS: Do trade agreements with labor provisions matter for emerging and developing economies' exports?
- 2018 EDDIE GERBA and DANILO LEIVA-LEON: Macro-financial interactions in a changing world.
- 2019 JAIME MARTÍNEZ-MARTÍN and ELENA RUSTICELLI: Keeping track of global trade in real time.
- 2020 VICTORIA IVASHINA, LUC LAEVEN and ENRIQUE MORAL-BENITO: Loan types and the bank lending channel.
- 2021 SERGIO MAYORDOMO, NICOLA PAVANINI and EMANUELE TARANTINO: The impact of alternative forms of bank consolidation on credit supply and financial stability.
- 2022 ALEX ARMAND, PEDRO CARNEIRO, FEDERICO TAGLIATI and YIMING XIA: Can subsidized employment tackle long-term unemployment? Experimental evidence from North Macedonia.
- 2023 JACOPO TIMINI and FRANCESCA VIANI: A highway across the Atlantic? Trade and welfare effects of the EU-Mercosur agreement.
- 2024 CORINNA GHIRELLI, JAVIER J. PÉREZ and ALBERTO URTASUN: Economic policy uncertainty in Latin America: measurement using Spanish newspapers and economic spillovers.
- 2025 MAR DELGADO-TÉLLEZ, ESTHER GORDO, IVÁN KATARYNIUK and JAVIER J. PÉREZ: The decline in public investment: "social dominance" or too-rigid fiscal rules?
- 2026 ELVIRA PRADES-ILLANES and PATROCINIO TELLO-CASAS: Spanish regions in Global Value Chains: How important? How different?