



## 33 **Abstract**

34 The wine industry plays an important role in many national economies, it combines agricultural  
35 production with cultural heritage and global trade. In Portugal, it contributes significantly to  
36 economic value, regional identity, and rural sustainability. As international wine markets  
37 become increasingly complex, the information from financial and production data is essential  
38 for regulation, policymaking, and economic analysis. Despite the growing emphasis on  
39 viticulture and market dynamics, the wine sector data anomalies have attracted only limited  
40 attention so far. This study introduces Benford's Law—a statistical method used to detect  
41 irregularities in naturally occurring datasets. Applying first- and second-digit Benford's Law  
42 tests to Portuguese wine industry data from 2014 to 2023, which includes company-level  
43 financial statements and wine production figures, the analysis reveals data irregularities.  
44 Nonconformity between empirical data and theoretical expectations refers to wine must  
45 production data and profit before tax. The irregularities must be explained in a further and more  
46 detailed survey. The study offers a novel application of Benford's Law in the wine sector.

47

48 **Key Words:** Benford's Law, wine production, reporting

49

## 50 **1. Introduction**

51 The wine industry plays a central role in many national economies, combining agricultural  
52 production with cultural heritage, regional identity, and participation in global trade. In  
53 Portugal, where viticulture is deeply embedded in rural structures and economic activity, the  
54 availability of reliable financial and production data is essential for informed policymaking,  
55 regulatory oversight, and sectoral analysis. As wine markets become increasingly globalised  
56 and complex, the accuracy of reported figures—both at the firm level and in official production  
57 statistics—assumes strategic importance for tax administration, subsidy allocation, and market  
58 monitoring.

59 Although a substantial body of research has examined viticulture, oenology, climate impacts,  
60 and market behaviour, relatively little attention has been devoted to the quality and reliability  
61 of the numerical data underpinning these analyses. It contrasts with other empirical fields,  
62 where data integrity assessment has become a standard component of validation. Benford's  
63 Law, which describes the expected logarithmic distribution of digits in many naturally  
64 occurring datasets, has been widely applied in areas such as forensic accounting,  
65 macroeconomic reporting, environmental monitoring, and financial market analysis to detect  
66 irregularities or patterns warranting further investigation [1, 2]. Its usefulness lies in its domain-

67 independence and sensitivity to reporting errors, structural anomalies, and potential  
68 manipulation in large numerical datasets.

69 Given the wine sector's reliance on both firm-level accounting data and officially reported  
70 production statistics, it represents a particularly relevant yet largely unexplored context for  
71 applying Benford's Law. Existing empirical studies have focused mainly on macro-level  
72 agricultural aggregates or individual commodity markets, leaving open the question of whether  
73 digit distributions remain consistent across different types of wine-sector data and whether  
74 deviations may signal issues in reporting practices.

75 This study addresses this gap by examining the conformity of Portuguese wine-sector data with  
76 Benford's expected digit distributions. Using first- and second-digit tests evaluated through  
77 Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD) and the Kolmogorov–Smirnov (K–S) test and Chi-square  
78 test, the analysis covers company-level financial statements and official wine must production  
79 statistics for the period from 2014 to 2023. Rather than treating conformity as proof of data  
80 accuracy or deviations as evidence of manipulation, the study adopts a conservative perspective,  
81 using Benford-based diagnostics as indicators of potential irregularities that may merit closer  
82 scrutiny.

83 By integrating two distinct data sources within a single analytical framework, this research  
84 contributes to the literature on wine economics and agribusiness by introducing a systematic  
85 approach to assessing data quality. It provides empirical evidence on the consistency of reported  
86 figures in an economically significant and heavily regulated sector, highlighting the potential  
87 of Benford's Law as a complementary tool for enhancing transparency and confidence in  
88 sectoral data used for economic, regulatory, and scientific analyses.

89 The paper is structured as follows. Section 2 reviews the relevant literature and outlines the  
90 theoretical background and research gap. Section 3 describes the methodology and research  
91 sample. Section 4 presents and discusses the results, and Section 5 concludes the study.

92

## 93 **2. Literature Review**

### 94 *2.1. Theoretical Background*

95 Research on the quantity of wine grapes and wine production provides fundamental insights  
96 into the functioning, efficiency, and resilience of the wine industry. Studies in this area address  
97 diverse issues such as yield optimisation, the economic implications of viticulture, tax policy,  
98 climate change, and market behaviour. The majority of research focuses on viticultural and  
99 oenological determinants of production volumes [3, 4], while relatively few studies investigate  
100 the economic and regulatory consequences of these patterns [5–7].

101 Among the studies addressing these interrelated factors, Anderson et al. [8] provide a  
102 comprehensive analysis of global wine production dynamics. They showed that climatic  
103 variability, technological progress, and economic cycles jointly determine production  
104 outcomes. Their findings highlight a general stabilisation of output in traditional European  
105 regions and faster growth in emerging markets such as South America and Asia. These  
106 observations support the notion that stable production promotes predictable market behaviour  
107 and aids in policy design.

108 Earlier work by Jones et al. [4] identified several critical factors affecting production, including  
109 vineyard management practices, technological innovation, and, in particular, climate change.  
110 Their study demonstrated how rising temperatures have led to shifts in vineyard locations and  
111 the adoption of adaptive techniques to maintain both yield and quality. More recently, Del Rey  
112 and Loose [9] explored the economic implications of global wine production trends, noting that  
113 fluctuations in production volumes have a pronounced effect on price volatility and trade flows.  
114 While environmental and technological factors remain crucial determinants of production, a  
115 growing body of research highlights the influence of economic and institutional conditions on  
116 the performance and stability of the wine sector. Taxation policies also play an essential role in  
117 shaping production decisions and market competitiveness. Anderson and Pinilla [8] and  
118 Katunar et al. [10] examined how fiscal regulations influence production incentives,  
119 emphasising that well-structured and transparent data are indispensable for designing equitable  
120 tax systems. Behmiri et al. [5] further linked macroeconomic conditions—GDP growth,  
121 exchange rates, and agricultural policy—to production trends across the European Union. In  
122 parallel, Rickard et al. [6] investigated the effects of trade liberalisation on the EU and US wine  
123 markets, illustrating how the interaction between international trade agreements and domestic  
124 regulations affects production stability.

125 Together, fiscal, macroeconomic, and trade factors define the context in which wine producers  
126 operate, although environmental conditions continue to play a decisive role in shaping  
127 production outcomes. Finally, Ashenfelter and Storchmann [3] discussed the economic  
128 implications of climate change, demonstrating how variations in temperature and precipitation  
129 influence grape yields, wine quality, and production costs.

130 Overall, these studies highlight the complex interplay of environmental, technological, and  
131 economic factors that determine wine production patterns. Understanding these interactions  
132 relies heavily on the availability of accurate and transparent production data. Yet, despite its  
133 importance, the usefulness of such data has rarely been evaluated systematically. To address

134 this gap, statistical tools capable of identifying irregularities in numerical data can be applied,  
135 among which Benford's Law has proven particularly useful.

136

## 137 *2.2. Quality Data Measures – Benford's Law in Real-World Applications*

138 Benford's Law describes the expected frequency of digits in naturally occurring numerical  
139 datasets. Rather than following a uniform distribution, the first digit in many datasets is  
140 disproportionately likely to be small—most commonly "1"—with probabilities decreasing  
141 logarithmically for higher digits [11]. This statistical regularity arises in datasets that span  
142 several orders of magnitude and result from multiplicative or exponential processes.

143 Initially discovered in the natural sciences, this method has found widespread application in  
144 economics, finance, and environmental monitoring. For example, various geophysical datasets  
145 such as measurements of the Earth's geomagnetic field, earthquake depths, and seismic  
146 velocities have been shown to conform closely to Benford's distribution [1]. In economics, the  
147 method has become a cornerstone of forensic accounting, where it helps detect potential  
148 manipulation or fraud in financial statements [2, 12]. Auditors routinely use Benford-based  
149 analyses of assets, liabilities, and revenues to identify anomalies that warrant further  
150 investigation [13, 14].

151 Benford's Law has also been applied in emerging areas such as cryptocurrency analysis, where  
152 it helps identify suspicious transaction patterns [14]. In macroeconomics, it has been used to  
153 evaluate the plausibility of reported figures—such as GDP, inflation, and fiscal data—  
154 submitted by national governments to Eurostat, revealing significant irregularities in Greece's  
155 statistics [12]. Likewise, it has served as a diagnostic tool for validating self-reported water-use  
156 data in the United States [15] and detecting anomalies in ecotoxicity datasets [1].

157 The versatility of Benford's Law lies in its simplicity and universality. Because it does not  
158 require prior assumptions about the data structure, it can be applied across disciplines to reveal  
159 inconsistencies that might otherwise remain unnoticed. Given its proven effectiveness in  
160 auditing and environmental monitoring, the method is well-suited to the validation of  
161 agricultural and production datasets, where manual reporting and aggregation often introduce  
162 potential errors. Despite its wide application, empirical research using Benford's Law in  
163 agriculture and the wine industry remains scarce: according to Web of Science database data,  
164 more than two hundred studies address its role in fraud detection and only a limited number  
165 focus on agricultural data (twelve studies such as Hanci [16], Suzuki et al. [17], Novovic et al.  
166 [18]) whereas only two refer to the wine sector [7, 19].

### 2.3. *Quality Data Measures – Benford's Law in Agricultural Data*

167 Benford's Law has increasingly been recognised as a valuable instrument for assessing the  
168 quality of numerical data in agriculture. As a statistical regularity describing the distribution of  
169 digits, it provides a straightforward yet powerful means of detecting irregularities and  
170 improving the quality of agricultural datasets.

171 Several empirical studies have explored its application in agricultural and related contexts. In  
172 the Philippines, Parreño [20] applied Benford's Law to crop production data—covering six  
173 major commodities, including bananas—using both Chi-squared and Mean Absolute Deviation  
174 (MAD) tests. The results confirmed that Benford's Law is applicable for evaluating data  
175 integrity and identifying inconsistencies in national agricultural statistics.

176 A detailed investigation by Hanci [16] extended this approach to official production data in Sri  
177 Lanka, encompassing multiple crop categories across several years. Employing first- and  
178 second-digit conformity tests, Hanci found that most datasets closely followed Benford's  
179 expected pattern, suggesting a generally reliable reporting system. However, moderate  
180 deviations in some manually reported crops indicated localised inconsistencies. Importantly,  
181 Hanci emphasised the preventive role of Benford's Law, arguing that its use could strengthen  
182 national data collection and monitoring practices.

183 Complementing these findings, a large-scale study conducted in China applied Benford's Law  
184 to agricultural and precipitation datasets spanning the period from 1951 to 2015. The analysis  
185 revealed a high degree of conformity between actual and expected digit distributions,  
186 confirming both internal consistency and robustness in long-term agricultural data [21]. Minor  
187 deviations were attributed mainly to transcription errors and incomplete time series, again  
188 demonstrating the method's diagnostic potential.

189 Beyond crop statistics, Benford's Law has also been successfully applied to fisheries and  
190 commodity markets. Noleto-Filho et al. [15] evaluated small-scale fisheries data in Brazil,  
191 discovering localised deviations caused by manual reporting, while Domínguez-Bustos et al.  
192 [22] used the method to detect structural shifts in tuna catch data following the introduction of  
193 total allowable catch (TAC) regulations. Similarly, Martínez-Sánchez [23] analysed Spanish  
194 almond prices, noting weaker conformity in first-digit tests but stronger alignment in second-  
195 and third-digit analyses. This outcome was attributed to the moderate variability of price data.  
196 This observation may also hold for the wine sector, where regional and quality constraints  
197 bound prices and production volumes.

198 Collectively, these studies demonstrate the adaptability and robustness of Benford's Law as a  
199 tool for assessing data irregularities in agriculture. However, most research has concentrated on  
200

201 single data sources or aggregate statistics, leaving open questions regarding the consistency  
202 between official datasets and firm-level financial data. This gap is particularly relevant for  
203 specialised branches of agriculture such as the wine industry, where both production statistics  
204 and firm-level accounting data are systematically collected and reported.

205

#### 206 *2.4. Research Gap and Contribution*

207 While Benford's Law has been widely employed to assess the usefulness of data in various  
208 economic and agricultural contexts, its potential application within the wine industry has  
209 received little attention. This study, therefore, addresses that gap by examining whether the  
210 Law's expected digit patterns hold for both official production data and firm-level financial  
211 statements. Existing studies have focused on macro-level agricultural statistics, such as crop  
212 yields, production volumes, and fisheries data, confirming that Benford's distribution can serve  
213 as a valuable indicator of data integrity. However, no prior research has examined whether the  
214 same principles apply to a wine production sector that simultaneously produces official  
215 agricultural statistics and firm-level financial data.

216 The wine sector provides a particularly suitable context for such analysis. It combines highly  
217 regulated production environments with heterogeneous firm structures, varying from small  
218 family-owned vineyards to large-scale cooperatives. Moreover, the coexistence of official  
219 production records and independently reported accounting data raises questions about the  
220 consistency of information across reporting levels. Understanding whether these datasets  
221 conform to Benford's distribution provides valuable insight into data irregularities, which is  
222 crucial for both data quality and the effectiveness of institutional reporting frameworks in  
223 agribusiness.

224 This study aims to address this research gap by developing a dual-source Benford framework  
225 for Portuguese viticulture. The contribution is threefold:

- 226 1. It establishes theoretical and practical criteria for selecting between first- and second-  
227 digit tests based on the numerical dispersion and aggregation levels typical of  
228 viticultural data.
- 229 2. It applies Benford analysis simultaneously to official production statistics and company-  
230 level accounting data, assessing both internal validity and cross-source consistency.
- 231 3. It interprets deviations in light of the institutional and regulatory context of the  
232 Portuguese wine industry, where market concentration, climate variability, and  
233 reporting obligations may influence numerical regularities.

234 The following section outlines the methodological framework used to test the conformity of  
235 Portuguese wine sector data with Benford's Law. It specifies the datasets examined, the  
236 structure of the Benford tests applied (first- and second-digit), and the criteria for evaluating  
237 conformity through statistical indicators such as the Chi-squared (Chi-2) test, the Kolmogorov-  
238 Smirnov (K-S) test, and the Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD) test.

239

### 240 **3. Methodology, Research Sample**

241 The study draws on two primary data sources: the BvD Orbis database, which provides financial  
242 information for companies in the wine sector, and the Statistics Portugal (ine.pt) database,  
243 which provides data on wine production.

244 The criteria for selecting financial data from the BvD Orbis database were as follows:

- 245 1. Status – active companies
- 246 2. Country – Portugal
- 247 3. Sector activity NACE Rev. 2 - 1102 - Manufacture of wine from grapes

248 In total, BvD Orbis gives 1366 companies that match our search criteria. In the next step, the  
249 dataset was manually refined, and cases with missing or incomplete data were excluded from  
250 the analysis. The study period covers 10 years, from 2014 to 2023. The choice of the final year  
251 (2023) reflects the availability of the most recently published financial statements.

252 The selected variables from companies' financial statements relate to wine production activities.  
253 The first variable is sales revenues (turnover), i.e., the value of economic benefits companies  
254 realise when selling wine. The pre-tax financial result is the second variable used to measure  
255 the business's effectiveness. The choice of this pre-tax variable is related to the elimination of  
256 tax optimisation used by companies and the possibility of tax management. In terms of income,  
257 profit before tax and loss before tax are separately calculated. The separate analysis is consistent  
258 with the assumption that there might be different irregularities for losses and profits.

259 The variables related to the companies' resources are total assets and inventories. Total assets  
260 represent the company's total resources, whereas stock refers to inventories (e.g., materials,  
261 work-in-progress, finished products). Wine producers' inventories disclose the value of current  
262 assets at all stages of wine production, from the must to bottled wine, which is ready for sale  
263 (from the extraction of the must to the final finished product). The variables from financial  
264 statements for Benford's Law tests used in the survey follow the literature review  
265 considerations. Ausloos et al. [24] analysed pre-taxation data (pre-tax income, separately for  
266 profit and loss) and total assets. Nigrini [2] justifies the separate analysis of positive and

267 negative numbers, as there may be different causes for profit and loss manipulation. Revenues  
268 are also frequently used for Benford's law irregularity analysis [25–27].

269 Data from the Statistics Portugal database (INE) were subject to the following selection:

- 270 1. Source - Statistics Portugal, Vegetable production statistics
- 271 2. Name of the table - Wine production declared in grape must (hl) by producers by  
272 Vinification location (NUTS - 2013) and quality and colour of wine (New regulation) -  
273 annual
- 274 3. Measure unit (symbol) - Hectolitre (hl)

275 The data included the locations of wine producers where they produce must through the  
276 vinification process. The database lists 308 official geographical areas of Portugal  
277 (municipales) where information on the grape must produced was collected. The data collected  
278 is the same as the available financial data of companies in the wine production sector (2014 -  
279 2023).

280 The irregularities in financial and non-financial data that occurred will be assessed using  
281 Benford's Law. This Law is not limited to specific phenomena and units of measurement. It is  
282 a universal concept that refers to analysing the distributions of digits occurring in measures of  
283 various natural, financial, and non-financial phenomena. The frequency of occurrence of  
284 specific digits in a given place in a number can be described by the logarithmic formula  
285 proposed by Benford. We calculate the Benford distribution as follows [2]:

$$286 \quad BL(d) = \log \left( 1 + \frac{1}{d} \right)$$

287 Where:

288 d – number of digits

289 Based on the calculation formula for the Benford distribution, you can obtain information about  
290 the frequency of digits in the number in the first place from the left for the first-digit test. Figure  
291 1 shows the Benford distribution for the first digit.

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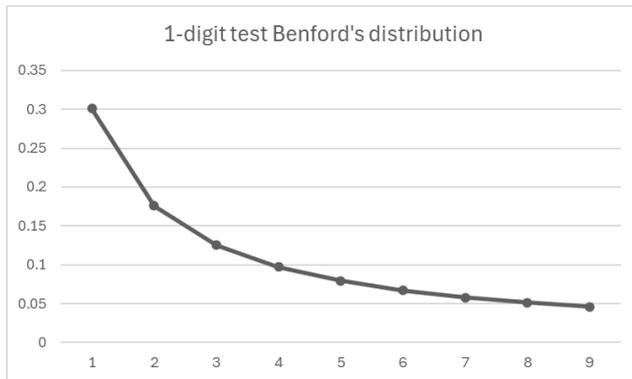
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300 **Figure 1. Benford's distribution – 1-digit test**

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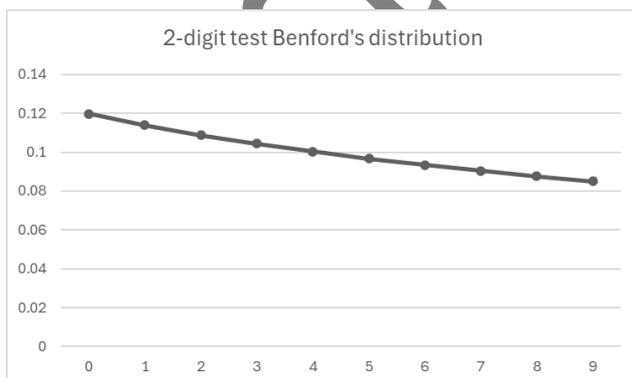
303 Source: Authors' calculation

304

305 Based on Figure 1, it can be observed that the digit 1 appears most frequently (30%) as the  
306 leading digit in the data representing the analysed phenomenon, while the digit 9 appears the  
307 least often (4%). Discrepancies between the actual digit distribution, such as assets or revenues,  
308 and the expected Benford distribution may suggest the presence of anomalies that warrant  
309 further investigation. These irregularities might stem from data manipulation, for instance, due  
310 to rounding practices employed by companies when reporting financial information or errors in  
311 data collection. Additionally, anomalies could result from the construction of the research  
312 sample, such as restricting companies based on the size of a specific variable. In such cases,  
313 analysing the second-digit distribution may provide further insight.

314

315 **Figure 2. Benford's distribution – 2-digit test**



316

317 Source: Authors' calculation

318

319 The first-digit test examines the frequency distribution of digits ranging from 1 to 9, whereas  
320 the second-digit test analyses digits from 0 to 9. The second-digit test is particularly useful for  
321 identifying underlying irregularities or inconsistencies within the data. [16].

322 The study of deviations between the empirical (for each variable) and theoretical (Benford)  
323 distributions can be measured using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Chi-squared, and Mean  
324 Absolute Deviation (MAD) test [1, 2, 20, 28]. The conformity with Benford's Law is tested by  
325 Isaković-Kaplan, Demirović, and Proho [25] or Adahali and Hall [29], who used all three  
326 approaches. MAD is also used by Půček, Plaček, Ochrana [30] or Van Caneghem [31]. The  
327 previous application of the Chi-squared test for this purpose can be found in the research of  
328 González [32], Cella and Zanolla [33], or Geyer and Drechsler [34]. Aggarwal, Dharni [35] and  
329 Badal-Valero, Alvarez-Jareño, Pavía [36] have already used the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for  
330 this kind of comparison. The K-S test applies to the study of the fit of distributions for smaller  
331 research samples [37]. Carno [38] analysed the conformity of empirical data (pandemic-related  
332 data) with Benford's distribution through a literature review and found that the most frequently  
333 used conformity tests were the Chi-square test (21 out of 26 studies), the Mean Absolute  
334 Deviation (MAD) test (11 out of 26), and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (9 out of 26).  
335 Moreover, seven studies used both Chi-square and K-S tests, eight used Chi-square and MAD,  
336 and four employed all three methods simultaneously.

337 Figueiredo and Silva [39] utilised multiple conformity tests, including the Chi-squared, K-S,  
338 and MAD tests. They observed that as the sample size increases, statistical tests tend to become  
339 more sensitive, raising the likelihood of detecting smaller deviations. It has been noted that the  
340 Chi-squared test is particularly sensitive to sample size [40]. However, the excessive statistical  
341 power typically becomes noticeable only for datasets exceeding 5,000 records [2]. In our  
342 research, the variables: profit before tax, loss before tax and wine production, all consist of  
343 fewer than 5,000 observations, thereby mitigating this concern (Tables 2, 3 and 4). The other  
344 variables, revenues, assets, and stock, exceeded 5,000 observations. In the study, the conformity  
345 of distributions (both empirical and theoretical) is measured using the Chi-2 test, K-S test and  
346 MAD [41].

347 MAD provides a more robust measure of conformity with Benford's Law than other statistical  
348 measures. It can handle outliers, detect minor deviations, and is based on a strong statistical  
349 foundation [2, 42, 43]. In this study, MAD:

350

$$MAD = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i - m(X)|$$

351 Where:

352  $m(X)$  – average data value

353  $n$  – number of data values

354  $x_i$  – data values in the set

355 Depending on the level of MAD, it can be considered a close conformity, an acceptable  
356 conformity, a marginally acceptable conformity, or a nonconformity. The ranges for MAD are  
357 presented in Table 1. MAD does not test the hypothesis of whether two samples originate from  
358 the same or different distributions. MAD provides the level of conformity.

359

360 **Table 1. Ranges for Mean Absolute Deviation**

Digit	Range	Conclusion
<b>First-digit</b>	0,000 - 0,006	close conformity
	0,006 - 0,012	acceptable conformity
	0,012 - 0,015	marginally acceptable conformity
	above 0,015	Nonconformity
<b>Second-digit</b>	0,000 - 0,008	close conformity
	0,008 - 0,010	acceptable conformity
	0,010 - 0,012	marginally acceptable conformity
	above 0,012	Nonconformity

361 Source: based on Nigrini [2]

362

363 Measuring the fit of MAD distributions is commonly used to determine the conformity of an  
364 empirical distribution with the Benford distribution [44, 45]. The rejection threshold for  
365 distribution conformity is 0.015 for the first-digit test. For the second-digit test, the  
366 nonconformity threshold is 0.012.

367 The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, in contrast, is a nonparametric statistic based on the empirical  
368 distribution function [2, 25]. It is used to determine whether a random sample originates from  
369 a specified continuous distribution.

370 Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (K-S)

$$371 \quad D_{n_1, n_2} = \sup_{-\infty < x < \infty} |F_{1, n_1}(x) - F_{2, n_2}(x)|$$

372 Where:

373  $F_{1, n_1}(x)$  – empirical distribution function of the first sample

374  $F_{2, n_2}(x)$  – empirical distribution function of the second sample

375

376 Two distribution functions are compared using the following test criterion:

377 
$$\sqrt{\frac{n_1 n_2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}} D_{n_1 n_2} > K_\alpha$$

378 Where:

379  $n_1$  - number of observations of the first sample

380  $n_2$  - number of observations of the second sample

381  $K_\alpha$  - test criterion at level  $\alpha$

382 The tested hypotheses are:

383  $H_0$ : Two univariate random variables come from the same probability distribution.

384  $H_1$ : Two univariate random variables do not come from the same probability distribution.

385

386 The Chi-square test (Chi-2) is a nonparametric statistical method used to determine whether an  
387 observed frequency distribution differs significantly from an expected theoretical distribution  
388 [2]. It is commonly applied to categorical data to assess how well the observed data fit a  
389 specified model.

390 Chi-square test ( $\chi^2$ )

391 
$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(e - t)^2}{t}$$

392 Where:

393  $n$  – total number of phenotypic classes

394  $e$  – experimental frequency of the  $i$ -th class

395  $t$  – theoretical frequency of the  $i$ -th class

396 The tested hypotheses are:

397  $H_0$ : The observed frequency distribution is consistent with the theoretical distribution.

398  $H_1$ : The observed frequency distribution is not consistent with the theoretical distribution.

399 Carno [38] reported that at least one of the conformity tests indicated nonconformity even when  
400 other tests did not. Consequently, the assumption applied in our research is that if at least one  
401 of the applied tests (Chi-2, K-S or MAD) indicates nonconformity between empirical and  
402 theoretical distributions, this may serve as evidence of potential anomalies.

403 The analysis and statistical evaluation were processed using MS Excel for extracting digits and  
404 the MAD test, and Statistica 13.3 for the Chi-2 test and the KS test.

405 **4. Research results and discussion**

406 Upon examining the financial data of companies from the wine production sector, a subset of  
407 companies met the criteria described in the methodological section. The mere indication of a  
408 company belonging to the NACE 1102 sector in Portugal does not mean that the BvD Orbis  
409 database will include figures on financial results and company resources. The first-digit test  
410 requires the first digit of the values of the relevant variables in the study to be analysed between  
411 1 and 9. Table 2 presents the final research sample, excluding companies with missing financial  
412 data from the database and those with variables of 0.

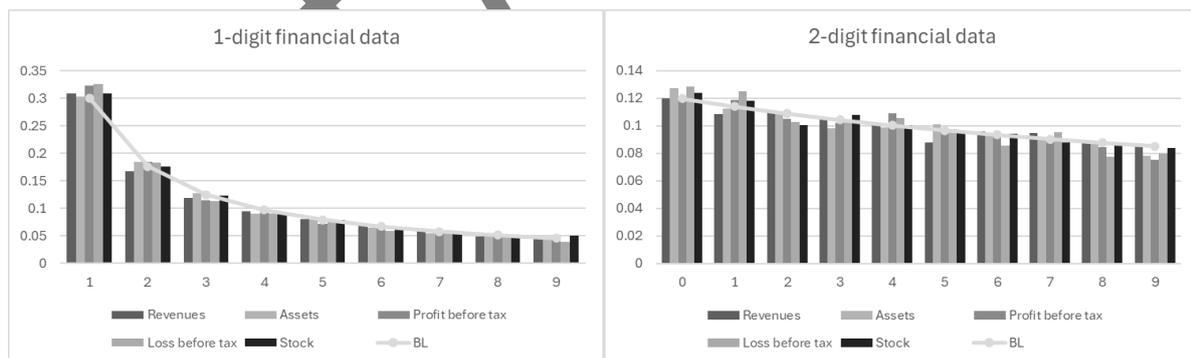
413 The second-digit test requires seeing which variables have values greater than 10. It is a  
414 condition for the second digit in the number. Therefore, only those companies that reported data  
415 for individual variables were selected from the database: stock, total assets, operating revenue,  
416 or profit before tax with a value of at least 10. Table 3 shows the number of observations for  
417 each variable.

418 Figure 3 illustrates the first- and second-digit tests for data from the financial statements of  
419 companies in the Portuguese wine industry. It can be observed that the digits in the first and  
420 second positions of operating revenue, total assets, profit before tax, loss before tax, and  
421 inventories conform to the theoretical values implied by Benford's Law.

422

423 **Figure 3. Financial data: assets, revenues, profit before tax, loss before tax, inventories**  
424 **(2014 - 2023)**

425



426

427 Source: Authors' calculation.

428

429 Table 2 presents the results of three goodness-of-fit tests for financial variables: revenues,  
430 assets, profit before tax, loss before tax, and stock. It can be noted that for the profit before tax  
431 variable, two tests indicated acceptance of the alternative hypothesis: chi-square (the observed  
432 frequencies differ from the expected frequencies) and K-S (the sample does not follow the

433 specified distribution). The lack of consistency between the distributions demonstrated by the  
 434 chi-square and K-S tests may suggest anomalies in determining profit before tax. A closer  
 435 examination of profit formation in Portuguese wine sector companies would enable an  
 436 assessment of the potential scale of earnings management practices in these companies.

437 **Table 2. 1-digit test Chi2, K-S and MAD results**

Variable	No. Obs.	Chi-2	decision	K-S test	decision	MAD	decision
<b>Revenues</b>	6766	12.061	conformity	0.500	conformity	0.004	close
<b>p-value</b>		p = 0.149		p > 0.05			conformity
<b>Assets</b>	7503	9.924	conformity	0.797	conformity	0.003	close
<b>p-value</b>		p = 0.270		p > 0.05			conformity
<b>Profit before tax</b>	4345	18.967	<b>nonconformity</b>	1.469	<b>nonconformity</b>	0.007	acceptable
<b>p-value</b>		p = 0.015		p < 0.05			conformity
<b>Loss before tax</b>	2506	14.945	conformity	1.135	conformity	0.008	acceptable
<b>p-value</b>		p = 0.060		p > 0.05			conformity
<b>Stock</b>	6098	7.128	conformity	0.485	conformity	0.003	close
<b>p-value</b>		p = 0.523		p > 0.05			conformity

438 Df = 8, at 5%, critical value Chi2 (8) = 15.507; critical value K-S test = 1.36

439 Source: Authors' calculation.

440  
 441 For the remaining variables: revenues, assets, loss before tax, and stock, the results of the first-  
 442 digit test using the chi-square and K-S goodness-of-fit measures indicate no basis for rejecting  
 443 the null hypothesis that the observed counts for digits 1 to 9 do not differ from the expected  
 444 counts based on the Benford distribution. The MAD measure additionally introduces a range of  
 445 fit, and for all these variables, the range of fit is either close conformity or acceptable  
 446 conformity.

447 **Table 3. 2-digit test Chi2, K-S and MAD results**

Variable	No. Obs	Chi2	decision	K-S test	decision	MAD	decision
<b>Revenues</b>	6321	9.746	conformit y	0.532	conformit y	0.003	close
<b>p-value</b>		p = 0.371		p > 0.05			conformit y
<b>Assets</b>	7190	12.310	conformit y	0.471	conformit y	0.003	close

		p = 0.196		p > 0.05			conformity
<b>Profit before tax</b>	3114	7.799	conformity	0.512	conformity	0.004	acceptable conformity
		p = 0.554		p > 0.05			
<b>Loss before tax</b>	1768	8.418	conformity	0.589	conformity	0.007	acceptable conformity
		p = 0.493		p > 0.05			
<b>Stock</b>	5561	6.433	conformity	0.447	conformity	0.003	close conformity
		p = 0.696		p > 0.05			

448 Df = 9, at 5%, critical value Chi2 (9) = 16.919, critical value K-S test = 1.36

449 Source: Authors' calculation.

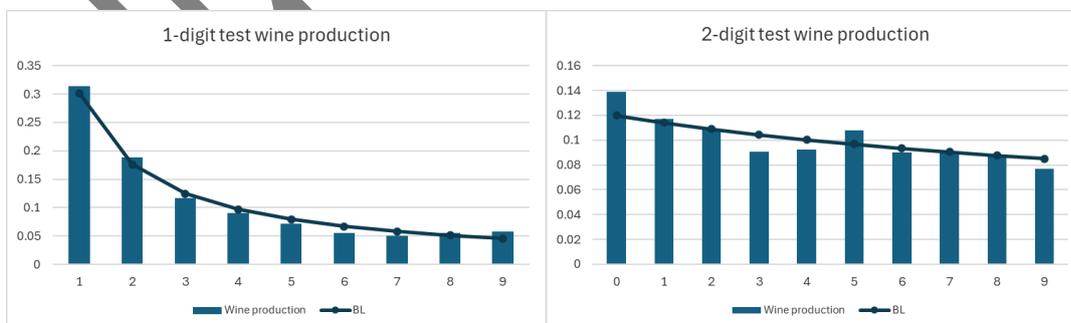
450

451 Table 3 presents the results for the second-digit test. All goodness-of-fit tests indicate goodness-  
452 of-fit distributions or no basis for rejecting the hypothesis that there is no difference in observed  
453 and expected numbers. For the second-digit test, the analysis ranged from digits 0 to 9.

454 The next step in the study is to verify the statistical data on wine must production in Portugal.  
455 The study examined anomalies in the distribution of the amount of wine must produced in 308  
456 regions of Portugal between 2014 and 2023 using the first- and second-digit tests. The data  
457 collectively refer to the production of must from white and red grapes and various appellations:  
458 Generous wine by protected designation of origin, wine by protected designation of origin, wine  
459 by protected geographical indication, wine with grape variety indication, and wine without  
460 certification.

461

462 **Figure 4. Wine production stat data (2014 – 2023)**



463

464 Source: Authors' calculation, based on INE database.

465

466 Table 4 presents the results of the first and second digit tests for the grape must production  
 467 variable. The chi-square goodness-of-fit test supported the alternative hypothesis that the  
 468 empirical and theoretical observation counts were significantly different for both the first and  
 469 second digit tests. Although the remaining K-S and MAD goodness-of-fit tests did not reveal  
 470 any discrepancies in the distributions, the chi-square test indicates irregularities that require  
 471 further investigation.

472

473 **Table 4. 1-digit and 2-digit test Chi-2, K-S and MAD wine production results**

Variable	No.	Chi2	decision	K-S test	decision	MAD	decision
<b>1-digit test wine production</b>	2349	22.859 p = 0.004	<b>nonconformity</b>	0.835 p > 0.05	conformity	0.009	acceptable conformity
<b>2-digit test wine production</b>	2281	17.815 p = 0.037	<b>nonconformity</b>	0.758 p > 0.05	conformity	0.007	close conformity

474 Df = 8, at 5%, critical value Chi2 (8) = 15.507; critical value K-S test = 1.36

475 Df = 9, at 5%, critical value Chi2 (9) = 16.919, critical value K-S test = 1.36

476 Source: Authors' calculation.

477

478 Based on the results of the first-digit and second-digit tests (Table 4) for grape must production,  
 479 it can be seen that the chi-square test indicates a lack of basis for accepting the null hypothesis  
 480 of equality between the empirical and theoretical digit distributions. The lack of conformity  
 481 between the distributions, as indicated by the chi-square test, may result from difficulties in  
 482 obtaining this data by statistical offices [16]. Possible causes of nonconformity of distributions  
 483 may include data entry errors or misinterpretation during data collection, as well as  
 484 inconsistencies in data processing methods [20].

485

## 486 5. Conclusions

487 This study examined the application of Benford's Law to identify irregularities in financial and  
 488 production data within the Portuguese wine industry. By examining company-level financial  
 489 variables — such as operating revenues, total assets, profit before tax, loss before tax, and  
 490 inventories — alongside official statistics on wine must production across 308 regions, the  
 491 research provides a robust evaluation of data integrity over ten years (2014–2023). The first-  
 492 and second-digit test results demonstrate strong conformity with Benford's expected digit

493 distributions, with Mean Absolute Deviation (MAD) values falling within the ranges of close  
494 or acceptable conformity. To confirm the consistency of the distributions, the study employed  
495 the Chi-squared and the K-S tests in addition to the MAD. The Chi-2 and K-S test results  
496 indicate a lack of consistency in one case of the financial variable (profit before tax) and in the  
497 wine production variable (wine must production).

498 These findings hold important implications. First, they validate the use of financial and  
499 statistical data in subsequent economic modelling, sectoral studies, and policy assessments in  
500 viticulture. Second, they demonstrate the applicability of Benford's Law in the wine production  
501 sector, providing a replicable methodology for auditing financial and non-financial data.  
502 Parreño [20] revealed significant deviations from the expected Benford distribution, indicating  
503 potential issues with data accuracy, collection methods, or reporting irregularities. These  
504 deviations highlight the importance of data validation in wine production statistics. The  
505 problem of obtaining precise data in the agriculture sector was highlighted by Hanci [16]. Our  
506 findings revealed that some irregularities were detected in the Portuguese wine sector, as  
507 indicated in data collected by the statistical office.

508 The causes of irregularities may differ between companies that report profits and those that  
509 report losses. A discrepancy in the distribution of pre-tax profits may suggest actions related to  
510 corporate earnings management. The literature offers explanations for the detected irregularities  
511 in financial figures, including rounding errors [34, 46, 47], fraud detection [2, 11], and  
512 adjustments to comply with legal regulations [48, 49]. Revealed in the survey, nonconformity  
513 in reported profit before tax indicates the threat of earnings management and financial figure  
514 manipulation [2, 50]. The findings revealed the need to assess earnings management in the wine  
515 production sector and identify the reasons for nonconformity. These actions prompt further  
516 research to conduct a first two-digit test to select companies whose first-digit pre-tax profits  
517 had the most significant deviations.

518 Moreover, the results of this study may inform the work of public institutions and regulatory  
519 bodies, particularly in areas such as tax compliance, subsidy allocation, and agricultural  
520 monitoring. By ensuring that datasets are reliable, authorities can base their decisions on solid  
521 evidence. In the private sector, wineries and investors may employ similar analytical  
522 approaches to audit internal data, enhance transparency, and mitigate the risk of reporting errors  
523 or fraud.

524 However, the study has certain limitations. Benford's Law can identify anomalies, but does not  
525 reveal the specific causes of irregularities. Additionally, the data may be affected by limitations

526 in availability or representativeness, particularly for smaller producers. Future research could  
527 expand its scope to other wine-producing countries or examine trends in data quality over time.

528

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