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Financial Resilience of Spanish Wineries during the COVID-19 Lockdown

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Abstract

Purpose – The research focuses on the impact of COVID-19 on the Spanish wine sector and the financial resilience of Spanish wineries in the period 2019-2020.

Design/methodology/approach –The dataset contains 355 limited companies of the Spanish wine sector which were active in the period 2019-2020. The explanatory variables used are size and age of the company, exports, subsidies, and gender distribution in the workforce. The financial statements of the companies are treated as compositional data, using log-ratios for asset structure, leverage, margin, turnover, and debt maturity. The first-difference estimator is used for the panel-data model relating the differences in the log-ratios between 2020 and 2019 to the explanatory variables.

Findings – In average terms, margin and turnover have significantly worsened between 2019 and 2020 while debt maturity has increased. A larger firm size, a greater age, a higher share of women in the workforce, and subsidies have made wineries more resilient between 2019 and 2020.

Originality/value – This is the first financial statement analysis of the impact of COVID-19 in the winery sector.

Keywords COVID19, Spain, compositional data (CoDa), financial ratios, financial statement analysis, wine industry

Paper type Research paper

Introduction

The Spanish wine sector was especially affected by COVID-19 during the 2019-2020 period, and there were notable changes at the economic and social level, directly related to sales, exports, innovation and employment (Marco-Lajara *et al.*, 2021). The significant impact of COVID-19 on the wine sector in 2020 led to a 14% drop in sales worldwide (Lu, 2020; Wittwer and Anderson, 2021), the loss of traditional distribution channels (Coyne, 2020) and the indirect impact on other sectors of activity related to the wine sector (DeYoung, 2020; Almeida et al., 2022). Specifically, with COVID-19 there have been changes such as the opening of new digital distribution channels (Coyne, 2020) and the transition towards more social, sustainable and hybrid business models, with subsidies from the government and from associations (DeYoung, 2020), along with new digital experiences in the sector (Carmer *et al.*, 2020). All these changes have had an impact on the financial statements of companies in the sector.

In Spain, the sector generates many jobs in the 17 autonomous communities that produce wine, and it helps prevent the depopulation of certain rural areas. In addition, it is a sector subject to innovation, which attracts tourism thanks to the 70 Denominations of Origin (DO) and the 42 Protected Geographical Indications, with an internationalized wine resulting from its exports and the fact that it represents 13% of vineyard surface worldwide (Vizcaino *et al.*, 2020). It should be borne in mind that before the pandemic the sector generated 2.2% of gross value added and 2.4% of jobs in Spain, and that this country was the world's largest exporter of wine in volume and the third in value (Vizcaino *et al.*, 2020). It is, therefore, an important sector at both an economic and social level, with a demographic challenge in certain depopulated rural areas, and which can help to structure the territory, even more so with the growing wine tourism (Vizcaino *et al.*, 2020).

Having presented the background, the aim of this study is to analyze the impact of COVID-19 on the financial statements of the Spanish wine sector, highlighting the financial resilience of the companies in the sector to survive the pandemic. With this purpose, a dynamic regression model of the evolution of the financial ratios of Spanish wineries between 2019 and 2020 is presented where the predictors of resilience are identified.

This issue is important, since the pandemic has aroused scientific interest in the financial impact on the wine sector in the face of health crises such as COVID-19 as an unprecedented exceptional situation.

The contribution of this article to the academic knowledge makes it possible to assess the impact of subsidies, the gender perspective, and other variables to mitigate the pandemic effects. At a professional level, it makes it possible to determine which factors are relevant in the event of pandemics or potential health crises with economic and social impact. Thus, the main contribution of the study is to identify and explain the variables that positively affect the resilience of the sector in the face of a pandemic and that can serve as a reference to companies that intend to increase their resilience to face this type of exceptional scenarios. On the other hand, the analysis of the financial statements in the wine sector before and after COVID-19 allows us to assess the appropriate decisions to manage the pandemic and survive COVID-19. In this respect it should be considered that the wine sector represents an important economic activity in many countries, due to the

jobs and income it generates (Migliaccio and Tucci, 2019). This article analyses for the first time the financial statements of companies in the wine sector in times of COVID-19.

After the introduction, this article first presents the review of the literature and the hypotheses, then the methodology, then the results and their discussion, and finally the conclusions.

Literature review

The health emergency caused by COVID-19 forces academics to investigate its effects on the performance of companies (Almeida *et al.*, 2022; Paoloni and Cosentino, 2021) although in the Spanish wine sector there are no studies on the effects of COVID-19 on the financial statements. Furthermore, as a result of the pandemic, the economic and social model has been revised (Juliá Igual *et al.*, 2022) in different sectors. Particularly in the wine sector, a degree of resilience is detected in production, distribution, sale, and consumption (Vergamini *et al.*, 2021). In other words, the pandemic highlights the resistance of organizations and their survival with the appropriate management systems. Thus, in the wine sector, the study of financial resilience is relevant due to the sector's exposure to natural disasters, and to the need for innovation and for a proper winery management (Casprini *et al.*, 2022; Wittwer and Anderson, 2021).

This article focuses on the search for the organizational and situational predictors of the financial resilience of the sector during the pandemic, in order to detect the key factors of its survival, including its management system considering gender policy, due to its relevance in the sector (Casprini *et al.*, 2022; Paoloni and Cosentino, 2021). The period 2019-2020 is analyzed to assess the impact of the pandemic.

The financial ratios that are used as indicators of financial resilience and as dependent variables are asset structure, indebtedness, and debt maturity (to assess whether the debt is excessive and its maturity in the short term), as well as margin and turnover (to assess their decline during the pandemic).

Margin (Bresciani *et al.*, 2016; Muñoz *et al.*, 2021; Neves *et al.*, 2022; Soler *et al.*, 2017) and turnover (Challita *et al.*, 2017) are decisive in this analysis since both are the components of the return on assets. Excessive indebtedness (Migliaccio and Tucci, 2019; Muñoz *et al.*, 2021; Neves *et al.*, 2021; Rodríguez-Cohard *et al.*, 2021) is a clear and universally recognized threat to the survivability of companies. An asset structure (Castillo Valero and García Cortijo, 2013; Migliaccio and Tucci 2019) with too high a current-asset weight can reveal an excess in unsold stock or unpaid receivables. The role of debt maturity (Bernardi, 2021) is more controversial. Debt maturity can increase as a result of converting short-term debt to long-term debt, which increases the survivability of the company, but it can also increase as a result of a reduction in activity and hence in the volume of accounts payable.

The hypotheses with respect to the determinants of the financial resilience are as follows.

With regards to the size of the company, Ozdemir *et al.* (2022) highlight the more efficient risk management in large companies; Juliá Igual *et al.* (2022) and Chen and Yang (2021) state that business size is decisive in dealing with the pandemic and Zahedi *et al.* (2021);

Ichsani *et al.* (2021); and Pattiruhu and Paais (2020) indicate that company size affects the financial structure. This leads us to the following hypothesis:

H1. The larger companies in the wine sector have more financial resilience.

As regards the age of the company Gallizo *et al.* (2019) point out that difficult financial situations are better overcome by companies that have already demonstrated their ability to survive, in other words, companies that have been established for years. Therefore, the following hypothesis is put forward:

H2. The older companies in the wine sector have more financial resilience.

The subsidies firms receive represent a valuable resource to face different challenges that companies face throughout their life span (DeYoung, 2020; Duarte-Alonso, 2015; Duarte-Alonso and Bressan; 2015). Specifically, in the Spanish case, the wine sector accessed subsidies for COVID-19 from the government, as detailed by Marco-Lajara *et al.* (2021). More generally, Zahedi *et al.* (2021) report government support for determinant factors of financial resilience. Therefore, the following hypothesis is put forward:

H3. Companies that receive government capital grants and subsidies in the wine sector have more financial resilience.

Regarding the percentage of women in the workforce, when there is a larger share of women, the financial performance of the company tends to be considered together with environmental performance, as stated by Gazzola *et al.* (2022). In addition, Paoloni and Cosentino (2021) point out that when there are women in the management team, in difficult times such as the pandemic, adversities are responded to with more fluidity and skill. Therefore, the following hypothesis is posed:

H4. A higher presence of women in the workforce implies more financial resilience in the wine sector.

Whether the company exported or not was also affected by the pandemic. Specifically, Expósito-Langa *et al.* (2021) indicate that exports internationalize wine and should not be interrupted in adverse situations, although the pandemic was exceptional. Moreover, Mozas-Moral *et al.* (2021) establish that the internationalization of wine is decisive for improving the performance of wineries and for being able to recover quickly from adverse situations. In a similar vein, Wittwer and Anderson, (2021) consider that exports should be diversified to discover new markets and diversify risk in different countries to resist difficult situations. Therefore, the following hypothesis is put forward:

H5. Exports in the wine sector imply more financial resilience.

On the other hand, at the level of control variables, the geographical areas analysed and the typology of the companies (public limited versus private limited) may also affect the resilience of wine companies (Expósito-Langa *et al.*, 2021; Juliá Igual *et al.*, 2022; Zahedi *et al.*, 2021). Specifically, the areas analyzed in this study have different strategic management policies, such as having a single DO in the case of La Rioja or having 12 DOs as in the case of Catalonia, with implications for instance on the international marketing of wine. These policies are irrespective of the geographic proximity of the analyzed territories (Arimany-Serrat and Farreras-Noguer, 2020).

Method

Data

Financial statements were obtained from the SABI (Iberian Balance sheet Analysis System, accessible at https://sabi.bvdinfo.com/) database, developed by INFORMA D&B in collaboration with Bureau Van Dijk. Search criteria were winery companies (NACE 1102 "Manufacture of wine from grape") in Spain with available data for 2019 and 2020, with the form of public and private limited companies, with at least ten employees, and with positive sales values both in 2019 and 2020. The search was performed on 10th January 2022. 370 firms complied with the search criteria. The total net sales of these firms is 2815 million Euro in 2019, accounting for 87% of the net sales of the sector in Spain. All data accord to the current 2007 General Accounting Plan in Spain and are thus comparable with respect to accounting methods and criteria.

The explanatory variables related to the hypotheses and the control variables, as available in the SABI data base, refer to 2019 and are:

- Number of employees, log transformed, as an indicator of company size (Hypothesis H1).
- Firm age in years (Hypothesis H2).
- The firm gets capital grants or subsidies (yes, no; Hypothesis H3).
- The workforce gender distribution (High: proportion of women larger than the median, Low: proportion of women lower than the median, Not disclosed; Hypothesis H4).
- The firm exports part of its produce (yes, no; Hypothesis H5).
- Spanish region (*comunidad autónoma*) in which the firm is located (AND: Andalusia, ARA: Aragon, BC: Basque Country, BI: Balearic Islands, CAT: Catalonia, CI: Canary Islands, CL: Castile-Leon, CM: Castile-La Mancha, EXT: Extremadura, GAL: Galicia, MAD: Madrid Community, MUR: Murcia Region, NAV: Navarre, RIO: La Rioja, VAL: Valencian Community; control variable).
- Type of limited company (public, private; control variable).

Statistical analysis

When treated as variables in statistical analyses, standard financial ratios of turnover, margin, indebtedness, asset structure, and debt maturity have been reported to incur a number of serious statistical and practical problems which seriously affect statistical inference, such as asymmetry (Faello, 2015; Linares-Mustarós *et al.*, 2022), non-linearity (Cowen and Hoffer, 1982), severe non-normality (Deakin, 1976; So, 1987), and even dependence of the results on the arbitrary decision regarding which accounting magnitude appears in the numerator and which in the denominator of the ratio (Frecka and Hopwood, 1983).

The Compositional Data (CoDa) methodology, dating back from four decades ago (Aitchison, 1982; 1986), has recently become a well-established toolbox when the research interest lies in ratios among the data (Egozcue and Pawlowsky-Glahn, 2019) and is available in accessible textbooks (van den Boogaart and Tolosana-Delgado, 2013;

Filzmoser *et al.*, 2018; Greenacre, 2018; Pawlowsky-Glahn *et al.*, 2015). This methodology can be effectively used to solve the statistical problems of ratios mentioned in the previous paragraph (Carreras-Simó and Coenders, 2020; Creixans-Tenas *et al.*, 2019; Saus-Sala *et al.*, 2021). Far from being a statistical refinement, the CoDa methodology leads to very substantial differences in the analysis results whenever it has been compared to standard financial ratios in several industries (Carreras-Simó and Coenders, 2021; Jofre-Campuzano and Coenders, 2022; Linares-Mustarós *et al.*, 2018), including the winery sector (Arimany-Serrat *et al.*, 2022; Linares-Mustarós *et al.*, 2022).

The CoDa methodology proceeds by defining a set of log-transformed financial ratios computed from positive and non-overlapping accounting figures (Creixans-Tenas *et al.,* 2019). In our article we consider the following:

x_1 =non-current assets	
x_2 =current assets	
x_3 = non-current liabilities	
x_4 =current liabilities	
<i>x</i> ₅ =operating revenues	
x_6 =operating costs + financial costs.	(1)

These accounting figures make it possible to compute the intended ratios of turnover, margin, indebtedness, asset structure, and debt maturity.

The so-called isometric log-ratio (ilr) coordinates (Egozcue and Pawlowsky-Glahn, 2005; Egozcue *et al.*, 2003) are the most often recommended log-ratio transformation in CoDa, on the grounds that they are usable in virtually any statistical analysis. Ilr coordinates can be easily formed from a sequential binary partition (SBP) of accounting figures. To create the first ilr coordinate, the complete composition x_1, x_2, \dots, x_6 is split into two subsets of accounting figures: one for the numerator and the other for the denominator of the log-ratio. In the following step, one of the two subsets is further split to create the second ilr coordinate. At any step, the ilr coordinate is a scaled log-ratio of the geometric averages of each subset of accounting magnitudes. The researcher chooses the SBP which lends itself to building analogues to the standard financial ratios of interest. The SBP is commonly expressed as a sign matrix, in which positive signs the accounting figures in the numerator of the ilr coordinate, and negative signs the accounting figures in the denominator. Blank cells indicate the accounting figures which are neither in the numerator nor in the denominator. The SBP we use in this article is:

	Zl	Z_2	Z3	Z4	Z5		
x_1 : Non-current assets	-		-	+			
<i>x</i> ₂ : Current assets	-		-	-			
<i>x</i> ₃ : Non-current liabilities	-		+		+		
x_4 : Current liabilities	-		+		-		
<i>x5</i> : Revenues	+	+					
<i>x</i> ₆ : Costs	+	-					
							(2)

At the start of the SBP the z_1 coordinate splits the whole composition into revenues and costs versus assets and liabilities. Altogether it can be interpreted as a turnover indicator.

Actually, it represents a generalized concept of turnover covering not only how many times revenues pay for assets but also how many times costs are contained in liabilities:

$$z_1 = \sqrt{\frac{8}{6}} \log \frac{\sqrt[2]{x_5 x_6}}{\sqrt[4]{x_1 x_2 x_3 x_4}}.$$
 (3)

The second partition splits revenues versus costs and the resulting z_2 coordinate can be interpreted as a margin indicator:

$$z_2 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} \log\left(\frac{x_5}{x_6}\right). \tag{4}$$

The third partition splits the balance sheet into liabilities versus assets and the resulting z_3 coordinate is an indicator of indebtedness:

$$z_3 = \sqrt{\frac{4}{4}} \log \frac{\sqrt[2]{x_3 x_4}}{\sqrt[2]{x_1 x_2}}.$$
 (5)

The fourth partition splits assets into non-current and current, and the resulting z_4 coordinate can be interpreted as an asset-structure indicator. The higher the coordinate the greater the non-current-asset share:

$$z_4 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} \log\left(\frac{x_1}{x_2}\right). \tag{6}$$

The fifth partition splits liabilities into non-current and current, and the resulting z_5 coordinate can be interpreted as a debt-maturity indicator:

$$z_5 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}} \log\left(\frac{x_3}{x_4}\right). \tag{7}$$

The factors $\sqrt{8/6}$, $\sqrt{1/2}$ and $\sqrt{4/4}$ are scaling constants which take into consideration the number of accounting figures involved in the coordinates and do not affect their interpretation or their relationships with other variables (see Egozcue *et al.*, 2003 and Linares-Mustarós *et al.*, 2018; 2022 for details). Five ilr coordinates contain all the information about the relative importance of the six original accounting magnitudes (Linares-Mustarós *et al.*, 2018).

The accounting figures of interest may contain no zero values in order for log-ratios to be computed (Martín-Fernández *et al.*, 2011). The same holds for standard financial ratio analysis regarding the figure in the denominator. Unlike the case in standard-financial-ratio analysis, CoDa include an advanced toolbox for zero imputation prior to log-ratio computation. This makes financial statement analysis possible even when some accounting figures of interest equal zero. We use the modified EM approach in Palarea-Albaladejo and Martín-Fernández (2008) which is recommended when there are few zeros in the dataset. Only non-current liabilities (x_3) had 3.8 % and 4.1 % zero values in

2019 and 2020 respectively.

In order to detect extreme outliers, squared Mahalanobis distances are computed on the ilr coordinates which, under multivariate normality and for large samples, follow approximately a χ^2 distribution (Filzmoser *et al.*, 2018). An appropriate percentile for this distribution (e.g. $0.95^{(1/n)}$ to take multiple testing into account with a global significance level 0.05) can be used as cut-off criterion for outlier detection (Coenders and Saez, 2000). The number of identified outliers is 15 firms, which are removed from the dataset, thus leaving 355 usable firms.

Once zeros have been imputed, outliers have been removed, and ilr coordinates have been computed, any statistical analysis, no matter how simple or sophisticated, can be performed with standard statistical methods (Arimany-Serrat *et al.*, 2022; Carreras-Simó and Coenders, 2021; Linares-Mustarós *et al.*, 2018; 2022), starting with ordinary least squares regression, in which the ilr coordinates computed from the financial statement figures are either explanatory or dependent variables (Coenders and Pawlowsky-Glahn, 2020; Egozcue *et al.*, 2011), which may be static models for cross-sectional data, or dynamic models for panel data as in our case (Carreras-Simó and Coenders, 2021).

Since we are interested in the factors which determine resilience of wineries to the COVID-19 shock, the main dependent variables y_1 to y_5 are differences of the coordinates z_1 to z_5 between 2020 and 2019 (this approach is related to the first-difference estimation for panel-data models, e.g. Wooldridge, 2010):

$$y_{1} = z_{1,2020} - z_{1,2019}$$

$$y_{2} = z_{2,2020} - z_{2,2019}$$

$$y_{3} = z_{3,2020} - z_{3,2019}$$

$$y_{4} = z_{4,2020} - z_{4,2019}$$

$$y_{5} = z_{5,2020} - z_{5,2019}.$$
(8)

The explanatory and control variables are age, employees, exports, subsidies, gender distribution, region, and company type, coded as described above. The initial values $z_{1,2019}$ to $z_{5,2019}$ are also included in all equations as statistical controls of the starting situation of each firm (Maynou *et al.*, 2016), and they are not interpreted. The five equations are thus specified as follows:

$$y_i = f \begin{pmatrix} \text{employees, age, subsidies, gender distribution, exports,} \\ \text{region, company type, } z_{i,2019} \end{pmatrix}, i = 1 \cdots 5.$$
 (9)

It is also of interest to evaluate the determinants of the financial indicators immediately before the COVID-19 shock in order to have a joint picture of the drivers of the start situation and the changes after the pandemic outbreak. Being better off before the start of a crisis also makes firms more resilient. With this purpose, the following set of five equations is specified:

$$z_{i,2019} = f \begin{pmatrix} \text{employees, age, subsidies, gender distribution, exports,} \\ \text{region, company type} \end{pmatrix}, i = 1 \cdots 5.$$
 (10)

The ordinary least squares estimator is deemed appropriate for both Eq. (9) and (10) after checking the model diagnostic plots.

All analyses are performed with the R packages compositions (Van den Boogaart and Tolosana-Delgado, 2013), zCompositions (Palarea-Albaladejo and Martín-Fernández, 2015), and coda.base (Comas-Cufí, 2020).

Results

Descriptive statistics are in Tables I and II. Most firms are not exporting, are receiving subsidies and do not disclose the gender distribution in the workforce. Most firms are private limited companies. Castile-Leon (CL), Castile-La Mancha (CM), and Catalonia (CAT) are the most frequent regions in the data base in accordance with the structure of the sector in Spain.

The median company has been operating for 24 years and has 17 employees. Also in median terms, the most substantial differences between 2019 and 2020 are the increase of non-current liabilities (x_3), and the decreases in current liabilities (x_4) and revenues (x_5).

Table I. Sample distribution							
Subsidies Spanish region							
No	27.9 %	AND	5.1 %				
Yes	72.1 %	ARA	2.8 %				
Gender distribution		BC	7.6 %				
High	27.3 %	BI	1.7 %				
Low	26.2 %	CAT	16.1 %				
Not disclosed	46.5 %	CI	2.0 %				
Exports		CL	20.6 %				
No	70.4 %	СМ	10.1 %				
Yes	29.6 %	EXT	1.7 %				
Type of limited company		GAL	7.9 %				
Private	67.0 %	MAD	4.2 %				
Public	33.0 %	MUR	4.2 %				
		NAV	4.2 %				
		RIO	7.6 %				
		VAL	4.2 %				

Table II. Descriptive statistics										
Mean 2019 SD 2019 Median 2019 Mean 2020 SD 2020 Median 2020										
Employees	29.3	44.9	17							
Age	25.7	12.5	24							
<i>x</i> ₁	8035	14923	3745	8223	14801	3872				
x_2	8732	16966	3353	8832	16901	3462				
<i>X</i> 3	2514	4906	857	3090	5829	1268				
<i>X4</i>	4073	8376	1473	3552	7551	1153				
<i>X</i> 5	7864	16824	2773	7247	16040	2311				
<i>X6</i>	7309	16286	2571	6832	15563	2341				
<i>Z1</i>	0.594	0.878	0.525	0.378	0.923	0.339				
<i>Z</i> 2	0.023	0.156	0.024	-0.015	0.208	0.012				
<i>Z3</i>	-1.316	1.072	-1.021	-1.285	1.060	-0.985				
<i>Z4</i>	-0.009	0.645	-0.086	-0.015	0.615	-0.088				
<i>Z5</i>	-0.633	1.311	-0.437	-0.301	1.325	-0.015				

Note: x_1 : non-current assets, x_2 : current assets, x_3 : non-current liabilities, x_4 : current liabilities, x_5 : revenues, x_6 : costs, z_1 : turnover, z_2 : margin, z_3 : indebtedness, z_4 : asset structure, z_5 : debt maturity. Age is expressed in years and accounting figures in thousands of Euros.

The boxplots of the dependent y_1 to y_5 variables are as shown in Figure 1. y_1 to y_5 indicate respectively the differences in turnover, margin, indebtedness, asset structure and debt maturity between 2019 and 2020. In general, turnover and margin have decreased between 2019 and 2020, i.e., worsened (negative median of y_1 and y_2), and debt maturity has increased, with a higher share of non-current liabilities (positive median of y_5). 75.5 % of firms have decreased their turnover, 66.8 % of firms have decreased their margin, and 69.9 % of firms have increased their debt maturity. The mean values of y_1 , y_2 and y_5 are significantly different from zero at 5% following a paired-samples t-test (Table III).

The reduction in margin is especially dramatic, as 77.7 % of firms in the dataset had a positive margin ratio in 2019 and only 63.1 % in 2020. According to Table II the reduction in margin has been driven mainly by a reduction in revenue which is also at the core of the reduction in turnover. This reduced activity can also be partly responsible for the increase in debt maturity via a reduction in accounts payable. However, Table II does show an increase in non-current liabilities in both average and median terms which is also responsible for the debt maturity evolution.

Regarding indebtedness (y_3) and non-current-asset share (y_4) , the percentages of firms with increases and decreases are nearly balanced and their differences are in any case not statistically significant in Table III. The fears that the pandemic would lead to a generalized increase of indebtedness or to an increased volume of unsold stocks or pending accounts receivable have not been realized. It must be considered that in the Spanish wine sector as a whole, cash and cash equivalents only represent 9,2 % of current assets so that current assets basically contain stocks and accounts receivable.



Figure 1. Boxplots of the differences in coordinates between 2020 and 2019. *y*₁: turnover, *y*₂: margin, *y*₃: indebtedness, *y*₄: asset structure, *y*₅: debt maturity.

Table III.	Statistics of	of the	differences	in	coordinates	between	2020	and 2019)
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	Mean	SD	Median	% Values > 0	p-value of t-test of zero mean
<i>y1</i>	-0.216	0.372	-0.207	24.5	< 0.001
y_2	-0.039	0.105	-0.014	33.2	< 0.001
<i>y</i> 3	0.032	0.422	-0.020	44.5	0.159
<i>y</i> 4	-0.006	0.186	-0.012	47.0	0.534
y5	0.332	0.763	0.224	69.9	<0.001

Note: y1: turnover, y2: margin, y3: indebtedness, y4: asset structure, y5: debt maturity

Each of the five columns in Table IV shows the estimates of the effects on the initial 2019 coordinate values ($z_{1,2019}$ to $z_{5,2019}$ indicating respectively pre-pandemic turnover, prepandemic margin, pre-pandemic indebtedness, pre-pandemic asset structure, and prepandemic debt maturity), according to Eq. (10). Each of the five columns in Table V shows the estimates of the effects on the coordinate changes between 2019 and 2020 (y_1 to y_5 indicating respectively turnover change, margin change, indebtedness change, assetstructure change, and debt-maturity change) according to Eq. (9). Non-significant explanatory variables are kept in all equations but their estimates are not shown. The explanatory and control variables without any significant effect in a complete table are removed from the table for the sake of readability. This includes the type of company and gender in Table IV and age, employees, region, type of company and $z_{1,2019}$ in Table V. The type of company (public vs. private limited company) is the only variable with no significant effect, neither on the 2019 level nor on the change between 2020 and 2019.

	Z1,2019	Z2,2019	Z3,2019	Z4,2019	Z5,2019
Employees	n.s.	0.041**	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Age	0.010*	n.s.	-0.023***	n.s.	-0.019**
Subsidies Yes	n.s.	0.079***	n.s.	0.201*	n.s.
Exports Yes	n.s.	n.s.	0.270*	-0.174*	n.s.
Region ARA	n.s.	-0.058***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region BC	n.s.	-0.005***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region BI	n.s.	-0.078***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region CAT	n.s.	0.005***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region CI	n.s.	0.033***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region CL	n.s.	0.097***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region CM	n.s.	-0.026***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region EXT	n.s.	-0.001***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region GAL	n.s.	0.028***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region MAD	n.s.	-0.063***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region MUR	n.s.	0.024***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region NAV	n.s.	-0.070***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region RIO	n.s.	0.028***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Region VAL	n.s.	-0.026***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
R-squared	0.083	0.196	0.129	0.117	0.081

Table IV. Effects on coordinate values in Eq. (10) for 2019 (*z*_{1,2019} to *z*_{5,2019})

Note: * p-value<0.05; ** p-value<0.01; *** p-value<0.001; n.s. non significant at 0.05. $z_{1,2019}$: turnover, $z_{2,2019}$: margin, $z_{3,2019}$: indebtedness, $z_{4,2019}$: asset structure, $z_{5,2019}$: debt maturity.

Table V. Effects on the changes in Eq. (9) between 2019 and 2020 (y_1 to y_5)

	<i>y1</i>	<i>Y</i> 2	<i>уз</i>	<i>Y4</i>	<i>Y</i> 5
Subsidies Yes	n.s.	n.s.	-0.110*	n.s.	-0.249**
Gender Low	n.s.	-0.004*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Gender Not disclosed	n.s.	-0.033*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Exports Yes	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	0.238*
Z2,2019		0.160***			
Z3,2019			-0.103***		
Z4,2019				-0.085***	
Z5,2019					-0.153***
R-squared	0.094	0.129	0.091	0.141	0.130

Note: * p-value<0.05; ** p-value<0.01; *** p-value<0.001; n.s. non significant at 0.05. *y1*: turnover, *y2*: margin, *y3*: indebtedness, *y4*: asset structure, *y5*: debt maturity.

A positive significant effect of a numeric explanatory variable on $z_{1,2019}$, $z_{2,2019}$, $z_{4,2019}$ and, possibly, $z_{5,2019}$ in Table IV indicates a variable whose increase makes wineries better off just before the CoViD-19 outbreak, associated to a higher initial turnover, margin, noncurrent-asset share and debt maturity. It must be borne in mind that the improvement in debt maturity is both driven by higher non-current liabilities and by lower accounts payable resulting from the reduction in activity, the latter having nothing to do with resilience. A negative significant effect of an explanatory variable on $z_{3,2019}$ indicates the same, associated to a lower initial indebtedness. As usual, qualitative explanatory variables with *k* categories can be included if coded with *k*-1 binary variables. A positive significant coefficient of a binary variable on $z_{1,2019}$, $z_{2,2019}$, $z_{4,2019}$ and, possibly, $z_{5,2019}$ indicates that the corresponding firm category is better performing in 2019 than the reference category (the category which is left without a binary variable: AND region, no exports, no subsidies and women presence disclosed and above the median). A negative significant effect on $z_{3,2019}$ indicates the same.

A positive significant effect of a numeric explanatory variable on y_1 , y_2 , y_4 and, possibly, y_5 in Table V indicates a variable whose increase makes wineries resilient to the CoViD-19 shock, by limiting the decrease of turnover and margin, or by increasing non-currentasset share and debt maturity. A negative significant effect of an explanatory variable on y_3 , indicates the same, by decreasing indebtedness. A positive significant coefficient of a binary variable on y_1 , y_2 , y_4 and, possibly, y_5 indicates that the corresponding firm category is more resilient than the reference category. A negative significant effect on y_3 indicates the same.

According to Table IV, a higher firm age is associated to a higher firm's turnover before the pandemic ($z_{1,2019}$). A larger number of employees, and receiving subsidies are associated to a larger firm's margin before the pandemic ($z_{2,2019}$). A higher firm age is associated to a lower indebtedness level in 2019 before the pandemic ($z_{3,2019}$) while exports are associated to a higher pre-pandemic indebtedness. In 2019 firms with subsidies had a greater weight of non-current assets in their asset structure ($z_{4,2019}$), and firms exporting a lower weight. Debt maturity in 2019 ($z_{5,2019}$) was lower for older firms. As regards the control variable, the estimates of each region, including the reference region AND whose implicit coefficient is 0, make it possible to rank regions from higher to lower 2019 margin as CL (highest), CI, GAL, RIO, MUR, CAT, AND, EXT, BC, VAL, CM, ARA, MAD, NAV and BI (lowest).

According to Table V, low proportions of women in the workforce or not disclosing the gender distribution leads to a decrease in margin (y_2) between 2019 and 2020 as compared to disclosing a high proportion of women. Receiving subsidies leads to a reduction in indebtedness between 2019 and 2020 (y_3) . Subsidies are associated to a lower increase of debt maturity (y_5) between 2019 and 2020 and exports to a higher increase.

R-squared values are admittedly rather low, explanatory power being hampered by the availability of explanatory variables in the SABI database and the sheer difficulty in predicting financial performance indicators and their differences.

Discussion

Firm size as measured by the number of employees is associated to a better initial margin, thus supporting the first hypothesis (H1). Age is associated with a higher initial turnover and a lower initial indebtedness, thus supporting the second hypothesis (H2). Receiving subsidies is associated to a higher initial margin, to a higher initial non-current asset share, and to a better indebtedness evolution between 2019 and 2020, thus supporting the third hypothesis (H3). Disclosing the gender distribution of the workforce and a higher presence of women are associated to a better evolution of margin between 2019 and 2020,

thus supporting the fourth hypothesis (H4). Exports are associated with a higher initial indebtedness, and a higher initial current asset share. The fifth hypothesis (H5) is thus not supported. Effects on debt maturity are not considered to provide evidence for or against the hypotheses, as explained above.

In general terms, the research results indicate that the margin and turnover of mediumsized companies in the Spanish wine sector worsened between 2019 and 2020 as a result of the pandemic, as in other geographical areas (Wittwer and Anderson, 2021), even though the online sale of wine increased during the pandemic (Jorge *et al.*, 2020). The only other significant difference between 2020 and 2019 is debt maturity, which increased as a result of both a reduction in activity and an increase in long-term debt. There was no significant growth in indebtedness. Firms simply renegotiated the repayment term, increasing the debt maturity. Regarding the structure of assets, there was only a slight increase in current assets in the companies analysed, due to a slight increase in inventories and accounts receivable between 2019 and 2020.

As regards hypothesis 1, the importance of margin in wine management should be highlighted, as stated by Castillo Valero and García Cortijo (2013). A high margin enhances the survival of companies in the sector and translates into higher returns on assets in line with the value of the wine brand, its DO, and the quality of its bottled reserve wines, as indicated by Vizcaino *et al.* (2020). In 2019 large companies had better margins, which helped to face the subsequent COVID-19 crisis in line with Zahedi *et al.* (2021).

Regarding hypothesis 2, the long-established companies had less worrying indebtedness and a higher turnover in 2019 before the pandemic and were better prepared to withstand the COVID-19 crisis. In reality the size of the company and its age guarantee that there has been good management for years and more efficient management in the face of exceptional risks (Ozdemir *et al.*, 2022). In addition, the adequate indebtedness of companies with a long history also favors the management of exceptional risks such as COVID-19 (Vizcaino *et al.*, 2020).

As regards hypothesis 3 related to subsidies, as background it must be taken into account that public policies through Royal Decree-Law 8/2020 approved a line of guarantees issued by the state to mitigate the economic effects of COVID-19 and access long-term financing with loans from the Official Credit Institute (ICO). This is one of the reasons why COVID-19 increased debt maturity since companies in the sector were able to finance themselves with more long-term debt. On the contrary, the debt maturity of companies that had subsidies shortened since they did not renegotiate as much long-term debt. It is also evident that the subsidies improved indebtedness. In 2019 companies with subsidies had better margins and a higher share of non-current assets, in line with prepandemic studies (Castillo Valero and Garcia Cortijo, 2013), which helped them to cope with COVID-19.

Regarding hypothesis 4, related to the gender distribution of the workforce, the research indicates that having a greater presence of women and disclosing it helps to prevent margins from being excessively reduced between 2019 and 2020. León-Pozo *et al.* (2019) show that gender diversity in the workplace is favorable for equal opportunities in the wine sector and there is still a lack of research regarding gender diversity in this sector. In addition, gender policies in management are aligned with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG number 5) of the 2030 Agenda (Martinez-Leon *et al.*, 2020). It should be

noted that Paoloni and Cosentino (2021) endorse the management skills of women during COVID-19, with a good response to the pandemic due to the better management of both financial and environmental indicators as pointed out by Gazzola *et al.* (2022). This article shows that the presence of women in the management of the sector in the face of the pandemic helped to prevent margins from collapsing, thus contributing to gender research in the wine sector and to defending management skills with a gender perspective to deal with COVID-19.

Regarding hypothesis 5, related to exports, it must be borne in mind that all wineries in Spain exported less after the COVID-19 outbreak (Lu, 2020; Marco-Lajara *et al.*, 2021; Minondo, 2021). Exporting companies were less prepared because of a higher initial indebtedness and a higher initial current asset share likely resulting from unsold stock. Hypothesis 5 thus does not only fail to find support but is actually contradicted. Exporting did however increase debt maturity between 2019 and 2020, a fact which is not conclusive in terms of financial resilience.

Conclusion

The study shows that the margins and turnover of the companies studied worsened during the pandemic due to the decrease in sales in the 2019-2020 period. On the other hand, large companies with subsidies are shown to have coped better with COVID-19, due to the better pre-pandemic margins. Female presence in the workforce favours that the margins of the 2019-2020 period have not been excessively damaged, in line with the sustainable development challenges set out in the 2030 Agenda. Non-disclosure of the gender distribution is also telling about gender policy and firms not disclosing have an even worse margin evolution than firms with a low female presence. Exporting firms did not fare any better than non-exporting firms, after the failure to confirm the fifth hypothesis.

The study also analyses the structure of the assets of the companies under study in order to assess the potential accumulation of inventories during this period and the status of collections due to the drop in sales and increase in insolvencies. Indebtedness and debt maturity during the pandemic are also analysed. Out of these two variables the only significant difference between 2019 and 2020 is debt maturity which increases both because of a reduction in activity (lower accounts payable) and an increase in long-term debt. Asset structure was not greatly affected when compared to the pre-pandemic situation, with acceptable stock turnover and customer insolvencies. There is no evidence either of the feared increase in indebtedness; in fact, COVID-19 in the wine sector has shown that, as in other periods, public intervention has had an impact on the pandemic crisis. This intervention especially improved the situation of younger companies, which renegotiated long-term debts thanks to derivative guarantees of the Royal Decree-Law 8/2020 to alleviate the economic effects of COVID-19, debts that will have to be repaid when the sector recovers from the exceptional pandemic. Regarding the wineries which have been established for a long time and are not excessively indebted, the subsidies have allowed them to better withstand COVID-19.

One limitation of this research is the time period used to assess the post-COVID-19 effects on the financial statements of the wine companies analysed, which has only allowed their short-term impact to be evaluated (in 2020). Another limitation is that data from only one country were used, including only limited companies and not, for instance,

cooperatives. Yet another limitation is the reduced range of explanatory variables available in the SABI database resulting in low R-squared values. Having said this, the study benefits from rigorous statistical treatment of financial ratios using the CoDa methodology and avoiding the most commonly encountered distributional problems in standard financial ratios like asymmetry and non-linearity.

Our future lines of research will focus on the resilience of this sector to future challenges, including other financial ratios and explanatory variables and more countries and time periods. Apart from COVID-19, whose effects are still noticeable in 2021 and to a lesser extent in 2022, the most important challenges for wine companies are sustainability and digitization. In terms of sustainability, the SDGs are not unrelated to the wine sector (Bernardi, 2021; Boyer and Touzard, 2021; Mozas-Moral *et al.*, 2021), especially in terms of climate change challenges, affecting both the vineyards themselves (Bonfante *et al.*, 2018; Boyer and Touzard, 2021; Canavati *et al.*, 2020), and future certifications of environmentally sustainable production that will impact the financial statements (Gomes *et al.*, 2021) entailing higher production costs (McDermaid and Newton, 2020). Likewise the digital transformation is becoming essential in the post-COVID scenario (Bartoli *et al.*, 2022; Jorge *et al.*, 2020) and requires a vast amount of resources (Vázquez *et al.*, 2019).

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