

1 **The Effect Of Spatial Market Structure On The Acreage Of**
2 **Biodiversity-Improving Protein Crops: Evidence From**
3 **Germany**

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20 **Abstract:**

21 One of the challenges currently facing Europe's agri-food system is the availability of
22 sustainable, high-quality protein for animal feed in regions of intensive animal production. The
23 production of grain legumes holds the potential to significantly increase the availability of
24 protein feed in Europe, thereby raising the biodiversity contribution of cropland. Germany is a
25 major protein importer (especially in terms of soy), while grain legumes' acreage remains
26 limited and volatile. Despite agronomic considerations, one reason for this might be the non-

27 competitive structure of grain legume traders. Using district data from 400 German regions, a
28 spatial stochastic frontier analysis is applied to estimate the effect of the spatial market structure
29 on the diffusion of grain legume growing. The analysis shows that the number of agricultural
30 traders in close spatial proximity is significantly and positively associated with farmers'
31 decision to grow grain legumes. Improving the marketing structure e.g. by establishing
32 marketing cooperatives or investigating potential market power among traders could be
33 promising strategies to capture some of the currently under-utilized protein crop potential in
34 Germany.

35 **Keywords:** Spatial Stochastic Frontier, Spatial Weights, Grain Legumes, Market Access,
36 Adoption

37 **JEL:** Q02, Q11, Q13

38 **1. Introduction**

39 Grain legumes, encompassing a diverse array of crops such as field beans, peas, lupins and
40 soybeans, occupy a significant position in global agriculture, serving as essential protein
41 sources for food and feed use (Kumar et al., 2022; Voisin et al., 2014). Their contribution to
42 developing resilient and sustainable land use systems, both conventional and organic, is
43 immense: Cultivation of grain legumes reduces disease and weed pressure, and thus also the
44 need for chemical pesticides (Böhm et al., 2020). Legumes also improve soil quality by
45 loosening the soil structure, fixing atmospheric nitrogen, providing nitrogen for the subsequent
46 crop, and increasing the biodiversity of the production system (Ditzler et al., 2021; Fugerey-
47 Scarbel & Lemarié, 2024; Reckling et al., 2020; Zander et al., 2016). The recognition of the
48 positive effects of grain legume cultivation is reflected in the expansion of cultivation areas and
49 production volumes in the EU-27. After stagnating for almost two decades, the area devoted to
50 grain legumes, particularly soybeans, has more than doubled in the last decade (Bues et al.,

51 2013; Eurostat, 2023). Nevertheless, grain legumes still account for only 6 % of the total arable
52 land in the EU (Eurostat, 2023).

53 In 2022, France, Poland, Spain, Germany and Lithuania were the main grain legume producing
54 countries in the EU (Eurostat, 2023). However, some of these countries experienced a relatively
55 low protein self-sufficiency, as in particular, Germany, Spain and Italy were also the largest
56 importers of soybeans in the EU (FAOstat, 2024). This reflects their substantial protein demand
57 driven by large livestock and feed industries, which domestic grain legume production alone
58 cannot fully satisfy.

59 As the largest importer of protein crops in the EU (FAOstat, 2024), Germany stands out as an
60 important market for grain legumes due to its large and intensive livestock and dairy sectors.
61 These sectors demand vast amounts of high-quality plant protein for compound feed,
62 underscoring the ongoing reliance on imports despite regional production capacity (BMEL,
63 2020). Soisontes et al. (2023) and Zerhusen-Blecher et al. (2016) point out that the compound
64 feed industry and its demand for non-GMO has a strong impact on the area under grain legumes
65 in Germany and thus on the country's protein self-sufficiency. Given the favourable soil
66 conditions for grain legumes in many parts of Germany (Roßberg & Recknagel, 2017),
67 expanding their production could contribute to reducing the country's substantial protein
68 imports. However, only 2.5 % (in 2022) of Germany's arable land was cultivated with grain
69 legumes (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2023), well below the EU average of 6 %. A key economic
70 explanation lies in the principle of comparative advantage: German farmers often face lower
71 profitability with grain legumes than with other crops, such as cereals or oilseeds.

72 As noted by Soisontes et al. (2023) and Mittag and Hess (2025) grain legumes in Germany tend
73 to have relatively low producer prices, while price formation in this market is characterized by
74 limited transparency due to fragmented trade structures and incomplete price reporting. This

75 weakens the competitiveness of grain legumes from the producer's perspective and hence their
76 bargaining power.

77 Moreover, as discussed later in this paper, gross margins from cereals or canola in Germany
78 can exceed those of grain legumes by a factor of up to three, making legumes a less attractive
79 economic choice under current conditions. Thus, the relatively low acreage of grain legumes is
80 largely a reflection of Germany's comparative disadvantage in their production both relative to
81 other crops domestically and relative to legume-producing regions elsewhere in the world.
82 Nonetheless, market conditions may still influence these choices at the margin. Based on a
83 delphi-study by Soisontes et al. (2023), in addition to profitability, a lack of marketing
84 structures could be the main reason for the lack of competitiveness and, hence, for the low
85 acreage of grain legumes in Germany. However, the spatial market structure for local and
86 regional trade in grain legumes in Germany and its potential influence on cultivation decisions
87 and the resulting land use changes have so far not been analysed empirically.

88 A detailed understanding of the interactions between land use change and market access is
89 crucial for developing efficient policies promoting sustainable land use. However, empirical
90 studies of cropping decisions and, hence, land use have become rarer in recent years, especially
91 outside developing countries, and are not generally used to inform land system policy-making.

92 Therefore, this paper examines the link between market access and land use change, specifically
93 regarding the adoption of new crops in the German grain legume market. Market access is
94 expected to play a pivotal role in shaping the spatial distribution and intensity of grain legume
95 cultivation in Germany. To test this hypothesis, a spatial stochastic frontier analysis is applied.

96 By examining the interplay between market access and adoption decisions at a spatial scale on
97 the producers' site, this paper aims to explain the market mechanisms that drive grain legume
98 expansion in the German context and identify pathways for enhancing agricultural
99 sustainability and resilience. In doing so, the study is positioned within applied economic

100 questions at the intersection of bio-based agricultural production, market infrastructure, land-
101 use dynamics, and sustainable rural development. It contributes to this discourse by providing
102 empirical evidence and theoretical insights into the role of market infrastructure in shaping
103 patterns of grain legume cultivation. While this study focuses on Germany, the results
104 underscore the importance of understanding how market structure influences land-use decisions
105 for cash crops more generally.

106 **2. Status Quo and Theoretical Framework**

107 **2.1. Legume cultivation and trade in Germany**

108 Assuming profit-maximising farmers, the cultivation of grain legumes occurs in locations that
109 (a) are considered favourable for these crops due to their high cultivation suitability and (b)
110 have sufficient market access through suitable infrastructure, low transportation cost and access
111 to traders and elevators (silos) nearby. Therefore, the comparatively low acreage of grain
112 legume crops in Germany could be related either to local- and farm specific opportunity cost,
113 or to the regional structure of market access, or to both.

114 a) Farm-specific factors:

115 Not every grain legume crop can be grown in every location. Several factors, such as the various
116 grain legumes' different climatic and location requirements, limit the geographical cultivation
117 range. Roßberg and Recknagel (2017) identify regions in Germany suitable for grain legume
118 cultivation, and Stephenson (2022) provides an updated assessment of this spatial distribution
119 based on more recent climate data. However, their cultivation suitability maps indicate that
120 grain legumes can be cultivated across large parts of Germany.

121 Barbieri et al. (2023) state that grain legumes significantly contribute to production efficiency,
122 especially in organic production systems. As nitrogen availability can be limiting, especially in
123 the absence of livestock, integrating grain legumes with symbiotic fixation of atmospheric

124 nitrogen is essential for higher yields and improved quality of subsequent crops, e.g. grains,
125 supply of ecosystem services and the adaptation of production systems to climate change
126 (Bedoussac et al., 2014; Reckling et al., 2020). Thus, organic farms are more likely to introduce
127 grain legumes in their crop rotation than conventional ones.

128 Regarding both conventional and organic crop rotations, Sponagel et al. (2021) state that
129 cultivation decisions are often made in favour of the economically most profitable crops and
130 negatively influence the decision to cultivate grain legumes.

131 However, despite potential economic disadvantages, several private and public initiatives try to
132 encourage farmers to increase the share of grain legumes in their crop rotation. Namely,
133 Legunet (Legunet, 2024) actively promotes both agronomic and ecological advantages of grain
134 legume production in Germany. Legunet is a public initiative in Germany which offers
135 nationwide projects, extension and advisory services to overcome potential knowledge gaps
136 and information barriers. Despite private initiatives, farmers can also apply for subsidies
137 supporting grain legume production. The geographical differentiation of political support
138 schemes and measures that aim at providing incentives for cultivating grain legumes in
139 Germany has been analysed by Bues et al. (2013) and Sponagel et al. (2021). Their analyses
140 shows that support for grain legume cultivation is not uniform nationwide but adapted to
141 regional conditions, which influences cultivation patterns.

142

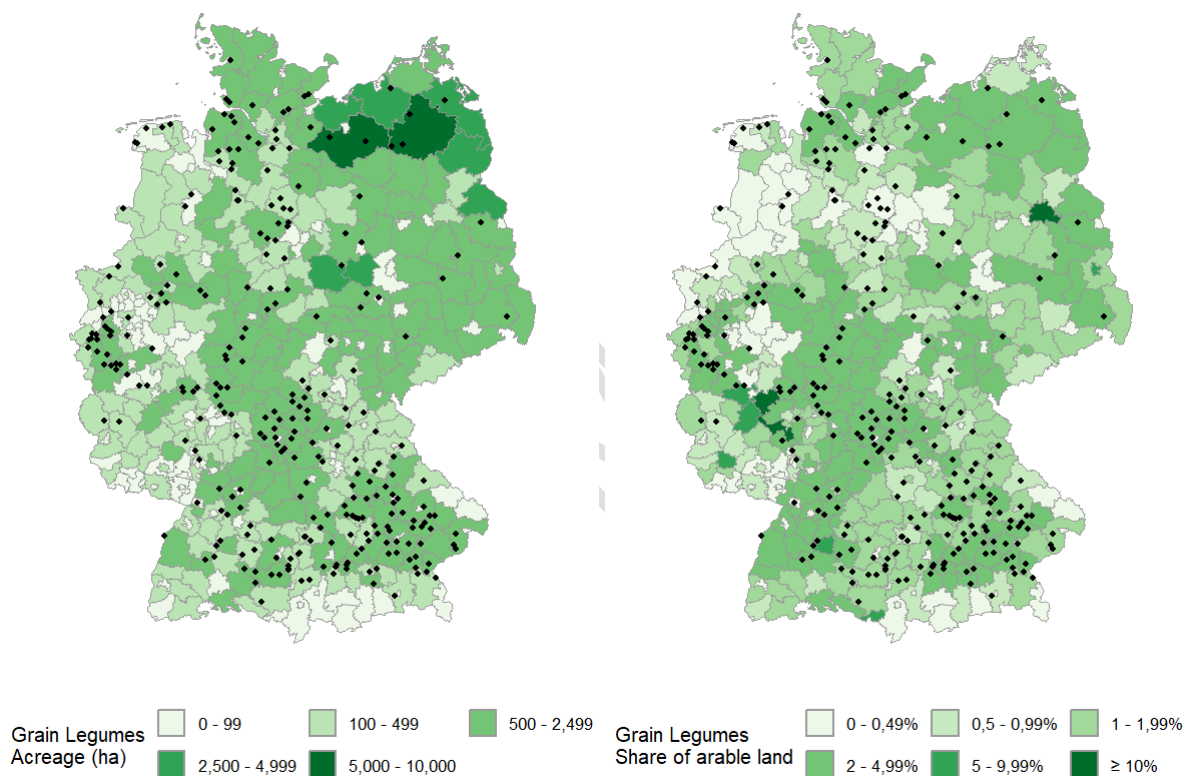
143 b) Market structure for grain legume producers in Germany

144 The market structure of the legume trade in Germany can generally be described as non-
145 transparent both regarding market access and price formation (Kezeya Sepngang et al., 2019).
146 Zimmer and Böttcher (2021) have identified the lack of marketing structures, especially in
147 northern Germany, as a significant reason for the low competitiveness in grain legume
148 cultivation in Germany. According to Jouan et al. (2019), a pre-contract for grain legume crops

149 is less common than for other crops from conventional arable farms, such as cereals or canola.
150 Therefore, it can be assumed that selling cultivated grain legumes to regional agricultural
151 traders is the most common practice.

152

153 **Figure 1: Spatial distribution of agricultural traders interested in buying grain legumes and grain legume**
154 **acreage per district (ha) (left) and share of grain legumes acreage per district (%) (right)**



155

156

157 Source: Own representation based on data from the Union zur Förderung von Oel-und Proteinpflanzen e.V. (2025);
158 traders indicated by small dots.

159 Figure 1 displays the location of all traders who commit to trading grain legumes in Germany
160 (traders indicated by small dots).

161 Under climatic conditions in Germany, grain legumes often have to be harvested even though
162 grain moisture is still higher than optimal, which limits transportability and storage stability
163 (Roth, 2022). Magrini et al. (2016) report on the challenges of grain legume trade in France.

164 France has a more diversified product portfolio in grain legume trade than Germany. However,
165 even in France the storage capacities for grain legumes are subject to very long payback periods
166 due to the relatively low trade volumes. As a result, grain legumes are often neglected in storage
167 investment strategies; actual lot sizes of grain legumes tend to get sold quickly in order to make
168 room for crops of larger lot sizes that will fill silos completely and thus reduce average storage
169 costs (Reindl et al., 2017).

170 Similar information on the German market for grain legumes was gathered through in-depth
171 interviews with traders: According to the qualitative evidence from these interviews, small
172 quantities of grain legumes block a typical trader's storage capacities, which are often designed
173 for larger quantities, and from the perspective of a typical trading company this will render
174 trading grain legumes on average less profitable compared to other crops (Mittag & Hess,
175 2025).

176 Specht (2009), Kezeya Sepngang, Stute, et al. (2018) and Soisontes et al. (2023) have explored
177 sales structures of grain legumes in Germany based on qualitative interviews and stakeholder
178 discussions. The authors cite a lack of interest among agricultural trading companies in grain
179 legumes because large and homogeneous lots of any pre-defined quality would be scarce in
180 supply, if not missing.

181 Moreover, on the supply side and due to comparatively low producer prices for grain legumes,
182 farmers prefer to grow cereals and oilseed crops, which often offer a gross margin up to three
183 times higher (Sponagel et al., 2021).

184 Thus, overall the price formation process for grain legumes in Germany can be described as
185 typically fragmented, such that small lots of marketed quantities make domestic grain legumes
186 even less profitable in comparison to other crops than would be the case under price formation
187 that is not affected by the tendency of traders to empty silos quickly (Reckling et al., 2020).

188 However, based on a Delphi study with stakeholders along the grain legume value chain,

189 Soisontes et al. (2023) highlight that a reasonable price for home-grown and non-GMO protein
190 feed ingredients would have excellent potential to increase the grain legume acreage in
191 Germany. In summary, it seems that high transaction costs, which arise from farmers' search
192 for information on sales structures and high transport costs, substantially reduce the economic
193 attractiveness and cost-effectiveness of grain legume cultivation compared with competing
194 crops (Jouan et al., 2019, 2020).

195 **2.2. Growing grain legumes: A farm-specific adoption decision subject to market** 196 **access**

197 The introduction of a new crop into an existing agricultural production system represents a
198 complex optimisation challenge for each farm. In addition to the pursuit of profit, which is
199 subject to risk and uncertainty, the decision-making process must also consider the
200 maximisation of utility and the constraints imposed by the alternative time horizons involved.
201 Additionally, market-based incentives play an important role in this decision-making process,
202 e.g. in terms of market access and economically viable price signals (Perosa et al., 2021). The
203 absence or inadequate accessibility to markets, such as a lack of transportation infrastructure or
204 asymmetric information, represents a significant obstacle to the decision-making process
205 regarding crop diversification in the agricultural sector. This ultimately leads to elevated
206 transaction costs and relatively low producer prices. (Meraner et al., 2015).

207 Efficient market structures may positively affect local adoption decisions in favour of a new
208 crop, e.g. grain legumes. Following Mehdi et al. (2018) the decision of a hypothetical German
209 farmer to grow grain legumes is, therefore, modelled as an adoption decision: The aggregate
210 grain legume adoption in German regions (districts) is considered. In each region r , $i = 1, \dots, N$
211 farms are assumed to be potential grain legume producers. However, in relation to the research
212 questions it is expected that this maximum area of grain legumes in region r is not necessarily
213 fully utilized by the N farms. Instead, each farmer i individually decides whether to grow grain

214 legumes on a certain number of hectares A in region r . This decision is an adoption function,
 215 which can be characterised as:

$$216 \quad A_{ri} = f(\mathbf{F}_{ri}, \mathbf{M}_{ri}) \quad (1)$$

217 where \mathbf{F}_{ri} is a vector of farm-specific factors that affect the opportunity costs of grain legume
 218 production on farm i in region r , and \mathbf{M}_{ri} describes the farm specific market situation for grain
 219 legumes including the spatial market structure in region r .

220 The aggregate adoption decisions by all farms $\sum_{i=1}^N A_{ri} = A_r$ regarding a crop or technology
 221 are often labelled as the diffusion rate D . The following relation therefore describes the
 222 diffusion rate D_r of grain legumes in region r :

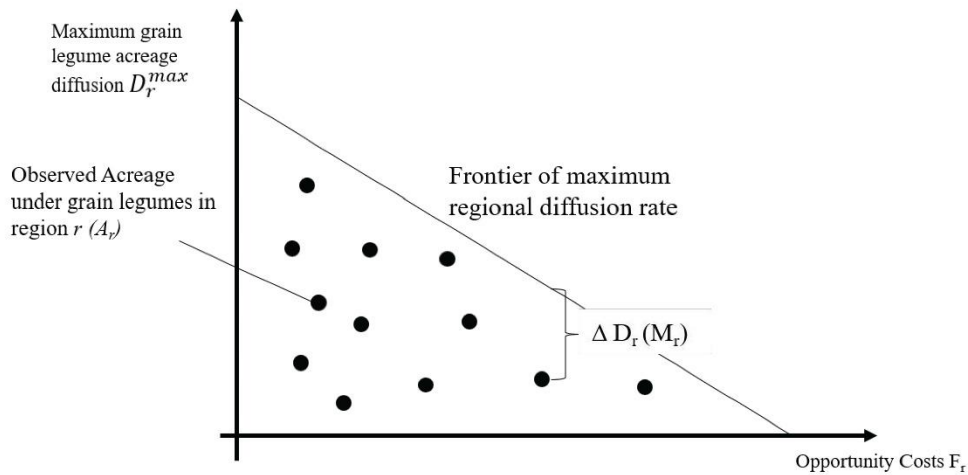
$$223 \quad D_r = \frac{A_r(\mathbf{F}_r, \mathbf{M}_r)}{A_r^{max}(\mathbf{F}_r^{min}, \mathbf{M}_r^{opt})} \quad (2)$$

224 A_r^{max} describes the maximum acreage of grain legumes in region r based on the aggregate
 225 minimal opportunity cost of the N farms growing grain legumes \mathbf{F}_r^{min} and optimal market
 226 conditions \mathbf{M}_r^{opt} for the N farms in r .

227 However, conditional upon the characteristics of $\mathbf{F}_r, \mathbf{M}_r$ the actually cultivated area $A_r \leq$
 228 A_r^{max} . Therefore, the observed diffusion rate D_r in region r is potentially below the
 229 corresponding maximum diffusion rate in this region, D_r^{max} .

230 Figure 2 illustrates the assumed relationship between maximum grain legume acreage diffusion
 231 D_r^{max} and regional opportunity cost of grain legume cultivation \mathbf{F}_r . Figure 2 now introduces
 232 the effect of the regional market structure \mathbf{M}_r as a downward deviation from the maximum
 233 diffusion rate D_r^{max} .

234 **Figure 2: Regional adoption frontier of growing grain legumes**



235

236 Source: own representation

237 The intuition behind this figure captures the assumed two-step decision process on farms: First,
 238 the farmer decides upon the acreage of grain legumes based on farm characteristics such as soil,
 239 climate, other crops and other income-generating activities (animal production, forestry, etc.).
 240 Next, the farmer evaluates the prospects for marketing these grain legumes. Less than optimal
 241 marketing structures may induce the farmer to further reduce the planted grain legume acreage.
 242 This results in a difference Δ between maximum diffusion rate D_r^{max} along the hypothetical
 243 diffusion frontier depicted in Figure 2 and the observed diffusion rate D_r .

244 These considerations lead to the following hypotheses:

245 H_0 = The regional diffusion rate regarding the acreage under grain legumes does not depend on
 246 the regional market environment.

247 H_A = An improved market environment in region r in terms of prices, contract conditions and
 248 the regional density of traders, results in a diffusion rate closer to the maximum diffusion rate
 249 for that region, $\Delta D_r(M_r)$ declines.

250 **3. Empirical methods and analytical framework**

251 **3.1 Empirical Implementation and Data**

252 An empirical implementation of the model outlined in Equation (2) is developed to evaluate the
 253 influence of farm-specific characteristics and regional market conditions on the diffusion of
 254 grain legume cultivation across different regions in Germany. The model considers both factor
 255 groups (F_r, M_r) to estimate the maximum potential area for grain legume cultivation.

256 As described in Section 2.1 the comparatively low acreage of grain legumes in Germany is
 257 expected to be explained either by local- and farm specific opportunity cost, or by the regional
 258 structure of market access for grain legumes. For empirical implementation both factors are
 259 proxied by the variables described in Table 1.

260 **Table 1: Summary statistics of variables used in the empirical implementation**

		Minimum	Median	Mean	Maximum
Dependent variable(s)	Legume area (ha/district)	0	216	538	8952
	Area peas (ha/district)	0	44	209	8731
	Area beans (ha/district)	0	28	136	1728
	Area lupins (ha/district)	0	0	48	1727
	Area soybeans (ha/district)	0	0	79	1286
Farm specific factors F_r	Area (ha/district)	32	6090	9074	70729
	Cultivability	0	0.9572	0.8022	1
	eco_share (%)	0.0002	0.0925	0.1035	0.4747
	Livestock density (livestock units/district)	0	15906	30254	357955
Market structure M_r	Legumes traders (count/district)	0	0	0.5	7

261 Source: own calculation

262 The data employed in this analysis primarily originates from the 2020 Agricultural Structure
263 Survey conducted by the Statistisches Bundesamt (2023). The dataset includes information on
264 total cultivated area, grain legume acreage and the acreage of competitive crops. The analysis
265 covers 400 German districts, comprising approximately 12.2 million hectares of arable land,
266 with grain legumes cultivated on 216,000 hectares.

267 Farm- and farmer-specific characteristics F_r , have been approximated through region-specific
268 agronomic characteristics, e.g. the agronomic cultivability of grain legumes in region r . To
269 account for the specific agronomic requirements of grain legumes, the suitability of land for
270 cultivating these crops was derived from a map created by Roßberg and Recknagel (2017)
271 which outlines regions in Germany that are suitable for soybean cultivation. Although these
272 legumes may differ somewhat in their growing conditions, they are very similar when it comes
273 to their use as animal feed. According to Jezierny et al. (2010) grain legumes like soybeans and
274 others can effectively substitute for each other as feed. Therefore, since soybeans share
275 comparable agronomic needs with other grain legumes, this map provides a reliable indication
276 of the potential for cultivating various legume crops (Watson et al., 2017). This data has been
277 refined by estimating the proportion of arable land in each district suitable for legume
278 cultivation, while accounting for crop-rotation constraints. To account for this adjustment,
279 'area' is 30 % of a district's arable area (based on Böhm et al. (2020)) that can be used to grow
280 grain legumes under crop rotation restrictions.

281 Likewise, the proportion of the area cultivated organically per district (eco_share) was
282 considered as a variable, since the cultivation of grain legumes in organic farming is hugely
283 important for diversifying crop rotations.

284 Additionally, district-specific livestock density was used as a regressor due to the predominant
285 farm-internal use of domestically grown grain legumes in animal feed as opposed to their sale
286 to agricultural traders (Kezeyá Sepngang, Stauss, et al., 2018). Nevertheless, most of the protein

287 in Germany is used for fattening pigs, poultry, or beef cattle in animal husbandry-intensive
288 regions (Soisontes et al., 2023). Therefore, it can be assumed that the regional livestock density
289 influences the area currently cropped with grain legumes in the region itself and in neighbouring
290 regions.

291 Market-specific characteristics M_r , have been approximated through specific market conditions
292 in region r .

293 Due to the non-transparent nature of price formation and contract characteristics in grain
294 legume trading, as noted in prior research (Kezeya Sepngang et al., 2019; Mittag & Hess, 2025),
295 direct data on prices and contract terms are unavailable. Consequently, the spatial distribution
296 of the locations of agricultural traders who buy grain legumes in Germany was used as an
297 approximation for market structure. These locations were taken from the UFOP customer map
298 for grain legumes (Union zur Förderung von Oel-und Proteinpflanzen e.V., 2025), on which
299 agricultural traders who buy grain legumes produced in the respective region can be registered
300 to increase market transparency, as mentioned in Kezeya Sepngang, Stauss, et al. (2018) in the
301 context of inefficient trading structures.

302 The map of buyers shown in Figure 1 offers an overview of agricultural traders in Germany
303 who have committed themselves to buying grain legumes cultivated both conventionally and
304 organically. It is evident that the trading companies are not distributed evenly throughout
305 Germany and spatial clusters can be identified, which indicates a greater trade/purchase of grain
306 legumes in those regions (Bublik et al., 2025).

307 It should be noted that the listing of agricultural traders on the buyer map is voluntary and is
308 done on the initiative of the agricultural traders themselves, thus no claim is made that the map
309 is as reliable as (in this case non-existent) official statistics would be. Consequently, the number
310 of agricultural traders per district interested in buying grain legumes is included as a variable
311 in the (spatial) stochastic frontier analysis.

312 **3.2 Spatial stochastic frontier analysis and efficiency**

313 The stochastic frontier analysis (SFA) method was employed to test the hypothesis of an
314 efficient market for grain legumes in Germany. In this context, market efficiency is interpreted
315 as the relationship between regional grain legume cultivation and regional sales structures. For
316 a detailed overview of the SFA approach see Kumbhakar and Lovell (2000) and the recent
317 review by Kumbhakar et al. (2020). In brief, SFA estimates production or cost functions
318 considering potential inefficiency at the firm or regional level (Battese & Coelli, 1995).

319 The choice of a stochastic frontier model is motivated by the need to establish a theoretical
320 benchmark for the maximum potential acreage under grain legumes that a region could achieve,
321 given its agronomic conditions and resource endowments. Although land use decisions are
322 influenced by market, institutional, and behavioural factors, they remain constrained by
323 biophysical and agronomic limits. The frontier represents this maximum achievable legume
324 cultivation and serves as a yardstick against which observed cultivation levels can be evaluated.

325 Deviations from this frontier are interpreted not solely as inefficiency but as an aggregate
326 measure capturing various barriers, including limited market access, contract conditions,
327 institutional constraints, and farmer adaptation behaviour. This approach allows a detailed
328 understanding of how grain legume cultivation propagates across various regions.

329 In the subsequent analysis, the estimated frontier function represents the maximum regional
330 diffusion of grain legume cultivation, i.e., the maximum expected diffusion given regional
331 conditions (see Section 2.2).

332 Standard practice when performing SFA is to take logarithm of the output variable and fit a
333 likelihood-based model (Kumbhakar & Lovell, 2000; Lai & Kumbhakar, 2020). The logarithm
334 of the absolute planted area under grain legumes A_r in region r is used as the dependent variable,

335 including the maximum possible cultivation area A_r^{max} as an explanatory variable in the factor
336 group F_r .

337 Therefore, equation (3), according to Kumbhakar and Lovell (2000), specifies the acreage A_r
338 as a parametric function f of F_r and M_r .

$$339 \quad A_r = f(F_r, M_r; \beta) + v_r - u_r \quad (3)$$

340
341 ,where v_r is usually assumed to be normally distributed with mean zero and a constant variance
342 σ^2 , while u_r follows a half-normal distribution (Battese & Coelli, 1995). In the presence of
343 spatial dependencies, e.g. due to autocorrelation among farms or regions, the assumption that
344 v_r is independent is violated. This spatial autocorrelation can bias estimation results in two
345 ways: firstly, it can lead to incorrect inferences about parameter estimates, similar to
346 autocorrelation in time series data; secondly, severe autocorrelation may induce correlation
347 between explanatory variables and error terms, causing biased and inconsistent estimates
348 (Anselin, 2002). Spatial econometric methods provide tools to address these issues by explicitly
349 modeling spatial patterns in the data.

350 Although often neglected in studies of market access and competition in agricultural markets
351 (Graubner et al., 2011), the spatial dimension plays a crucial role in explaining land-use
352 decisions. For instance, farmers' adoption of grain legumes may be influenced by neighbouring
353 regions through the diffusion of knowledge, peer effects, or shared infrastructure (Cardamone,
354 2020). Ignoring such spatial dependencies in stochastic frontier models can reduce statistical
355 efficiency and bias parameter estimates (Orea & Álvarez, 2019). To capture these spillovers
356 and contextual effects, a spatial weights matrix (SWM) is incorporated into the model
357 framework.

358 The data-driven approach by Bauman et al. (2018) was implemented to select the most
359 appropriate SWM. A distance-based spatial weights matrix with a 70 km threshold was

360 identified as the best-fitting spatial structure based on model diagnostics and goodness-of-fit
 361 criteria. This narrow threshold ensures that only geographically close regions are treated as
 362 neighbours, avoiding oversmoothing effects and better reflecting localized market dynamics.
 363 The choice of a 70 km radius is based on both theoretical and empirical considerations. From a
 364 theoretical perspective, agronomic interactions such as knowledge transfer, market access, and
 365 environmental spillovers tend to operate over relatively short distances (Foster & Rosenzweig,
 366 1995). Regional cooperation between farmers and traders typically occurs within a realistic
 367 commuting or distribution range beyond which transaction and coordination costs rise
 368 significantly. Furthermore, natural conditions relevant to legume cultivation (e.g. soil and
 369 climate) are more homogeneous within this radius. Empirically, the 70 km matrix demonstrated
 370 superior model performance (e.g., higher adjusted R^2 , lower AIC, and reduced residual spatial
 371 autocorrelation) compared to alternative matrices (e.g., with 100 km, 300 km, Gabriel graph,
 372 or Delaunay triangulation), and was therefore selected as the main specification. Alternative
 373 matrices were tested as robustness checks and are presented in Appendix A.

374 In the selected spatial weights matrix W_{rs} a binary structure is used: district r receives a nonzero
 375 weight for district s if s lies within a 70 km radius, and zero otherwise. Self-neighbourhood is
 376 excluded, so that $w_{rr} = 0$.

377
$$W_{rs} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \cdots & w_{1,N} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{N,1} & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

378 All neighbours are weighted equally within this radius; inverse-distance or decay-based weights
 379 were not applied, as our primary aim was to capture regional market presence rather than
 380 gradational spatial influence.

381 Based on this spatial structure, the spatial stochastic frontier model (sSFA) was estimated as
 382 proposed by Barrios and Lavado (2010):

383
$$A_r = f(\mathbf{F}_r, \mathbf{M}_r; \beta) + \delta W_{rs}[A_r - f(\mathbf{F}_r, \mathbf{M}_r; \beta)] + v_r - u_r$$

384 Here, A_r is the observed grain legume acreage in district r , $f(\mathbf{F}_r, \mathbf{M}_r; \beta)$ is the parametric
 385 frontier function estimated from farm-specific (\mathbf{F}_r) and market-specific (\mathbf{M}_r) characteristics,
 386 and δ captures spatial dependence between residuals in neighbouring regions. The composed
 387 error term consists of a symmetric stochastic noise component $v_r \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$ and an
 388 inefficiency component $u_r \sim |N(0, \sigma^2)|$ assumed to follow a half-normal distribution (Battese
 389 & Coelli, 1995).

390 This spatial specification allows to interpret the inefficiency term u_r as a composite of three
 391 sources: (1) spatial inefficiencies related to a region's context and its neighbours, (2) structural
 392 inefficiencies due to limitations in the explanatory variables, and (3) random noise. The sSFA
 393 was estimated using the *ssfa* package in R (Fusco & Vidoli, 2022) while construction and testing
 394 of spatial weights matrices were performed with the *spdep* package (Bivand, 2022).

395 **4. Results**

396 First, two distance-based spatial weights matrices W_{rs} were created using a threshold of 70 km
 397 and 100 km. Although the approach by Bauman et al. (2018) recommended a threshold of
 398 70 km as most suitable, a SWM with a threshold of 100 km was included as a robustness check.
 399 For smaller thresholds, empty neighbour sets were found, and thus, no matrix was created. The
 400 connectivity statistics are shown in Table 2.

401 **Table 2: Connectivity statistics of spatial weights matrix**

	d = 70 km	d = 100 km
Number of regions	400	400
Number of non-zero links	7094	13432
Percentage non-zero weights	4.4338	8.3950
Average number of links	17.735	33.580

Least connected region (... links)	2	3
Most connected region (... links)	38	59

402 Source: own calculation

403 The greater the distance at which neighbouring regions are assigned a weight, the greater the
404 average number of links; the shorter the distance, the higher the percentage of zero weights.
405 Low connectivity can be interpreted as low economic interaction between the respective
406 regions; for example, farmers would not consider selling legumes to a trader in an unconnected
407 region. The two distances present different assumptions about the geographical range farmers
408 would consider selling legumes to traders (see introduction).

409 In estimating the SFA and the sSFA, the dependent variable ‘area currently cropped with grain
410 legumes (= legume area)’ was logged, and a log-lin function was estimated.

411 Table 3 shows the results of the ‘regular’ (= non-spatial) stochastic frontier analysis. When
412 spatial dependencies are not accounted for in the SFA, only the area available for cultivating
413 grain legumes remains significantly associated with the area currently cropped with grain
414 legumes.

415 **Table 3: Results of the stochastic frontier analysis**

	SFA		
	Coefficient	Std. error	p-value
Intercept	2.5445	0.1016	< 0.0000
Area (ha) / 1000	0.0543	0.0051	< 0.0000
Cultivability (%)	-0.0839	0.0892	0.3472
Legume traders (count)	0.0583	0.0310	0.0599
eco_share (%)	0.7575	0.3732	0.0424
Livestock density (LU) /1000	0.0001	0.0001	0.2526
σ^2	1.8176	0.1234	< 0.0000
γ	0.9956	0.0025	< 0.0000

Mean efficiency	0.4860
AIC	871.4842
Log-likelihood	- 427.7394

416 Source: Own Calculation; n=400

417 While *eco_share* and the available agricultural area were significantly associated with grain
418 legume acreage, the number of legume traders was only marginally associated with it, whereas
419 cultivability showed no statistically significant association. Additionally, the validity of using
420 the stochastic frontier and its dominance over the simple regression must be checked. The γ -
421 statistic value for the model in Table 3 is close to 1 (significantly higher than 0), so the presence
422 of inefficiency in the data was observed, and the stochastic frontier models were preferred over
423 a simple regression. A mean efficiency of 0.4860 was estimated, while stochastic and structural
424 components decreased efficiency significantly. Additionally, the Moran's I test for the classic
425 SFA model shows significant spatial autocorrelation of the residuals ($p < 0,000$), recommending
426 the use of a spatial frontier model.

427 Table 4 presents the results of the estimated spatial stochastic frontier models. Distance-based
428 weights matrices with 70 km and 100 km were incorporated into the model. SSFA-Models
429 incorporating other SWMs have been estimated as robustness checks and are available from the
430 authors upon reasonable request.

431 **Table 4: Results of the spatial stochastic frontier analysis for grain legumes**

	sSFA (d = 70 km)			sSFA (d = 100 km)		
	Coefficient	Std. error	p-value	Coefficient	Std. error	p-value
Intercept	2.6238	0.1118	< 0.0000	2.5022	0.1031	< 0.0000
Area (ha) / 1000	0.0537	0.0055	< 0.0000	0.0544	0.0054	< 0.0000
Cultivability (%)	-0.0642	0.0821	0.4472	-0.0891	0.0813	0.2732
Legume traders (count)	0.0558	0.0267	0.0365	0.0570	0.0278	0.0403
eco_share (%)	0.5877	0.3849	0.1268	0.8369	0.3568	0.0190
Livestock density (LU) /1000	0.0016	0.0014	0.2422	- 0.0001	0.0013	0.4168

$\sigma_u^2_{DMU}$	1.7818	0.1403	< 0.0000	1.8137	0.1429	< 0.0000
σ_v^2	0.0078	0.0039	0.0421	0.0070	0.0039	0.0730
ρ	0.0036			-0.0011		
γ	0.9910			0.9940		
λ	227.16			260.50		
Moran's I	0.0655			0.0408		
Mean efficiency	0.4882			0.4842		
AIC	887.9824			890.8625		
Log-likelihood	-425.9912			-427.4312		
Likelihood-Ratio-Test (vs. OLS)	164.004 (p-value < 0 0001)			161.124 (p-value < 0 0001)		

432 Source: own calculation; n=400

433 Overall, both models yield consistent coefficient estimates and confirm the presence of
434 significant inefficiency effects.

435 Available agricultural area (in 1,000 ha) is consistently positively and significantly associated
436 with the area under grain legumes. Similarly, the number of legume traders is positively and
437 significantly associated in both models, with a slightly larger coefficient in the 100 km
438 specification. The share of organically managed land ("eco_share") is significantly associated
439 with grain legume acreage only in the 100 km model ($p = 0.019$), pointing to potential spatial
440 sensitivity in ecological practices. By contrast, cultivability and livestock density are not
441 significantly associated with grain legume acreage in either model, suggesting that these factors
442 are less relevant for explaining differences in the extent of legume cultivation.

443 The inefficiency variance component ($\sigma_u^2_{DMU}$) is large and highly significant, indicating the
444 presence of substantial inefficiency. The noise variance (σ_v^2) is relatively small but statistically
445 significant in the 70 km model and marginally so in the 100 km model. The lambda statistic
446 (λ), the ratio of inefficiency to noise, reaches very high values (227.16 and 260.50), underlining
447 the dominant role of inefficiency in explaining deviations from the frontier.

448 Regarding the spatial structure, the spatial autoregressive parameter (ρ) is close to zero in both
 449 models (0.0036 and -0.0011), and Moran's I statistics (0.0655 and 0.0408) indicate very weak
 450 residual spatial dependence. Although the spatial autoregressive parameter (ρ) is small, this
 451 does not imply the absence of spatial dependence. Rather, it suggests that the spatial structure
 452 is likely already captured by the model components, particularly the spatial weight matrix and
 453 the inefficiency term. This interpretation is supported by the substantial improvement in model
 454 fit compared to the non-spatial SFA model and the significant spatial autocorrelation in the
 455 residuals of the SFA (Moran's I test, $p < 0.0001$), which is notably reduced in the sSFA
 456 framework. These findings indicate that failing to account for spatial dependence in the SFA
 457 leads to spatially correlated inefficiency or unobserved heterogeneity, which the sSFA is able
 458 to absorb even when the explicit spatial parameter estimate remains small.

459 Mean efficiency is similar in both models (0.4882 and 0.4842), suggesting moderate overall
 460 efficiency levels in the sample.

461 Likelihood-ratio tests clearly reject the null hypothesis of no inefficiency ($\sigma_u^2 = 0$) in both cases
 462 ($p < 0.0001$), and both spatial models exhibit substantially better fit than the corresponding OLS
 463 model, as evidenced by lower AIC values (887.98 and 890.86, respectively).

464 A summary of the efficiencies estimated in the different models is presented in Table 5.

465 **Table 5: Summary statistics of the estimated efficiencies**

	SFA	sSFA (d = 70 km)	sSFA (d = 100 km)
Minimum	0.0346	0.0348	0.0343
Median	0.5312	0.5414	0.5318
Mean	0.4860	0.4882	0.4842
Maximum	0.9641	0.9632	0.9644

466 Source: own calculation

467 Differences in the models' efficiency estimates should not be analysed directly because
468 efficiency estimates of different model specifications are generally non-comparable. Efficiency
469 values, therefore, allow conclusions to be drawn about the patterns of the efficiency estimates,
470 not about the numbers themselves. Additionally, mean efficiency scores show that regions
471 operate well below the estimated adoption frontier. However, the inefficiency term does not
472 reflect a single mechanism or pure inefficiency in a strict sense. Rather, it reflects unrealised
473 diffusion relative to comparable regions, conditional on observed characteristics, and may
474 capture unobserved adoption barriers. These include structural constraints (e.g. limited storage,
475 processing, or trading infrastructure) as well as heterogeneity in crop rotations, farm structure,
476 profitability, and farmers' knowledge or preferences. With district-level data, these factors
477 cannot be empirically disentangled.

478 **5. Discussion**

479 Agricultural traders interested in buying grain legumes are unevenly distributed across
480 Germany, potentially indicating regional market and cultivation inefficiencies. However, the
481 identification of traders is based on a buyer map that relies on voluntary registration. Hence,
482 the dataset may therefore provide an incomplete picture of regional market structure and may
483 introduce measurement error into the market access variable, although there is no clear
484 indication that unregistered traders differ systematically from registered ones. The issue is
485 therefore primarily one of incomplete coverage rather than substantial selection bias. Despite
486 this, it remains the only nationwide dataset available and provides the best basis for analysis.

487 Another potential concern is that the number of registered legume traders may be endogenous
488 to cultivation patterns, weakening causal interpretation. However, several contextual factors
489 suggest that endogeneity is likely limited: Trader locations in Germany reflect long-established
490 regional trading structures and entry involves high fixed costs and long-term planning rather
491 than short-term responses to fluctuations in legume cultivation. Trading decisions are

492 alsostrategic and embedded within broader crop-marketing portfolios, suggesting distribution
493 is largely exogenous to short-run variation in legume acreage. Nonetheless, results are
494 interpreted cautiously as there is a literature gap regarding the adoption of a comprehensive
495 approach capable of dealing with endogeneity in SFA (Russo et al., 2023) and further research
496 with stronger identification strategies or longitudinal data is needed.

497 Spatial analyses shows that the presence of grain legume traders is positively and significantly
498 associated with the decision to cultivate grain legumes and, hence, cultivation efficiency. This
499 robust result highlights the importance of regional trading structures for legume adoption across
500 both spatial specifications. The hypothesis that an improved market environment regarding
501 trading structures results in greater adoption and, thus, a higher diffusion rate cannot be rejected.

502 The available agricultural area is significantly positive, confirming that larger land availability
503 is associated with higher legumes adoption. In contrast, cultivability and livestock density are
504 not statistically significantly associated with legume cultivation in the models, indicating that
505 market access and land endowment matter more than agronomic suitability. Since legumes can
506 be grown widely across Germany (Roßberg & Recknagel, 2017; Stephenson, 2022),
507 cultivability is not a binding constraint and likely affects decisions mainly through opportunity
508 costs rather than direct suitability. Land with more favourable soil conditions is often used for
509 crops with higher expected returns.

510 The share of land under organic farming (eco_share) is positively associated with grain legume
511 area, though only significant in the 100 km model, indicating stronger effects at broader spatial
512 scales. This reflects the role of crop rotations in organic systems, where legumes support weed
513 control and soil fertility through nitrogen fixation (Preissel et al., 2015). Subsequent crops
514 benefit agronomically from the preceding legume cultivation (Bedoussac et al., 2015). As
515 organic farmland is expected to increase in the next few decades, legume cultivation may
516 increase accordingly (Statistisches Bundesamt, 2021). Apart from this, spatial dependencies

517 have been reported in regions with high shares of organic farming: such regions tend to be close
518 to others with a high proportion of organically farmed land, and thus external scale economies
519 seem to exist (Bonfiglio & Arzeni, 2020). Together with the positive effect of the large share
520 of organic farming, these spatial dependencies may increase the acreage of grain legumes in
521 future.

522 Considering the distance-based weights matrix and spatial dependencies, positive spillover
523 effects between the districts are shown. Here, the diffusion rate of growing grain legumes is
524 positively influenced by the presence of agricultural traders in the local area.

525 Building on this, the estimated gap between maximum feasible and observed diffusion should
526 be interpreted cautiously. It does not solely reflect inefficiency but may capture unobserved
527 regional differences, such as farmer preferences, risk attitudes, farm structures, and crop
528 rotations, which cannot be assessed with county-level data. However, they cannot be analysed
529 directly with the available county-level data. A more precise assessment of these factors would
530 require detailed farm-level data, which are beyond the scope of this study and represent an area
531 for future research. Similarly, unobserved differences in the relative profitability of grain
532 legumes across regions may contribute to the estimated gap, since detailed farm-level
533 information on crop-specific revenues, costs, and hence opportunity costs is not available. In
534 contrast, path dependencies appear less likely to arise at the farm level, as grain legume
535 cultivation typically does not require asset-specific investment in specialised machinery or
536 equipment. Instead, persistence effects could plausibly be linked to downstream processing and
537 trading structures. Overall, the gap reflects unrealised diffusion potential relative to comparable
538 regions rather than strict inefficiency.

539 The choice of a distance-based spatial weights matrix (SWM) is debatable, as its assumed
540 structure may not reflect reality, which is a common issue in spatial modelling. (Bhattacharjee
541 & Jensen-Butler, 2013). Mur et al. (2012) provide an overview of the criteria that should be

542 considered when choosing a suitable spatial weights matrix, given that considerable uncertainty
543 surrounds the choice of appropriate distance measures in many applications (Anselin, 2002;
544 Harris et al., 2011). Using the data-driven approach of Bauman et al. (2018) a distance-based
545 SWM with a 70 km threshold was selected as the preferred spatial structure. This specification
546 minimized residual spatial autocorrelation and suggests that spatial interdependencies are
547 mainly local, aligning estimated effects with observed data patterns. (see also Section 3.2).
548 However, a data-driven selection may reflect sample-specific patterns, risking overfitting and
549 limited generalizability. The approach may overlook theoretically plausible interactions at
550 larger scales, such as long-distance trade or knowledge spillovers beyond the 70 km threshold.
551 Therefore, it should be complemented by theoretical considerations and robustness checks, as
552 done here by testing alternative matrices and thresholds. A 70 km threshold is also theoretically
553 plausible, as agronomic, market, and environmental interactions are typically local.

554 All in all, the findings suggest that policies aimed at increasing grain legume cultivation should
555 go beyond farm-level production incentives, which is in line with Kremmydas et al. (2024) . As
556 market access and regional trading structures are key, measures should address value chain
557 bottlenecks, including support for regional processing and trading structures, better
558 coordination coordination between farmers, traders, and processors, and improved market
559 transparency. At the European level, these results highlight the importance of embedding grain
560 legumes more strongly in CAP eco-schemes, rural development measures, and wider protein
561 strategies. Targeted support for legume value chains in regions with limited market access could
562 reduce structural barriers to adoption more effectively than area-based incentives alone and
563 strengthen the competitiveness of grain legumes.

564 **6. Conclusion**

565 There is a high demand for domestic grain legumes as a protein-rich component in German
566 animal feed while domestic production cannot meet market demand. Even though grain

567 legumes additionally contribute to resilient and biodiverse production systems, the development
568 of acreage and thus of production volumes has fluctuated considerably around low absolute
569 numbers for years. Therefore, this paper investigated the factors that influence the adoption
570 decision and diffusion rate regarding the cultivation of grain legumes, focusing on the structure
571 of the German market for grain legumes. Using spatial stochastic frontier analysis, the spatial
572 distribution of agricultural traders is examined in relation to the potential diffusion of grain
573 legume cultivation in terms of acreage and production. This analysis found that the number of
574 agricultural traders in a region is positively associated with the utilisation of land potentially
575 suitable for grain legume cultivation. The spatial distribution of agricultural traders can be
576 interpreted as an indication of market access influencing crop diversification decisions and,
577 thus, land use change. Consequently, the hypothesis that improved trading structures are
578 associated with an increase in adoption and diffusion cannot be rejected. Establishing improved
579 trading structures could lead to a higher diffusion rate and thus to more efficient utilisation of
580 cultivated land for grain legumes and, hence, protein production. This could be achieved, for
581 example, by establishing networks and cooperatives among farmers to pool production
582 quantities and coordinate marketing beyond the local area.

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770

772 Table A: Quality Parameters of selected SWMs (according to Bauman et al. (2018))

Rank	Matrix	Adj. R ²	p-value	No. of variables included	Adj. R ² (selected)
1	Dnear70000 Binary	0.4683	0.0012	37	0.4613
2	Dnear70000 Up 0.5	0.4458	0.0012	31	0.4228
3	Dnear70000 Down 5	0.4308	0.0012	26	0.4264
4	Delaunay Down 5	0.3154	0.0012	15	0.3069
5	Delaunay Binary	0.3145	0.0012	15	0.3120
6	Delaunay Up 0.5	0.3062	0.0012	24	0.3053
7	Gabriel Down 5	0.2988	0.0012	18	0.2926
8	Gabriel Binary	0.2682	0.0072	14	0.2635
9	Relative Binary	0.2671	0.0167	17	0.2622
10	Relative Down 5	0.2523	0.0202	16	0.2492
11	Relative Up 0.5	0.2461	0.0273	14	0.2457
12	Gabriel Up 0.5	0.2433	0.0202	13	0.2342

773 Source: Own calculation. “Dnear” = distance-based SWM with distance in meters; “Delaunay” = neighborhood
774 based on Delaunay triangulation; “Gabriel” = neighborhood based on Gabriel graph; “Relative” = neighborhood
775 based on Relative Neighborhood graph; “Binary” = 0/1 contiguity weights; Down_5 = distance-decaying
776 weights; “Up_0.5” = distance-upweighting weights. Adj. R² (selected) = Adjusted R² of the best-performing
777 model specification selected for each spatial weight matrix according to the procedure of Bauman et al. (2018)
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