

Article

Exploring the Role of Contiguous Farmland Cultivation and Adoption of No-Tillage Technology in Improving Transferees' Income Structure: Evidence from China

Ruishi Si ¹, Yumeng Yao ¹, Xueqian Zhang ¹, Qian Lu ² and Noshaba Aziz ^{3,*}

¹ School of Public Administration, Xi'an University of Architecture and Technology, Xi'an 710055, China; siruishi@126.com (R.S.); yao15735335618@163.com (Y.Y.); zwx1772433407@126.com (X.Z.)

² College of Economics and Management, Northwest A&F University, Xianyang 712100, China; luqian110203@163.com

³ College of Economics and Management, Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing 210095, China

* Correspondence: t2020065@njau.edu.cn

Abstract: Seasonal alternations of extreme weather such as continuous drought and rare rainstorms significantly influence farmers' adoption of agricultural technologies. Compared with traditional tillage, no-tillage technology has more advantages to cope with extreme weather. It is hypothesized that the cultivation of contiguous farmland is still minimal in spite of the transference of farmland on a large scale in China, which ultimately halts the adoption of no-tillage technology and influences the income of households. The current study used 793 farmland transferees' data from Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia provinces of China to explore this phenomenon empirically. By employing the endogenous switching regression model, the study revealed that contiguous farmland significantly promotes the adoption of no-tillage technology and positively influences households' agricultural and non-agricultural income. Meanwhile, the moderating effect of the stability of farmland rental contracts is explored. Further, it was also found that education level, organizational participation, relationship networks, and information acquisition channels influence the income of transferees who opt for no-tillage technology. The study further revealed that if a transferee who opts for no-tillage technology switches to traditional technology, their agricultural and non-agricultural income will decrease by 0.2893 and 1.6979 ten thousand yuan (RMB), respectively. In contrast, if a transferee who opts for traditional technology then switches to adopt no-tillage technology, their agricultural and non-agricultural income will increase by 0.1919 and 1.3044 ten thousand yuan (RMB), respectively. Conclusively, the current study's empirical findings offer policymakers possible guidelines to devise strategies and encourage transferees to opt for no-tillage applications to increase their families' income.

Keywords: contiguous farmland cultivation; no-tillage; traditional tillage; farmland rental contract; family income structure



Citation: Si, R.; Yao, Y.; Zhang, X.; Lu, Q.; Aziz, N. Exploring the Role of Contiguous Farmland Cultivation and Adoption of No-Tillage Technology in Improving Transferees' Income Structure: Evidence from China. *Land* **2022**, *11*, 570. <https://doi.org/10.3390/land11040570>

Academic Editors: Dongxue Zhao, Daniel Rodriguez, Feng Liu and Tibet Khongnawang

Received: 20 March 2022

Accepted: 10 April 2022

Published: 13 April 2022

Publisher's Note: MDPI stays neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.



Copyright: © 2022 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

1. Introduction

In 2021, the floods in Europe and China and the rising temperature of California confirmed the evolution of "extreme events" as "regular trends" [1]. The rising trend of extreme events coupled with greenhouse gases and global warming intensified the frequency and intensity of damage and even unduly distressed the countries with poor resource settings [2–4]. The developing countries in the monsoon season are more susceptible to extreme weather events such as drought and flood, etc. [5–8]. Researchers argue that poor infrastructure, extensive agricultural farming, and less adoption of new agricultural technologies are the major factors that hinder developing countries from dealing with extreme weather patterns [6,9–11]. In turn, extreme weather also influences agricultural production patterns and technology innovation [12–15]. In this regard, no-tillage technology is found helpful to deal with the seasonal fluctuations of continuous drought and rainstorms [16–18]. No-tillage technology

refers to farming that does not require plowing the soil except for sowing and fertilization and uses only drillers for sowing. The amount of soil plowed under no-tillage technology does not exceed the cultivated area by more than 25% [19–21]. Since the soil is less plowed and rotated, and seeds are directly deposited into untilled soil that retains the previous crop residues, the soil's organic matter increases. Many prior studies affirmed that no-tillage technology is helpful to maintain soil's moisture and water content and improves crop resistance towards soil erosion [22–26]. Thus, no-tillage technology is found to be an effective and innovative technology to deal with extreme weather damage sustainably.

Further, during the era of COVID-19, food security issues worldwide have attracted the attention of the government, institutions, and researchers, particularly due to economic recession and downturn, regional conflicts and instability, and broken food supply chains in developing countries [27–33]. The recent report of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization documented alarmingly that the number of hungry people in the world increased sharply by 161 million in 2020, and if developing countries progress at the same pace, it will be impossible to achieve the goal of “zero hunger” by 2030 [34]. Though many factors at the national and regional levels lead to food shortages, the most crucial factor is the decline in the quality of farmland caused by long-term over-farming, which adversely influences food production globally [35–38]. Thus, it is recommended to promote conservational tillage technology such as no-tillage technology to improve the quality of farmland and intensify food production sustainably [20,26].

It is noteworthy that farmers in developing countries are reluctant to adopt no-tillage technology [39,40], but recently, certain factors have led them to adopt no-tillage technology [41,42]. For instance, the lower production efficiency of small farmers using the conservational method of farming on fragmented farmland results in lower income [43–45], which creates difficulty in sustaining daily life expenditures and children's education etc. [46–51]. Moreover, it is believed that rural–urban migration and non-agricultural employment shape the rational economic behavior of individuals [52–54]. Thus, reduced farming and abandoning of farmland in rural areas has lessened the food production and supply [46,55–57], which in turn, has promoted the farmland transfer and rental markets in developing countries [58,59]. It is believed that the farmland rental market has encouraged farmland transferees to adopt no-tillage technology more widely.

As mechanized sowing methods mainly implement no-tillage technology, the scale effect significantly affects the adoption of no-tillage technology [60]. However, this phenomenon, which links farmland transfer with scale operation and farmers' technology adoption, is controversial. Some scholars hold that farmland transfer helps in improving the efficiency of farmers to adopt mechanized and labor-saving technology, reducing the cost of production, etc. [61–68], while others believe that farmland transfer does not necessarily foster adoption of technology due to scale operation [69]. Scale operation depends on farmland resources, socioeconomic characteristics, technical equipment, and political and historical conditions [42,70]. In this vein, it is pertinent to say that farmland transfer does not improve farmers' efficiency in adopting agricultural technology [65]. The fundamental reason for the disputes mentioned above is that the existing research ignores the quality of scale operation, which is mainly characterized by the degree of contiguous farmland cultivation. In developing countries, the development of the farmland rental market has only increased the number of transferees' land holdings, but some transferees still implement fragmented agricultural production, and in this way, their family income and welfare are not raised [36,65,71–74]. Moreover, it is proposed that farmland rental contracts should be stable for contiguous farmland cultivation because the transferee can only adopt new agricultural technology and enable inter-period gains within a longer rental term [60,75–77].

So, based on the above discussion, the current study explores the role of contiguous farmland cultivation and the adoption of no-tillage technology in improving the income structure of transferees. In the prevailing literature, many studies have explored the factors affecting farmers' adoption of no-tillage technology, including farmers' characteristics, such

as gender, age, education level, and political status [78–80]; family characteristics, such as the number of laborers, the area of arable land, the number of pieces of machinery, and the family income [81,82]; the operating characteristics, such as the degree of specialization and the degree of non-agricultural work [83,84]; cognitive characteristics, such as risk perception, risk preference, risk aversion, environmental literacy, environmental protection awareness, farmland protection awareness [85,86]; and policy measures, such as technical training and government subsidies [87,88], but these studies found inconclusive results. Moreover, farmers' adoption of new agricultural technology is mainly determined by agricultural production costs and benefits from land economics and management. Unfortunately, the existing research has not explored the relationship between the farmland transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology and their agricultural income.

So to explore the phenomenon empirically, the current study used data of 793 farmland transferees from Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia provinces of China. Compared with the previous research, the current study contributes to the literature in the following ways. For example, firstly, the research gathered data from farmland transferees who have been adopting no-tillage technology rather than common farmers. Secondly, our study used the ratio of the largest acre of contiguous farmland to the total farmland area to measure the degree of contiguous farmland cultivation, unlike the studies of Wang and Yang [89] and Xu et al. [90], which used discrete binary variables to assess farmland as contiguous or fragmented. Thirdly, previous research mainly explored the family income or farmers' welfare [91–93], but the present research categorized the transferees' income into agricultural income and non-agricultural income. Moreover, considering the endogenous issue caused by sample selection bias in the adoption of no-tillage technology, this study employed the endogenous switching regression (ESR) model to construct a counterfactual assumption to deal with the possible endogenous issue and further explore the role of contiguous farmland cultivation and adoption of no-tillage technology in improving transferees' income structure. Finally, due to the separation of farmland owners and users, we further analyzed the moderating effect of the stability of farmland rental contracts and the influence of contiguous farmland cultivation on transferees' no-tillage technology adoption and their income structure.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. Section two highlights the research background, and theoretical and conceptual frameworks are presented in section three. Section four describes the data and methodology. Section five reports and discusses our empirical results. In the final section, conclusions are drawn, and some policy implications are proposed. Finally, the limitation of the study is also presented in the last section.

2. Research Background

As a typical monsoon-affected zone of the Northwest Pacific, China is deeply affected by greenhouse gas emissions and global warming. In 2015, China's Extreme Climate Events, Disaster Risk Management, and Adaptation Assessment Report showed that extreme weather events have significantly altered over the past 60 years with a steep rise in temperature and rainfall [94]. The rural areas of China, with huge poverty levels, were more at risk due to natural disasters from 1978 to 2015 [95]. Agriculture is the most vulnerable sector, being susceptible to extreme weather, and in this instance, traditional small-scale food production cannot meet rural households' growing consumption and expenditure requirements [53,96]. Consequently, non-agricultural employment and large-scale rural–urban labor migration have become the most typical labor spatial characteristics in China in the 21st century [97–99]. In 2019, the total number of migrant peasant workers in China reached 290.77 million, with 116.52 million local migrant workers (within township areas) and 174.25 million migrant workers (outside township areas). Meanwhile, labor mobility also promoted the agricultural rental land market by reducing farmers' dependence on farmland and achieving optimal family labor allocation [100]. By the end of 2020, farmland transferred in China reached 37 million hectares. Thus, it became essential to adopt agricul-

tural technological innovation to cope with the unexpected damage of extreme weather and win the battle against poverty.

In this regard, the no-tillage technology has emerged as an environment-friendly phenomenon that developed in the 1940s, when the United States suffered from severe soil erosion, and is now globally adopted [19]. Since 1978, the Chinese government has been promoting no-tillage technology in the monsoon climate zones where drought and flood occur. As of 2017, the mechanized no-tillage area accounted for 10.48% of the total arable farmland [101]. Nevertheless, compared with other countries, the proportion of mechanized no-tillage technology adopted is relatively low. In this study, we focused on Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia provinces of China due to the following notable aspects: firstly, the three provinces are located in the Loess Plateau region, China, and October to May of each year are dry months and June to September mostly experience concentrated rainfall [102]. Moreover, soil erosion and water shortage severely affect the agricultural production of these regions, which encourages farmers to adopt no-tillage technology. Secondly, since 2001, these provinces have successfully implemented subsidies and training programs to promote no-tillage technology continuously. In 2019, the mechanized no-tillage technology area in Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia provinces accounted for 24.52, 27.20 and 17.85% of the conservation tillage area, respectively. Thirdly, these areas are relatively poor regions in western China, and in 2019, the number of migrant peasant workers was relatively large with 6.0 million, 1.7 million, and 0.8 million people, respectively [103]. Moreover, farmland transference increasingly occurred, with a transfer rate exceeding 20% of the farmland area. Additionally, due to the vertical and horizontal ravines of farmland, the degree of farmland fragmentation is severe. Therefore, these aspects make these provinces a better research area.

3. Theoretical and Conceptual Framework

3.1. Influence of Contiguous Farmland Cultivation on Transferees' Income Structure

Many previous studies revealed that contiguous farmland cultivation is necessary for large-scale agricultural practices [43,48,104]. Contiguous farmland cultivation allocates land use rights and facilitates mechanized farming [104,105]. Contiguous farmland cultivation may have a subtle impact on transferees' income structure. Firstly, contiguous farmland cultivation is good for forming economies of scale as compared to fragmented farmland because fragmented lands are scattered and require huge costs in operating machinery on small-scale plots [69,106–108]. Studies have confirmed that when a small harvester works on a field of 1.35 mu, the time it takes accounts for 15% of the entire 13.15 mu plot area. If the number of plots increases by one plot, the cost of mechanical operations will increase by 1.01% [109]. These cumbersome practices lead to the loss of economies of scale [110]. Secondly, contiguous farmland cultivation is conducive to transferee's unified decision-making, instead of the multi-agent decision-making caused by farmland fragmentation. Moreover, it can also help implement crop specialization production methods, form the brand effect of agricultural products, to the competitiveness of the products in the market [111,112]. Qin and Zhang [113] stated that although diversified planting can spread farmers' production and market risks, specialized production is in line with the mainstream trend of modern agricultural development. Thus, contiguous farmland cultivation is beneficial to increase the transferee's agricultural income. Thirdly, contiguous farmland cultivation helps to reallocate family labor resources. Mechanized farming saves the transferee family's surplus labor and encourages them to engage in non-agricultural employment, thereby increasing the family's non-agricultural income [114]. Consequently, keeping in view the above aspects, this research hypothesizes the first assumptions:

Hypothesis 1. *Contiguous farmland cultivation can increase the farmland transferee's agricultural and non-agricultural income.*

3.2. Influence of Contiguous Farmland Cultivation on Transferee's Adoption of No-Tillage Technology

Previous studies have rarely explored the causal relationship between contiguous farmland cultivation and the transferee's adoption of no-tillage technology. No-tillage is not like abandoned tillage [20]. It mainly reduces cultivated land's plowing and rotary tillage and adopts an effective sowing mechanism for agricultural production [115–117]. In some developing countries, the infrastructure in rural areas is relatively weak [118–120]. If the cultivated land is highly fragmented, the planter will only access the farmland adjacent to the road. Hence, farmers are reluctant to adopt no-tillage technology. Accordingly, contiguous farmland cultivation encourages farmers to adopt no-tillage technology. Besides, no-tillage technology is one of the conservational tillage technologies. Still, some unfavorable views concerning the causal relationship between contiguous farmland cultivation and transferees' adoption of conservation tillage technologies exist. Some scholars believe that the transferee usually pays attention to higher yield and neglects farmland investment, especially in the context of unstable farmland rental contracts [60]. The positive externalities of conservational tillage technology usually have inter-temporal attributes [121–123]. Suppose the rental time of farmland is short. In that case, the transferee is less likely to adopt conservational tillage technology. Within the lease term, the transferee's adoption of conservation tillage technology cannot obtain the technology benefits as expected [124,125]. Thus, the effect of contiguous farmland cultivation on the transferee's adoption of no-tillage technology is uncertain, which usually depends on the stability of the farmland rental contract. Therefore, this research proposes the second assumption as follows:

Hypothesis 2. *The impact of contiguous farmland cultivation on the transferee's adoption of no-tillage technology is uncertain.*

3.3. Influence of Transferee's Adoption of No-Tillage Technology on Their Family Income Structure

Residents' family income includes salary, wages, rent, and transfer income [126,127]. However, in rural areas, these incomes are not evenly distributed among the sample households. In the study, we used agricultural income and non-agricultural income to describe farmers' income structure. In the context of farmland transfer, previous studies have rarely explored the relationship between the adoption of no-tillage technology and the transferees' income structure. Some scholars believe that no-tillage technology improves the land quality and crop yield with time, which endorses the law of marginal benefits of adopting green technology [128–130]. Other scholars hold that no-tillage technology stabilizes agricultural income by reducing the losses due to climate and natural disasters, such as drought and soil erosion, and effectively improves crop yields [16,21,26]. Additionally, according to the previous discussion, no-tillage technology is a capital-intensive rather than labor-intensive technology. Compared with traditional technology, the adoption of no-tillage technology encourages rural laborers to engage in non-agricultural employment opportunities and eventually improves transferees' family welfare. The increase in non-agricultural income may also increase transferees' investment in no-tillage technology [91]. Hence, this research proposes the following assumptions.

Hypothesis 3. *Adoption of the no-tillage technology can increase transferee's agricultural income and non-agricultural income and finally exerts an influence on family income structure.*

The theoretical and conceptual framework discussed above is exhibited in Figure 1.

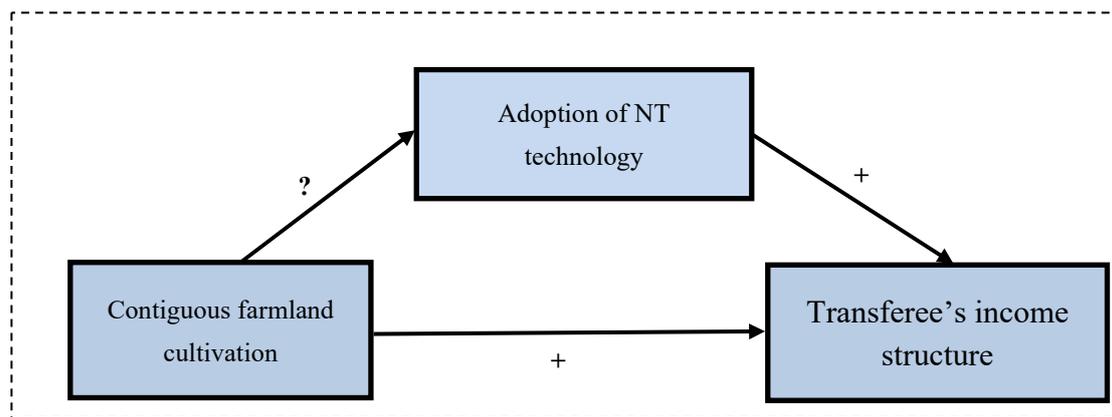


Figure 1. Theoretical framework used in the current study.

4. Data and Methodology

4.1. Study Sites

Three provinces of China, namely, Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia, were selected as the study area, located at $92^{\circ}13' - 111^{\circ}15'$ east longitude and $31^{\circ}42' - 42^{\circ}57'$ north latitude, with a total area of 697,800 square kilometers (see Figure 2). The areas are the most monsoon-affected area in China. Moreover, the alternating seasonal patterns of drought and soil erosion also create challenges for these regions to enhance agricultural production. Additionally, these provinces have set the trend for adopting no-tillage technology firstly compared to other areas, with the help of experienced and well-trained staff. Compared with other parts of China, no-tillage technology has been most widely adopted in these areas.

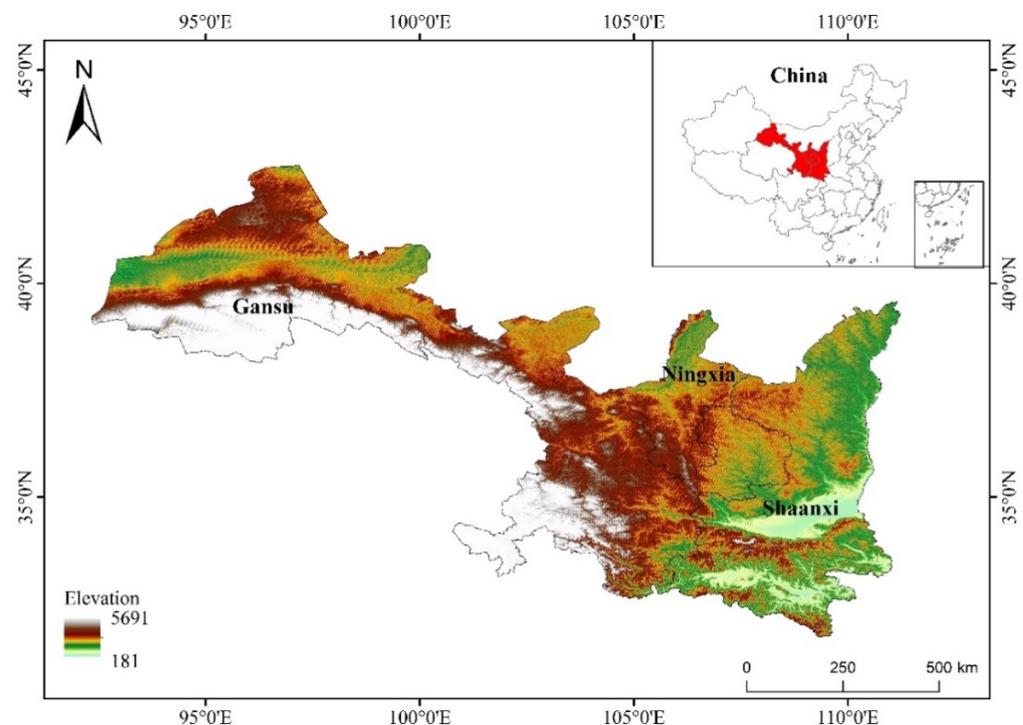


Figure 2. Map of study area (Source: Arc GIS 10).

4.2. Sample Selection

The data for the current study were collected from Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia provinces by distributing a questionnaire from 2 January to 16 January 2019. The questionnaire survey group consisted of 3 associate professors and 7 graduate students who

had undergone professional training before the formal investigation. Meanwhile, the questionnaire survey obtained information support from the agricultural departments of the sampled counties. The survey adopted a combination of stratified and simple random sampling. First, 4 sample counties in each province were randomly selected, then 5–8 towns from the sampled counties were randomly selected. Finally, 40–50 households from each town were randomly selected. The specific questionnaire survey area is about 41,800 square kilometers, including Shenmu, Zizhou, Yanchang, and Huanglong counties in Shaanxi Province; Jingchuan, Jingning, Guazhou, and Zhengning counties in Gansu Province; and Yongning, Tongxin, Yanchi, and Haiyuan counties in Ningxia. The survey gathered data from 1585 respondents; after removing blank and contradictory questionnaires, 1496 valid samples were retained, including 703 farmland transferors and 793 transferees, which comprised 472, 525, and 499 households, respectively, from Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia provinces. The effective rate of the questionnaire was about 94.39%.

The sampled data for empirical analysis comprised 793 farmland transferees, including 267 households from Shaanxi, 251 households from Gansu, and 275 households from Ningxia. Before the formal survey, the research team conducted a pre-survey in Zhangye, Gansu province and accordingly modified research content such as households' characteristics, family characteristics, operating conditions, social capital, adoption of no-tillage technology, organizational participation, government incentives, etc. Besides, in-depth interviews with farmland transferees were also conducted during the survey. These interviews provided good evidence for interpreting the quantitative findings.

4.3. Variable Selection

4.3.1. Outcome Variables

A variety of crops, such as wheat, corn, potatoes, etc., were planted by the transferees in the sampled areas. The planting patterns were highly heterogeneous, such as specialized or multiple planting. Hence, this study did not analyze yield differences between no-tillage and traditional tillage, but directly converted crop yield into agricultural income. The main outcome variable in the current study was farmland transferees' income structure. The income structure can reflect the main source of household income and serve as the main channel for assessing farmers' future income [131–133]. In traditional economics, the income structure includes wages and operating, property, and transfer incomes. The wage income comes from non-agricultural employment; the operating income comes from agricultural planting; property income is from renting houses and vehicles; transfer income mainly refers to government subsidies for households adopting no-tillage technology. However, suppose the statistical analysis is performed according to these income classifications on the sampled data. In that case, some data might drop as most farmland transferees do not have property income or wage income. Against this backdrop, the current study categorized the income structure into agricultural income and non-agricultural income by following the study of Danso-Abbeam et al. [91], Amfo and Ali [134], and Pang et al. [135].

4.3.2. Explanatory Variables

Some previous research has usually equated farmland transfer with large-scale operation and regarded transferees' farmland area as contiguous farmland cultivation [136–138], while other scholars considered the product of the area of transferred farmland and the number of plots as the index of contiguous farmland cultivation [68,69]. It is believed that these studies have neglected the spatial location of cultivated land resources; that is, cultivated land after farmland transfer may also present a fragmented block distribution instead of a flaky distribution. So, unlike the previous studies, the current study used the ratio of the largest acre of contiguous farmland to the total farmland as the degree of transferee's contiguous farmland cultivation. Hence, the transferee's contiguous farmland cultivation is a continuous variable that lies between 0–1. Additionally, there is sample self-selection behavior when the transferee adopts no-tillage technology. If the transferee adopts the no-tillage technology, the value assigned is 1; if the transferee does not opt for

technology switching to adopt no-tillage technology, respectively. Consequently, the average treatment effect (ATT) of income structure of transferee adopting no-tillage technology can be expressed as the difference between (6) and (8):

$$ATT = E(Y_{i1}|D_i = 1) - E(Y_{i0}|D_i = 1) = X_{i1}(\gamma_1 - \gamma_0) + Z'_{i1}(\tau_1 - \tau_0) + \lambda_{i1}(\sigma_{\mu 1} - \sigma_{\mu 0}) \quad (10)$$

The average treatment effect (ATT) of income structure of a transferee adopting traditional technology can be expressed as the difference between (7) and (9):

$$ATT = E(Y_{i1}|D_i = 0) - E(Y_{i0}|D_i = 0) = X_{i0}(\gamma_1 - \gamma_0) + Z'_{i0}(\tau_1 - \tau_0) + \lambda_{i0}(\sigma_{\mu 1} - \sigma_{\mu 0}) \quad (11)$$

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of all variables with their measurement are shown in Table 1. From Table 1, it can be seen that the main source of farmland transferees' income was from non-agricultural sources, and agricultural income only accounted for 32.17%. The farmland transfer did not significantly improve the fragmentation of cultivated land, and the degree of contiguous farmland cultivation was less than 50%. The terms of the farmland rental contracts were relatively short, with an average value of 2.7201. Moreover, the heads of farmland transferees were mainly males, and the proportion of females participating in family decision-making was relatively low. The transferees had a relatively low level of education, and most of them were middle-aged and older adults, accounting for 73.84%. The family labor resources in the sample area were not highly sufficient, with an average value of only 3.1677 people. Additionally, 34.05% of households faced loan pressure from banks, and 46.53% of the transferees actively participated in agricultural cooperative organizations to increase their family income. Regarding no-tillage technology, only 42.25% of the transferees adopted this technology, and the technology adoption rate was still relatively low. In information sources, only 9.08% of transferees obtained technology adoption information through modern communication modes. Meanwhile, less than 50% of the transferees received no-tillage training provided by the government free of cost.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of variables.

Variables	Measurement	Percentage	Mean	S.D.	Relevant Literature
Transferee's income structure	Agricultural income (ten thousand yuan RMB)	32.17%	1.5065	1.7537	Pang et al. [135]
	Non-agricultural income (ten thousand yuan RMB)	67.83%	3.1603	4.9320	
Contiguous farmland cultivation	The ratio of the largest acre of contiguous farmland to the total farmland area		0.4602	0.2497	Qu and Zhao [69]
Adoption of no-tillage technology	No-tillage adoption = 1	42.25%	0.4225	0.4943	Chaudhary et al. [16]
	Traditional tillage adoption = 0	57.75%			
Farmland rental contract stability	Terms of farmland rental contract (year)		2.7201	3.1486	Si et al. [60]
Gender	Male = 1	96.97%	0.9697	0.1714	Tan et al. [144]
	Female = 0	3.03%			
Age	<40 year	26.16%	52.3228	10.4571	Cao et al. [145]
	40–60 year	40.35%			
	>60 year	33.49%			

Table 1. Cont.

Variables	Measurement	Percentage	Mean	S.D.	Relevant Literature
Education level	<7 year (primary school)	30.25%	5.7755	3.6615	Danso-Abbeam et al. [91]
	7–9 year (middle school)	46.79%			
	10–12 year (high school)	20.08%			
	>12 year (university)	2.88%			
Number of laborers	<4 people	62.15%	3.1677	1.4358	Deichmann et al. [54]
	4–6 people	30.07%			
	>6 people	7.78%			
Family loan	Loan = 1	34.05%	0.3405	0.4742	Zhang [98]
	Non-loan = 0	65.95%			
Organization participation	Participation = 1	46.53%	0.4653	0.4991	Zhu and Li [136]
	Non-participation = 0	53.47%			
Relationship network	Contacts stored in the phone(people)		73.2283	87.7937	Xu et al. [146]
Information acquisition channels	Modern communication equipment such as mobile phones or the internet = 1	9.08%	0.0908	0.2875	Zhan and Li [126]
	Non = 0	90.92%			
Government skill training	Training = 1	46.15%	0.4615	0.4988	Tran and Vu [71]
	Non-training = 0	53.85%			
Gansu	Gansu = 1 non-Gansu = 0		0.3594	0.4801	Sheng et al. [133]
Shaanxi	Shaanxi = 1 non-Shaanxi = 0		0.2358	0.4248	

Source: field survey (2019).

5.2. Statistical Inference

According to the recent study of Abdelhafez et al. [147], it is stated that correlation is a non-deterministic interdependence relationship; that is, for each value of the independent variable, the dependent variable is affected by random factors, and its corresponding value is non-deterministic. We further drew the nuclear density curve to infer the correlation relationships between the contiguous farmland cultivation and transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology (see Figure 3), the contiguous farmland cultivation and transferees' income structure (see Figure 4), as well as transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology and family income structure (see Figure 5). It is apparent from Figure 3 that as the degree of contiguous farmland cultivation increased, the nuclear density curve of the farmland transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology shifted to the right, indicating that contiguous farmland cultivation and the adoption of no-tillage technology have a positive relationship. Figures 4 and 5 also show that the higher the degree of contiguous farmland cultivation, the more the transferees adopted no-tillage technology and increased their agricultural incomes to be greater than the income obtained by traditional technology. Meanwhile, the non-agricultural income obtained by the transferees adopting no-tillage technology was also greater than the non-agricultural income obtained by the transferees adopting traditional technology.

5.3. Results of Endogenous Switching Regression (ESR) Model

The ESR model is used to explore the influence of contiguous farmland cultivation and the adoption of no-tillage technology by transferees on their agricultural income (Model 1) and non-agricultural income (Model 2), respectively. The regression results of the models are shown in Table 2 and reveal that the Wald values of Models (1) and (2) are 161.55 and 162.07, respectively, which are significant at a 1% level, while the LR values are 9.22 and 9.25, respectively, which are significant at 5% levels, indicating that the two models have

a relatively good fitting effect. Moreover, Equation (1) indicates the transferees' decision regarding the adoption of no-tillage technology. In contrast, Equations (2) and (4) represent the agricultural and non-agricultural income equations of the transferees' adopting no-tillage technology. Equations (3) and (5) are the agricultural income and non-agricultural income equations of the transferees adopting traditional tillage technology. Additionally, to explore the moderating effect of contract stability in the influence of contiguous farmland cultivation on the transferees adopting no-tillage technology and their income structure, the interaction terms of contiguous farmland cultivation and the stability of the farmland rental contracts (contract stability) were incorporated, and it was found that the main effect of contiguous farmland cultivation and contract stability remains significant. Hence, Table 3 also shows the ESR results with the interaction term added.

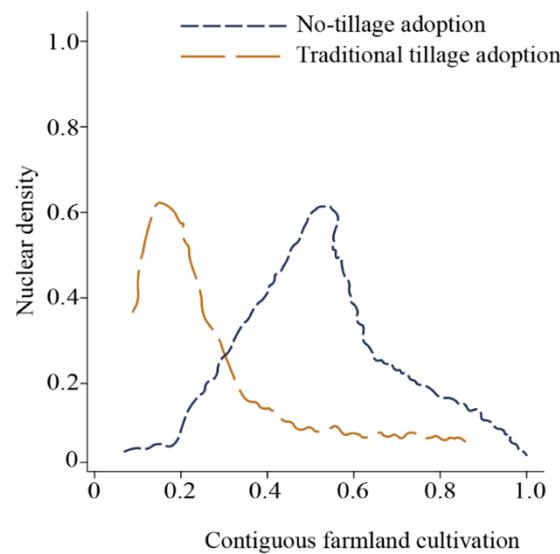


Figure 3. Nuclear density curve between the contiguous farmland cultivation and transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology (Source: field survey 2019).

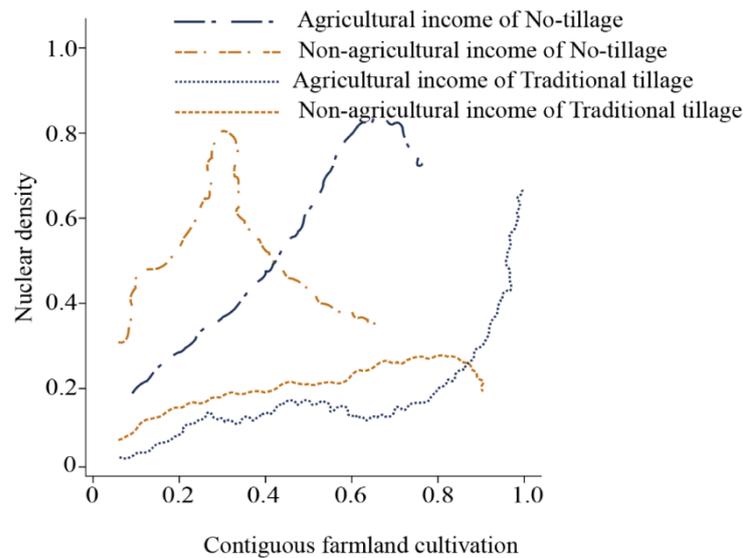


Figure 4. Nuclear density curve between the contiguous farmland cultivation and transferees' income structure (Source: field survey 2019).

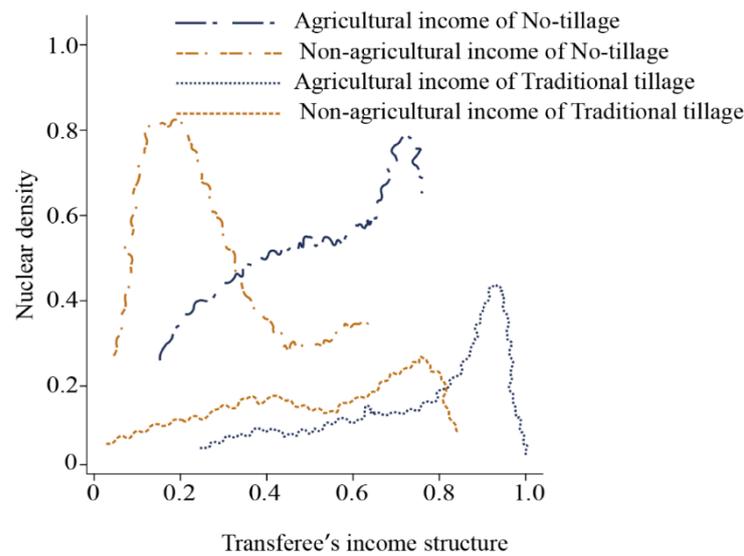


Figure 5. Nuclear density curve between transferees’ NT technology adoption and family income structure (Source: field survey 2019).

Table 2. Regression results of ESR model.

Variables	Model 1			Model 2	
	Agricultural Income			Non-Agricultural Income	
	No-Tillage Decision (Equation (1))	No-Tillage Adoption (Equation (2))	Traditional Tillage Adoption (Equation (3))	No-Tillage Adoption (Equation (4))	Traditional Tillage Adoption (Equation (5))
Contiguous farmland cultivation	0.1725 * (0.0958)	0.2035 *** (0.0636)	0.0922 * (0.0512)	0.3109 *** (0.1110)	0.1604 * (0.0844)
Contract stability	0.2036 ** (0.0969)	0.0821 ** (0.0373)	0.305 (0.2102)	0.0079 * (0.0045)	0.1045 (0.0746)
Contiguous farmland cultivation*contract stability	0.0982 *** (0.0327)	0.1265 *** (0.3833)	0.0179 ** (0.0077)	0.1136 ** (0.0490)	0.0428 * (0.0231)
Distance between farmland and field road	0.3070 *** −0.1023				
Gender	0.0701 (0.0519)	0.0425 (0.0502)	0.0368 (0.0407)	0.0721 (0.0826)	0.042 (0.0328)
Age	−0.2003 (0.1406)	−0.1714 (0.1302)	−0.1207 (0.0903)	−0.1129 (0.0828)	−0.1065 (0.0750)
Education level	0.4075 *** (0.1405)	0.3901 ** (0.1773)	0.3082 * (0.1751)	0.4041 *** (0.1412)	0.4408 * (0.2395)
Number of laborers	0.0109 (0.0225)	0.0602 (0.0471)	0.0701 (0.0520)	0.0225 *** (0.0056)	0.02721 * (0.0151)
Family loan	−0.3002 ** (0.1443)	−0.288 (0.2028)	−0.2705 (0.2004)	−0.3037 (0.2510)	−0.388 (0.2425)
Organizational participation	0.0605 (0.0437)	0.0235 *** (0.0075)	0.0182 * (0.0102)	0.0895 * (0.0514)	0.0601 * (0.0323)
Relationship network	0.5011 *** (0.1566)	0.4020 ** (0.1896)	0.4128 ** (0.1929)	0.6021 *** (0.2020)	0.6288 *** (0.2082)
Government skill training	0.6012 ** (0.2613)	0.7022 (0.5302)	0.6023 (0.5475)	0.7625 (0.5389)	0.613 (0.4442)

Table 2. Cont.

Variables	Model 1			Model 2	
	Agricultural Income			Non-Agricultural Income	
	No-Tillage Decision (Equation (1))	No-Tillage Adoption (Equation (2))	Traditional Tillage Adoption (Equation (3))	No-Tillage Adoption (Equation (4))	Traditional Tillage Adoption (Equation (5))
Information acquisition channels	0.1306 (0.0921)	0.1709 * (0.0988)	0.1045 ** (0.0486)	0.1828 *** (0.0630)	0.1402 * (0.0779)
Regional variables Gansu	0.0602 * (0.0316)	0.0435 * (0.0250)	0.032 (0.0221)	0.0561 * (0.0346)	0.0396 ** (0.0171)
Shaanxi	0.0686 (0.0429)	0.0711 (0.0467)	0.0602 (0.0376)	0.0452 (0.0295)	0.0685 (0.0462)
Constant term	0.2022 ** (0.0944)	0.1780 *** (0.0524)	0.1605 ** (0.0674)	0.2121 *** (0.0652)	0.2032 ** (0.0840)
σ_1		0.1603 *** (0.0577)		0.2705 ** (0.1218)	
σ_0			0.1402 *** (0.0523)		0.1803 ** (0.0831)
$\rho_{\mu 1}$		0.1529 ** (0.0632)		0.2321 * (0.1349)	
$\rho_{\mu 0}$			0.1211 ** (0.0507)		0.1614 * (0.0887)
Wald chi2(10)		161.55 ***		162.07 ***	
LR chi2(1)		9.22 **		9.25 **	
Log-likelihood		-728.259		-730.612	

Notes: Coefficients are reported in the table, and standard errors are presented in parentheses. The significance level at 1%, 5%, and 10% are represented by asterisk ***, **, and *, respectively. Source: Authors' computation.

Table 3. The average treatment effect of ESR model.

	Agricultural Income				Non-Agricultural Income			
	No-Tillage Technology Adoption	Traditional Technology Adoption	ATT	ATU	No-Tillage Technology Adoption	Traditional Technology Adoption	ATT	ATU
Transferee adopting no-tillage technology	(a) 1.5021	(c) 1.2128	0.2893 ** (0.1315)	-	(e) 3.1004	(g) 1.4025	1.6979 ** (0.7382)	-
Transferee adopting traditional tillage technology	(d) 1.0025	(b) 0.8106	-	0.1919 * (0.1066)	(h) 2.6108	(f) 1.3136	-	1.3044 * (0.6865)

Notes: Coefficients are reported in the table, and standard errors are presented in parentheses. The significance level at 1%, 5%, and 10% are represented by asterisk ***, **, and *, respectively. Source: Authors' computation.

5.3.1. Impact of the Contiguous Farmland Cultivation on Transferees' Adoption of No-Tillage Technology

Table 2, Equation (1) shows that contiguous farmland cultivation has a positive and significant effects on a transferee's adopting no-tillage technology at a 10% significance level. The results suggest that the higher the degree of contiguous farmland cultivation, the greater the probability that the transferee adopts no-tillage technology; hence hypothesis H2 is confirmed. The results suggest that large-scale mechanized farming and reduced production costs lead to the diffusion of no-tillage technology. Further, the economies of scale formed by no-tillage technology reduce the input cost of low-skilled labor in agriculture and increase capital-intensive technologies' adsorption effect on farmland. Many previous studies also explored the phenomenon and had the same outcome [19,20,52,118,143]. Further, the interaction term of contiguous farmland cultivation and contract stability also positively influences transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology at a 1% significance

level, indicating that the farmland rental contract stability plays a moderating role in effecting contiguous farmland cultivation and transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology. The findings further reveal that the longer the farmland lease contract term, the more obvious effect of contiguous farmland cultivation on scale economy. The findings correspond well with the previous research [64,122,123].

It is also revealed that no-tillage technology has inter-temporal benefits and has higher marginal effects of technology adoption; the short-term direct effects of no-tillage technology also exist, which suggests that more farmland transferees should be encouraged adopt no-tillage technology actively. These results contradict the previous researchers who did not find short-term effects such as the increase of food production as a result of the adoption of green technology [131,148]. In terms of identification variables, the findings reveal that the shortest distance between the contiguous farmland and field road positively and significantly influences a transferee's adoption of no-tillage technology at a 1% significance level. The results are analogous with the findings of Adnan et al. [148], Teruel and Kuroda [149], and Urquía-Grandean and Rubio-Alcocer [150]. The findings affirm that improving agricultural infrastructure such as field roads is essential for the development of large-scale and mechanized farming and an important source for the innovation and promotion of agricultural technology. In terms of control variables, the findings reveal that educational level promotes transferee adoption of no-tillage technology at 1% statistical level. The results suggest that if a transferee's educational level is higher, they are more inclined to adopt no-tillage technology to control the risks of extreme weather shocks. Gerdes et al. [151] and Sharifzadeh and Abdollahzadeh [152] also stated that education level influences an individual's ability to obtain information, awareness of adopting technology, and management capability of farming risk. Moreover, family loans showed a negative and significant impact on transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology at the 5% statistical level. The results are expected as no-tillage technology is capital-intensive and requires investment in a planter for seeding. If the transferee is under great financial pressure, it is not easy to adopt no-tillage technology. Jia and Qian [153] also had the same verdict and held that credit constraints negatively affect farmers' investment in production and technology adoption activities.

Besides, relationship networks were found to be positively significant in influencing a transferee's adoption of no-tillage technology at a statistical level of 1%. The outcome reveals that a relationship network is likely to promote farmers' adoption of green agricultural technologies through information sharing, risk sharing, mutual learning, and the peer effect. Likewise, government skill training was found positively significant at a 5% significance level and suggests that the major bottleneck in developing countries is farmers' lack of skills. Thus, the government skills training is likely to alleviate the information asymmetry between farmers and the technology supply market, reduce the costs of farmers' technology acquisition and use, improve farmers' ability to adapt to climate and market risks and eventually promote transferees' adoption of no-tillage technology. Many earlier studies also revealed the same findings [154–159]. Additionally, the regional dummy variables were also found to be significant, indicating the great regional disparity in the adoption of no-tillage technology; the possible reason is that the income effect of technology adoption varies from region to region, which is consistent with the research conclusion of Xu et al. [160].

5.3.2. Impact of the Contiguous Farmland Cultivation on Transferees' Income Structure

According to Equations (2)–(5) in Table 2, it is apparent that contiguous farmland cultivation positively and significantly influences the agricultural income and non-agricultural income of transferees adopting no-tillage at a 1% significance level. Hence, assumption H1 is also confirmed. Meanwhile, according to group regression, it was found that there was a big difference between the income structure of the transferees adopting no-tillage technology and traditional tillage technology, indicating that the adoption of no-tillage technology positively and significantly influences transferees' income structure and en-

dorses the H3 assumption. During the field survey, it was found that the higher the degree of contiguous farmland cultivation, the higher the proportion of adoption of no-tillage and resultantly, the farming skills of the transferees also improved. Consistent with the research of Bernard de Raymond [111], Xu et al. [160], and Ntihinyurwa and de Vries [108], our findings show that the contiguous farmland cultivation can increase family agricultural income by improving the level of specialized production, enhancing the brand effect and market competitiveness of agricultural products, and continuously improving the efficiency of agricultural production. Accordingly, the adoption of no-tillage technology also helps in improving agricultural production efficiency. The findings further reveal that the scale and mechanized farming enabled on contiguous farmland, coupled with no-tillage technology adoption, promoted the planting area of cash crops such as peanuts and vegetables larger than other grain crops such as wheat and rice. These are contrary to the findings of Li and Liu [161], Liu and Zhou [35], and Muraoka et al. [162].

In the context of global food security, the findings provide a realistic basis for the rising risk of food crop plantings in the development of the farmland rental market. The fundamental reason is that cash crops' prices and income are far higher than those of food crops [163]. Moreover, contiguous farmland cultivation promotes the rural–urban migration of rural labor and also enhances non-agricultural income, which results in the development of labor-intensive urban industries and enables developing countries to reduce poverty [164–168]. Further, the stability of farmland rental contracts also exerts a positive and moderating effect in the influence of continuous farmland farming on the agricultural income and non-agricultural income of transferees adopting no-tillage at 1% and 5% significance levels, respectively. The stability of farmland rental contract not only increases a transferee's agricultural production, adoption of no-tillage technology, capital investment, agricultural operational risks reduction, but also effectively leads to the implementation of all agricultural technologies with inter-periodical attributes represented by no-tillage technology [58,59,106].

Further, the educational level is also positive in influencing the agricultural and non-agricultural income of the transferee adopting no-tillage at 5% and 1% significance levels, respectively. The higher the education level, the more transferees can utilize no-tillage technology and the more obvious the technological economy and scale effect. Meanwhile, the higher the education level, the more opportunities for non-agricultural employment, and the higher the income, as revealed by the studies of Qi et al. [169] and Li and Wang [170]. The number of laborers positively affects the non-agricultural income of transferee adopted no-tillage at a 1% significance level. Chen et al. [171] also exposed the same verdicts and stated that agricultural technological innovation is essential for allocating rural labor in the marketplace. Moreover, organizational participation also exerts a positive and significant influence on the agricultural and non-agricultural income of transferees adopting no-tillage technology at a 1% and 10% significance level. On the one hand, social organizations such as cooperatives expand their interest level with farmers by providing technical guidance, safe production, and management of crops, etc., to boost the effectiveness of social organizations, and finally realize the continual increase of farmers' agricultural income [172–174]. On the other hand, social organizations are also important channels for absorbing local non-agricultural employment and continuously increasing non-agricultural family income [175,176]. Moreover, farmers can also engage in agricultural production during busy periods to achieve a two-way interactive increase in agricultural income and non-agricultural income [177].

Moving ahead, relationship networks also positively and significantly affect the agricultural income and non-agricultural income of the transferees adopting no-tillage at 5% and 1% levels. The results suggest that most economic activities are closely embedded in the relationship network. A relationship network plays a vital role in developing trust and boosting human relations in promoting no-tillage technology at the government level and increasing agricultural income growth by reducing transferees' cost of technology adoption [178,179]. Meanwhile, relationship networks can also alleviate the information

asymmetry between the market labor demand and the non-agricultural employment of rural labor [180]. Information acquisition channels positively impacted the agricultural income and household income of transferees who adopted no-tillage technology at 10% and 1% significance levels. The previous studies of Gao et al. [85], Abdullahi et al. [147], and Sharma et al. [181] also revealed that contemporary communication channels such as mobile phones or the internet have a structural influence on boosting farmers' production behavior by enhancing the production factors and the conditions for obtaining technical information. Modern information acquisition channels reduce the cost of information, accelerate the information exchange, reduce the information asymmetry, bridge the "digital divide," promote farmers to make decisions concerning adoption of no-tillage technology, and increase farmers' non-agricultural employment opportunities [182,183]. Besides, regional differences were also found as expected in the income structure of transferees adopting the no-tillage technology.

5.4. Average Treatment Effect of Contiguous Farmland Cultivation and Adoption of NT Technology on Transferees' Income Structure

The study further analyzed the average treatment effect of the stability of contiguous farmland cultivation and adoption of no-tillage technology on transferees' agricultural income and non-agricultural income in Table 3. The results show that (a) and (b) represent the actual agricultural income of transferees adopting no-tillage and traditional tillage technology, respectively, and (c) and (d) represent counterfactual assumptions. The ATT and ATU are the average treatment effects. The results proved that the average treatment effect (ATT) of the transferee adopting no-tillage technology is positive and significant at 5% level, indicating that the actual agricultural income (a) of the transferees opting conservation tillage was higher than the counterfactual hypothesis (c), i.e., if the transferee opted for no-tillage technology then switched to adopt traditional tillage, the agricultural income would decrease by 0.2893 ten thousand. Likewise, the average treatment effect (ATU) of transferees adopting traditional tillage is also positive and significant at 10% level, indicating that the counterfactual hypothesis (d) is higher than the actual agricultural income of the transferee (b), i.e., if the transferee adopted traditional tillage decides to switch to adopt no-tillage technology, the agricultural income will increase by 0.1919 ten thousand yuan. Similarly, suppose the transferee adopting no-tillage technology switched to adopt traditional tillage. In that case, the non-agricultural income will decrease by 1.6979 ten thousand yuan. If the traditional tillage-opting transferee adopts no-tillage technology, the non-agricultural income would increase by 1.3044 ten thousand yuan. Our findings further show that the income gap between farmland transferees adopting no-tillage and traditional tillage is widened; that is, the family income of transferees adopting no-tillage technology was much greater than that of transferees reliant on traditional tillage practices.

6. Conclusions and Policy Implications

The extreme altered seasonal patterns have posed more grim effects on agricultural production, specifically in the monsoon-affected regions. In this regard, technological innovation is assumed to improve the farmer's adaptability to cope with drastic climate changes. Moreover, the rural–urban migration of labor and the large-scale farmland transfer also influence the farmers' technology adoption in China. The current study employed the ESR model and counterfactual framework to empirically explore the influence of contiguous farmland cultivation and the adoption of no-tillage technology on transferees' income structure. The study also analyzed the moderating effect of the stability of farmland rental contracts.

The overall findings revealed that contiguous farmland cultivation significantly promotes the adoption of no-tillage technology by farmland transferees. The findings further revealed that education, organization participation, relationship networks, and government skill training also stimulate transferees to adopt no-tillage technology actively. However, a family loan inhibits the technology adoption. Moreover, regardless of the intertemporal

nature of no-tillage technology, its adoption is likely to increase the transferee's agricultural and non-agricultural income directly. Meanwhile, contiguous farmland cultivation also increases agricultural and non-agricultural income of transferees who adopted no-tillage technology. Education level, organization participation, relationship networks, and information acquisition channels also profoundly impact the income structure of transferees with no-tillage technology. The moderating effect further showed that farmland rental contract stability moderates the relationship between contiguous farmland cultivation, transferees' no-tillage adoption and family income structure. Lastly, addressing selection bias of no-tillage technology adoption and counterfactual assumptions, the results revealed that a transferee could improve their agricultural and non-agricultural income by switching to no-tillage technology. It is noteworthy that the income gap can be further widened between farmland transferees with no-tillage and transferees still practicing traditional tillage technology.

Based on the empirical findings, the study offers valuable implications for policymakers to devise strategies to encourage transferees to opt for no-tillage technology sustainably. In this regard, firstly, the government should establish a farmland transfer information system to effectively link farmland transferors with transferees, reduce the information asymmetry between the supply and demand sides, and encourage the farmland transferees to achieve the greatest degree of concatenation farmland cultivation. Secondly, the government should ensure the stability of formal lease contracts, encourage smooth and orderly farmland transfer, provide employment skills training for farmland transferees, and finally provide a good system guarantee for transferees' long-term adoption of no-tillage technology. Thirdly, the government should reduce the cost of transferees' no-tillage technology adoption and increase the enthusiasm and initiative of transferees to adopt this technology by increasing the subsidy standards and carrying out training guidance. Finally, considering that non-agricultural income is far greater than the agricultural income obtained through no-tillage adoption, the government should extend the agricultural industry chain, increase the value of agricultural products, and continuously increase the agricultural income of transferees adopting no-tillage technology by creating scale and branding effects of agricultural products.

7. Limitation

Of course, our research still has some shortcomings. Firstly, conservation tillage technologies include no-tillage, sub-soiling, and straw being returned to the field. Apart from no-tillage technology, other technologies may also help farmers cope with drought and soil erosion. This study has not yet compared the roles of no-tillage technology with others in agricultural production. Secondly, the adoption of no-tillage technology requires planters for farming. Due to the lack of survey data, our research has not considered the heterogeneity of topography, such as plains and mountains. Thirdly, input costs, such as machinery, pesticide, labor input, etc., may also influence the transferee's no-tillage adoption and family income structure. Limited to the data obtained, we did not explore the effects of cost factors. Finally, this research only addressed the sample selection bias of no-tillage technology adoption. As the transferee's family income increases, it may adversely affect the adoption of no-tillage technology, which is likely to cause severe endogeneity. However, these issues provide adequate directions and ideas for future in-depth research.

Author Contributions: Conceptualization, Y.Y. and X.Z.; methodology, Q.L.; software, Y.Y.; validation, X.Z. and Q.L.; formal analysis, R.S. and Q.L.; investigation, R.S. and N.A.; resources, N.A.; data curation, R.S., X.Z. and Q.L.; writing—original draft preparation, R.S. and Y.Y.; writing—review and editing, Y.Y. and N.A.; visualization, R.S. and X.Z.; supervision, N.A.; project administration, R.S., Y.Y. and N.A.; funding acquisition, R.S. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Funding: This work was funded by [National Natural Science Foundation of China] grant number [71973105; 72103161], [Social Science Foundation of Shaanxi Province] grant number [2021D008], [Research Project of Major Theoretical and Practical Issues of Shaanxi Province] grant number [2021ND0202], and [Special scientific research project of Education Department of Shaanxi Provincial Government] grant number [21JK0203].

Institutional Review Board Statement: As the study does not involve any personal data and the respondents were well aware that they could opt out any time during the data collection phase, a written institutional review board statement was not required.

Informed Consent Statement: As the study does not involve any personal data and the respondents were well aware that they could opt out any time during the data collection phase, a written institutional review board statement was not required.

Data Availability Statement: The associated dataset of the study is available upon request to the corresponding author.

Acknowledgments: All authors would like to express our sincere thanks to the agricultural departments of Shaanxi, Gansu, and Ningxia provinces for their support of this research.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. WMO. UNDRR Climate and Weather Related Disasters Surge Five-Fold over 50 Years, But Early Warnings Save Lives-WMO Report. Available online: <https://news.un.org/en/story/2021/09/1098662> (accessed on 1 September 2021).
2. Sheldon, K.S.; Dillon, M.E. Beyond the mean: Biological impacts of cryptic temperature change. *Integr. Comp. Biol.* **2016**, *56*, 110–119. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
3. Du, L.; Mickle, N.; Zou, Z.; Huang, Y.; Shi, Z.; Jiang, L.; McCarthy, H.R.; Liang, J.; Luo, Y. Global patterns of extreme drought-induced loss in land primary production: Identifying ecological extremes from rain-use efficiency. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2018**, *25*, 611–620. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
4. Filazzola, A.; Matter, S.F.; MacIvor, J.S. The direct and indirect effects of extreme climate events on insects. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2021**, *769*, 145161. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
5. Mirza, M.M.Q. Climate change and extreme weather events: Can developing countries adapt? *Clim. Policy* **2003**, *3*, 233–248. [[CrossRef](#)]
6. Campbell, A.; Spencer, N. The macroeconomic impact of extreme weather: Evidence from Jamaica. *Int. J. Disaster Risk Reduct.* **2021**, *61*, 102336. [[CrossRef](#)]
7. Franzke, C.L.E. Towards the development of economic damage functions for weather and climate extremes. *Ecol. Econ.* **2021**, *189*, 107172. [[CrossRef](#)]
8. Painter, J.; Osaka, S.; Ettinger, J.; Walton, P. Blaming climate change? How Indian mainstream media covered two extreme weather events in 2015. *Glob. Environ. Chang.* **2020**, *63*, 102119. [[CrossRef](#)]
9. Wheeler, R.; Lobley, M. Managing extreme weather and climate change in UK agriculture: Impacts, attitudes and action among farmers and stakeholders. *Clim. Risk Manag.* **2021**, *32*, 100313. [[CrossRef](#)]
10. Sreya, P.S.; Parayil, C.; Aswathy, N.; Bonny, B.P.; Aiswarya, T.P.; Nameer, P.O. Economic vulnerability of small-scale coastal households to extreme weather events in Southern India. *Mar. Policy* **2021**, *131*, 104608. [[CrossRef](#)]
11. Doherty, E.; Mellett, S.; Norton, D.; McDermott, T.K.J.; Hora, D.O.; Ryan, M. A discrete choice experiment exploring farmer preferences for insurance against extreme weather events. *J. Environ. Manage.* **2021**, *290*, 112607. [[CrossRef](#)]
12. Wang, Y.; Guo, C.H.; Zhuang, S.R.; Chen, X.J.; Jia, L.Q.; Chen, Z.Y.; Xia, Z.L.; Wu, Z. Major contribution to carbon neutrality by China's geosciences and geological technologies. *China Geol.* **2021**, *4*, 329–352. [[CrossRef](#)]
13. Gil, L.; Bernardo, J. An approach to energy and climate issues aiming at carbon neutrality. *Renew. Energy Focus* **2020**, *33*, 37–42. [[CrossRef](#)]
14. Huang, M.T.; Zhai, P.M. Achieving Paris Agreement temperature goals requires carbon neutrality by middle century with far-reaching transitions in the whole society. *Adv. Clim. Chang. Res.* **2021**, *12*, 281–286. [[CrossRef](#)]
15. Su, C.W.; Yuan, X.; Tao, R.; Umar, M. Can new energy vehicles help to achieve carbon neutrality targets? *J. Environ. Manage.* **2021**, *297*, 113348. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
16. Chaudhary, V.P.; Chandra, R.; Chaudhary, R.; Bhattacharyya, R. Global warming potential and energy dynamics of conservation tillage practices for different rabi crops in the Indo-Gangetic Plains. *J. Environ. Manage.* **2021**, *296*, 113182. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
17. Nisar, S.; Benbi, D.K.; Toor, A.S. Energy budgeting and carbon footprints of three tillage systems in maize-wheat sequence of north-western Indo-Gangetic Plains. *Energy* **2021**, *229*, 120661. [[CrossRef](#)]
18. Zhang, X.; Xin, X.; Yang, W.; Ding, S.; Ren, G.; Li, M.; Zhu, A. Soil respiration and net carbon flux response to long-term reduced/no-tillage with and without residues in a wheat-maize cropping system. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2021**, *214*, 105182. [[CrossRef](#)]

19. Qiu, H.; Su, L.; Zhang, Y.; Tang, J. Risk preference, risk perception and farmers' adoption of conservation tillage technology. *China Rural Econ.* **2020**, *4*, 59–79.
20. Maucieri, C.; Tolomio, M.; McDaniel, M.D.; Zhang, Y.; Robotjazi, J.; Borin, M. No-tillage effects on soil CH₄ fluxes: A meta-analysis. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2021**, *212*, 105042. [[CrossRef](#)]
21. Zhao, Z.; Gao, S.; Lu, C.; LI, X.; Li, F.; Wang, T. Effects of different tillage and fertilization management practices on soil organic carbon and aggregates under the rice–wheat rotation system. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2021**, *212*, 105071. [[CrossRef](#)]
22. Passaris, N.; Flower, K.C.; Ward, P.R.; Cordingley, N. Effect of crop rotation diversity and windrow burning of residue on soil chemical composition under long-term no-tillage. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2021**, *213*, 105153. [[CrossRef](#)]
23. Wolschick, N.H.; Bertol, I.; Barbosa, F.T.; Bagio, B.; Biasiolo, L.A. Remaining effect of long-term soil tillage on plant biomass yield and water erosion in a Cambisol after transition to no-tillage. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2021**, *213*, 105149. [[CrossRef](#)]
24. Francis, G.; Knight, T.L. Long-term effects of conventional and no-tillage on selected soil properties and crop yields in Canterbury, New Zealand. *Soil Tillage Res.* **1993**, *26*, 193–210. [[CrossRef](#)]
25. Hill, R. Long-Term conventional and no-tillage effects on selected soil physical properties. *Soil Sci. Soc. Am. J.* **1990**, *54*, 161–166. [[CrossRef](#)]
26. Pecci Canisares, L.; Grove, J.; Miguez, F.; Poffenbarger, H. Long-term no-till increases soil nitrogen mineralization but does not affect optimal corn nitrogen fertilization practices relative to inversion tillage. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2021**, *213*, 105080. [[CrossRef](#)]
27. Ejeromedoghene, O.; Tesi, J.N.; Uyanga, V.A.; Adebayo, A.O.; Nwosisi, M.C.; Tesi, G.O.; Akinyeye, R.O. Food security and safety concerns in animal production and public health issues in Africa: A perspective of COVID-19 pandemic era. *Ethics Med. Public Heal.* **2020**, *15*, 100600. [[CrossRef](#)]
28. Han, S.; Roy, P.K.; Hossain, M.I.; Byun, K.H.; Choi, C.; Ha, S. Do COVID-19 pandemic crisis and food safety: Implications and inactivation strategies. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2021**, *109*, 25–36. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
29. Rasul, G. Twin challenges of COVID-19 pandemic and climate change for agriculture and food security in South Asia. *Environ. Chall.* **2021**, *2*, 100027. [[CrossRef](#)]
30. Azra, M.N.; Iqbal, M.; Noor, M. Global Trends on COVID-19 and Food Security Research: A Scientometric Study. 2021. Available online: <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8426152/> (accessed on 19 March 2022).
31. Kang, Y.; Baidya, A.; Aaron, A.; Wang, J.; Chan, C.; Wetzler, E. Differences in the early impact of COVID-19 on food security and livelihoods in rural and urban areas in the Asia Pacific Region. *Glob. Food Sec.* **2021**, *134*, 100580. [[CrossRef](#)]
32. Béné, C.; Bakker, D.; Chavarro, M.J.; Even, B.; Melo, J.; Sonneveld, A. Global assessment of the impacts of COVID-19 on food security. *Glob. Food Sec.* **2021**, *56*, 100575. [[CrossRef](#)]
33. Amare, M.; Abay, K.A.; Tiberti, L.; Chamberlin, J. COVID-19 and food security: Panel data evidence from Nigeria. *Food Policy* **2021**, *101*, 102099. [[CrossRef](#)]
34. FAO. The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2021. Available online: <https://www.fao.org/publications/sofi/2021/en/> (accessed on 1 September 2021).
35. Liu, Y.; Zhou, Y. Reflections on China's food security and land use policy under rapid urbanization. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *109*, 105699. [[CrossRef](#)]
36. Fei, R.; Lin, Z.; Chunga, J. How land transfer affects agricultural land use efficiency: Evidence from China's agricultural sector. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *103*, 105300. [[CrossRef](#)]
37. Kassib, G.; Bertrand, N.; Pecqueur, B. Rethinking the place of agricultural land preservation for the development of food systems in planning of peri-urban areas: Insights from two French municipalities. *J. Rural Stud.* **2021**, *86*, 366–375. [[CrossRef](#)]
38. Keovilignavong, O.; Suhardiman, D. Linking land tenure security with food security: Unpacking farm households' perceptions and strategies in the rural uplands of Laos. *Land Use Policy* **2020**, *90*, 104260. [[CrossRef](#)]
39. Wei, H.; Xia, Y.; Li, Y. Effects of farmers' credit demand rationing on the adoption of agricultural technologies that improve cultivated land quality: An analysis based on the moderating effect of farmer differentiation. *Resour. Sci.* **2020**, *42*, 217–231.
40. Fei, H.; Liu, W.; Jiang, H. Analysis of willingness to adopt conservation tillage technology and group differences. *Rural Econ.* **2019**, *4*, 122–129.
41. Xie, W.; Chen, T.; Liu, G. Analysis of differences in the adoption of farmland quality protection technologies by farmers under the background of rural revitalization. *Reform* **2018**, *12*, 117–129.
42. Liu, L.; Shangguan, D.; Wu, L. The impact of management scale and risk perception on farmers' willingness to adopt soil and water conservation tillage technology—Based on the moderating effect of government subsidies. *J. Arid L. Resour. Environ.* **2021**, *35*, 77–83.
43. Penghui, J.; Manchun, L.; Liang, C. Dynamic response of agricultural productivity to landscape structure changes and its policy implications of Chinese farmland conservation. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* **2020**, *156*, 104724. [[CrossRef](#)]
44. Rogers, S.; Wilmsen, B.; Han, X.; Wang, Z.J.H.; Duan, Y.; He, J.; Li, J.; Lin, W.; Wong, C. Scaling up agriculture? The dynamics of land transfer in inland China. *World Dev.* **2021**, *146*, 105563. [[CrossRef](#)]
45. Yang, X.; Sui, P.; Zhang, X.; Dai, H.; Yan, P.; Li, C.; Wang, X.; Chen, Y. Environmental and economic consequences analysis of cropping systems from fragmented to concentrated farmland in the North China Plain based on a joint use of life cycle assessment, energy and economic analysis. *J. Environ. Manage.* **2019**, *251*, 109588. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
46. Liang, X.; Li, Y.; Zhou, Y. Study on the abandonment of sloping farmland in Fengjie County, Three Gorges Reservoir Area, a mountainous area in China. *Land Use Policy* **2020**, *97*, 104760. [[CrossRef](#)]

47. Zhu, H.; Ao, Y.; Xu, H.; Zhou, Z.; Wang, Y.; Yang, L. Determinants of farmers' intention of straw recycling: A comparison analysis based on different pro-environmental publicity modes. *Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health* **2021**, *18*, 11304. [[CrossRef](#)]
48. Tan, Y.; Chen, H.; Xiao, W.; Meng, F.; He, T. Influence of farmland marginalization in mountainous and hilly areas on land use changes at the county level. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2021**, *794*, 149576. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
49. Wang, Y.; Li, X.; Xin, L.; Tan, M. Farmland marginalization and its drivers in mountainous areas of China. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *719*, 135132. [[CrossRef](#)]
50. Hou, D.; Meng, F.; Prishchepov, A.V. How is urbanization shaping agricultural land-use? Unraveling the nexus between farmland abandonment and urbanization in China. *Landsc. Urban Plan.* **2021**, *214*, 104170. [[CrossRef](#)]
51. Yagi, H.; Garrod, G. The future of agriculture in the shrinking suburbs: The impact of real estate income and housing costs. *Land Use Policy* **2018**, *76*, 812–822. [[CrossRef](#)]
52. Gao, J.; Song, G.; Sun, X. Does labor migration affect rural land transfer? Evidence from China. *Land Use Policy* **2020**, *99*, 105096. [[CrossRef](#)]
53. Ge, D.; Long, H.; Qiao, W.; Wang, Z.; Sun, D.; Yang, R. Effects of rural-urban migration on agricultural transformation: A case of Yucheng City, China. *J. Rural Stud.* **2020**, *76*, 85–95. [[CrossRef](#)]
54. Deichmann, U.; Shilpi, F.; Vakis, R. Urban Proximity, Agricultural Potential and Rural Non-farm Employment: Evidence from Bangladesh. *World Dev.* **2009**, *37*, 645–660. [[CrossRef](#)]
55. He, Y.; Xie, H.; Peng, C. Analyzing the behavioural mechanism of farmland abandonment in the hilly mountainous areas in China from the perspective of farming household diversity. *Land Use Policy* **2020**, *99*, 104826. [[CrossRef](#)]
56. Su, M.; Guo, R.; Hong, W. Institutional transition and implementation path for cultivated land protection in highly urbanized regions: A case study of Shenzhen, China. *Land Use Policy* **2019**, *81*, 493–501. [[CrossRef](#)]
57. Paudel, B.; Wu, X.; Zhang, Y.; Rai, R.; Liu, L.; Zhang, B.; Khanal, N.R.; Koirala, H.L.; Nepal, P. Farmland abandonment and its determinants in the different ecological villages of the Koshi river basin, central Himalayas: Synergy of high-resolution remote sensing and social surveys. *Environ. Res.* **2020**, *188*, 109711. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
58. Wang, Y. What affects participation in the farmland rental market in rural China? Evidence from CHARLS. *Sustainability* **2019**, *11*, 7021. [[CrossRef](#)]
59. Wang, Y.; Li, X.; Li, W.; Tan, M. Land titling program and farmland rental market participation in China: Evidence from pilot provinces. *Land Use Policy* **2018**, *74*, 281–290. [[CrossRef](#)]
60. Si, R.; Lu, Q.; Aziz, N. Does the stability of farmland rental contract & conservation tillage adoption improve family welfare? Empirical insights from Zhangye, China. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *107*, 105486. [[CrossRef](#)]
61. Cao, H.; Zhu, X.; Heijman, W.; Zhao, K. The impact of land transfer and farmers' knowledge of farmland protection policy on pro-environmental agricultural practices: The case of straw return to fields in Ningxia, China. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2020**, *277*, 123701. [[CrossRef](#)]
62. Nigussie, Z.; Tsunekawa, A.; Haregeweyn, N.; Adgo, E.; Nohmi, M.; Tsubo, M.; Aklog, D.; Meshesha, D.T.; Abele, S. Factors influencing small-scale farmers' adoption of sustainable land management technologies in north-western Ethiopia. *Land Use Policy* **2017**, *67*, 57–64. [[CrossRef](#)]
63. Huy, H.T.; Nguyen, T.T. Cropland rental market and farm technical efficiency in rural Vietnam. *Land Use Policy* **2019**, *81*, 408–423. [[CrossRef](#)]
64. Gao, Y.; Liu, B.; Yu, L.; Yang, H.; Yin, S. Social capital, land tenure and the adoption of green control techniques by family farms: Evidence from Shandong and Henan Provinces of China. *Land Use Policy* **2019**, *89*, 104250. [[CrossRef](#)]
65. Li, B.; Shen, Y. Effects of land transfer quality on the application of organic fertilizer by large-scale farmers in China. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *100*, 105124. [[CrossRef](#)]
66. Xie, H.; Huang, Y. Influencing factors of farmers' adoption of pro-environmental agricultural technologies in China: Meta-analysis. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *109*, 105622. [[CrossRef](#)]
67. Yang, Q.; Zhu, Y.; Wang, J. Adoption of drip fertigation system and technical efficiency of cherry tomato farmers in Southern China. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2020**, *275*, 123980. [[CrossRef](#)]
68. Udimal, T.B.; Liu, E.; Luo, M.; Li, Y. Examining the effect of land transfer on landlords' income in China: An application of the endogenous switching model. *Heliyon* **2020**, *6*, e05071. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
69. Qu, M.; Zhao, K. The impact of the expansion of business scale on the input behavior of farmers' agricultural socialization services under different land transfer scenarios. *China L. Sci.* **2021**, *35*, 37–45.
70. Guo, Y.; Xu, Z. Development of arable land transfer market, resource endowment and scale management and development of agricultural land. *China Rural Econ.* **2021**, *23*, 60–75.
71. Tran, T.Q.; Vu, H. Van Land fragmentation and household income: First evidence from rural Vietnam. *Land Use Policy* **2019**, *89*, 104247. [[CrossRef](#)]
72. Wang, Y.; Zang, L.; Araral, E. The impacts of land fragmentation on irrigation collective action: Empirical test of the social-ecological system framework in China. *J. Rural Stud.* **2020**, *78*, 234–244. [[CrossRef](#)]
73. Barati, A.A.; Azadi, H.; Scheffran, J. Agricultural land fragmentation in Iran: Application of game theory. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *100*, 105049. [[CrossRef](#)]

74. Han, X.; Wang, R.; Yang, H.; Zheng, F. Land fragmentation, land circulation and agricultural production efficiency: An empirical analysis based on survey samples of 2745 rural households across the country. *J. Northwest AF Univ. (Soc. Sci. Ed.)* **2020**, *20*, 143–153.
75. Li, B.; Ding, J.; Wang, J.; Zhang, B.; Zhang, L. Key factors affecting the adoption willingness, behavior, and willingness-behavior consistency of farmers regarding photovoltaic agriculture in China. *Energy Policy* **2021**, *149*, 112101. [[CrossRef](#)]
76. Tian, T.; Zhang, Y.; Mei, Y. Intelligent analysis of precision marketing of green agricultural products based on big data and GIS. *Earth Sci. Informatics* **2022**, *12*, 11203. [[CrossRef](#)]
77. Gholamrezai, S.; Aliabadi, V.; Ataei, P. Understanding the pro-environmental behavior among green poultry farmers: Application of behavioral theories. *Environ. Dev. Sustain.* **2021**, *23*, 16100–16118. [[CrossRef](#)]
78. Zeweld, W.; Van Huylbroeck, G.; Tesfay, G.; Azadi, H.; Speelman, S. Sustainable agricultural practices, environmental risk mitigation and livelihood improvements: Empirical evidence from Northern Ethiopia. *Land Use Policy* **2020**, *95*, 103799. [[CrossRef](#)]
79. Li, Y.; Li, Z.; Chang, S.X.; Cui, S.; Jagadamma, S.; Zhang, Q.; Cai, Y. Residue retention promotes soil carbon accumulation in minimum tillage systems: Implications for conservation agriculture. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *740*, 140147. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
80. Ashoori, D.; Allahyari, M.S.; Damalas, C.A. Adoption of conservation farming practices for sustainable rice production among small-scale paddy farmers in northern Iran. *Paddy Water Environ.* **2017**, *15*, 237–248. [[CrossRef](#)]
81. Teklewold, H.; Kassie, M.; Shiferaw, B.; Köhlin, G. Cropping system diversification, conservation tillage and modern seed adoption in Ethiopia: Impacts on household income, agrochemical use and demand for labor. *Ecol. Econ.* **2013**, *93*, 85–93. [[CrossRef](#)]
82. Cooper, R.J.; Hama-Aziz, Z.Q.; Hiscock, K.M.; Lovett, A.A.; Vrain, E.; Dugdale, S.J.; Sünnerberg, G.; Dockerty, T.; Hovesen, P.; Noble, L. Conservation tillage and soil health: Lessons from a 5-year UK farm trial (2013–2018). *Soil Tillage Res.* **2020**, *202*, 104648. [[CrossRef](#)]
83. Kiran Kumara, T.M.; Kandpal, A.; Pal, S. A meta-analysis of economic and environmental benefits of conservation agriculture in South Asia. *J. Environ. Manage.* **2020**, *269*, 110773. [[CrossRef](#)]
84. Vandecasteele, J.; Dereje, M.; Minten, B.; Taffesse, A.S. From agricultural experiment station to farm: The impact of the promotion of a new technology on farmers' yields in Ethiopia. *Econ. Dev. Cult. Change* **2020**, *68*, 965–1007. [[CrossRef](#)]
85. Gao, Y.; Zhao, D.; Yu, L.; Yang, H. Influence of a new agricultural technology extension mode on farmers' technology adoption behavior in China. *J. Rural Stud.* **2020**, *76*, 173–183. [[CrossRef](#)]
86. Fiorini, A.; Boselli, R.; Maris, S.C.; Santelli, S.; Ardenti, F.; Capra, F.; Tabaglio, V. May conservation tillage enhance soil C and N accumulation without decreasing yield in intensive irrigated croplands? Results from an eight-year maize monoculture. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* **2020**, *296*, 106926. [[CrossRef](#)]
87. Olum, S.; Gellynck, X.; Juvinal, J.; Ongeng, D.; De Steur, H. Farmers' adoption of agricultural innovations: A systematic review on willingness to pay studies. *Outlook Agric.* **2020**, *49*, 187–203. [[CrossRef](#)]
88. Pan, T.; Zhang, C.; Kuang, W.; Luo, G.; Du, G.; Yin, Z. Large-scale rain-fed to paddy farmland conversion modified land-surface thermal properties in Cold China. *Sci. Total Environ.* **2020**, *722*, 137917. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
89. Wang, X.; Yang, L. The impact of arable land fragmentation in hilly and mountainous areas on the pure technical efficiency of farming households. *South. Agric.* **2019**, *13*, 72–74.
90. Xu, W.; Jin, X.; Liu, J.; Zhou, Y. Impact of cultivated land fragmentation on spatial heterogeneity of agricultural agglomeration in China. *J. Geogr. Sci.* **2020**, *30*, 1571–1589. [[CrossRef](#)]
91. Danso-Abbeam, G.; Dagunga, G.; Ehiakpor, D.S. Rural non-farm income diversification: Implications on smallholder farmers' welfare and agricultural technology adoption in Ghana. *Heliyon* **2020**, *6*, e05393. [[CrossRef](#)]
92. Martey, E.; Etwire, P.M.; Mockshell, J. Climate-smart cowpea adoption and welfare effects of comprehensive agricultural training programs. *Technol. Soc.* **2021**, *64*, 101468. [[CrossRef](#)]
93. Yang, D.; Zhang, H.W.; Liu, Z.M.; Zeng, Q. Do cooperatives participation and technology adoption improve farmers' welfare in China? A joint analysis accounting for selection bias. *J. Integr. Agric.* **2021**, *20*, 1716–1726. [[CrossRef](#)]
94. CMA China's Extreme Climate Events, Disaster Risk Management, and Adaptation Assessment Report; China Meteorological News Press: Beijing, China, 2015.
95. Wang, T. The Chinese Communist Party's poverty reduction practice, basic experience and future turn. *Economist* **2021**, *45*, 11–26.
96. Xia, Q.; Chen, Y.; Chen, Y. The evolution of rural household income and poverty in China: 1988–2018. *Consum. Econ.* **2021**, *37*, 12–21.
97. Yao, X.; Feng, L.; Zhou, M. A review of research on the determinants of labor migration in China. *China Popul. Sci.* **2021**, *23*, 117–125.
98. Zhang, L. The impact of non-agricultural employment on whether farmers choose to purchase groundwater irrigation services: An empirical analysis based on data from five rounds of field follow-up surveys spanning 16 years. *China Rural Econ.* **2021**, *40*, 124–144.
99. Pan, M.; Cai, S.; Zhou, Y. Has Internet use promoted rural women's non-agricultural employment? An empirical study based on survey data in the four provinces of Jiangsu, Anhui, Henan, and Hubei. *Agric. Technol. Econ.* **2021**, *34*, 133–144.
100. Xu, Q.; Liu, J.; Qian, Y. Labor mobility, farmland right confirmation and farmland transfer. *Agric. Technol. Econ.* **2017**, *12*, 4–16.
101. Xu, J.; Xu, T.; Xie, Y. Research on the development of reduced tillage and no-tillage methods abroad. *Res. Agric. Mech.* **2019**, *5*, 25–27.

102. Yang, M.; Li, W.; Liu, Y.; Xu, H. Variation characteristics of meteorological elements in western my country in the past 50 years. *J. Appl. Meteorol.* **2010**, *21*, 198–205.
103. Xu, Z.; Lu, Y. Research on the factors of rural labor transfer in western China—An empirical analysis based on questionnaires and panel data. *Res. World* **2012**, *3*, 29–32.
104. Cao, T.; Zhou, J.; Zou, W. Large-scale operation and farmer’s agricultural machinery service selection: A two-dimensional perspective based on service demand and supply. *J. Northwest AF Univ. (Soc. Sci. Ed.)* **2021**, *21*, 141–149.
105. Cao, Y.; Bai, Y.; Zhang, L. The impact of farmland property rights security on the farmland investment in rural China. *Land Use Policy* **2020**, *97*, 104736. [[CrossRef](#)]
106. Takahashi, T.; Aizaki, H.; Ge, Y.; Ma, M.; Nakashima, Y.; Sato, T.; Wang, W.; Yamada, N. Agricultural water trade under farmland fragmentation: A simulation analysis of an irrigation district in northwestern China. *Agric. Water Manag.* **2013**, *122*, 63–66. [[CrossRef](#)]
107. Su, S.; Hu, Y.; Luo, F.; Mai, G.; Wang, Y. Farmland fragmentation due to anthropogenic activity in rapidly developing region. *Agric. Syst.* **2014**, *131*, 87–93. [[CrossRef](#)]
108. Ntuhinyurwa, P.D.; de Vries, W.T. Farmland fragmentation and defragmentation nexus: Scoping the causes, impacts, and the conditions determining its management decisions. *Ecol. Indic.* **2020**, *119*, 106828. [[CrossRef](#)]
109. Ding, Q.; Ding, W.; Yang, W. The mechanization characteristics of the arable land fragmentation conditions-investigation of field operation behavior of small harvesters. *Zhejiang J. Agric.* **2013**, *25*, 1397–1403.
110. Yang, H.; Li, Y.; Han, X. Does land fragmentation increase agricultural production costs for “scale farmers”? Based on a micro-survey of 776 family farms and 1 166 professional households across the country. *China L. Sci.* **2019**, *33*, 76–83.
111. Bernard de Raymond, A. Detaching from agriculture? Field-crop specialization as a challenge to family farming in northern Côte d’Or, France. *J. Rural Stud.* **2013**, *32*, 283–294. [[CrossRef](#)]
112. Zeng, L.; Li, X.; Ruiz-Menjivar, J. The effect of crop diversity on agricultural eco-efficiency in China: A blessing or a curse? *J. Clean. Prod.* **2020**, *276*, 124243. [[CrossRef](#)]
113. Qin, Y.; Zhang, X. The Road to Specialization in Agricultural Production: Evidence from Rural China. *World Dev.* **2016**, *77*, 1–16. [[CrossRef](#)]
114. Bou Dib, J.; Krishna, V.V.; Alamsyah, Z.; Qaim, M. Land-use change and livelihoods of non-farm households: The role of income from employment in oil palm and rubber in rural Indonesia. *Land Use Policy* **2018**, *76*, 828–838. [[CrossRef](#)]
115. Wang, Q.; Li, H.; He, J.; Li, H.; Khokan, K. Effects of no-tillage technology on soil moisture and corn yield. *Trans. Chin. Soc. Agric. Eng.* **2012**, *28*, 146–150.
116. Hong, W.; Ke, B. U.S. agricultural soil and water conservation experience. *Chin. Rural Econ.* **2000**, *13*, 75–78.
117. Zhai, Z.; Yan, C.; He, W.; Liu, E. Evaluation of climate suitability of no-tillage technology for corn. *China Agric. Sci. Technol. Rev.* **2012**, *14*, 98–107.
118. Sewell, S.J.; Desai, S.A.; Mutsaa, E.; Lottering, R.T. A comparative study of community perceptions regarding the role of roads as a poverty alleviation strategy in rural areas. *J. Rural Stud.* **2019**, *71*, 73–84. [[CrossRef](#)]
119. Banick, R.; Heyns, A.M.; Regmi, S. Evaluation of rural roads construction alternatives according to seasonal service accessibility improvement using a novel multi-modal cost-time model: A study in Nepal’s remote and mountainous Karnali province. *J. Transp. Geogr.* **2021**, *93*, 103057. [[CrossRef](#)]
120. Bell, C.; van Dillen, S. On the way to good health? Rural roads and morbidity in Upland Orissa. *J. Transp. Heal.* **2018**, *10*, 369–380. [[CrossRef](#)]
121. Nyakudya, I.W.; Stroosnijder, L. Conservation tillage of rainfed maize in semi-arid Zimbabwe: A review. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2015**, *145*, 184–197. [[CrossRef](#)]
122. Loaiza Puerta, V.; Pujol Pereira, E.I.; Wittwer, R.; van der Heijden, M.; Six, J. Improvement of soil structure through organic crop management, conservation tillage and grass-clover ley. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2018**, *180*, 1–9. [[CrossRef](#)]
123. Liu, S.; Yang, J.Y.; Zhang, X.Y.; Drury, C.F.; Reynolds, W.D.; Hoogenboom, G. Modelling crop yield, soil water content and soil temperature for a soybean-maize rotation under conventional and conservation tillage systems in Northeast China. *Agric. Water Manag.* **2013**, *123*, 32–44. [[CrossRef](#)]
124. Rockström, J.; Kaumbutho, P.; Mwalley, J.; Nzabi, A.W.; Temesgen, M.; Mawenya, L.; Barron, J.; Mutua, J.; Damgaard-Larsen, S. Conservation farming strategies in East and Southern Africa: Yields and rain water productivity from on-farm action research. *Soil Tillage Res.* **2009**, *103*, 23–32. [[CrossRef](#)]
125. Huang, Y.; Ren, W.; Grove, J.; Poffenbarger, H.; Jacobsen, K.; Tao, B.; Zhu, X.; McNear, D. Assessing synergistic effects of no-tillage and cover crops on soil carbon dynamics in a long-term maize cropping system under climate change. *Agric. For. Meteorol.* **2020**, *291*, 108090. [[CrossRef](#)]
126. Zhan, P.; Li, G. How much impact does “disability” have on the family income structure? *J. Xiangtan Univ. (Philos. Soc. Sci. Ed.)* **2019**, *43*, 76–83.
127. Zhang, J.; Zhang, Y.; Cao, Y. Can optimizing household income structure promote consumption upgrade? *Econ. Manag. Res.* **2021**, *42*, 51–65.
128. Hottenrott, H.; Rexhäuser, S.; Veugelers, R. Organisational change and the productivity effects of green technology adoption. *Resour. Energy Econ.* **2016**, *43*, 172–194. [[CrossRef](#)]

129. Khanna, M.; Isik, M.; Zilberman, D. Cost-effectiveness of alternative green payment policies for conservation technology adoption with heterogeneous land quality. *Econ. Agri-Environ. Policy* **2017**, *2*, 75–92. [[CrossRef](#)]
130. Mao, H.; Zhou, L.; Ying, R.; Pan, D. Time Preferences and green agricultural technology adoption: Field evidence from rice farmers in China. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *109*, 105627. [[CrossRef](#)]
131. Bazillier, R.; Héricourt, J.; Ligonnière, S. Structure of income inequality and household leverage: Cross-country causal evidence. *Eur. Econ. Rev.* **2021**, *132*, 103629. [[CrossRef](#)]
132. Lan, J.; Liu, Z. Social network effect on income structure of SLCP participants: Evidence from Baitoutan Village, China. *For. Policy Econ.* **2019**, *106*, 101958. [[CrossRef](#)]
133. Sheng, J.; Qiu, H.; Zhang, S. Opportunity cost, income structure, and energy structure for landholders participating in payments for ecosystem services: Evidence from Wolong National Nature Reserve, China. *World Dev.* **2019**, *117*, 230–238. [[CrossRef](#)]
134. Amfo, B.; Ali, E.B. Climate change coping and adaptation strategies: How do cocoa farmers in Ghana diversify farm income? *For. Policy Econ.* **2020**, *119*, 102265. [[CrossRef](#)]
135. Pang, J.; Xu, K.; Jin, L. Research on the impact of wetland ecological compensation on farmers' livelihood strategies and income: Taking poyang lake district survey data as an example. *China L. Sci.* **2021**, *35*, 72–80.
136. Zhu, M.; Li, H. The transmission path test of land transfer affecting the efficiency of agricultural scale operation. *Rural Econ.* **2021**, *16*, 64–72.
137. Xie, D.; Li, Z. Research on the coordination of rural land scale operation and service scale operation under the background of "Three Rights Separation". *Economist* **2021**, *42*, 121–128.
138. Peng, J. Will land transfer reduce agricultural production costs?—Based on the empirical analysis of 1120 farmers in Hubei. *J. Agric. For. Econ. Manag.* **2021**, *20*, 366–375.
139. Si, R.; Yao, Y.; Zhang, X.; Lu, Q.; Aziz, N. Investigating the links between vaccination against COVID-19 and public attitudes toward protective countermeasures: Implications for public health. *Front. Public Health* **2021**, *9*, 702699. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
140. Su, B.; Li, Y.; Li, L.; Wang, Y. How does nonfarm employment stability influence farmers' farmland transfer decisions? Implications for China's land use policy. *Land Use Policy* **2018**, *74*, 66–72. [[CrossRef](#)]
141. Maddala, G. *Limited Dependent and Qualitative Variables in Econometrics*; Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK, 1983.
142. Suresh, K.; Khanal, U.; Wilson, C.; Managi, S.; Quayle, A.; Santhirakumar, S. An economic analysis of agricultural adaptation to climate change impacts in Sri Lanka: An endogenous switching regression analysis. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *109*, 105601. [[CrossRef](#)]
143. Murtazashvili, I.; Wooldridge, J.M. A control function approach to estimating switching regression models with endogenous explanatory variables and endogenous switching. *J. Econom.* **2016**, *190*, 252–266. [[CrossRef](#)]
144. Tan, Y.; Sarkar, A.; Rahman, A.; Qian, L.; Memon, W.H.; Magzhan, Z. Does external shock influence farmer's adoption of modern irrigation technology?—A case of Gansu Province, China. *Land* **2021**, *10*, 882. [[CrossRef](#)]
145. Cao, Y.; Zou, J.; Fang, X.; Wang, J.; Li, G. Effect of land tenure fragmentation on the decision-making and scale of agricultural land transfer in China. *Land Use Policy* **2020**, *99*, 104996. [[CrossRef](#)]
146. Xu, G.; Lu, Q.; Jiang, Y. Social capital, income diversification and poverty vulnerability of farmers. *China Popul. Resour. Environ.* **2019**, *29*, 123–133.
147. Abdelhafez, E.; Dabbour, L.; Hamdan, M. The effect of weather data on the spread of COVID-19 in Jordan. *Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.* **2021**, *28*, 40416–40423. [[CrossRef](#)]
148. Adnan, N.; Nordin, S.M.; Bahrudin, M.A.; Tareq, A.H. A state-of-the-art review on facilitating sustainable agriculture through green fertilizer technology adoption: Assessing farmers behavior. *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* **2019**, *86*, 439–452. [[CrossRef](#)]
149. Teruel, R.G.; Kuroda, Y. Public infrastructure and productivity growth in Philippine agriculture, 1974–2000. *J. Asian Econ.* **2005**, *16*, 555–576. [[CrossRef](#)]
150. Urquía-Grande, E.; Rubio-Alcocer, A. Agricultural infrastructure donation performance: Empirical evidence in rural Ethiopia. *Agric. Water Manag.* **2015**, *158*, 245–254. [[CrossRef](#)]
151. Gerdes, M.E.; Suri, M.R.; Rosenberg Goldstein, R.E. Traditional approaches for educating farmers about nontraditional water: Evaluating preferred outreach, education, and methods for alleviating concerns. *J. Environ. Manage.* **2020**, *275*, 111265. [[CrossRef](#)] [[PubMed](#)]
152. Sharifzadeh, M.S.; Abdollahzadeh, G. The impact of different education strategies on rice farmers' knowledge, attitude and practice (KAP) about pesticide use. *J. Saudi Soc. Agric. Sci.* **2021**, *20*, 312–323. [[CrossRef](#)]
153. Jia, R.; Qian, L. Credit constraints, social capital, and water-saving irrigation technology adoption: Taking Zhangye, Gansu as an example. *China Popul. Resour. Environ.* **2017**, *27*, 54–62.
154. Apraku, A.; Morton, J.F.; Apraku Gyampoh, B. Climate change and small-scale agriculture in Africa: Does indigenous knowledge matter? Insights from Kenya and South Africa. *Sci. Afr.* **2021**, *12*, e00821. [[CrossRef](#)]
155. Hudson, H.E.; Leclair, M.; Pelletier, B.; Sullivan, B. Using radio and interactive ICTs to improve food security among smallholder farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Telecomm. Policy* **2017**, *41*, 670–684. [[CrossRef](#)]
156. Lampach, N.; To-The, N.; Nguyen-Anh, T. Technical efficiency and the adoption of multiple agricultural technologies in the mountainous areas of Northern Vietnam. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *103*, 105289. [[CrossRef](#)]
157. Rahman, M.S.; Kazal, M.M.H.; Rayhan, S.J. Impacts of the training of mud crab farmers: An adaptation strategy to cope with salinity intrusion in Bangladesh. *Mar. Policy* **2020**, *120*, 104159. [[CrossRef](#)]

158. Yang, P.; Liu, W.; Shan, X.; Li, P.; Zhou, J.; Lu, J.; Li, Y. Effects of training on acquisition of pest management knowledge and skills by small vegetable farmers. *Crop Prot.* **2008**, *27*, 1504–1510. [[CrossRef](#)]
159. Zakaria, A.; Azumah, S.B.; Appiah-Twumasi, M.; Dagunga, G. Adoption of climate-smart agricultural practices among farm households in Ghana: The role of farmer participation in training programmes. *Technol. Soc.* **2020**, *63*, 101338. [[CrossRef](#)]
160. Xu, Z.; Zhang, J.; Lv, K. Business scale, land tenure period and intertemporal agricultural technology adoption-taking direct return of straw to the field as an example. *China Rural Econ.* **2018**, *34*, 61–74.
161. Li, Q.; Liu, G. Is land nationalization more conducive to sustainable development of cultivated land and food security than land privatization in post-socialist Central Asia? *Glob. Food Sec.* **2021**, *30*, 100560. [[CrossRef](#)]
162. Muraoka, R.; Jin, S.; Jayne, T.S. Land access, land rental and food security: Evidence from Kenya. *Land Use Policy* **2018**, *70*, 611–622. [[CrossRef](#)]
163. Yan, Z.; Wu, F.; Yuan, K. Changes in labor endowments, technology choices and adjustment of grain planting structure. *J. Financ. Econ.* **2021**, *47*, 79–93.
164. Xu, D.; Deng, X.; Guo, S.; Liu, S. Labor migration and farmland abandonment in rural China: Empirical results and policy implications. *J. Environ. Manage.* **2019**, *232*, 738–750. [[CrossRef](#)]
165. Shao, S.; Li, B.; Fan, M.; Yang, L. How does labor transfer affect environmental pollution in rural China? Evidence from a survey. *Energy Econ.* **2021**, *102*, 105515. [[CrossRef](#)]
166. Wang, S.X.; Yu Benjamin, F.U. Labor mobility barriers and rural-urban migration in transitional China. *China Econ. Rev.* **2019**, *53*, 211–224. [[CrossRef](#)]
167. Lu, H.; Xie, H.; Yao, G. Impact of land fragmentation on marginal productivity of agricultural labor and non-agricultural labor supply: A case study of Jiangsu, China. *Habitat Int.* **2019**, *83*, 65–72. [[CrossRef](#)]
168. Sunam, R.; Barney, K.; McCarthy, J.F. Transnational labour migration and livelihoods in rural Asia: Tracing patterns of agrarian and forest change. *Geoforum* **2021**, *118*, 1–13. [[CrossRef](#)]
169. Qi, X.; Liang, F.; Yuan, W.; Zhang, T.; Li, J. Factors influencing farmers' adoption of eco-friendly fertilization technology in grain production: An integrated spatial–econometric analysis in China. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2021**, *310*, 127536. [[CrossRef](#)]
170. Li, F.; Wang, L. Human capital, rural labor migration and urbanization models: Empirical evidence from a multi-period mixed multi-Logit model based on panel correction standard errors. *Econ. Trends* **2014**, *21*, 87–98.
171. Chen, K.; He, C.; Zhang, Y. The transfer of surplus labor and the advancement of agricultural technology: Based on the theoretical mechanism of the pull-fee model and the micro-evidence of eight sample villages in the western region. *Ind. Econ. Res.* **2010**, *15*, 1–8.
172. Abebaw, D.; Haile, M.G. The impact of cooperatives on agricultural technology adoption: Empirical evidence from Ethiopia. *Food Policy* **2013**, *38*, 82–91. [[CrossRef](#)]
173. Li, M.; Yan, X.; Guo, Y.; Ji, H. Impact of risk awareness and agriculture cooperatives' service on farmers' safe production behaviour: Evidences from Shaanxi Province. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2021**, *312*, 127724. [[CrossRef](#)]
174. Gava, O.; Ardakani, Z.; Delalić, A.; Azzi, N.; Bartolini, F. Agricultural cooperatives contributing to the alleviation of rural poverty. The case of Konjic (Bosnia and Herzegovina). *J. Rural Stud.* **2021**, *82*, 328–339. [[CrossRef](#)]
175. Li, X.; Ito, J. An empirical study of land rental development in rural Gansu, China: The role of agricultural cooperatives and transaction costs. *Land Use Policy* **2021**, *109*, 105621. [[CrossRef](#)]
176. Manda, J.; Khonje, M.G.; Alene, A.D.; Tufa, A.H.; Abdoulaye, T.; Mutenje, M.; Setimela, P.; Manyong, V. Does cooperative membership increase and accelerate agricultural technology adoption? Empirical evidence from Zambia. *Technol. Forecast. Soc. Change* **2020**, *158*, 120160. [[CrossRef](#)]
177. Feisali, M.; Niknami, M. Towards sustainable rural employment in agricultural cooperatives: Evidence from Iran's desert area. *J. Saudi Soc. Agric. Sci.* **2021**, *20*, 425–432. [[CrossRef](#)]
178. Li, C.; Shi, D.; Wen, H. The influence of relationship networks on land popular behavior and leases: An analysis based on the perspective of strong and weak relationship networks. *Agric. Technol. Econ.* **2020**, *22*, 106–116.
179. Zhang, H.; Wang, L.; Yu, S.; Zhao, J.; Shi, Z. Identifying government's and farmers' roles in soil erosion management in a rural area of southern China with social network analysis. *J. Clean. Prod.* **2021**, *278*, 123499. [[CrossRef](#)]
180. Chen, Y.; Yang, X.; Zhou, Y. The impact of social capital and its degree of localization on rural non-agricultural employment: An empirical analysis of China's western border regions. *Econ. Issues* **2012**, *15*, 23–27.
181. Sharma, U.; Chetri, P.; Minocha, S.; Roy, A.; Holker, T.; Patt, A.; Joerin, J. Do phone-based short message services improve the uptake of agri-met advice by farmers? A case study in Haryana, India. *Clim. Risk Manag.* **2021**, *33*, 100321. [[CrossRef](#)]
182. Atasoy, H. The effects of broadband Internet expansion on labor market outcomes. *SSRN Electron. J.* **2012**, *66*, 315–345. [[CrossRef](#)]
183. Kuhn, P.; Skuterud, M. Internet job search and unemployment durations. *Am. Econ. Rev.* **2004**, *94*, 218–232. [[CrossRef](#)]