

Adoption of Conservation-Tillage Practices in Cotton Production

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Abstract

Agricultural Resource Management Survey data for 2003 were used to estimate logit models for adoption of conservation-tillage practices and herbicide-resistant/stacked-gene cottonseed in the United States. No endogenous relationship between these two adoption decisions was noticed. That is, the decision to simultaneously adopt those two technologies was not evidenced. However, results indicate each technology impacted the other independently. Prior experience with no-till was observed to have significant, positive impacts on both technologies, while the representative farmer's college education, gross farm income, age, farming tenure, and a “highly erodible land” classification were not significant factors in determining the adoption of either technology.

Key Words: conservation tillage, cotton, genetically modified seed, herbicide-resistant cotton, stacked-gene cotton, simultaneous logit model, single-equation logit model, technology adoption

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The Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS) defines conservation tillage as “a tillage system that leaves enough crop residue to adequately protect the soil from erosion throughout the year. The percent of cover required varies by field according to soil type, slope, crop rotation, winter cover crops used and other factors.” Conservation tillage in general and no-till practices in particular have increased over the past few years (figures 1 and 2). Yet, despite the apparent advantages of conservation tillage in reducing soil erosion, soil degradation, runoff, and in improving soil quality (Edwards, 1995; Sandretto, 1997), some farmers adopt no-till or minimum-till while others do not.

The use of conservation-tillage (CT) practices may be even more important in cotton production than other row crop production because of the minimal amount of residue left on the soil surface. Crop residues after planting average 3% for cotton compared with 29% for corn (U.S. Department of Agriculture, 1997). Yet adoption of conservation tillage is lower for cotton than for other crops in the United States. Additionally, it has been suggested that the adoption of CT practices impacts the adoption of herbicide-resistant (HR)¹ cotton and vice versa (Fawcett and Towery, 2005; Roberts et al., 2006). Therefore, if CT practices impact HR cotton² adoption, then those practices can indirectly reduce residual herbicide use and affect farm profits; and conversely, if HR cotton adoption impacts CT practices, then HR cotton adoption may indirectly reduce soil erosion (Marra, Pardy, and Alston, 2003) through provision of effective and inexpensive weed control (Fawcett and Towery, 2005; Carpentar and Gianessi, 1999).

Broadly speaking, there are three reasons a study on conservation tillage in cotton is important. First, conservation tillage (either no-till or reduced tillage practices) may reduce soil erosion caused by wind or water by maintaining crop residue on the soil surface (Harper, 1996), increasing water filtration and moisture retention, and reducing surface sediment, water runoff,

and chemical runoff. This is especially important in cotton production where farmers make extensive use of fertilizers and chemicals. Second, with the use of HR or stacked-gene (SG) seed technology, CT practices indirectly reduce the use of residual herbicides and may increase profit potential (Marra, Pardey, and Alston, 2003). Third, notwithstanding its apparent benefits, especially cost savings from reduced labor, fuel and machinery costs (Harper, 1996), CT practices have been adopted by some farmers, but not all (Martin, 2002). Cooke (2002, p. 26) contends that “lack of information on the economic benefits has inhibited a large number of farmers in the Mid-south from considering such practices ... not only for cotton but other crops” as well.

Technology adoption literature in general has studied different aspects of adoption, including the costs of adoption (Kurkalova, Kling, and Zhao, 2003), impact of adoption on efficiency (Langemeier, 2005), different stages of adoption (Barham, Jackson-Smith, and Moon, 2002), reversible technology adoption (Baerenklau and Knapp, 2005), role of human capital (Rahm and Huffman, 1984; Foster and Rosenzweig, 1995), risk (Marra and Carlson, 1987), and simultaneous adoption of technology and productivity (McBride and El-Osta, 2002; Zepeda, 1994).

Past studies have examined the benefits and costs of CT and HR technologies (Marra, Piggott, and Sydorovych, 2005) and the simultaneous adoption of those technologies (Roberts et al., 2006; Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride, 2002; Frisvold and Boor, 2005; Marra, Piggott, and Sydorovych, 2005). For example, Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride (2002) used cross-sectional data for 1997 from the U.S. Department of Agriculture’s Agricultural Resource Management Survey (ARMS) to investigate a potential simultaneous relationship between HR soybean seed and CT practices using two simultaneously estimated binomial probit models, and compared

those results with two single-equation probit models. Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride's (2002) study suggested that accounting for simultaneity was important for the no-till decision but not for the seed-use decision. However, the study was conducted only one year after HR soybean seed was introduced. Thus, insufficient time might have transpired for adequate adjustment in tillage practices. Using data for later years may reveal that HR seed does impact tillage practices.

In a more recent study with time-series data for 1992-2004, Roberts et al. (2006), using Bayes' theorem and a two-equation simultaneous logit model, found the introduction of HR cotton in Tennessee increased the probability that farmers would adopt conservation tillage and farmers who had previously adopted CT practices were more likely to adopt HR cotton. They concluded that the simultaneous adoption of conservation tillage and HR cotton reduced soil erosion and residual herbicide use, and increased profit.

Currently, some information exists on the adoption of CT and HR technologies for some crops, but except for the Roberts et al. (2006) study for Tennessee, little information exists on the adoption of these technologies in U.S. cotton production. This study attempts to fill that void by identifying the factors that influence the adoption of CT and HR technologies in cotton production. The overall objective of this research was to identify the factors that lead to adoption of conservation tillage in U.S. cotton production. More specifically, the study sought to identify the farm and farmer characteristics that drove the adoption of CT practices (i.e., no-till and reduced till: ridge-till, strip-till, and mulch-till) and the impact of conservation tillage on the adoption of HR cotton across the United States.

Several alternative procedures such as probit and logit models have been described by Maddala (1983) to handle discrete choices such as adoption. If the issue at hand is one of simultaneous adoption of multiple decisions, multinomial logit or multinomial probit models are

generally used to evaluate such decisions. Wu and Babcock (1998) used multinomial logit and ordinary least squares (OLS) in a two-stage polychotomous-choice selectivity model (Lee, 1983) to account for selection bias in simultaneously analyzing the choice of alternative crop management practices/plans, and Dorfman (1996) used multinomial probit to model multiple adoption decisions. Binomial logit adoption models are used for binary choices. Soule, Tegene, and Wiebe (2000), for example, used a binary logit adoption model with 1996 ARMS data to analyze the influence of land tenure on the adoption of conservation practices in U.S. corn production.

Testing of simultaneous adoption of conservation tillage and genetically engineered cotton has generated interest in recent crop production literature. It is believed, when considered together, conservation tillage and HR cotton seem to increase potential environmental benefits while decreasing certain costs to producers. That is, the diffusion of conservation tillage positively influences the diffusion of HR cotton and vice versa. To test this hypothesis, Frisvold and Boor (2005) used state-level data on HR cotton diffusion and CT diffusion from 16 U.S. states to compare estimates from OLS, two-stage least squares (2SLS), and three-stage least squares (3SLS) in a simultaneous-equation estimation framework. Based on results from the 3SLS model, they rejected the null hypothesis that diffusion of each technology was independent of diffusion of the other.

Data and Methods

The USDA's 2003 ARMS data were used to characterize farm households that adopted CT and HR seed technologies in cotton production. The ARMS is a collection of annual surveys focusing on farm enterprise and specific crops. The 2003 ARMS focused on cotton. The target population of the ARMS is any farm business that produces at least \$1000 worth of agricultural

production during the calendar year (McBride and El-Osta, 2002). It is essentially the only annual source of data on the finances and practices of a nationally representative sample of U.S. farms that includes information on the characteristics of farm operators and their households (Lambert, Sullivan, and Claasen, 2007, p. 154). Though some questions asked in the survey are field-level, they apply for the farm as well. Moreover, the technology questions are currently asked in terms of the farm, thus eliminating the potential biases in data collected in earlier years. Therefore, the terms “field” and “farm” may be read synonymously for the purpose of this analysis.

Following Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride (2002),³ a system of simultaneous binomial logit models (Amemiya, 1981), using the 3SLS procedure, as well as two single-equation logit models (Maddala, 1983) were estimated for CT practices and HR cotton, respectively. Data from the 2003 ARMS, with samples of cotton farms across the United States, were used to estimate the adoption models. The explanatory variables for each equation included demographic information of the survey respondents (age, college education, annual gross farm income, length of tenure in cotton farming), farm characteristics (farm size, farm labor, percentage of cotton in total acres harvested, if cotton was grown in the previous year (2002), if the surveyed field was declared “highly erodible land” (HEL) by NRCS, if no-till was practiced in 2002), and region-specific dummy variables, one for each cotton-producing region.

The logit equation is written as (Greene, 1993):

$$(1) \quad \Pr(Y = 1) = \frac{e^{\beta'x}}{1 + e^{\beta'x}},$$

with the cumulative distribution function given by:

$$(2) \quad F(\beta'x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\beta'x}},$$

where β' represents the vector of parameters associated with the factors x .

Assuming the probability that farmer n will choose to produce cotton using a particular technology (CT practices or HR seed) is equal to the proportion of cotton farmers using that technology, the individual empirical models to be estimated may be specified as:

$$\begin{aligned} & CONSTILL = \beta_0 + \beta_1 HRCOTT + \beta_2 LABEXP + \beta_3 CTA + \beta_4 CTP + \beta_5 HEL + \\ (3) \quad & \beta_6 CROP02 + \beta_7 PNT + \beta_8 AGE + \beta_9 EDU + \beta_{10} TEN + \beta_{11} GFI + \sum_{j=12}^{15} \beta_j REGION_j + \varepsilon_T, \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & HRCOTT = \gamma_0 + \gamma_1 CONSTILL + \gamma_2 LABEXP + \gamma_3 CTA + \gamma_4 CTP + \gamma_5 HEL + \\ (4) \quad & \gamma_6 CROP02 + \gamma_7 PNT + \gamma_8 AGE + \gamma_9 EDU + \gamma_{10} TEN + \gamma_{11} GFI + \sum_{j=12}^{15} \gamma_j REGION_j + \varepsilon_G, \end{aligned}$$

where *CONSTILL* is a dummy variable indicating whether or not CT practices were adopted, *HRCOTT* is a dummy variable indicating whether or not HR cottonseed was planted; *LABEXP* is the total labor expense on the farm (\$100,000); *CTA* denotes the total harvested cotton acres (dryland and irrigated) on the farm (100 acres); *CTP* is the percentage of cotton acres on the farm; *HEL* is a dummy variable indicating if NRCS classified any part of the field surveyed as HEL; *CROP02* is a dummy variable indicating if cotton was the crop grown in the prior year, 2002; *PNT* is a dummy variable indicating if no-till was used in the surveyed field in the year before the survey, 2002; *AGE* is the age of the principal farm operator; *EDU* is a dummy variable indicating the surveyed farm operator's education level (whether or not college graduate); *TEN* is the length of tenure (in years) of the operator household for the surveyed field; *GFI* is the gross farm income in 2003 (\$100,000); *REGION* is a set of four dummies with *REGION1* including Alabama, Florida, and Georgia; *REGION2* including North Carolina, South Carolina, and Virginia; *REGION4* including Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas; and *REGION5* including Arizona, California, and New Mexico, with *REGION3* (Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, and

Tennessee) excluded as the reference region; ε_T and ε_G are random error terms; and the subscript n for the n^{th} farmer is suppressed for clarity.

The adoption of conservation tillage was expected to positively influence the adoption of HR cotton. Fields in states with more HEL acres would likely demonstrate a higher probability of adoption of conservation tillage and/or HR cotton than states with less HEL acres. However, due to the classification of states into regions, no *a priori* signs could be assigned to the regional dummies. All other variables except *AGE* were expected to have positive coefficients. Table 1 provides detailed definitions of all explanatory variables and summary statistics (frequencies, means, and standard deviations of regular variables).

To determine the quantitative effects of one technology's diffusion on the other, marginal effects were calculated. Marginal effects (Maddala, 1983; Greene, 1993) measure changes in the probability of adopting each of the technologies due to given changes in the explanatory variables (Liao, 1994; Long, 1997). Marginal effects of continuous variables were calculated at the means of the data.⁴ For dummy variables, a value of 0 was used if the mean was less than 0.5 and a value of 1 if the mean was greater than or equal to 0.5 (Obubuafo et al., 2006; Schlotzhauer, 2006).⁵

Assuming asymptotic normality of the error terms, the Hausman (1978) test was conducted to test for specification errors and endogeneity. Under the null hypothesis of no measurement error and no endogeneity (Greene, 1993, pp. 443-4, 763-4), the null hypothesis could not be rejected, suggesting a single-equation estimation, was more appropriate, resulting in efficient estimates. Any supposed endogeneity among the regressors would not have deleterious effects on the least squares estimators (Baum, Schaffer, and Stillman, 2007) or, in this case, single-equation estimates. Therefore, the results from only the single-equation logits are

discussed in the “Results” section below.

It is worth noting in this regard that, because the survey data are cross-sectional, all that the Hausman (1978) test implies about the timing of adoption is that some farmers adopted CT practices first and then HR seed, while others adopted HR seed first and then CT practices. Yet others might have adopted them at the same time, but the test indicates that, if they did adopt them at the same time, the statistical properties of the estimators from the binary logit models are not adversely affected. It is not difficult to imagine how farmers who had already adopted CT practices before HR seed was introduced might have a greater probability of adopting HR seed when it was introduced or at some time during or before 2003. Similarly, it is easy to imagine how farmers who had not adopted CT practices before HR seed was introduced might adopt HR seed first and then decide that they could improve efficiency even more by adopting CR practices sometime during or before 2003.⁶

The ARMS uses a complex stratified, multiphase, nonrandom survey design that may render naïve standard errors obtained by classical statistical algorithms invalid insofar as inferences on point estimates are concerned. Each observation in the ARMS represents a number of similar farms based on factors such as land use, farm size, etc., the particular number being the survey weight or survey expansion factor. In effect, this is the inverse of the probability that the surveyed farm is selected to be surveyed (El-Osta, Mishra, and Morehart, 2007, p. 292). In order to alleviate the possibility of such a bias in measurement, the National Agricultural Statistics Service (NASS) has established standards that allow valid inferences based on the entire population. These standards were used in this analysis. In particular, “full-sample weights” were used to calculate means, parameter estimates, and marginal effects, and “replicate weights” were used in what is called the “delete-a-group jackknife” procedure to calculate variances and

hence standard deviations of all point estimates (Kott, 1997a; Kott, 1997b; Lohr, S., 1999; Dubman, 2000; El-Osta, Mishra, and Ahearn, 2004; Ahearn et al., 2006; El-Osta, Mishra, and Morehart, 2007; Lambert, Sullivan, and Claasen, 2007). The sample used in the analysis included 1,253 respondents, which when properly expanded using survey weights yielded a population of 19,997 farm operator households (table 1).

Results

Multicollinearity diagnostics (Belsley, Kuh, and Welsch, 1980) diagnosed no serious degradation of standard errors among the explanatory variables. For the CT equation (equation (3)), logit estimation revealed that, apart from the constant, *HRCOTT* (the main variable of interest in this equation) was significant at the 10% level. This is in keeping with Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride (2002, p. 59), who found HR (soybean) seed adoption to be a significant explanatory factor in the single-equation no-till model, though this variable was not significant in their study with the simultaneous model. In the simultaneous equation setup, Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride's (2002) cross-sectional ARMS data for 1997 showed while farmers using no-till had a higher probability of adopting HR seed, using HR seed did not significantly affect no-till adoption. Their conclusion was that HR seeds were still a "new technology," and "an impact of HR seed adoption on no-till adoption in the future" might be experienced (Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride, 2002, p. 60). With our cross-sectional ARMS data for 2003, we observe diffusion in HR cottonseed only to the extent that the latter positively affected the probability of adoption of CT practices in a decision taken separately from the decision to adopt HR seed technology. Even after six years, these technologies are observed not to simultaneously affect each other. One possible reason for this is that herbicide resistance is often bundled with insect resistance. Further, the bundled insect- and HR characteristics are often placed in the best-yielding varieties.

Farmers may choose to buy the best-yielding varieties even if they may not necessarily want the insect- or HR characteristics (Bryant et al., 2003).

In addition, the variables *PNT*, *REGION4*, and *REGION5* in the tillage equation were significantly different from zero at the 1% level. The variables for labor expense on farm (*LABEXP*) and total harvested farm acres in cotton (*CTA*) had the unexpected negative sign, but neither of them was significant (table 2).

For the HR seed equation (equation (4)), the main variable of interest, *CONSTILL*, was significant at the 10% level with the expected positive sign. This indicates that farmers practicing conservation tillage had a higher probability of adopting HR seed than those who were not. Fernandez-Cornejo and McBride (2002) found similar results for U.S. soybean production in 1997. Other significant variables in this equation were *PNT* at the 10% level, and the regional dummies *REGION4* and *REGION5*, both at the 1% level. The variables for labor expense on farm (*LABEXP*), “highly erodible land” declaration by NRCS (*HEL*), college education (*EDU*), tenure (*TEN*), and gross farm income (*GFI*) each had the unexpected negative sign, but none was significant (table 2).

In both equations (3) and (4), the negative coefficients on Regions 4 and 5 indicate these regions had a lower probability of adoption of either technology relative to Region 3. Regions 4 and 5 are relatively arid compared to Region 3, and possibly contained large ranches (producing relatively large quantities of livestock and other non-cotton commodities), rendering adoption of each of these technologies less alluring in those regions.

Marginal effects on the main variables of interest (the HR and CT technologies in the tillage and seed-use equations, respectively) suggest farmers using HR cottonseed (*HRCOTT*) were 14.3% more likely to adopt CT practices (*CONSTILL*) than those who were not. Similarly,

farmers adopting CT practices were 10.4% more likely to also adopt HR cottonseed, *ceteris paribus* (table 2).

As evident from the tillage and seed-use equations, having prior experience with no-till (*PNT*) raised the probability of adopting CT practices by 50.1% and 7.9%, respectively.

Regional dummies 4 and 5 figured ‘significantly’ in both equations with negative signs, with marginal effects approximating -0.396 and -0.846, respectively, for the tillage equation, and -0.172 and -0.248, respectively, for the seed-use equation. Thus, estimated in isolation, Regions 4 and 5 were 39.6% and 84.6% less likely to adopt CT practices, and 17.2% and 24.8% less likely to adopt HR cottonseed, respectively, in relation to Region 3 (table 2).

Summary and Conclusions

Adoption of CT practices for cotton production is often studied in conjunction with HR cottonseed adoption. A simultaneous-equation system of logit equations for adoption of CT practices and HR cottonseed was estimated along with single-equation logit equations containing the same variables. In each adoption equation, the adoption of the other technology was used as an explanatory variable. These technology variables formed the core of this study. However, the Hausman (1978) specification test indicated no endogenous relationship between the adoption of CT practices and HR cottonseed, due to lack of significance in correlation of errors between the logit models. Therefore, results from only the single-equation logit models were reported.

As apparent from the regression results of both equations, each technology seemed to impact the other independently, thus indicating some diffusion in technology with time, even though the decision to simultaneously adopt those technologies was not evidenced. Apart from these main variables of interest, the variables for prior experience with no-till was observed to have significant, positive impacts on both CT and HR seed adoption. Hence, efforts to increase

adoption of either technology would more likely be successful if directed towards farmers with prior experience in no-till. .

Additionally, as for regional variation, captured by the “region” dummies, Regions 4 and 5 produced significant, negative coefficients in both equations. Thus, cotton farmers in these regions (4 and 5) were less likely to adopt HR cotton than those in Region 3.

Considered in isolation, labor expense, total or percentage of cotton acres, “highly erodible land” classification, continuous cropping, farmer age, college education, tenure, and gross farm income were not significant factors in determining either technology.

One limitation of this study is that the data are cross-sectional and might not appropriately capture farmers’ adjustments of tillage practices in response to their adoption of genetically modified cotton and vice versa. Time-series and/or panel data, if available, might reveal different results with regard to simultaneity and the factors on which these technologies are dependent.

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Footnotes

¹ The term “herbicide-resistant” (HR) is used in recent literature to replace the term “herbicide-tolerant.”

² For the purpose of this study, HR cotton was defined to include both HR and stacked-gene (SG) varieties. SG cotton includes the characteristics of both HR and insect-resistant (Bt) technologies.

³ In particular, Fenandez-Cornejo and McBride used probit estimation for CT practices in soybean production, but essentially the results for logit and probit are comparable (Greene; Maddala).

⁴ In sufficiently “large samples,” marginal effects calculated by averaging the individual marginal effects at each observation (Pindyck and Rubinfeld; Neter, Wasserman, and Kutner; Bell et al.) would give the same results as obtained here from the means of the data (Greene, p. 876) by adding an observation with all means and calculating the marginal effects at that point.

⁵ Anderson and Newell have developed a novel way of simplifying the calculation of marginal effects in logit and probit models (making them a function of only the estimated constant term) and their associated asymptotic variances by normalizing the explanatory variables at any desired value.

⁶ Also due to the use of cross-sectional nature of our data, instead of establishing causality, effects, determinants, or impacts, our regression results may be read as implying correlations, relationships, and associations. The “correlations” presented, however, assume *ceteris paribus* conditions.

Table 1. Summary of Variables Used in the Logit Models^a

Explanatory Variable	Definition (Frequency Used In Regression) ^b	Mean (Std. Dev.) ^c
Farm Characteristics		
<i>CONSTILL</i>	If practiced conservation tillage (no-till, ridge-till, strip-till, and mulch-till), i.e., if used one or more conservation-tillage equipment (Yes = "1" = 474 in sample = 4,977 in population, No = "0" = 779 in sample = 15,020 in population)	0.25
<i>HRCOTT</i>	If used herbicide-resistant and/or stacked-gene seed (Round-up Ready plus Liberty Link) (Yes = "1" = 935 in sample = 13,277 in population, No = "0" = 318 = 6,720 in population)	0.66
<i>LABEXP</i>	Labor expense per cotton farm in 2003 in U.S. dollars, scaled by 100,000s	0.54 (0.06)
<i>CTA</i>	Cotton acres (dryland and irrigated) harvested in farm on average in 2003, scaled by 100s	5.66 (0.30)
<i>CTP</i>	Percentage of cotton acres harvested in farm in 2003	0.58 (0.03)
<i>HEL</i>	If NRCS ^d classified any part of the field surveyed "highly erodible land (HEL)" (Yes = "1" = 154 in sample = 3,626 in population, No = "0" = 1,099 in sample = 16,371 in population)	0.18
<i>CROP02</i>	If planted 'prior' (continuous) cotton crop in Spring/Summer 2002 (Yes = "1" = 902 in sample = 12,144 in population, No = "0" = 351 in sample =	0.61

7,853 in population)

<i>PNT</i>	If previously 'no-tilled' (i.e., soil and previous crop residue left undisturbed from harvest to planting) in Spring/Summer 2002 (Yes = "1" = 309 in sample = 2,895 in population, No = "0" = 944 in sample = 17,102 in population)	0.14
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Farmer Characteristics

<i>AGE</i>	Age (during survey in 2003) in years	54.52 (0.53)
<i>EDU</i>	If college graduate (Yes = "1" = 343 in sample = 5,237 in population, No = "0" = 910 in sample = 14,760 in population)	0.26
<i>TEN</i>	Length of tenure (in field surveyed in 2003) of principal operator in years	17.60 (1.05)
<i>GFI</i>	Estimated pre-tax gross farm income of respondent in 2003 in U.S. dollars, scaled by 100,000s	5.81 (0.36)

Farm Location (*REGION*)^c

<i>REGION1</i>	If farm is located in Region 1 (Yes = "1" = 144 = 3,123 in sample, No = "0" = 932 = 16,874 in population)	0.16
<i>REGION2</i>	If farm is located in Region 2 (Yes = "1" = 204 = 2,078 in sample, No = "0" = 872 = 17,919 in population)	0.10
<i>REGION4</i>	If farm is located in Region 4 (Yes = "1" = 203 = 9,394 in sample, No = "0" = 873 = 10,603 in population)	0.47
<i>REGION5</i>	If farm is located in Region 5 (Yes = "1" = 109 = 1,813 in sample, No = "0" = 967 = 18,184 in population)	0.09

^a Total number of observations, $N = 1,253$ respondents in sample = 19,997 farms in the population (using the NASS “full-sample weight” variable).

^b Except age and location, all other variables were hypothesized to have positive signs on their estimated coefficients. Age was expected to have a negative sign, and the signs of the location variables could not be hypothesized *a priori*, since it was difficult to speculate on reasons for differences among regions.

^c Standard deviation of ‘continuous’ variable. Means are from the expanded full sample, and standard deviations use the NASS delete-a-group jackknife procedure.

^d Natural Resources Conservation Service.

^e The dummy variable for Region 3 (AR, LA, MS, MO, TN), with 495 observations in sample = 3,589 observations in population of “yes” (population mean = 0.18), was omitted. This facilitates comparison of adoption probabilities in Region 3 with the other four regions: Region 1 (AL, FL, GA), Region 2 (NC, SC, VA), Region 4 (KS, OK, TX), and Region 5 (AZ, CA, NM).

Table 2. Parameter Estimates and Marginal Effects from the Single-Equation Logit Models for Conservation-Tillage (CT) Practices and Herbicide-Resistant/Stacked-Gene (HR) Cottonseed

CT Practices, Equation (3)			HR Cottonseed, Equation (4)		
Explanatory Variable ^a	Parameter Estimate	Marginal Effect ^b	Explanatory Variable ^a	Parameter Estimate	Marginal Effect ^b
Constant***	-2.541 (0.666) ^c		Constant	0.719 (0.581) ^c	
<i>HRCOTT</i> *	0.628 (0.384)	0.143 (0.087) ^d	<i>CONSTILL</i> *	0.615 (0.412)	0.104 (0.070) ^d
<i>LABEXP</i>	-0.031 (0.122)	-0.007 (0.028)	<i>LABEXP</i>	-0.022 (0.182)	-0.004 (0.031)
<i>CTA</i>	-0.014 (0.024)	-0.003 (0.005)	<i>CTA</i>	<0.001 (0.027)	<0.001 (0.005)
<i>CTP</i>	0.491 (0.400)	0.112 (0.091)	<i>CTP</i>	0.070 (0.472)	0.012 (0.080)
<i>HEL</i>	0.464 (0.654)	0.105 (0.149)	<i>HEL</i>	-0.434 (0.360)	-0.073 (0.061)
<i>CROP02</i>	0.142 (0.446)	0.032 (0.010)	<i>CROP02</i>	0.023 (0.319)	0.004 (0.054)
<i>PNT</i> ***	2.205 (0.212)	0.501 (0.048)	<i>PNT</i> *	0.471 (0.339)	0.079 (0.057)
<i>AGE</i>	0.011 (0.012)	0.003 (0.003)	<i>AGE</i>	0.013 (0.014)	0.002 (0.002)

<i>EDU</i>	0.104 (0.293)	0.024 (0.067)	<i>EDU</i>	-0.134 (0.298)	-0.023 (0.050)
<i>TEN</i>	0.012 (0.014)	0.003 (0.003)	<i>TEN</i>	-0.009 (0.016)	-0.002 (0.003)
<i>GFI</i>	0.020 (0.031)	0.005 (0.007)	<i>GFI</i>	-0.002 (0.040)	<-0.001 (0.007)
<i>REGION1^c</i>	0.034 (0.417)	0.008 (0.095)	<i>REGION1^c</i>	0.048 (0.469)	0.008 (0.079)
<i>REGION2</i>	-0.111 (0.292)	-0.025 (0.066)	<i>REGION2</i>	0.280 (0.311)	0.047 (0.053)
<i>REGION4****</i>	-1.743 (0.408)	-0.396 (0.093)	<i>REGION4****</i>	-1.019 (0.294)	-0.172 (0.050)
<i>REGION5****</i>	-3.726 (0.576)	-0.846 (0.131)	<i>REGION5****</i>	-1.467 (0.583)	-0.248 (0.099)

Likelihood Ratio = 7,012.3633

McFadden R^2 = 0.3125

Adjusted McFadden R^2 = 0.3118

Prediction Success:

Concordant 82.8%

Discordant 17.0%

Tied 0.2%

Number of Observations = 1,253 in

sample = 19,997 farms in expanded full
sample

Number of CT Practices Adopters = 474 in
sample = 4,977 farms in expanded full sample

Likelihood Ratio = 2,831.0985

McFadden R^2 = 0.1109

Adjusted McFadden R^2 = 0.1103

Prediction Success:

Concordant 69.8%

Discordant 29.8%

Tied 0.4%

Number of Observations = 1,253 in

sample = 19,997 farms in expanded full
sample

Number of HR Seed Adopters = 935 in
sample = 13,277 farms in expanded full
sample

Note: ***, **, and * indicate statistical significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels, respectively.

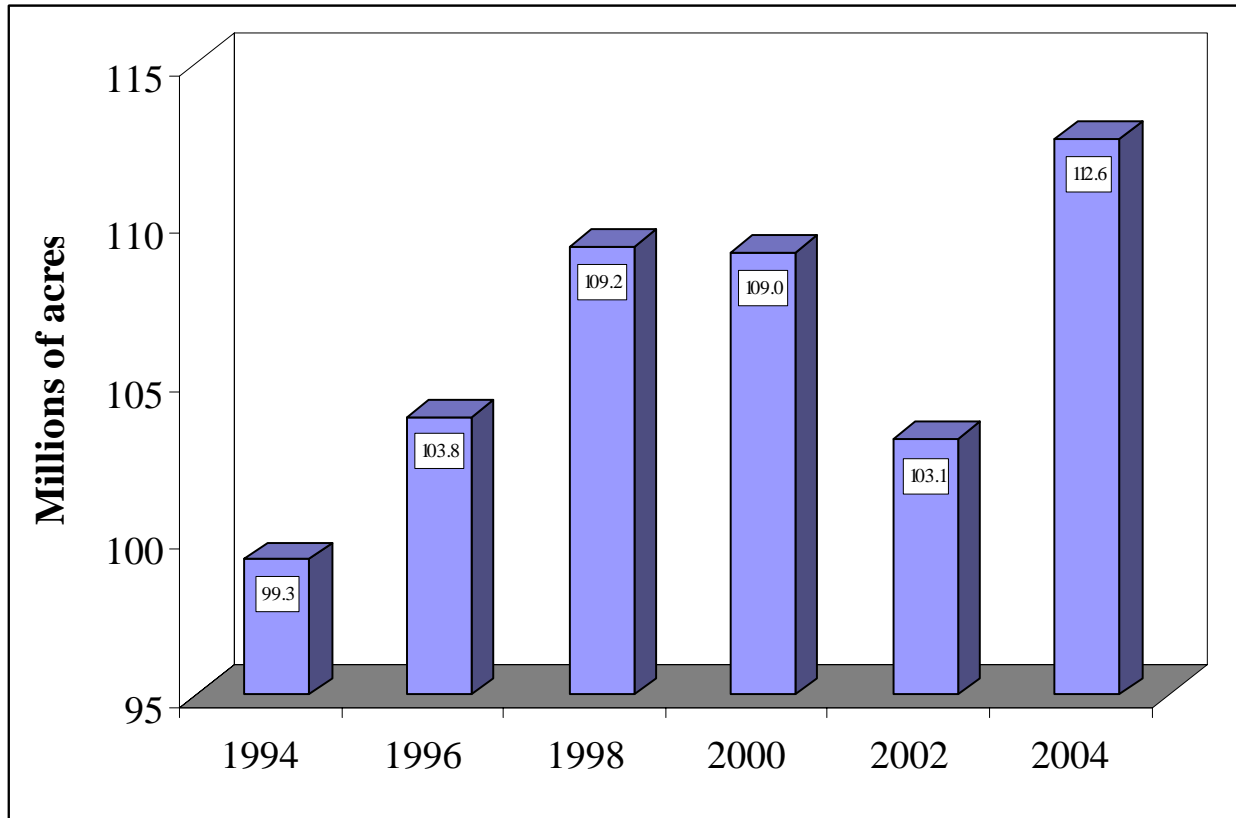
^a Explanatory variables are defined in Table 1.

^b A marginal effect indicates the change in predicted probability of adopting the relevant technology for a unit change in an explanatory variable. Marginal effects of continuous variables were calculated at the means of the data. For dummy variables, a value of 0 was used if the mean was less than 0.5 and a value of 1 if the mean was greater than or equal to 0.5.

^c Numbers in parentheses below parameter estimates are respective asymptotic delete-a-group jackknife standard errors of those estimates. Parameter estimates were obtained using the NASS “full-sample weight” variable.

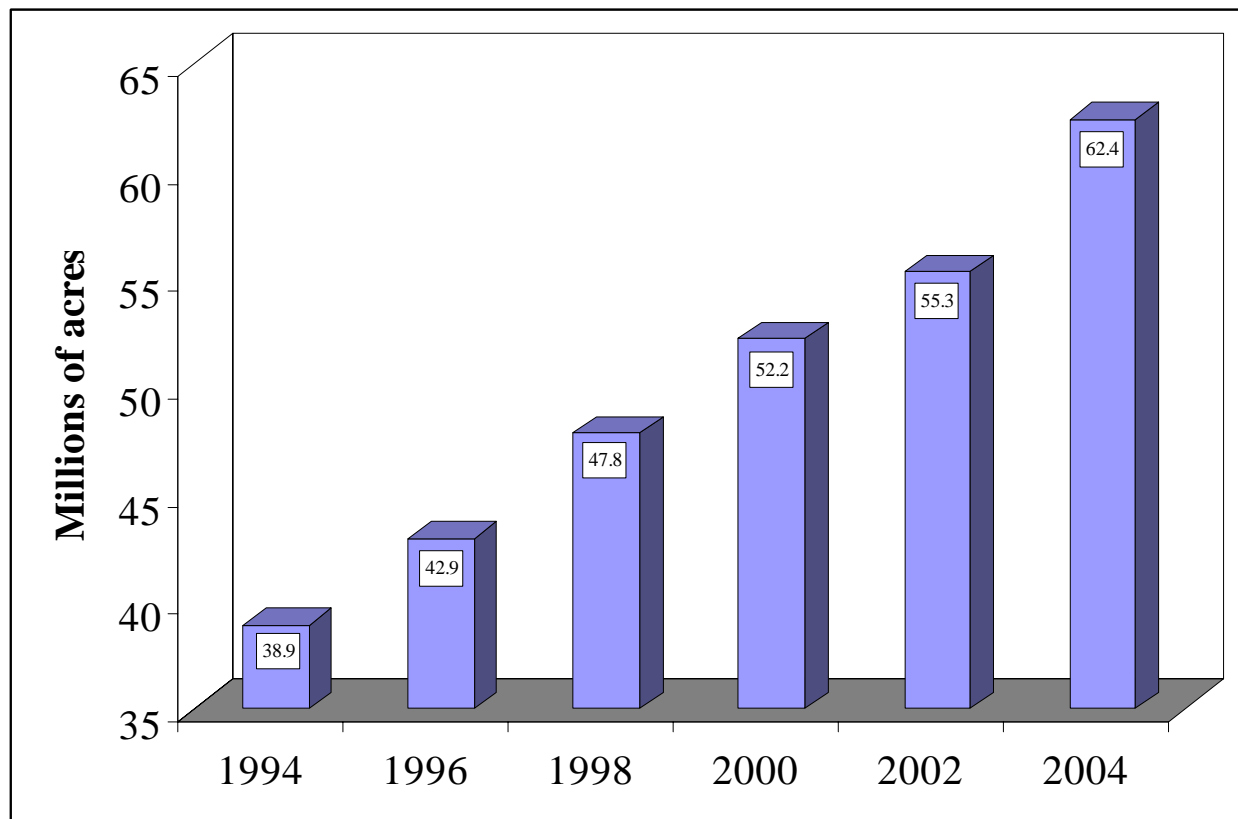
^d Numbers in parentheses below marginal effects are respective asymptotic delete-a-group jackknife standard errors of those effects. Marginal effects were obtained using the NASS “full-sample weight” variable.

^e Regional dummy variables compare adoption relative to cotton farmers in Region 3 (AR, LA, MS, MO, TN).



Source: Conservation Technology Information Center.

Figure 1. Conservation-tillage adoption in the United States, 1994-2004



Source: Conservation Technology Information Center.

Figure 2. No-till adoption in the United States, 1994-2004