

Rural Repair Ecosystems for Agricultural Machinery Longevity

Prof. Elisabeth Wagner

Professor, University of Klagenfurt, Austria

Abstract

Agricultural mechanization can improve labor productivity, operational timeliness, postharvest efficiency, and production reliability, yet the practical value of machinery depends on whether equipment remains functional throughout its useful life. Rural machinery systems frequently experience premature deterioration not because equipment is technically irreparable but because maintenance is delayed, competent mechanics are distant, spare parts are unavailable, diagnostic tools are limited, and repair enterprises operate with weak financial and technical support. This study develops a simulation-based framework for evaluating rural repair ecosystems as infrastructure for extending agricultural machinery longevity. Five repair-system configurations are compared: reactive self-repair, local mechanic access, a mechanic-plus-spare-parts network, a preventive-maintenance network, and an integrated rural repair ecosystem. A Rural Machinery Longevity Support Index is constructed from five dimensions: repair accessibility, technical competence, spare-parts continuity, preventive-maintenance capacity, and maintenance knowledge and record keeping. Simulated index values increase from 31.8 under reactive self-repair to 91.7 under the integrated ecosystem. Correspondingly, simulated critical machinery downtime declines from 24 days per operating season to approximately five days.

The analysis indicates that machinery longevity is produced by an ecosystem rather than by repair activity alone. Rural workshops, mobile mechanics, parts distributors, equipment dealers, custom-hiring centers, farmer organizations, technical training providers, and manufacturers all influence whether worn components are repaired, replaced, rebuilt, or allowed to cause wider machine failure. The study further argues that preventive maintenance and repairability are particularly valuable because agricultural breakdowns are temporally concentrated around planting, harvesting, and other narrow operational windows. Strengthening local repair systems can therefore extend physical equipment life while protecting machinery availability, capital productivity, and farmer confidence in mechanization. The proposed framework offers a transparent basis for evaluating rural machinery-support systems before implementing empirical repair-network interventions.

Keywords: agricultural machinery, rural repair ecosystem, machinery longevity, preventive maintenance, spare parts, sustainable mechanization, repair services, circular economy

1. Introduction

Agricultural machinery is a durable production asset whose value depends on considerably more than the moment of purchase. Tractors, power tillers, seeders, planters, harvesters, pumps, threshers, sprayers,

and postharvest equipment must remain available during narrow agricultural operating windows in which even short delays can reduce the usefulness of mechanization. Sustainable mechanization literature therefore treats maintenance, repair, after-sales service, technical training, and spare-parts availability as integral components of the mechanization system rather than as secondary activities undertaken after equipment failure. FAO's global mechanization review specifically emphasizes that farm machinery is capital intensive and requires service infrastructure for correct operation, maintenance, and repair.

The importance of this supporting infrastructure becomes greater in rural areas where equipment users may be geographically dispersed and authorized service centers are distant. A technically minor fault can create long periods of inactivity if the correct bearing, belt, filter, seal, electrical component, hydraulic fitting, or diagnostic skill is unavailable locally. FAO's machinery-supply-chain framework explicitly identifies repairers, dealers, service providers, manufacturers, and farmers as interdependent actors and notes that rural repair services may operate with inadequate premises, tools, equipment, and working capital. Repair capacity should therefore be understood as a network property. The useful life of one machine depends partly on the surrounding system's capacity to identify deterioration, source components, perform repairs correctly, and return equipment to service before failure propagates into more expensive damage.

Mechanization research also demonstrates that service provision can widen access to equipment among farmers who cannot justify individual ownership. Sims and Kienzle argue that sustainable smallholder mechanization requires functioning supply chains and local technical support, while Van Loon and colleagues show that mechanization service-provider models can improve access but depend on wider enabling conditions, including technical capability, infrastructure, finance, and collaboration across the machinery value chain. The same logic applies after machinery enters service. An equipment-sharing program that expands machine access but neglects maintenance capacity can eventually produce a fleet of partially functional or abandoned machines rather than durable mechanization.

Repair also has a wider resource-efficiency dimension. Circular-economy research identifies maintenance, repair, refurbishment, upgrading, reuse, and remanufacturing as strategies capable of slowing equipment replacement and retaining more of the material and economic value embedded in durable products. Fontana and colleagues' systematic review of equipment lifetime-extension strategies emphasizes maintenance and repair as central mechanisms for prolonging productive equipment use. Agricultural machinery is particularly suitable for such reasoning because many machines contain durable structures and assemblies that can remain productive after individual wearing components have been repaired or replaced. Premature disposal can therefore represent a loss not only to the farmer but also to the broader material economy.

2. Objectives of the Study

2.1 Evaluation of Rural Repair Capacity as Machinery Infrastructure

The first objective is to evaluate how the maturity of a rural repair ecosystem influences the conditions required for agricultural machinery to remain operational over an extended service life. Particular attention is given to geographical repair access, service-response time, workshop capability, availability of tools, and the ability to address both routine wear and more technically complex faults.

This objective distinguishes machinery availability from machinery ownership. A farm may legally own a tractor or implement but temporarily lose its productive value when the equipment cannot be returned to operation. Repair accessibility is therefore considered a functional component of mechanization infrastructure comparable to fuel supply, operator skill, finance, and access to appropriate implements.

2.2 Assessment of Spare Parts, Skills, and Preventive Maintenance

The second objective is to examine how component availability and technical competence interact with preventive maintenance. Spare-parts access without capable mechanics can generate incorrect replacement or repeated failures, while skilled mechanics without parts may be unable to complete otherwise straightforward work. Reliable machinery support therefore requires coordination between diagnosis, repair expertise, parts identification, inventory, and distribution.

Preventive maintenance is evaluated separately because the strongest repair ecosystem is not necessarily the one completing the greatest number of breakdown repairs. A more mature system should identify wear before critical failure, schedule servicing around machinery use, maintain lubrication and filtration requirements, and document recurring problems so that repair demand becomes progressively more predictable.

2.3 Development of a Longevity-Oriented Rural Repair Model

The third objective is to develop a planning framework through which local mechanics, farmers, equipment dealers, cooperatives, hire-service providers, manufacturers, and public training institutions can be considered parts of a common machinery-longevity system. The framework evaluates their collective capacity rather than assuming that machinery reliability is solely the responsibility of individual owners.

This objective also introduces a circular-economy perspective. Repair should be evaluated not merely as an emergency cost but as an intervention that preserves the productive value already embedded in machinery. Where safe and technically appropriate, maintenance, component replacement, refurbishment, and remanufacturing may delay replacement while retaining equipment functionality.

3. Review of Literature

3.1 Mechanization Supply Chains and Rural Repair Services

Agricultural mechanization research consistently emphasizes that machinery introduction must be accompanied by a functioning supply chain. Sims and Kienzle's comparative analysis of machinery supply chains identifies manufacturers, importers, dealers, hire-service providers, repairers, and farmers as connected actors whose commercial viability influences the sustainability of mechanization. Their work also emphasizes spare parts and technical service as essential components of machinery availability rather than optional after-sales additions.

FAO's wider review of global mechanization experience reaches a similar conclusion. Mechanization is complex because equipment requires correct selection, operation, maintenance, repair, training, and supporting commercial infrastructure. This systems perspective helps explain why machinery-distribution programs can produce weak long-term results when equipment supply receives

greater institutional attention than service support. The durable asset must remain connected with the technical ecosystem capable of sustaining it.

Smallholder-mechanization research further demonstrates the importance of locally adapted machinery and technical-service networks. Sims and Kienzle identify local manufacturing and servicing capacity as important because locally embedded suppliers can provide equipment adapted to regional conditions while improving access to technical assistance and replacement parts. This relationship becomes especially important where imported machines use proprietary components or where long parts-delivery times create unacceptable operational delays.

3.2 Maintenance Networks, Timeliness, and Operational Reliability

Agricultural maintenance differs from many industrial maintenance settings because service demand can become highly seasonal. Machinery workloads rise sharply around land preparation, sowing, harvesting, and postharvest operations, concentrating both mechanical stress and repair demand within short periods. Hu and colleagues argue that agricultural machinery maintenance networks require rapid-response capability and identify process capacity, service quality, knowledge resources, and service cost as important dimensions in network design.

Han and colleagues extend this reasoning by showing that geographical organization of maintenance services influences service mileage, capacity pressure, and response efficiency. Their maintenance-network model explicitly addresses the challenge of assigning geographically dispersed agricultural machinery to service regions while minimizing travel burden and overloaded repair capacity. This literature is highly relevant to rural repair ecosystems because an excellent mechanic located too far from the machine may still provide inadequate service during a narrow harvesting window.

Maintenance-service capacity must therefore be evaluated through more than the number of workshops. Rural coverage, mobile response, technician availability, diagnostic capability, workshop throughput, and spare-part access jointly influence downtime. Research on maintenance-service planning likewise demonstrates that demand uncertainty and seasonal capacity need to be managed if providers are expected to maintain acceptable service levels during agricultural peaks. The practical implication is that repair ecosystems should be designed for peak agricultural demand rather than average annual workload alone.

3.3 Repair, Lifetime Extension, and Rural Economic Value

Repair contributes to machinery longevity by intervening before the residual value of the entire machine is lost. A worn bearing, damaged hose, degraded belt, faulty electrical connection, blocked filter, or deteriorated seal represents a component-level problem, whereas continued operation can transform it into damage affecting shafts, pumps, engines, transmissions, hydraulic systems, or other higher-value assemblies. Preventive maintenance and competent early repair therefore influence the rate at which localized wear becomes system-level failure.

Circular-economy scholarship provides a broader conceptual basis for this approach. Fontana and colleagues identify maintenance, repair, refurbishment, remanufacturing, reuse, and related strategies as pathways for extending equipment life and reducing the need for premature replacement. Product-life-

extension research similarly argues that durable products can retain economic and material value when design and service systems make maintenance, repair, upgrading, and component recovery feasible.

Agricultural service-provider models can also create rural employment opportunities around this life-extension process. FAO's training framework for mechanization enterprises treats repair, maintenance, equipment operation, and service management as business capabilities needed for sustainable mechanization service provision. Rural repair ecosystems may therefore generate a double benefit: farmers gain more reliable machinery while mechanics, fabricators, welders, parts dealers, mobile technicians, and equipment-service entrepreneurs gain productive rural employment.

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Simulation Design and Repair-Ecosystem Configurations

The study adopts a simulation-based multicriteria methodology. The analytical setting represents a rural farming region using a mixed fleet of tractors, power tillers, pumps, planting equipment, harvesting machines, sprayers, threshers, and related implements. Machinery intensity varies seasonally, and farms are assumed to be distributed at sufficient distance from major urban service centers for local repair capacity to influence downtime materially.

Five repair configurations are modeled. The reactive self-repair scenario represents a system in which farmers respond after failure with limited technical support. The local mechanic access scenario introduces rural repairers but retains weak parts distribution and limited preventive maintenance. The mechanic-plus-spare-parts network adds more dependable component availability and stronger technical capability. The preventive-maintenance network includes scheduled servicing and systematic pre-season inspection. The integrated rural repair ecosystem combines trained local technicians, parts availability, mobile servicing, preventive maintenance, documentation, workshop tools, technical escalation, and relationships with dealers or manufacturers.

The scenarios represent institutional maturity rather than specific technologies. A village repair ecosystem could involve independent mechanics, a cooperative workshop, a machinery bank, a custom-hiring center, a dealer-supported service point, or several complementary businesses. The framework evaluates function rather than organizational ownership.

4.2 Rural Machinery Longevity Support Index

A Rural Machinery Longevity Support Index (RMLSI) was constructed to compare repair configurations. Higher scores indicate a stronger environment for maintaining machinery availability and delaying avoidable replacement.

Table 1: Repair-System Dimensions Used in the Rural Machinery Longevity Framework

Dimension	Operational interpretation	Weight
Repair accessibility	Proximity, response speed, mobile servicing, and practical availability of repair support	0.25

Dimension	Operational interpretation	Weight
Technical competence	Diagnostic ability, repair quality, workshop tooling, and mechanic training	0.20
Spare-parts continuity	Availability, identification, affordability, and timely distribution of replacement components	0.20
Preventive-maintenance capacity	Pre-season inspection, lubrication, filtration, scheduled servicing, and wear detection	0.20
Maintenance knowledge and records	Operator knowledge, service history, manuals, fault records, and communication between users and repairers	0.15

The index is calculated as:

$$\text{RMLSI} = 0.25A + 0.20C + 0.20S + 0.20P + 0.15K$$

where A represents repair accessibility, C technical competence, S spare-parts continuity, P preventive-maintenance capacity, and K maintenance knowledge and records.

Repair accessibility receives the largest individual weight because the agricultural value of repair decreases when response arrives after the relevant operating window. The other four criteria receive closely balanced weights because long equipment life requires both technically correct interventions and a continuing support system.

4.3 Simulation Logic and Research Integrity

Scores were assigned comparatively using established mechanization and maintenance principles rather than observed farm records. The reactive scenario receives low scores because maintenance occurs mainly after failure and technical resources are fragmented. Local mechanic access improves repair proximity, while the mechanic-plus-parts scenario further reduces incomplete repairs caused by component shortages.

The preventive-maintenance network receives a substantial additional improvement because maintenance activity begins before breakdown. Service schedules are assumed to include inspections before heavy-use periods, replacement of known wear components, lubrication, filter servicing, adjustments, and communication of recurring fault patterns. The integrated ecosystem additionally provides stronger technical escalation, more reliable parts sourcing, service records, and cooperation among workshops, dealers, service providers, and equipment users.

The simulation does not estimate actual equipment lifespan, depreciation, repair expenditure, environmental impact, or failure probability for a specific machine model. Those outcomes would require longitudinal data on machine age, hours of use, load conditions, operator behavior, failure history, parts quality, service intervals, and repair costs. The numerical results are therefore institutional scenarios rather than engineering predictions.

5. Analysis

5.1 Repair-Ecosystem Maturity and Longevity Support

The simulated results indicate a substantial difference between reactive repair and a coordinated rural support system. Reactive self-repair achieves an RMLSI of 31.8. Farmers may complete basic adjustments or temporary repairs, but limited diagnostics and weak parts availability increase the probability of extended downtime or repeated failure.

Local mechanic access raises the score to 53.3. The greatest improvement arises from shorter repair distance and better technical assistance. Nevertheless, the mechanic remains constrained when components are unavailable or when complex repairs require tools and diagnostic information beyond local workshop capability.

The mechanic-plus-spare-parts network reaches an RMLSI of 70.0. Component availability changes the repair process because technicians can complete more interventions without waiting for distant procurement. Parts quality remains important: an ecosystem based on unsuitable or unreliable replacement components may reduce immediate downtime but create repeated failure.

Table 2: Simulated Performance Across Repair-Ecosystem Configurations

Repair configuration	Repair access	Technical competence	Spare-parts continuity	Preventive maintenance	Knowledge and records	RMLSI
Reactive self-repair	35	32	28	25	40	31.8
Local mechanic access	65	58	46	42	52	53.3
Mechanic + spare-parts network	74	70	80	58	66	70.0
Preventive-maintenance network	82	84	82	88	80	83.3
Integrated rural repair ecosystem	94	92	91	92	88	91.7

Note: Scores are hypothetical simulation values developed for methodological demonstration and do not represent measurements from an actual repair network.

The preventive-maintenance system reaches 83.3, while the integrated rural ecosystem achieves 91.7. The increase illustrates that machinery longevity is supported most strongly when repair is

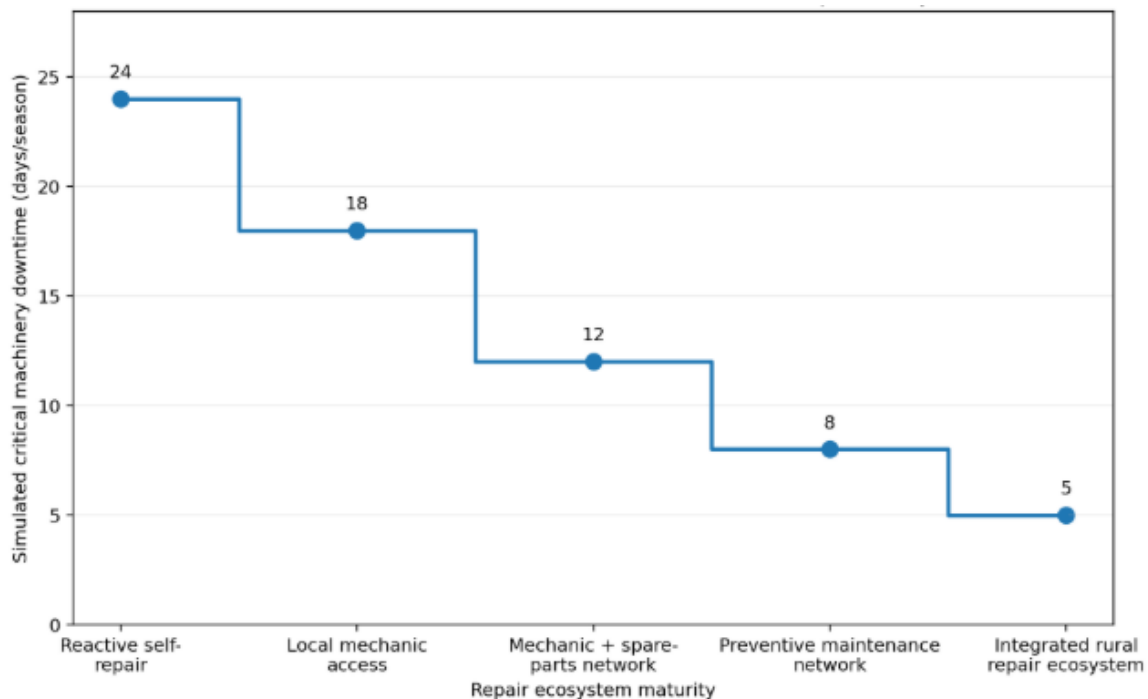
combined with prevention, parts logistics, operator knowledge, and technical documentation rather than treated as an isolated workshop transaction.

5.2 Seasonal Machinery Downtime

Agricultural machinery failure is economically significant partly because the value of machine availability varies across the season. A tractor unavailable for several days during an inactive period may impose limited production loss, whereas the same interruption during land preparation or harvesting can create substantial consequences. Maintenance-network research accordingly emphasizes fast response during high-demand agricultural periods.

The simulation models this effect through critical seasonal downtime. The reactive system produces an illustrative 24 downtime days, compared with 18 days when a local mechanic is available and 12 days when mechanics are supported by stronger spare-parts distribution. Preventive maintenance reduces the modeled value to eight days, while the integrated ecosystem reaches five days.

Graph 1: Simulated Seasonal Downtime Under Alternative Rural Repair Ecosystems



The graph does not represent observed downtime from a real farming region. Its analytical purpose is to demonstrate that repair-system improvement can influence not merely eventual machine life but also productive availability during that life. A machine that remains physically repairable but spends long portions of critical seasons awaiting parts or service provides weak functional longevity.

5.3 Repair Pathways and Machinery-Life Extension

The simulation supports a staged repair hierarchy. Routine inspection and preventive maintenance should address deterioration before failure. Where failure occurs, component-level repair or replacement should be considered before replacement of complete assemblies. Refurbishment or rebuilding becomes

relevant when several components have deteriorated but the structural and economic value of the machine remains viable. Replacement of the entire machine becomes appropriate when safety, reliability, technical obsolescence, parts scarcity, repair cost, or operating efficiency make further life extension unjustifiable.

This hierarchy is consistent with wider equipment-life-extension literature, which identifies maintenance, repair, refurbishment, remanufacturing, and reuse as distinct but related strategies for retaining productive value. Rural repair ecosystems can therefore support a graduated technical response rather than forcing farmers into a binary choice between operating a damaged machine and purchasing a replacement.

Local fabrication also has a potential role, particularly for non-safety-critical structural parts, guards, brackets, implements, frames, and components that can be reproduced to appropriate specifications. However, fabrication should remain technically controlled. Components affecting braking, steering, high-pressure hydraulic systems, rotating power transmission, protective structures, or other safety-critical functions require suitable materials, tolerances, testing, and professional competence.

6. Discussion

6.1 Repair Ecosystems as Essential Mechanization Infrastructure

The main implication of the study is that machinery repair should be considered part of agricultural infrastructure rather than an informal activity external to mechanization policy. Equipment-distribution programs frequently attract attention because purchased machines are visible outputs, while workshop capacity, spare-parts inventories, mechanic training, and service records are less visible. Yet FAO's mechanization framework makes clear that sustainable equipment adoption depends upon the complete supply chain and after-sales support.

The practical unit of analysis should therefore shift from the machine to the machine-service system. A tractor model that is technically advanced but unsupported locally may be less useful than a simpler model for which mechanics understand the design and parts are available rapidly. Equipment-selection decisions should consequently evaluate expected serviceability alongside purchase price, power, fuel use, and performance.

This approach also changes the interpretation of local repair enterprises. Rural mechanics should not be seen merely as emergency technicians operating after equipment breaks down. Properly supported workshops can function as decentralized infrastructure responsible for inspection, adjustment, maintenance, diagnosis, repair, parts identification, fabrication, refurbishment, and communication of recurring technical problems.

6.2 Skills, Parts, and Preventive Maintenance as Interdependent Capabilities

The second major implication is that technical competence and spare-parts supply are complements. A well-stocked parts shop cannot diagnose a complex fault, while an expert mechanic cannot complete many repairs without appropriate replacement components. Sustainable machinery-support systems therefore require coordination among workshops, dealers, manufacturers, distributors, and service providers.

FAO's machinery-supply-chain analysis specifically highlights weaknesses in rural repair enterprises, including inadequate tools, premises, equipment, capital, and opportunities for in-service technical training. Strengthening these enterprises may require credit for workshop equipment, mechanic certification or training, improved technical manuals, reliable part-number information, distribution partnerships, and business-management support.

Preventive maintenance adds a third capability because it reduces dependence on emergency repair. Service providers can organize pre-season inspection campaigns before planting or harvesting, while custom-hiring centers can maintain records based on engine hours or workload. Common wear items can be stocked before peak season according to historical demand. Such preparation converts some unpredictable failures into schedulable maintenance work.

Maintenance documentation remains particularly valuable as machinery becomes more electronically and hydraulically complex. Even simple service records can identify repeated faults and help distinguish a component problem from an underlying operating or design issue. Records also support used-machinery markets because buyers can evaluate whether equipment has received systematic maintenance rather than relying exclusively on appearance.

6.3 Rural Repair, Circularity, and Machinery Replacement Decisions

A longevity-oriented repair ecosystem should not attempt to keep every machine operating indefinitely. Machinery replacement can be justified when equipment becomes unsafe, inefficient, unreliable, unsupported, or economically unreasonable to maintain. The purpose of repairability is not maximum age at any cost; it is avoidance of premature replacement where continued safe and productive use remains technically and economically feasible.

Circular-economy reasoning is useful because it distinguishes several pathways between routine maintenance and disposal. Fontana and colleagues' equipment-lifetime review identifies maintenance, refurbishment, upgrading, remanufacturing, and reuse among the strategies through which machinery value can be retained. In agriculture, this may include rebuilding hydraulic components, reconditioning engines, replacing wearing elements of implements, refurbishing pumps, upgrading safety guards, or transferring appropriately maintained equipment into less intensive applications.

The environmental argument should nevertheless remain evidence-based. Repair can reduce the material demand associated with replacing machinery, but older equipment may consume more fuel, produce greater emissions, lack modern safety systems, or perform field operations less precisely. A defensible longevity decision therefore considers the condition and performance of the existing machine alongside the environmental and economic cost of replacement.

Policy should similarly avoid treating new machinery purchases as the only indicator of successful mechanization. Indicators of a mature rural machinery system could include repair response time, availability of common parts, technician density, preventive-maintenance adoption, seasonal downtime, workshop capability, equipment utilization, and the percentage of machines remaining safely operational over time. These measures would recognize the productive infrastructure that exists between machinery purchase and machinery retirement.

7. Conclusion

Agricultural machinery longevity depends on a network of technical and institutional capabilities extending well beyond the physical durability of equipment. A machine can be mechanically repairable yet functionally unavailable when skilled technicians, parts, diagnostic resources, workshop tools, or transport are inaccessible. Rural repair capacity should therefore be treated as a fundamental component of sustainable mechanization.

The simulation developed in this study shows how repair-system maturity can be evaluated systematically. The Rural Machinery Longevity Support Index increases from approximately 31.8 under reactive self-repair to 91.7 under an integrated rural repair ecosystem. Simulated critical seasonal downtime simultaneously declines from 24 days to five days. These numerical values are illustrative rather than empirical, but they demonstrate why repair accessibility, mechanic competence, parts continuity, preventive maintenance, and maintenance knowledge should be evaluated jointly.

A strong rural repair ecosystem begins before machinery failure. Operators require basic maintenance knowledge; equipment should be inspected before heavy-use periods; common components should be available locally; technicians need appropriate training and workshop tools; and complex repairs should have clear pathways to higher-level technical support. Custom-hiring centers, cooperatives, dealers, independent mechanics, parts distributors, manufacturers, vocational institutions, and extension systems can each contribute different capabilities to this network.

Future empirical research should measure repair response times, machinery age, operating hours, failure type, part-delivery delays, repair cost, workshop distance, technician capability, seasonal downtime, preventive-maintenance frequency, and replacement decisions across contrasting rural machinery systems. Longitudinal studies would be particularly valuable because machinery longevity develops across many operating seasons rather than through a single repair episode. Such evidence could support mechanization policies in which the objective is not simply to place more machines in rural areas, but to create the technical ecosystem required to keep appropriate machinery safe, serviceable, economically productive, and materially valuable for as long as continued operation remains justified.

References

1. B. G. Sims and J. Kienzle, *Farm Equipment Supply Chains: Guidelines for Policy-Makers and Service Providers—Experiences from Kenya, Pakistan and Brazil*. Rome, Italy: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Agricultural and Food Engineering Technical Report No. 7, 2009, ISBN 978-92-5-106431-3.
2. J. Kienzle, J. E. Ashburner, and B. G. Sims, Eds., *Mechanization for Rural Development: A Review of Patterns and Progress from Around the World*. Rome, Italy: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Integrated Crop Management, vol. 20, 2013.
3. B. Sims and J. Kienzle, “Making mechanization accessible to smallholder farmers in Sub-Saharan Africa,” *Environments*, vol. 3, no. 2, Art. no. 11, 2016, doi: 10.3390/environments3020011.
4. B. G. Sims, M. Hilmi, and J. Kienzle, *Agricultural Mechanization: A Key Input for Sub-Saharan African Smallholders*. Rome, Italy: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Integrated Crop Management, vol. 23, 2016.

5. B. Sims and J. Kienzle, "Sustainable agricultural mechanization for smallholders: What is it and how can we implement it?" *Agriculture*, vol. 7, no. 6, Art. no. 50, 2017, doi: 10.3390/agriculture7060050.
6. B. G. Sims, D. G. Kahan, J. Mpagalile, M. Hilmi, and S. Santos Valle, *Hire Services as a Business Enterprise: A Training Manual for Small-Scale Mechanization Service Providers*. Rome, Italy: FAO and CIMMYT, 2018, ISBN 978-92-5-130513-3.
7. Y. Hu, S. Xiao, J. Wen, and J. Li, "An ANP-multi-criteria-based methodology to construct maintenance networks for agricultural machinery cluster in a balanced scorecard context," *Computers and Electronics in Agriculture*, vol. 158, pp. 1–10, 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.compag.2019.01.031.
8. J. Van Loon, L. Woltering, T. J. Krupnik, F. Baudron, M. Boa, and B. Govaerts, "Scaling agricultural mechanization services in smallholder farming systems: Case studies from sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, and Latin America," *Agricultural Systems*, vol. 180, Art. no. 102792, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.agsy.2020.102792.
9. W. Ren, K. Wu, Q. Gu, and Y. Hu, "Intelligent decision making for service providers selection in maintenance service network: An adaptive fuzzy-neuro approach," *Knowledge-Based Systems*, vol. 190, Art. no. 105263, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.knosys.2019.105263.
10. J. Han, Y. Hu, M. Mao, and S. Wan, "A multi-objective districting problem applied to agricultural machinery maintenance service network," *European Journal of Operational Research*, vol. 287, no. 3, pp. 1120–1130, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.ejor.2020.05.008.
11. "A two-stage dynamic capacity planning approach for agricultural machinery maintenance service with demand uncertainty," *Biosystems Engineering*, vol. 190, pp. 201–217, 2020, doi: 10.1016/j.biosystemseng.2019.12.005.
12. N. M. P. Bocken, I. de Pauw, C. Bakker, and B. van der Grinten, "Product design and business model strategies for a circular economy," *Journal of Industrial and Production Engineering*, vol. 33, no. 5, pp. 308–320, 2016, doi: 10.1080/21681015.2016.1172124.
13. C. Bakker, M. Wang, J. Huisman, and M. den Hollander, "Products that go round: Exploring product life extension through design," *Journal of Cleaner Production*, vol. 69, pp. 10–16, 2014, doi: 10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.01.028.
14. A. Fontana, A. Barni, D. Leone, M. Spirito, A. Tringale, M. Ferraris, J. Reis, and G. Gonçalves, "Circular economy strategies for equipment lifetime extension: A systematic review," *Sustainability*, vol. 13, no. 3, Art. no. 1117, 2021, doi: 10.3390/su13031117.
15. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, *Small-Scale Agricultural Mechanization Hire Services as a Business Enterprise*. Rome, Italy: FAO, 2021.