

1 Succession Intentions in Family Farming: Evidence from Marginal 2 Rural Areas in Paraguay

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32 Abstract

33 Family farms in the Global South are vital for global food security, yet they are particularly exposed
34 to succession issues. In Paraguay, a country where family farming is predominant, we know little

35 about the main aspects characterising the intention of having a successor. By using Social
36 Reproduction Theory as theoretical construct and an original database of Paraguayan farmers, this
37 study employs a logistic regression model to examine how productive capital, reproductive capital,
38 and external frictions are associated to the likelihood of having a successor. The analysis reveals that
39 economic factors, particularly land availability, play a decisive role, whereas human capital and
40 mechanisation show weaker effects. Therefore, we argue that succession reflects a broader set of
41 structural and contextual dynamics that situate Paraguayan family farmers within a dual agrarian
42 structure marked by inequality and exclusion.

43 **Keywords:** Paraguay; Farm succession; Family farming; Rural development policy.

44 **JEL codes:** O12, Q12, Q15

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Family farms continue to play a vital role in ensuring food security, providing rural employment, and
47 fostering community resilience worldwide, despite the significant structural changes that agrifood
48 systems have undergone in recent decades (FAO, 2025). Despite their critical role in sustainably
49 transforming agri-food systems to feed the world, family farmers are particularly vulnerable to market
50 forces that contribute to exploitation and wealth concentration (Wesz Junior et al., 2024). They are
51 also disproportionately affected by poverty and vulnerability (HLPE, 2013). In Latin America, family
52 farms constitute approximately 82% of all farms (Cavicchioli et al., 2018), and the sustainability of
53 agricultural activities depends greatly on the successful transfer of farms within families (Suess-
54 Reyes & Fuetsch, 2016; Breitenbach & Foguesatto, 2023), which has become a critical policy concern
55 for Latin American policymakers (IFAD, 2014; Schneider, 2016).

56 Existing literature on farm succession identifies those factors influencing the likelihood of
57 intergenerational transfer of family farms (Rodríguez-Lizano et al., 2020). However, the specific
58 drivers and conditions facilitating this transfer remain insufficiently studied, especially in Latin

59 America. In this context, Paraguay stands out as an emblematic case, as the Latin American country
60 where family farming represents the largest share of agricultural holdings (Leporati et al., 2014),
61 constituting “the pillar of national agricultural production, representing nearly 90% of the farms in
62 the country” (MAG, 2025, p. 11). Paraguay has one of the highest rates of land concentration in the
63 world (Cardozo & Solís, 2024) and one quarter of the rural population lives under poverty line (INE,
64 2025). Such hard living conditions have caused an important migration, especially among young
65 individuals, to urban areas in search of better opportunities.

66 Despite the importance of family farming in this country, the literature on farm succession is limited
67 and fragmented, often embedded within broader studies of rural development and agrarian change.
68 This paper aims to overcome this research gap by investigating this phenomenon using a new and
69 unique dataset, resulting from extensive fieldwork in the San Pedro province of Eastern Paraguay.
70 Building on Social Reproduction Theory (SRT) we employ a logistic regression model to explore
71 those factors related to productive and reproductive capital. Results indicate that in poor households,
72 the likelihood of having a successor is related to the household’s internal labour and external social
73 safety nets, representing a strategy for the social survival of the family unit, rather than a business
74 opportunity. Beyond the peculiarity of the Paraguayan case, this study can offer useful insights to
75 understand the dynamics of succession and family farm sustainability in the broader context of the
76 vast vulnerable and marginalised areas of the Global South.

77 The article is organized as follows: after this introduction, Section 2 reviews the main theoretical
78 approaches to farm succession and discusses the key drivers identified in the literature. Section 3
79 presents the analytical framework based on Social Reproduction Theory and introduces the
80 Paraguayan context, as well as the data and empirical strategy adopted. Section 4 reports the main
81 results of the econometric analysis, which are then discussed in Section 5 in light of the broader
82 debates on social reproduction. Finally, Section 6 offers concluding remarks, highlighting the main
83 contributions of this study and suggesting directions for future research.

84 **2. Theoretical framework**

85 *2.1. Farm succession: models*

86 Farm succession, broadly defined as the intergenerational transfer of agricultural assets, management
87 responsibilities, and farming knowledge from one generation to the next (Chiswell, 2018), represents
88 a fundamental process in sustaining rural livelihoods and ensuring the continuity of agricultural
89 systems worldwide. The process of farm succession can be understood as a case of an intertemporal
90 and multi-dimensional allocation problem (Rodríguez-Lizano et al., 2020). It involves legal,
91 economic, social, and cultural factors, as the transfer process encompasses both tangible assets, such
92 as land, machinery, and productive equipment, and intangible assets, such as managerial skills,
93 cultural knowledge, and social connections (Mishra & El-Osta, 2008). Theoretical approaches to farm
94 succession are framed through a variety of analytical lenses, ranging from the household and family
95 models (Becker, 1964) to the SRT (Mezzadri et al., 2024). This diversity reflects the complexities of
96 intergenerational transfers, particularly in the context of small-scale and family-operated agricultural
97 activities (Doss & Quisumbing, 2019).

98 In agricultural economics, household and family models combine production and consumption
99 decisions into a cohesive framework, emphasizing how farm households aim to maximize utility by
100 simultaneously considering present consumption, farm profitability, and the long-term goal of passing
101 the farm on to the next generation (Becker, 1981). Within this perspective, succession becomes an
102 intertemporal allocation problem in which parents weigh the trade-offs between current welfare and
103 the need to invest in the farm's continuity, with major determinants including profitability, transaction
104 costs of land transfer, children's occupational preferences, and the relative opportunity costs of off-
105 farm labour (Singh et al., 1986).

106 Closely related is the literature on intergenerational transfer and human capital theories, which
107 emphasize that farm succession depends on parents' ability and willingness to invest in their heirs'
108 skills and education, as well as on the expected returns of farming relative to non-farming occupations

109 (Becker & Tomes, 1979). Migration and rural-to-urban mobility play a decisive role in this
110 framework, as higher wages outside agriculture reduce the likelihood that children will remain on the
111 farm. In these models, the farm is treated as both a productive asset and a cultural (i.e., symbolic)
112 asset, with succession determined by the perceived economic and cultural value of tangible assets
113 (i.e., land) and the quality of life in rural communities.

114 The phenomenon of farm succession is also embedded in life-cycle and succession planning models,
115 which build on the life-cycle hypothesis (Modigliani, 1988) to explain how aging, retirement, and
116 bequest motives shape farmers' decisions about transferring both assets and knowledge. From this
117 perspective, succession is conceptualized as a strategic planning process in which uncertainty about
118 retirement age, heirs' willingness, and off-farm opportunities all play key roles (Glauben et al., 2009).

119 More recent contributions from behavioural economics have also emphasized that farm succession
120 decisions are not primarily driven by profit maximization, but are first and foremost guided by non-
121 monetary forms of utility. Succession is strongly influenced by cultural and social norms, gender
122 roles, and community expectations, which mediate the relationship between economic incentives and
123 family choices (Shin et al., 2025). More recent studies have also discussed the intrinsic dimensions
124 of individuals, exploring the role of personality traits in the formation of aspirations, within specific
125 socio-economic contexts (Deißler et al., 2023).

126 For these reasons, the problem of farm succession has increasingly been framed through the lens of
127 SRT, which emphasizes the intergenerational transfer of not only material resources (economic
128 aspects) but also cultural norms, family dynamics, gendered identities, environmental sensibility, and
129 social capital (socio-environmental aspects). In this view, succession is not merely the handover of
130 land and productive assets, but a process embedded in the reproduction of the family farm as both an
131 economic unit and a social institution (Burton & Fischer, 2015).

132 *2.2 Farm succession: drivers and rationales*

133 Among the social factors influencing farm succession, age and gender play significant roles (Arends-
134 Kuenning et al., 2021; Breitenbach & Foguesatto, 2023). Researchers such as Bavorová et al. (2025,
135 p. 13217) suggest that “age influences the transferor’s decision to transfer land”. This relationship is
136 generally considered nonlinear: i.e., the probability of succession increases with the owner's age up
137 to a certain point, and then it begins to decline (Pessotto et al., 2019). With respect to gender, women
138 often find themselves excluded from land transfer processes due to patriarchal norms and legal biases,
139 despite their contributions to agricultural production (Breitenbach & Corazza, 2020). Interestingly,
140 women typically outlive their spouses and may, at times, be the ones responsible for making
141 succession decisions (Bavorová et al., 2025).

142 Another critical factor is the level of education and training of the farm’s owner. Empirical research
143 indicates that farmers with higher levels of education and technical skills are significantly less likely
144 to have successors (Foguesatto et al., 2020; Mishra et al., 2010). However, the literature review
145 conducted by Suess-Reyes and Fuetsch (2016) reports conflicting evidence on this point, with
146 important studies in Europe and America that observed an increase in the probability of succession
147 when parents’ educational level is higher.

148 Additionally, both the number of children and the embeddedness of owner networks are typically
149 viewed as positive influences on the intergenerational transition in family farming (Bavorová et al.,
150 2025; Tofollo et al., 2025). However, the impact of the number of children remains unclear in Latin
151 American countries. For example, having a high number of children can result in succession
152 challenges and competition over land distribution (Foguesatto et al., 2020; Suess-Reyes & Fuetsch,
153 2016).

154 While socio-symbolic factors highlighted in SRT have a significant influence on farmers’ decisions,
155 economic factors still play a crucial role in farm succession (Mishra et al., 2010). Income has been
156 found to be positively associated with farm succession in several studies (Foguesatto et al., 2020;
157 Pessotto et al., 2019). Land tenure regimes have more heterogeneous effects. In general, farm size is

158 considered a positive driver of farm succession (Foguesatto et al., 2020). However, the coexistence
159 of private property, communal land systems, occupied land, and indigenous territories tends to
160 generate fragmentation and blurred incentives for farm transfer (De Janvry et al., 2015). Moreover,
161 insecure titles discourage successors from investing in land and complicate legal transfer.

162 The availability of farm labour and the use of technology may impact the process of farm succession
163 (Bavorová et al., 2025). A seminal paper by Carla Gras (2009, p. 347) highlighted that “family farmers
164 have faced pressures to increase farm acreage and income, and [...] the growing use of mechanization
165 has displaced family labor.” This situation can create challenges for the succession process due to a
166 lack of family members actively working on the farm.

167 Finally, environmental issues are becoming increasingly relevant for farmers planning their
168 succession (Borda et al., 2023; Suess-Reyes & Fuetsch, 2016). Rural youth steadily migrate because
169 of the worsening environmental conditions characterising Latin American countries, which make it
170 difficult to continue farming activities (Audefroy & Cabrera Sánchez, 2011). On this point,
171 Breitenbach and Corazza (2021) and Breitenbach and Foguesatto (2023) noted that environmental
172 risks and uncertainties negatively affect farm succession; therefore, negative perceptions of the
173 environmental situation and its evolution may affect the succession process. In a recent review of the
174 literature on family farming and climate change, Chao (2024, p. 10) pointed out that family farmers
175 “are more inclined to adopt sustainable land use practices”. Latin American family farmers have a
176 long history of introducing and developing various sustainable practices, such as agroecology
177 (Sabourin et al., 2017), which are often the result of successful intergenerational succession.

178 **3. Methodology**

179 *3.1. Farm succession: A social reproduction approach*

180 The continuity of family farming in the Global South, particularly within Paraguay, cannot be
181 adequately captured by neoclassical models of firm behaviour that view succession as a mere utility-

182 maximizing transfer of assets. Neoclassical models rest on assumptions of price-taking agents with
183 stable preferences and rational utility maximization subject to budget constraints. These assumptions
184 are fundamentally ill-suited to the context of smallholder farming in low-income rural economies
185 such as Paraguay, where markets are incomplete or absent, property rights are insecure, and household
186 survival depends on non-market labour and informal social arrangements (Ellis, 1993; de Janvry &
187 Sadoulet, 2006). For these reasons, we ground our framework on the SRT, which explicitly theorizes
188 the interdependence between productive and reproductive labour as the foundation of household
189 viability (Bhattacharya, 2017). Coherently, SRT considers the farm not a simple business-oriented
190 economic agent, but rather a site where the productive (market-oriented labour) and the reproductive
191 (family-oriented labour) aspects are inextricably linked. This perspective allows us to conceptualise
192 farm succession as the successful reproduction of the peasant household as both a productive and
193 social unit. Following the logic of the SRT and the dynamics of agrarian change characterized by
194 Bernstein (2010), we conceptualise the sustainability of farm succession as a strategic equilibrium
195 between productive and reproductive capital. In this framework, succession is viewed as a continuous
196 process of reproducing the household's social and material conditions. By incorporating the concept
197 of the agrarian habitus (Bourdieu, 2002), our model accounts for the cultural transmission of farming
198 identity, while recognizing that this reproduction is constantly challenged by the reproduction squeeze
199 (Bernstein, 2010) and external socio-economic frictions.

200 SRT, however, originates primarily in sociological traditions and has been articulated largely in non-
201 formalized terms (Bakker, 2007; Ferguson, 2016); no suitable model for quantitative empirical
202 analysis has been previously developed in the current literature. Consequently, here we translate the
203 core SRT logic into a formal structure that can be mapped onto observable variables and estimated
204 with an econometric model. In this sense, this framework provides internal coherence to our
205 interpretation of succession intentions and informs the operationalization of variables for the
206 quantitative analysis.

207 Our theoretical approach allows for a rigorous analysis of succession intent as a leading indicator of
 208 long-term rural persistence (Inwood & Sharp, 2012) within the specific precariousness of the
 209 Paraguayan family farm context. Specifically, we begin by defining the sustainability of succession
 210 (S) through a foundational SRT identity. Unlike a standard profit function, the viability of passing on
 211 the farm depends on the net balance of material and social forces. This can be summarized as:

212

$$S = (P + R) - (C + D) \quad (1)$$

213

214 In Equation (1), P (productive capital) represents market-based assets, while R (reproductive capital)
 215 captures the hidden value of unpaid domestic labour and emotional resilience that maintains the
 216 workforce. These are weighed against C (commodity pressure), which captures external market forces
 217 and volatility, and D (degradation of social ties), which represents the internal drain caused by burnout
 218 or the desire for autonomy.

219 Furthermore, a critical component of the reproduction process is the total labour (L) required to
 220 maintain the farm's viability. Departing from neoclassical labour models, SRT posits that the survival
 221 of the family farm relies fundamentally on the invisible exploitation of the domestic sphere
 222 (Bhattacharya, 2017), that is $L = L_m + L_r$, where L_m represents market-facing labour (e.g., planting,
 223 harvesting), and L_r represents reproductive labour (e.g., childcare, meal preparation, and social
 224 maintenance), with L_r that plays an essential role in sustaining L_m , because it represents the work
 225 that produces and sustains the life of the L_m worker.

226 Thus, a succession crisis occurs when the household enters what Bernstein (2010) calls a reproduction
 227 squeeze, that is a conditions where, due to the deterioration in the terms of exchange (falling output
 228 prices and rising input and living costs), despite the efforts of L_r in maintaining the farm unit, the
 229 farm ceases to be a viable site for the family life. This scenario forces the next generation to seek
 230 alternatives, as the perceived life-quality within the farm falls below the threshold of social
 231 acceptability. Finally, given that succession is not merely the transfer of physical assets, but the

232 intergenerational transmission of the agrarian habitus (Bourdieu, 2002) in the form of cultural capital
233 (i.e., the ingrained skills and identity of being a farmer, H), succession failures are often exacerbated
234 by the erosion of this cultural capital by the so-called friction of modernity, F . Here, F represents the
235 devaluing of rural life compared to urban alternatives. When F is high, the cultural tie to the land is
236 severed, and the reproductive cycle breaks down for any given level of productive and reproductive
237 capital, even in the presence of potential physical heirs.

238 The formal structure of Equation (1) also serves an empirical purpose, in that it generates directional
239 predictions that guide the econometric specification. Thus, to translate this abstract theory into a
240 testable econometric model, we map these conceptual pillars onto observable variables. Specifically,
241 the model predicts that succession intent S is positively associated with productive capital P ,
242 operationalized through variables such as family income, land area, and the use of mechanical tools,
243 and with reproductive capital R proxied here by variables such as the number of children, the age and
244 gender of the farm family head, and affiliation with rural networks. Conversely, S is expected to be
245 negatively associated with the $(C + D)$ and friction (F) pillars, which are operationalized through
246 variables that capture labour-pull forces and the potential degradation of cultural capital, such as
247 education level. In particular, the friction term, captured by education level and exposure to urban
248 alternatives, is predicted to weaken the intergenerational transmission of farming identity when rural
249 life is perceived as socially inferior to urban alternatives. All these predictions are thus not ad hoc
250 hypotheses; they follow directly from the model's theoretical structure and map onto the variables
251 included in the econometric specification. In this sense, the theoretical framework and the empirical
252 model are not parallel narratives but structurally connected components of a unified analytical
253 strategy.

254 255 3.2. *Farm succession in rural Paraguay*

256 Paraguay is a small, open economy (WTO, 2024), that heavily relies on exports due to its limited
257 domestic market, both in size and purchasing power. Since 2003, the country has increasingly

258 integrated into the global economy, primarily driven by its agricultural production. It has greatly
259 benefited from the international commodities supercycle (Balakrishnan et al., 2021), demonstrating
260 a significant growth trajectory. However, the structure of its economy has shown minimal
261 diversification and continues to depend on resource extraction and low-value-added production (Arce
262 & Rojas, 2020).

263 The expansion of agricultural export-oriented production has incentivised the creation of new
264 companies that process raw materials and caused increased pressure on natural resources, expanding
265 production to previously virgin areas: deforestation is growing to expand the area available for
266 intensive agriculture and livestock farming¹ (Arce & Rojas, 2020; Fehlenberg et al., 2017). Exports
267 are concentrated in a few key products: soybeans, which accounted for 23% of total exports in 2024;
268 beef, at 10%; and other soy-derived products, such as soybean residues and oilcakes, at 9%. The rising
269 global demand for these products has significantly boosted production volumes; however, this growth
270 has created increasing pressure on resources and family farms (Wesz Junior, 2022).

271 While large-scale agribusinesses dominate the export market for crops such as soybeans and beef, a
272 significant number of rural households in Paraguay operate as family farms. These farms primarily
273 produce for local markets and for their own subsistence; however, they often operate under precarious
274 land tenure, facing challenges such as limited access to modern technology and credit markets (FAO,
275 2021 & 2022; Riquelme & Vera, 2019).

276 Paraguay's family farms reflect unique historical and institutional factors, while also illustrating many
277 of the broader challenges found in other Latin American countries. The country exhibits high land
278 concentration, featuring large estates along with a myriad of fragmented family holdings (Wesz Junior
279 et al., 2018). Moreover, some family farmers lose land through informal sales or encroachment, and
280 families unable to organize succession or defend their parcels may lose them to expansionary

¹ For more details see <https://www.globalforestwatch.org/dashboards/country/PRY/?category=undefined>.

281 pressures (Galeano, 2012a). These pressures influence the younger generation's perception of farming
282 as a viable career, directly affecting succession likelihood (Dobrée, 2013).

283 In Paraguay, the succession process is deeply embedded in a highly unequal land tenure system, where
284 family farmers often operate as a buffer against the aggressive expansion of large-scale mechanized
285 agribusiness, particularly soy monocultures (Galeano, 2012b). Unlike the European context, where
286 succession is often supported by institutional subsidies and formal retirement schemes, in Paraguay,
287 the reproduction of the family farmers depends almost exclusively on the household's internal
288 capacity to transform its productive logic under a reproduction squeeze (Bernstein, 2010). However,
289 generational change is not a guaranteed catalyst for modernization. In many instances, the friction of
290 modernity remains high due to the lack of infrastructure for family farming (Gattini, 2011).
291 Nevertheless, a successful generational change is particularly relevant because it represents a strategic
292 resistance to the de-peasantization process. The future of these farms depends on whether the
293 intergenerational transfer of the agrarian habitus (Bourdieu, 2002) includes the capacity for
294 entrepreneurial adaptation, allowing the family unit to navigate the tension between self-sufficiency
295 and market integration.

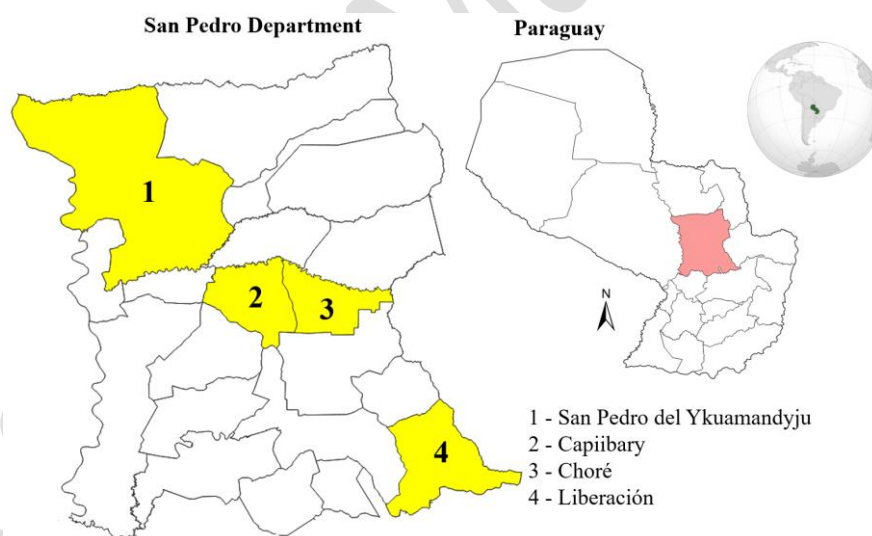
296 *3.3. Data collection*

297 The Department of San Pedro was chosen because it has the highest concentration of family farming
298 in Paraguay (MAG, 2025) and its role as the primary location for the State's establishment of public
299 colonies in recent decades (Areco & Rojas, 2017). In 2022, San Pedro had 55,698 family farming
300 holdings, but together accounted for only 22% of the total area, with an average area of 7.1 hectares
301 per holding (MAG, 2025). As Torres Figueredo (2008) notes, a large proportion of family farmers in
302 San Pedro are in critical economic conditions due to limited land availability, lack of access to
303 technology and equipment, and the absence of public support. This situation has direct implications
304 for farming succession and the social reproduction of farming families. Furthermore, San Pedro
305 consistently ranks among the departments with the highest rates of monetary poverty and social

306 exclusion in Paraguay (Serafini, 2019; INE, 2025), exemplifying what the literature on family
 307 farming in Latin America describes as marginal rural areas (Leao & Goulao, 2025), i.e. territories
 308 marked by socioeconomic inequalities and limited market integration.

309 Field research was conducted across four districts in San Pedro: Capiibary, Choré, San Pedro del
 310 Ykuamandyju, and Liberación (Figure 1). These districts were chosen for their presence of family
 311 farming and because existing contacts facilitated access to households for the research team. A
 312 structured questionnaire was developed to collect information on household composition, production
 313 units, associative networks, production systems, sources of income, perceptions of the environmental
 314 situation, and future prospects. From 2020 to 2022, questionnaires were administered to 1,405
 315 farming households. Each district had between 338 and 382 completed questionnaires.

316 **Figure 1.** Location of the districts surveyed in San Pedro (Paraguay).



317

318 Households were selected using a stratified random sampling approach, covering communities
 319 located (1) farther from urban centres, (2) in intermediate areas (along main access roads), and (3)
 320 close to urban centres. While this design does not produce a statistically representative sample at the
 321 national level, it ensures internal representativeness of different types of rural settings within San
 322 Pedro.

323 However, the implementation of this strategy was disrupted by the onset of the COVID-19 quarantine,
 324 which impacted our fieldwork. Once mobility restrictions were eased, the research was resumed,
 325 though under conditions different from those initially planned. At that point, access to communities
 326 was mediated by community coordinators, i.e. local representatives responsible for sharing
 327 information about the research, negotiating the research team's entry, and guiding the researchers
 328 during fieldwork. Although this approach was necessary to complete the fieldwork, it may have
 329 introduced potential selection bias. To mitigate this risk, the research team maintained the original
 330 stratification criteria and applied the questionnaire systematically within each selected community.

331 *3.4. Empirical specification* Table 1 provides a summary of the data collected via questionnaire and
 332 used as variables for modelling Equation (1).

333

334 **Table 1.** Variables included in the analysis.

Variable	Definition	Variable type	Group
Age	Age of the respondent in years	Numeric	Social
Gender	Gender of the respondent (male=1; female=0)	Dummy	Social
Education	Education level of the respondent (from no education (1) to post-graduate education (9))	Ordered categorical	Social
Children	Number of children of the respondent	Numeric	Social
Network	Affiliation to an association of producers	Dummy	Social
Income	Sum of all sources of income from all family members (in PYG)	Numeric	Economic
Land	Total area of the farm in hectares	Numeric	Economic
Own_land	Percentage of land owned over the total area of the farm	Percentage	Economic
Occupied_land	Percentage of land occupied over the total area of the farm	Percentage	Economic
Employees	Presence of non-family members working in the farm	Dummy	Economic
Technology	Use of mechanical tools and support for farming activities	Dummy	Economic

Environmental_perception	Relevance of environmental aspects and issues for the respondent: 1 if very important, 0 otherwise	Dummy	Environmental
Seeds	Use of conventional seeds for farming activities	Dummy	Environmental
Succession	If the respondent believes there is a family member who will continue with the farming activities: 1 they believe there is a successor, 0 otherwise	Dummy	Dependent variable

335

336 In particular, the above social, economic, and environmental drivers have been included as regressors
 337 in a logistic model, described in Equation (2):

$$338 \quad P_i (Y_i = 1) = \frac{e^{Z_i}}{1 + e^{Z_i}} \text{ for } Z_i = \beta_0 + \underbrace{\beta_1 X_1 + \dots + \beta_m X_m}_{\text{Productive capital}} + \underbrace{\beta_n X_n + \dots + \beta_q X_q}_{\text{Reproductive capital}} + \underbrace{\beta_r X_r + \dots + \beta_v X_v}_{\text{Friction}} \quad (2)$$

339

340 where the dependent variable is defined, following the same approach adopted by Foguesatto et al.
 341 (2020), by the answer (yes or no) provided by the farm's owner to the following question: "Is there
 342 any family member that you think will continue working on your property, after you are no longer
 343 able to work on it?" .

344 Our dependent variable is thus the likelihood of succession expressed as a function of the interaction
 345 between productive, reproductive, and friction-based variables. In SRT, the reproduction of the
 346 peasantry depends on the intergenerational willingness to maintain the farm. If the intent is absent,
 347 the reproductive cycle has already broken, even if the current head of household is still farming. In
 348 other words, subjective expectations of succession serve here as a leading indicator of farm
 349 investment behaviour and long-term sustainability. Analysing the drivers of this intent allows us to
 350 identify the structural barriers to reproduction before the farm is permanently abandoned.

351 To capture non-linear effects, the regression model includes the variables of age, land, and income in
 352 both their original values and their squared terms. Additionally, we controlled for the distribution of
 353 farmers across four different districts: namely, Capiibary, Choré, San Pedro del Ykuamandyju, and
 354 Liberación.

355 **4. Results**

356 The descriptive statistics of the variables employed in this study and their correlations are presented
 357 in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. From a total of 1,405 respondents, we removed observations with
 358 missing data, resulting in a final database of 1,018 farmers. The majority of respondents are male
 359 (73%). On average, they are 50 years old and have two children, and most of them have a basic
 360 elementary education. When looking at the economic factors, such as income and land, we can see
 361 that the distribution seems particularly skewed, with many farmers with a low income and a relatively
 362 low amount of available land, and a few farmers with higher quantities. Additionally, approximately
 363 47% of these farmers have indicated a potential successor. In comparison to the overall situation in
 364 rural Paraguay, 61.7% of the population is male, the majority are between the ages of 45 and 54, and
 365 most producers have completed between the 4th and 6th grades of basic school education (MAG,
 366 2024): therefore, our sample is rather representative of the national rural population but it is also
 367 characterised by elements of high marginality.

368 **Table 2.** Descriptive statistics.

Variable	Number of observations	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Age	1,018	50.50	14.19	16	90
Gender	1,018	0.73	0.45	0	1
Education	1,018	2.61	1.25	1	8
Children	1,018	2	1.68	0	12
Network	1,018	0.18	0.39	0	1
Income	1,018	1,116,640	1,461,698	0	12,900,000
Land	1,018	6.64	6.63	0	120
Own_land	1,018	0.52	0.49	0	1
Occupied_land	1,018	0.06	0.24	0	1
Employees	1,018	0.40	0.49	0	1
Technology	1,018	0.43	0.50	0	1
Environmental_perception	1,018	0.46	0.50	0	1
Seeds	1,018	0.85	0.36	0	1
Succession	1,018	0.47	0.50	0	1

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385 **Table 3.** Correlation matrix.

	Age	Gender	Education	Children	Network	Income	Land	Owner_land	Occupied_land	Employees	Technology	Environmental_perception	Seeds	Succession
Age	1													
Gender	0.1050	1												
Education	-0.3662	-0.0165	1											
Children	-0.1711	-0.0053	-0.0150	1										
Network	-0.0598	-0.0022	0.0314	0.0015	1									
Income	0.0448	-0.0360	0.1347	0.2534	-0.0707	1								
Land	0.2567	0.1164	-0.0629	-0.0786	0.0657	-0.0910	1							
Own_land	0.1192	-0.0771	-0.0468	-0.1269	-0.1549	0.0471	-0.0046	1						
Occupied_land	-0.0727	0.0642	-0.0002	0.0348	-0.0156	-0.0335	-0.0222	-0.2764	1					
Employees	0.0085	0.0583	0.0506	-0.0264	0.0841	-0.0286	0.1600	-0.0871	-0.0591	1				
Technology	0.0911	0.0754	0.0453	-0.0592	0.0727	-0.0359	0.1818	0.0908	-0.0812	0.1930	1			
Environmental_perception	0.0203	0.1766	0.0576	-0.0247	0.0975	-0.1522	0.1212	-0.1257	0.0385	0.1227	0.1761	1		
Seeds	-0.0259	-0.0378	-0.0500	0.0544	-0.0244	-0.0400	-0.0511	-0.0650	-0.0165	-0.0569	-0.1294	0.0338	1	
Succession	0.0533	0.1008	-0.0969	0.1257	0.0705	-0.0671	0.1115	-0.1461	0.1106	0.0994	-0.0229	-0.0991	0.0319	1

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392 The results of the logistic model are presented in Table 4. A first important finding is that social factors
 393 do not appear to be associated to the succession process. Only the number of children (“Children”)
 394 shows strong statistical significance, while “Network” and “Education” are moderately significant at
 395 the 10% level. Furthermore, none of the other variables demonstrated significant effects. Specifically,
 396 both the number of children and affiliation with socio-economic networks are positively associated
 397 with the likelihood of having a successor, as they increase the chances that someone will continue
 398 working on the farm and benefit from the relationships established by the householder. On the other
 399 hand, the householder’s education level (“Education”) has a negative coefficient, indicating that
 400 higher education is associated with a lower probability of finding a successor.

401 **Table 4.** Logistic regression results.

Variable	Coefficient
Constant	-1.401 (0.850)*
Age	0.005 (0.031)
Age ²	0.000 (0.000)
Gender	0.108 (0.162)
Education	-0.120 (0.063)*
Children	0.217 (0.047)***
Network	0.352 (0.183)*
Income	-2.17e-07 (1.02e-07)**
Income ²	2.07e-14 (1.51e-14)
Land	0.073 (0.019)***
Land ²	-0.001 (0.000)***
Own_land	-0.415 (0.156)***
Occupied_land	1.014 (0.317)***
Employees	0.246 (0.146)*
Technology	-0.339 (0.152)**
Environmental_perception	0.583 (0.150)***
Seeds	0.281 (0.203)
District	YES
Observations	1,018
Pseudo R ²	0.11
Prob > chi2	0.00

402 Statistical significance: * = 10%; ** = 5%; *** = 1%. Standard errors in parentheses.

403 When looking at the economic factors, only “Employees” is statistically significant at 10%, while all
404 other variables are significant at 5% or 1%. Family income (“Income”), total area of the farm
405 (“Land”), and percentage of occupied land (“Occupied_land”) are positively linked to succession,
406 while the percentage of own land (“Own_land”) and the use of mechanical tools (“Technology”) are
407 negatively associated with the dependent variable. Thus, economic factors appear more relevant when
408 examining the succession process. Finally, among the environmental factors, only
409 “Environmental_perception” is statistically significant. This regressor has a positive coefficient,
410 indicating that individuals with strong environmental awareness are more likely to find a successor
411 for their farm.

412 **5. Discussion**

413 The relevance of “Children” and “Network” suggests that succession in San Pedro may be driven by
414 the household’s internal labour pool and external social safety nets. For the poorest households in our
415 sample, succession may not be a choice of business expansion, but a strategy for the biological and
416 social survival of the family unit.

417 The results also reveal a complex relationship between material assets and succession intent. While
418 farm’s dimension (“Land”) shows a significant positive relationship with the possibility of having a
419 successor, the negative coefficient for “Own_land” paired with the strong positive effect of
420 “Occupied_land” provides a counter-intuitive finding that aligns with SRT. In the context of rural
421 poverty, households on occupied or informal land may express a higher intent for succession, whereas
422 those with established ownership might have the flexibility to transition out of agriculture.
423 Furthermore, the role played by income (“Income” and “Income²”) indicates that when monetary
424 wealth increases the reliance on the farm as a site of social reproduction decreases, but only up to a
425 certain level. These findings demonstrate that succession in San Pedro is less about transmission of
426 wealth accumulation (as in developed or emerging economies) and more about the precarious

427 management of labour and land as the only viable means of maintaining the household's existence
428 across generations.

429 The dynamics observed in this study reflect a broader crisis of intentions toward farm succession in
430 marginal rural areas across the Global South. Our findings suggest that in resource-constrained
431 environments the farm is kept as a defensive asset. When social safety nets are lacking, the
432 intergenerational continuity of the farm may help in providing absolute landlessness. This explains
433 why, contrary to the trends in industrialised nations, the poorest households in our sample show the
434 strongest commitment to succession. On the other hand, farmers who are less wealthy but possess
435 some capital and education often face difficulties in establishing succession. This challenge arises
436 because potential heirs may find employment opportunities in other sectors or choose to migrate to
437 urban areas. However, relying on the family unit highlights the vulnerability of rural poverty: when
438 external frictions, such as the pull of urban migration or the lack of formal land titles, become too
439 great, the reproductive cycle is at risk of collapsing.

440 This picture is aligned van der Ploeg's (2018) analysis, which points out that the contemporary rural
441 landscape is increasingly characterized by a split between family farms integrated into agro-industrial
442 chains and those that adhere to peasant forms of production, relying on family labour and survival
443 strategies. This reinforces a pattern of social reproduction driven more by necessity than by choice.
444 Especially in developing countries such as Paraguay, succession is often triggered by crises such as
445 the owner's illness or death, rather than through proactive planning. This circumstance exacerbates
446 the precariousness of farmers, who must manage the family business while facing emergencies. This
447 situation creates a poverty trap for family farmers and can be problematic for domestic food
448 production (Riquelme & Vera, 2019).

449 **6. Conclusions**

450 This article contributes to the literature on family farming and generational succession by providing
451 one of the first empirical analyses of the determinants associated with the succession intentions in

452 Paraguay, a country where family farming is particularly relevant but remains underexplored in
453 academic research. Building on an original dataset from over 1,000 family farms in San Pedro, the
454 study explores how social, economic, and environmental factors are associated with the expectations
455 of intergenerational transfer.

456 Our findings confirm that succession in marginal rural areas cannot be understood solely through
457 household or life-cycle models that emphasise individual decisions and profit-maximizing behaviour.
458 Rather, succession reflects a broader set of structural and contextual dynamics that situate Paraguayan
459 family farmers within an agrarian structure marked by inequality and exclusion. Moreover, our results
460 suggest that the expectations on reproduction of family farming in Paraguay is driven simultaneously
461 by opportunity and constraint. The analytical lens of SRT proves particularly insightful in interpreting
462 these findings. Succession in family farms cannot be reduced to a transfer of productive assets: it is
463 the intergenerational reproduction of the household as both an economic and social unit. The role of
464 reproductive capital (proxied by family composition, network membership, and gender) is associated
465 with succession intent alongside more conventional economic variables, confirming that the survival
466 of the family farm is likely to depend on the essential contribution of reproductive labour.

467 Similarly, the reproduction squeeze theorized by Bernstein (2010) finds empirical expression in our
468 results: tenure insecurity and commodity pressure systematically undermine succession prospects
469 even among households with sufficient productive capital. In this sense, the SRT framework does not
470 merely provide a narrative backdrop to the analysis: it structures the interpretation of the econometric
471 results and explains why standard household models, focused exclusively on income and asset
472 maximization, would fail to capture the full complexity of succession dynamics in a context as
473 precarious as rural Paraguay.

474 Over the last decades, public programmes have sought to support family farmers in Paraguay (Gattini,
475 2011; Riquelme & Vera, 2019; Wesz Junior et al., 2018). Access to credit has been a core measure,
476 but the two traditional institutions responsible for this policy, the Banco Nacional de Fomento (BNF

477 - National Development Bank) and the Crédito Agrícola de Habilitación (CAH - Agricultural Credit
478 for Habilitation), have had great difficulty in including the most vulnerable family farmers (Molinas
479 Bogado, 2025). There have also been initiatives to engage younger generations more directly by
480 promoting vocational training and a simplified access to land and capital. These efforts, however,
481 have remained limited in scale and scope, reaching only a small fraction of rural youth (Riquelme &
482 Vera, 2019). Despite these efforts, farm succession itself remains largely absent from the policy
483 agenda in Paraguay. There are no comprehensive or targeted policy frameworks explicitly designed
484 to support intergenerational transfer; as a result, succession tends to be treated as a private family
485 subject rather than a structural aspect characterising rural development. This policy gap is particularly
486 problematic in a context marked by land concentration and limited economic opportunities for rural
487 youth. This suggests that there is significant scope for developing more integrated and targeted public
488 policies that explicitly incorporate succession as a key dimension of rural development strategies in
489 Paraguay.

490 The present study is not without limitations.. A first shortcoming is that we were not able to study the
491 impact of productivity: our dataset does not allow us to explore efficiency and carry out consistent
492 cost-benefit analysis. Moreover, we were not able to shed light on the role of innovation, which is
493 usually associated with productivity increases. A second limitation is that we do not dispose of
494 information on economic alternatives to family farming: as a consequence, we cannot discriminate
495 between farmers who purposely choose to continue the family business, disregarding other options,
496 and those who do not feel to have other employment possibilities. Finally, we recognise that our
497 regression model cannot be used for inferring causality effects, and the R^2 is not particularly high;
498 nevertheless, the area under ROC curve is 0.71, which is considered acceptable, and other studies on
499 a similar topic (using cross-section data) reported similar results (Mishra et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2023;
500 Shin et al., 2025). Future research could address these limitations by incorporating longitudinal and
501 qualitative data to capture how technical aspects and aspirations evolve over time and influence
502 intergenerational succession.

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