

# Future policy options to ensure food security: Developing a sustainability narrative for United Kingdom health professionals

## **Professional Doctorate in Sustainable Food Quality for Health (DAgriFood)**

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## **Declaration**

I confirm that this is my own work and the use of all material from other sources has been properly and fully acknowledged.

**Preamble**

*“The challenge of how to balance seemingly contrary policy imperatives - health, environment, consumer aspirations, commerce - and how to bridge tensions within the food system - land, industry, retailers, catering, domestic life - is formidable. To accord priority to the protection of the environment, health, consumers, and social justice will require considerable adjustment in policy and food practices, but can society and the environment afford not to do this?”*

Lang, T. (1999). The complexities of globalization:  
the UK as a case study of tensions within the food system and the challenge of food policy,  
*Agriculture and Human Values*, Vol. 16, No. 2, p.182.

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**Abbreviations and common terms used throughout this thesis**

<b>BECCS</b>	Bioenergy with Carbon Capture and Storage
<b>Brexit</b>	The pending (at the time of writing) withdrawal of the UK from the European Union
<b>CAP</b>	Common Agricultural Policy of the European Union
<b>CCC</b>	Committee on Climate Change - an independent, UK statutory body established under the Climate Change Act 2008
<b>CFO</b>	Common Fisheries Policy of the European Union
<b>CSO</b>	Civil Society Organisations
<b>CVD</b>	Cardiovascular disease - diseases of the heart or blood vessels such as angina and myocardial infarction (heart attack)
<b>DEFRA</b>	Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs (UK Government department responsible for environmental protection, food production and standards, agriculture, fisheries and rural communities in the UK and Northern Ireland)
<b>EAC</b>	Environmental Audit Select Committee - select committee of the UK House of Commons that examines government department's policies and programmes which affect both the environment and sustainable development
<b>EU</b>	European Union - a political and economic union between 28 European member states
<b>FAO</b>	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (leads international efforts to improve nutrition and food security)
<b>FSA</b>	Food Standards Agency - non-ministerial UK government department currently responsible for protecting public health in relation to food
<b>GDP</b>	Gross Domestic Product
<b>GHG</b>	Greenhouse Gases
<b>GHGe</b>	Greenhouse Gas emissions
<b>IEA</b>	International Energy Agency, Paris
<b>IFPRI</b>	International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington, USA
<b>IFST</b>	Institute of Food Science & Technology - professional body for food
<b>IPCC</b>	Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change - an intergovernmental body of the United Nations
<b>IPES-Food</b>	International Panel of Experts on Sustainable Food Systems
<b>LCA</b>	Life cycle analysis
<b>LUC</b>	Land-use change
<b>MDGs</b>	Millennium Development Goals - eight goals launched in 2000 by the United Nations General Assembly to be achieved by the year 2015
<b>mt</b>	Million tonnes
<b>NASA</b>	National Aeronautics and Space Administration, an independent agency of the United States Government
<b>NCDs</b>	Non-Communicable Diseases
<b>NDCs</b>	Nationally Determined Contributions - efforts by a country to reduce national emissions and adapt to the impacts of climate change
<b>NGO</b>	Non-Governmental Organisations - operate independent government, usually non-profit but can also be lobby groups for corporations, and often active in humanitarian or social areas;
<b>ppm</b>	Parts per million
<b>RSA FFCC</b>	Royal Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures and Commerce Food, Farming and Countryside Commission



<b>SDGs</b>	Sustainable Development Goals - 17 global goals designed to be a blueprint to achieve a better and more sustainable future for all set in 2015 by the United Nations General Assembly and intended to be achieved by the year 2030
<b>UK</b>	United Kingdom - England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland
<b>UKHACC</b>	UK Health Alliance on Climate Change
<b>UNEP</b>	United Nations Environmental Programme
<b>UNFCCC</b>	United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change - an international environmental treaty adopted in 1992
<b>WHO</b>	World Health Organization of the United Nations (concerned with international public health)
<b>WMO</b>	World Meteorological Organization
<b>WTO</b>	World Trade Organization



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## Dedication

To  
Peter, Joyce,  
Sue and Tim

*All of whom have had to endure my deliberations  
on food sustainability  
for far too long*



*Image source: morewell/needpix.com*

## Abstract

The free market in food has long been thought to have served the United Kingdom market well, producing an endless array of choice, year-round availability through a highly developed retail network, and some of the lowest consumer prices in Western Europe. Successive government administrations have laid the foundations for this laissez-faire approach, thereby enabling the market in food to thrive uninhibited. Where regulation has been necessary, much of this has been effectively devolved to the European Union (EU) through membership of the Single European Market.

The scientific literature, however, is progressively developing a future prognosis for the planet which will invariably involve rapid change and new risks. Food security is especially a concern, even in the 'developed' world economies, where it has been off political radars for many decades. The threats to existing food security are complex but include: population growth and changing dietary preferences driving growth in demand; food supplies increasingly restricted by water scarcity and energy demand; a growing international scientific consensus on the potentially catastrophic impact and gigantic scale of climate change; and rapidly changing international political environments, some of which are witnessing a resurgence in economic nationalism which has the potential to usurp multilateralism on a number of common goals, such as health and the environment. This is particularly critical for the UK at a time when it is seeking to re-establish trading relationships with its largest food supplier, the EU. Furthermore, many of the economic and social benefits that the free market in food has generated have been achieved through the unsustainable use of resources. Many papers make urgent calls for governance across both sectors and institutions alike: without such infrastructures, the probability of the UK being able to meet its commitments on carbon emissions to the UN on either the Sustainable Development Goals or the Framework Convention on Climate Change will be significantly reduced. Some studies go as far as suggesting that the free market for food has failed, citing the current obesity epidemic, as an example.

There is an urgent need in the UK to develop a food policy to tackle the imminent threats to food security whilst, at the same time, addressing the health concerns associated with diets. This research makes three original contributions to the research field. Firstly, the research provides an umbrella review of the latest evidence on how climate change will impact the UK's ability to both produce and import healthy food and develops recommendations for a new policy framework to ensure the sustainability and security of UK food. Secondly, it uses climate modelling to quantify the impacts of climate change on food production in one area of the UK. Finally, it synthesises the latest findings on what constitutes a healthy diet and provides a framework for UK health professionals that will enable them to deliver evidence-based information to inform and bring about the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets.



# 1. Introduction

## 1.1 Background to the problems within existing food production systems

Food production and consumption are fundamental to both human health and the health of the planet on which humanity depends. The way food is produced increasingly impacts many of the fundamental issues society faces today – our health, the health of the environment in which we live, our water, and our climate. The interdisciplinarity between these factors, often simply referred to as the food–environment–health nexus, has become a mainstream area of study within the literature (Gowdy, 2020). Three emergent threats are particularly concerning – ecosystem collapse, global pandemics, and climate change; food is the primary driver in the nexus between all three. As food production systems replace natural ecosystems, they cause habitat loss and further accelerate biodiversity loss (Benton *et al.*, 2021). The drive towards cheaper food has become a vicious circle, whereby greater levels of intensification are required to meet falling yields which, in turn, results in further soil and ecosystem degradation. It also drives down the productive capacity of land and necessitates ever more intensive production to keep pace with consumer demand, cheaper calories, and resource-intensive foods. Also, by contributing to climate change, food production both degrades habitats and causes species dispersal, which can create opportunities for infectious diseases. Looking to the immediate future, the rapidly growing world population means securing food supplies will increasingly become a monumental challenge, especially given that it is already showing signs of strain (Gralak *et al.*, 2020). Estimates that an additional 50 per cent more food will be required by 2050 will place the world’s resources under unprecedented pressure, at a time when serious concerns about the sustainability of current food systems are already gathering pace. With the very future of food supply at risk, humanity urgently needs to find a new food system to meet our health needs and those of the environment, both of which are also seen as critical in ensuring peace on the planet (Cribb, 2019; Reynolds *et al.*, 2019; Lang, 2020). The risks to UK food security are exacerbated by its high dependency (around 50 per cent) on imported food, despite being rich in the resources needed for food production (Hasnain *et al.*, 2020).

This growing body of evidence also calls for the environmental and human health risks associated with producing food to be urgently addressed. At the same time, the United Nations’ Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change declared a climate emergency in 2019 and called for an immediate transformation of food systems to avoid passing an imminent tipping point, beyond which they predict escalating catastrophe with the ultimate risk being human extinction (IPCC, 2019). The scientific literature abounds with calls for food system transformation, before food bankrupts health systems, destroys vital ecosystems on which health depends, and tips greenhouse gas emissions beyond the point at which anthropogenic climate change can be reversed (Steffen *et al.*, 2018; Schneider *et al.*, 2019; Harwatt *et al.*,

2020; Richards *et al.*, 2021). Latest estimates confirm that food systems are already responsible for 34 per cent of these emissions (Crippa *et al.*, 2021). Unless nations transition to more sustainable food systems, it is unlikely they will be able to meet international commitments, such as the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the Paris Agreement on limiting global temperatures. Food system transformation, therefore, must conserve and sustain the natural environment, as well as bring about the adoption of healthier diets to limit the demand for increased food production. The scale of the challenge is such that failure to achieve food system transformation ultimately puts humanity at a much greater risk from various existential threats.

When the threats of ecosystem collapse, global pandemics, and climate change occur simultaneously, combining and acting in synergy, they pose huge potential existential risks to humanity (Kunreuther *et al.*, 2013; Shepherd *et al.*, 2018; Anthony, 2020; Marques, 2020; WHO, 2020) including extinction (Cribb, 2019; Ord, 2020; Richards *et al.*, 2021). The ongoing coronavirus pandemic (COVID-19) has brought the enormity of such threats and crises into sharp focus (Gralak *et al.*, 2020; Hasnain *et al.*, 2020; Shanks *et al.*, 2020; Zimberg, 2020; Laybourn-Langton and Stott, 2021). Several international agencies are now warning about the threats of such crises to humanity in general and, in particular, to food security and public health (FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, 2020; WHO, 2020). Writing in the *British Medical Journal*, Laybourn-Langton and Stott (2021) argue it is the greatest health emergency humanity has ever faced, and call for health professionals to take urgent action, advocacy and awareness raising. The *Lancet's Planetary Health Manifesto* was the first to establish a clear scientific platform between health and the strong interdependencies with food and the natural environment (Horton *et al.*, 2014). Their Manifesto not only makes the connection between increasingly limited resources and declining health, but also how climate change acts as a multiplier to the level of threat (Butler, 2018).

The inherent interdisciplinarity between food, environment and health, whereby multiple branches of science need to come together, adds further challenges in terms of developing and communicating knowledge and policies to bring about societal transformation. The topics can often seem disparate: food insecurity can lead to migration, declining mental health, and conflict; climate change similarly influences sea-level rise, food production, nutrition, and multiple health outcomes, to such an extent it has the potential to undermine many decades of progress in global health. At present, current UK diets are unsustainable. They not only appear to be contributing to obesity and health-related problems, they are driving biodiversity loss, soil degradation, pollution, water scarcity and climate change in both the UK and overseas (Mendenhall and Singer, 2019; New Food, 2019a; Silva, 2019; Swinburn *et al.*, 2019; Hasnain *et al.*, 2020). Many diets are too rich in fat, sugar, and meat but too low in fruit and vegetables. This causes unsustainable health costs; furthermore, the UK's current dietary recommendations appear to do little to reduce greenhouse gas emissions (Springmann *et al.*, 2018). Greater coherency is urgently needed for all

stakeholders if transformational change is to be achieved (Campbell *et al.*, 2018; Hasnain *et al.*, 2020). Certainly, a better understanding of the relationship between food production, diets and the environmental impacts is urgently needed for more sustainable diets to be developed. It also requires greater cooperation, between policymakers, governments, civil society and health professionals; in the first instance to recognise the scientific consensus regarding the unsustainability of current food systems; and then to resolve the multiple future challenges for food security that also must be addressed as a matter of urgency. Stronger cooperation and collective action are also seen as quintessential, especially when societies need to collectively pursue the greater good of sustainable systems (Muhumuza, 2020). For consumers, this transformational change includes transitioning to healthier, more plant-based diets. This understanding will further the development of dietary recommendations, policies, and the behavioural changes needed.

### **1.2 The challenges for health professionals**

Transitioning from the UK's current food system, driven by economic growth, urbanisation, imports, and unsustainable diets, to one fit for the enormous challenges ahead raises many questions for policymakers and health professionals alike. Clear policy direction is urgently required to ensure food security, sustainability, and health. Some health professional bodies, such as the *UK Health Alliance on Climate Change* (UKHACC) and *The Lancet Countdown* project, are already involved. Some are warning the world is clearly on course for catastrophe (Laybourn-Langton and Stott, 2021). Health professionals will continue to have a pivotal role in the transition needed. They have long been respected and trusted; this position continues to galvanise through the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. Laybourn-Langton and Stott (2021) argue this unique position should be used to stiffen the resolve of governments to ensure a smooth and timely transition. This transition to a healthier planet and population will, however, require knowledge of the latest science, the latest thinking, and innovative approaches to the interdisciplinarity of problems. The voice of health professionals is needed to provide both the moral imperative and the practical solutions to ensure a shared survival.

### **1.3 Gaps in the literature**

The challenges of sustainability in general, and food sustainability in particular, have garnered increasing numbers of published articles in recent years. Climate change, for example, has arguably become one of the most intensively researched areas of science, progressing rapidly since the 1990s. The very nature of the interdisciplinarity of sustainability invariably means, however, that the scientific evidence is spread across an extremely wide range of publications. In addition, most health professionals receive no formal training on food sustainability. Furthermore, their professional journals have only started to cover the wide variety of subjects associated with the interdisciplinarity of the various knowledge branches much

more recently. The challenge for them, therefore, is more likely to be concerned with appreciating the very wide scope of food systems impact and finding easy access to the essential scientific evidence. At present, the literature is devoid of articles that distil the multiple complexities that would enable health professionals to determine what constitutes healthy diets, for example; similarly, there are no recommendations on what constitutes a sustainable diet at present in the UK.

#### **1.4 Problem statement and overview of this thesis**

This thesis explores the problems associated with the policy options available to ensure future UK food security. By providing a narrative for UK health professionals, it will help train and enable them to bring about the changes necessary in the move towards more sustainable diets. The thesis problem statement therefore is to provide a detailed synthesis of the challenges to the food–environment–health nexus, the anticipated impacts of climate change on this nexus, and identify the dietary behaviours that need to be adopted to reduce the impacts on human health. Chapter 2 provides the research objectives and an initial review of the sustainability literature. Chapter 3 then establish is the research questions and designs the methodological approach. Chapters 4, 5 and 6 respectively deal with results, discussion, and conclusion. Figure 1 provides a more detailed structure employed throughout this thesis.



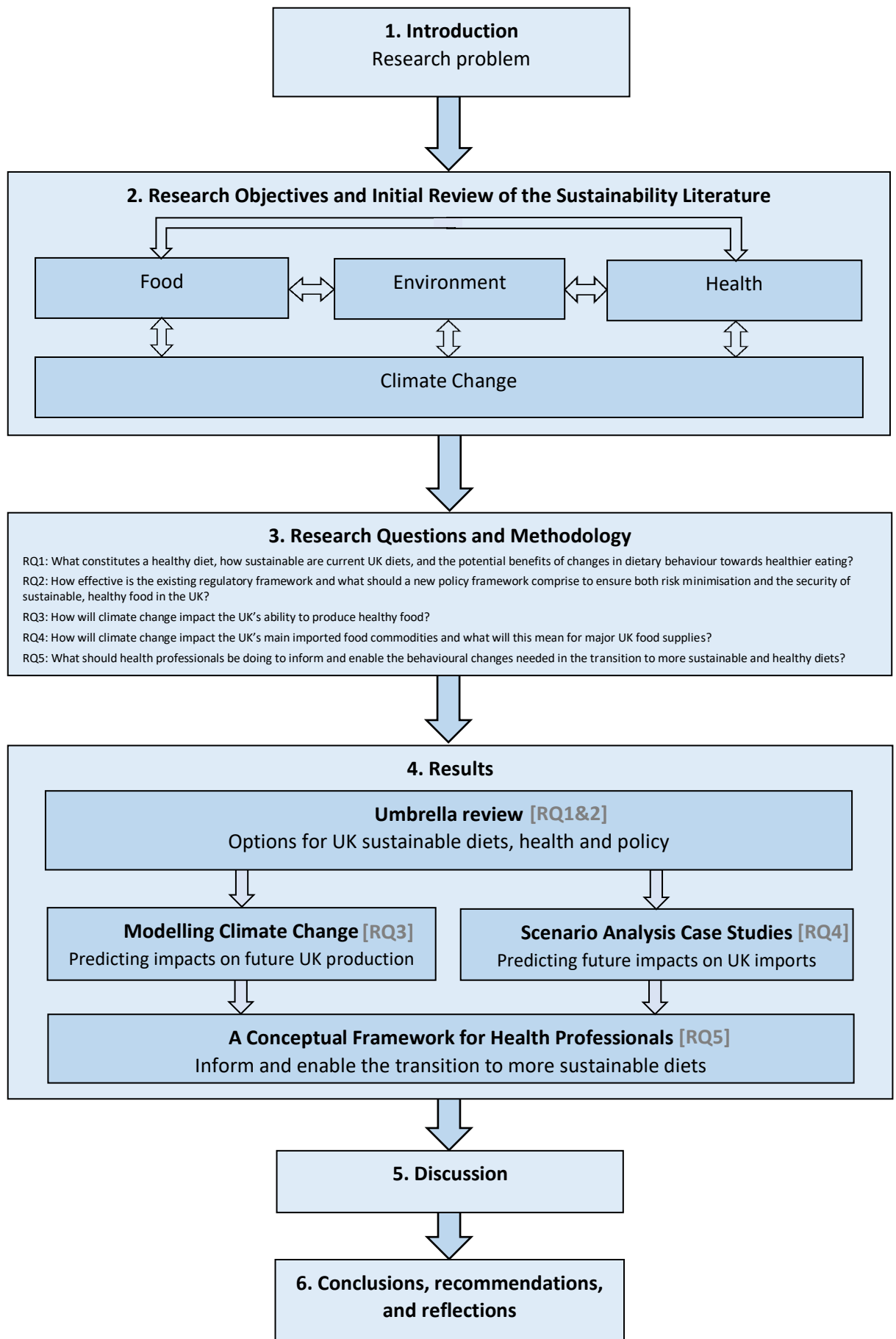


Figure 1: Overview of the thesis structure

## 2. Research objectives and initial review of the sustainability literature

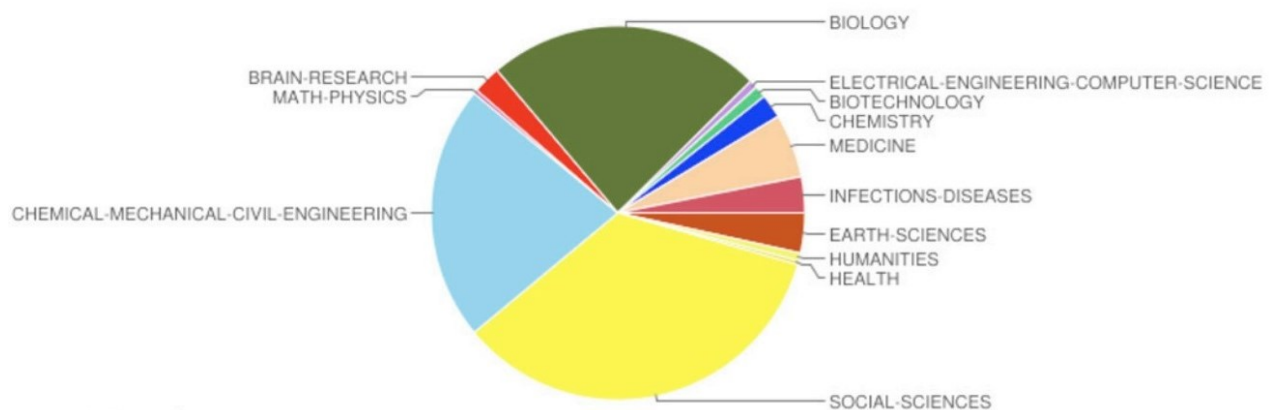
### 2.1 Research objectives

The overall objective and main purpose of the research was to synthesise the challenges from the food–environment–health nexus, the anticipated impacts of climate change on this nexus, and identify the dietary behaviours that need to be adopted to reduce the impacts on human health. This chapter investigates the existing scientific and grey literature to understand the impact of the identified risks to UK food security in the immediate future. To achieve this, this thesis uses several, more narrowly defined objectives. It uses existing meteorological predictive models to systematically map the latest evidence on how climate change will impact domestic production factors, such as the area of land available for food production, the consequences of further environmental degradation (e.g. continued declines in soil health), and the available range and yield of plant and animal raw materials sources. It also attempts to quantify the impact of climate change on the UK’s overseas food supply chains and assess the future risks to imported food security. It synthesises the latest findings on what constitutes a healthy diet, establish how the existing policy instruments can be adapted and coordinated to ensure future food sustainability and security, thereby enabling resilience to future food system challenges and reversing the growing trends in diet-related diseases that are placing a burden on the UK economy. Finally, recommendations for how food policy should be developed to ensure UK food security and specific proposals for UK health professionals that will enable them to deliver evidence-based information to inform and bring about the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets.

### 2.2 The genesis and theoretical foundations of sustainability science

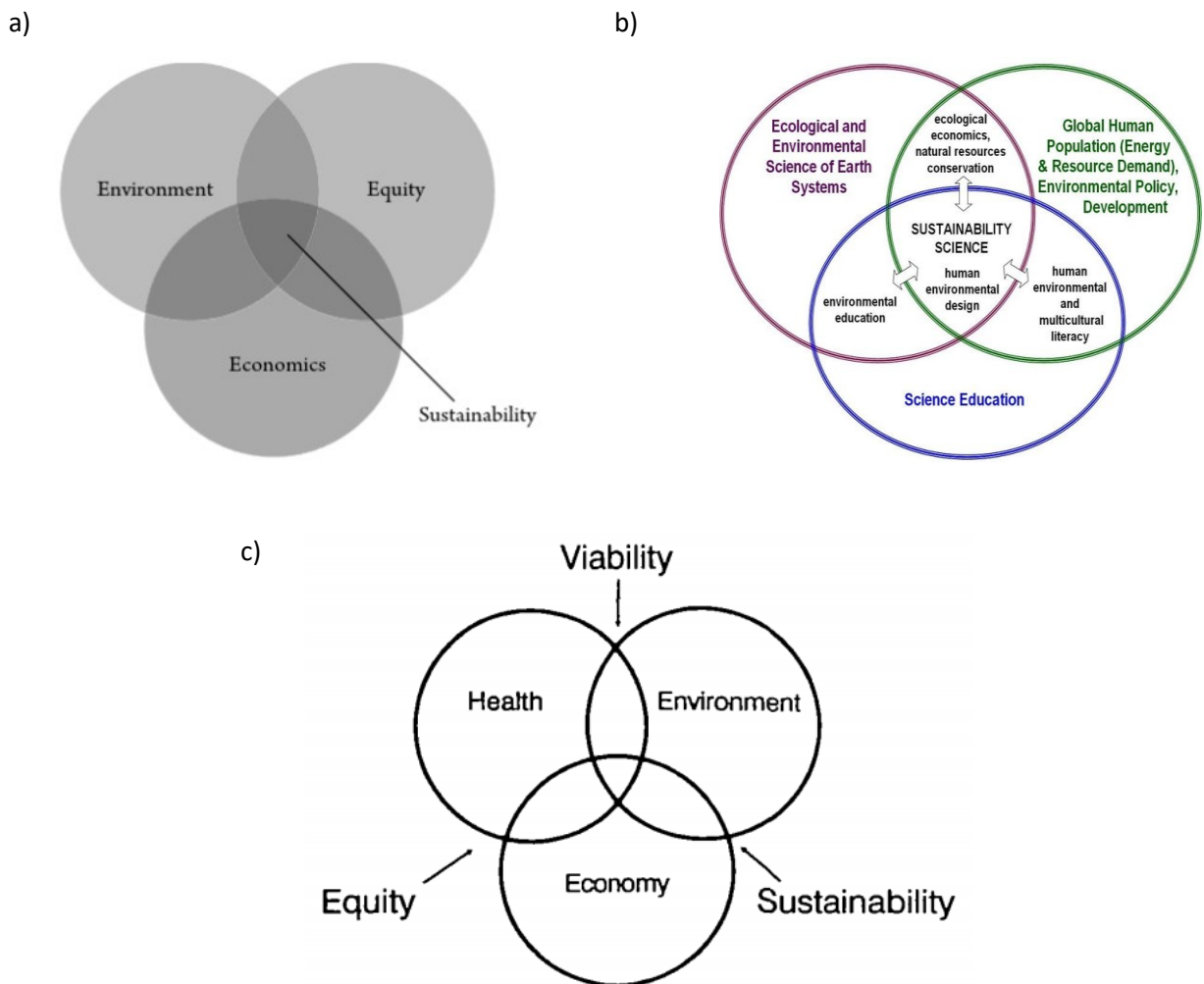
Over the past forty years, there has also been a growing scientific consensus on a future prognosis for the planet which is centred around unsustainability; involving both rapid change and existential threats caused by ecosystems collapse, global pandemics, and climate change. Alongside the prognoses are calls for food system transformation, before food bankrupts health systems, destroys vital ecosystems on which health depends, and tips greenhouse gas emissions beyond the point at which anthropogenic climate change can be reversed (Audsley *et al.*, 2010; Dimova *et al.*, 2014; Steffen *et al.*, 2018; Schneider *et al.*, 2019; Harwatt *et al.*, 2020; Richards *et al.*, 2021). Calls for the increasingly urgent need for transformational change to food systems continue to be held back by political and social constraints that are more used to gradual and incremental change (Bunyavanich *et al.*, 2003; de Schutter, 2009; Beniston, 2010; Drexhage and Murphy, 2010; FCRN, 2014a; Bailey *et al.*, 2018; Alexander *et al.*, 2019; Benton *et al.*, 2019). Writing in *The Lancet*, Lucas and Horton (2019) warn that civilisation is facing an accelerating crisis whereby food security cannot be balanced with existing planetary resources.

Science enables the systematic study of the natural world, through measurement, experimentation, observation, and formulation of theories (Kyle, 1958). Although there is neither a correct or intrinsically better organisation of classification of science, traditional approaches are evolving into more unified systems i.e. cognitive and social dimensions (Popper, 1952) and the need to accommodate interdisciplinarity (convergence) of disciplines, divergence, or changes in impact over time (Dias *et al.*, 2018). The same authors also argue there is neither a correct nor intrinsically better organisation of classification. Sustainability science is much more recent: opinions vary as to whether it was an article in the *Ecologist* entitled '*Blueprint for Survival*' published in 1972 (Manning, 1972; Kidd, 1992) or the 1987 Brundtland report, which stated that sustainable development could only be achieved where there was a coexistence between the economy and the environment (Komiya and Takeuchi, 2006). Lang *et al.* (2012) refer to an emerging agreement that sustainability requires new, transdisciplinary research to integrate the best available knowledge; Brandt *et al.* (2013) recommends this must be clearly framed with a common terminology and appropriate methods. Sustainability is typically represented by the ubiquitous three-pillar model of intersecting circles of social, economic, and environmental sustainability. Although its origins may lay in the triple bottom line principle of '*people, planet and profit*' from the business literature (Purvis *et al.*, 2019), it has spread to the social, economic, and ecological literature. It is frequently adapted to include institutional, cultural, technical, and health pillars, as shown in Figure 3. Hancock (1993, p.43) shifts the focus of the model away from economic development to a '*system of economic activity that enhances human development while being environmentally and socially sustainable*', in which the community is convivial, the environment viable, and the economy adequately prosperous, equitable, and sustainable. Purvis *et al.* (2019) argue this latter point makes the economy subservient to both its community and environment; as society and the economy could not exist without the environment, it should always take conceptual priority in any model.



**Figure 2:** The footprint of sustainability science in terms of traditional scientific disciplines

**Source:** Bettencourt and Kaur (2011).



**Figure 3:** Three examples of the tripartite Venn diagram commonly used to illustrate the interconnectedness of the environment, economy, and social equality/equity: a) for sustainability; b) for sustainability science; and c) human development for sustainable health

**Sources:** a) Caradonna (2014); b) adapted from Bettencourt and Kaur (2011); c) Hancock (1993).

The extent to which sustainability has become a scientific discipline, however, has yet to be clearly established. It is deeply embedded in fundamentally different discourses, namely: ecological carrying capacity; environmental resources; biosphere; technology; rate of growth; and, eco-development (Kidd, 1992; Smetana *et al.*, 2019). Schoolman *et al.* (2012) argue that although sustainability science is more interdisciplinary than other scientific fields, sustainability research was centred on a smaller number of economics and social science journals. Figure 2 shows the relative breakdown of the sustainability science literature by the traditional scientific disciplines used by the Institute for Scientific Information. The largest contribution (34 per cent) was found in the social science journals, with significant contributions from biology, engineering, medicine, earth sciences and infectious diseases. Despite the exponential growth in sustainability science, there appears to be little change in the disciplinary mixture over the fourteen years

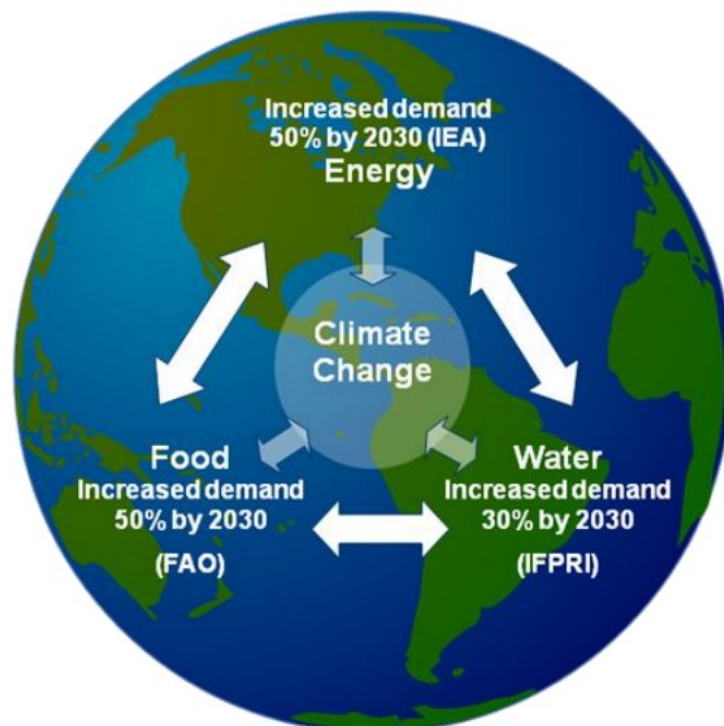
observed in the original study. Bettencourt and Kaur (2011) argue that sustainability has both become established as a science since the 1990s and predict it will continue to generate impact and have permanency as an unusual, inclusive, and ubiquitous scientific practice. Some political studies suggest two competing philosophies of sustainability have emerged, with '*weak*' sustainability meaning humanity will replace the natural capital used, and '*strong*' sustainability meaning that the planetary limits for the environment and ecology must be adhered to (Bettencourt and Kaur, 2011; UNEP, 2012; FAO, 2015d; Science for Environment Policy, 2017; Food Service Footprint, 2018e; UNEP, 2019). Where policies or politics put short-term goals ahead of the health of humans or the planet, these cannot in principle be regarded as sustainable (Acunzo *et al.*, 2018). Sustainability has certainly become an integral part of governmental policy agendas, being recognised as a key issue facing twenty-first century civilisations.

While most branches of science are firmly established, nutrition science is a notable exception (Fears *et al.*, 2019). A recent critique in the *New Scientist* (2019a) explores why many of the dietary recommendations turn out to be fundamentally flawed and recommends a degree of scepticism for all dietary advice. Lawrence (2019) similarly questions nutritional epidemiology, particularly with previous dietary recommendations regarding eggs and cholesterol. This lack of confidence even applies to the respected science journals; to such an extent that it risks consumers losing faith in the science altogether. The main problem is the vast majority of research are observational studies, where other behavioural factors known as confounders easily distort the findings; publication bias can then apply throughout the research process, ensuring the most interesting stories appear in the consumer press (Rowe, 2018). Apart from early successes with addressing deficiencies such as folic acid in pregnancy, and reducing salt intake for blood pressure, many of the later studies were more about ideological diets. The *New Scientist* recommends the urgent need for nutrition science to adopt the good research practices used in the other science disciplines, such as preregistering all research including which confounders will be used; also the need for a moratorium on all observational studies until these problems are fixed. Writing in the *British Medical Journal*, Winkler (2013) advises nutritionists to recognise the brutal pragmatism that many consumers are either uninterested in healthy eating or repelled by well-meaning advice. The key historical events associated with nutrition science, with implications for current science and policy, can be found in appendix 8.8.

The scientific and health professions communities have called for a new branch of science to address the future challenges, especially integrating different approaches from natural, social and cultural science perspectives (Wellcome Trust, 2015b; Panorama Perspectives, 2017a; 2017b; 2017c; Görg *et al.*, 2019). Leach *et al.* (2013), for example, advocate a new scientific discipline which brings together interdisciplinarity from both the social and natural sciences; Horton and Lo (2015) recommend a new planetary health science to help place human health within the human system and ensure that humans

live within the safe operating space of natural systems. Some scientists now believe humanity is entering a third geological period, the Anthropocene, where human activity is the primary cause of environmental pollution (Barnett, 2001; Arias-Maldonado, 2013; Kahn, 2013; Caradonna, 2014; Richter *et al.*, 2016; Waters *et al.*, 2016; Hausfather, 2017a; Guiry *et al.*, 2018; Schmidt and Frank, 2018; Turney *et al.*, 2018; *The Lancet*, 2019c; Görg *et al.*, 2020).

Food is at the heart of the sustainability challenge. When the then chief scientific adviser to the UK Government made his ‘*perfect storm*’ warnings, the intrinsic link between ensuring food security at the same time as uncertainty from the unknown impacts of climate change became firmly established (Beddington, 2010). Shown in figure 4, it incorporates predicted shortfalls from the leading global agencies (IEA, FAO and IFPRI) to calculate increases of 50 per cent more food, 50 per cent more energy, and 30 per cent more fresh water will be required by 2030. This will directly impact UK food security with import costs becoming more expensive and parts of the country becoming less able to grow crops; indirect impacts may include growing public unrest, cross-border conflicts, and increased migration. At the same time, McKinsey’s commodity price index has started to increase from 2000 onwards (Cranfield *et al.*, 1998; Dobbs *et al.*, 2011; Gao, 2012), with this trajectory expected to continue indefinitely, raising equity and environmental concerns (Mearns and Norton, 2010; Steffen *et al.*, 2015a; Shultz *et al.*, 2018). To mitigate against these risks, Beddington stresses the need to make scientists more directly involved in policy making, as well as specifically calling for a new ‘greener revolution’.



**Figure 4:** Beddington’s Perfect Storm Scenario

**Source:** Beddington (2010).

Beddington's analysis was grounded on a growing body of scientific evidence. Estimates of the size of future populations vary between 8-10 billion, due to uncertainty over fertility and mortality trends (Lutz and Samir, 2010; Conway, 2012; Samir and Lutz, 2015; Hwang, 2018); this uncertainty invariably leads to concerns regarding overpopulation (Pimentel and Pimentel, 1993; Dyson, 1996; Gerland *et al.*, 2014; Connell, 2015; UN, 2015g; UNDSA, 2015; UNDESA, 2017; Bongaarts and O'Neill, 2018; The World Bank, 2019). Others expect access to food imports will be reduced and the possibility of global food shortages (Fischer *et al.*, 1994; Bruinsma, 2009; Eccleston, 2009; Population Institute, 2010; Jones, 2015; Goldie and Betts, 2015; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Natalini *et al.*, 2019) and supplies become increasingly scarce (the FAO 'food system wheel' can be found in appendix 8.4). Further predictions from both the International Monetary Fund (IMF) about economic certainty and the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) predict there are less than ten years left to avert a global climate catastrophe (Watson *et al.*, 1996; Schiermeier, 2010). More recently, the term '*perfect storm*' has been used to raise awareness about the limited resources, expanding human population, and the climate change emergency (Carrington, 2019; IPCC, 2019a), with the perfect storm for extinction being characterised by the exceptionally rapid loss of biodiversity (i.e. biological diversity) (Thuiller, 2007; Kolbert, 2014; Odegard and van der Voet, 2014; Mason, 2015; Payne *et al.*, 2016; Guo *et al.*, 2018; Pritchard, 2018; Greenpeace, 2019a; Longrich, 2019; McWilliams *et al.*, 2019; Saltré and Bradshaw, 2019; Watts, 2019).

### 2.3 Food sustainability challenges

Although the academic study of sustainability may be relatively new, the challenges associated with securing sustainable food supplies seems to have been a constant throughout human history. Exploring such historical practices allows a better understanding of the successes and failures of societies and their interactions with the environment (Reed and Ryan, 2019). Historical examples include: the spread of domesticated bananas from 4000 B.C. (Hunt and Premathilake, 2018); the Akkadian Empire in Mesopotamia around in 2300 B.C. where food shortages caused by an abrupt onset of drought severely affected the empire (Ersek, 2019); in 200, the early Christian writer Tertullian stating '*we are burdensome to the world, the resources are scarcely adequate for us . . . truly, pestilence and hunger and war and flood must be considered as a remedy for nations, like a pruning of the human race becoming excessive in numbers*' (Cohen, 1995); the Maya civilisation collapsing during the 800s due to cataclysmic environmental change and hostility with neighbours; the Anasazi people during the 1200s suffering from environmental damage and climate change (Diamond, 2005); the French King Philip IV raising concern in 1289 about the impact of overfishing on resource destruction (Hoffmann, 1996); the Polynesian Pitcairn Island collapsed before the 1600s following both environmental damage and the loss of trade (Diamond, 2005); the Easter Island civilisation failure in the 1800s attributable to a long struggle with decreasing

land-use intensity (Stevenson *et al.*, 2015); and, concerns over dwindling forest resources throughout Europe in the 1600 and 1700s (Caradonna, 2014).

Similar challenges with securing sustainable food supplies are also a feature throughout the history of the United Kingdom. During the late medieval period (1250-1500), rapid population growth and urbanisation was coupled with the better farming methods promoted by monasteries and warmer weather. King John's Magna Carta in 1215 had been designed, in part, to enshrine into English law the right of the common man to access 'common resources' such as fish. This relative prosperity was also associated with forest clearance and river diversions, primarily to meet growing demands for food (Thirsk, 2002). The rapid expansion in grain mills along rivers throughout the country brought about declines in spawning fish species such as salmon and sturgeon. As early as 1214, a Scottish statute required all river dams to include an opening for spawning fish, and barrier nets had to be lifted every Saturday (Boissoneault, 2019). Other interactions such as eutrophication, pollution, erosion, and habitat loss also contributed to declining freshwater fish availability (Searce, 2009).

The early literature also records British political economists questioning the limits of both economic and demographic growth, as well as acknowledging the conflicts between equity and social justice. For example, a poor UK harvest in the late 1640s led to extreme food shortages, but the maltsters continued to purchase barley which further inflated the price of bread for the poor, which Hindle and Humphries (2008, p.2) argue was a '*conspicuously wasteful use of grain that should have been employed as a basic foodstuff*'. The economist and philosopher Adam Smith's (1776) publication '*an inquiry into the nature and causes of the Wealth of Nations*' promoted the theory that merchant power, colonialism and the slave economy had brought about growth in production and progress; he also believed the free market had been ordained by God (Barnett, 2008). Thomas Malthus's (1798) '*essay on the principle of population*' gave rise to the theory that any improvement brought about by increases in food production was only temporary because it would, in turn, lead to population growth. Malthus initially supported the protectionist Corn Laws and advocated duties on imported grain, in the expectation that both would guarantee self-sufficiency in British food. Smith's publication later inspired the work of British economist David Ricardo, who went on to develop the argument in favour of comparative advantage in 1817, and against the protectionism of sectors such as agriculture (Case and Fair, 1999). Ricardo failed to relate to real world events (especially those outside human control), however, whereby natural disasters in agrarian nations could lead to starvation in industrially based, trading-partner nations. Similarly, William Forster Lloyd's (1833) lectures on population control influenced economic theory, later becoming known as the tragedy of the commons, warned against individuals using natural resources to their advantage without considering the greater good of society. The economist and political theorist James Mill (1848) advocated population limits and slower growth to benefit the environment and increase the availability



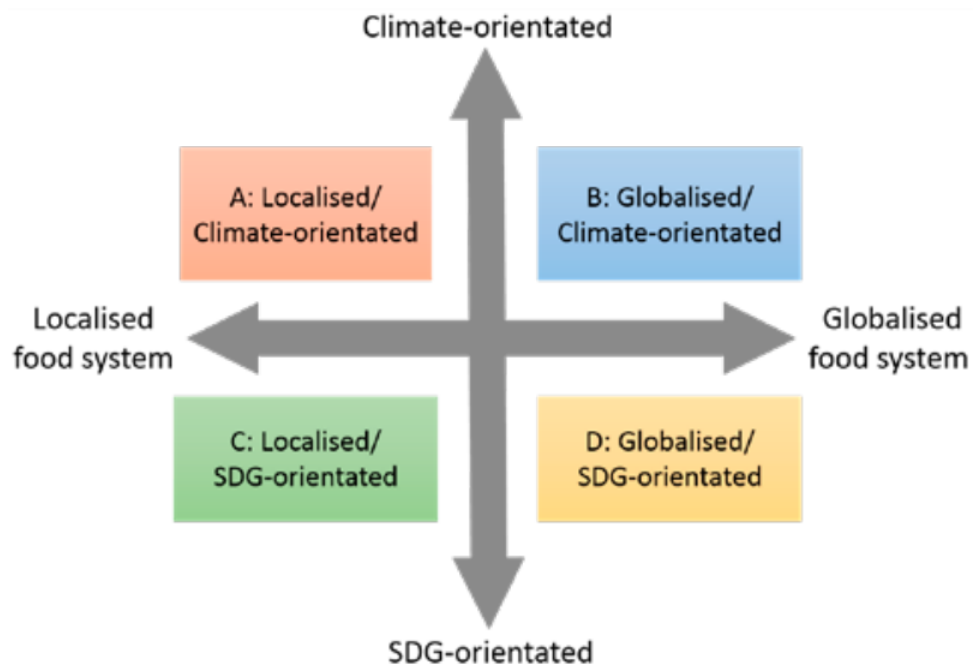
of public goods. During the late 1800s, a schism emerged within conservation science philosophy: that is, between conserving national resources for sustainable consumption and the opposing view of preserving nature for its inherent worth (Callicott and Mumford, 1997).

Throughout the early 1900s, the British economy continued to change from being largely agricultural to an industrial one. Expansion in trade enabled increases in wealth, as goods became cheaper and increasing buyer power boosted consumption. Throughout Europe, calls for international efforts to promote equitable economic development marked a significant departure away from the former exploitation of national resources associated with colonialism, to an increase in the flow of goods that would generate growth in per capita income and thereby increase material well-being. This latter point invariably led to economic development becoming synonymous with economic growth, as far as developed world policy was concerned (Purvis *et al.*, 2019). Carson's (1962) book '*Silent Spring*' about the negative effects of chemical pesticides is considered, albeit in retrospect, as initiating the shift in environmental consciousness throughout the world. The 1972 publication of the '*Limits to Growth*' report by the Club of Rome also highlighted the increasing concerns associated with continued growth in the human ecological footprint (Meadows, 1972). The 1972 UN Conference on the Human–Environment in Stockholm and the 1973 oil crisis and the global recession that followed further galvanised calls for structural reform to address the incompatibility between capitalist economic growth and social sustainability of economic, social and health systems (Landires *et al.*, 2018; Purvis *et al.*, 2019). By the time of the first UN World Climate Conference (the Geneva Convention) in 1979, primarily to reduce and prevent pollution including trans-boundary air pollution, interdisciplinary scientists were already talking of their moral obligation to warn humanity of the pending, catastrophic threat.

The UN World Commission on Environment and Development's 1987 Brundtland Report called for '*development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*'. It also laid the intellectual foundations for the Rio Earth Summit in 1992, when UN leaders pledged their support for sustainable development, and the SDGs that followed in 2015. The report led to sustainable development becoming the dominant paradigm within the environmental science literature and publications in this area have grown exponentially since (Purvis *et al.*, 2019). Criticisms of the consensus building through compromise approach recommended by the Brundtland Report and the Rio Summit Declaration abound: Castro (2004) argues that if poverty causes environmental degradation which can be reduced by lessening poverty, then developing nations require economic growth which in turn requires freer markets. Other similar arguments also refer to this oversimplification, and suggest it may lead to inadequacies and contradictions in policy making, especially in international trade sectors such as agriculture and forestry (Adams, 1989; Lélé, 1991; Anderson, 2010;

Moon and Stanton, 2014; Rainforest Alliance, 2014; Rainforest Alliance, 2015). Tulloch (2013) has also argued this compromise approach legitimises and obscures neoliberal policy.

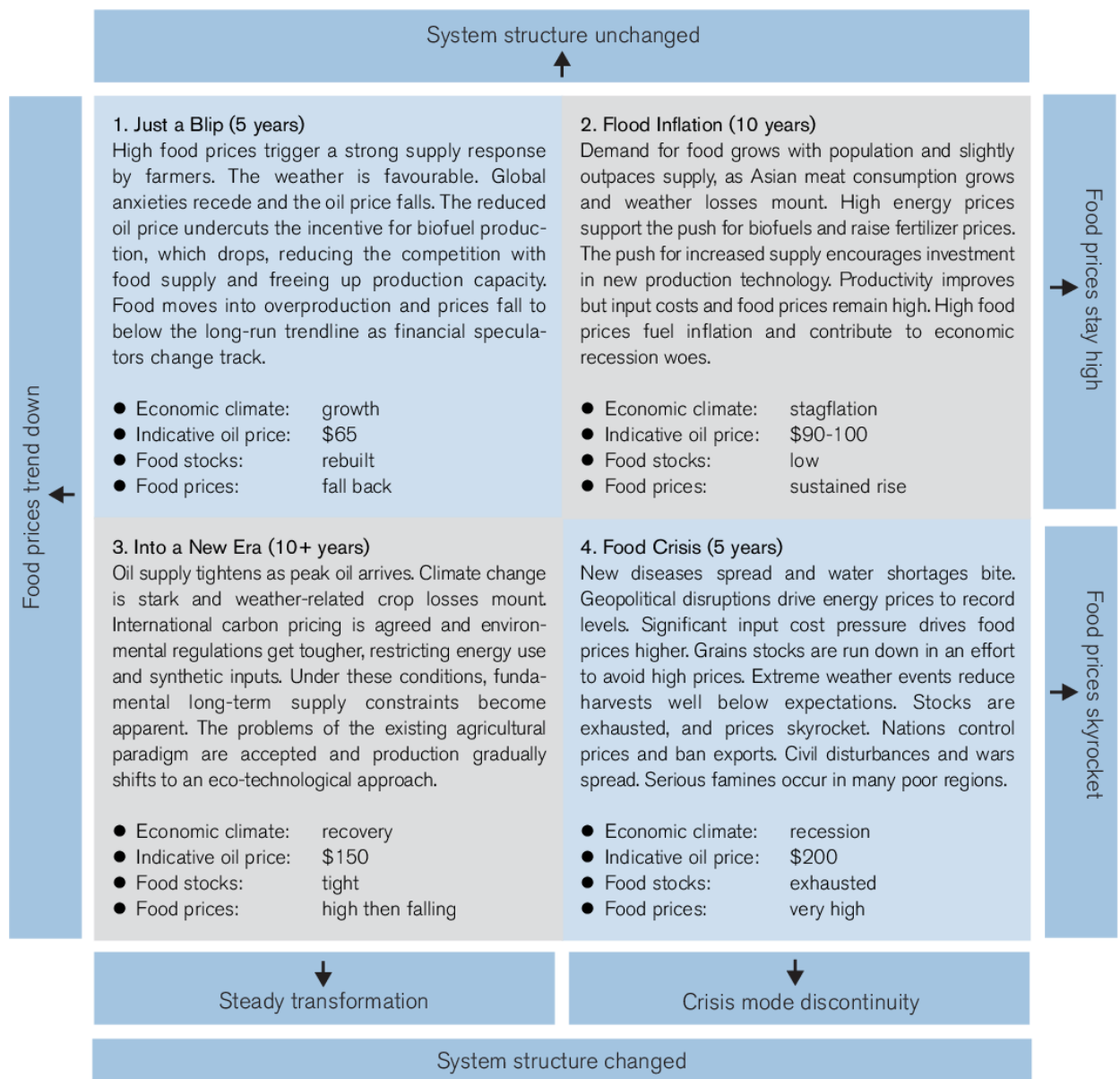
Food systems enable food to be derived from the Earth's resources and, in doing so, have the potential to impact both socioeconomic and geopolitical systems (De Vries *et al.*, 2014; Knight, 2015; Blay-Palmer *et al.*, 2016; Bonanno, 2017; Challinor *et al.*, 2017; Acunzo *et al.*, 2018; Burke *et al.*, 2018; Cottrell *et al.*, 2019). Food systems are hugely resource intensive: responsible for 34 per cent of global emissions (Vermeulen *et al.*, 2012c; Smith and Gregory, 2013; Aleksandrowicz *et al.*, 2016; EAC, 2019; Crippa *et al.*, 2021); the single largest consumer of freshwater; they undermine the resilience of land-based ecosystems, especially diversity and natural carbon sinks; and they are the largest consumer of the chemicals responsible for eutrophication of water resources systems and emissions of nitrous oxide. With current predictions of an extra 70 per cent of food being required by 2050 to meet expected population growth, this can only exacerbate the impacts on resources (IPCC, 2006; FAO, 2009a; Hofmann, 2009; Beniston, 2010; Hanjra and Qureshi, 2010; Jaggard *et al.*, 2010; Godfray *et al.*, 2011; Godfray, 2013; Misra, 2014; Global Panel, 2015; McMichael *et al.*, 2015; Alders, 2016; Thyberg and Tonjes, 2016; FCRN, 2018e; FCRN, 2018g; FCRN, 2019m). Although current legislation requires countries to report their respective GHG emissions to the UNFCCC, considerable differences can be found depending on how the inventories are calculated. Bell *et al.* (2014), for example, estimated that Scottish emissions from agriculture were 10.63mt carbon dioxide equivalent (CO<sub>2</sub>e) in 2009 when land-use change was included, compared to the 7.06mt CO<sub>2</sub>e actually reported, as the UNFCCC doesn't count land-use change within the inventory. The number of food production shocks over the past fifty years driven by climate change and mismanagement have continued to increase in frequency (Lloyds, 2015; Puma *et al.*, 2015; Cottrell *et al.*, 2019). Although current food production systems are both increasingly unsustainable and threatening to future survival, they are also seen as being part of the potential solution. Beddington *et al.* (2012) argues that more efficient food production systems can provide healthier and more sustainable food. New governance initiatives have been launched, such as the UN's MDG's, SDGs (Barth *et al.*, 2017; Lang, 2017b; Stephens *et al.*, 2018), the Rockefeller Foundation-Lancet Commission on planetary health (Whitmee *et al.*, 2015), the Paris Agreement at the 21<sup>st</sup> Conference of the Parties (COP21) of the UNFCCC in 2015 (although Robbins (2017) notes that the unintended health consequences of climate change was not covered by the Paris Summit). Finally, the IPCC published an assessment of the scientific, technical, and socio-economic literature comparing the effects between global warming of 1.5°C and 2°C above pre-industrial levels on various Earth systems (Schleussner *et al.*, 2016; IPCC, 2018b). However, as Petersen (2018) highlights, the feasibility and sustainability constraints that the IPCC acknowledge with their own scenarios means that a global temperature reduction of 1.5°C is unlikely due to political and economic reasons.



**Figure 5:** Scenario planning matrix for 2050 food system scenarios

**Source:** GFS (2017).

Several Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) are also involved in helping determine food sustainability (Foresight4food, 2019); the four scenarios identified by Global Food Security (2017) are shown in figure 5 and the possible scenarios for future global food supply by the Chatham House Royal Institute of International Affairs (Ambler-Edwards *et al.*, 2009) in figure 6. A decade later, the same Chatham House is calling for a better food policy and better government to effectively manage the competing interests between food production, trade, regulatory policy, and economic performance (Benton, 2019a). They also warn that overseas trade tends to place many of these competing interests out of sight, where their consequences are not transparent or necessarily articulated to consumers. To make future food policies more effective, equitable and efficient, many recent studies call for a food systems approach to embed and align food into the many, different food policy areas (Grant, 2015; EEA, 2017; GFS, 2018; *The Lancet*, 2018e; van Berkum *et al.*, 2018; Bhunnoo, 2019; Centre for Food Policy, 2019a; Parsons and Hawkes, 2019c). The Global Food Security interdisciplinary research programme has also made an extensive contribution to research into the environmental, biological, economic, social and geopolitical shocks that are threatening the resilience of the UK food system (GFS, 2010; GFS, 2012; GFS, 2012a; GFS, 2012b; GFS, 2013a; GFS, 2013b; Bailey *et al.*, 2015b; GFS, 2015a; GFS, 2015b; GFS, 2015c; UK-US Taskforce, 2015; GFS, 2016; Kougioumoutzi, 2016; GFS, 2017a; GFS, 2017b; GFS, 2017e; GFS, 2018; GFS, 2019a; GFS, 2019b; GFS, 2019c; GFS, 2019d; Franco *et al.*, 2020).



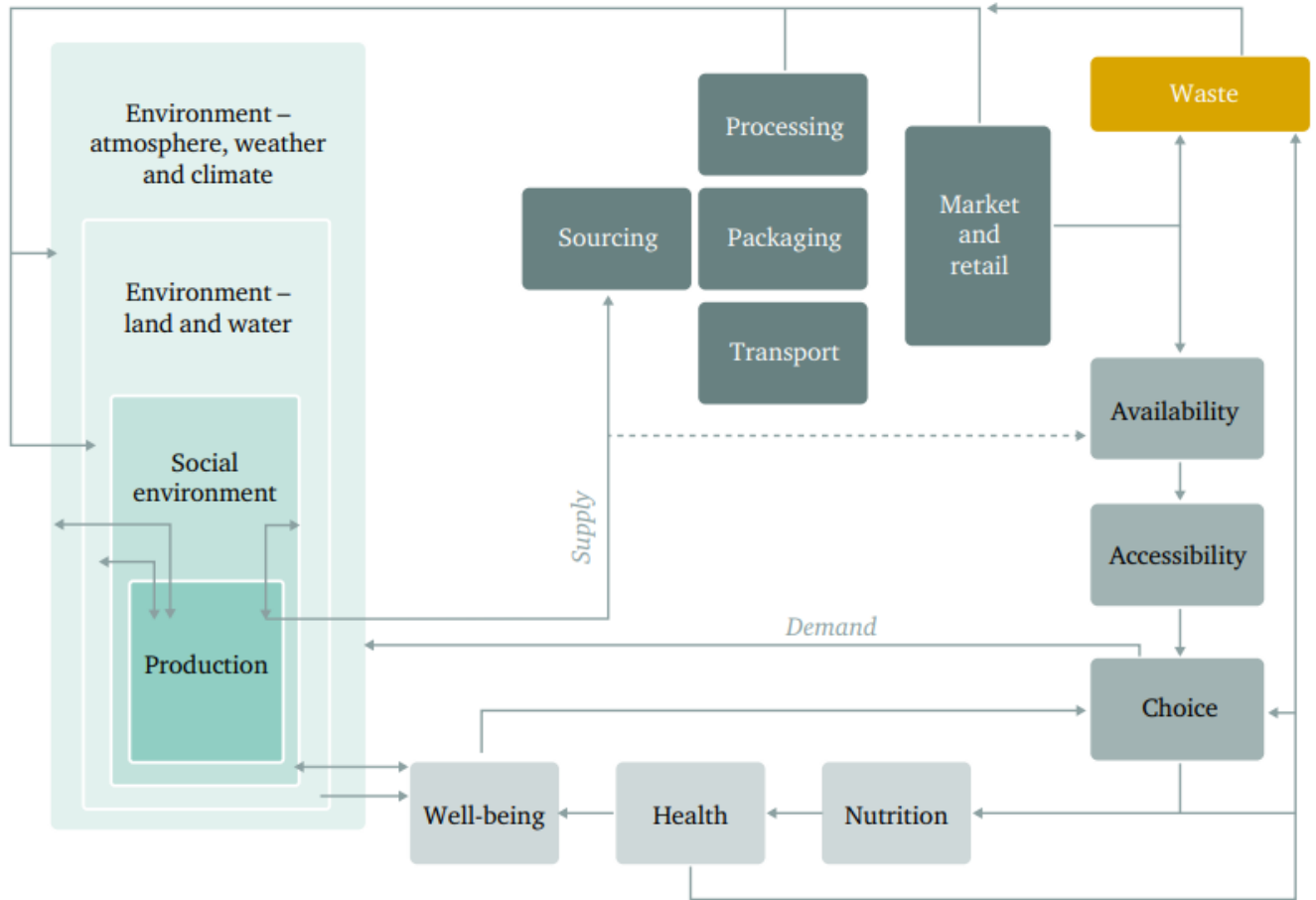
**Figure 6:** Four global food supply scenarios that consider the challenges and impacts on the EU / UK

**Source:** Ambler-Edwards *et al.* (2009).

**2.3.1 Food production**

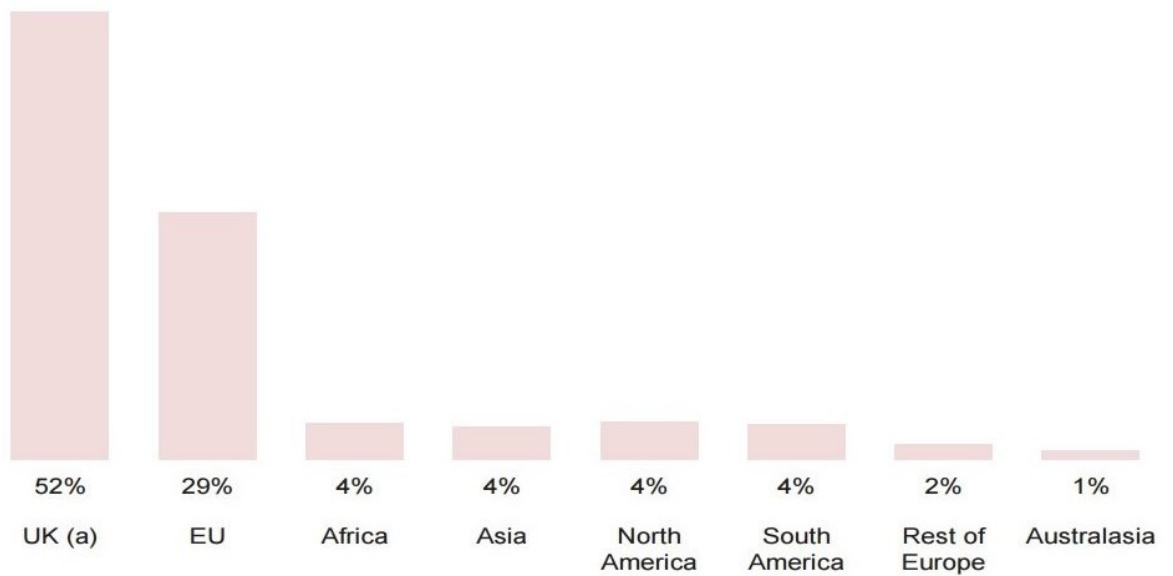
The UK food system comprises a mix of domestically grown and imported food which are impacted by a wide range of policies and mediations. Figure 7 shows how Benton *et al.* (2019) see the UK food system structure, by way of example. Three further figures show the origins of food consumed in the UK (figure 8), the latest data available from DEFRA (figure 9) and HMRC (figure 10). King *et al.* (2015) define systemic risks as those ‘that can trigger unexpected large-scale changes of a system or imply uncontrollable large-scale threats to it’ (King *et al.*, 2015, p.110). These risks are further analysed by Jones and Hiller (2015), Benton (2017), and CCC (2019). Despite the small variations in data, the overall picture is one whereby

just under 50 per cent of UK food is domestically grown; the remainder (mostly fruit, vegetables, meat, and beverages) is imported mainly from the EU, with Africa, Asia, North and South America each providing around a 4 per cent share of the remaining imports. For the past decade, the government had argued that *'sourcing nutritious food from a diverse range of stable countries including domestically enhances security by spreading risks and keeping prices competitive* (DEFRA, 2010b, p.3). The publication of the Environmental Audit Committee's *'Our Planet, Our Health'* (EAC, 2019), however, marks a fundamental shift in government thinking on food production systems. The report argues that, as 20 per cent of the UK's fruit and vegetable imports come from countries at risk from climate change, the UK is facing a food security crisis that is further exacerbated by the UK's future trading position after Brexit. In recognising the critical connection between the increasingly degraded natural environmental systems and human health, the report details the urgent steps needed to normalise healthy diets from sustainable food systems. The report's proscriptions including the EAT-Lancet Commission's recommendation for a *'Great Food Transformation'*, the future role of the Eatwell Guide, a National Food Strategy and a National Council for Food Policy to advise on transforming our food system, and ministerial and civil service accountability for planetary health will be addressed in section 2.4. There is a need, however, to understand where the UK food system is now, both in terms of the sustainability of domestic production as well as the sustainability of imports, before considering how these factors can be incorporated into a new, transformational food system (FCRN, 2018a; FCRN, 2018d; FCRN, 2018h; FCRN, 2019c). Further detail on the impacts of climate change on the food system can be found in appendix 8.1.



**Figure 7:** How the UK food system is structured

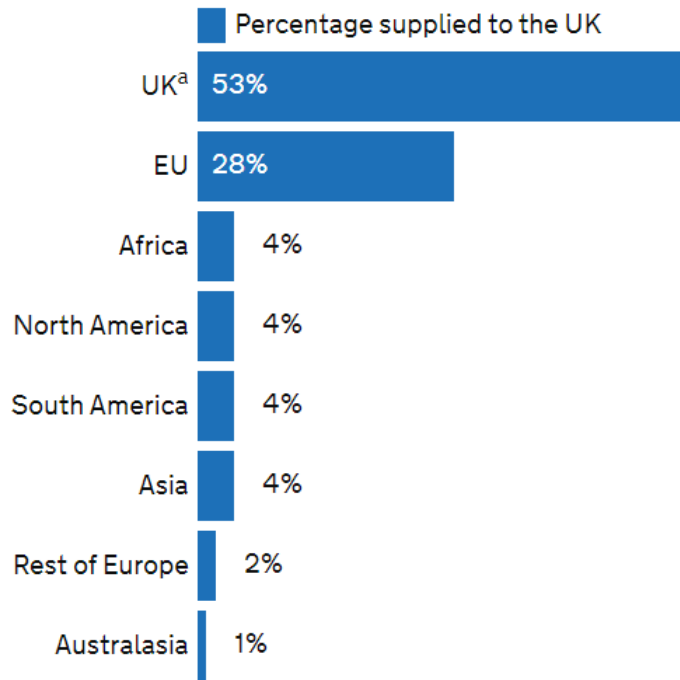
**Source:** Benton *et al.* (2019).



(a) Consumption of UK origin consists of UK domestic production minus UK exports.

**Figure 8:** Origins of food consumed in the UK, 2015

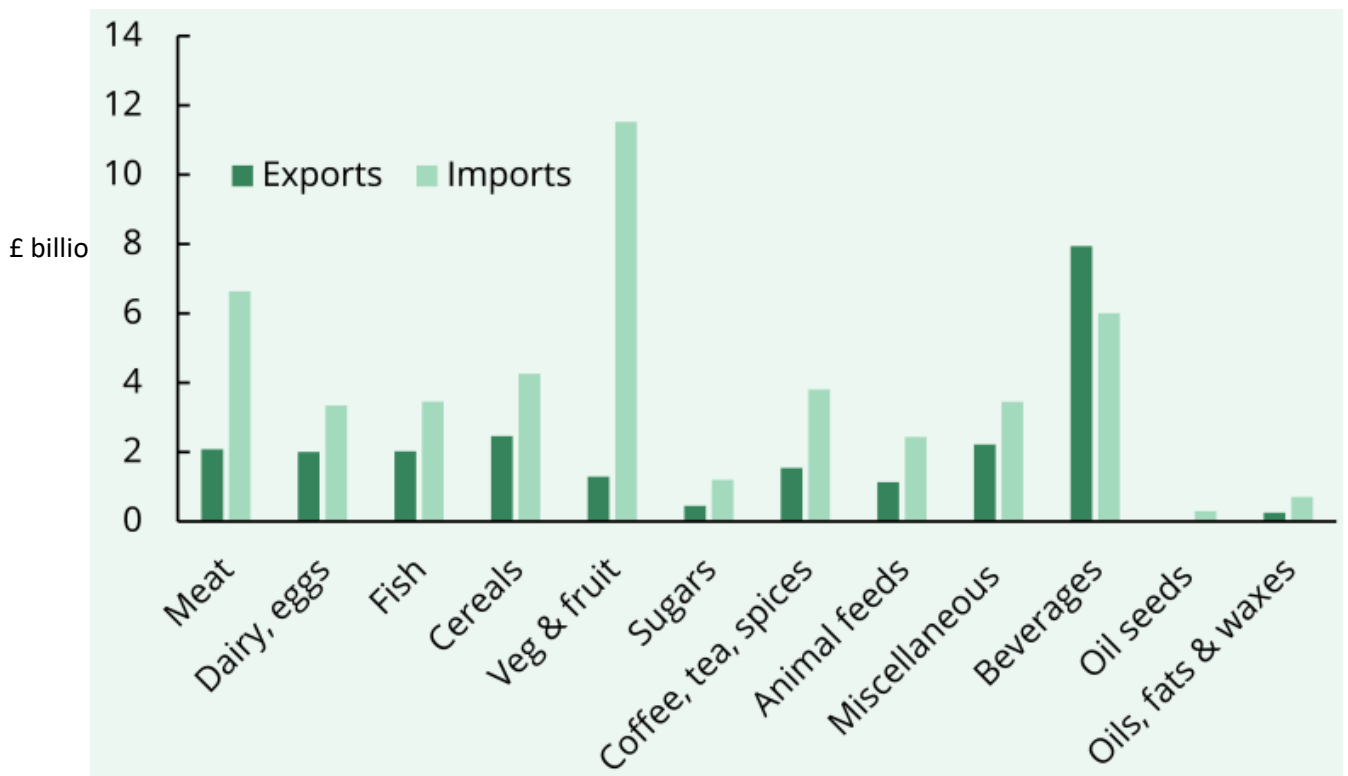
**Source:** GFS (2018).



<sup>a</sup> UK origin consists of UK domestic production minus UK exports

**Figure 9:** Origins of food consumed in the UK, 2018

**Source:** DEFRA (2020).

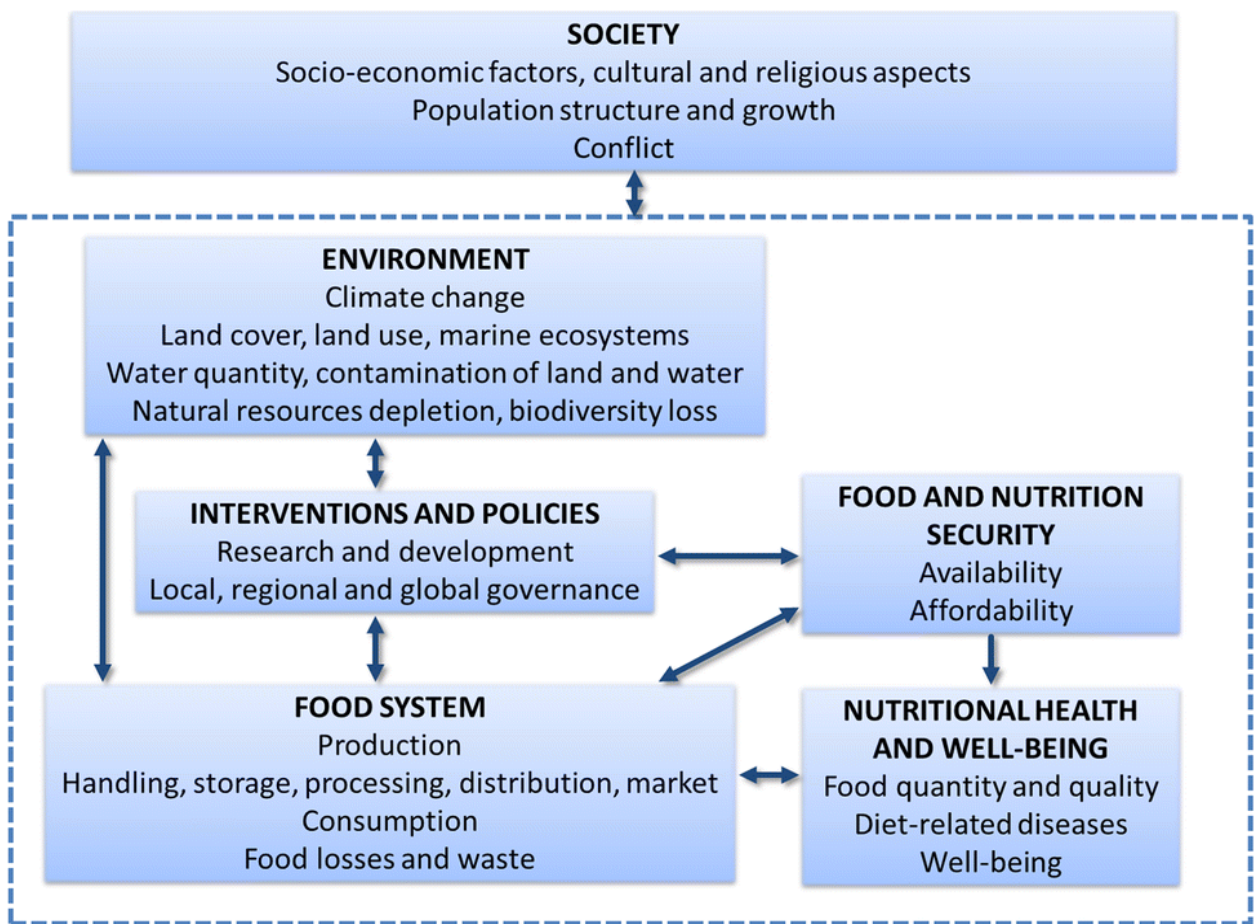


**Figure 10:** UK food trade 2019 (£ billions)

**Source:** HMRC (2020).

Critics of current UK food systems argue that, although they may have provided cheap food, they have also resulted in environmental destruction and a spiralling public health crisis (Patel, 2017; Benton, 2019; Carrington, 2019). Some researchers see the need to move away from yields per unit input as a measure of the food system's overall productivity and efficiency, to the number of consumers fed healthily and sustainably per unit of input (Cassidy *et al.*, 2013; Benton and Bailey, 2019). What we eat not only determines our health, but also the health of the planet's natural systems. The extent and trajectory of population health is entirely dependent on the vitality of nature's life-support processes (McMichael *et al.*, 2009; Beniston, 2010; McMichael, 2017; Lindgren *et al.*, 2018). It is becoming increasingly recognised that these life-supporting, natural systems are being degraded at an unprecedented rate (McMichael *et al.*, 2015; EAC, 2019; Swinburn, 2019). Rather conversely perhaps, Prescott and Logan (2019) argue that the concept is not new; rather, an extension of a concept previously understood by our ancestors but, given the historical timeline plotting the availability of fish discussed in section 4.3.3, this may only have been the case with hunter-gatherers and before settled agriculture. These consequences are, however, over and above anticipated reductions in the availability of food, which Woodward and Porter (2016) estimate could be as much as one third. The recently established RSA Food Farming and Countryside Commission are now pressing government and policymakers to ensure that food systems become sustainable before 2030. Although traditionally, public health has not addressed the wider food system and its impact on the environment (Costello *et al.*, 2011; Butler, 2016a; Springmann *et al.*, 2016a), more recent publications argue this now has to change (Bash and Donnelly, 2019; Boyer *et al.*, 2019), as food systems, environmental sustainability and population health overlap in three key areas, namely climate change, environmental damage, and antimicrobial resistance (AMR). Tjihuis *et al.* (2012), for example, see the need for benefit-risk assessment to systematically provide science-based information for public health. Lindgren *et al.* (2018) see an urgent need for policies that enable universal access to healthy food, whilst reducing the environmental impacts. Their interactions between health, food systems, environment, and society are shown in figure 11 is based on earlier work by Tuomisto *et al.* (2017).





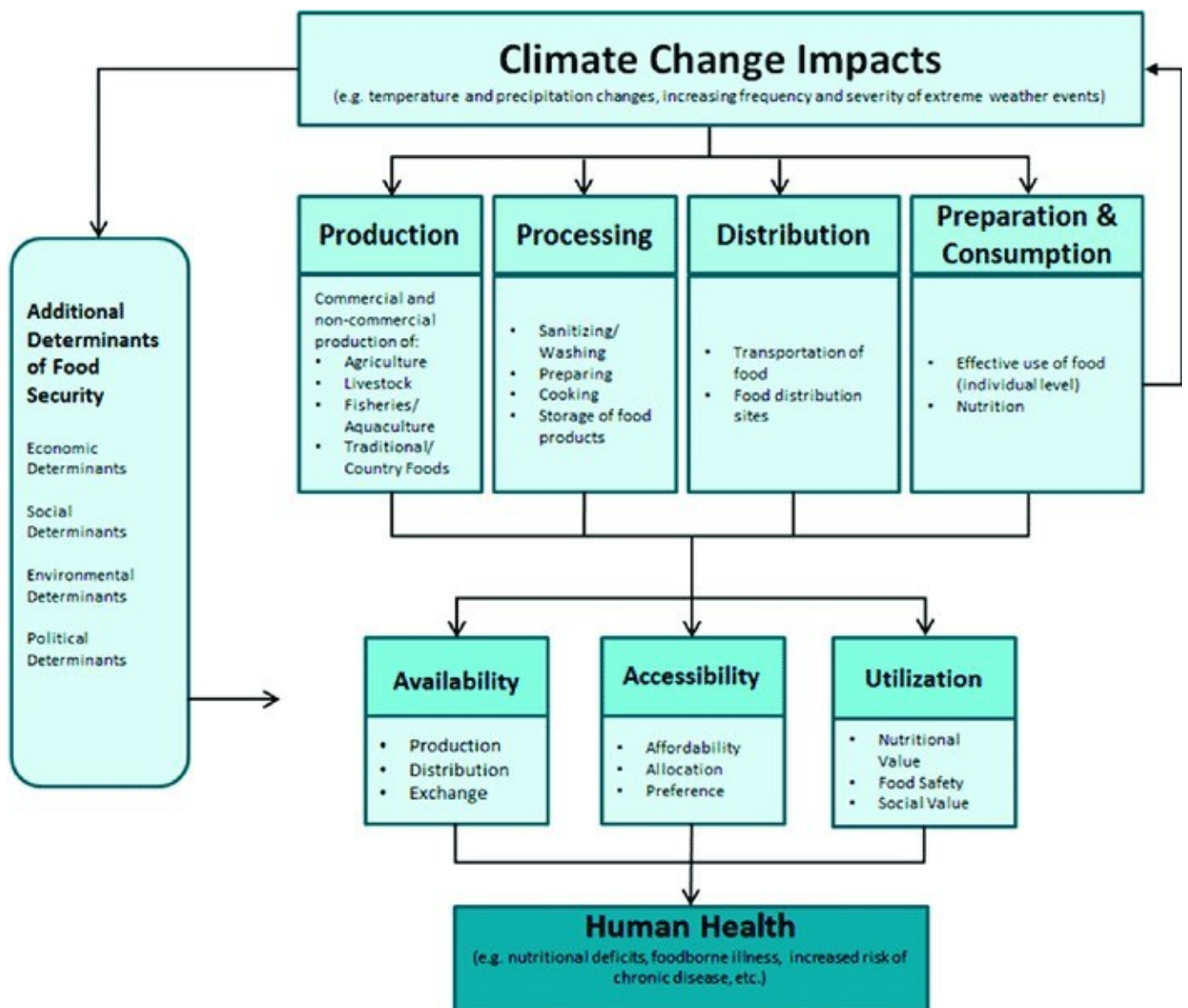
**Figure 11:** Interactions between health, food systems, environment, and society

**Source:** Lindgren *et al.* (2018), modified from Tuomisto *et al.* (2017).

### 2.3.2 The impacts of climate change on food systems

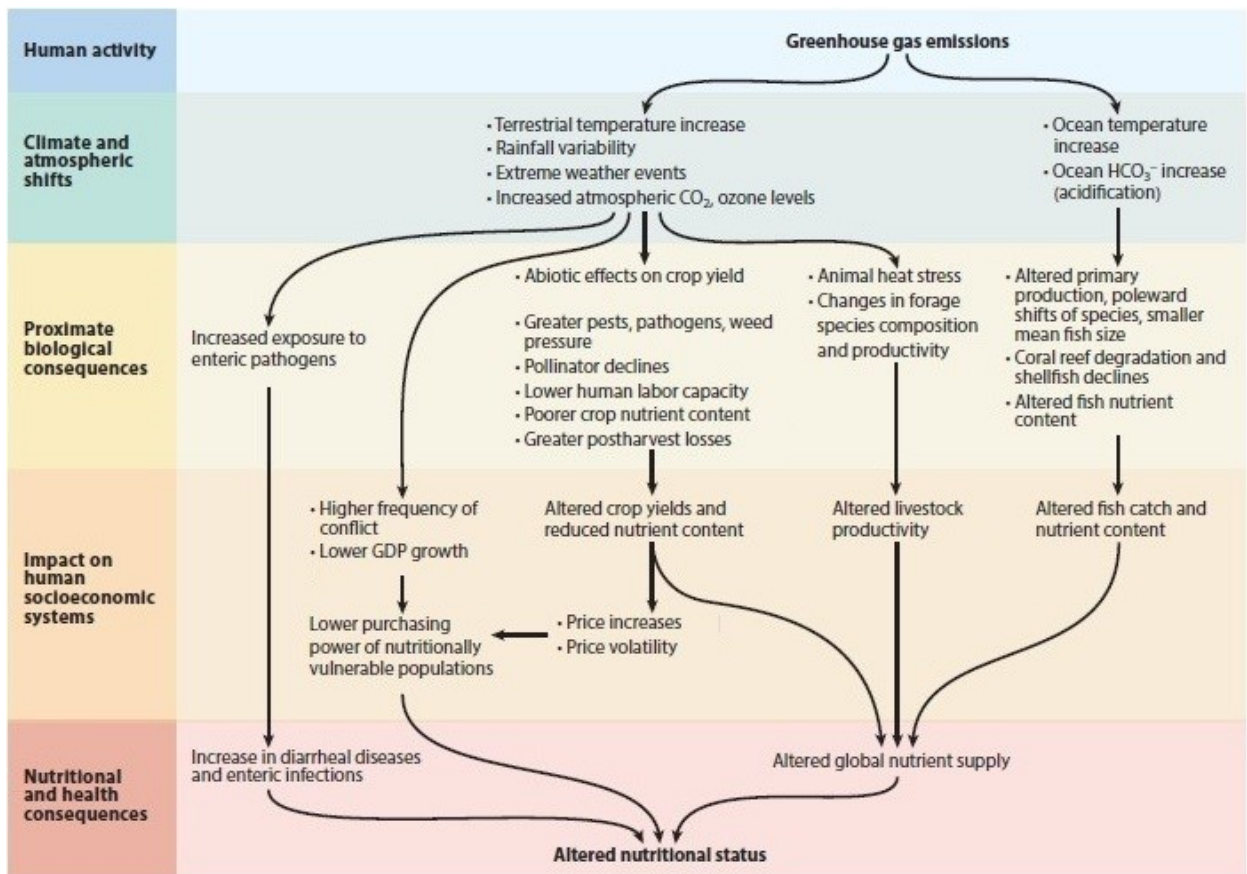
The impacts of climate change on food systems have far-reaching, global potential. Although several analytical frameworks are available for assessing the impacts of climate change on food, however, none have yet emerged as either generally accepted or comprehensive. Figure 14 shows the framework developed by the CGIAR (Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research) work, Brown (2013) argues, are one of the most effective organisations during food crises. It details how climate impacts food system activities all along the food chain. These can be mediated by resources and policies that can potentially boost adaptive capacity, protect, or even maintain inequality (Motesharrei *et al.*, 2014; MSF, 2014; Whitmee *et al.*, 2015; Bijl *et al.*, 2017; Byrd and Byrd, 2017; Scheidel, 2017; Bathiany *et al.*, 2018; King and Harrington, 2018; Oxfam, 2019; Stiglitz, 2019). Shocks, trends and seasonality also affect nutrition (Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2014; IFPRI, 2015; Cosstick, 2017; IFPRI, 2018; Santeramo *et al.*, 2018; Macdiarmid and Whybrow, 2019), especially as temperatures rise, precipitation changes, and more frequent climatic events such as flooding occur. All these factors risk being further compounded by the associated changes in pests and diseases that affect plants and animals (Gregory *et al.*, 2009; Flood, 2010).

Deutsch *et al.* (2018), for example, estimate that crop pests already consume 5 to 20 per cent of the three most important grain crops (wheat, rice, and maize) and predicts this will increase by 10 to 20 per cent for every degree Celsius of warming. A further framework is provided by Schnitter *et al.* (2018), who analyse the pathways by which climate change influences human health outcomes to enable health professionals to investigate, understand and protect against current and future health risks (see figure 12). The pathways framework provided by Myers *et al.* (2017), sees anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions impacting human nutritional status through a cascading set of biophysical and socioeconomic changes (figure 13).



**Figure 12:** Food security, climate change, and human health nexus framework

**Source:** Schnitter *et al.* (2018).



**Figure 13:** Pathways for impacts of climate change on food systems, food security, and nutrition

**Source:** adapted from Myers *et al.* (2017).

The UK government’s review into the economics of climate change was published by Stern (2006). Its main observations included the scientific evidence on climate change was already overwhelming and it was a serious, global threat, that demanded an urgent, global response. Similarly, it recommended there was still time to avoid the worst impacts of climate change, provided that strong action was taken, with immediate effect. From an economic perspective, it concluded ‘*the benefits of strong and early action far outweigh the economic costs of not acting*’. The cost of inaction would equate to at least a 5 per cent reduction in global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per annum, forever, and may ultimately rise to an annual 20 per cent reduction in GDP. The cost of action, however, was initially estimated at 1 per cent of global GDP each year. Two years after the initial report was published, Stern revised the cost of action from 1 per cent of global GDP to 2 per cent, to be able to achieve the stabilisation of atmospheric carbon levels at between 500-550ppm CO<sub>2</sub>e. In a newspaper interview at the 2013 World Economic Forum (WEF), however, Stern stated that he had under-estimated climate change. It was far worse and happening much quicker than he had originally estimated, and he now thought that the world was on track for a 4°C increase (Stewart and Elliott, 2013). A similar study in the USA (Deschenes and Greenstone, 2006) suggested large negative or positive effects on food production were unlikely, contrary to the majority

scientific consensus, although the authors acknowledged their approach might have been unreliable. More recently, Estrada *et al.* (2017) found that anthropogenic influences replaced natural influences as the major global economic impacts of climate change from 1950 onwards.

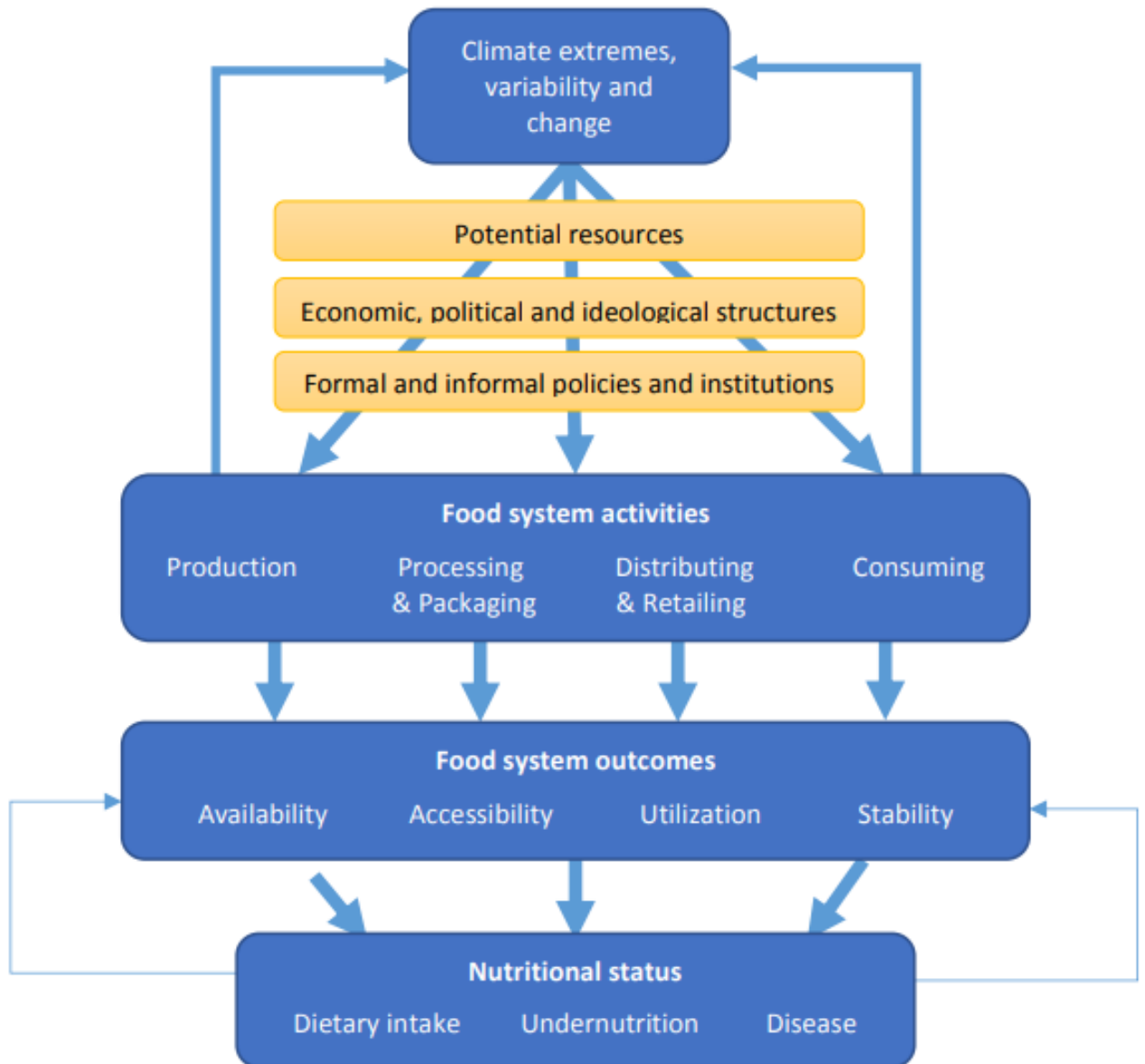
The climate impacts on food security and nutrition are listed in table 1 and on the food system and nutrition shown diagrammatically in Figure 14. These impacts include the loss of suitable land for crop production, lower yields, higher food prices, and instability of food supplies, due to an increase in extreme events. Although some positive impacts are also expected, such as longer growing seasons, reduced frost damage, and increased yields in temperate regions (Maracchi *et al.*, 2005; Smith *et al.*, 2007a; Benton, 2012; Met Office, 2014; Betts and McNeall, 2018; Food Source, 2018), any potential benefit may not be realised due to extreme weather such as droughts and heavy precipitation (Torquebiau, 2016; Easterling and Aggarwal, 2018; Kendon *et al.*, 2018). Numerous country studies predict shifting production locations as a result of climate change (Carlsson-Kanyama and González, 2009; Edame *et al.*, 2011; Kotir, 2011; Alston and Whittenbury, 2013; Dube *et al.*, 2013; Baldos and Hertel, 2014; Bandara and Cai, 2014; Fezzi *et al.*, 2014; Furman *et al.*, 2014; Thomas and Rosegrant, 2015; Cai *et al.*, 2016; Fukase and Martin, 2016; Hallegatte *et al.*, 2016; Jat *et al.*, 2016; Van Passel, 2016; Berardy and Chester, 2017; Khanal and Mishra, 2017; Kantor *et al.*, 2017; Herold *et al.*, 2018; Lopez-Ridaura *et al.*, 2018; Ogallo *et al.*, 2018; Springmann *et al.*, 2018d; Tom *et al.*, 2016; Blackstone *et al.*, 2018; Turner *et al.*, 2018; Xie *et al.*, 2018).

<b>Food security dimension</b>	<b>Consequences of climate change</b>
<b>AVAILABILITY</b> (sufficient quantity of food for consumption)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduced agricultural production in some areas locally</li> <li>• Changes in the suitability of land for crop production</li> <li>• Changes in precipitation patterns could affect the sustainability of rain-fed agriculture in some areas</li> <li>• Increases in temperature could lead to longer growing seasons in temperate regions and reduced frost damage</li> <li>• CO<sub>2</sub> fertilisation could increase yields for those crops with the physiology to benefit from CO<sub>2</sub> enrichment</li> </ul>
<b>ACCESS</b> (ability to obtain food regularly through own production or purchase)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lower yields in some areas could result in higher food prices</li> <li>• Loss of income due to potential increase in damage to agricultural production</li> </ul>
<b>STABILITY</b> (risk of losing access to resources required to consume food)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Instability of food supplies due to an increase in extreme events</li> <li>• Instability of incomes from agriculture</li> </ul>
<b>UTILISATION</b> (quality and safety of food, including nutrition aspects)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Food security and health impacts include increased malnutrition</li> <li>• Ability to utilise food might decrease where changes in climate increase disease</li> <li>• Impact on food safety due to changes in pests and water pollution</li> </ul>

**Table 1:** Climate impacts on food security and nutrition

**Source:** Met Office (2014).





**Figure 14:** Climate change impacts on the food system and nutrition

**Source:** Cramer *et al.* (2017).

### 2.3.3 Food manufacturing and retailing

The literature relating to sustainability within food businesses is mostly restricted to environmental issues (Pullman *et al.*, 2009; Fremeth and Richter, 2011; Dittrich *et al.*, 2012; SAC, 2012; Darkow *et al.*, 2015; Graham and Potter, 2015; *The Economist*, 2017b; FDF, 2017; Kopnina, 2017) or used synonymously with corporate social responsibility (CSR) (Gold *et al.*, 2000; Piacentini *et al.*, 2000; Jones *et al.*, 2005; Maloni and Brown, 2006; Manning *et al.*, 2006; Rimmington *et al.*, 2006; Fritz and Matopoulos, 2008; Pivato *et al.*, 2008; Grant Thompson, 2011; Grayson, 2011; Gold and Heikkurinen, 2013; Manning, 2013; Mueller Loose and Remaud, 2013; Bansal and DesJardine, 2014; Dyllick and Muff, 2015; Marland *et al.*, 2015;

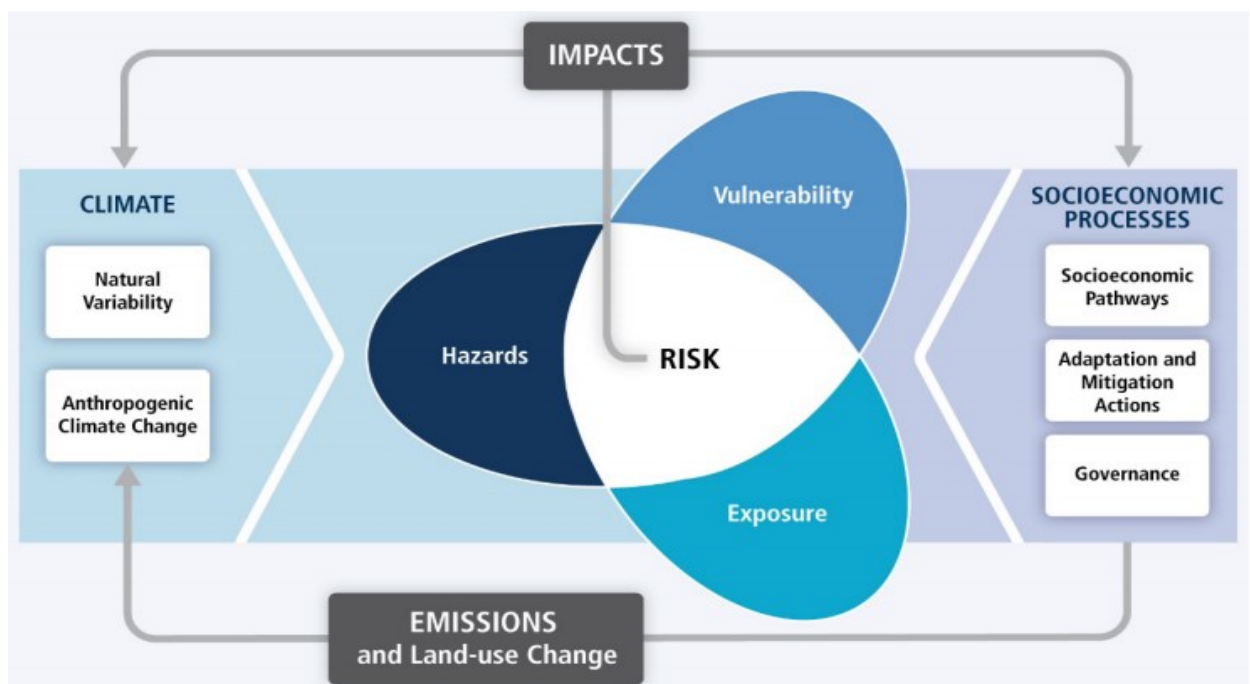
Nagyová *et al.*, 2016; Eastham *et al.*, 2017; Bhardwaj *et al.*, 2018; Morgan *et al.*, 2018; Arratia, 2019). Tollina and Vej (2012) suggest this is due, in part, to differing management competencies. The role of food retailers in enabling sustainable consumption is also seen as critical (Evans, 2012; IGD, 2014; Chkanikova and Lehner, 2015; Engel *et al.*, 2015; IGD, 2015; Bradley, 2016; Kougioumoutzi, 2016; IGD, 2018; Reisfield, 2018; IGD, 2019a). Although Iceland's disruptive campaigns on plastics and palm oil, Sainsbury's encouraging consumers to switch to plant-based diets (Arratia, 2019), and Marks & Spencer's support for Oxfam (Kuehn and McIntire, 2014) were all seen as positive examples, the majority of the literature suggest little progress has been made on sustainability from a food retail perspective. Some retailer sustainability initiatives are political rather than economic, whereas a combination of soft regulation and state regulation would be more effective for sustainability governance (Anstey, 2009; Sodano and Hingley, 2013; Li, 2014; Bush *et al.*, 2015; Chkanikova and Lehner, 2015; Higgins *et al.*, 2015; Malecki, 2018). Also of concern is the need for retailers to address the recent resurgence in slavery (Bradley, 2014; Lake *et al.*, 2015). Jones *et al.* (2014) raise concerns over the nature and scope of assurance processes, having found considerable variations and a lack of independence was reducing the reliability and credibility of the assurance process. A more recent comparison of retailer strategies by Souza-Monteiro and Hooker (2017) warns policymakers to be wary of retailer commitments to voluntary agreements, especially when the competitive environment and economic conditions are more challenging.

#### **2.4 Environmental sustainability challenges**

The increasing globalisation of food systems that has taken place over the past 4-5 decades has bridged the gap between production and consumption, with little or no consideration for environmental impacts, such as biodiversity loss, water scarcity and pollution (Phillips, 2006; Chakraborty and Newton, 2011; Foti *et al.*, 2013; SDSN, 2013; Centeno *et al.*, 2015; Khanna, 2016; Accorsi and Manzini, 2019). Policymakers must address these concerns at the same time as ensuring that there is enough food to meet population demand. Environmental changes are occurring concurrently with the additional pressures of land-use change, pollution, loss of natural ecosystems to other land uses, exploitation of natural resources and ingress by non-native species (Cornell *et al.*, 2013; Nolan *et al.*, 2018; NAP, 2019a). The primary challenge is how feed more people with less environmental impact (Nemecek *et al.*, 2016; Sala *et al.*, 2017), with the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) arguing that environmental breakdown may cause up to 25 per cent of the world's food production to be lost by 2050 (Nelleman *et al.*, 2009; Laybourn-Langton *et al.*, 2019; People & Planet, 2019). The next section explores sustainability challenges within the natural environment.

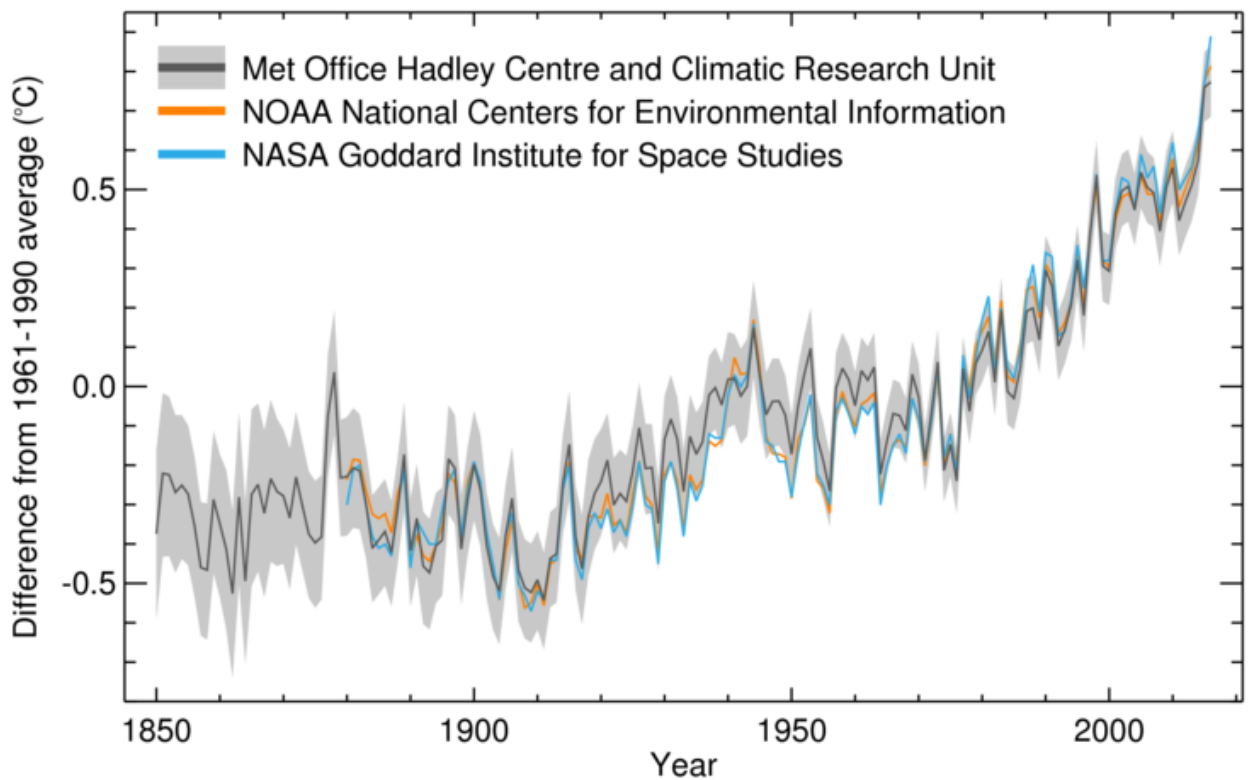
### 2.4.1 The impacts of climate change on the environment

Anthropogenic emissions of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases are a primary driver of climate change, with a direct correlation between greenhouse gas concentrations and global temperature increases. All stages within the global food system make significant contributions to climate changing GHG emissions. The impacts of climate change can be broadly categorised into climate and atmospheric, biological, socio-economic, and those affecting health and nutrition. The latest available data (May 2021) records 418.48ppm of CO<sub>2</sub>e, higher than at any time in the past 800,000 years (Zeebe *et al.*, 2016; NOAA, 2019). These gases absorb thermal infra-red radiation that would otherwise be emitted by the earth into space, and have caused the Earth's surface to warm by about 1°C since the 1850s (Manabe and Wetherald, 1967; Broecker, 1975; IPCC, 2007a; IPCC, 2007b; IPCC, 2013a; Pachauri *et al.*, 2014; Ackerman and Munitz, 2016; Tol, 2016b; Met Office, 2019).



**Figure 15:** Risk of climate-related impacts results from the interaction of climate-related hazards with the vulnerability and exposure of human and natural systems

**Source:** IPCC, 2014 cited in Met Office (2018).



**Figure 16:** Global average temperature changes 1850-2018

**Source:** Met Office (2019).

Figure 15 shows this global temperature change from 1850 to 2018, compared to the 1961-1990 average temperature. Although minor variations can be seen from year to year, the temperature records display similar characteristics with each other. The past five years have been the warmest of the last 140 years, with every decade since the 1960s being warmer than the previous one, and 2019 was 0.98°C warmer than the 1951 to 1980 mean (NASA, 2020). Arnell *et al.* (2002) had previously suggested that stabilisation at 550 ppm would be required to avoid or mitigate against the worst effects of climate change. This data shows the last 5 years as the highest on record; 19 of the 20 warmest years have occurred since 2000; and, current average temperatures are already around 1°C warmer than the pre-industrial period before 1850. In the future, however, King *et al.* (2015) warn that further temperature increases could be more than 10°C over the next few centuries.

Anthropogenic climate change has been driven since the industrial revolution by greenhouse gases, aerosol emissions, and land-use change (Met Office, 2019). As a result, higher concentrations of GHG in the atmosphere (mostly carbon dioxide, methane, and nitrous oxides) have resulted in several climate and atmospheric consequences. Firstly, is the increasing frequency of the extreme weather events and anomalies (Hansen *et al.*, 2012; Schellnhuber *et al.*, 2013; Herring *et al.*, 2014; Royal Society, 2014; Diffenbaugh *et al.*, 2017; AMS, 2018; Diffenbaugh *et al.*, 2018; Piecuch *et al.*, 2018; Ruthrof *et al.*, 2018;



Storlazzi *et al.*, 2018; Cogato *et al.*, 2019; Harvey, 2019; Met Office, 2019). The WMO (2019b) estimate that more than 90 per cent of natural disasters are related to weather. Warmer air holds more water which changes hydrological cycles, with warmer surface temperatures causing faster evaporation and ultimately rainfall amounts, ranging from more rainfall to more droughts, depending on the region (Met Office, 2017; NASA, 2019). Also, global greening, whereby higher levels of carbon dioxide and warmer temperatures promote vegetation growth where water and nutrients are available (Met Office, 2019). Zhu *et al.* (2016) estimate that 70 per cent of the observed greening effect is attributable to increased atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Figure 17 provides further detail on the observed global temperature change and modelled responses to stylised anthropogenic emission and forcing pathways from the latest IPCC report. Importantly, it also illustrates the differing probabilities associated with limiting temperature increases to the desired 1.5°C. The USA National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA, 2020) scientific agency record data on weather anomalies throughout the year (see figure 16). In addition to recording the second highest temperatures since 1880, (0.95°C above the 20<sup>th</sup> century average), they also recorded the smallest sea ice extent in 41 years and lower levels of snow cover throughout 2019.

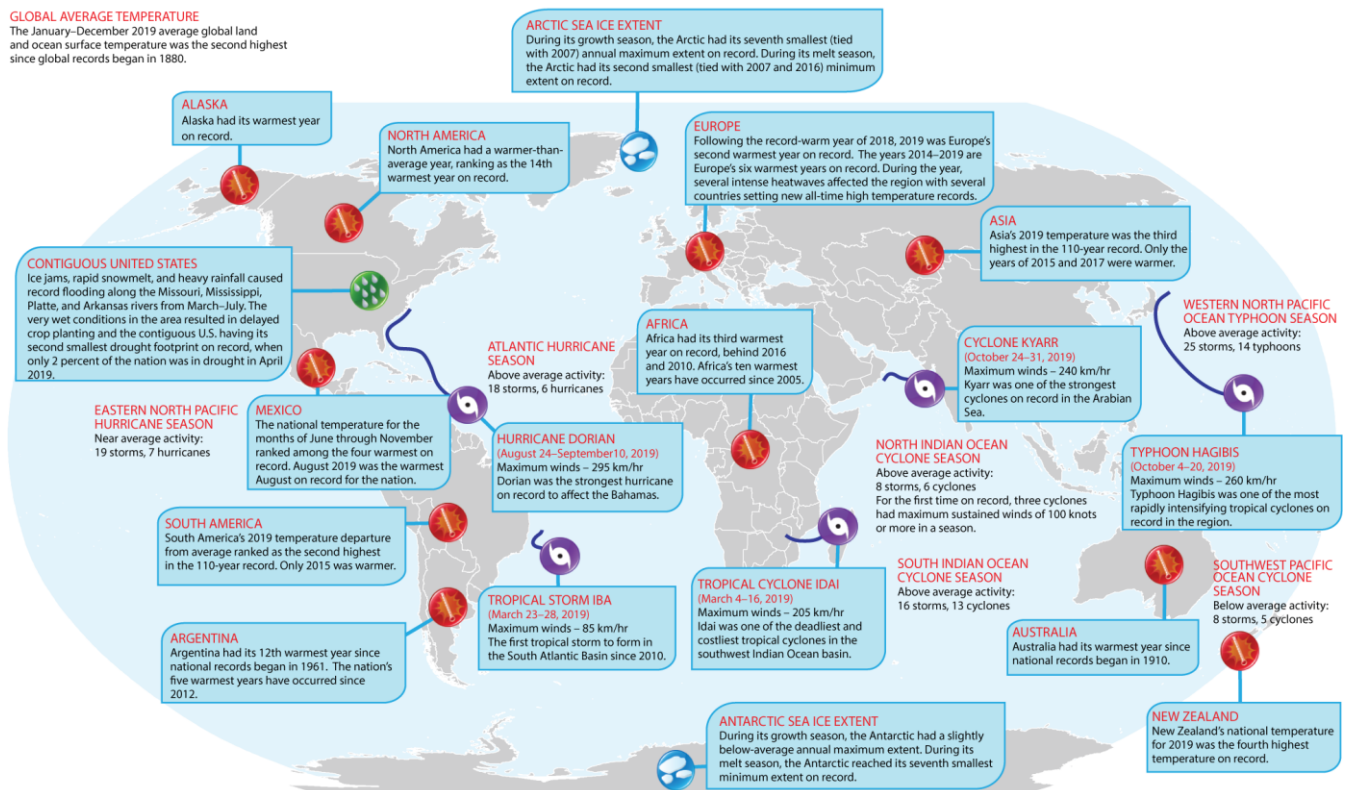
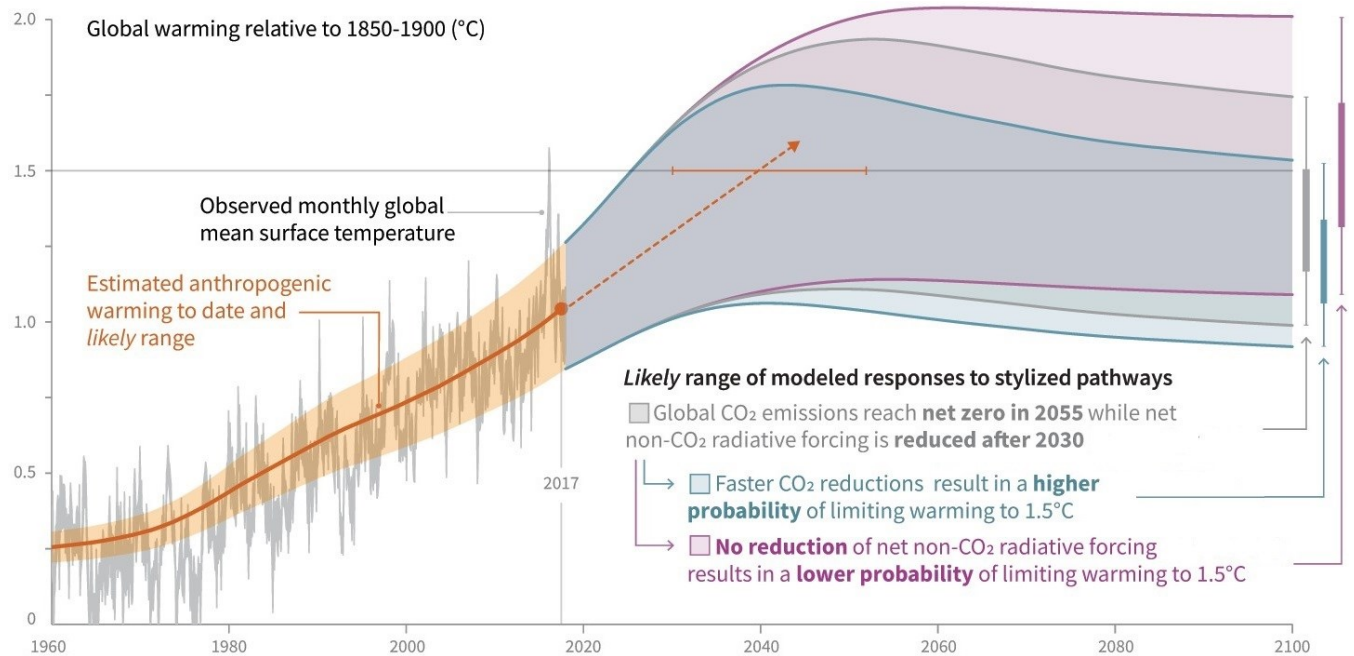


Figure 17: Selected climate anomalies and events map for 2019

Source: NOAA (2020).

Paleoclimatic evidence suggests that the current temperature increases are occurring around ten times faster than the average rate since the last ice age (NASA, 2018a and 2018b; WMO, 2019b). These increasing temperatures have numerous effects on the earth systems. They warm the lower 20km of the earth's atmosphere (Santer *et al.*, 2018) which in turn warms the land and oceans down to depths of 2km. Following a recent correction to satellite data it is now thought that the lower tropospheric atmosphere has warmed 140 per cent faster (i.e. 2.4 times larger) since 1998 than previously thought (Hausfather, 2017b; Mears and Wentz, 2017). Rising ocean temperatures, acidification, and anoxia threaten both marine life and the marine food chain (Barange and Perry, 2009; Beaudoin and Pendleton, 2012; Rossoll *et al.*, 2012; Bijma *et al.*, 2013; Lewandowska *et al.*, 2014; Malone *et al.*, 2014; Boyd *et al.*, 2015; Dutkiewicz *et al.*, 2015; Gattuso *et al.*, 2015; Molinos *et al.*, 2015; Hixson and Arts, 2016; Cheng *et al.*, 2017; Clarkson *et al.*, 2018; Schneider *et al.*, 2019). Oceans have absorbed more than 90 per cent of the energy produced by the excess GHGs (Met Office, 2019); but this carbon absorption causes ocean acidification which has reduced surface ocean pH by 0.1, increasing acidity by 26 per cent (Met Office, 2017). Warmer temperatures also impact both ice cover and glaciers, which Llovel *et al.* (2014) estimate have reduced by 13 per cent each decade between 1979 and 2016. The high albedo nature of ice means that less solar radiation is reflected once ice cover is reduced, and black carbon (from aerosols) can also further reduce the albedo effect by changing its surface colour (Hansen *et al.*, 1981; Bollmann *et al.*, 2019). Duveiller *et al.* (2018) note similar effects in the tropics, where land-use change has caused surface brightening and the consequential reduction of net radiation.



**Figure 18:** Observed global temperature change and modelled responses to stylised anthropogenic emission and forcing pathways

Observed monthly global mean surface temperature change (grey line up to 2017) and estimated anthropogenic global warming (solid orange line up to 2017, with orange shading indicating assessed likely range). Orange dashed arrow and horizontal orange error bar show respectively the central estimate and likely range of the time at which 1.5°C is reached if the current rate of warming continues. The grey plume on the right shows the likely range of warming responses, computed with a simple climate model, to a stylised pathway (hypothetical future) in which net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions decline in a straight line from 2020 to reach net zero in 2055 and net non-CO<sub>2</sub> radiative forcing increases to 2030 and then declines. The blue plume in shows the response to faster CO<sub>2</sub> emissions reductions. The purple plume shows the response to net CO<sub>2</sub> emissions declining to zero in 2055, with net non-CO<sub>2</sub> forcing remaining constant after 2030. The vertical error bars on right show the likely ranges (thin lines) and central terciles (33rd – 66th percentiles, thick lines) of the estimated distribution of warming in 2100 under these three stylised pathways.

**Source:** adapted from IPCC (2018b, p.6).

Melting ice and the thermal expansion of seawater are also causing sea levels to rise at an increasing rate (Kopp *et al.*, 2017; WMO, 2019b): from 1.7mm per annum through the 1800s to 3.3 mm per annum since the early 1990s (Met Office, 2017) and 3.7mm in 2017, the highest on record (WMO, 2019a). From 2014-2019, the rate of global mean sea-level rise averaged 5mm per year, compared to 4mm per year during 2007-2016 (WMO, 2019b). The resultant flooding has already affected more than 35 million people, with over two million people displaced by disasters linked to weather and climate events (WMO, 2019a). The

latest UK sea-level rise projections have been revised upwards meaning low-lying areas are at an increasing risk from flooding (IPCC, 2015; Tollefson, 2016; Taniguchi *et al.*, 2018; MCCIP, 2020), especially in areas such as the Fens, where highly productive farmland is either at, or even below current sea level (BBC, 2019c). Adaptation strategies will be required as sea levels are projected to carry on rising beyond 2100 (IPCC, 2015; Rippke *et al.*, 2016). Melting ice also weakens and disrupts the system of ocean currents in the Atlantic (the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation), which may also lead to a cooling of the northern hemisphere, an increased frequency of storms throughout Europe, and changes in summer rainfall (Pörtner *et al.*, 2014; Caesar *et al.*, 2018; NERC, 2018; Golledge *et al.*, 2019), although cold meltwater running off Antarctica's ice sheets may, however, dampen the rate of temperature rise (Bronsealer *et al.*, 2018). Ritchie *et al.* (2020) estimate the impacts of a potential collapse in the Atlantic Meridional Overturning Circulation on UK food production and conclude it would create a tipping point where arable production would cease. Finally, ensuring global temperatures stay below 1.5°C above pre-industrial levels will require reduced emissions from deforestation, food loss and waste, and changing human diets (Hansen *et al.*, 2010; Loboguerrero *et al.*, 2019).

Climate change also causes a wide array of biological impacts which reduce the availability of food, leading to higher food prices, lower quality, changing supply chain processes and, ultimately, impact human nutrition and health. As the climate is changing faster than many species can adapt, these become increasingly at risk of extinction, so loss of biodiversity is seen as a major risk. Many species are struggling to stay within their preferred biological space (Quinn and Collie, 2005; Kirkaldy, 2019; Morris, 2019). This is further exacerbated by phenology (i.e. changes in seasonality) which has huge potential consequences for both species and entire ecosystems (Memmott *et al.*, 2007; Hannah, 2015; FAO, 2016m; Newbold, 2018; Hayhow *et al.*, 2019). Climate change is also responsible for the introduction of non-native species into ecosystems, which Hayhow *et al.* (2019) claim has been a contributory factor in 58 per cent of known extinctions. Animals may be able to use their sensory and locomotor capacities to better adapt to additional stresses such as those posed by climate change, whereas plants will need longer to adapt their physiological tolerance i.e. behaviour, morphology and physiology (known as phenotypic plasticity) in response to the changing environment (Bradshaw, 1972; Huey *et al.*, 2002; Menzel *et al.*, 2006; Gregory *et al.*, 2009; Hegland *et al.*, 2009; Bebbler *et al.*, 2013; Chmielewski, 2013; Bebbler, 2015; Cang *et al.*, 2016; Gray and Brady, 2016; Barnard *et al.*, 2018; Fattorini *et al.*, 2018). Estrella *et al.* (2007) studied 78 crops in Germany over a 50-year period, observing that all the main events were increasing by 1.1–1.3 days per decade. By keeping the temperature increase to 1.5°C rather than 2°C, Smith *et al.* (2018) calculated that this would reduce the number of species facing a loss of their climatic range.

The transition of landscapes from natural to intensive agriculture is especially detrimental to pollinators (Ziska and George, 2004; Memmott *et al.*, 2007; Smith *et al.*, 2015; Ziska *et al.*, 2016; Kremen and Merenlender, 2018; Kunin, 2019; Soroye *et al.*, 2020). Darwin (1859) first proposed that some important species would face extinction if bees disappeared; the current '*pollination crisis*' is now understood to include a wide range of bird, bee, butterfly, moth, fly, wasp, beetle, bat and mosquito species around the globe. Bees are not only responsible for the pollination of 35 per cent of the world's crops and 90 per cent of all wild flowering plants (Klein *et al.*, 2007; Abrol, 2012; IPBES, 2016b; IPBES, 2017; IPBES, 2018c), they are also regarded as mobile biomonitors of ecosystem health (Abrol, 2012; Solazzo *et al.*, 2015; Schroter *et al.*, 2017; Soroye *et al.*, 2020). Yet the speed of this transition effectively bypasses the millions of years of pollinator evolution that bees would need to transition into a new environment (Grab *et al.*, 2019). One study found 35 per cent of bees died in the first year and 70 per cent died in the second year following changes in temperature, suggesting an urgent need to address (CaraDonna *et al.*, 2018). Such rapid change in environments also affects the waggle dance language that is critical to foraging behaviour (l'Anson Price *et al.*, 2019). Pollinators contribute around 10 per cent of the economic value of crop production globally and their contribution to human nutrition is potentially much higher. Many of the most pollinator-dependent crops are also among the richest in the micronutrients essential to human health, such as vitamin C, Lycopene, the antioxidants  $\beta$ -cryptoxanthin and  $\beta$ -tocopherol, carotenoids, calcium, fluoride, and folic acid essential to human health (Eilers *et al.*, 2011; Chaplin-Kramer *et al.*, 2014; Myers *et al.*, 2015). For this reason, Abrol (2012) suggests, the cost of conserving biodiversity far outweighs the cost of letting it degrade, with DEFRA (2018a) recently acknowledging the government's responsibility in protecting human health by nurturing the environment on which all human life depends.

The increasing use of synthetic pesticides in many food systems continue to have negative impacts on pollinator health (Miller, 2016). The neonicotinoid group of pesticides, for example, has come under intense scrutiny with the increasing use of the chemical in oilseed rape production systems (Budge *et al.*, 2015; Rundlof *et al.*, 2015; Woodcock *et al.*, 2016; Woodcock, 2017; Siviter *et al.*, 2018; Eng *et al.*, 2019). Here studies have found it reduces feeding activity and affects ovary development (Baron *et al.*, 2017), disrupts nesting behaviour, social networks, and thermoregulation (Crall *et al.*, 2018), results in the ingestion of pesticide contaminated pollen (Sánchez-Bayo and Goka, 2014), causes acquired preferences (Arce *et al.*, 2018), reduces pollination services to apples (Stanley *et al.*, 2015), and poses risks to invertebrates through waterborne exposure (Englert *et al.*, 2017). Most global honeys now contain neonicotinoids at levels known to be neuroactive (i.e. affecting or interacting directly with the nervous system) in bees (Connolly, 2017), with trace amounts also detectable in the royal jelly that queen bees produce for their off-spring (Bohme *et al.*, 2018). Précis of neonicotinoid insecticides are usefully provided by Godfray (2015), Godfray *et al.* (2015) and Koricheva (2018), providing robust statistical meta-analysis. They also raise concerns on the role of corporate chemical manufacturers and their tendency not to

publish in the peer-reviewed literature evidence that is subsequently used by the regulators. Henry *et al.* (2015) similarly recommend how differing results from laboratory and field assessments can be reconciled. Farina *et al.* (2019) recently claimed that glyphosate, the most widely used systemic herbicide in the world, causes a similar cascade of neuro-endocrine disruptions to pollinators, therefore adding to the effects from neonicotinoids. Christmann (2019) advocates the need for a Multilateral Environmental Agreement to protect pollinators, perhaps by utilising the recently established 'Coalition of the Willing on Pollinators' group of countries. At the same time, a wide range of policy initiatives have emerged, ranging from the EU ban on a number of the neonicotinoid insecticides (EC, 2018a; Greenpeace, 2018a) to local biodiversity action plans such as the one covering the Lincolnshire Fens (LBP, 2011).

Not only are social and economic activities the main driver of climate change, climate change will in turn have serious impacts on these activities (WMO, 2019a). Assessing the monetary cost of these climate impacts at different levels of warming is both complex and methodologies still seemingly controversial (Tol, 2002a; Tol, 2002b; Webster *et al.*, 2008; Watkiss *et al.*, 2016; Pidcock, 2017) although cutting the costs now would save money in the longer term (Wynn, 2014). Perhaps the greater impact, judging by the volume of publications, is the threat to food security. Evidence on the economic costs associated with increasingly volatile food prices is also abundant within the literature (Horton *et al.*, 2009; Richards and Pofahl, 2009; Gilbert and Morgan, 2010; ISU, 2011; IMF, 2012; Korale-Gedara *et al.*, 2012; Bradbear and Friel, 2013; IMF, 2014; Lloyd *et al.*, 2015; Future of Food, 2017; Global Witness, 2018). Market analysts PricewaterhouseCoopers see climate change as multiplying the existing threats to the UK, including increasingly volatile food prices that may be further amplified by protectionist reactions which will impact health, security, and global governance. They argue that existing and mature trade links (e.g. EU and USA) will be insufficient to fully insulate the UK from the impacts of climate change on food imports (PwC, 2013b). Technological fixes are also seen as being insufficient to offset the impacts of climate change; rather they need to be integrated into food system approaches to food security (Ericksen *et al.*, 2009; Becken and Mackey, 2017; JPI, 2017; Kamali *et al.*, 2017; Allwood *et al.*, 2019) and that effective governance arrangements are increasingly needed (Ericksen *et al.*, 2009; Hoffmann, 2011; McKeon, 2011; Lal, 2013; Margulis, 2013; Grafton *et al.*, 2015; McKeon, 2015a; McKeon, 2015b; Metzger, 2015; Hess *et al.*, 2017).

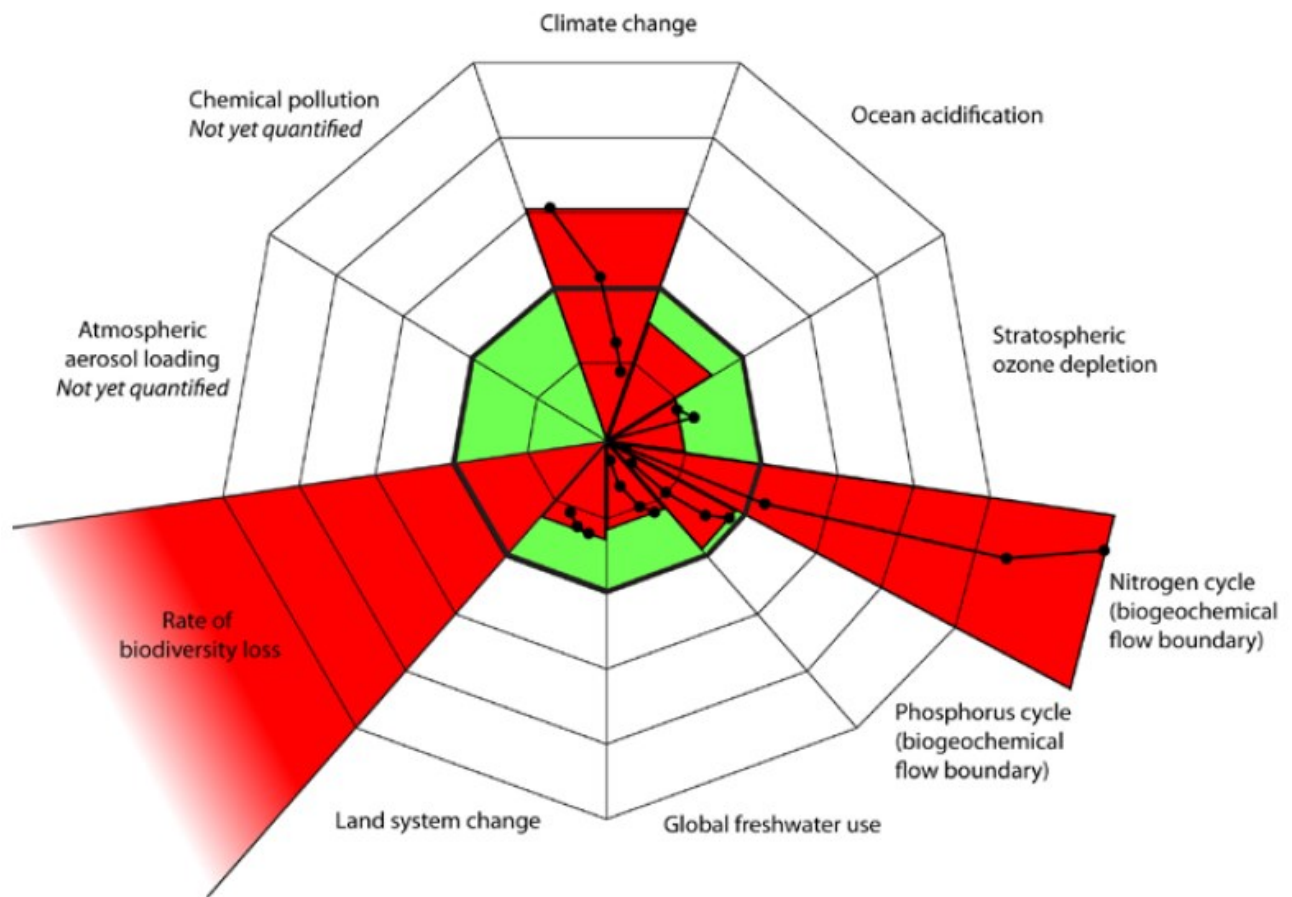
There have been several attempts by scientific communities to issue collective warnings. The first was signed by 1,700 global scientists (Kendall, 1992): the second 25 years later was initially countersigned by 15,364 scientists (Ripple *et al.*, 2017). Despite this scientific support, a very small number of subsequent publications have questioned both the effectiveness of this kind of message (Oreskes, 2004; Bull *et al.*, 2017; Johnston, 2017b; New York Times, 2018) and the view of the consensus (Lindzen, 2012; Tol, 2016a; Bull *et al.*, 2017; Varotsos and Efstathiou, 2019). Several subsequent attempts have been made to quantify

the consensus within the scientific literature (Cook *et al.*, 2013; Powell, 2016; Cook *et al.*, 2016; Powell, 2017), with the later studies finding the consensus had risen to 100 per cent. This consensus is critical in influencing public perception (Rahmstorf, 2004; Oreskes and Conway, 2010; Hamilton *et al.*, 2012; Brysse *et al.*, 2013; Hamilton and Stampone, 2013; Hawkins *et al.*, 2014; van der Linden *et al.*, 2015; *Nature*, 2016a; Medhaug *et al.*, 2017; Moon *et al.*, 2018; American Psychological Association, 2019; Marlon *et al.*, 2019; Maslin, 2019).

#### 2.4.2 The planetary boundaries of Earth system processes

The planetary boundaries concept is centred around the premise that Earth system processes have environmental boundaries. By mapping each of the earth's planetary boundaries, the concept identifies where countries are using resources far beyond their planetary boundaries and indicates 'safe operating space for humanity' (Lenton and Schellnhuber, 2007; Ozkan *et al.*, 2008; Lenton *et al.*, 2008; Jay and Marmot, 2009; Rockström *et al.*, 2009a; Rockström *et al.*, 2009b; Lang and Ingram, 2013; Lenton and Ciscar, 2013; Poppy *et al.*, 2014b; Levin and Rich, 2017; McGrath, 2018a; Lenton *et al.*, 2019).

The premise of Rockström's original model in figure 19 was that humanity had already exceeded three earth-system processes vital for survival (namely through climate change, biodiversity loss, and nitrogen use). The status of atmospheric aerosol loading and chemical pollution had yet to be quantitatively determined; the remaining five earth-system processes were either fast approaching or needed to be pulled back to their respective planetary boundaries. They argue that transgressing just one of these planetary boundaries through anthropogenic pollution would be enough to cause deleterious or even catastrophic environmental change, even if global temperatures were prevented from exceeding a 2°C increase. The Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) subsequently argued biospheric integrity is an apex boundary that is further breached when any of the other boundaries are impacted (Gladek *et al.*, 2016). Rockström further recommended that CO<sub>2</sub> levels were kept below 350 parts per million (ppm), even though the recorded level at that time had already reached 387ppm (Hansen *et al.*, 2008; Zeebe *et al.*, 2016). Solomon *et al.* (2009) predict CO<sub>2</sub> levels will peak around 450–600ppm within the century, with temperature changes becoming irreversible, whereas Morison and Matthews (2016) predict 540ppm by 2050 and as much as 760ppm by 2080.



**Figure 19:** The original 2009 version of the planetary boundaries

*The original version estimated seven planetary boundaries, with the inner green shaded areas representing the safe operating space and the extent of the red areas an estimation of the 2009 position. The points indicate the estimated time trajectory since 1950.*

**Source:** Rockström *et al.* (2009b).

Reflecting upon unsustainable consumption levels that are far beyond the means of the planetary systems, Assadourian (2010) estimates that if all nations consumed like the Americans, the capacity of the earth would be limited to 1.4 billion (20 per cent of the current world population). Vásquez *et al.* (2018) similarly estimates that human mass has grown by 146 per cent since 1976. The UN (2011) argue that planetary boundaries are being stretched to a perilous degree (UN, 2011), whereas the IPCC (2019c) warn that anthropogenic emissions will persist for centuries to millennia. Many studies focus on the unsustainability of growth: Pelletier and Tyedmers (2010) and Steffen *et al.* (2015b) argue that reining-in growth should be a policy priority to remain within the planetary limits; Kosoy *et al.* (2012) similarly that sustainability will not be achieved with policies based upon neo-classical economics; and Running (2012) contends the original projections made about the depletion of global resources in the 1972 publication *'Limits to Growth'* (Meadows *et al.*, 1972) have turned out to be remarkably accurate. Their latest missive (Ulrich von Weizsäcker and Wijkman, 2018) warns of a philosophical crisis, cites the warning from Pope



Francis that humanity’s common home is in danger, and calls for a new enlightenment to redress the balance between humans, the environment, markets, and the state. Steffen *et al.* (2011) also contend that effective planetary stewardship is urgently needed to avoid a hostile trajectory.



**Figure 20:** The 2015 status of the planetary boundaries

*The updated planetary boundaries concept showing the nine planetary boundaries which humanity requires to survive and thrive. This version differs by providing both updates to the original data and by providing uncertainty (yellow shaded areas). It now shows the actual planetary boundary as a darker, inner circle with the grey areas indicating boundaries that cannot yet be quantified.*

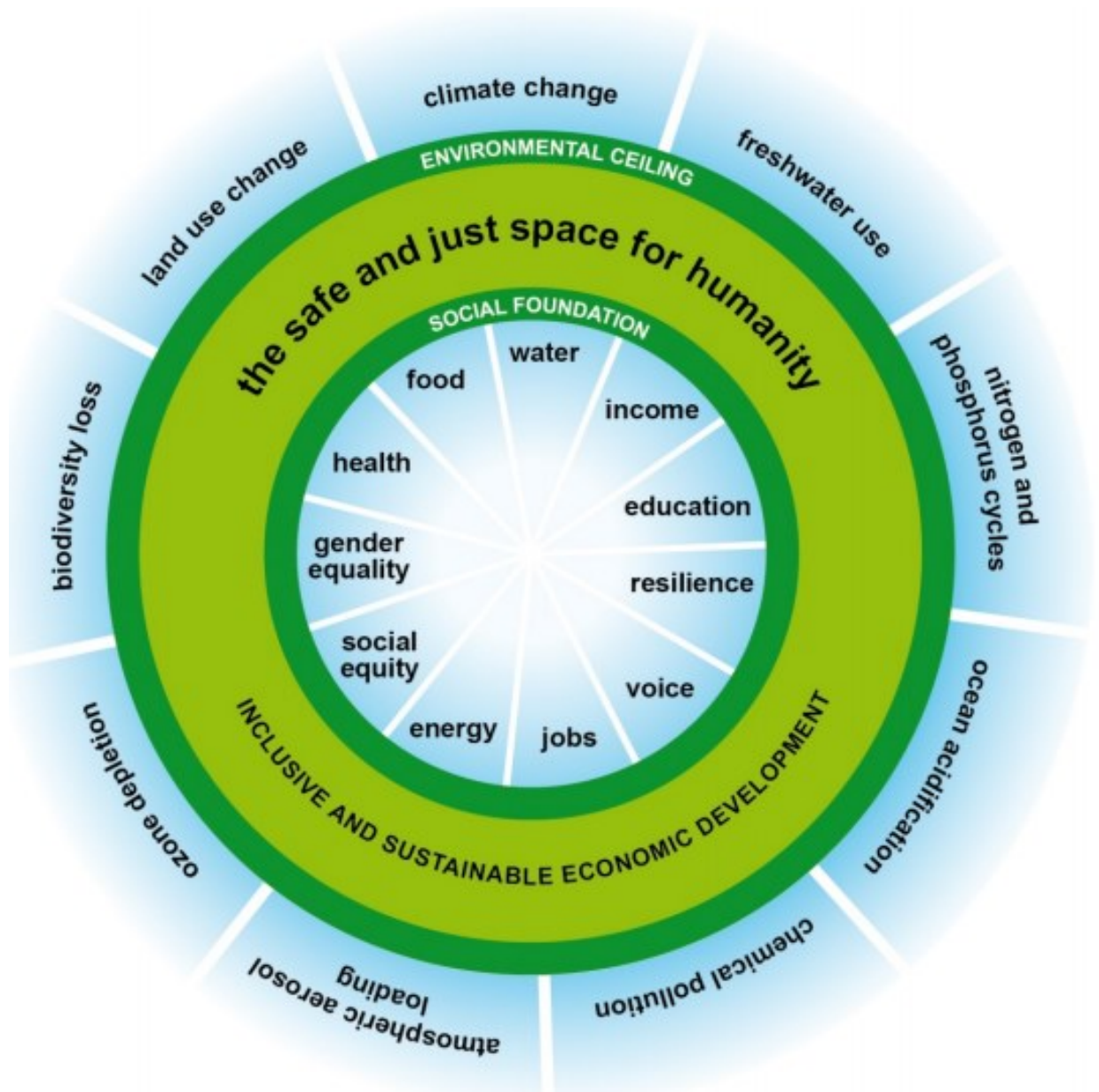
**Source:** Steffen *et al.* (2015a).

The sheer scale of climate change makes it one of the most difficult variables to model (Meehl *et al.*, 2000; Pierce *et al.*, 2009; Wise, 2013; Bodirsky *et al.*, 2015; Ewert *et al.*, 2015; McMichael *et al.*, 2015; Allen and Prospero, 2016; Dawson *et al.*, 2016; Gohar and Cashman, 2016; Krapivin *et al.*, 2017). The planetary boundaries model has enabled the extensive research of quantitative global limits. Various iterations of the model now exist with a second, major update being published in 2015 (figure 20). A common theme throughout this later literature is the need for urgency in response, and the corresponding warnings of the likely consequences of inaction: McMichael (2017) calls for an extraordinary civilisational response to the world's 'mega-problem'; Poppy and Baverstock (2019) suggest placing human health at the centre of a redesigned food system to ensure planetary health. Likewise, other studies argue for a planetary health infrastructure approach to safeguard the health of future generations (Brooks, 2007; Whitmee *et al.*, 2015; Fraser *et al.*, 2016; Horton, 2017a; Horton, 2017b; Bhunnoo, 2018; Béné *et al.*, 2019; Lade *et al.*, 2019; Moysés and Soares, 2019; Watts *et al.*, 2019).

The limited availability and environmental consequences of using chemical fertilisers (Humes, 2016; Barling, 2017; Muhammed *et al.*, 2018), especially nitrogen (Tilman, 1999; Bouwman *et al.*, 2002; Erismann *et al.*, 2008; Cordell *et al.*, 2009; Woods *et al.*, 2010; Cordell *et al.*, 2011; Davidson, 2012; EC, 2014; Elbehri, 2015; Zhang *et al.*, 2015; Fagodiya *et al.*, 2017; Houlton *et al.*, 2019) and phosphorus (Rhodes, 2013; Scherer and Pfister, 2015; Oszvald *et al.*, 2018; Macintosh *et al.*, 2019; Vaccari *et al.*, 2019) are a particular concern, with recommendations for the development of alternative technologies (Schösler and de Boer, 2018).

Collectively, these issues raise questions regarding the seemingly impossible tasks of meeting the SDG goals, or the Paris Climate Agreement, without radical transformation of the global food system (Rockström *et al.*, 2016). There are already concerns about the distinct lack of actual progress in cutting emissions (Friedlingstein *et al.*, 2014; Briggs *et al.*, 2015). The interconnections between diet and the planetary boundaries receives similar scrutiny. This research, however, has yet to make significant global impacts in relation to resource use and emissions by national and sub-national governments and businesses (Häyhä *et al.*, 2016). Mitigation strategies and new integrated governance structures are both required, as is private and public investment (Smith *et al.*, 2008; Antle and Capalbo, 2010; Costello *et al.*, 2011; Beddington *et al.*, 2012; Wickramasinghe *et al.*, 2013; Clapp *et al.*, 2015a; Clapp *et al.*, 2015b; MacLeod *et al.*, 2015; Tubiello *et al.*, 2015; Mohammed *et al.*, 2017; Niles *et al.*, 2017; Scherer and Verburg, 2017; Niles *et al.*, 2018; van Vuuren *et al.*, 2018). Finally, Raworth (2012) extends the planetary boundary concept to the individual, based on governmental priorities identified at the UN Rio conference, arguing that the critical earth systems needed to ensure human well-being are dependent upon individual access to resources such as food, water, health and energy. This can be seen in figure 21, where the social boundaries lie within the planetary boundaries. Although some human biological thresholds can be

determined by suitable metrics, others will require judgements on what constitutes an acceptable human outcome. The aim with this model is to identify a space whereby all of humanity can thrive, albeit whether applied at local, national, regional, or global levels.



**Figure 21:** Social and planetary boundaries

**Source:** Raworth (2012).

### 2.4.3 Biodiversity degradation and the risk of ecosystem collapse

The continued decline in biodiversity is a consequence of human actions. The sheer scale of these actions is difficult to contextualise: the WWF argue that the food system is the largest contributor to biodiversity depletion (Gladek *et al.*, 2016); Bar-On *et al.* (2018) estimates that total human biomass is now greater than the biomass of all other species combined. This scale of human activity and its current behaviour has resulted in too much carbon passing into existing ecosystems (ASC, 2013; NAP, 2015; McCarty *et al.*, 2017; Committee on Climate Change, 2018d; DeWeerd, 2018). This is further exacerbated by anthropogenic climate change impacting the biodiversity of critical ecosystems, especially the air, water, and food essential to human well-being (Jackson *et al.*, 2007; Kumar *et al.*, 2010; Power, 2010; Calvet-Mir *et al.*, 2012; Carrington, 2018d; Pennekamp *et al.*, 2018; Biodiversity International, 2019; NAP, 2019a; Osborn, 2019; GEO, 2020). Although atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> increases plant growth rates, it also reduces the nutritional value of plants for insects, which ultimately affects the whole food chain (Hesman, 2009). Research also indicates that it reduces the nutritional value of food (Craine *et al.*, 2018), reduces the quality of grazing pastures (Ehleringer *et al.*, 2002), reduces the ability of trees to absorb carbon (Bastin *et al.*, 2019), and, increases the range and severity of disease threats (Evans *et al.*, 2008; Evans *et al.*, 2009; Fischer *et al.*, 2012; Guis *et al.*, 2012; Nilsson *et al.*, 2013; Parkinson *et al.*, 2014). As global temperatures continue upwards, additional carbon stores held within the frozen permafrost and peat lands will add very significant volumes of additional carbon into existing ecosystems (Tubiello *et al.*, 2016; Anthony *et al.*, 2018; Zalasiewicz *et al.*, 2018; Neumann *et al.*, 2019; Wild *et al.*, 2019; WMO, 2019a). Further, specific agricultural ecosystems are associated with human food, the grasslands used for livestock, bioenergy, and even pharmaceuticals (Altieri, 1995). In addition to changes in phenology, climate change is also responsible for the introduction of non-native species into ecosystems, which Hayhow *et al.* (2019) claim has been a contributory factor in 58 per cent of known extinctions. One recent study assesses the ecological, economic, and societal impacts of both terrestrial and marine species arriving in the UK over the past 10 years (Pettorelli *et al.*, 2019). The results find 55 new species have arrived within the decade, examples of which are shown in table 2, and calls for the speedy identification of new arrivals and more research on the threats to biodiversity that they cause. The continued expansion of human activities puts the ecosystem services that regulate the quality of air and water, provide nutrient cycling and decomposition, soil maintenance, hydrological services including flood control and, of course, pollination are under increasing risk (Ehrlich, 1995; Rocha *et al.*, 2015; Abbas *et al.*, 2017). IPBES (2018) describe the current position as an '*ecological crisis*': the historical competition for land caused by population growth, trade, dietary preference, inappropriate environmental use, and ineffective socio-economic-political policies are causing a rapid decline in biodiversity that, potentially, poses a greater problem than even climate change (Walther *et al.*, 2002; Thuiller, 2007; Smith *et al.*, 2010; Smith *et al.*, 2013; Van Passel *et al.*, 2016; DeFries and Nagendra, 2017; Carrington, 2018d; Green *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, globalised

supply chains invariably mean that the losses incurred are often far removed from where the products are consumed (Green *et al.*, 2019).

<i>Impacts</i>	<i>Location of colonisation</i>	<i>Species</i>
Crop pests	Manchester	Oak borer beetle ( <i>Agrilus biguttatus</i> )
	London	Box tree moth ( <i>Cydalima perspectalis</i> )
Biofouling	NW Scotland	Leathery sea squirt ( <i>Styela clava</i> )
Disease spread	Essex	Ornate cow tick ( <i>Dermacentor reticulatus</i> )
Risk of injury	Leicester	Tube-web spider ( <i>Segestria florentina</i> )
	NW Scotland	Leathery sea squirt ( <i>Styela clava</i> )
Increased fish stocks	Dorset	Bluefin tuna ( <i>Thunnus thynnus</i> )
	Lundy Island	Jack fish ( <i>Seriola rivoliana</i> )
	Islay	Red mullet ( <i>Mullus surmuletus</i> )
Increased local tourism	Scotland	Little egret ( <i>Egretta garzetta</i> )
	Nottinghamshire	European bee-eater ( <i>Merops apiaster</i> )
	Kent	Purple heron ( <i>Ardea purpurea</i> )
Expansion of threatened wildlife alters planning permissions and farming and fisheries practices	Shetland	Nathusius pipistrelle bat ( <i>Pipistrellus nathusii</i> )
	Kent	Purple heron ( <i>Ardea purpurea</i> )
	Dorset	Bluefin tuna ( <i>Thunnus thynnus</i> )

**Table 2:** Examples of species arriving in the UK due to climate change (2008-2018) with reported impacts associated with these species

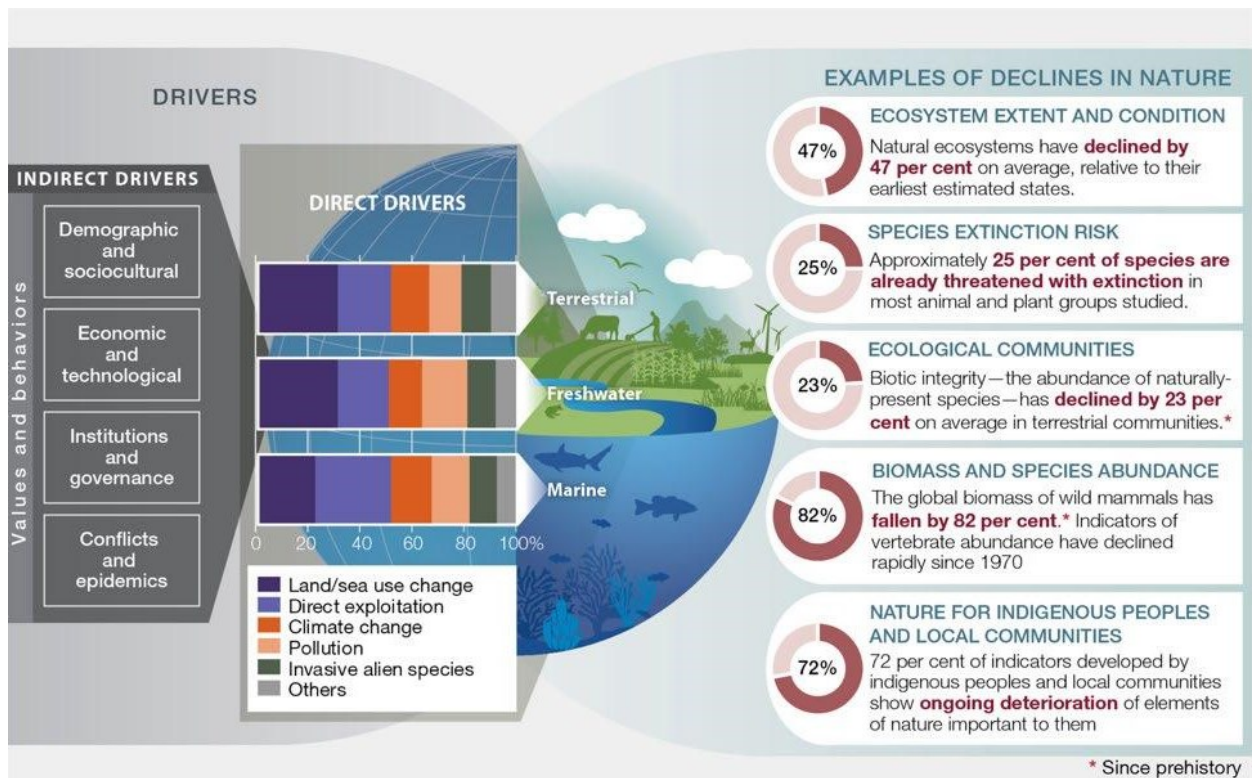
**Source:** Pettorelli *et al.* (2019).

In the UK, one comprehensive study of 400 species concluded that both intensive land management practices and climate change were negatively impacting biodiversity (Burns *et al.*, 2016). These land management practices are correlated with farm size: as farms get larger, crop diversity declines and post-harvest loss increases (Samberg *et al.*, 2016; Trudge, 2016; Hannah *et al.*, 2017; Herrero *et al.*, 2017; Mann, 2017; Cui *et al.*, 2018; Lesiv *et al.*, 2018; Niles and Salerno, 2018; Rai *et al.*, 2018; Ricciardi *et al.*, 2018; Smythe, 2018). Reporting on the Intergovernmental Science-Policy Platform on Biodiversity and Ecosystem Services (IPBES) modelling of future biofuel demand and the potentially catastrophic prediction of a 10-30 fold increase in land use (up to 1.8bn acres) that this would cause, Adorno (2018) claims such a policy would threaten ecosystems to such an extent that humans would also be at risk. The IPBES recommend '*combating land degradation and restoring degraded land is an urgent priority to*

*protect the biodiversity and ecosystem services vital to all life on Earth and to ensure human well-being'* (IPBES, 2018b, p.10). Species decline is further confirmed by the 2019 'State of Nature' report (Gentle, 2019; Hayhow *et al.*, 2019) that finds UK wildlife, after being decimated by centuries of persecution and threats, has continued to decline since the 1970s. Key indicator species all show similar trajectories: birds have declined by 44 million (National Science Foundation, 2016; RSPB, 2016; Chambers, 2019; DEFRA, 2019m); insects show similar declines across a number of studies (Bale *et al.*, 2002; Sharma, 2010; Sharma 2012; Selvaraj *et al.*, 2013; Tilman *et al.*, 2017; Goulson, 2019; Kunin, 2019; Sánchez-Bayo and Wyckhuys, 2019) and marine species face similar risks. Similar parallels are also made to the last ice age, when temperature increases of 4°C dramatically altered ecosystems and caused the extinction of many larger species (Grove, 2004; Nolan *et al.*, 2018). Several estimates put current extinction rates at between 1,000 to 10,000 times higher than natural background rates of extinction (de Vos *et al.*, 2014; Ceballos *et al.*, 2015; Ceballos *et al.*, 2017; Cumming and Peterson, 2017; Carrington, 2018d; Singh and Abhilash, 2018). Finally, should the current trajectory be maintained, this could reduce biodiversity by a further 11 per cent by 2040, with up to one million species being at risk of extinction (Speers *et al.*, 2016; Sulpis *et al.*, 2018; Egli *et al.*, 2018; Díaz, 2019).

Biodiversity degradation is also detrimental to health, by promoting infectious diseases, increasing the risk from natural disasters, and impacting both nutrition and food security (Duffy *et al.*, 2017; Horton, 2017a). Hixson and Arts (2016) predict reductions in omega-3 production within aquatic ecosystems, caused by climate change, which has the potential to further cascade through the world's ecosystems. Hoegh-Guldberg *et al.* (2007) expect further ocean acidification with global temperature increases over 2°C; CO<sub>2</sub> levels above 500ppm will push coral reef ecosystems to functional collapse, with inevitable consequences on fisheries and humans. One study into freshwater diversity reports an 81 per cent reduction in species diversity (Bakker and Stvenning, 2018). The understanding of the mutual co-dependency between biodiversity and health is, however, largely lacking in both the health community and the public as well. To address this lack of understanding and to ensure an ability to respond to these sustainability challenges, Balgopal *et al.* (2014) call for training to improve the climate literacy of all future leaders. The IPBES (2019) also warn about the main declines in nature that is being caused by the increasing levels of degradation (figure 22). Other impacts on biodiversity include trade (Hertwich and Peters, 2009; TEEB, 2015; Green *et al.*, 2019). Whilst acknowledging that humanity is currently failing to change the trajectory of environmental destruction caused by economic expansion and the consumption of natural resources, zu Ermgassen and Yoh (2019) believe that the best hope for the future will be a combination of consumer awareness of their lifestyle choices on the environment, meat substitution, and rewilding.

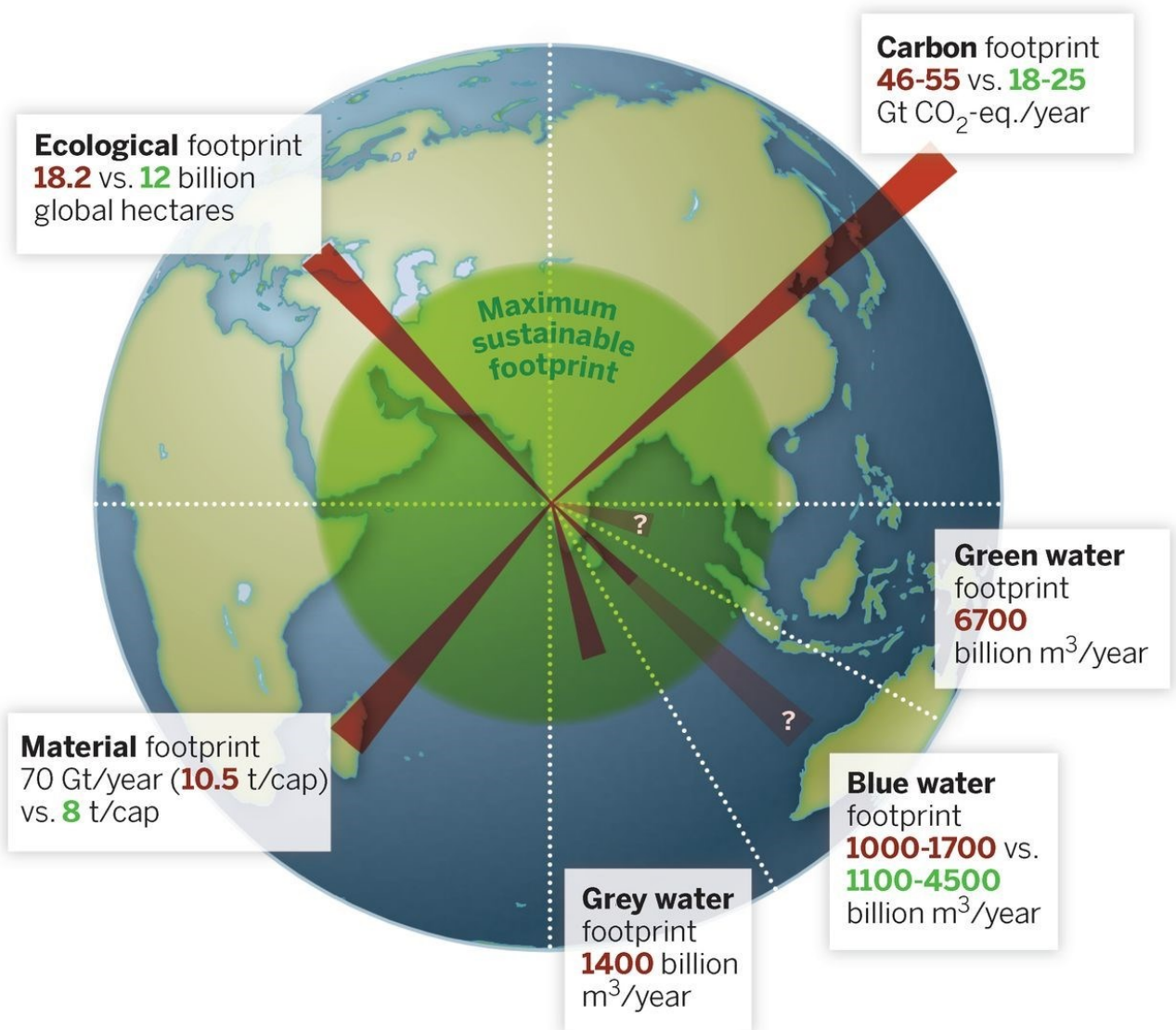




**Figure 22:** Examples of global declines in nature, emphasizing declines in biodiversity, which have been and are being caused by direct and indirect drivers of change

The direct drivers (including changes in land and sea use, direct exploitation of organisms, climate change, pollution, and the invasion of alien species) result from an array of underlying societal causes such as demographic (e.g. human population dynamics), sociocultural (e.g. consumption patterns), economic (e.g. trade), technological, or relating to institutions, governance, conflicts and epidemics. These indirect drivers are underpinned by societal values and behaviours. The colour bands represent the estimated relative global impact of direct drivers based on the literature. Land and sea use change and direct exploitation account for more than 50 per cent of the global impact on land. The circles illustrate the magnitude of the negative human impacts on a diverse selection of aspects of nature over a range of different time scales based on a global synthesis of indicators.

**Source:** IPBES (2019, p.25).



**Figure 23:** Estimated global footprints versus their suggested maximum sustainable level

The inner green shaded circle represents the maximum sustainable footprint. Red bars represent estimates of the current level of each global footprint. The red numbers indicate actual footprint compared to the green numbers which indicate maximum sustainable capacity (where known).

**Source:** adapted from Hoekstra and Wiedmann (2014).

The current literature identifies many gaps within the knowledge, recommends a wide range of solutions, and priorities for future food policy. The central assumptions are both that the existing human footprint is not sustainable and that urgent, transformative changes are required to ensure future sustainability. Hoekstra and Wiedmann (2014) provide estimates of current global footprints for carbon, ecology, material, and water, comparing each to its maximum sustainable level, where known (figure 23) to quantify the sustainability, efficiency, and equity of resource consumption. Water is sub-divided into the virtual water categories, with green water being held within soils, blue water in the oceans, and grey water



being used water from households. This overview is useful when considering individual food systems, such as Spanish strawberry growing in Seville, which currently uses half of the green water from nearby, wildlife-rich wetlands (Leahy, 2015), or viticulture increasing irrigation needs as future temperatures increase (Hannah *et al.*, 2013).

The research on the biodiversity of ecosystems also has implications for future food policy (Parsons and Hawkes, 2019a). Generic recommendations include the need to conserve, restore and use the natural environment in a sustainable way (Wilson, 1985; Jackson *et al.*, 2007; State of Nature Partnership, 2019), and especially to meet the SDGs (Díaz, 2019; Pahl-Wostl, 2019). This includes maintaining global temperature-increases to 1.5°C rather than 2°C as per the 2015 Paris Agreement, which will significantly reduce the number of species facing changes to their current habitat range, thereby improving environmental and human health (deClerck *et al.*, 2017; Smith *et al.*, 2018b). Many studies see an urgent need to appraise existing policies and evaluate any unintended consequences to the environment (Lim *et al.*, 2017), such as with the Common Agricultural Policy of the EU (CAP) (Barkham, 2018). Smith *et al.* (2018a) suggest that demand-reducing policies offer the greatest potential but can take longer to realise, so these will be needed in conjunction with quicker, supply-driven policies. Further papers call for the reformulation of food systems, so they can feed people, maintain the environment, and provide financial payments for ecosystem services (Biodiversity International, 2016; Schroter *et al.*, 2017; Bell *et al.*, 2018). Some see this policy transformation as being critical for future food security (Lenné and Wood, 2011; Burlingame and Dernini, 2012; Bommarco *et al.*, 2018). Chaudhary and Kastner (2016) find biodiversity losses were 83 per cent for domestically consumed products, compared to 17 per cent for exported products. In addition, developing countries with higher GDPs were major net importers of the biodiversity impacts, especially for crops with disproportionately high biodiversity impacts such as palm oil, sugar, and coffee. Stewart and Lal (2017) evaluate cereal grains, which provide 50 per cent of the world's calories, and raise serious concerns in relation to the environmental impacts of the nitrogen and phosphorus fertilisers applied every year. In the case of nitrogen, for example, Erisman *et al.* (2008) suggest 83 per cent is lost to the environment, resulting in water and air pollution, GHG levels and the loss of biodiversity. Alders and Knock (2017) suggest biodiversity could be better achieved by creating nutrition-sensitive landscapes, to help facilitate consumer understanding of food systems. Numerous studies recommend improving sustainability metrics and performance assessment, such as environmental impact assessments (Pullman *et al.*, 2009; ITC, 2012; Allen *et al.*, 2014; Knight *et al.*, 2014; Motesharrei *et al.*, 2014; Horwitz, 2015; IUFN, 2015; Pasqualino *et al.*, 2015; Sala *et al.*, 2015a; Sala *et al.*, 2015b; Chaplin-Kramer *et al.*, 2017; Hubeau *et al.*, 2017; Norgaard, 2017; Allen *et al.*, 2018; Hamlin *et al.*, 2018; Olawumi and Chan, 2018; Alison *et al.*, 2019; Crenna *et al.*, 2019; JNCC, 2019; NAP, 2019c) and improved modelling techniques (Hirsch *et al.*, 2018). Other studies evaluate the potential for new agricultural technologies such as conservation agriculture (Lim *et al.*, 2017; Hirsch *et al.*, 2018; Michler *et al.*, 2019), conservation

partnerships (Monahan and Theobald, 2018), key directions for further research (Pretty *et al.*, 2010; Little, 2013), and the need to identify and conserve those crop wild relatives most at risk from climate change (Jarvis *et al.*, 2008; Bharucha and Pretty, 2010). The JNCC (2019), the public body that advises the UK Government on nature conservation, provides regular updates on achieving the 20 Aichi biodiversity targets for the 1993 multilateral treaty '*Convention on Biological Diversity*'. Their latest assessment of UK performance is mixed: good progress in some areas but much more required in others; areas that are particularly challenging include pollution, vulnerable ecosystems, the conservation status of species, and restoring degraded ecosystems; with the fall in funding for biodiversity making it increasingly difficult to assess. This status reinforces the persistent calls for a more robust, scientific approach to ecological protection (Watson *et al.*, 2015). Sutherland *et al.* (2013) suggest that ecology will increasingly need to merge related disciplines to enable a new ecological synthesis that transcends traditional boundaries to emerge. Further studies see genetic manipulation as a way of ensuring future food security (Swaminathan, 2012; Frewer *et al.*, 2013; Klümper and Qaim, 2014; Ortiz, 2015; Schnurr, 2015; Yin-Ling, 2015; NAP, 2016; NRC, 2016; NAP, 2017a; NAP, 2017b), although warnings regarding the private ownership and control over future genetic resources is acknowledged (Zerbe, 2015; Cookson, 2017; Cowling *et al.*, 2019). Despite the claims of robust evidence in favour, consumer perceptions remain a significant differentiating factor in many markets (Stauss, 2008; FAO, 2010d; Dunwell, 2014; Lynas, 2018; McFadden and Malone, 2018). Others advocate agro-ecological food production as essential in maintaining genetic diversity and ensuring food security (Trace, 2014).

#### **2.4.4 Environmental pollution from food production**

As global diets continue to shift towards foods associated with higher environmental impacts, further and rapid increases in environmental degradation are projected. Food production and consumption substantially contributes to pollution at every stage in the food system; exposure to such pollutants can also bring about the demise and ultimate extinction of species. Carson (1962) provides one of the early warnings about human poisoning of the biosphere through the bioaccumulation of chemicals. It can take years for the environmental impacts of such chemicals to become apparent and there is no regulation or monitoring in many markets, including the UK, to limit pesticides across whole landscapes (Lee *et al.*, 2002; Antelo *et al.*, 2012; Carrington, 2017a; Milner and Boyd, 2017; Keulemans *et al.*, 2019). This is also of concern to human health. For example, von Ehrenstein *et al.* (2019) found a correlation between an offspring's risk of autism spectrum disorder following prenatal exposure to ambient pesticides within 2000 metres of their mother's residence during pregnancy. The glyphosate herbicide also presents a direct risk to human health as a carcinogen, with the Zhang *et al.* (2019) meta-analysis finding a compelling link between exposures and increased risk of non-hodgkin lymphoma. Bøhn and Millstone (2019) estimate 2,500-10,000 tonnes of glyphosate enter global food chains every year. An example of the extreme level

of damage pollutants cause can currently be seen in the marine environment off the west coast of Scotland. This is home to one of the last remaining, resident pods of Orcas (killer whales). A post-mortem on one that died in 2016 showed 950mg/kg of polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) stored in its body fat. Not only is this one of the highest levels ever recorded (McKain, 2017), it is more than 100 times over the 9mg/kg threshold beyond which damage to health is known to occur; well above the 150mg/kg that are known to affect reproductive health, which probably explains why no new orcas have been born into this pod in the last quarter of a century. This present inability to breed, is seen a strong evidence that the pod is doomed to extinction (Carrington, 2017c; McKain, 2017; WWF, 2017g). Other UK species of Cetaceans including dolphins and porpoise are thought to be at similar risk from the consequences of PCBs. PCBs were once widely used in electrical products, hydraulic fluids, and lubricants prior to being banned in 1979, following concerns over their risks to human health. They are highly toxic, carcinogenic, endocrine disruptors with half-lives of 10-15 years that can bioaccumulate in living organisms. Some estimates suggest more than 50 per cent of the PCBs produced by companies like Monsanto remain in the environment, following many years of improper disposal. They can also be transported over long distances and bind strongly to soil and sediment, remaining in the environment as a pollutant and entering the food chain where they are commonly found in fish, meat, and dairy products. Further evidence that pollution may cause future, global extinctions includes over 600 species of sea creature ingesting plastic in the deepest parts of the ocean (Jambeck *et al.*, 2015; Embury-Dennis, 2017; Foot Print, 2018). Around 80 per cent of the increase in the amount of plastic entering the ocean is from waste generated on land (Jambeck *et al.*, 2015; Tearfund, 2019) with predictions that the global quantity of plastic in the ocean will double to 250m tons by 2025 (McKinsey, 2015, Verdict, 2018).

#### 2.4.5 Soil degradation

Soil degradation is posing an increasing risk both to food security and the environment. Defined as the physical, chemical and biological decline in soil quality, it can be caused by a multitude of factors depending on what humanity does to it; examples would include the loss of organic matter, falling fertility, structural problems, erosion, excessive flooding changing salinity, acidity or alkalinity, and the effects of toxic pollutants. Much of the research considers the impact on current locations of food production. Al-Amin and Ahmed (2016) suggest the impacts of climate change cannot be measured on a global basis because of regional differences, between countries, or even within countries. A number of studies call for the need for further research into technological solutions to improve resource-use efficiency of soils (Lal, 2004; Pimentel, 2006; Montgomery, 2007; Meacham, 2013; Stockmann *et al.*, 2013; Melchett, 2014; Chappell *et al.*, 2015; Gregory *et al.*, 2015; Sustainable Food Trust, 2015; Verma and Jaiswal, 2015; Folberth *et al.*, 2016; Rojas *et al.*, 2016; Gregory, 2017; Hermann *et al.*, 2017; Vidal Legaz *et al.*, 2017; Chen and Mueller, 2018; Rumpel *et al.*, 2018; Green 2019; Union of Concerned Scientists, 2019), land-use,

genotypes and biotechnology (Pimentel, 2006, Royal Society, 2009; Global Panel, 2015; Gregory and George, 2011; Quaye, 2012; Schonwald, 2012; Klümper and Qaim, 2014; Anderson *et al.*, 2016; Moomaw and Tzachor, 2017; Gao, 2018; Mattick, 2018; South, 2018; Tyczewska *et al.*, 2018), soil macroporosity (Hirmas *et al.*, 2018), and soil organic carbon (Chabbi *et al.*, 2017; Johnston, 2017; IFOAM, 2018).

Similar studies have attempted to identify strategic research priorities for the UK food system, which has become increasingly dependent on overseas countries for food over the past two decades (Maye and Kirwan, 2013). During this time, the land area required has increased by 23 per cent with 70 per cent of the associated cropland and 64 per cent of the GHG emissions being in countries such as South America, the EU and south-east Asia (de Ruiter *et al.*, 2016). Although the historical argument weighs the economic development benefits of such trade against the environmental damage (Brooks and Place, 2019), there are growing concerns about the future consequences in terms of the UK's own food security and consumption patterns. As food crises in the UK is no longer unthinkable (Ambler-Edwards *et al.*, 2009), the UK cannot risk taking food supply for granted (Maye and Kirwan, 2013). An earlier DEFRA funded study (Parry *et al.*, 2005) identified the need for policymakers to adapt to a more uncertain world where the risk of crop failure is more common. The 2008 Climate Change Act set a target reduction in the total annual GHG emissions by 80 per cent by 2050 (Wickramasinghe *et al.*, 2013). Ingram *et al.* (2013) suggest UK research priorities should include impacts on availability of raw materials, improving sustainability without expanding the social and environmental footprint overseas, and how food prices or other financial mechanisms can account for the environmental and health externalities in food. The UK Adaptation Sub-Committee (ASC, 2016) has identified six key areas of climate change risk that need to be managed as a priority. Specifically, the ASC is calling for further research to offset the risks to domestic and international food production, and to understand and manage the potential for long term shifts in global food production.

#### **2.4.6 Land scarcity and degradation**

Land degradation is the decline in the productive capacity of land and the associated diminution of its potential uses or value. Land is always fixed in terms of availability and often faces competing uses depending on the prevailing economic need. In terms of food production, the carrying capacity of land ultimately determines the number of calories available to feed a given population. Land use and degradation are determined by a complex interaction between numerous policy variables, such as soil erosion, degrees of land degradation, population demands, and ecological fragility. Global human activity currently exploits more than 70 per cent of the Earth's ice-free land surface (IPCC, 2019a), with agriculture accounting for 38 per cent of this land use; around 12 per cent is used for growing crops and a further 26 per cent used for pastures (Smith *et al.*, 2008; FCRN, 2019h). One early study found that 23 per cent of all

agricultural and forest lands had become degraded since the mid-1900s (Easterling and Apps, 2005). Global croplands, pastures, plantations, and urban areas have all expanded in recent decades, accompanied by large increases in energy, water, and fertiliser consumption (Lotze-Campen *et al.*, 2008; Cohen and Garrett, 2009; Tacoli *et al.*, 2013; Garnett, 2015; Mathijs, 2015; Morgan, 2015; Ravetz, 2015; Goldstein *et al.*, 2016; Roseland and Spiliotopoulou, 2016; SFC, 2016; Thyberg and Tonjes, 2016; Alberti *et al.*, 2017; Chapman *et al.*, 2017; Hamman *et al.*, 2017; Tapia *et al.*, 2017; Tefft *et al.*, 2017; Capulto, 2018; Desmit *et al.*, 2018; Diekmann *et al.*, 2018; Krayenhoff *et al.*, 2018; Vieira *et al.*, 2018; Wei *et al.*, 2018; Zimmermann *et al.*, 2018; Goodman and Minner, 2019; Lohrberg, 2019; Nie *et al.*, 2019; Urban Food Futures, 2019; Diekmann *et al.*, 2020). Intense urbanisation in Europe between 1990 and 2006, for example, is estimated to have reduced food production capacity by more than the equivalent of six million tonnes of wheat (Gardi *et al.*, 2015). High-resolution satellite imagery from the European Space Agency has revealed 22 per cent of the Earth's habitable surface has changed, primarily from forest to agriculture, since 1992 (Nowosad *et al.*, 2018). The result is loss in biodiversity and habitat, meaning many species of wildlife are forced to share land with food production (Lambin and Meyfroidt, 2011; Lambin, 2012; Committee on Climate Change, 2018d; FCRN, 2019e) and increasing rates of marine eutrophication (Döll and Schmied, 2012; Bailey *et al.*, 2015b; Sinha *et al.*, 2017; Desmit *et al.*, 2018; Poore and Nemecek, 2018; Sinha *et al.*, 2019). Humans have traditionally only been able to produce as much food as the local ecology and soil conditions would support. These crops removed nutrients which had to be replenished if production was to be sustained. More recent production techniques have used fossil fuels for fertilisers to maintain soil productivity. Mechanisation has enabled major land-use change, but it has come at a cost. In the Lincolnshire Fens, for example, the drained peat-land soils are disappearing at a rate of 2cm a year (Krzywoszynska, 2019), with the UK Adaptation Sub-Committee warning they could disappear altogether within a few decades (Krebs, 2013). Historically, when phenomena were not particularly well understood, myths arose to provide aetiologies that explained the origins of various social or natural phenomena. In the Lincolnshire Fens, even the bog spirit '*Tiddy Mun's*' control over the waters and therefore the curse of pestilence, a prominent feature in local folklore throughout the 1600-1800 period (Balfour, 1891), has more recently been specifically linked to the ecological consequences of land reclamation (Horn, 1987). Similar ecological problems are reflected globally, with press reports (Arsenault, 2014; Monbiot, 2018) and politicians (van der Zee, 2017) claiming that soils are at risk of being pushed beyond their capacity to recover, although the scientific basis that underpin these claims is less clear (Wong, 2019).

The amount of land needed to feed a population is a factor of both the production system and consumption patterns. In the UK, food production accounts for around 75 per cent of land use (Khan and Powell, 2012; DEFRA, 2013a). This amount does not, however, include food imports. The current level of food imports means the UK is heavily dependent on land overseas (RSA FFCC, 2019b), which Tukker *et al.* (2014) estimate requires 5.6 times the UK's own land area. Furthermore, more affluent, meat-based diets

require more than three times as much land compared to vegetarian diets (Gerbens-Leenes *et al.*, 2002) and six times more land than cereal-based diets (Gerbens-Leenes and Nonhebel, 2003), making consumption pattern more important than population growth (Grunert, 2011). One study suggests that the combined land requirement and carbon footprint of the most efficient protein sources is up to 100 times smaller than those of the least efficient (Nijdam *et al.*, 2012). Such studies have helped galvanise the case for population level dietary change strategies in addition to the need for sustainable management practices (Peters *et al.*, 2016). Population level dietary change can contribute substantially to meeting future food needs, though ongoing agricultural research and sustainable management practices are still needed to assure sufficient production levels.

Land-use change is arguably the most prevalent factor driving ecosystems, with food production seen as having the most severe ecosystem consequences. The process of land-use change, either directly (e.g. through deforestation) or indirectly (e.g. biofuels production leading to increased food production elsewhere) risks triggering feedbacks, increasing stresses, and further threatening vulnerable communities. Although changes in land use have enabled humans to appropriate an increasing share of the planet's resources, such changes have often undermined the capacity of ecosystems to sustain food production, maintain fresh water and forest resources, regulate climate and air quality, and regulate flooding. Tilman *et al.* (2011) suggest an additional 2.5 billion acres of land will need to be cleared globally by 2050, if current rates of demand are maintained. Land use and land-use change is also an underlying factor for a range of infectious disease risks (Shah *et al.*, 2018). The challenge is managing trade-offs between immediate human needs and maintaining the capacity of the biosphere, to provide goods and services in the long-term. Land is both a critical natural asset and an increasingly important global issue, where worldwide changes to forests, farmlands, waterways, and air are being driven by the need to provide food and water (Foley *et al.*, 2005; Johnson *et al.*, 2016; Committee on Climate Change, 2018d). Changes in land use cause further changes to the climate (IPCC, 2019a; Krzywoszynska, 2019), with estimates for land-use change ranging from 12.5 per cent (Houghton *et al.*, 2012) to 25 per cent (Searchinger *et al.*, 2018) of anthropogenic carbon emissions, although the Tubiello *et al.* (2015) analysis suggests that it reduced from 29 per cent in the 1990s to 21 per cent in 2010. Land-use change can also cause a rapid loss of carbon (Ostle *et al.*, 2009; Cantarello *et al.*, 2011). The drivers of land-use change are often separated geographically; they may be across international borders; or be the result of differing national policy regimes. Meyfroidt *et al.* (2013) provides a useful analysis of the various research frontiers that provide an understanding of land-use change (see appendix 8.13). While such changes have enabled humans to take over an increasing share of the planet's resources, they have also undermined the capacity of ecosystems that sustain food production, maintain resources, regulate the climate, and ensure air quality (Ellis *et al.*, 2013; Hong *et al.*, 2020). The challenge for humanity remains one of reducing nutrient

emissions by changing land use without compromising food security (Hijmans *et al.*, 2005; Zabel *et al.*, 2014; Webb *et al.*, 2017; Desmit *et al.*, 2018; Met Office, 2018a).

Future changes in land use, particularly the need for more land for food production and bioenergy, will have considerable impacts on the carbon stored within UK soils. The aim of such transformations is to reduce emissions from UK land use by 64 per cent (to 21mtCO<sub>2</sub>e by 2050), without reducing food production or increasing food imports. It is seen as essential if the UK is to meet its SDGs and Paris Agreement commitments whilst becoming a Net Zero economy by 2050 (Vlek *et al.*, 2017; Met Office, 2018f; Murphy *et al.*, 2018; Brown *et al.*, 2019; Committee on Climate Change, 2020). Non-governmental organisations (NGOs), such as the National Trust also advocate changes to agricultural policy support and moves to rapidly decarbonise the economy (via the *'Clean Growth Strategy'*) as an opportunity to incorporate land-based carbon reductions (Francis and Elliott, 2019). Some studies suggest that societal collapse can be avoided if the rate of environmental depletion can be reduced to a sustainable and equitable level (Motesharrei *et al.*, 2014). Leal Filho and Consorte McCrea (2019, p. 126), however, cite the words of the environmental campaigner, Gus Speth, who used to believe that science would be able to address global problems such as biodiversity loss, ecosystem collapse and climate change within 30 years. He now thinks he was wrong: *'the top environmental problems are selfishness, greed and apathy, and to deal with those we need a spiritual and cultural transformation. And we scientists don't know how to do that'*.

The way land is managed is also critical in the mitigation of climate change and the natural sequestering and storing of carbon (Smith *et al.*, 2008; Friel *et al.*, 2009; Almås *et al.*, 2012; FAO, 2014a; King *et al.*, 2015; EPA, 2016; Mann, 2017; Dass *et al.*, 2018; Lal, 2018; Poulton *et al.*, 2018). As with food production, climate change poses an additional layer of risk to the ones already facing land management. Peat land, for example, contributes to climate change mitigation and adaptation in many ways, including carbon sequestration and storage, biodiversity conservation, and water regime and quality regulation (Fresco, 2009; Fleischwirtschaft International, 2017; Conservation Evidence, 2019; WMO, 2019a). Ostle *et al.* (2009) estimate over 95 per cent of the UK's land carbon stock is located in soils which are subject to a range of land uses and global changes. Previous land use policies are described as fragmented, incomplete, and unsustainable (Foresight, 2010; Committee on Climate Change, 2018d). The UK is also regarded as one of the world's more nature-depleted nations (Hayhow *et al.*, 2016; RSA FFCC, 2019b). These policies have been a complex amalgam of national, EU and international policies that have prioritised food production over other land use services; the overall net effect has resulted in low innovation, slow productivity growth, wide-ranging performance, a loss of soil fertility through intensive monocultural practices, biodiversity losses, loss of peat lands, and unproductive forests. Furthermore, should the existing food production practices continue, the Committee on Climate Change (2018d) predict that the available land will not be able to support the ecosystem needs or maintain food production. They

advocate new policies to promote transformational land use and deliver climate mitigation and adaptation objectives; earlier calls for a more strategic approach in the UK to land use planning (Foresight, 2010) have again been reiterated by the RSA FFCC (2019b) and is frequently advocated within the academic literature (Ostle *et al.*, 2009; Martinez-Harms *et al.*, 2017; Webb *et al.*, 2017; Mayer *et al.*, 2018; Searchinger *et al.*, 2018; van Reenen, 2019).

Much of the focus within the literature is on reversing deleterious land-management practices or revising techniques to bring about positive interventions. Although sustainable agricultural production systems are still seen as being difficult to define (German *et al.*, 2017), those that include ecologically-based management strategies and habitat creation would appear to have the greatest impact (Matson *et al.*, 1997; Smith *et al.*, 2007; Burns *et al.*, 2016; Biodiversity International, 2017; Liu *et al.*, 2019) and are seen by Frison *et al.* (2011) as essential in responding to the impacts of climate change. Further studies evaluate the agronomic and ecological performance of organic production systems (Foster *et al.*, 2006; Connor, 2008; de Ponti *et al.*, 2012; Doberman, 2012; Niggli, 2014; Barbieri *et al.*, 2017a; Barbieri *et al.*, 2017b; Karlsson and Roos, 2019). Organic food production is generally perceived as being more sustainable (IFOAM, 2017; Billen *et al.*, 2018), especially as it enhances organic matter and thereby improves soil quality (IFOAM, 2018), with less risk to the environment, albeit with lower yields. The literature remains, however, rather inconclusive. Despite lower yields, these require 34 – 53 per cent less energy and 97 per cent less pesticide inputs (Mäder *et al.*, 2002; Fuller *et al.*, 2005; Leifeld, 2012; Seufert *et al.*, 2012; EU, 2016b; Muller *et al.*, 2017; Seufert and Ramankutty, 2017; Adhikari *et al.*, 2018; Smith *et al.*, 2019) and with additional benefits to both soil fertility and biodiversity. Leifeld (2012), however, found that soil organic matter was not used more efficiently within organic systems and Seufert *et al.* (2012) found yields were only 13 per cent lower, when best organic practice was used. An earlier study by Stanhill (1990) found for milk production and beans, yields were higher in organic systems over the four-year study. Other benefits include reduced exposure to organophosphate, pyrethroid, and neonicotinoid pesticide residues in humans (Hertz-Picciotto *et al.*, 2018; Hyland *et al.*, 2019), albeit contrary to the EU agency European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) view on the probability of exposure to pesticide residue levels being low, and the biodiversity of concentrating organic farms into hotspots (Gabriel *et al.*, 2013; EFSA, 2019). Connor (2018), however, sees serious flaws in some of the methodological approaches previously used, arguing instead that transformation to organic methods would require land use conversion to legumes for biological nitrogen fixation, thereby further reducing the land available for food production. Liu *et al.* (2018) advocate the potential for plants to fix their own nitrogen from air, as 78 per cent of the earth's atmosphere is made of nitrogen. Currently, this is inhibited by the enzyme 'nitrogenase' which is unable to function alongside oxygen. Rather than being able to feed all the future world's population organically, Connor (2018) suggests 50 per cent as a more realistic guide. More recently, Smith *et al.* (2019) estimates the greenhouse gas impacts of converting UK food production to organic methods.



Although they found that direct GHG emissions were lower with organic production, there were major shortfalls in most food products and when imports were used to compensate for shortfalls in domestic supply, net emissions were greater.

The need to change and improve land management policies to support future sustainable production is also considered. Here the predominant issues include alternative farming techniques, such as wildlife-friendly farming and land sparing (Balmford *et al.*, 2005; Ewers *et al.*, 2009), no-till farming (Davin *et al.*, 2014), agroecology (Lamine and Dawson, 2018; Poux and Aubert, 2018; HLPE, 2019; Perfecto *et al.*, 2019), improved land-use practices (Helms, 1977; Wijedasa *et al.*, 2016; Smith *et al.* 2013; Kremen and Merenlender, 2018; Ramankutty *et al.*, 2018; Mace, 2019), land ownership (Wildlife Conservation Society, 2018), the potential benefits from rewilding and habitat restoration (Monbiot, 2015; Houses of Parliament, 2016; Bakker and Svenning, 2018; Barkham, 2018; Cromsigt *et al.*, 2018; Lewis, 2019), and the differing land requirements for western diets compared to no-meat alternatives (Gerbens-Leenes and Nonhebel, 2003; Hamblin *et al.*, 2018). Given the seriousness with which biodiversity loss is associated, Lanz *et al.* (2018) call for the immediate cessation of all further land-use changes, until further research has been done. Some studies advocate adherence to the 'half-earth' principle, whereby half of the earth's surface is committed to conservation schemes by 2050 (Wilson, 2016; Dinerstein *et al.*, 2017). Roe *et al.* (2019) also argue that positive land-use change is unparalleled in terms of mitigating against climate change, but calls for immediate action now to keep temperature increases below 1.5°C.

Agricultural intensification, whereby more inputs are used to increase production, is also scrutinised within the literature (Matson *et al.*, 1997; Tilman *et al.*, 2002; The Royal Society, 2009; Godfray and Garnett, 2014; Pretty, 2018; Mahon *et al.*, 2017; Rockström *et al.*, 2017a; Rockström *et al.*, 2017b; McKay *et al.*, 2018; Rasmussen *et al.*, 2018; Scherer *et al.*, 2018; Weltin *et al.*, 2018a; Weltin *et al.*, 2018b; Ickowitz *et al.*, 2019) and, the intensification of agriculture through the use of modern technologies such as drones, predictive weather analytics, precision agriculture, other innovations, and economies of scale to maximise production (Balmford *et al.*, 2005; Garnett and Godfray, 2012; Davis, 2013; Firbank *et al.*, 2013; Searchinger *et al.*, 2013c; International Social Security Association, 2014; Balmford *et al.*, 2015; Knickel *et al.*, 2017; Sakr, 2017; Woetzel *et al.*, 2017; Firbank, 2018; FCRN, 2019h; Silvestre and Tirca, 2019; Sodano, 2019; Herrero *et al.*, 2020). In the case of sustainable intensification, Smith (2013) argues this must be accompanied by a fundamental change in global food systems. Sustainable intensification is not a simple solution. For example, intensive livestock production can have a smaller carbon production per kilogram of meat produced, but the water consumption may be much higher than other systems. Tansey (2013) questions whether sustainable intensification is necessary given the level of food waste, that 40 per cent of US maize is used for biofuel, and 90 per cent of the global soya crop is used for animal feed. The WWF also argue that previous intensification practices were directly responsible for ecological degradation,

unsustainable resource consumption, and entrenching dependency on non-renewable resources like fossil fuels (Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Waheed *et al.*, 2018; Leahy, 2019). Further detail on changing land use can be found in appendices 8.9 and 8.11.

#### 2.4.7 Ocean ecosystems and sea-level rise

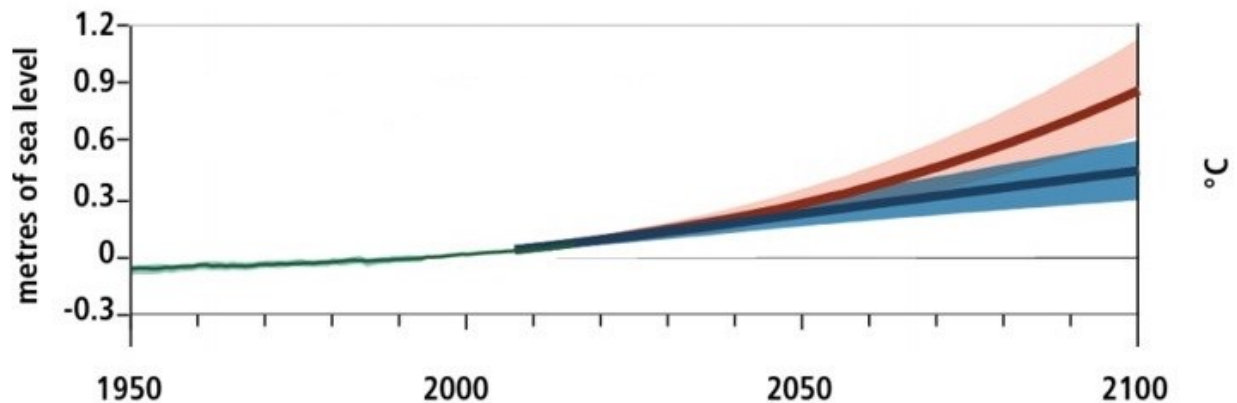
Anthropogenic climate change is both weakening the ocean ecosystem through the loss of marine biodiversity and causing sea-level rise. The latter is due to meltwater from glaciers and ice sheets as well as the thermal expansion of warming seawater. Not only is the ocean home to millions of species, it also acts as a global ecological and climate regulator, so any threat to its functionality is of particular concern. Sea-level rise increases the frequency and severity of coastal flooding, so being able to establish the rate and amount of the rise is critical in terms of planning, adaptation, and mitigation strategies. Sea-level rise and coastal flooding due to global warming since 1850 is already locked-in and inevitable (Chang *et al.*, 2015; Mohammed *et al.*, 2017; WHO, 2017; Hook, 2018; Sellers *et al.*, 2018). More than 90 per cent of the excess heat caused by climate change is stored in the oceans (WMO, 2019b), where warmer oceans accounted for 40 per cent of the sea level increase between 1993 and 2015 (Edwards, 2017). Predicting the rate and amount of this rise is extremely complex and estimates vary widely (Etheridge *et al.*, 1992; Chambers *et al.*, 2016; Edwards, 2017; Fasullo and Nerem, 2018; Li *et al.*, 2018; Vaughan, 2020), but such estimates are invariably linked to the temperature stabilisation targets, such as 1.5°C and 2.0°C above pre-industrial level targets that originate from the Paris Agreement. Understanding these complexities is essential in being able to predict how oceans will respond to climate change. The British Antarctic Survey (BAS) is currently involved with several investigations such as the '*International Thwaites Glacier Collaboration*' in Greenland. This vast glacier is melting much faster than expected (Dieng *et al.*, 2017; Vaughan, 2020), with ice loss doubling in the past two decades, equating to approximately 35 billion tonnes per annum. Should it disappear entirely, scientists predict this would not only cause an additional 65cm sea-level rise on top of the 19cm rise in the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, but also trigger a wider collapse of the entire West Antarctic ice sheet. This would have the potential to increase sea levels by a further 3.3 metres, putting many global cities such as London at risk of flooding and more extreme coastal events (Abadie *et al.*, 2016; Amos, 2018; Wing *et al.*, 2018; Vaughan, 2020). Around two-thirds of the world's cities with over 5 million people each are located just 30 feet above current sea level (Li *et al.*, 2018). A further study by Shepherd *et al.* (2019) suggests the total loss from the Greenland ice sheet was responsible for  $335 \pm 62$  billion tonnes per year in 2011. The Greenland ice-sheet probably can't survive above atmospheric carbon levels of 400ppm, and certainly won't survive above 550ppm (King *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, if the ice sheets in both the Arctic and Antarctic regions should melt altogether, Bamber and Oppenheimer (2019) predict sea levels would increase by 65 metres, noting the considerable difficulties in modelling exactly how ice sheets will continue to respond to climate change.

Much of the literature is focused on determining the extent of future, sea-level rise. Li *et al.* (2018) suggests the average data from models is for 0.3 to 2.5 meters (1 to 8 feet) of sea-level rise to the year 2100 due to ice sheet melting and thermal expansion; noting that the IPCC data excludes the impact of water table changes. Further estimates include an early study by Church and White (2006), for example, which suggests rises of between 28cm to 34cm by 2100. Later studies suggest significantly higher figures. Rasmussen *et al.* (2018), estimate sea-level rises by the year 2100 of 48cm (90 per cent probability of 28-82cm), 56cm (28-96cm), and 58cm (37-93cm) for each of the 1.5°C, 2.0°C, and 2.5°C scenarios. Further estimates include: 52cm by 2100 at 1.5°C rising to 86cm at 2°C and a worst-case rise of 180cm (Jevrejeva *et al.*, 2016; 2018); 65cm ( $\pm 12$  cm) (Nerem *et al.*, 2018); Bamber *et al.* (2019) propose a sea-level rise of 200cm is used for planning purposes to 2100, beyond which 750cm is then possible, whereas (NERC, 2018) use the metric of 3 mm per year; and Mengel *et al.* (2018) predict 70-120cm providing that net-zero greenhouse gas emissions are sustained globally, but add that sea levels will continue to rise long after emissions of GHGs stop. Hinkel *et al.* (2015) warns about the reliability of IPCC data, in that their scenarios are generated by one group which aims to understand and reduce uncertainty, whereas a separate group uses a different approach to reduce risks in coastal management. King *et al.* (2015) argue that the lack of knowledge on sea-level rise thresholds for coastal communities and infrastructure is of real concern, adding the faster it rises the more expensive adapting to it will become. They also fear that it may already be impossible to avoid longer-term sea-level rise of more than 10 metres, due to the melting of polar ice sheets. Evidence from previous periods of warming during the Holocene, the last interglacial, and the mid-Pliocene has recently led scientists to predict that estimates of both temperature rises and sea levels have been under-estimated; they conclude that sea levels could rise by 6m even if the 2°C increase from the Paris Agreement is met (Cox, 2018; Fischer *et al.*, 2018; Lovins, 2019). Should the current rate of carbon emissions continue, the IPCC expect temperature increases will exceed the 1.5°C limit by around the year 2034 (Matthews *et al.*, 2018), whereas NERC (2018) predicts higher UK summer temperatures of up to 4°C by the 2080s.

The UK Committee on Climate Change (2017b; 2017c; 2017d) suggest that rising sea levels are one of the greatest risks to the UK; a view which is reflected in the government's environmental plan for the next 25 years (DEFRA, 2018a; DEFRA, 2018i). A further study on climate change impacts within Europe sees the UK as especially sensitive to sea-level rise, mainly in terms of its coastal systems, agriculture, and risk of river flooding (Ciscar *et al.*, 2011). Warming seas, reduced oxygen levels, ocean acidification and sea-level rise are already affecting the UK (MCCIP, 2020). For example, flooding in 2007 affected 104,000 acres of farmland and cost around £90k per farmer (Benton *et al.*, 2012). Despite the government's plans, however, the Committee on Climate Change (2018e) see the current approach towards protecting the most vulnerable areas to sea-level rise as not fit for purpose. Their analysis finds 1.5 million properties

will be in flood-risk areas by 2080, with a further 100,000 properties at risk from coastal erosion. In addition, 1,600km of major roads, 650km of railway line, 92 railway stations and 55 historic landfill sites will also be at risk by 2100. This increased flood risk is expected as early as 2020, with large areas (over 320,000 acres) of best arable land under significant annual chance of flooding (Sayers *et al.*, 2015). Figures from Lincolnshire County Council, however, suggest that Sayers' calculation is an under-estimate. They estimate that around 40 per cent of Lincolnshire lies at or below current sea level (LCC, 2019). Although currently protected by 80 miles of raised sea defences, these are now seen as being under increased risk from coastal flooding. The Fens account for around 1,500 square miles (960,000 acres) of highly productive arable land, which currently produces 30 per cent of home-grown vegetables and 20 per cent of the potatoes (BBC, 2019c) with over 80 per cent of its land area being used for agriculture (Gill, 2012). Although just 3 per cent of this original peat land habitat remains today, Lindsay (2019) estimates that one acre of tilled peat soil emits 5-12 tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent per year, with these Fen emissions equating to around 30 per cent of the UK's annual car emissions. The city of Lincoln and towns including Boston, Spalding and Holbeach will also be affected by 2050 (Kulp and Strauss, 2019). DEFRA recently commissioned a report into the resilience of food supplies to port flooding on the east coast. As more than 90% of UK food imports arrive by sea, the resilience of these ports is critical to UK food security (Becker *et al.*, 2013; Asgari *et al.*, 2014; Achuthan *et al.*, 2015; Bailey *et al.*, 2015a; Bailey *et al.*, 2015d). Bailey and Wellesley (2017) also see major impacts on ports and waterways as port terminals flood and river passage becomes impassable, with significant consequences for food supplies from major crop-producing regions. The east coast ports from the Tyne to Dover are responsible for 57 per cent of UK food imports including 69 per cent of pig meat, 65 per cent of fresh vegetables, 53 per cent of palm oil, and 72 per cent of the imported sugar (Achuthan *et al.*, 2015). The report concludes that other ports will need to develop contingency plans, should these east coast ports be unavailable due to coastal events, and recommend that the food industry should reduce its current dependency on EU refining, processing, and consolidation centres. The Environmental Agency has similar concerns about the Port of Immingham on the highly vulnerable Lincolnshire coast. A 5-metre storm surge in 2013 caused £115m of damage and disruption to the port, which supports more than 25 per cent of the UK's electricity generation and over 25 per cent of its rail freight distribution (EA, 2018). The Committee on Climate Change (2019b) currently predict sea-level rises of between 30cm to 115cm by 2100. These latest IPCC predictions are illustrated in figure 24. They are 10 per cent higher compared to their earlier assessment reports (IPCC, 2014c; IPCC, 2014d); a trend which has continued since 2001. Importantly, they suggest that the 30cm rise associated with a 1.5°C scenario would be tough but manageable, but their expectations of 82cm for a 2°C scenario would be unmanageable. This unmanageable factor is thought to have been an element in the first mass extinction that happened at the end of the Ordovician period about 443 million years ago (Saltré and Bradshaw, 2019). The Committee on Climate Change (2018e) are assuming a 100cm or more increase as early as 2100. Beyond the year 2100, sea-level rises could increase by several metres if the temperatures

stay within the 1.5°C threshold, or by over 9 metres for the 2°C scenario (Clark *et al.*, 2018b). Similar predictions appear in the consumer and trade press, warning that sea levels could rise by 6 metres, threaten 1.5 million homes, and that they are rising more quickly than previously thought (McGranahan *et al.*, 2007; Nicholls *et al.*, 2011; Cox, 2018; Hook, 2018; Climate Central, 2019; McGrath, 2019).



**Figure 24:** Changes in the global mean sea level change that have already occurred 1965-2005 and projected future changes this century under low (blue shading) and high (pink shading) greenhouse gas emission scenarios

**Source:** IPCC (2019b).

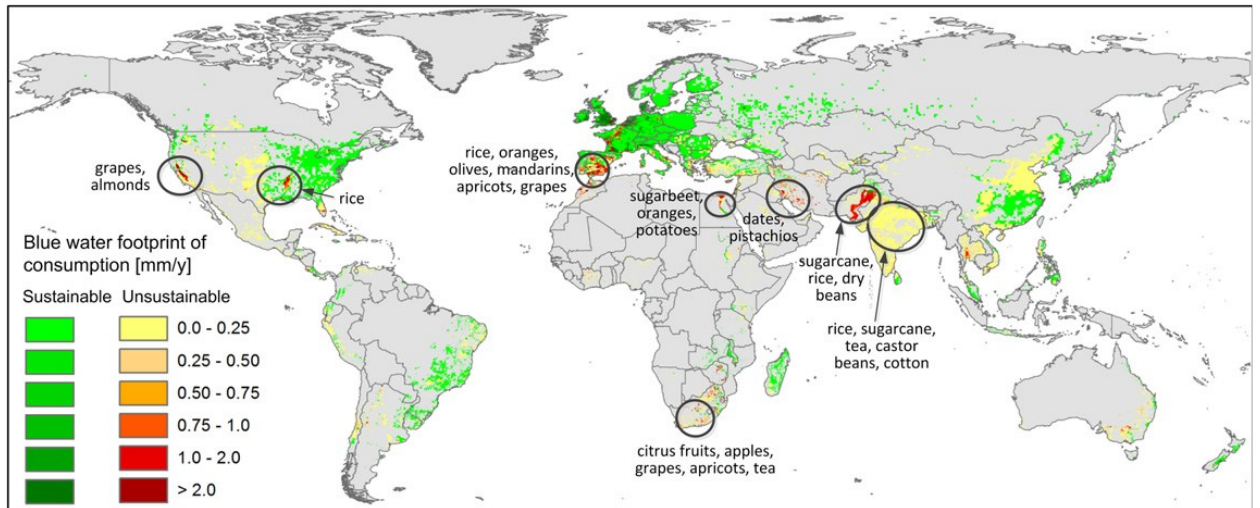
The additional costs associated with future sea-level rise are equally difficult to calculate. These costs include to economic growth caused by losses of land, infrastructure and physical capital, the loss of social capital, as well as the additional costs associated with coastal floods and increased coastal protection expenditure (Hallegatte, 2012; Hallegatte *et al.*, 2013; Dietz *et al.*, 2018; Murphy *et al.*, 2018). Some studies suggest that the economic literature has under-estimated the total economic costs of sea-level rise and predict that such losses will affect developed country GDP figures (Ciscar *et al.*, 2011; Chatzivasileiadis *et al.*, 2018). An earlier study (Chatzivasileiadis *et al.*, 2016) foresees sea-level rise causing significant changes to the global economy, especially through impacts on transport. Estimates on the number of people affected globally by 2050 range from 200m (Bamber and Oppenheimer, 2019) to 300m (Kulp and Strauss, 2019). One recent study estimates that around 66 per cent of industrial carbon and methane emissions can be traced to just 90 industrial producers; these emissions are responsible for 42-50 per cent of the increase in global mean temperatures and 26-32 per cent of global sea-level rise (Ekwurzel *et al.*, 2017). They conclude that the ability to trace historical emissions should be used to inform policymaking. Brown (2018) concludes that most countries are not doing enough to prepare for the risks and Sayers *et al.* (2016) reinforce the need for urgent action against additional flood risks in the UK. The UK government allocated £1.2bn for coastal erosion and sea-flooding schemes between 2015 and 2021, but the Environment Agency estimates the cost of both river and sea defences will be in excess of £1bn a year over the next 50 years (Wall, 2019). In the case of the Fens, this includes hard decisions over

what areas can be protected and what will have to be lost (BBC, 2019c) as well as how to prevent the existing high levels of soil degradation (Committee on Climate Change, 2013). Further concern raised by the government's advisors includes continued infrastructural development on floodplains (Committee on Climate Change, 2014), disjointed and ineffective legislation (Committee on Climate Change, 2018e), and the need for clear, stable and well-designed policies to achieve 'net-zero' carbon emissions by 2050 (Committee on Climate Change, 2019b). Their '*managing the coast in a changing climate*' report (Committee on Climate Change, 2018f), however, makes few references to expected impacts on agriculture and none on food systems. Their over-riding assessment of readiness for flooding and coastal erosion, however, would appear to be one of unfit for purpose and the government must wake up to the real challenges ahead (Committee on Climate Change, 2018e).

#### **2.4.8 Declining freshwater availability**

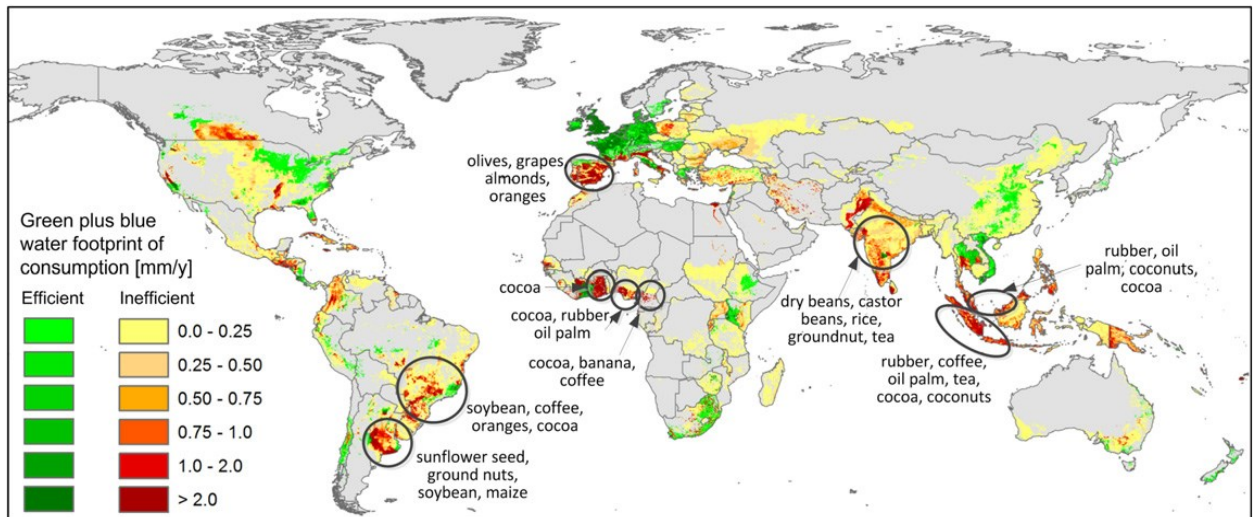
Freshwater availability is being driven by both increasing usage and the depletion of available resources, with climate change once again being a major causal factor. The metrics for water are especially complex and problematic. For example, the social and ecological impacts of water use vary, depending on scarcity and alternative uses of water in any given location (Hoekstra, 2011). Numerous studies provide calculations on the water footprints as benchmarks for a wide array of foods and production systems (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2010; Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2012; Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2014; Green *et al.*, 2018) although Thornton (2018) dismisses water footprints as lacking scientific validity and ineffective in understanding the environmental impact of water use, recommending instead that industry and location-specific measures are used. Food consumption uses 85 per cent of humanity's water footprint (Hoekstra *et al.*, 2009; Hoekstra, 2011), abstraction rates are exceeding the natural replenishment rates (Strzepek and Boehlert, 2010; Wada *et al.*, 2010; Turner *et al.*, 2019) and contributing to current sea-level rise (Wada *et al.*, 2010), with Rockström *et al.* (2009c) predicting that 59 per cent of the world's population will face blue water shortage and 36 per cent will face green and blue water shortage by 2050. The growing consumption of animal products will put further pressure on global water resources. Mekonnen and Hoekstra (2010) estimate the global average water foot prints for beef cattle (15,400 m<sup>3</sup>/tonne), sheep (10,400 m<sup>3</sup>/tonne), pigs (6,000 m<sup>3</sup>/tonne) and chicken (4,300 m<sup>3</sup>/tonne), concluding that it is more efficient to obtain calories, protein and fat through crops than animals. This is further complicated by the type of production system used, with grazing systems having smaller water footprints than industrial livestock systems (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2012). Crop production is also causing increasing pressures on water and land resources around the globe, with irrigated crops of wheat, rice, cotton, maize, and sugar cane seen as being largely responsible for water scarcity (Pfister *et al.*, 2011).

The WWF had previously commissioned work into the impact of the UK's food consumption on water resources across the world. It found that fresh water was being withdrawn from ecosystems in the Middle East, India, Mexico, China, the USA, Africa, Spain, and Asia more quickly than it was able to be replenished (Chapagain and Orr, 2008). This then impacted each country's potential to produce its own food, as well as impacting ecosystem services for local communities such as, for example, regulating water flows, purifying water, detoxifying waste, regulating climate, providing storm protection, and mitigating against erosion. Their report finds that every British consumer used 4,645 litres of the world's water every day, compared to just 150 litres per person per day of domestic water. In total, 62 per cent of this virtual water is coming from other nation's supplies and suggests that the UK is a long way from water self-sufficiency. Other estimates suggest that it takes around 3,000 litres per day (Thornton, 2018; Vanham *et al.*, 2018) to produce food for British consumers; in the USA, the comparative figure is more than 9,000 litres per day. To grow a tonne of wheat, for example, Cohen (1995) estimates takes 900 tonnes (900,000 litres) of water. As the dependency of food imports continues to increase, the amount of embedded water imported from overseas raises numerous concerns (Benzie *et al.*, 2017). Hoekstra and Mekonnen (2016; 2016a; 2016b) evaluate the UK's dependency on the import of water-intensive commodities from overseas, finding that 55 per cent of the unsustainable part of the UK's blue WF is located in six countries (Spain: 14 per cent; USA: 11 per cent; Pakistan: 10 per cent; India: 7 per cent; Iran: 6 per cent; and South Africa: 6 per cent). Around half of the water consumption is inefficient, 37 per cent of which is located in Indonesia (7 per cent), Ghana (7 per cent), India (7 per cent), Brazil (6 per cent), Spain (5 per cent), and Argentina (5 per cent). Their findings are shown in figures 25, 26, and 27. They also conclude around half of the consumption in countries such as Indonesia, Ghana, India, Brazil, Spain, and Argentina is inefficient. Turner *et al.* (2019) similarly lists India, Pakistan, the Middle East, western United States, Mexico, and Central Asia as being most at risk of unsustainable water abstraction. Of the 5.5 billion m<sup>3</sup> of surface and groundwater per year the UK consumes, 5 billion m<sup>3</sup> of that is accounted for abroad through imported food (*Nature*, 2016b). The problem is increasingly associated with certain food imports, with avocados and almonds being of particular concern (Merrigan *et al.*, 2015; *Nature*, 2016b; Facchini and Laville, 2018; Wilkinson, 2018). Finally, to mitigate against these risks, the research recommends the UK becomes more self-sufficient in food, switching to importing from water-abundant regions, avoid importing from most severely water stressed regions altogether, and collaborating with countries to increase water productivity (Hess *et al.*, 2015; Hess *et al.*, 2016; Hoekstra and Mekonnen, 2016; *Nature*, 2016b). Figure 28 shows countries classified into five groups. Europe is seen as being virtual water-dependent, with Africa and Asia affected by water stress. Most significantly, however, it shows that for one-third of the world's nations (i.e. water-rich and virtual water-dependent countries) their maximum sustainable population is dependent upon food availability and ultimately the available water resources. The paper also predicts that exporting countries will soon reduce the amount of virtual water they export to meet their own food demand, leaving import-dependent countries without the water needed to sustain their populations.



**Figure 25:** The sustainable and unsustainable parts of the global blue water footprint of UK food consumption with critical products in some hotspot areas.

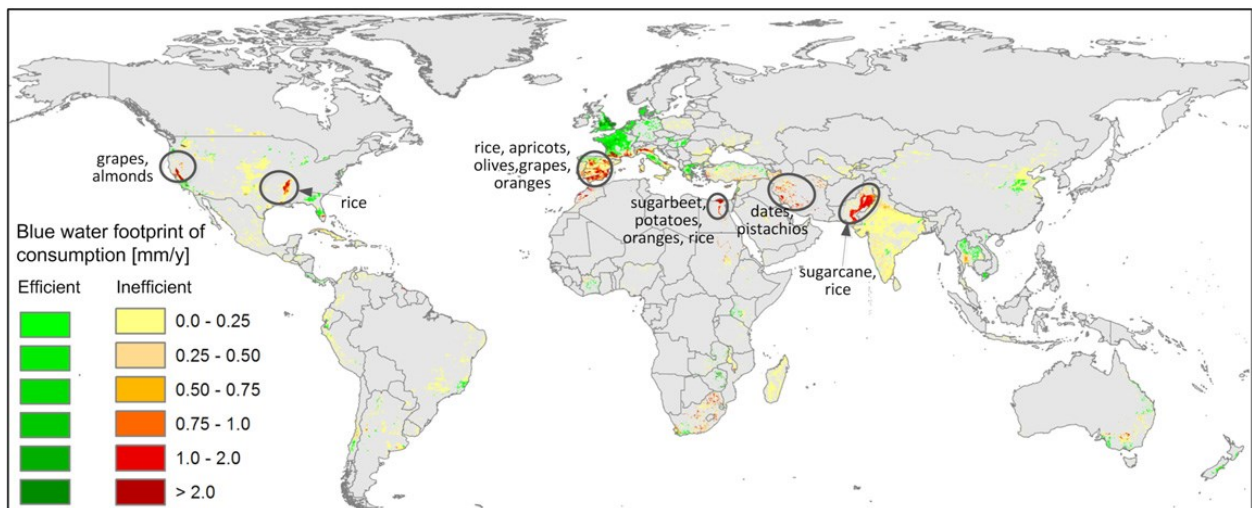
**Source:** Hoekstra and Mekonnen, (2016).



**Figure 26:** The efficient and inefficient parts of the global consumptive water footprint of the UK's direct and indirect crop consumption, with an indication of crops for which water productivity can be substantially increased and through which water footprints can thus be reduced.

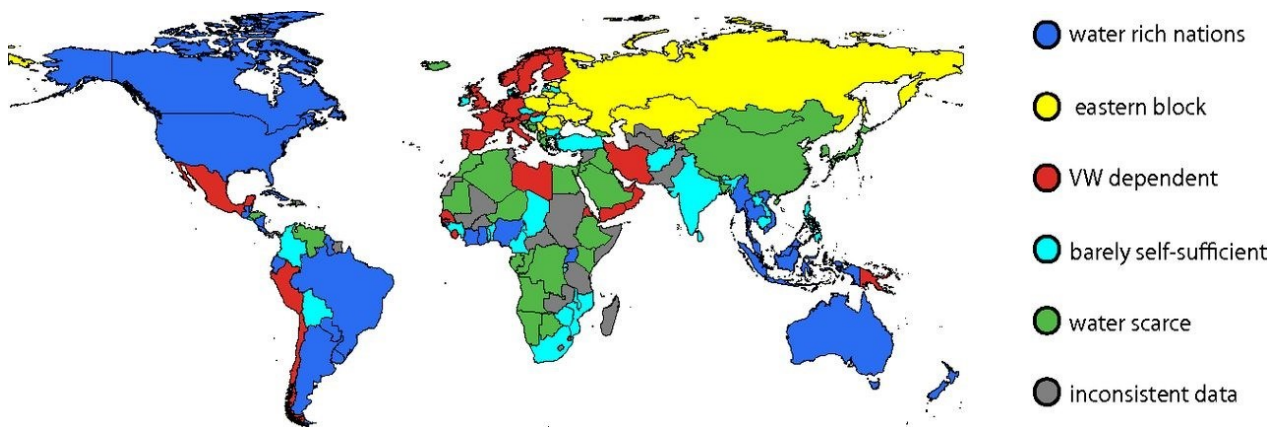
**Source:** Hoekstra and Mekonnen, (2016).





**Figure 27:** The efficient and inefficient parts of the global blue water footprint of the UK’s direct and indirect crop consumption, with an indication of crops for which water productivity can be substantially increased and through which blue water footprints can thus be reduced.

**Source:** Hoekstra and Mekonnen, (2016).



**Figure 28:** Countries classified on their dependency on local and virtual water (VW) resources, 1996-2005

**Source:** Suweis *et al.* (2013).

The food sustainability literature offers several recommendations on the policy options that would improve and ensure future water security. The FAO makes a significant contribution to the sustainability literature within its own right (FAO, 2012d; 2013c; 2014b; 2016b; 2018c; 2018d; 2018i; FAO-UNEP, 2018); similarly, the WHO (World Bank, 2016a; World Bank, 2016b; World Bank, 2016c). Early studies, such as the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency, recommend producing more food from

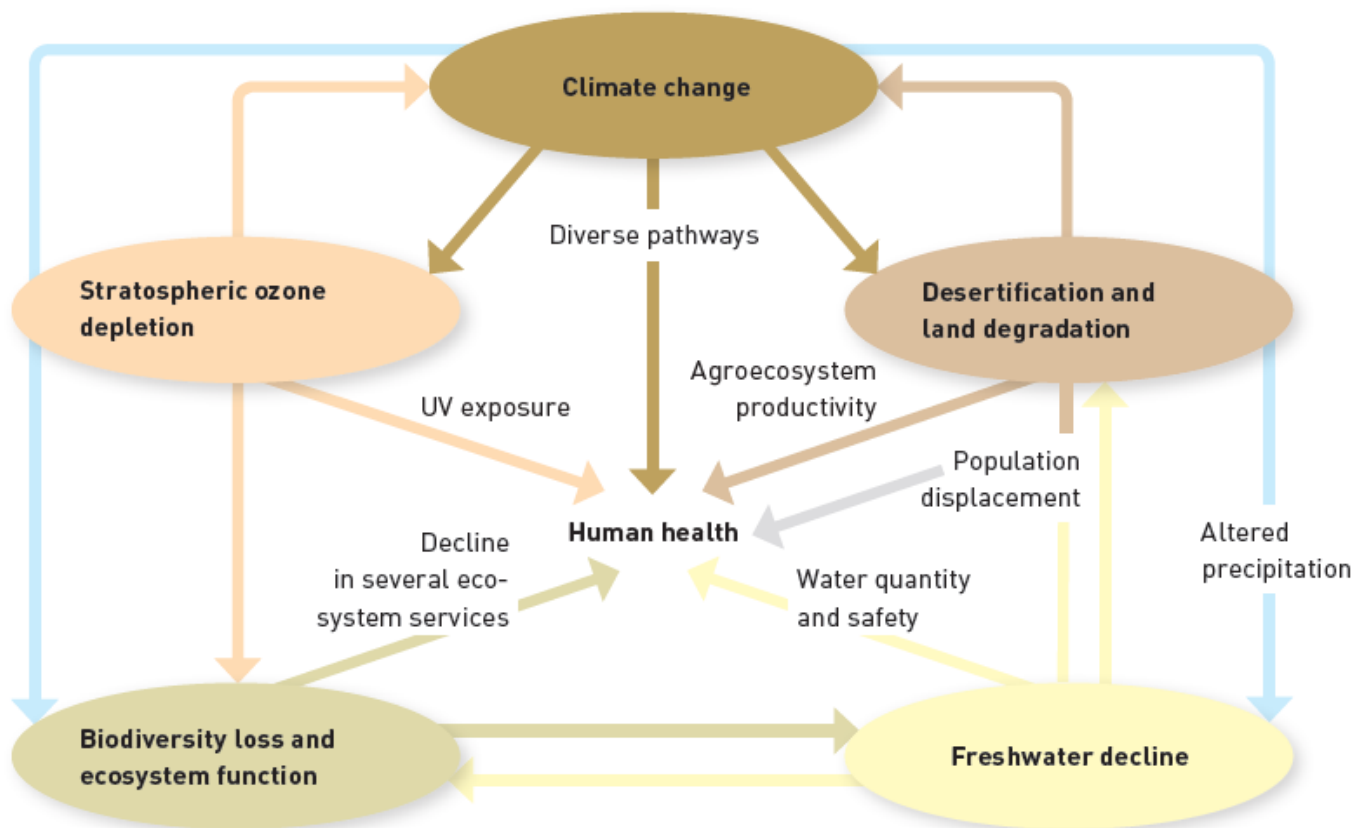
each unit of water and each plot of land, in response to the challenge of increasing food production without further depleting natural aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems (SIWI, 2005). Hoekstra (2014), however, states that national water policies should focus on 'sustainable consumption' rather than the present 'sustainable production'. Further studies call for major transformative changes within the global economy to reduce environmental footprints to sustainable levels (Hoekstra and Wiedmann, 2014), the need to better understand water-use efficiency in the food system (i.e. the nutritional value per drop) (Hoekstra, 2014), the opportunity to use dietary change to save water (Vanham *et al.*, 2013a; 2013b), the increasing need for integrated, participative and scalable solutions for water management (Pereira, 2017), and the need to anticipate future changes and start adapting now (NERC, 2018). Any previous perceptions that the onset of climate change would be slow and measured have been proved wrong in Cape Town, for example, where water shortages have already become a major disruption (Winter, 2018). In the case of water use, Rockström *et al.* (2009c) recommend continually re-examining the range of countries that are chronically water short, as climate change is likely to impact precipitation patterns. Further studies warn of difficulties in achieving food security and environmental goals where water is limited (Rockström and Falkenmark, 2015; Rosa *et al.*, 2018; Sušnik, 2018; Vanham, 2018). Rockström *et al.* (2009c) had previously raised concerns about future water shortages by 2050, predicting 59 per cent of the world population would be short of blue water, and 36 per cent short of green and blue water; the UN (2018b) further estimate this will affect 5bn people by 2050 and recommend nature-based solutions as a strategy to resolve (UN-WWAP, 2018). Science and technological advances are also critical in ensuring the future sustainability and security of global water resources (Lopez-Gunn and Llamas, 2008; Schewe *et al.*, 2014; Hertel, 2015; Kantor *et al.*, 2017), and especially in meeting the SDGs.

## 2.5 The correlation between planetary health and human health

Planetary health extends research from within the human body to include the natural systems required to sustain human health (Haines *et al.*, 1993; McMichael 1993; Haines, 2016; Horton, 2016b; Prescott and Logan, 2019). The Rockefeller Foundation–Lancet Commission description, regarded as the established definition states planetary health ‘*is the health of human civilisation and the state of the natural systems on which it depends*’ (Whitmee *et al.*, 2015, p.1978). Its aim is to bridge the gap between health sciences such as nutrition and dietetics and the natural and physical sciences that include, for example, food production, biodiversity, ecology, and environmental science (Kirkhorn and Schenker, 2001; Confalonieri *et al.*, 2007; WWF, 2008a; Pitesky *et al.*, 2014; Kovats, 2015; Nielsen, 2015; Scovronick, 2015; Davidson, 2016; EEA, 2018; Gamso, 2018; Inman *et al.*, 2018; ISO, 2018; Readfearn, 2018). Cannon and Leitzmann (2005) also call for nutrition science to extend its reach beyond personal and population health to encompass planetary health, that is, both the welfare and future of the world in which humans inhabit. The speed of which current natural systems are being degraded is an existential threat to both health and the planet, therefore alternative directions are urgently needed to enable natural systems to regenerate, natural resources to be safeguarded, and health to flourish (Horton *et al.*, 2014; Soussana, 2014; *The Lancet*, 2014; Tripathi *et al.*, 2016; Endo *et al.*, 2017; Horton, 2018). Horton (2013) considers the 50/50 odds given for civilisation surviving the current century, arguing that today’s human-induced threats cannot be survived for long and doubting whether governments could cope when such disasters strike. Planetary health also promotes the need for evidence-based policies to promote human health and preserve the environment on which humans depend (Medical Research Council, 2019), as well as monitoring risk exposure and epidemiological research (Laurance, 2012; Rolland *et al.*, 2012; Leigh and Lorkowski, 2018; Williams, 2018; Nätt *et al.*, 2019).

### 2.5.1 The impacts of climate change on health

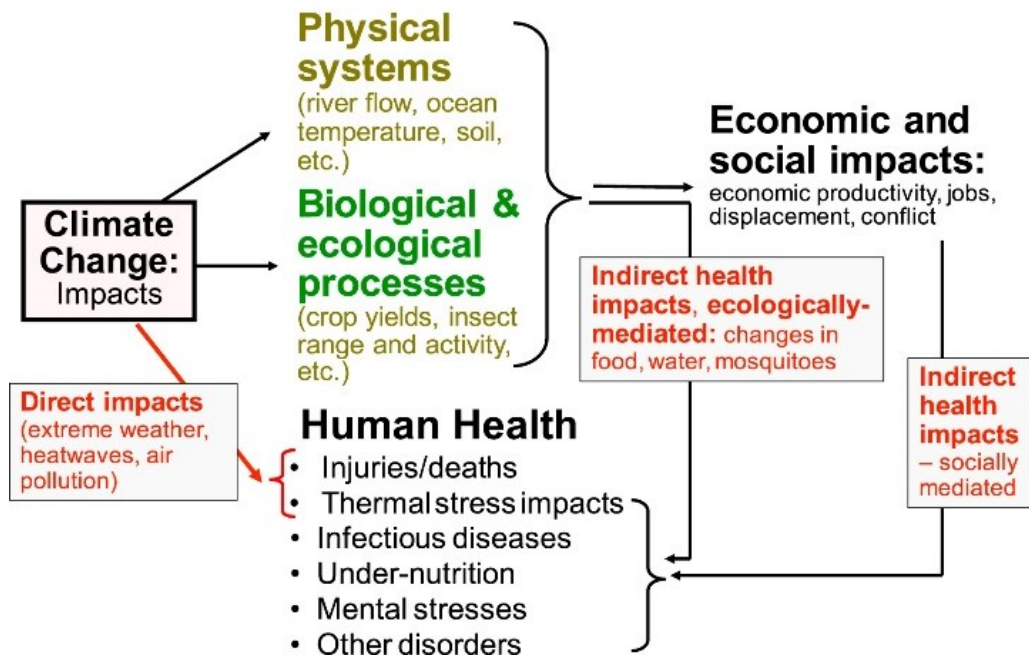
Climate change essentially affects health by increasing existing health problems and creating new ones. Specific impacts will affect public health, mental health, air, and water pollution, increase the risks from allergens and infectious diseases, and increase food insecurity (Costello *et al.*, 2009; Goklany, 2009a; 2009b; McMichael, 2017). These impacts on health from global environmental change and climate change are shown in figure 29. Despite concerns that climate change will be the biggest global health threat of the 21st century, studies raise concerns over the 25 years of inaction in public health (Patz *et al.*, 2005; Anderson and Bows, 2011; Adedeji *et al.*, 2014; Balbus and Malina, 2017; WHO, 2017; Watts *et al.*, 2018a; Watts *et al.*, 2018b; Florin and Allen, 2019; Macmillan, 2019; Watts *et al.*, 2019).



**Figure 29:** Global environmental change and climate change impacts on health

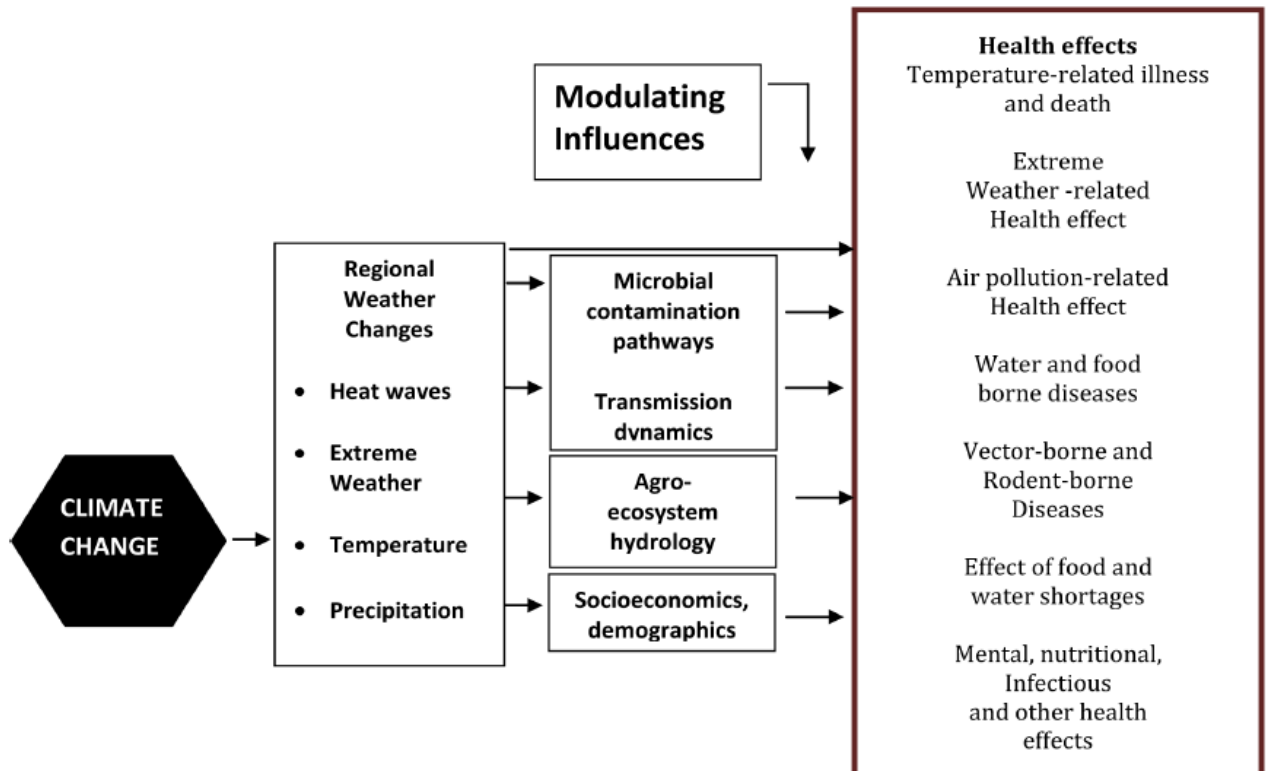
**Source:** WHO cited in Kickbusch (2010).

Various climate change models have been suggested to assess the state of the science (McMichael *et al.*, 2015; WHO, 2017; Watts *et al.*, 2018). McMichael *et al.* (2015) propose a schematic diagram of the main categories of climate change-influenced health outcomes and associated pathways (figure 30). Figures 31 and 32 show the pathways provided by Adedeji *et al.* (2014) and Macmillan (2019) respectively. Although these pathways can be both positive and negative impacts, most are in fact negative (Bell *et al.*, 2007; *The Economist*, 2014b; Bailey *et al.*, 2015b; UK-US Taskforce, 2015; Allen *et al.*, 2018). Further studies recommend greater interdisciplinarity between governments, international agencies, NGOs, communities, CSOs, and academics to agree the adaptations necessary in response to climate change (Costello *et al.*, 2009; Costello *et al.*, 2011; Adedeji *et al.*, 2014; Kuruppu and Capon, 2016; Rutter *et al.*, 2017; Acunzo *et al.*, 2018). The public health response to climate change is essential in reducing risk, manage uncertainty and optimise the health and environmental outcomes. Surprisingly, climate change did not significantly feature in the World Health Organisation Mental Health Action Plan 2013–2020 (WHO, 2013), despite its mandate to identify solutions and help prevent or reduce health impacts (Kendrovski and Schmoll, 2019).



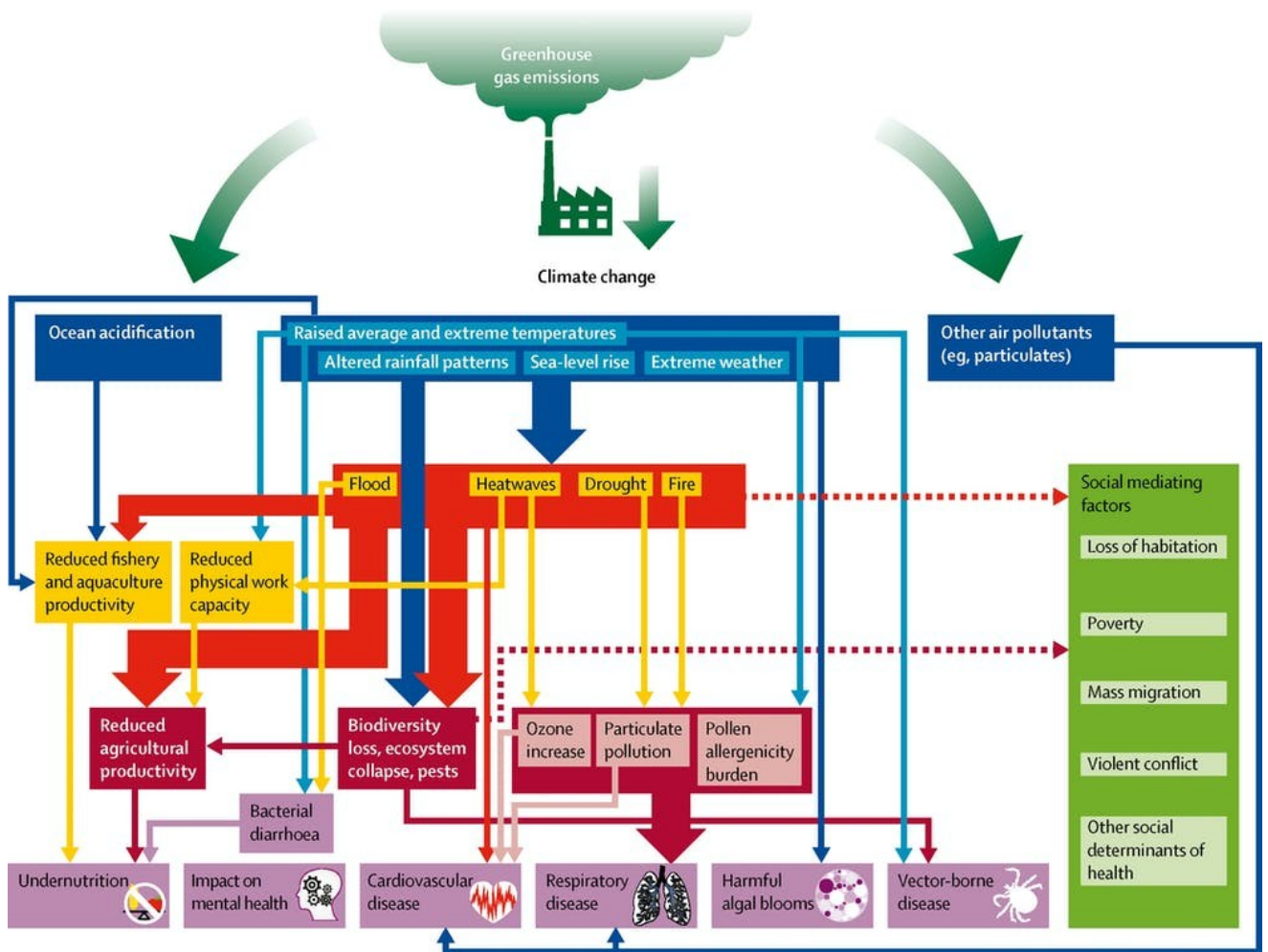
**Figure 30:** Schematic diagram of the main categories of climate change-influenced health outcomes and associated pathways

*Source:* McMichael *et al.* (2015).



**Figure 31:** Pathways by which climate change affects human health

*Source:* Adedeji *et al.* (2014) adapted from Patz *et al.* (2000).



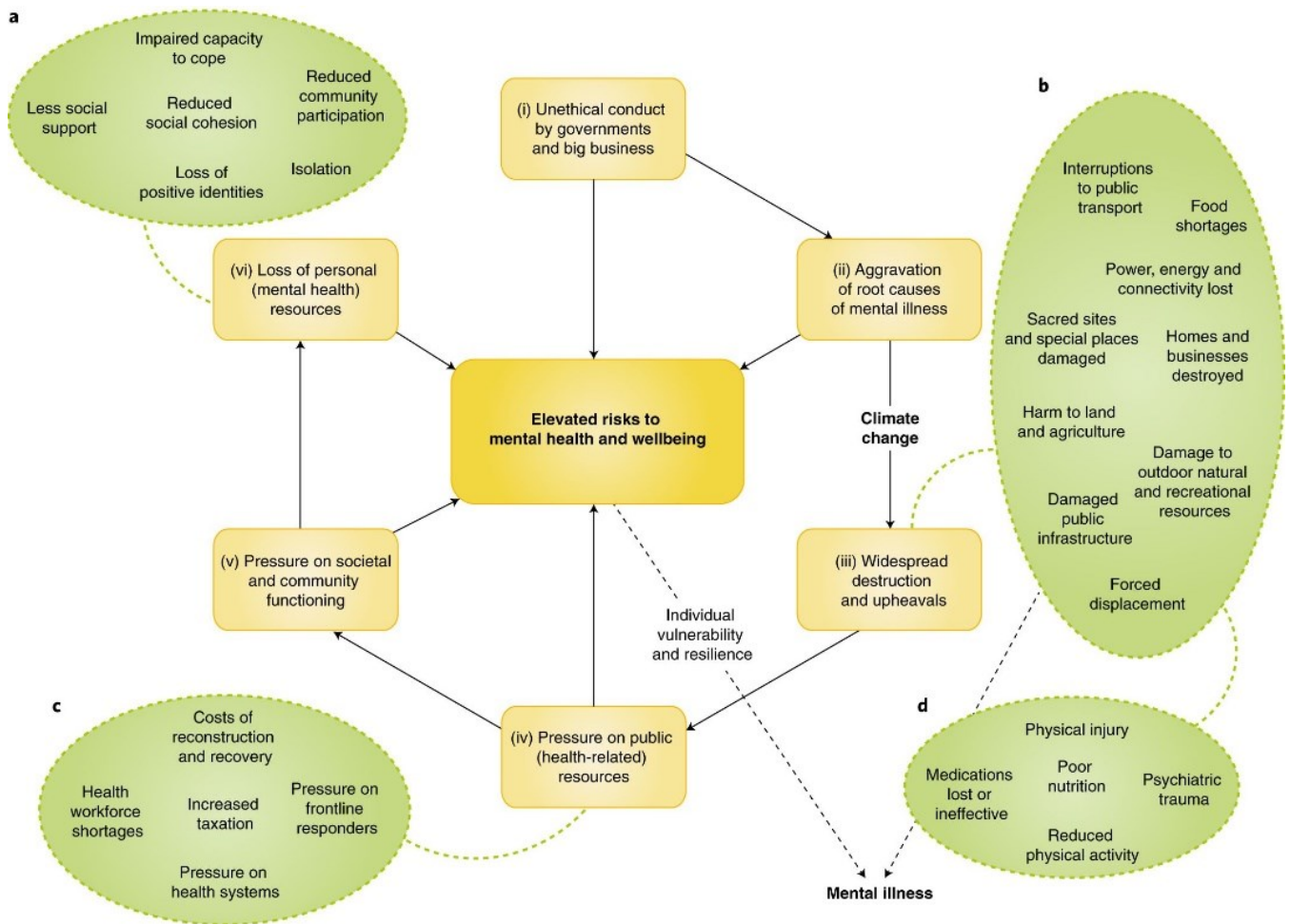
**Figure 32:** The pathways between climate change and human health, from the 2018 global report of the Lancet Countdown on health and climate change

**Source:** Macmillan (2019).

The changes brought about by climate change have the potential to affect mental health, whereas ecosystems are also sources of mental well-being and human recreation (NAP, 2019a). Numerous empirical studies attempt to assess the epidemiological evidence on how climate change might have the potential to affect mental health (Berry, 2008; Gillespie and Smith, 2008; Berry, 2009; Berry *et al.*, 2010; Reifels *et al.*, 2013; Berry and Peel, 2015; Berry *et al.*, 2015; Ejeta *et al.*, 2015; Padhy *et al.*, 2015; Robbins, 2015; Clayton *et al.*, 2017; Maxwell and Lovell, 2017; Berry *et al.*, 2018; Obradovich *et al.*, 2018). Figure 33 shows an example of how climate change accelerates a series of reactions with the potential to further exacerbate risks to mental health and well-being. Further studies cover a plethora of primary mental health issues: the anxiety caused by climate change (Berry and Peel, 2015) especially in younger generations (Majeed and Lee, 2017); the consequential impacts of flooding (Tapsell *et al.*, 2003; Reacher *et al.*, 2004; Hajat *et al.*, 2005; Munro *et al.*, 2017; Waite *et al.*, 2017; WHO, 2017), and drought (O’Brien



*et al.*, 2014; Reifels *et al.*, 2014; Vins *et al.*, 2015); the temperature effects on human performance and occupational health (Hansen *et al.*, 2008; Berry *et al.*, 2011; Vardoulakis and Heaviside, 2012; Vida *et al.*, 2012; Padhy *et al.*, 2015; Kjellstrom *et al.*, 2016); and reducing the body's immune response to influenza (Food Matters Live, 2019; Moriyama and Koshiba, 2019). Further studies also cover further mental health issues: the propensity to self-harm (Williams *et al.*, 2015); disturbed sleeping patterns (Obradovich *et al.*, 2017); mental health following disasters and emergencies (Reifels *et al.*, 2013; Ejeta *et al.*, 2015; Scher, 2018). There are significant gaps within this literature, however: the mental health consequences of climate enforced migration (Hugo, 2011; McMichael *et al.*, 2012); the amplifying relationship with poverty (Hallegatte and Rozenberg, 2017); and the unintended health consequences from climate change interventions (Robbins, 2017).

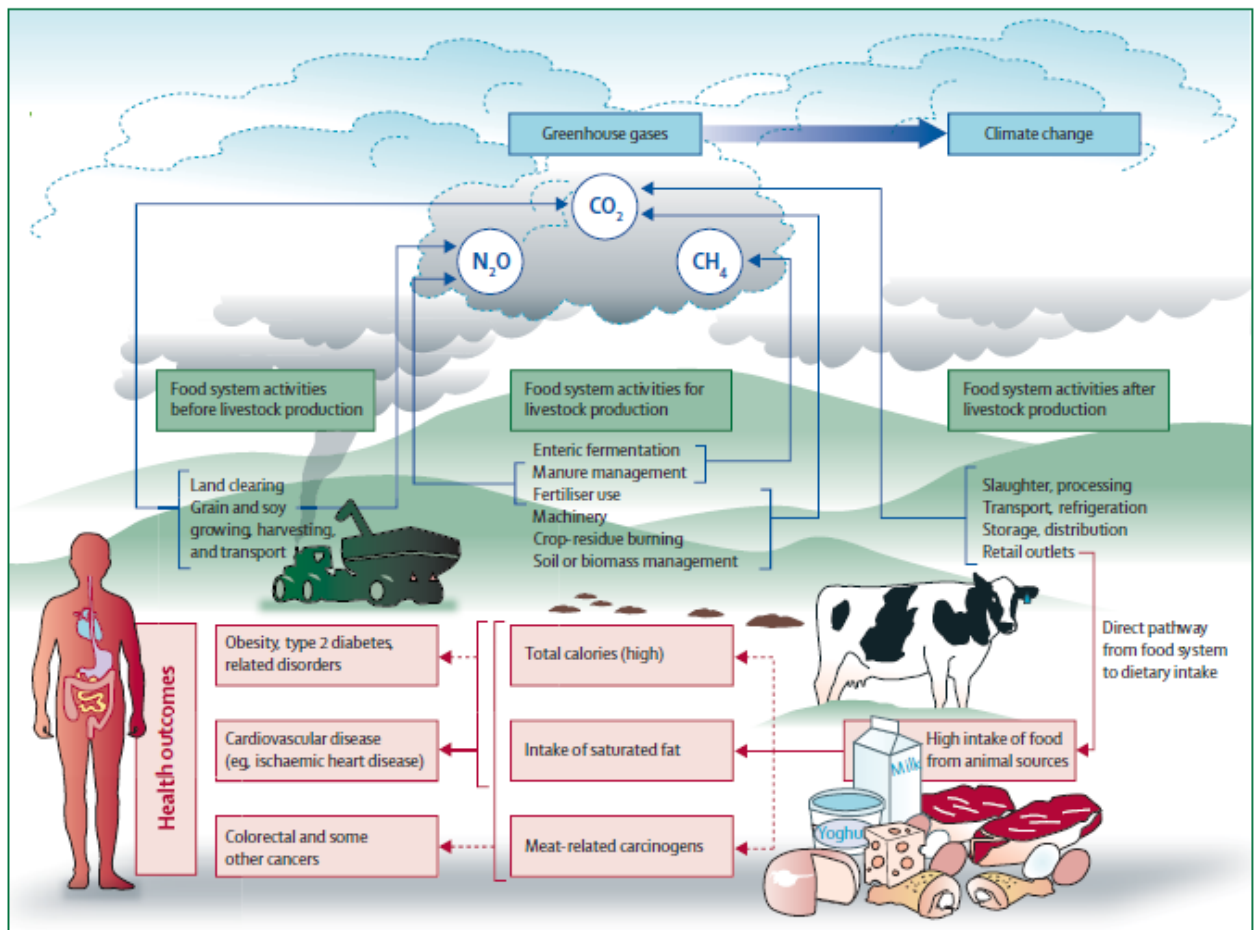


**Figure 33:** Elevated risks to mental health and wellbeing caused by climate change

**Source:** Berry *et al.* (2018).

Climate change can further affect the social and environmental determinants of health. It is also altering the distribution of some infectious disease vectors. Of particular concern is the increasing risk from animal-to-human pathogen shifts such as SARS, swine flu, avian flu, and Ebola (Kahn, 2013; Horton *et al.*, 2014; Kahn *et al.*, 2014; Parkinson *et al.*, 2014; Davidson, 2016; Haines, 2016; Horton and Lo, 2015; Olivero *et al.*, 2017) as well as the 2020 Novel Coronavirus (COVID-19) global pandemic (WHO, 2019; Akpan, 2020; BBC, 2020; Carrington, 2020a; Lang *et al.*, 2020; Settele *et al.*, 2020; WHO, 2020). It can also increase the risk of heat-related illness and death (Milner *et al.*, 2017). Higher temperatures can also affect human health, especially by increasing ozone level pollution and making air less healthy to breathe (Li *et al.*, 2013; Tilman and Clark, 2014; Arbuthnott and Hajat, 2017; Conduto *et al.*, 2017; Milner *et al.*, 2017; *The Lancet*, 2018). *The Lancet* (2017b) estimate 92 per cent of the world's population live in areas over the 10 µg/m<sup>3</sup> WHO Air Quality Guideline and this long term exposure resulted in 27 per cent of deaths from chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, 17 per cent from ischaemic heart disease, 17 per cent from lung cancer, and 14 per cent from stroke in 2015. Landrigan *et al.* (2018) claim that this pollution is responsible for 9 million premature global deaths per annum (16-25 per cent of all deaths worldwide) and, as such, is the largest environmental cause of disease and death. Furthermore, food security is also threatened by reduced availability (Joyce *et al.*, 2014; McMichael *et al.*, 2015; Aleksandrowicz *et al.*, 2016; de Ruiter *et al.*, 2018) and lower nutrient levels in many crops (Thomas, 2007; Woodward and Porter, 2016). Figure 34 shows the population health outcomes from Friel *et al.* (2009), who also contend that whereas technological improvements to reduce emissions offer no benefits to health, reducing livestock consumption would improve health. These estimates do not include the further reductions that would be necessary to mitigate for the additional emissions resulting from land-use change overseas that is attributable to UK livestock production. Multiple studies therefore call for mitigation policies to both limit global warming and reduce the associated health risks (Kriflik and Yeatman, 2005; Smith *et al.*, 2007b; Cordell *et al.*, 2008; Falloon and Betts, 2010; Denton *et al.*, 2014; Kahn *et al.*, 2014; Gasparrini *et al.*, 2017; Haines *et al.*, 2018; Jenking, 2018; Moysés and Soares, 2019).





**Figure 34:** Processes in the food system that lead to greenhouse-gas emissions and population health outcomes

**Source:** Friel *et al.* (2009).

### 2.5.2 The health burdens associated with current UK diets

Unhealthy diets are increasingly seen as the greatest risk to health, with the way food is produced not only threatening climate stability and ecosystem resilience, but as the largest driver of environmental degradation and cause of planetary boundary transgression (World Bank, 2013b; Haddad *et al.*, 2016; Worland, 2016; IPES-Food, 2017; Sifferlin, 2017; Oliver *et al.*, 2018; Peeters, 2018; EAT Foundation, 2019; PWA, 2019). Table 3 illustrates some of the possible health effects as identified by Butler (2016b). These health effects invariably lead to calls for dietary guidance to promote planetary health (Aleksandrowicz *et al.*, 2016; Blackstone *et al.*, 2018; Chen *et al.*, 2019; Lawrence *et al.*, 2019; Willett *et al.*, 2019a). There is, however, a lack of consensus as to how this might be best achieved: no single change in diet will enable humanity to stay within the planetary boundaries (Sundaram, 2014); simple substitutions to individual diets can substantially reduce GHG emissions (Rose *et al.*, 2019). There is much focus on animal products

from diets (Cumberlege *et al.*, 2015; Dinu *et al.*, 2016; Bijl *et al.*, 2017; Bianchi *et al.*, 2018; Conijn *et al.*, 2018). Plant-based diets such as the EAT-Lancet Commission's provide renewed focus (Esnouf *et al.*, 2013; de Vries *et al.*, 2013; Lang, 2014c; WHO, 2017c; Shepon *et al.*, 2018; Einarsson *et al.*, 2019; Willett *et al.*, 2019a; Willett *et al.*, 2019b) but also scepticism (Cohen and Leroy, 2019) especially from industry funded research such as that by the National Cattlemen's Beef Association (Zagmutt *et al.*, 2019).

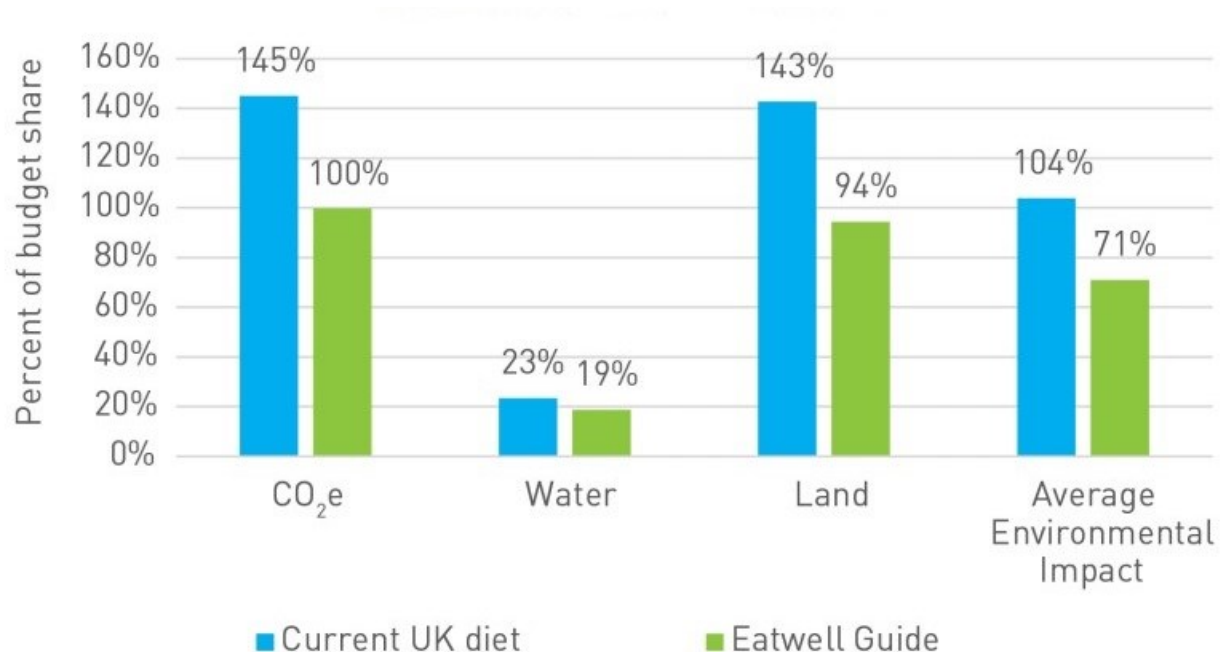
The political science literature is particularly relevant for health professions, especially with reference to improved and integrated governance structures (Barling and Lang, 2003; Lang, 2004; Costello *et al.*, 2009; Lim *et al.*, 2009; Audsley *et al.*, 2010b; Stevens, 2010; Costello *et al.*, 2011; Downing, 2012; Vinnari and Tapio, 2012; Whitmee *et al.*, 2015; Cohen, 2018; HM Government, 2018a; Hawkes and Parsons, 2019). The WHO also call for politicians and policymakers to engage in and to support action on health (WHO, 2013; WHO, 2017). Affordability is seen as a significant barrier (Riley and Buttriss, 2011; Clonan and Holdsworth, 2012; Winkler, 2013; Donati *et al.*, 2016; Dötsch-Klerk *et al.*, 2016; Wood *et al.*, 2018; EAC, 2019), although the evidence for this is limited and inconsistent (WWF, 2011; Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2012; Saxe, 2014; McGuinness *et al.*, 2016; Nelson *et al.*, 2016). Nonetheless, costs for poorer consumers is arguably a barrier (Steptoe, 1999; Middleton, 2008; Lake *et al.*, 2010; Barton *et al.*, 2011; Steenhuis *et al.*, 2011; Lammers and Kok, 2013; Padley and Hirsch, 2013; Cooper *et al.*, 2014; Oxfam, 2018; FCRN, 2019f). The cost of existing UK dietary recommendations has a population-level barrier (Jones *et al.*, 2018) and could cost some consumers as much as 42 per cent of their disposable income (EAC, 2019; *The Lancet*, 2019b). Insufficient access to nutritious food is a constant theme within the more recent narrative (Garnett, 2016a; Breewood, 2018; Dehghan *et al.*, 2018; FCRN, 2019i; Forouhi and Unwin, 2019). Monboit (2018) suspects obesophobia and inequality may be factors in the UK's diet being seen as one of the worst in Europe and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) nations.

<i>Planetary boundary</i>	<i>Health benefit</i>	<i>Main identified existing health harm</i>
Atmospheric aerosol loading	Heating living areas, cooking food, electricity production	Respiratory and cardiac disease; coal burning is a major source of mercury accumulation in the marine food web
Biogeochemical flows (nitrogen and phosphate)	Increased soil fertility and food production, reduced pressure on forests (due to more intensive farming)	Can contribute to algal blooms reducing fresh water quality and quantity. Coastal blooms may reduce fishery productivity, are unsightly and in some places (e.g. China) are expensive to remediate
Loss of biological diversity	Human colonisation (e.g. in Arctic), reduced predation, increased food production	Loss of potential pharmaceuticals and other valuable products, potential 'reprogramming' of some ecosystems towards more human and animal disease, including those transmitted by insect and mammalian vectors such as mosquitoes and bats
Chemical pollution	Enables many modern technologies and materials	Endocrine disruption, cancer, birth defects, neurological conditions (including to sensitive sub-groups). Mining disasters including from failed tailings dams, Minamata disease, Bhopal, etc.
Climate change	Industrialization enabled by climate change generating processes	Heat stress, disasters, some infectious diseases, regional food scarcity, population dislocation, conflict, mental health effects, and distress
Fresh water use	Agricultural and industrial production, electricity production from dammed water	Scarcity can exacerbate 'water washed' diseases (e.g. scabies, trachoma) and also be associated with reduced water quality and thus diarrheal diseases; drought harms vulnerable farmers including their mental health
Land-use change	Increased food production	Reduced ecological integrity and climate change (see above), loss of livelihood and well-being for displaced populations
Ocean acidification	See climate change	Potential to reduce quantity and quality of marine food, an important source of protein and micronutrients to humans
Stratospheric ozone depletion	Fire-fighting chemicals and some fertilisers	Cataracts, skin cancer, both human and animal, including among domesticated animals

**Table 3:** The nine original planetary boundaries and some of their health effects

**Source:** adapted from Butler (2016b).

A plethora of studies raise further concerns with current UK diets. Numerous studies find concerns with childrens' diets (The Children's Society, 2014; McGuffin *et al.*, 2015; Temme *et al.*, 2015; Harrison *et al.*, 2017; Borzekowski and Pires, 2018; Guy's and St Thomas' Charity, 2018; Soil Association, 2018; Stewart and Cole, 2019). Further studies highlight location and proximity issues (Mayén *et al.*, 2014; Boseley, 2018b; Cook *et al.*, 2018) or practical issues with application in particular sectors such as sports nutrition (Meyer and Reguant-Closa, 2017) or the restaurant and convenience settings (Lee and Shavitt, 2009; Shokri *et al.*, 2014; Espinoza-Orias and Azapagic, 2018; Leake, 2018). The unforeseen health impacts of antibiotic use in food production is a growing concern (WHO, 2014; Cahill *et al.*, 2017; McGettigan and Pollock, 2017; Mundaca-Shah *et al.*, 2017; *The Lancet*, 2017a; Bailey *et al.*, 2018; Bianchi *et al.*, 2018; FAIRR, 2018; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2018; Schwenkenbecher, 2018; WHO, 2018a; Bash and Donnelly, 2019; DEFRA, 2019; *The Independent*, 2019; Pradyumna *et al.*, 2019; Scott *et al.*, 2019) and threatens the attainments of the SDGs (Woodward and Porter, 2016; Bailey *et al.*, 2018; European Public Health Alliance, 2018; Kruk *et al.*, 2018; Rochford *et al.*, 2018; Watts *et al.*, 2018b; Clark *et al.*, 2019; FAO, 2019; Lucas and Horton, 2019). Finally, additional layers of complexity can be found in the ambiguity surrounding perceptions that organic food is healthier and safer (Magkos *et al.*, 2006; Seyfang, 2006a; 2007; 2008; Vaclavinkova, 2012; Thorsøe, 2015; Mie *et al.*, 2017; Jørgensen *et al.*, 2018) or more sustainably grown (Seufert *et al.*, 2012; Seufert and Ramankutty, 2017); the need to conserve forests (Lambin and Meyfroidt, 2011; Lucey and Hill, 2015; Rainforest Alliance, 2015; Bebbington *et al.*, 2018; Freitas *et al.*, 2018; Bastin *et al.*, 2019; Kehoe, 2019; Maslin and Lewis, 2019; May and Rehfeld, 2019; Sills, 2019); and ensuring consumers are well informed with the correct knowledge (Hughner *et al.*, 2007; Lorenzoni *et al.*, 2007; Krystallis *et al.*, 2012; Rayner, 2017; Arais and Kefauver, 2018).



**Figure 35:** Impacts of the 2016 Eatwell Guide compared to the current UK diet

**Source:** Carbon Trust (2016a).

The definition of a healthy diet is continually shifting to reflect the evolving understanding of nutrition. The British Nutrition Foundation believe that there is no single formula for good nutrition, arguing instead that different dietary patterns derived from foods available locally is invariably the best solution (Buttriss, 2010). Their basic principles that can be applied to all global dietary patterns is shown in table 4 as dietary recommendations for a balanced UK diet. To shift the existing diet to the UK's recommended diet, Williams *et al.*, (2017) argue, would require large changes with major implications for food supply chains. The Eatwell Guide currently represents the basis by which the UK Department of Health recommends dietary intake (Lake *et al.*, 2010; Public Health England, 2016; IGD, 2019a). The WWF have their own interpretation, the *Livewell Plate* that aims to enable healthy and sustainable food choices (Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2011; WWF-UK, 2011; WWF, 2011; WWF, 2017c; WWF, 2017d; WWF, 2017f). Harcombe (2017) raises several weaknesses with the current iteration of the Eatwell Guide: that it has remained largely unchanged since it was introduced in 1994; that it is not evidence-based (especially no significant randomised controlled trials of the dietary guidelines); and it was originally formulated by a group comprising mainly of members of the food and drink industry rather than independent experts (see the example of Flora vegetable spread in appendix 8.16). The Carbon Trust (2016a) calculates the Eatwell Guide has a 32 per cent lower environmental footprint than the current national diet and, should consumers commit to it, they would reduce their GHG emissions to a sustainable level. Figure 35 shows the comparison to the current national (NDNS) diet graphically. Despite its lower environmental impact, it still needs to be updated to incorporate sustainable diets that will enable the 20 per cent reduction in meat and dairy consumption to meet the targets set in the Committee on Climate Change's Net Zero report (Carbon Trust, 2016; EAC, 2019; Gren *et al.*, 2019; *The Lancet*, 2019d; Lassen *et al.*, 2020). Although others argue that former weaknesses have largely been addressed (Rayner, 2016; Scarborough *et al.*, 2016), the Food Foundation (2018b) argue differential nutrient intakes, increasing food bank usage, and higher childhood obesity statistics are all indicators that low income households are struggling to afford the Eatwell Guide; this concern is also apparent in further studies (Jones *et al.*, 2018; Ebadi and Ahmadi, 2019).

Recommendation		Reason for the recommendation	Is the recommendation being met?	
Fruit and vegetables	At least 5x80g portions/day	↓ risk some cancers, CVD and other chronic diseases	4.4x80g portions/day in adults	✗
Oil-rich fish	At least 1x140g/week	↓ risk CVD	0.3x140g portion/week among adults	✗
Non-milk extrinsic sugars	< 11 per cent food energy (~60g/day)	↓ risk dental caries	Average 12.5 per cent energy	✗
Fat	Reduce to average of 35 per cent food energy	↓ risk CVD and ↓ energy density of diets	Average 33 per cent energy across the population	✓
Saturates	Reduce to average of 11 per cent food energy	↓ risk CVD and ↓ energy density of diets	Average 12.8 per cent energy	✗
NSP (fibre)	Average 18g/day (adults)	To improve gastrointestinal health	Average 13g/day	✗
Alcohol	Alcohol limits 3-4 units/day	Minimise risk of liver disease, CVD, cancers, injury from accidents and violence	60 per cent (♂) exceed 44 per cent (♀) exceed	✗
Salt	Average 6g/day (2.4g/day sodium)	↓ risk hypertension and CVD	Average 8.6g/day	✗
Vitamins/ minerals	Dietary reference values	To promote optimum health and prevent deficiency	Low intakes seen for a number of these in various age groups	Not all
Energy intake	2,500kcal (♂) 2,000kcal (♀)	↓ risk of obesity, some cancers, CVD and type 2 diabetes	80-90 per cent EAR	✓
Body weight	BMI 18.5-25kg/m <sup>2</sup>	↓ risk of obesity, some cancers, CVD and type 2 diabetes	66 per cent (♂) & 53 per cent (♀) over BMI 25	✗

**Table 4:** Summary of achievement of dietary recommendations for a balanced diet in the UK to 2010

Notes: BMI = body mass index; CVD = cardiovascular disease; EAR = estimated average requirement; ♂ = male; ♀ = female

**Source:** British Nutrition Foundation (Buttriss, 2010).

The recently introduced EAT-Lancet diet (Willett *et al.*, 2019a) is arguably the first global benchmark diet designed for planetary health (Hirvonen *et al.*, 2020). The EAT-Lancet Commission planetary health plate can be found in appendix 8.6 and the Lancet Countdown indicators are listed in appendix 8.7. It has been overwhelmingly supported by scientists, health professionals, and NGOs for its potential to reduce heart disease and diabetes, although its association with stroke or mortality remains unproven (Anthony, 2019; BANT, 2019; Dangour, 2019; Knuppel *et al.*, 2019; Lawrence, 2019; RSA, 2019c; Soil Association, 2019).

Other stakeholders, however, have raised numerous concerns: the loss of animal husbandry jobs, impact on traditional diets, and centralised control eliminating consumers' freedom of dietary choice (Torjesen, 2019). Three subsequent responses published in *The Lancet* provide further critique: on microbial species diversity in the gut (McCarthy and Li, 2019); its reliance on meaningless data that '*contributes to the fictional and physiologically illiterate discourse . . . and failed diet-centric public policies*' (Archer and Lavie, 2019, p.214); and the scale of its omissions and methodological flaws in assumptions, data collection, and modelling (Zagmutt *et al.*, 2019). Such criticisms have been robustly defended by the original authors (Willett *et al.*, 2019c; Willett *et al.*, 2019d). Furthermore, as higher carbon footprints can be associated with consumption in restaurants, confectionery, and alcohol, more needs to be done in addition to reducing meat consumption (Kanemoto *et al.*, 2019). The most recently available analysis on the affordability of the EAT–Lancet diet suggests it costs, on average, more than 1.6 times the minimum cost of nutrient adequacy and, as such, would be presently unaffordable for at least 1.58 billion (or 20 per cent) of the world's poorest people without additional intervention (Hiroven *et al.*, 2020). The reception to the EAT-Lancet diet from within the grey literature has, rather predictedly, been much more negative (Banta *et al.*, 2018; AHDB, 2019; Blythman, 2019b; IGD, 2019a; Leroy and Cohen, 2019; Leroy and Cohen, 2019b; NFU, 2019b; Shiva, 2019b; Steele, 2019; Sustainable Food Trust, 2019a; Teicholz, 2019). One article in the *Spectator*, the right-leaning political and cultural magazine, describes the '*increasingly loony Lancet*' diet as a draconian, step-change designed by '*a militant coalition of vegetarians, environmental activists and health campaigners*' (Snowdon, 2019). Similar negativity is perhaps best summarised by coverage in *The Grocer*, that calls for resistance to '*a top-down attempt by a small, unrepresentative, dogmatic global elite to mould public agriculture policy*' that '*could lead to cranky diets and nutritional deficiencies in affluent countries and acute protein shortages in the poorer ones*' by a '*well-financed transnational organisation*' (Blythman, 2019a).

### 2.5.3 Implications of the dietary cost to health

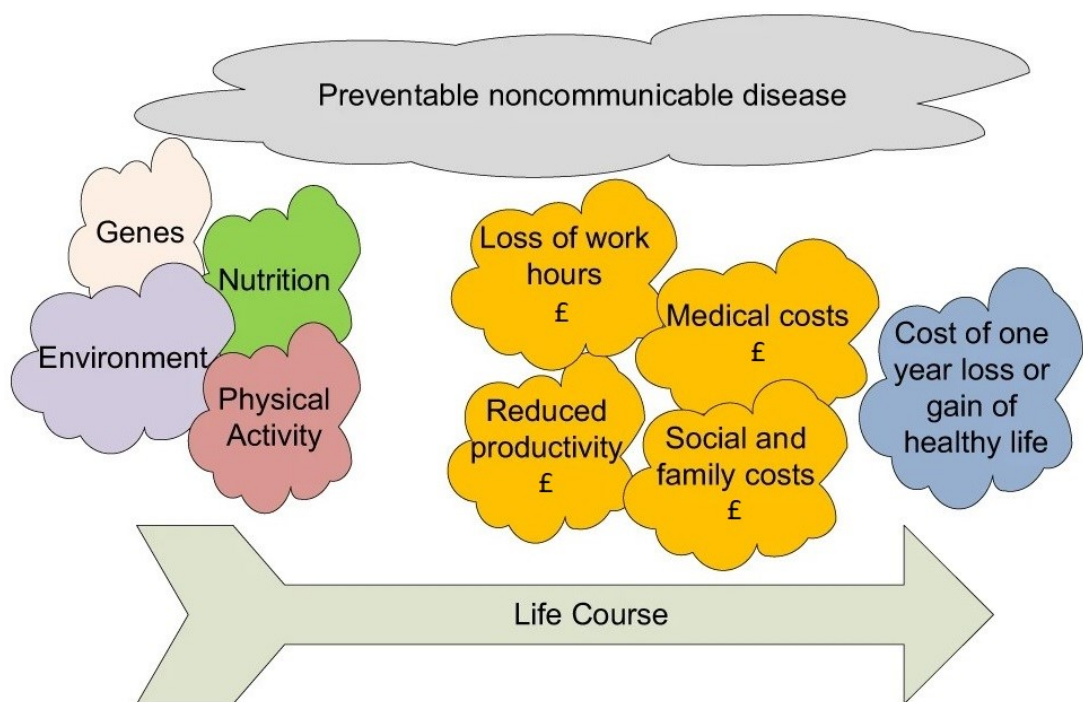
Current food systems are seen as increasingly unaffordable in terms of both the environment and health (O'Neil, 2007; NAP, 2012b; National Research Council, 2012b; O'Kane, 2012; Fitzpatrick and Young, 2017; Fitzpatrick *et al.*, 2018; Science for Environment Policy, 2018). The 2017 '*Global Burden of Disease*' ranks diet-related, non-communicable diseases (NCDs) such as Type-2 diabetes, heart disease and some cancers as the main causes of global disability and death, being responsible for 11 million deaths and 255 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) (Eyles *et al.*, 2012; World Cancer Research Fund International, 2014; De Ridder *et al.*, 2017; GBD, 2017; Haddad and Nabarro, 2018; Afshin *et al.*, 2019; Bradbury *et al.*, 2019; Lawrence, 2019; Mozaffarian, 2019; *The Lancet*, 2020). Diseases associated with affluence are becoming more prevalent (Drewnowski, 2009; Swinburn *et al.*, 2011; Buttriss and Riley, 2013; Imamura *et al.*, 2015; Hill, 2018; da Silva, 2019). This now equates to 20 per cent of deaths being associated with poor diet (*The*

*Lancet*, 2019b) significantly higher than the Ng *et al.* (2014) study of 2013. In the UK, Watson and Mwatsama (2018) estimate £120bn per annum of hidden costs, £45bn of which is directly attributable to food consumption-related health costs. Air pollution alone accounts for 40,000 premature deaths and an annual £3.1bn health cost (RCP and RCPCH, 2016; *The Lancet*, 2016a; UKHACC, 2016). The annual cost of obesity is estimated at £60bn (Davies, 2019) or equivalent to 3 per cent of GDP, and it reduces life expectancy 12 years (IEA, 2017). Obese patients typically cost 30 per cent more to treat medically and have 20 per cent higher GHG emissions (an additional 700 megatons per year of CO<sub>2</sub>e, or 1.6 per cent of worldwide GHG emissions) (Magkos *et al.*, 2020). Some see this as a market failure that requires government intervention, where imperfect information has led to consumers making poor choices (McCarthy, 2004; Furceri *et al.*, 2016; Food Ethics Council, 2017b; Freebairn, 2018; Food Foundation, 2018b; *Food Service Footprint*, 2018b; Baggini, 2019). Similarly, the annual cost to treat the UK's 3.5 million diabetics ranges from £10bn, or around 10 per cent of its annual budget (Poppy and Baverstock, 2019), to £27bn (RSA-FFCC, 2019) or £4,000 per capita. Bailey *et al.* (2018) estimate diabetes treatment will reach 5 per cent of global GDP within the next decade; Hex *et al.* (2012) suggest this will rise to 17 per cent by 2035.

The true cost of food is not fully covered in its price, with many consumers unable to afford a sufficient diet, or to follow the UK's Eatwell Guide (Food Foundation, 2018b; Lambert, 2018). Furthermore, the Food Foundation (2019) cite the United Nation's Food and Agriculture Organisation measure of food insecurity, which estimated 8.4 million UK people were living in food insecure households. Research undertaken by the NGOs suggest this is contributing to the increase in use of food banks and charities (Jitendra *et al.*, 2017; Loopstra and Lalor, 2017; Jitendra *et al.*, 2018) and '*should be a cause for shame in the sixth richest country in the world*' (RSA FFCC, 2018b). UNICEF estimate that 10 per cent of British children are living in severely food insecure households, and Cooper and Dumbleton (2013) suggest at least 500,000 are food insecure. The government's own data acknowledges that childhood obesity rates in the UK are the worst in Europe (Sedghi, 2014; Hawkes *et al.*, 2015; Department for Health and Social Care, 2016; HM Government, 2018b; HSCIC, 2019; London Child Obesity Taskforce, 2019; Shah *et al.*, 2019). Further additional costs for degradation of natural capital such as soil, water, pollution, and biodiversity need to also be considered; Watson and Mwatsama (2018) estimate these at £30bn and £13bn, respectively. The RSA Food, Farming and Countryside Commission argue that the hidden cost of the UK's current food system must include the spiralling public health crisis and environmental destruction. Their report suggests '*what we eat and how we produce it is damaging people and the planet*' and concludes that we have just 10 years left to restore health and wellbeing to both people and the planet (RSA FFCC, 2019 p.9). The Economist Intelligence Unit's Food Sustainability Index ranks the UK 16th out of 28 European countries and 24th out of 67 countries globally on health, environmental, social and economic indicators relating to food (Economist Intelligence Unit - Barilla, 2016; 2017a; 2017c; 2017d; 2018a; 2018b).



Although measuring the economic costs of over-nutrition is notoriously complex, cited figures often ignore the impacts on factors such as learning potential and education system costs, labour productivity, and increases in healthcare, with many estimates suggesting immense public health costs (Cohen and Babey, 2012; NAP, 2012; Dimitri and Rogus, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2016; Mötteli *et al.*, 2016; Izraelov and Silber, 2019). Rush (2019) argues that in addition to the direct costs of health care and associated loss in productivity, the tangible and intangible costs to society and families impact across the lifecycle (diagrammatically shown in figure 36). Finally, *The Lancet* (2019d) estimate that £17bn could be saved over 20 years with the appropriate responses to climate change and sustainability; mitigating 28,000 premature deaths in the UK (or 3.6 million globally) by reducing air pollution alone, with further reductions from food associated emissions preventing even more deaths. Maybe these financial consequences will finally compel politicians, business, and policymakers to take effective and pragmatic action on food (Winkler, 2013). Further detail on the increasing costs of health impacts can be found in appendix 8.2.



**Figure 36:** Factors that determine cost effectiveness of interventions over the life course

**Source:** adapted from Rush (2019).

#### 2.5.4 Developing a narrative for sustainable diets

Sustainable diets need to satisfy the four domains of food sustainability – nutrition, society, the environment, and economics. But achieving these multiple and sometimes contradictory demands is both complex and challenging (Kates *et al.*, 2001; Bettencourt and Kaur, 2011; Butler and Dixon, 2012; Davies, 2013; Klauer *et al.*, 2013; IOM, 2014; Katz and Meller, 2014; Springer and Duchin, 2014; IPES, 2015a; IPES, 2015b; Garnett, 2016b; Mielke *et al.*, 2016; EUPHA, 2017; Farmery *et al.*, 2017; Green *et al.*, 2017; Herforth, 2017; Kramer *et al.*, 2017; Brons, 2018; Danton and Titus, 2018; Lacour *et al.*, 2018; Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2018; Nature Conservancy Council, 2018; van der Leeuw, 2018; Cookson, 2019). The term sustainable diet was first proposed by Gussow and Clancy (1986) for *‘food choices that support life and health within natural system limits into the foreseeable future’*: the more recent FAO definition is more commonly cited within the literature as *‘those diets with low environmental impacts which contribute to food and nutrition security and to healthy life for present and future generations’* which are *‘protective and respectful of biodiversity and ecosystems, culturally acceptable, accessible, economically fair and affordable; nutritionally adequate, safe and healthy; while optimizing natural and human resources’* (FAO, 2010a; Burlingame and Dernini, 2012, p.7; FAO, 2019k). Although frameworks for sustainable food systems do exist (Imenda, 2014; IOM and NRC, 2015; UNSCN, 2016; FAO, 2018c) none adequately cover sustainable diets as yet (Lang and Mason, 2018). Ultimately, to be sustainable, a diet must be nutritionally adequate, safe, affordable, acceptable, appealing, and environment enhancing (Drewnowski, 2019).

A major challenge within the food–environment–health nexus is the continuing shift towards diets that are more resource intensive and less healthy (Lappé, 1971; Combris, 2006; FCRN, 2014a; Garnett, 2014b; Heller and Keoleian, 2014; Casini *et al.*, 2015; Hess *et al.*, 2015; Carolan, 2016; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Hess *et al.*, 2016; Wilkes *et al.*, 2016; FCRN, 2018j; Vieux *et al.*, 2018; Hitaj *et al.*, 2019). The growing use of ultra-processed food is a particularly significant and recent development within the literature (Stuckler *et al.*, 2012; Monteiro *et al.*, 2013; Lang, 2014c; Mozaffarian, 2016; Steele *et al.*, 2017; Gallagher, 2018; Ha, 2018; Monteiro *et al.*, 2018; Smyth, 2018; FCRN, 2019j; Fraanje and Garnett, 2019; Lawrence and Baker, 2019; Hall *et al.*, 2019; Mozaffarian, 2019; O’Connor, 2019; Popkin *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, they are often associated with a plethora of additional problems such as deforestation (Morton *et al.*, 2006; Wilcove and Koh, 2010; May-Tobin *et al.*, 2012; Carlson *et al.*, 2013; Erb *et al.*, 2016; Lee *et al.*, 2016; McGilvray, 2016). In an observational article for the *BMJ* for example, Winkler (2013, p.1) argues that *‘the problem is processed foods, the greedy companies that make them, and cowardly governments that refuse to control them’*. Nutrition is now a cross-cutting theme in all FAO strategies, including the Framework for Action for Nutrition (Thompson, 2015) and the Decade of Action on Nutrition by the United Nations General Assembly. This is, in part, a response to criticisms over a lack of clear priorities on food systems for nutrition. Further detail on the UN ‘Decade of Action on Nutrition (2016-2025)’ can be found in appendix

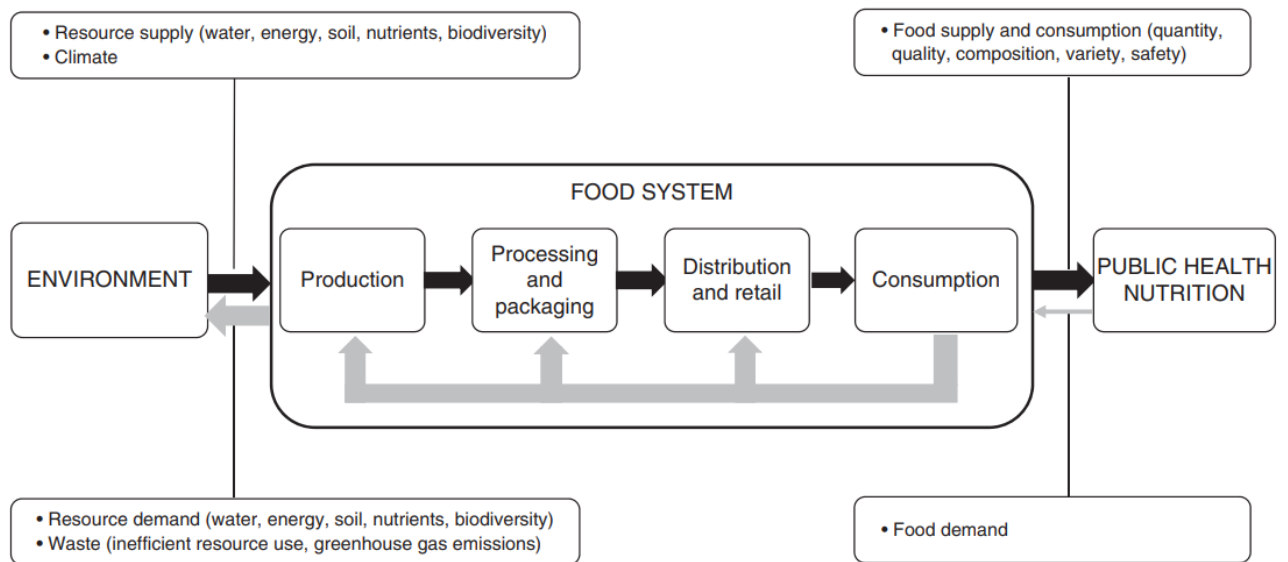
8.5. The literature also provides abundant evidence for the various dietary options of vegetarian (Haddad and Tanzman, 2003; Risku-Norja *et al.*, 2009; Martindale, 2017; Van Loo *et al.*, 2017; Rosenfeld, 2018; Allwood *et al.*, 2019; Lawrence and McNaughton, 2019; Lomborg, 2019), vegan (Rosi *et al.*, 2017; Breewood, 2018; Elliott *et al.*, 2018; O'Donovan, 2019; Selwyn, 2019) and flexitarian (Sundaram, 2014; Jones *et al.*, 2015; McGrath, 2018c; YouGov, 2019), although some studies argue that these options are not an inherent guarantee of sustainability. Further studies evaluate the traditional Mediterranean diet with its strong interconnection between nutrition, biodiversity, local production and culture (Burlingame and Dernini, 2011; Dernini, 2012; FAO, 2012c; Germani *et al.*, 2014; Pirotti *et al.*, 2014; Dernini and Berry, 2015; Dernini *et al.*, 2017; Economist Intelligence Unit - Barilla, 2017a; Piscopo, 2017; Azzini *et al.*, 2018; Berry, 2019; Springmann *et al.*, 2018a; D'Innocenzo *et al.*, 2019) and the Atlantic diet (Esteve-Llorens *et al.*, 2019). Some studies advocate local food initiatives (Clonan and Holdsworth, 2012; Akenji and Chen, 2016; Dernini, 2016; Brons, 2018; Bryce, 2018; Mattioni and Caraher, 2018), but Milner and Green (2018) argue that a diet that might be sustainable, healthy, economically fair, and culturally acceptable in one region might not meet sustainable criteria in another. Sotiris and Patrick (2019) warn about growing food in urban areas because of the risk of legacy soil contamination.

Recent criticisms about the lack of cross-country comparisons (Milner and Green, 2018) have been addressed to a limited extent by a study encompassing 158 countries (Springmann *et al.*, 2018b). The *Lancet Countdown* also encourage case studies as useful tools for highlighting more sustainable diets (Watts *et al.*, 2016). Numerous country-based studies have found additional benefits in terms of sustainability (Upadhyay and Sachdeva, 2010; Vieux *et al.*, 2012; 2013; Geeraert, 2013; Meier and Christen, 2013; Masset *et al.*, 2014; Tjärnemo and Södahl, 2015; Kromhout *et al.*, 2016; Rööös *et al.*, 2016; Khanal and Mishra, 2017; Martin and Brandão, 2017; Rösemann *et al.*, 2017; Vetter *et al.*, 2017; Rao *et al.*, 2018; Rizvi *et al.*, 2018; Schösler and de Boer, 2018; Seconda *et al.*, 2018; Neset *et al.*, 2019; Vetter *et al.*, 2019).

The remaining sustainable food domains of society, the environment, and economics are more difficult to analyse given the diversity of scientific disciplines. Here the safety, affordability, acceptability, consumer appeal, and environmental consequences of sustainable diets are analysed. Although consumers are increasingly concerned about the sustainability of their food (Statista, 2018), this does not automatically mean it is a focal goal of purchasing behaviour (Vermeir and Werbeke, 2006; Tukker *et al.*, 2008; Tobler *et al.*, 2011; Truelove and Parks, 2012; Verain *et al.*, 2012; Girod *et al.*, 2014; Verain *et al.*, 2015; de Boer *et al.*, 2018; Todor, 2019). Allès *et al.* (2017), however, did find a correlation between those with higher concerns for food sustainability and healthier diets. Lang (2017b; 2017c; 2017e) argues that sustainable food systems have to start by focusing on consumption; over-consumption is unsustainable and consumers will need help to be able to stop it (Alexander *et al.*, 2016b; Alexander *et al.*, 2017b; Lang,

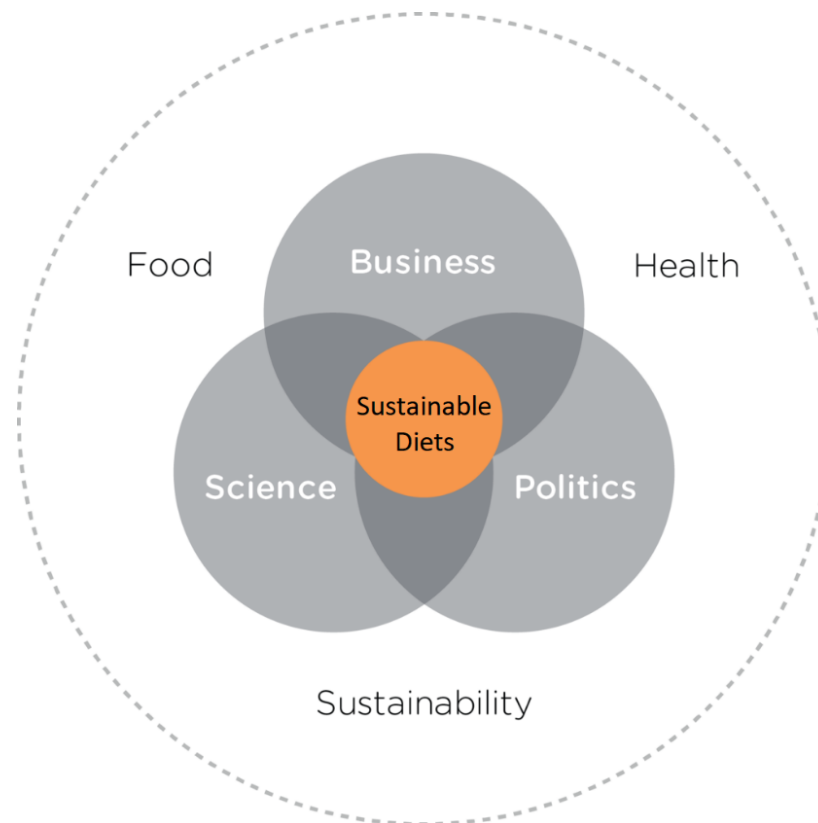
2017e; Monbiot, 2018). Affordability is essential, so any future policies would need to be tailored towards differing income groups, with appropriate and effective interventions where necessary (Day and Lee, 2011; Reynolds *et al.*, 2019). Similarly, where food is produced and the food miles associated with getting it to the consumer remains a concern (Goodland, 1997; DEFRA, 2005; Weber and Matthews, 2008; Coley *et al.*, 2009; Barclay, 2012; Allwood *et al.*, 2019). There is also the recognition of the need for radical social adaptations to achieve sustainable diets (Donati *et al.*, 2016; Berners-Lee *et al.*, 2018).

Transitioning to sustainable diets is also urgently needed to safeguard biodiversity (Helms, 2004; Garnett *et al.*, 2014; Pörtner *et al.*, 2014; Reis *et al.*, 2015; WWF, 2016a; Mason and Lang, 2017; Tutwiler *et al.*, 2017; Galli *et al.*, 2018; Rocha *et al.*, 2018; Springmann *et al.*, 2018c; Bird *et al.*, 2019; Lamine *et al.*, 2019; Lawrence, 2019). Overall, sustainable diets are increasingly seen as the definitive goal for the Anthropocene and requiring a Great Food Transition (Mason and Lang, 2017), the cornerstone to food security in 2050 (Berry *et al.*, 2015; Clapp *et al.*, 2015e; Msangi and Batka, 2015; WWF-UK, 2015; Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2018), a way of mitigating the many effects of climate change (Wickramasinghe *et al.*, 2013), and thereby enabling humanity to remain within the planet's safe operating space (Willett *et al.*, 2019). From a food safety perspective, sustainable diets are also needed to address the increasing ecological and health concerns associated with contaminants, microbes, and biotoxins (Miraglia *et al.*, 2009; Lake *et al.*, 2010; Tirado *et al.*, 2010; Lang, 2014c; Levitt and Thomas, 2014; Poppy *et al.*, 2014b; Lloret *et al.*, 2015; Golden *et al.*, 2016; Jespersen *et al.*, 2017; Koufteros and Lu, 2017; Britwum and Yiannaka, 2019; Russell, 2019). There is some evidence to suggest that foods with the lowest ecological impact tend to be those recommended in healthy diets (Fischer and Garnett, 2016), although anomalies such as biscuits and cakes also exist (Dötsch-Klerk *et al.*, 2016). It cannot be assumed, however, that a healthy diet will have lower GHG emissions (Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2012). Mwatsama (2018) argues that the UK's food system does not support the UK government's healthy eating goals, recommending instead a framework which incorporates best practice from other food systems. Figure 37 shows the conceptual framework of the relationship between the environment and public health nutrition that is required for sustainable diets proposed by Lawrence *et al.* (2015b). There is also an urgent need for stronger public health programmes that encourage more sustainable diets to prevent the increased risk of mortality (Springmann *et al.*, 2016b; *The Lancet*, 2019d).



**Figure 37:** Conceptual framework of the environment–public health nutrition relationship for sustainable diets

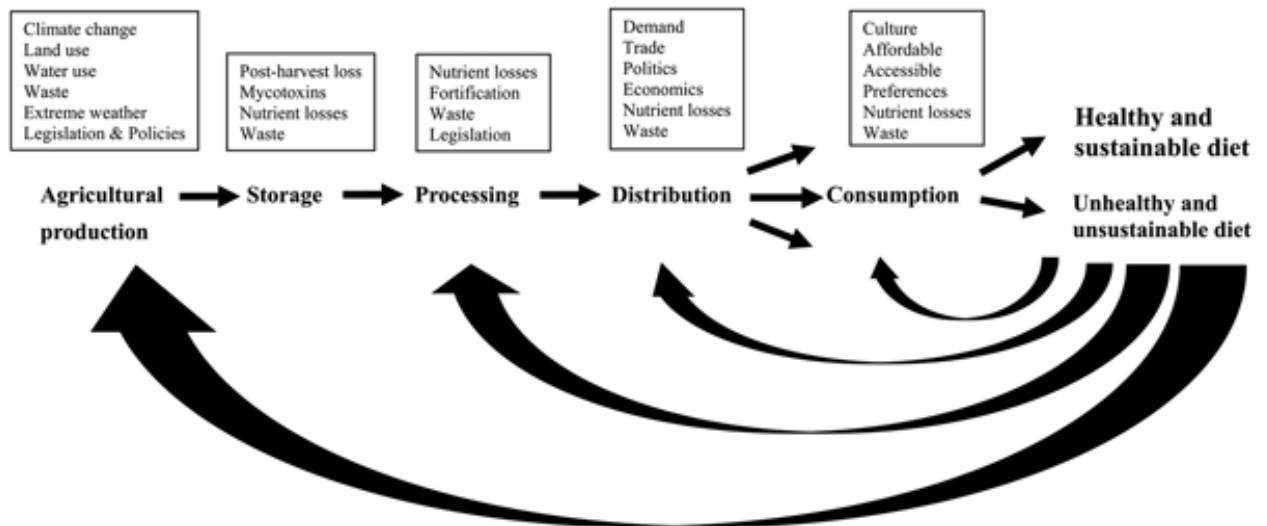
**Source:** Lawrence *et al.* (2015b).



**Figure 38:** The 'double triple helix' of sustainable diets merges science, business, and politics, for food, health, and sustainability

**Source:** adapted from Rockström *et al.* (2017a).

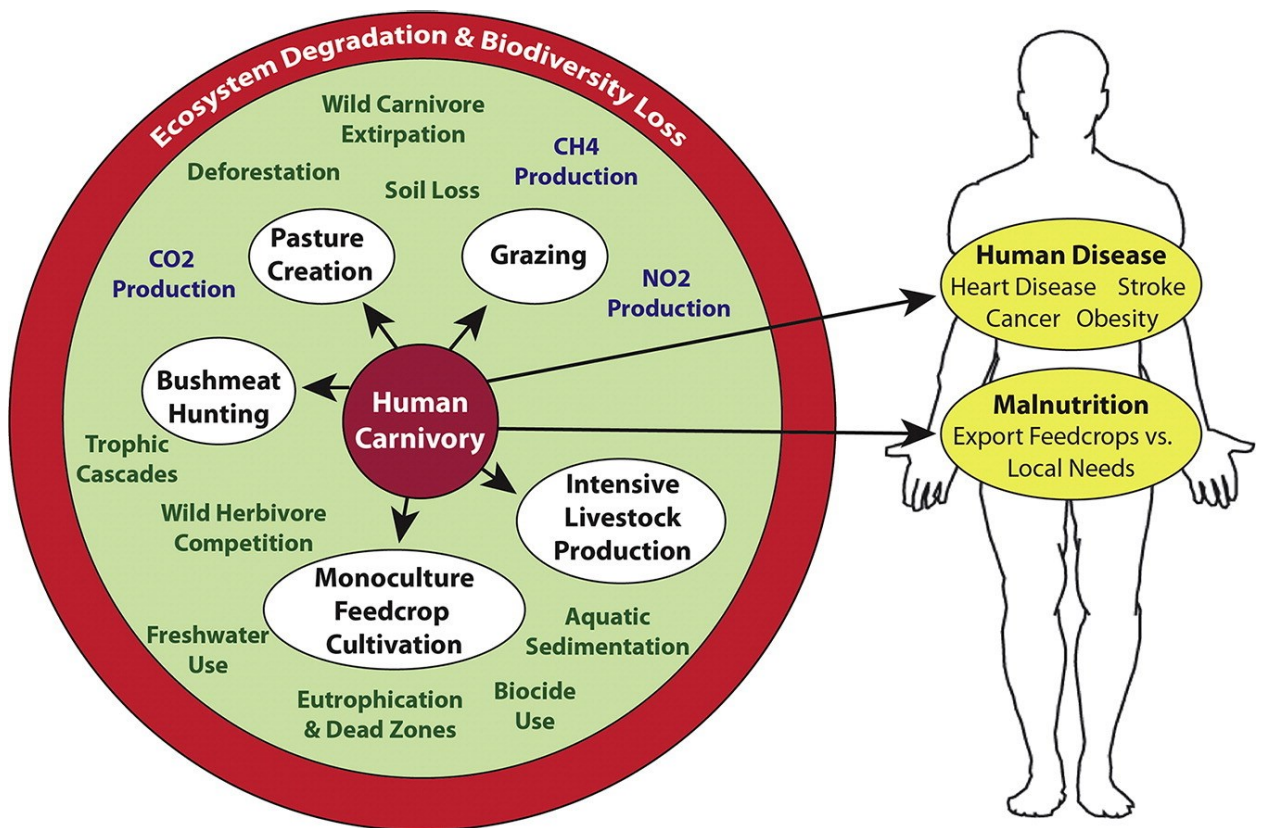
Figure 38 shows the double triple helix proposed by Rockström *et al.* (2017a). This model merges together the three disparate and often disconnected disciplines – science, politics and business, in order to better understand, and provide the essential interdisciplinarity needed to develop a global food system capable of delivering the goals on sustainability, health, and climate change. Macdiarmid and Whybrow (2019) have recently called for each part of the food system, from agricultural production to consumption, to be explored to ascertain where improvements can be made (figure 39), but warn against assuming that producing healthy food automatically leads to healthy and sustainable diets after processing takes place.



**Figure 39:** The stages in the food system that drive whether diets are healthy and sustainable

**Source:** Macdiarmid and Whybrow (2019).

The extent to which animal proteins can be considered as part of a sustainable diet continues to receive special scrutiny within the literature (Dwivedi *et al.*, 2017; Kuyper *et al.*, 2017; Friend, 2019; Lang and Millstone, 2019). Fish is seen as an inherently unsustainable protein, as climate change is affecting both fishing and aquaculture, threatening protein, and fish supply (Quinn and Collie, 2005; Mitchell, 2011; Earle, 2013; Bryce, 2014). Meat is similarly problematic, with a number of analyses providing a rationale for switching to more alternative, plant-based proteins (Carlsson-Kanyama and González, 2009; Vidal, 2010; Tobler *et al.*, 2011; Schösler *et al.*, 2012; Ipsos MORI, 2014; Scarborough *et al.*, 2014; Machovina *et al.*, 2015; Springmann *et al.*, 2016b; Lang, 2017d; 2017e; Henry *et al.*, 2019). Machovina *et al.* (2015) predict that South America, Africa, and Asia will need a further 30–50 per cent increase in the land used for meat production by 2050, with hugely negative consequences for ecosystem degradation and biodiversity loss (figure 40). Scherer *et al.* (2019) found that most countries reduced the consumption of animal products when they adopted a nationally recommended diet. Macdiarmid *et al.* (2012), however, believes that a sustainable and healthy diet with lower GHGs is achievable without eliminating meat or dairy products or increasing the cost to the consumer (*New Scientist*, 2017a).



**Figure 40:** Reducing meat consumption for biodiversity conservation

$CO_2$  = Carbon Dioxide production;  $CH_4$  = Methane production;  $NO_2$  = Nitrogen Oxide production

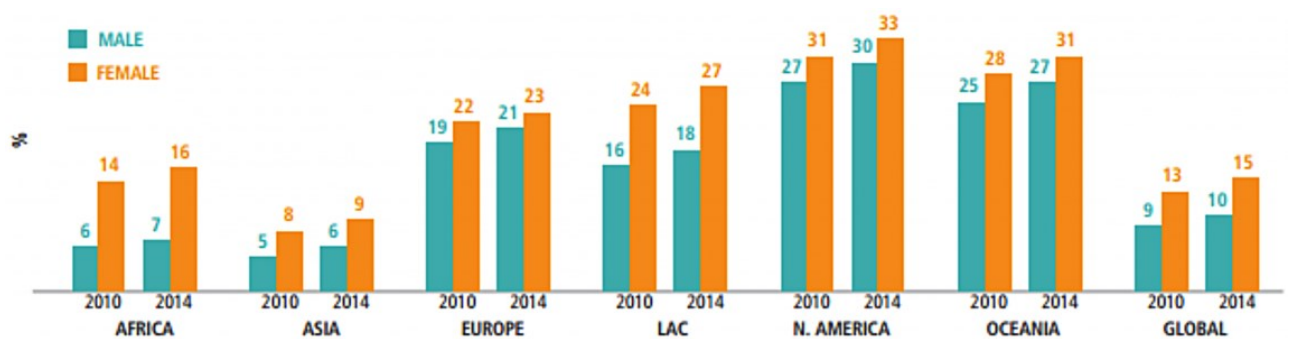
**Source:** Machovina *et al.* (2015).

Interdisciplinary contributions are vital components for both policy engagement and clarification (Lang and Barling, 2013a; Padilla *et al.*, 2015). One of the most comprehensive studies of the sustainable diet literature concluded that moving to sustainable diets in the UK would dramatically affect production patterns (DEFRA, 2011c), Aleksandrowicz *et al.* (2016) estimate that reductions of at least 70 per cent of GHG emissions and land use and 50 per cent of water use can be achieved by moving from Western to sustainable dietary patterns; Vanham *et al.* (2018) suggest UK consumers could use 35 per cent less water if they switched to healthier diets, or by 55 per cent if meat is replaced by fish or a vegetarian diet. Harris *et al.* (2019) similarly advocate sustainable diets that both promote health and have a lower water footprint. Scarborough *et al.* (2014) estimate meat eaters have approximately twice the dietary GHG emissions of a vegan, whereas earlier research had suggested sustainable and healthy diets with lower GHGs are achievable without eliminating meat or dairy products or increasing the cost to the consumer (Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2012; New Scientist, 2017a). Elliott *et al.* (2018) also argue that vegan diets had a chronic lack of essential micronutrients, vitamins and minerals, with long-term consequences including



lower disease resistance, mental impairment and even death. This is contrary to the previous view that the health of Western vegetarians was generally good (Key *et al.*, 2006; Schepers and Annemans, 2018).

Recognising the significant co-benefits of tackling climate change to both food security and public health, several international agencies have interdisciplinary policies to bring about the transition to sustainable diets (Lim *et al.*, 2009; Ganten *et al.*, 2010; FAO, 2015a; Thompson, 2015; FAO/OECD, 2018). Figure 41 shows that the mean prevalence of adult obesity by United Nations region continued to worsen between 2010 to 2014, meaning that no countries are on target to meet the WHO goal of halting the rise in obesity. Overconsumption is also associated with changes in eating habits (figure 42), especially when such dietary changes lead to the excessive consumption of calories, undesirable nutrients, cause micronutrient deficiencies and, where diets lack sufficient quantities of fruit, vegetables and fibre, contribute to an increased risk of NCDs. Further detail on the co-benefits of health and climate change can be found in appendix 8.13.

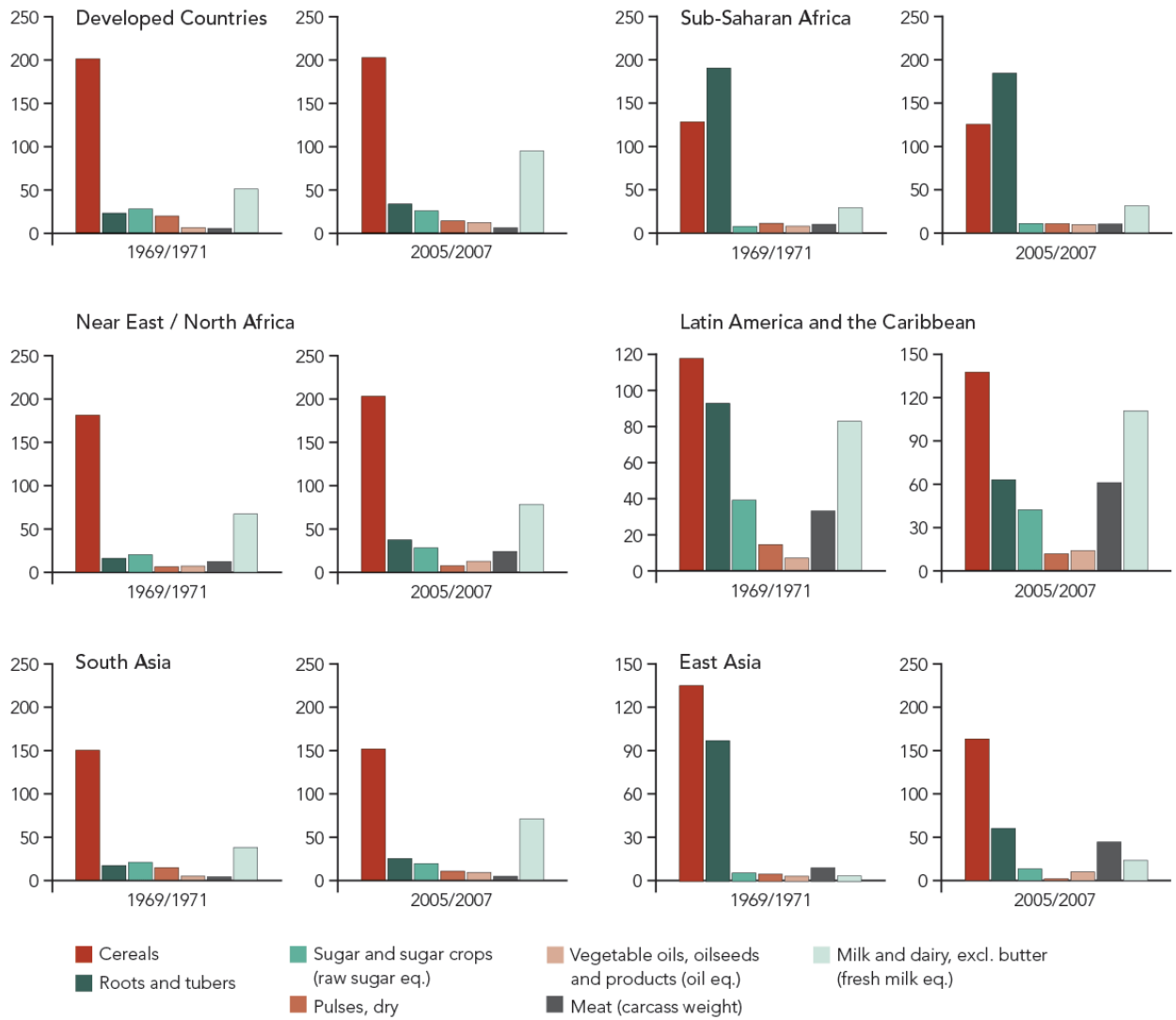


**Figure 41:** Mean prevalence of adult obesity by United Nations region, 2010-2014

**Source:** International Food Policy Research Institute (2015).

Gaps within the literature appear around four primary areas: the impacts of changing diets; the potential for alternatives to meat; effectiveness of intervention options, and, transparent metrics for environmental sustainability (Gerbens-Leens *et al.*, 2003; BSI, 2008; Fiala, 2008a; Hawkesworth *et al.*, 2010; Lock *et al.*, 2010; Heller *et al.*, 2013; Murray, 2014; McDermott *et al.*, 2015; Bartlett and Garnett, 2016; Grönman *et al.*, 2016; Herforth, 2016; Kiff *et al.*, 2016; Gabrysch, 2018; Stylianou *et al.*, 2018; FCN, 2019; Benton, 2020). The psychological need to develop ‘sustainability leaders’ by reconnecting consumers to the natural world (Amel *et al.*, 2017; Helm *et al.*, 2018) and to build sustainability acceptability (Kennedy *et al.*, 2017) is advocated. As one seasoned policy researcher recently observed, the scale of the ultimate interdisciplinary scientific task ‘has quietly dawned on all who monitor and explore the nature of food’s impact on society, ecosystems and economy’ (Lang, 2017a, p.1).





**Figure 42:** Eating habits are changing

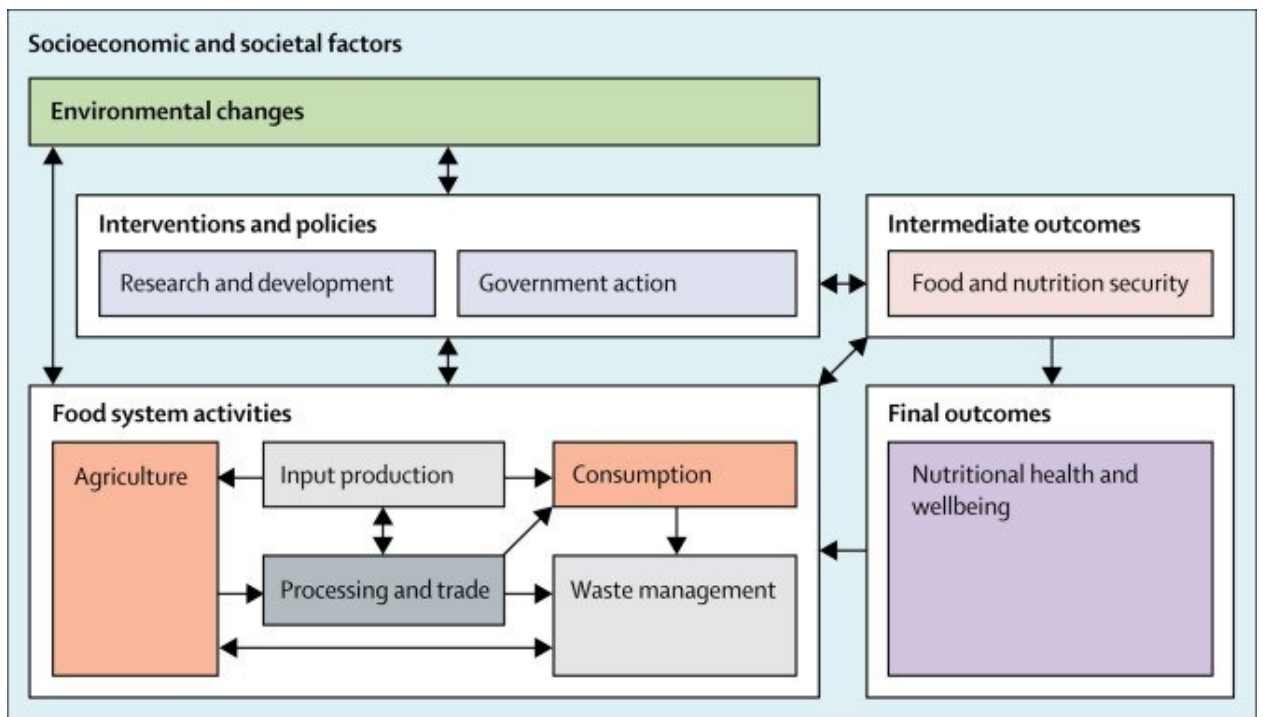
**Source:** FCRN (2018f) adapted from data in Alexandratos and Bruinsma (2012).

### 2.5.5 The challenges and responsibilities facing health professionals

The WHO (2015f, p.1) call for health professionals to ‘*use their knowledge and authority to inform and influence action in key national and international processes that guide policy and resources for work on climate change, such as preparation of national communications, national adaptation programmes of action and international agreements*’. The research literature reinforces this involvement in a variety of ways: by warning them not to assume that climate change is not their responsibility, or is too big and too hard to comprehend, or even that it’s not part of their domain (Davidson, 2016); or collectively failing present or future generations (Gill and Stott, 2009); by taking action today to reduce ill-health in the future (*The Lancet*, 2014); and to ensure future food security (Boyer *et al.*, 2019).

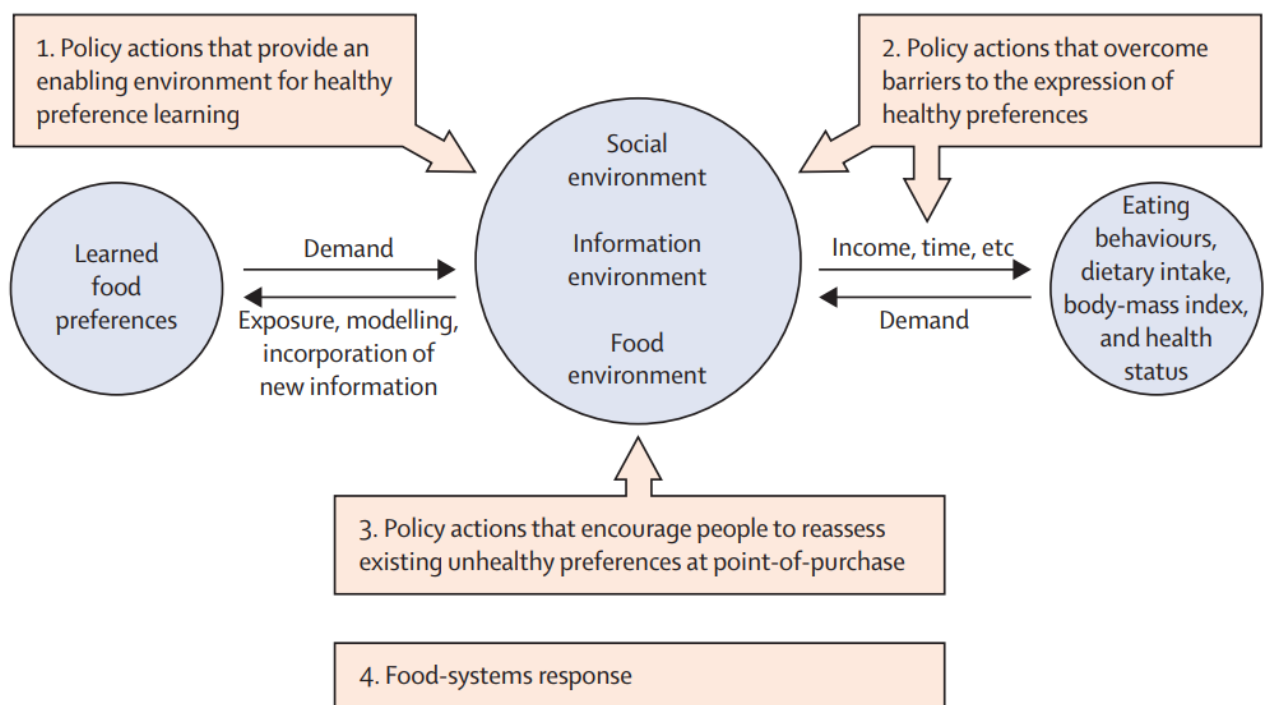
The social sciences are essential in understanding future food sustainability and especially in achieving the radical changes in food consumption and production advocated by health professionals (EC, 2011; Lucas and Horton, 2019). Such improvements in well-being will require advances in resource efficiency, conservation, diversity and transdisciplinarity. Wilde (2015, p.1999) puts it more succinctly: ‘*change our ways or be obliterated from the face of the Earth*’. Given the catastrophic threats from climate change, global pandemics and ecosystem collapse that humanity faces recommendations for health professionals are centred around five main tranches (Gill and Stott, 2009; Jay and Marmot, 2009; Davidson, 2016; Capon *et al.*, 2018). Firstly, learn, assess and plan to increase awareness of the pending threats (Sayre *et al.*, 2010; Davidson, 2016; Capon *et al.*, 2018) which will require significant changes to the education and training curricula for all health professionals (Sayre *et al.*, 2010; Davidson, 2016; Gabriel *et al.*, 2017; Galea, 2017; Jamie Oliver Food Foundation, 2017). This will involve learning from best global practice to understand how to address the health impacts from food, environmental degradation, and climate change (Pearson *et al.*, 2012; Deloitte, 2017) such as the USA’s training on the planetary health challenges (United States Government, 2015; Davidson, 2016). This learning would then enable better health promotion and convey sufficient anxiety to provoke appropriate consumer action (Butler, 2016a; Stone *et al.*, 2017; Stegeman *et al.*, 2019). Secondly, strengthen adaptive capacity by educating, informing, and exchanging knowledge to help bring about the behavioural changes needed in food consumers (Cook *et al.*, 1998; Griffiths *et al.*, 2008; Gill and Stott, 2009; Gill and Johnston, 2010; Millward and Garnett, 2010; Sayre *et al.*, 2010; Burlingame and Dernini, 2012; Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2013; McGowan, 2013; O’Neill *et al.*, 2015; FSA, 2016; Schanes *et al.*, 2016; *The Lancet*, 2016a; *The Lancet*, 2016c; Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2016; *Nature*, 2016a; O’Kane, 2016; Woodward, 2016; Benavot, 2017; GFS, 2017; Beckage *et al.* 2018; Cole-Hamilton, 2018; Pettinger, 2018; Bauer and Reisch, 2019). Examples include the challenges of reducing the financial barriers to healthier diets (Rao *et al.*, 2013), the potential of tailoring sustainable diets to income groups to make them more achievable (Reynolds *et al.*, 2019; de Grave *et al.*, 2020), and concern over commercial and political interests exerting far too much influence over health (Lucas and Horton, 2019). Here the

roles of the NGOs and CSOs are increasingly important (Lang, 2017b); especially *International Union for Health Promotion and Education*' (IUHPE), the umbrella organisation *European Public Health Association* (EUPHA), *International Panel of Experts on Food* (IPES-Food), the *EAT-Lancet Commission*, the *Global Alliance* coalition, collaboration through bodies such as the *Lancet Countdown* (Wang and Horton, 2015), and with funders such as the *Wellcome Trust*. With a healthier diet, for example, Hawkes *et al.* (2015) suggest health professionals have four opportunities to influence: enable learning about healthy preferences; disable barriers to the expression of healthy preferences; encourage resistance to unhealthy options; and to bring about a food systems response (figure 44). Furthermore, health professionals can help implement and set healthy food policies even in the absence of government action (Peeters, 2018). Thirdly, by acting as stewards of health-related mitigation to consider the environment in practice and engage in the debate on how environmental degradation and climate change can be addressed (Sayre *et al.*, 2010; Davidson, 2016). This would need to include evaluating the role of public–private partnerships, especially the negative impacts to health caused by the food industry, and promote sustainable and healthy food with reliable and user-friendly consumer information (Traoré *et al.*, 2012; Dangour *et al.*, 2017; EUPHA, 2017; Galea, 2017; Sackler Institute for Nutrition Science, 2017; Bhunnoo, 2019). This would necessitate health professionals shifting focus onto addressing environmental change, food system activities, and health outcomes within specific socioeconomic, societal, and political contexts shown in figure 43. Fourthly, lead by example and provide a voice for those most at risk through professional organisations, such as the *Climate and Health Council* and the *UK Health Alliance on Climate Change* (Limetz *et al.*, 2009; Lugsdin and Hook, 2016; *The Lancet*, 2016; *The Lancet*, 2016c; Galea, 2017; Myers, 2017; Capon *et al.*, 2018). The UKHACC (2020) recommendations on climate change are detailed in appendix 8.12. As a trusted profession, this includes speaking out to demand that politicians listen and use appropriate policies and governance (Seyfang, 2006b; Gill and Stott, 2009; Sayre *et al.*, 2010; British Medical Association, 2016; Davidson, 2016; *The Lancet*, 2016c; Haines *et al.*, 2018; Ingram and Zurek, 2018; *The Lancet*, 2018d). For nutritionists, this will necessitate a realignment in focus to face the new problems posed by the globalised food system and how to achieve sustainable nutrition (*The Lancet*, 2017c). And finally, using this skill-set to advocate for health to be at the centre of all climate change policies and plans (Myers, 2017; *The Lancet*, 2018d; El Bilali, 2019), including examples such as delivering the Paris Agreement commitments (Watts *et al.*, 2019) and mitigating against the many threats of Brexit to both health in general and the NHS in particular (Lang, 2019b; van Schalkwyk *et al.*, 2019).



**Figure 43:** Framework of environmental change, food system, nutrition, and health

*Source:* Dangour et al. (2017).



**Figure 44:** Framework of the theory of change and the four mechanisms through which food-policy actions could be expected to work

*Source:* Hawkes et al. (2015).



**Figure 45:** Priority action areas for dietitians and nutritionists in the intersection of agriculture, nutrition, and health

**Source:** Vogliano *et al.* (2015).



**Figure 46:** From farm to fork: dietitian and nutritionists' contributions

**Source:** adapted from Vogliano *et al.* (2015).

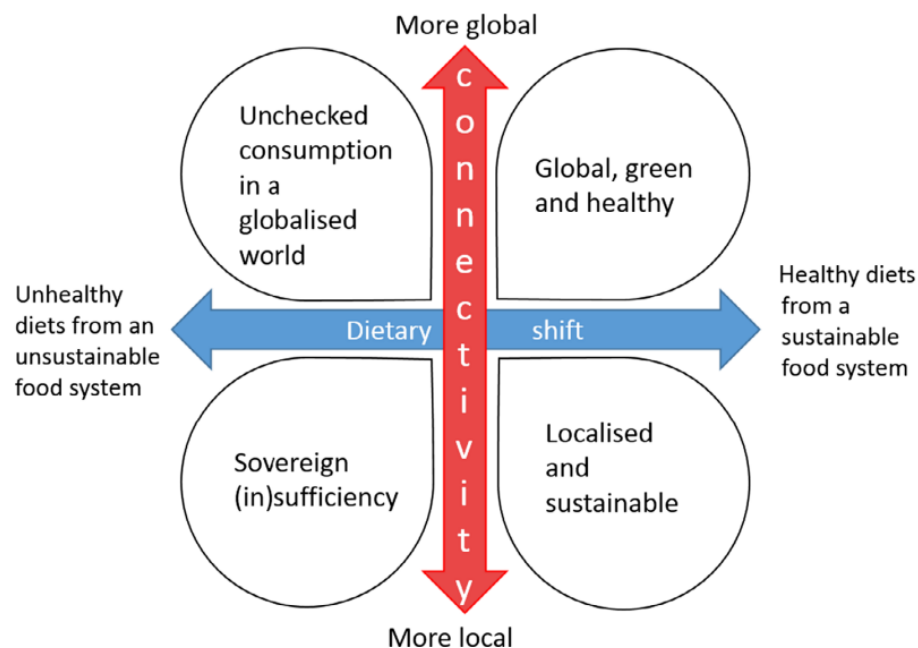


**Figure 47:** Increasing the global workforce capacity of dietitians and nutritionists

**Source:** adapted from Vogliano *et al.* (2015).

## 2.6 The challenges for existing food policy frameworks

This section examines the evidence base on how the current and future challenges facing food systems will impact policymaking at the national and international level. Climate change is increasing the urgency for food system transformation, while at the same time, ensuring improved food security and resource sustainability. Numerous studies raise concerns about future food security, including climate change bringing about greater political instability (Gleditsch, 2012; Hendrix and Salehyan, 2012; UN, 2012; Hsiang *et al.*, 2013; Adger *et al.*, 2014; Gleick, 2014; Hsiang and Meng, 2014; Tanentzap *et al.*, 2015; von Grebmer *et al.*, 2015; Clapp *et al.*, 2018; Frankelius, 2019; Miles-Novelo and Anderson, 2019; Wagner *et al.*, 2019), multiple crop failures (Janetos, 2017), the need to transform resource utilisation (Carrington, 2019), and increasing household food insecurity (Cafiero *et al.*, 2018; HM Government, 2018b; Food Foundation, 2019). The over-riding consensus would appear to be one where the international community has made insufficient adaptations and there is an urgent need to strengthen future resilience (Smith, 2011; CAN, 2014; Moore and Lobell, 2014; Trace, 2015; Müller *et al.*, 2017; Maia *et al.*, 2018; Mpandeli *et al.*, 2018). Bailey and Wellesley (2017) predict more conflicts over scarce resources, including land and water, as well as an increased likelihood of a greater use of protectionist measures to defend home food security. In figure 48, Benton (2019c) shows how future food systems might develop, against the current back-drop of shifts towards more sustainable diets and global changes such as the dismantling of earlier trade architectures and more protectionist policies. This produces four possible future scenarios, two of which are both healthier and more sustainable.



**Figure 48:** Four plausible, alternative, futures for food systems, based on axes of global-local connectivity, and degree of dietary shifts

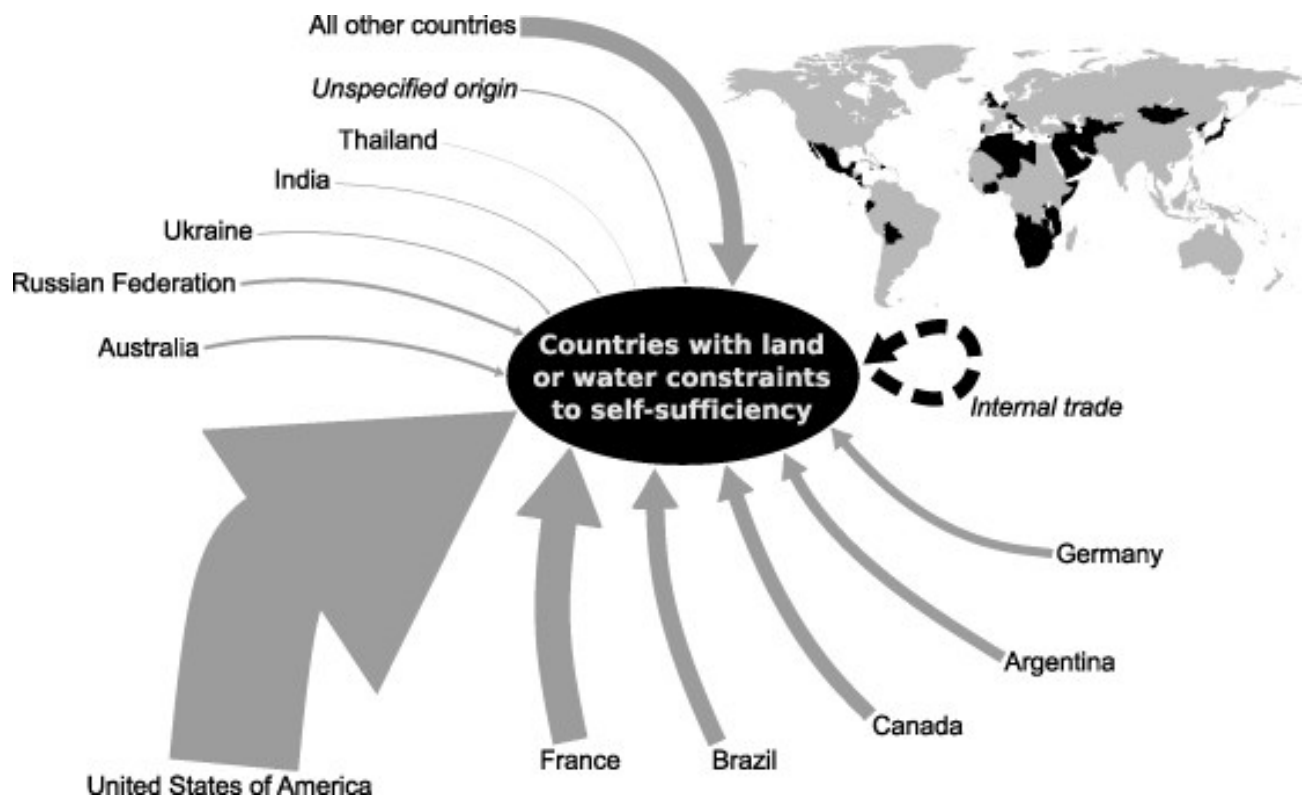
**Source:** Benton (2019c).

### 2.6.1 Policies on trade

The role of international trade in ensuring food security and the growing notion regarding the virtual transfer of resources embedded within these food imports is the focus of several studies. The increasing dependency on food trade within the past fifty years has improved overall food availability, but uneven distribution has increased food insecurity in many countries (Porkka *et al.*, 2013). In addition to the notion of virtual water (Allan, 1998; Carr *et al.* 2013; Suweis *et al.*, 2013; D'Odorico *et al.*, 2014; Merrigan *et al.*, 2015; Hoekstra and Mekonnen, 2016; Kundu *et al.*, 2017; Cuthbert *et al.*, 2019), further studies evaluate how food trade is associated with virtual land (Kitzes *et al.*, 2009; Tilman *et al.*, 2011; Meyfroidt *et al.*, 2013; Weinzettel *et al.*, 2013), virtual carbon (Kastner *et al.*, 2011), virtual nitrogen (Galloway *et al.*, 2007; O'Bannon *et al.*, 2014), and other land based resources (Hermele, 2014) that exporting countries provide without accounting for true environmental cost (Galloway *et al.*, 2007; Schmitz *et al.*, 2012; D'Odorico and Rulli, 2013; O'Bannon *et al.*, 2014). Using carbon offsetting and trading as alternatives to true emissions reduction will mean that reaching the UK's target of zero emissions will be very difficult, and technologies such as carbon capture and storage will need many more years of development before they can operate at scale (FAO, 2017c; Zurek *et al.*, 2018; Costain, 2019; Díaz, 2019; Hale, 2019; Hudson, 2019; Jackson, 2019b; Landzettel, 2019; May and Rehfeld, 2019; *The Lancet*, 2019d; Committee on Climate Change, 2020). The '*tragedy of the commons*' debate has once again been reignited to describe various recent land grabs around the world, which regularly take place with political support (Cotula *et al.*, 2009; Almås *et al.*, 2012; Prášková, 2012; GRID-Arendal, 2013; Nabudere, 2013; Kugelman and Levenstein, 2014; Seaquist *et al.*, 2014; Akram-Lodhi, 2015; Lawther, 2015; Clapp *et al.*, 2015c; Visser, 2015; Dell'Angelo *et al.*, 2017a; Dell'Angelo *et al.*, 2017b; Desquilbet *et al.*, 2017; Hules and Singhba, 2017; Zoomers *et al.*, 2017). Fader *et al.* (2013) find 16 per cent of the world's population is currently dependent on the global trade in food but predict this could increase to over 50 per cent unless population growth is not accompanied by dietary change. Other observers suggest that food businesses are simply failing to face up to their responsibilities (PwC, 2013a; Goldstein *et al.*, 2018), especially the global companies in the meat, dairy and seafood supply chains (Grant, 2019). Here, supply chain transparency is seen as a key prerequisite (Bastian and Zentes, 2013; Grimm *et al.*, 2014; Shokri *et al.*, 2014; Kougioumoutzi, 2016; Malochleb, 2018; Wach, 2018). Further concerns include food trade causing new sources of security threats and the uncertainty of depending on food imports (McDonald, 2010; MacDonald, 2013; Murphy, 2015). MacDonald (2013) specifically considers the origins of maize, rice, soya bean, and wheat imports (figure 49) and the uneven role undertaken by a small number of nations in providing food security to many food importing countries, where equity and cooperation will become increasingly critical to food security. With climate change further threatening to disrupt markets, distort prices, food utilisation and access, the stability of the whole food system and the businesses within it are now at risk (Pinstrup-Andersen, 2001; Green, 2010; Carbon Trust, 2014; Engel *et al.*, 2015; Goldstein *et al.*, 2018; UNEP, 2018). A number of resources are also



available to food businesses to assist them in reducing carbon footprints (e.g. WWF, 2009; Murphy-Bokern, 2010; Carbon Trust, 2011a; Carbon Trust, 2011b; Carbon Disclosure Project, 2012; IGD, 2012; WWF, 2012; Carbon Trust, 2014; WWF, 2015; BSI, 2018). Also, in a DEFRA commissioned study, Evans (2012) devises an adaptation to climate change strategy to protect both the food chain and food security, which includes initiatives such as adaptation based on the evidence of cost benefit, building partnerships, regulatory enforcement, and utilising change agents.



**Figure 49:** The origins of key crops (maize, rice, soya bean, and wheat) imported by 49 countries that have exceeded a land or water constraint boundary currently limiting food self-sufficiency.

*Countries shaded in black have exceeded at least one boundary by the year 2000. The size of the lines indicates the relative quantity of kilocalories imported.*

**Source:** MacDonald (2013).

Beddington’s perfect storm analysis prompted a number of projects from Foresight charged with identifying where new or emerging science can inform policy; all called for urgent, decisive action to start immediately in order to mitigate against the risks ahead (Foresight, 2011a; 2011b; 2011c). Many government departments provide their own analyses on sustainability (DEFRA, 2006b; 2006c; 2010c; 2011a; 2018f), the environment (DEFRA, 2011b; 2017c; 2018d; 2018g), climate change (DEFRA, 2008a;

2012a; 2012b; 2018h; 2019j; 2019k), healthy diets (DEFRA, 2011c; 2012c; 2019e), policy options (DEFRA/DfIT, 2016; DEFRA, 2019f; 2019i), as well as statistics on carbon (DEFRA, 2017d; 2019l) and general metrics (DEFRA, 2017a; 2019; 2019a; 2019b; 2019c; 2019d; 2019g; 2019h; 2019i). There are concerns, however, in DEFRA's ability to successfully implement such a major and significant policy initiative that involves wide-ranging change. DEFRA's current draft Agriculture Bill proposes paying landowners for delivering environmental goods but Wach (2018) argues, in the absence of evidence that government will support or require the integration of ecology and food production, that the option of increasing productivity alone could encourage more environmentally destructive, industrial-scale food production methods. The National Audit Office's (NAO) role is to scrutinise public spending, so Parliament can both hold government to account and improve public services. Their first review of DEFRA's new food policy (NAO, 2019) raises concern based on previous track record and difficulties with DEFRA implementing change. Their audit concludes that the ten-year timeline proposed for the changes will be insufficient, especially to evaluate and avoid the unintended consequences on both environmental and food security. Food is also an integral part of the UK's industrial strategy (Department for Business, Industry, Energy and Skills, 2017; 2018). As the Government's independent statutory committee, the Committee on Climate Change has produced a plethora of recommendations covering evidence, risk assessment, and regulation (Committee on Climate Change, 2016c; 2017a; 2018a; 2018g), alternative low-carbon fuels (Committee on Climate Change, 2018b; 2018c), and monitoring progress (Committee on Climate Change, 2019a; 2019e). Their latest advice to government includes reducing emissions from land-use by 64 per cent to around 21mtCO<sub>2e</sub> by 2050. To achieve this, the Committee on Climate Change (2020) are recommending increasing forestry cover from 13 per cent to over 17 per cent by planting 90 - 120 million trees every year, low carbon food production, restoring 50 per cent of upland peat and 25 per cent of lowland peat reserves (Lindsay, 2019), reducing food waste by 20 per cent, increasing bioenergy crops by 57,000 acres per annum, and reducing meat and dairy consumption by 20 per cent per person. The annual cost of these measures is estimated at £1.4bn, but the Commission argue they will generate wider benefits of £4bn per year. This compares to the £3.3bn that the UK receives each year through the CAP. By way of comparison, Dai *et al.* (2016) note that the Chinese government is spending around 20 per cent of total investment on protecting public health from climate change; the UK government is spending just 5 per cent.

### 2.6.2 Policies conflicting with growth

The unrelenting pursuit of exponential economic growth is ultimately seen as increasing unsustainable consumption and detrimental to healthy and sustainable diets. Several critiques draw attention to the shortcomings of GDP as a measurement in a world facing three existential crises which threaten humanity's ability to live within the planetary boundaries, namely: climate change, inequality, and a crisis in democracy (Timmer, 2010a; Peters and Mayhew, 2015; Whitmee *et al.*, 2015; Greenpeace, 2018f;

Krznaric, 2019; Lawrence, 2019; Stiglitz, 2019). The growth in consumption has been driven by productivity growth which, in turn, generated economic growth (Lawrence *et al.*, 2015b; Benton, 2019; Zhai *et al.*, 2020). Fundamental to this issue is the possibility of Meadows *et al.* (1972) scenario analyses still predicting a sudden and uncontrollable decline (Lucas *et al.*, 2006; Benson *et al.*, 2008; Graefe, 2009; Howard, 2009; Maynard, 2009; Macalister and Badal, 2010; Panitchpakdi, 2010; Peak Food, 2010; Graham-Rowe, 2011; Almås *et al.*, 2012; Turner, 2014; Turner and Alexander, 2014; Alders, 2016; Hirschnitz-Garbers *et al.*, 2016; Pearce, 2018; Hilton, 2019). Caradonna (2014) argues humanity is 250 years into an unsustainable ecological assault on the planet and Doré (2015) predicts the global food system will catastrophically collapse when food production falls permanently short of consumption. Similarly, Purvis *et al.* (2019, p.690), refer to the '*blind pursuit of economic growth*', a '*short-sighted profit-driven agriculture*', and industrialism without '*regard to the fragility of complex ecosystems*'. *The Lancet* similarly claim that commercial and political interests have '*far too much influence with human health and our planet suffering the consequences*' (Lucas and Horton, 2019, p.2). despite this, however, governmental departments responsible for food production continue to advocate investing in growth strategies, even where they have a dual responsibility for environmental protection (Agri-Food Strategy Board for Northern Ireland, 2013; DEFRA, 2013b; Department of Agriculture and Rural Development, 2014; Scottish Food Coalition, 2016; DEFRA, 2018b; Scotland Food and Drink, 2018). In addition, the future viability of capitalism, as the root cause of climate change is also questioned, with state intervention and centralised planning seen as the only way to realistically achieve the reductions in carbon needed (Vanberge, 2017; Elliott, 2018; Dyke, 2019; Mason, 2019; Monbiot, 2019). The continued use of the GDP metric is also examined, especially where this growth comes at the expense of the environment or uses scarce resources (IMF, 2010; Higgins, 2013; ISSA, 2014; Whitmee *et al.*, 2015; Hickel, 2018; Stiglitz, 2019). Additional concerns include the growing impact of climate change on food security (Barrett, 2013), social tensions (Barnett and Adger, 2007; Bush, 2010), marginalisation of vulnerable people (IPES-Food, 2017), and estimates of forced migration affecting up to one billion climate refugees by 2050 (Scott *et al.*, 2008; Black *et al.*, 2011; de Haas, 2011; Fielding, 2011; Findlay, 2011; Foresight, 2011c; Piguet *et al.*, 2011; Harper, 2012; EC, 2013; EC, 2015; DeWeerd, 2017; Hauer, 2017; WHO, 2017; Bukvic, 2018; Mach, 2018; Likić-Brborić, 2018; Abel *et al.*, 2019; EAC, 2019). Xu *et al.* (2020) argue that humanity has traditionally settled within very narrow climate ranges (typically mean annual temperatures around 11°C to 15°C); in the future one third of all humanity may be outside this traditional environmental niche where mean annual temperatures could exceed 29°C. Finally, the latest coverage of the impact of climate change on global food markets in the *Financial Times* predicts that developed markets will '*win*' and emerging markets '*lose*' (Ash, 2020) and Steinberger (2020) argue governments should prioritise human well-being rather than economic growth for its own sake.

Although Baldwin (1995) originally suggested that ‘*sustainable growth*’ was a contradiction in terms, the enduring view of growth and its impact on the planet’s limited resources is becoming increasingly challenged, with policies that deliver circular economies (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2015; 2016; Jurgilevich *et al.*, 2016; McKinsey, 2016; Geissdoerfer *et al.*, 2017; Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2018; Ruben and Verhagen, 2019) and de-growth strategies undergoing serious scrutiny (Jackson, 2009; Rockström *et al.*, 2009a; Rockström *et al.*, 2009b; IMF, 2010; Victor, 2011; Raworth, 2012; Little, 2013; Båtstrand, 2015; Dermer, 2016; Jackson, 2016; Backhaus *et al.*, 2017; Raworth, 2017; Barrett, 2018a; Barrett, 2018b; Beuret, 2018; and Dyke, 2019). Interventions to promote sustainable food production and consumption will, however, likely be insufficient to reverse current trends, where economic growth remains the primary objective (Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Hadjikakou and Wiedmann, 2017). Carney *et al.* (2019) also warn the catastrophic effects of climate change will include enormous human and financial costs. This will need a massive reallocation of capital to reduce carbon emissions decline and those companies who fail to engage will fail altogether. To survive in the inevitable aftermath of the market economy, further studies propose new economics for a post-growth world, arguing this is the only system offering realistic longevity into the future (UN, 2012; Fleming, 2016; Antal, 2018; Allwood *et al.*, 2019).

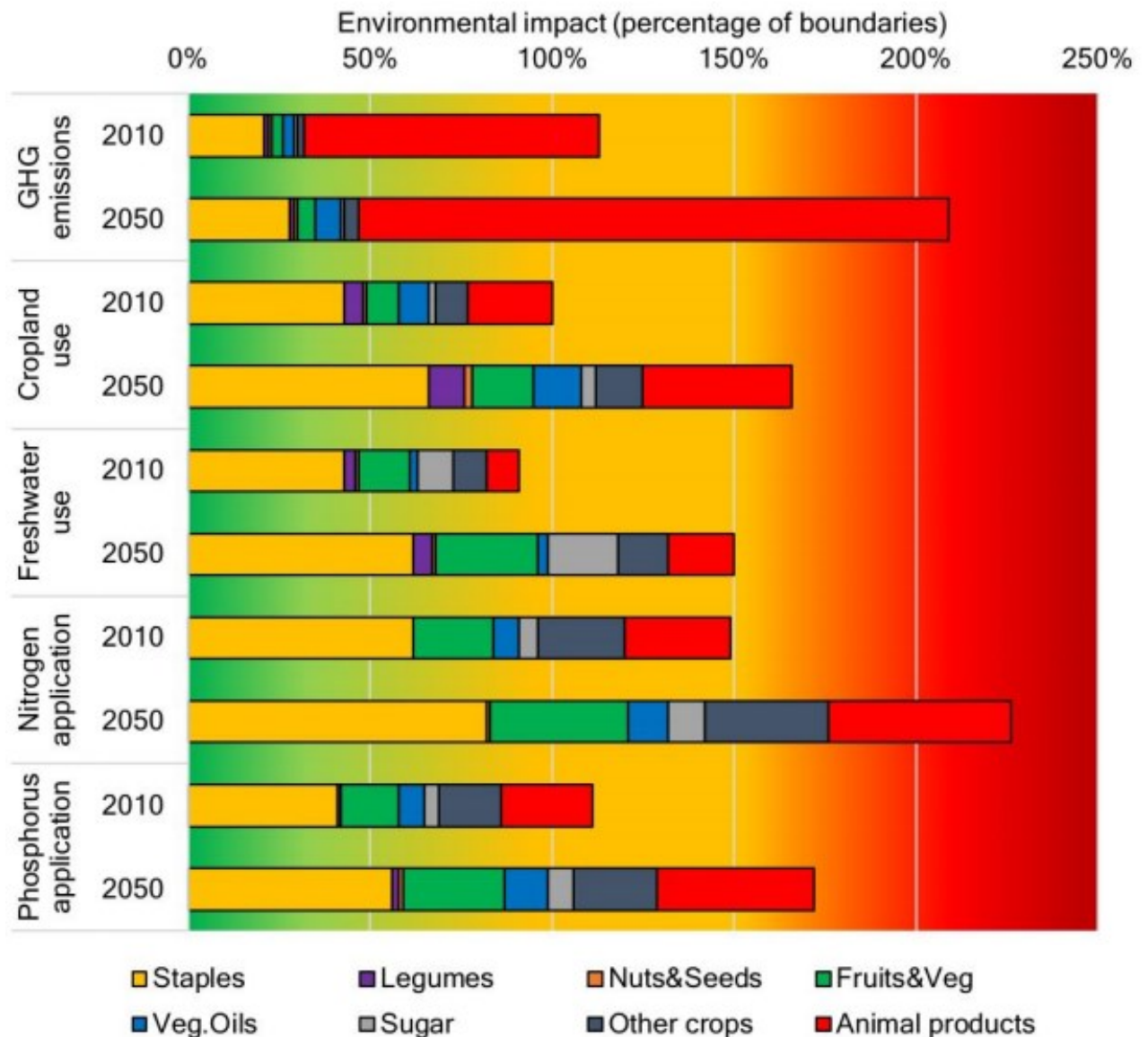
### 2.6.3 Policies to address the food–environment–health nexus

Although the food system risks to both the environment and health are often analysed within differing scientific disciplines, they need to be addressed by policies simultaneously. There is a real sense of urgency within the literature to determine the exact nature of effective, future policies, but the sheer range and complexity of the issues involved makes it especially challenging. Tilman and Clark (2014) argue the food–environment–health nexus will be a major contributor to the estimated 80 per cent increase in carbon emissions expected by 2050, caused by the growth in food production and deforestation. Undoubtedly, one of the more useful tools here is the recently published Common Food Policy framework from IPES (2019b), which groups the required policy reforms into five overarching objectives, or parallel paradigm shifts, in the transition to sustainability. Firstly, ensuring access to land, water, and healthy soils. Food production continues to be critically threatened by land degradation (WWF-UK, 2009; Nabarro, 2010; Premalatha *et al.*, 2011; O’Mara, 2012; David and Lucile Packard Foundation, 2013; Bajželj and Richards, 2014; Bailey *et al.*, 2015b; Sabiha *et al.*, 2016; Barilla Center for Food and Nutrition Foundation, 2018; Benton *et al.*, 2018; Pellegrini and Fernández, 2018; Benton, 2019a; Díaz, 2019; Volenzo *et al.*, 2019), soil erosion (FAO, 2006; DEFRA, 2009a; O’Mara, 2012; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Fargione *et al.*, 2018), and water contamination and over-extraction (Garnett, 2013; Hanson, 2013; Adger *et al.*, 2014; Jones and Hiller, 2015; Adger, 2016; Sharif and Irani, 2017; Alonso *et al.*, 2018; Changing Markets Foundation, 2018b; Desmit *et al.*, 2018; FAO, 2019b; Landholm *et al.*, 2019), industrial agricultural systems (Almås *et al.*, 2012; Florea, 2012; IPES-Food, 2016; ETC, 2017; IPES-Food, 2017; Wasley *et al.*, 2017; Wach, 2018) and loss

through urban development (Wheeler, 2015; Development Initiatives, 2017; IAP, 2018; *The Lancet*, 2018). Secondly, the need to rebuild climate-resilient and healthy agro-ecosystems to restore the destruction done by the most highly damaging food production systems (International Sustainability Unit, 2011), such as industrial livestock production (FAO, 2006; FAO, 2012a; FAO, 2013d; Bianchi *et al.*, 2018; Baggini, 2019; Garnier *et al.*, 2019; FAO, 2019f), chemically-dependent systems (Ziska and Goins, 2006; King *et al.*, 2015; Milner and Boyd, 2017; Barilla Center for Food and Nutrition Foundation, 2018; Barkham, 2018; Lang 2019a), and monocultures (Almås *et al.*, 2012; Florea, 2012; Niman, 2014; King *et al.*, 2015; Benton, 2017; Shepon *et al.*, 2018; Sun *et al.*, 2018; Trase Yearbook, 2018; Wach, 2018; Leng and Hall, 2019; Willett *et al.*, 2019) that are undermining critical ecosystem services. Further studies argue that food production systems should be developed as a foundational source of social and ecological sustainability (McMichael, 2011; Heymans *et al.*, 2011; Colloca *et al.*, 2013; McKenzie and Williams, 2015; McClenachan *et al.*, 2016; Steyn *et al.*, 2016). Thirdly, promoting healthy and sustainable diets for all through social and fiscal policies (WHO, 2008; Dower and O'Connor, 2012; Davis *et al.*, 2014; Garnett and Wilkes, 2014; ISSA, 2014; FAO, 2015e; IOM and NRC, 2015; Cumming and Peterson, 2017; Beckage *et al.*, 2018; Dowler *et al.*, 2018) that tackle food poverty (FoE, 2008; Dower and O'Connor, 2012; Brown, 2013; Cooper *et al.*, 2014; Elbehri, 2015; Lambie-Mumford and O'Connell, 2015; Arezki *et al.*, 2016; Borch and Kjærnes, 2016; Dharmasena *et al.*, 2016; Sharpe, 2016; World Hunger Organisation, 2016; de Coninck *et al.*, 2018; *The Lancet*, 2018c; Benton, 2019a; House of Lords, 2019; Parsons and Hawkes, 2019; Springmann, 2019) and promote healthier food (Richards and Padilla, 2007; Headey, 2015; Springmann *et al.*, 2017; Hand, 2018; Hill, 2018; EAC, 2019; Giner and Brooks, 2019; Recanati *et al.*, 2019; Webster, 2019). Fourthly, building fairer, shorter, and cleaner supply chains (Barclay, 2012; Galli and Brunori, 2013; Carbon Disclosure Project, 2015; Economist Intelligence Unit, 2017b; Allwood *et al.*, 2019; Committee on Climate Change, 2019d). Finally, putting trade in the service of sustainable development by addressing power imbalances (Almås *et al.*, 2012; Carolan, 2014; King *et al.*, 2015; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Helgason, 2016; Haines, 2017; Beuret, 2018; Hale, 2019; Lamine *et al.*, 2019) and replacing trade-distorting policies with sustainable trade agreements (Greenville *et al.*, 2017a; Greenville *et al.*, 2017b), especially those that are already giving cause for concern such as land acquisition (Almås *et al.*, 2012; Brown, 2013; D'Silva, 2017), deforestation (FAO, 2006; Urquhart *et al.*, 2012; Gibbs *et al.*, 2015; Lawrence and Vandecar, 2015; Vira *et al.*, 2015; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Kastens *et al.*, 2017; Larsson, 2017; Lewis *et al.*, 2019; Phillips *et al.*, 2019), and rights violations (Dower and O'Connor, 2012; ETC, 2017; Kauffman and Martin, 2017).

An unhealthy diet is the largest modifiable factor in morbidity and mortality globally (Peeters, 2018). To address this, comprehensive and effective policies are needed to systematically develop and disseminate the evidence for the feasibility, effectiveness and sustainability of policies that will provide healthier food systems. This is now seen as *the* defining issue for public health nutrition (SDC, 2007; Lawrence *et al.*, 2015a; Valenta, 2015; WHO, 2015; WHO, 2017; Kwon *et al.*, 2019; Lawrence *et al.*, 2019), with the growing

recognition of the finite availability of the resources required to produce food and the unprecedented risks that threaten public health nutrition (Beddington, 2011; O'Neil *et al.*, 2014). Lang (2005) originally identified four conceptual problems for nutrition and, despite the plethora of subsequent studies, all four would appear to still have relevance today: meaning different things to different people; a failure of policy to inform practice; an unawareness of how it affects the environment; and having too much choice along with an information overload. Nutrition science therefore needs to become more focused on the amount of carbon embedded in a good diet, the consequences of how each component is produced (Lang, 2017d), enabling sustainable diets to replace the current policy focus of simply raising output (Lang, 2010; Lang, 2014b) with a more environmentally friendly and socially responsible food policy (Lang *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, nutrition science also needs to contribute to balancing the health, environment, consumer aspirations, and commercial policy imperatives alongside bridging existing tensions such as land within food systems (Lang, 1999; Lang, 2014a). Influencing health through food policy, for example, is further complicated for many foods that are processed, distributed, and promoted through the supply chain (Hawkes *et al.*, 2012; Dania *et al.*, 2018). Springmann *et al.* (2018b) analyse future pressures on the five environmental domains to 2050 (shown on the *y*-axis in figure 50) and conclude that a synergistic combination of policies will be required to mitigate against projected increases in environmental pressures of around 50 - 90 per cent. Their findings suggest that although different foods have varying environmental impacts, policies will be required to ensure all stay within the planetary boundaries. Specifically, such policies will need to address dietary change, reduce food waste and loss, land and water use, and limit fertiliser applications (Lake *et al.*, 2010; Dorward, 2012; Kummu *et al.*, 2012; Institution of Mechanical Engineers, 2013; Tansey, 2013; HLPE, 2014a; WRAP, 2015; Thyberg and Tonjes, 2016; Notarnicola *et al.*, 2017b; Schweitzer *et al.*, 2018; WRI, 2016; Anthony, 2019; WRAP, 2019).



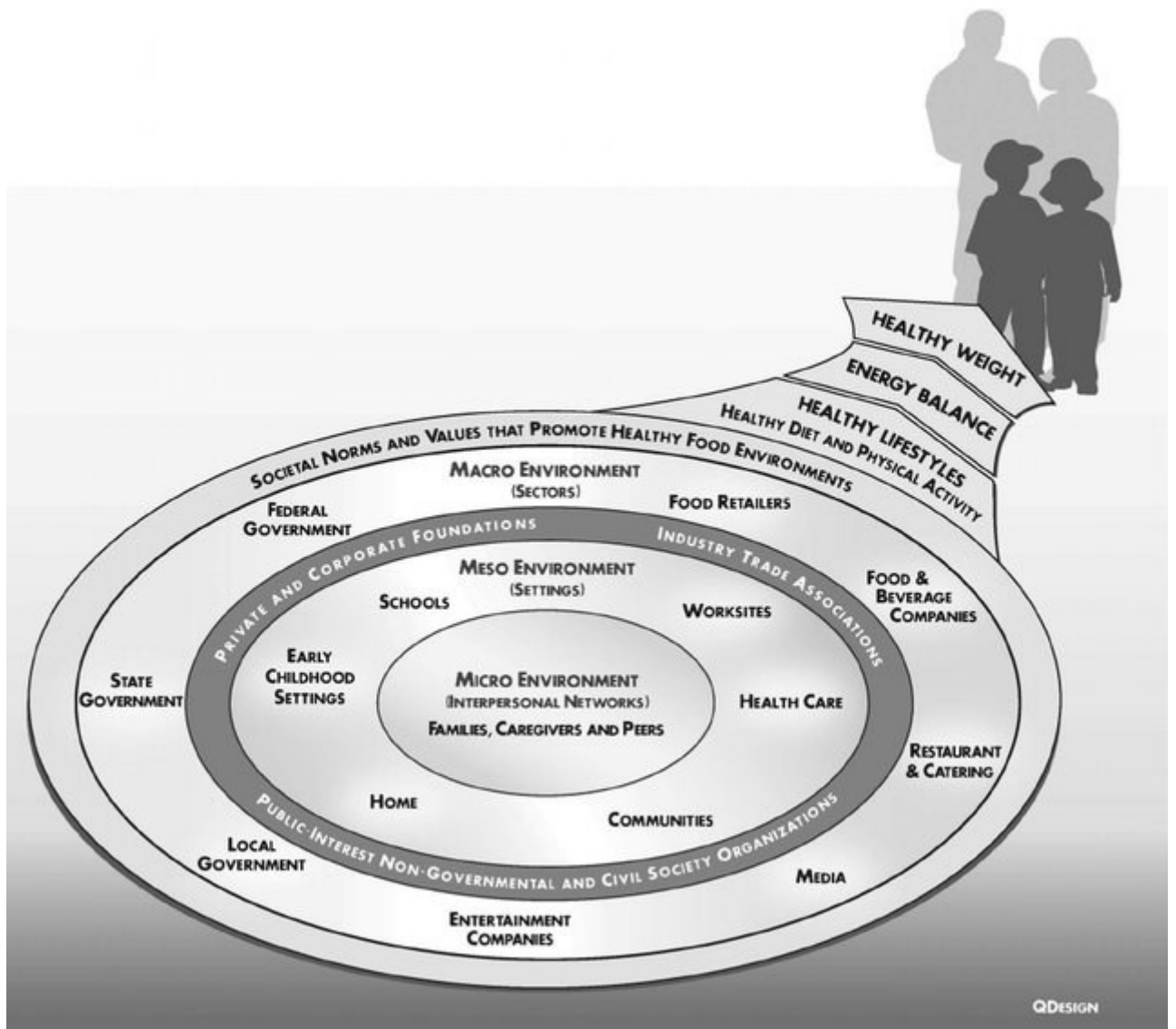
**Figure 50:** Current and future environmental impact by food groups on various Earth systems and assuming trends in consumption and production follow a business-as-usual trajectory

**Source:** Springmann *et al.* (2018b) cited in Willett *et al.* (2019).

Current policies that promote global trade to increase food availability and make food cheaper, such as the current UK food system, have also negatively impacted both the environment and health (UNEP, 2010a; UNEP, 2010b; Denis *et al.*, 2015; UN, 2017; Helmstedt *et al.*, 2018; Benton *et al.*, 2019; Benton and Bailey, 2019). The root causes of poor health are poorly understood (IPES-Food, 2017) and food sustainability has not been a consideration in public health nutrition activities (Lawrence *et al.*, 2015a). The health impacts of food systems are rarely examined systematically (IPES-Food, 2017) and have been neglected for decades (Tilman and Clark, 2014; Lawrence *et al.*, 2019). Evidence from other developed

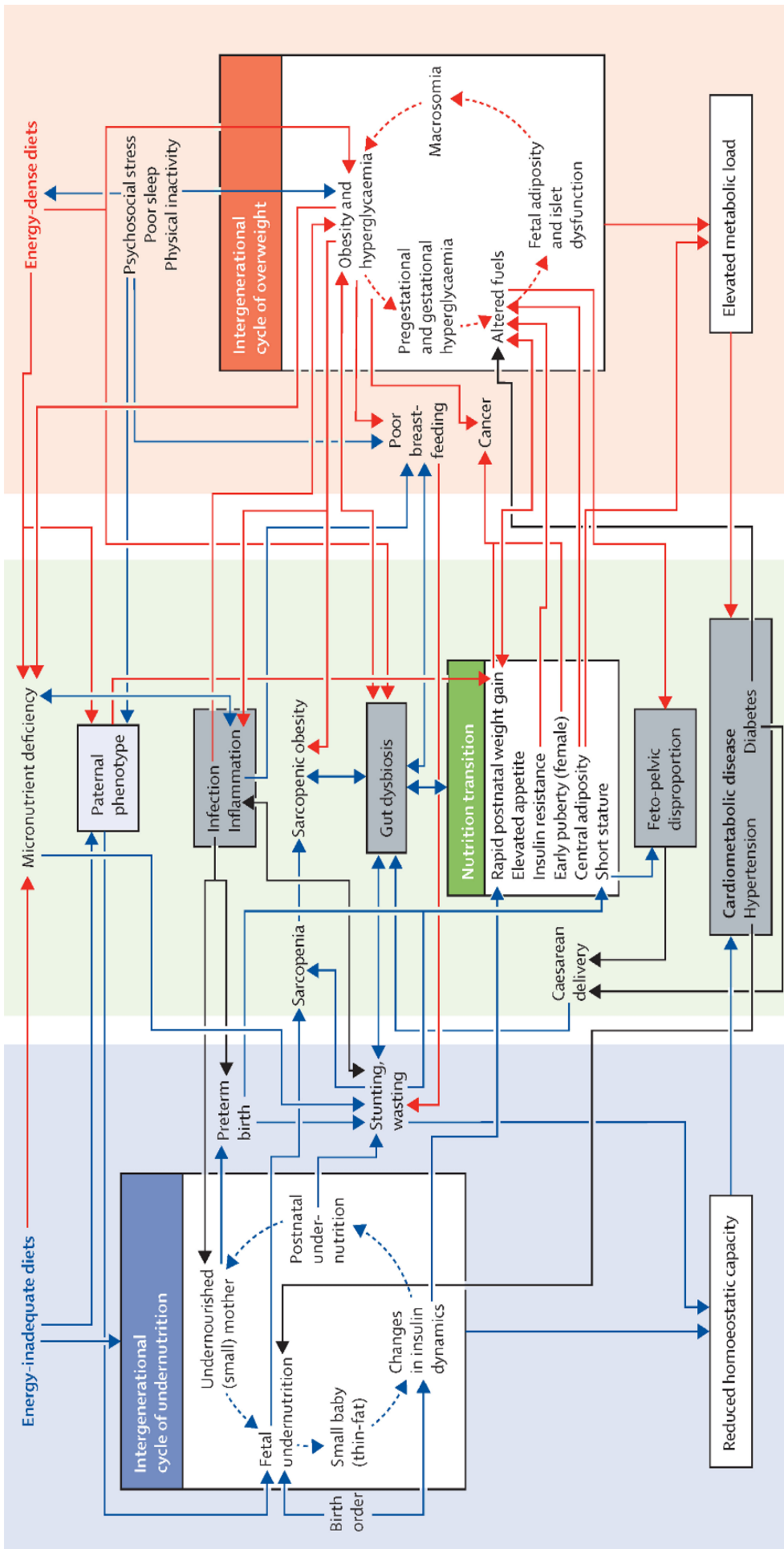
economies such as the USA show that diet-related, chronic disease rates are increasing rapidly, with 50 per cent of all adults having one or more preventable, diet-related chronic disease (USDH and USDA, 2015). This further stimulates the need for urgent, preventative policy in the UK. In order to be effective, Hawkes argues that the sector must identify and bring together all the improvements that the various stakeholders are taking; greater convergence will bring about more effective change and also enable gaps to be filled; new leadership to ensure collaboration, courageousness, and compassion (Lane, 2019; Parsons and Hawkes, 2019). Numerous studies consider the double burdens of malnutrition (i.e. the coexistence of over-nutrition alongside under-nutrition) across different populations (Kraak *et al.*, 2011; Alders and Kock, 2017; Hawkes *et al.*, 2019; Nugent *et al.*, 2019; Wells *et al.*, 2019; *The Lancet*, 2020). As individuals can be affected by the various forms of this double burden throughout their lifetimes, Wells *et al.* (2019) considers the many, interconnected biological pathways which are shown in figure 52. To mitigate against the double burden of malnutrition, Wells concludes, requires major societal shifts in nutrition and public health over many decades. Kraak *et al.* (2011) provide a socio-ecological model to illustrate the various stakeholders involved in promoting healthy food environments for populations to guide stakeholder involvement in addressing unhealthy food environments (figure 51). Lang and Barling (2012), however, argue the socio-ecological perspective lacks the coherent framework needed to enable the required policy response. More recently, Branca *et al.* (2019) have called for stakeholders to power the food system revolution capable of ending malnutrition by addressing the growing patterns of inequality, the political economy of food, and the commodification of food systems. Table 6 shows the roles and responsibilities for the stakeholder groups needed to create the systemic changes needed.





**Figure 51:** A socio-ecological model illustrating stakeholders involved in promoting healthy food environments for populations

**Source:** Kraak *et al.* (2011).



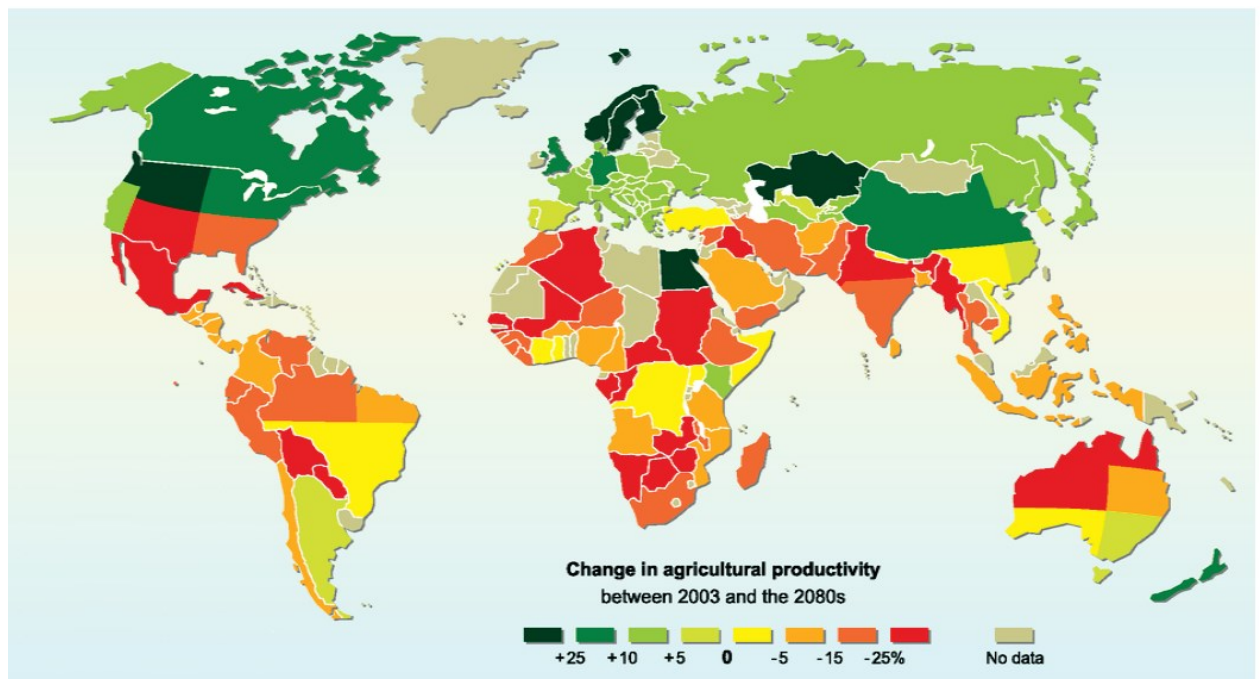
**Figure 52: Complex interconnections between intergenerational cycles of undernutrition and nutritional excess and the effect of nutrition transition**

The intergenerational cycle of undernutrition (blue) associated with energy-inadequate diets and micronutrient deficiencies constrains growth and reduces the metabolic capacity for homeostasis. The intergenerational cycle of overnutrition (red) associated with energy-dense diets is characterised by excess metabolic fuel and elevated adiposity, each of which challenges homeostasis. Both cycles of malnutrition contribute to a wide range of adverse health outcomes (grey boxes), and specific diseases also increase the risk of malnutrition (black arrows). Through nutrition transition, individuals shift between these cycles within the life course, both increasing the risk and exacerbating the magnitude of health consequences. This framework helps identify how nutrition transition generates biological connections between many different forms of ill health (e.g. low birth weight, stunting, central obesity, diabetes, and caesarean delivery).

**Source:** Wells *et al.* (2019, p.78).

Framing climate change as an integral public health issue that permeates research, teaching, policy and professional practice is now recognised as having the potential to help galvanise public support for the civilisational crisis (Dowler *et al.*, 2011; Lawrence *et al.*, 2015a; Wang and Horton, 2015). Although most studies agree that climate change will reduce the overall availability of food and hence threaten food security, wide variations exist across differing commodities and regions. The negative impacts of climate change (e.g. increased water stress) will continue to be more common than positive ones (e.g. increasing yields) (Fiscus *et al.*, 2005; Kang *et al.*, 2009; Knox *et al.*, 2010; Poppy, 2014a; Porter *et al.*, 2014; Menhas *et al.*, 2016; Gutteridge, 2018; Liu *et al.*, 2019). Additional dimensions for food security include food sufficiency, nutrient adequacy, cultural acceptability, safety, certainty and stability (Coates, 2013), rapid urbanisation and dietary transition (Delgado, 2003; Naylor, 2008; FACCE, 2010; Satterthwaite *et al.*, 2010; Richards *et al.*, 2016; Geels *et al.*, 2017; Nixon *et al.*, 2018; *Rural 21*, 2018; Siegner *et al.*, 2018; Sonnino *et al.*, 2019). Studies also call for a better understanding of the dynamics of both food security and nutrition (Brown and Funk, 2008; FAO, 2008; Pinstруп-Anderson, 2009; Fullbrook, 2010; Durham and Avant, 2011; Gaus, 2012; National Research Council, 2012a; Pinstруп-Andersen *et al.*, 2012; Kadir *et al.*, 2013; Brown, 2014; Prosperi *et al.*, 2014; *The Economist*, 2014e; Brown *et al.*, 2015; *The Economist*, 2015a; Campbell *et al.*, 2016; Fan and Brzeska, 2016; McCarthy *et al.*, 2018; UN, 2018a). This is one of the main focus areas for the FAO (FAO, 2011; FAO, 2013e; FAO, IFAD and WFP, 2015; FAO, 2016g; 2016k; FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP and WHO, 2017; FAO, 2017a; 2017b; 2017d; 2017f; 2018f; 2019e; 2019g) as well as other international bodies (Porter *et al.*, 2014; CFS, 2015a; CFS, 2015b; CFS, 2017; CFS, 2019a; CFS, 2019b). Further impacts are expected on yields through higher temperatures and reduced rainfall (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2008; Ainsworth and Ort, 2010; Beniston, 2010; Bernabucci *et al.*, 2010; Ainsworth *et al.*, 2012; Smith and Gregory, 2013; Met Office, 2014; Hatfield and Prueger, 2015; Aleixandre-Benavent *et al.*, 2017; Clark and Tilman, 2017; Borunda, 2019) with increasingly frequent and severe extreme weather having the potential to impact food seasonality (Rosenzweig *et al.*, 2001; Li *et al.*, 2009; Beniston, 2010; Benton *et al.*, 2012; Ecker and Breisinger, 2012; Forster *et al.*, 2012; Liapis, 2012; Miller *et al.*, 2013; Met Office, 2014; Centre for Environmental Risks and Futures, 2015; Cranfield, 2015; Easterling and Aggarwal, 2018; Park *et al.*, 2018; NAS, 2019). An early study by Cline (2007) on the impact of climate change on global agricultural yields is widely cited within the literature (figure 53). This map illustrates the percentage change to yields of major commodities such as wheat, rice, and soya, with a correlation between higher temperatures and lower yields. These food crops of particular concern, given that they provide food security for more than half of the world's population. Further impacts are expected on yields through higher temperatures and reduced rainfall (Ainsworth *et al.*, 2008; Ainsworth and Ort, 2010; Beniston, 2010; Bernabucci *et al.*, 2010; Ainsworth *et al.*, 2012; Grassini *et al.*, 2013; Smith and Gregory, 2013; Met Office, 2014; Hatfield and Prueger, 2015; Aleixandre-Benavent *et al.*, 2017; Clark and Tilman, 2017; Borunda, 2019). The increasing threat of aridification, if the 1.5°C temperature limit is exceeded, will both impact regions that are already hot and dry, reduce availability, with shorter growing seasons impacting

the most important foods (Beddington *et al.*, 2012; Park *et al.*, 2018). In the tropical latitudes, Africa and parts of South Asia for example, this is already where the greatest food security challenges persist (Nelson *et al.*, 2009; Schlenker and Lobell, 2010; Dubey *et al.*, 2016; Song, 2017; Smith *et al.*, 2017; *The Lancet*, 2018a). Furthermore, should global temperatures exceed 3°C, the impacts on global food production would be profoundly destabilising (Hegerl *et al.*, 2004; Christensen *et al.*, 2007; Easterling *et al.*, 2007; Allouche, 2011; Iglesias *et al.*, 2011; Beddington *et al.*, 2012; Aleksandrowicz *et al.*, 2016; Tripathi *et al.*, 2016). Even above 2°C, Peterson and Wood (2017) argue, will prove catastrophic for humans and animals; this will be reached within 30 years without decisive action. The past three decades has seen the Earth's surface become successively warmer (see [NASA](#), 2019); the pace of this change is now seen by the IPCC (2014a) as rapid and accelerating. The strong correlation between the environmental and human systems and climate change will affecting all regions of the globe (UN, 2015d; UN, 2015b; WEF, 2018b).



**Figure 53:** Projected impact of climate change on agricultural yields globally by the 2080s compared to 2003

*Projections assume a uniform 15 per cent increase in yields due to the fertilisation effect of rising carbon dioxide in the atmosphere on some plant species*

**Source:** Cline (2007) cited in Beddington *et al.* (2012).

The sustainability of biofuel production is a particular concern (Naylor, 2008; UNEP, 2009; Walker, 2009; Shatrugna, 2012; Christoplos and Pain, 2014; Moiola *et al.*, 2018; Naylor and Higgins, 2018), with perspectives including the emissions from land-use change (Searchinger *et al.*, 2008; Fargione *et al.*, 2009; Hiederer *et al.*, 2010; Ernst and Young, 2011; Poudel *et al.*, 2012; Rudel, 2013; Searchinger, 2013; Elbehri,

2015), their contribution to price volatility and food insecurity (Barrett, 2010; Lake *et al.*, 2010; Alexandratos, 2011; HLPE, 2011; IMF, 2012; Gregory and Coleman-Jensen, 2013; Schmitz, 2013; IMF, 2014) and their impact on biodiversity (IPBES, 2018). Although the EU is gradually shifting away from farm subsidy policies to ones that support bioenergy, understanding the impacts of such policies is complex (Bureau and Swinnen, 2018). Also, and of particular relevance to the UK, EU policies that encourage the increasing use of crop feedstocks such as maize, sugar, soya, rapeseed, and palm oil for biodiesel, indirectly leading to the cutting down of more rainforests, the conversion of more forest and peat land for palm oil plantations, resulting in more carbon emissions (Shatrugna, 2012; Charles *et al.*, 2013; IISD, 2013; Levidow, 2013; Tubiello *et al.*, 2016; Naylor and Higgins, 2018). Smith *et al.* (2018) and Carbon Brief (2016) advocate the potential for BECCS as part of the strategy to limit the temperature increase from 2°C to a 1.5°C maximum to meet the Paris Agreement commitments. Noting the obvious opportunities to use BECCS to capture carbon, Benton (2020) however suggests the global land requirements needed for the anticipated emission trajectories would be more than 50 per cent of all the land used for arable production.

The most widely cited definition suggests '*food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social and economic access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food which meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life*' (FAO, 2019g, p.186). Traditionally, the four critical components of availability, access, utilisation, and stability were seen as essential (Hanjra and Qureshi, 2010; FCRN, 2018f; FCRN, 2019d); today, many studies have added the challenge of climate change (Watson *et al.*, 1996; IPCC, 2007a; Ericksen *et al.*, 2009; Parry *et al.*, 2009; Muldowney *et al.*, 2013; PwC, 2013b; Christoplos and Pain, 2014; Poppy *et al.*, 2014a; FACCE, 2015; Food Source, 2018; Scarlett, 2019). The literature on food security has changed little over the past two decades, when Smil (2000) promoted the more effective use of resources, increase efficiency, reduce waste, and dietary transition as responses to the global challenges facing food security. Smil also warned about the consequences of inaction, late action, or misplaced emphasis would only exacerbate future problems; today, this is framed as the immense threat that planetary health poses for food security and global stability (Morisetti and Blackstock, 2017; Pérez-Escamilla, 2017; Schmidt and Matthews, 2018) that urgently requires new governance systems (Whitmee *et al.*, 2015; Campbell *et al.*, 2017; Acunzo *et al.*, 2018; Heck *et al.*, 2018; Newell *et al.*, 2018). The socio-economic research advocates analysis of the costs and benefits of the economic, environmental, and social trade-offs that are fundamental for a sustainable economy (Davis, 2015; Davis *et al.*, 2015; Helm, 2019) and to address climate change as '*the mother of all externalities*' (Tol, 2009, p.29). Consequently, Stern (2013) now advocates treating policy analysis as a risk management problem, especially given the scientific consensus on existing models grossly under-estimating the risks.

Several perspectives attempt to address the global food security and sustainability challenge. Some studies argue food production could double and its environmental impacts reduce by halting the expansion of land use, closing yield gaps, increasing cropping efficiency, shifting diets and reducing waste, thereby ensuring global food security and environmental sustainability for all (Foley *et al.*, 2011; West *et al.*, 2014). EU-funded research into these policy challenges (Smith *et al.*, 2015; Smith *et al.*, 2016) recommends recognising the hybridity and interconnectedness of food systems, informed by science-based evidence and socio-cultural values. The metrics to assessment the performance of food security and sustainability remains challenging (table 5) and requires a multi-criteria approach to cover a range of factors such as volatility, uncertainty, complexity, ambiguity, low-carbon food production, waste, and a low-carbon society). The same challenges with the variability in Life Cycle Analysis (LCA) methodologies are also extensively covered (Andersson *et al.*, 2005; Hauschild and Potting, 2005; Tukker, 2006; Garnett, 2013; Notarnicola *et al.*, 2012; Hellweg and Canals, 2014; Moresi, 2014; Auestad and Fulgoni, 2015; Bjørn *et al.*, 2015; Bjørn and Hauschild, 2015; DeFries *et al.*, 2015; Goglio *et al.*, 2015; Hall, 2015; Allen *et al.*, 2016; Bartlett and Garnett, 2016; Dötsch-Klerk *et al.*, 2016; Park *et al.*, 2016; Pernellet *et al.*, 2016; Notarnicola *et al.*, 2017a; Sala *et al.*, 2017; Allen *et al.*, 2018; FCRN, 2018b; Karabulut *et al.*, 2018). Bjørn *et al.* (2015) further argue that LCA needs to include carrying capacity, to enable comparisons between the environmental impacts from a product and sustainable levels of impacts, thereby ensuring LCA indicators become absolute environmental sustainability indicators. Staying below thresholds is essential to safeguard ecosystem services and biodiversity, for environmental sustainability and staying within the planetary boundaries (WWF, 2016b; Bell *et al.*, 2018; WWF, 2018b).

<i>Target relative to 2015</i>	<i>Indicator</i>	<i>Metric</i>
By 2030, reduce the rate of food loss and waste by 50 per cent	Share of food produced or harvested that is lost or wasted between the farm and fork	Per cent of food loss and waste
By 2030, reduce the greenhouse gas emissions from food production by 25 per cent	Total greenhouse gas emissions from food production, including both crops and livestock	Tonnes of carbon dioxide equivalent
By 2030, reduce the water-intensity of agricultural production by 25 per cent	Tonnes of food produced per cubic metre of irrigation water consumed to generate those tonnes	Tonnes per cubic metre of water

**Table 5:** Proposed food security targets that integrate sustainability

**Source:** Hanson (2013).

<i>Stakeholder groups</i>	<i>Role and responsibility</i>
Governments	Prioritise solving the problem; regulate to set standards and their enforcement; implement policies that are equitable, inclusive, and financed; collect and use data to inform action; and mobilise public investments
UN	Convene and connect actors; demonstrate cost-effective solutions; monitor implementation of commitments and achievement of targets
Civil society	Advocate, organise, mobilise people; monitor commitments; and create a generation of activists
Academia	Generate a diverse evidence base; build capacity and conduct research to solve problems, create sustainable solutions, and promote interdisciplinary systems thinking and research
Media	Inform public opinion, tell stories, create debate; facilitate demand for public accountability; focus on structural drivers not individuals and avoid stigma
Philanthropy and multi / bilaterals	Foster innovation; embrace complexity; fund systems-based problem solving; and convene stakeholders
Private sector	Commit to responsible business by production and distribution of affordable nutritious foods; prioritise population health and wellness agenda over profits; consent to appropriate conduct by removal of undue influence on relevant policy and research; and abide by national and international marketing and other codes and regulations
Regional economic platforms	Reshape trade and investment policies in line with public health policies and protect policy space for nutrition

**Table 6:** Roles and responsibilities of stakeholder groups who must create the systemic changes needed to end malnutrition

**Source:** Branca *et al.* (2019).

The literature calls for further research into a better understanding of food systems, more integrated cross-governmental policies, and food systems making a greater contribution to human well-being (Devlin *et al.*, 2014; Durrant, 2015; Centre for Food Policy, 2018a; Centre for Food Policy, 2018b; Food Ethics Council, 2018b; Benton, 2019a). Similarly, the CSOs make numerous contributions, including the value of local foods and farms (CPRE, 2016; CPRE, 2017), best business practice (Food Ethics Council, 2013; 2018a; 2018d; 2018f), taxing unhealthy foods (Bähr, 2015; Food Ethics Council, 2018e; Harrabin, 2018; Baggini,

2019), better children's diets (Food for Life, 2018), tackling obesity (Food Foundation, 2016a), improving dietary choice (Food Foundation, 2016b), and food security (Food Foundation, 2016c; 2016d). The subject also generates intense interest in the trade and consumer press, with recent examples variously calling for government regulation of industry and to intervene in markets (NFU, 2017; 2018; Harvey, 2018; King, 2019; National Policy Forum, 2019; NFU, 2019) and the UK's poor performance in the Food Sustainability Index due to the continuing absence of a coherent government strategy on food (Hughes, 2018).

The fenland area surrounding The Wash falls under the control of a number of local authorities, three of whom (East Lindsey, Boston and South Holland) are in the top ten of regions with the most properties at risk in a flood plain (LRO, 2012). Despite the obvious risks, early local authority publications make little reference to flooding (EMSDRT, 2000; LRO, 2007). Following the Adaptation Sub-Committee's (ASC) first report in 2010, however, this brought about a number of sequential publications (LRO, 2011; North and North East Lincolnshire, 2011; Evans, 2012; LRO, 2012; Collison, 2014; Curry and Allen-Collinson, 2016; Collison, 2017; DEFRA, 2017b; ELDC, 2017; North East Lincolnshire Council, 2018; LLEP, 2019; SEL-JPU, 2019). Despite the region's historical development (i.e. being reclaimed from the sea through complex systems of drainage) meaning much of the area remains at, or below, current sea level, and its importance in terms of national food security, even very modest levels of sea-level rise could have huge consequences for food production throughout the area. This would also potentially impact the health and wellbeing of the people who live there.

#### **2.6.4 Policies to meet global commitments**

Much of the global preoccupation within the literature is focused on SDG attainment and meeting the commitments laid down in the 2015 Paris Agreement. Food is connected to all the SDGs, as is the need to decouple economic growth from resource use and environmental degradation (UN, 2015a; UN, 2015e; UN, 2015f; Rockström and Sukhdev, 2016; Tan, 2016; UN, 2019). Many studies suggest, however, that the world is not on track to attain these goals (Development Initiatives, 2017; EU, 2018b; *The Lancet*, 2018b; Allwood *et al.*, 2019; Branca *et al.*, 2019; EC, 2019; FAO, 2019h; King and van den Bergh, 2019; Scown *et al.*, 2019). Critics of the SDGs also argue they lack clear goals and effective guidance on how to ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns (Dubuisson-Quellier and Gojard, 2016; SCP, 2016; Engebretsen *et al.*, 2017; Bengtsson *et al.*, 2018; Benton *et al.*, 2018; Rush, 2019). As affordability remains a major barrier to the SDGs, UNEP (2020) have introduced a series of personal actions (goodlife goals) that people around the world can take to help support the SDGs (see appendix 8.17); others advocate using the Economist Intelligence Unit's Food Sustainability benchmark index to help meet the SDGs (Barilla, 2018; Food Ethics Council, 2018c). The International Union of Food Science and Technology recommends seven actions to achieve the SDGs: more diverse and sustainable primary food production;



new processes and systems for sustainable manufacturing; the elimination of waste; product safety and traceability; affordable and balanced nutrition for the malnourished; improved health through diet; and, the integration of big data, information technology, and artificial intelligence into food systems (HLPE, 2017; Olsen and Borit, 2018; IUFoST, 2019).

The Paris Agreement requires signatory countries to limit global temperature below 2°C above pre-industrial temperatures, with the aim to limit rises to 1.5°C (Climate Focus, 2015; United Nations, 2015; GFS, 2017). Although arguably a major political achievement towards reducing the impacts from climate change (Timperley, 2017; Beuret, 2018; Food Ethics Council, 2019a), subsequent studies suggest the actual temperatures are likely to be 2.0-4.9°C higher even after the changes made (Haines, 2017; Raftery *et al.*, 2017; Miman, 2018). The latest IPCC report warns that '*without societal transformation and rapid implementation of ambitious greenhouse gas reduction measures, pathways to limiting warming to 1.5°C and achieving sustainable development will be exceedingly difficult, if not impossible, to achieve*' (Roy *et al.*, 2018, p.448). Despite food production's considerable contribution to GHG emissions, the threats that climate change will cause it, and the increasing risk of food insecurity (WEF, 2019e), it isn't specifically mentioned within the Paris Agreement. Verschuuren (2016) sees this as an oversight; one which was also common with earlier UNFCCC policies, but takes solace from ambitious EU policies aimed at climate friendly and resilient food production such as Maciulevičius (2016). Rather concerningly, the initial response from the Committee on Climate Change (2016a) was that the Agreement was more ambitious than existing plans which were already stretching the UK, therefore its priorities would remain with the original targets. Failing to achieve the Paris climate goals is also expected to cost trillions of dollars (Patel, 2018). Various forums involving multidisciplinary contributors from academia, industry and government have discussed scenario options (Kreit *et al.*, 2011; Fenger, 2016; GFS, 2017c; WEF, 2017; Jacob *et al.*, 2018; Rogelj *et al.*, 2018; GFS, 2019a; WRI, 2019). The purpose of the UN Decade of Action on Nutrition (2016–2025) is also to accelerate action to achieve the SDGs (FAO/WHO, 2016; Rugg, 2016). The original agreement was predicated on the idea that countries would ramp up their pledges every five years (Committee on Climate Change, 2016b; Hale, 2019), with the first opportunity to review these being the 2021 climate summit (COP26). Rising atmospheric concentrations of methane are also seen as a challenge, especially given the current uncertainty regarding the exact source of the increase (Hook, 2019; Mikaloff Fletcher and Schaefer, 2019; Miller *et al.*, 2019).

The policy options to mitigate and adapt to the effects of climate change are also thoroughly considered (Reilly and Schimmelpfennig, 2000; Vermeulen *et al.*, 2012a; Vermeulen *et al.*, 2012b; Hansen *et al.*, 2013; Vermeulen *et al.*, 2013; Smith *et al.*, 2014; Masud *et al.*, 2017; Sa *et al.*, 2017; Sanz-Cobena *et al.*, 2017; Committee on Climate Change, 2018d; Garrett *et al.*, 2018; Jacob *et al.*, 2018; Karimi *et al.*, 2018; Steffen *et al.*, 2018; Fujimori *et al.*, 2019; Henderson and Frezal, 2019). Here again, however, the situation is

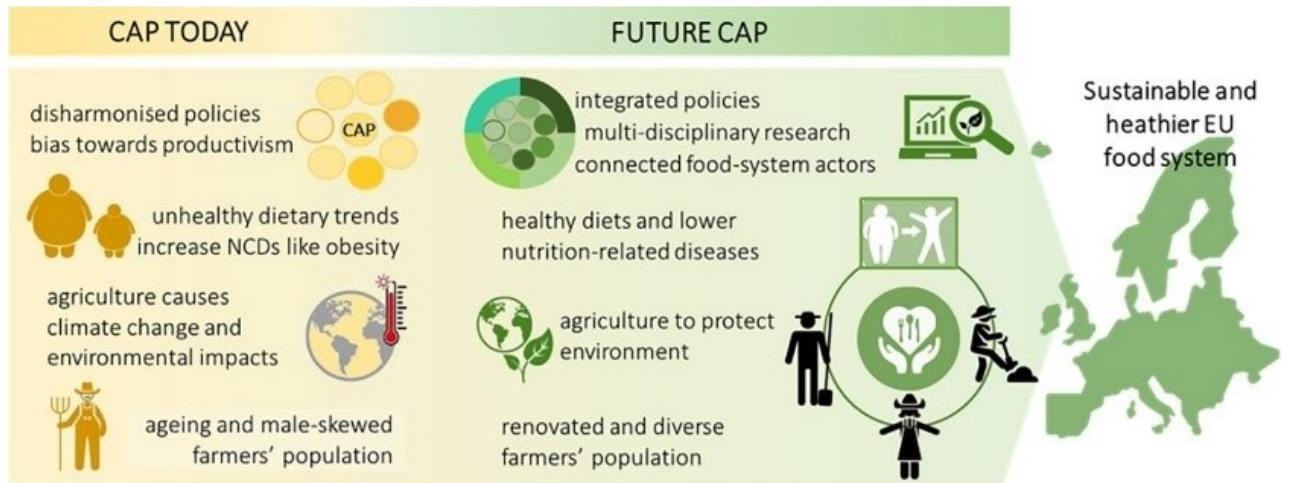
complex and multi-faceted (Jarmul *et al.*, 2019). Biesbrook *et al.* (2010) is critical of EU climate policy, for example, as it originally focused entirely on mitigation with adaptation been considered much more recently. The IPCC (2018) argue CO<sub>2</sub> emissions must be limited to 420 billion tonnes annually, with a further 720 million tonnes being removed from the atmosphere. This will require the immediate restoration of natural vegetation such as forests to reach net zero emissions by 2050. Doelman *et al.* (2019), however, estimates this will increase food prices by 11 per cent, reduce availability by 230 kcal/day per person, and expose an additional 230 million people to hunger by 2050. Springmann *et al.* (2018d) advocates climate policies that include GHG emissions into pricing policies to reduce diet-related diseases. In *The Lancet*, Harwatt *et al.* (2020) similarly stress the need to reduce demand for livestock products and insist that wealthier nations must not outsource their livestock production to other countries. Further guidance is forthcoming from a variety of sources: the OECD, whose main focus is promoting the market economy (OECD, 2006; OECD, 2016), CAP reform (OECD, 2011), climate change (OECD, 2015), the environment (2017c), policy (OECD, 2017a), health (OECD, 2017b) and food (OECD-FAO, 2019); market-centric analyses by McKinsey (McKinsey, 2011; McKinsey, 2013; McKinsey, 2016; McKinsey, 2017; McKinsey, 2018a; McKinsey, 2018b); the Nature Conservancy believes natural climate solutions such as protecting, restoring and managing land to reduce emissions and enhance carbon storage could contribute to over one third of the temperature reduction needed (Scarlett, 2019); Franco *et al.* (2020) recommend multifunctional landscapes for food production, natural resources, and ecosystem services. Further food-related adaptation and mitigation policy options as recommended by the IPCC are detailed in appendix 8.10.

Numerous studies argue individual country Nationally Determined Contributions (NDCs) express good intent but are not nearly enough and therefore need to be more ambitious (Beuret, 2018; Gomez-Echeverri, 2018; McGrath, 2018b; Northrop, 2018; Brown *et al.*, 2019) and transparent (Kougiumoutzi, 2016; Doelman *et al.*, 2019; King and van den Bergh, 2019). One recent assessment of progress to date is particularly down-beat: 75 per cent of the 184 country pledges were insufficient to reduce GHG emissions by 50 per cent by the 2030 target date (Watson *et al.*, 2019); of particular concern were China (26.8 per cent of global GHG emissions which had increased by 80 per cent from 2005 to 2018), the USA (13.1 per cent but temporarily withdrew from the Paris Agreement and cut carbon regulations), India (7 per cent but increased 76 per cent between 2005 and 2017), and the Russian Federation not even submitting its plan to cut emissions yet. Out of the top-five emitters, only the EU are on track to cut GHG emissions. The voluntary nature of the climate pledges and an array of technicalities, loopholes and conditions are used to regularly postpone actions. Key to all the Paris Agreement commitments is energy use. Here, the UK's Carbon Brief call for more rigorous carbon budgets, speeding up the transition, doubling current investments, developing renewable and energy efficient resources, and using price mechanisms such as subsidies and carbon pricing (G20, 2015; G20, 2017; Kampers and Fresco, 2017; Springmann *et al.*, 2017;

Timperley, 2017). Kougioumoutzi (2016) and GFS (2016 and 2017d) call for more government guidance for businesses. *The Lancet* argue the Paris Agreement legislation needs to be turned into public health policy that health professionals can implement at local and national levels; to do this, however, the UK would need to overcome poor inter-departmental sharing of policy between government departments (*The Lancet*, 2018d; Benton, 2019a). Morse *et al.* (2018) advocates greater investments in health research partnerships. Nutrition is also seen as critical in driving greater environmental sustainability, providing the infrastructure for economic development, reducing the burden on health systems, for supporting equity and inclusion, and in helping to provide peace and stability (MacFarlane and O'Reilly de Brún, 2011; Rüttinger *et al.*, 2015; Development Initiatives, 2017; Hendriks, 2018).

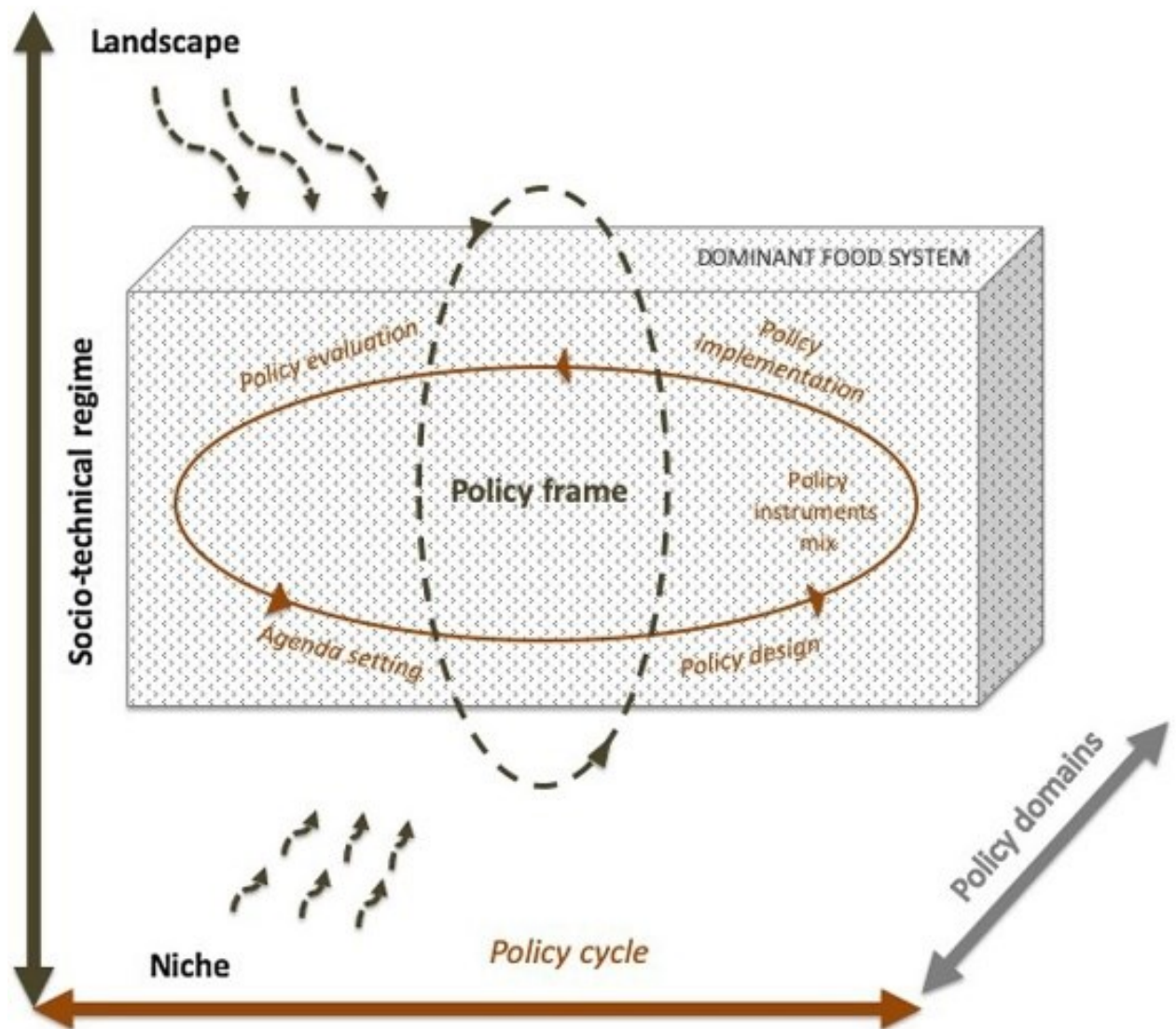
The recent literature on sustainable food policy within the EU includes how the planetary boundaries can be operationalised into national and sub-national governments, businesses, and local stakeholder decision-making (Häyhä *et al.*, 2016; Dao *et al.*, 2018; O'Neill *et al.*, 2018; Osofskya and Pongsiria, 2018). The European Commission produces regular policy updates on sustainable food (SCAR, 2011; EC, 2013f; 2014), food security (EC, 2013c; Maggio *et al.*, 2015), climate change (EC, 2013a; JRC, 2014; EC, 2013b; 2018f), economics and competitive impacts (EC, 2016; 2017; 2018b), resource efficiency (EC, 2011), LCA (EC, 2013d), the SDGs (EC, 2019c), fishing (EC, 2018d), labour migration (EC, 2015), innovation (EC, 2013e), neonicotinoid risks (EC, 2018a), the impact of the CAP (EC, 2018c), vulnerable cities (EC, 2018e; Heidrich and Reckien, 2018), biofuels (EC, 2019a), and the Environmental Implementation Review (EC, 2019b). Their EU EATWELL project also provides best practice guidelines for healthy eating policy interventions (Pérez-Cueto *et al.*, 2012). The EU has a disproportionately large environmental footprint due to its large import volumes (de Boer *et al.*, 2019; Osei-Owusu *et al.*, 2019); shifting the source of these imports could, however, lower this environmental footprint by around 60 per cent. Vieux *et al.* (2018) found significant differences between member-country diets, especially with fish, poultry, and dairy product consumption. Moving the current CAP towards a common food policy for the EU is an opportunity to promote sustainable diets for all Europeans (Barling, 2007; Breen *et al.*, 2010; Barclay, 2012; Capacci *et al.*, 2012; OECD, 2013; Fresco and Poppe, 2016; Barling, 2017; EC, 2018c; European Public Health Alliance, 2018; Food Service Footprint, 2018a; Maas, 2018; Parsons and Hawkes, 2018; De Schutter, 2019; Eating Better, 2019; De Schutter *et al.*, 2020). Building on this need for reform of the CAP, Recanati *et al.* (2019) outlines how this opportunity might address both the complex environmental issues and provide the required nutritional outcomes at the same time (figure 54). Critics of CAP reform, however, claim it will do little to improve health such as increase fruit and vegetable consumption; nor will it improve soil fertility, reduce antibiotics and pesticide use, or measures to tackle waste (Doherty, 2018); address obesity or reduce the current NCDs that account for over 70 per cent of mortality (De Schutter *et al.*, 2020). Instead, De Schutter advocates adopting the IPES-Food EU Common Food Policy blueprint (see appendix 8.15). Galli *et al.* (2020) similarly review how various policy processes can be used to remove barriers to sustainable food

systems within the EU and propose a strategic framework to enable the transition to sustainable food policies (figure 55).



**Figure 54:** Reforming the role of Common Agricultural Policy for more sustainable and healthier food systems in Europe

**Source:** Recanati *et al.* (2019).



**Figure 55:** A conceptual framework for transition to sustainable food policies

The dominant food system is represented in the dotted box and is shaped by three relevant dimensions. The vertical dimension (in dark grey) indicates the multiple levels of socio-technical transitions (niches, socio-technological regime, and landscape) which can trigger change in the dominant food system affecting its policy frame. The horizontal dimension is the policy cycle in its key phases: agenda setting, policy instruments mix and policy implementation, policy evaluation (in brown). This dimension takes place in different policy domains that are relevant for the food system (agriculture, health, environment, social policies etc.). The third dimension is represented by policy domains (in light grey). The dynamics among these key dimensions is relevant to the policy process towards sustainable food systems in Europe

**Source:** Galli et al. (2020, p.2).

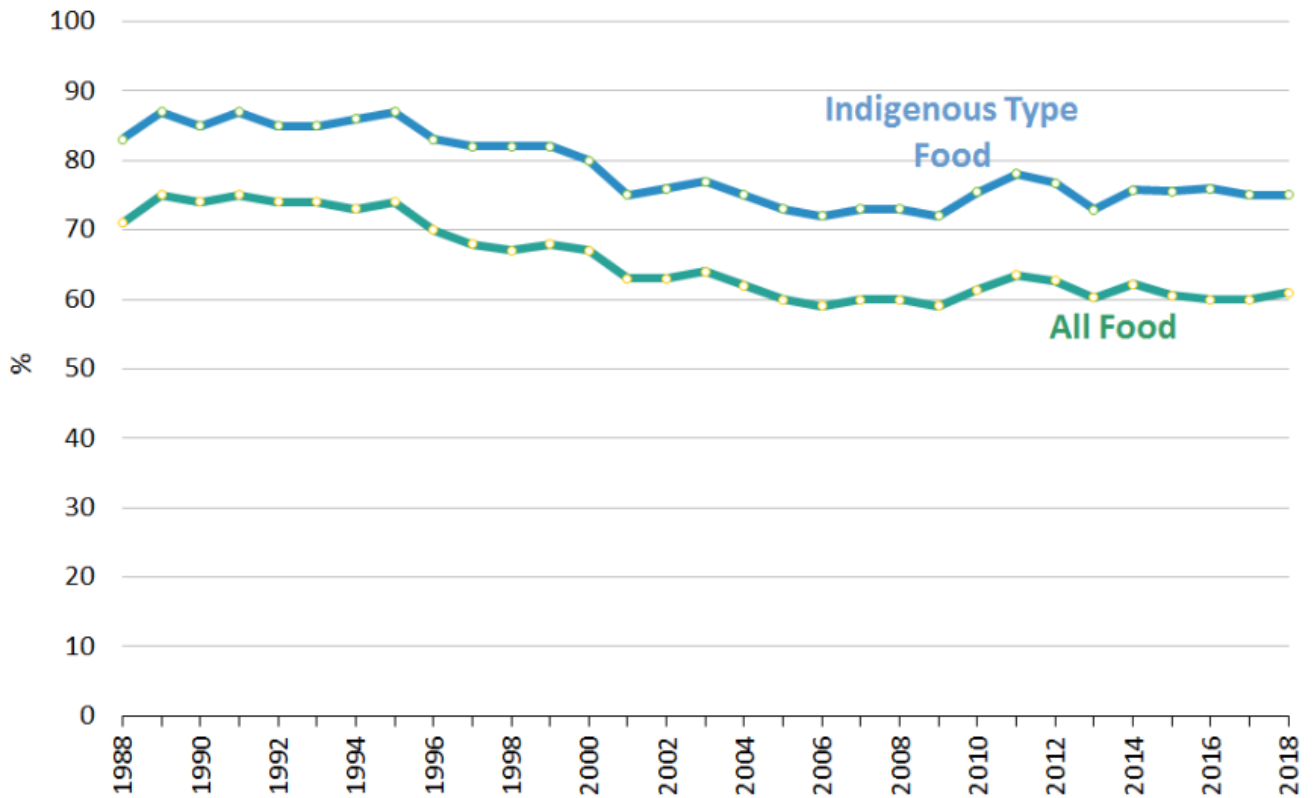
The UK's Climate Change Act of 2008 was originally seen as pioneering and far-sighted but, with the passage of time, its central ambition of reducing carbon emissions by at least 80 per cent by 2050 (based on 1990 levels) is now increasingly seen as insufficient and too slow (Krebs and Haigh, 2018; Harrabin, 2019b; Hudson, 2019; Jackson, 2019a; Jackson, 2019b; *The Lancet*, 2019d). Although responsible for producing a wide range of literature on the subject from central government (EUC, 2010; House of Commons, 2012; 2013; 2015; 2016; Houses of Parliament, 2017; House of Commons, 2018; Environmental Audit Committee, 2018; 2019), at local authority level (e.g. NHS, 2016; Greater London Authority, 2018; London Food Board, 2018; Manchester City Council, 2018), and through the devolved administrations (Welsh Assembly Government, 2010; Agri-Food Strategy Board for Northern Ireland, 2013; Marsden *et al.*, 2016; Foord *et al.*, 2018; McFarlane *et al.*, 2018; Deckard, 2019; Morris, 2019), the latest review of progress by the Committee on Climate Change (2019f) suggests poor performance on 24 out of the 25 required policies. This is despite the Climate Change Act placing a statutory requirement on the government to meet the targets. Reviewing this performance, Willis (2019) argues the fundamental problem is one of no single person or department having overall responsibility. Although the Department for Business, Energy and Industrial Strategy (BEIS) oversees progress, no other departments have carbon targets or responsibilities, with the BEIS unable to instruct them on what needs to be done. Despite transport being responsible for around 25 per cent of UK emissions, the Department for Transport's 2019 strategic plan makes little reference to climate change and continues to work with the Treasury to maximise oil and gas extraction from the North Sea. From 2011-2012 concerns over climate change and security started to appear in reports by the Foreign and Commonwealth Office and the Ministry of Defence (MOD, 2014) but, Harris (2012) argued, this still did not prompt the formation of any tangible mechanisms from government. Here, the energy businesses arguably have a disproportionate influence over governance decisions. Local authorities also lack both the statutory responsibility and resources to tackle climate change; constant budget reductions also leave them with few options, even though they may have declared a 'climate emergency'. Another Government Chief Scientific Adviser, David King, went on to serve as the UK Foreign Secretary's Special Representative for Climate Change from September 2013 until March 2017. He predicts that the world will very likely follow a medium to high carbon emissions pathway for the next few decades and argues much more needs to be done to limit the impacts of climate change below a harmful level. Furthermore, the current level of action falls well below what a risk-based assessment of the science would imply is necessary (King *et al.*, 2015).

As for the UK, in the decade since Tim Lang wrote the closing words for the Sustainable Development Commission '*we do not have a sustainable food system, by any stretch of the imagination, and the evidence of the need to change the UK food system to face the immense challenges ahead is so strong that the policy development within Government still remains inadequate*' (SDC 2011, p.5) it is important to ascertain what progress has subsequently been made. As for food security, Kneafsey *et al.* (2012) argues

that governance is required both to alleviate problems and to ensure access to affordable, healthy food. Previous policy from the mid-1970s had included building a resource base for food production (Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, 1975). Gibson (2013) sees the need for a greater understanding of complex topics including, *inter-alia*, sustainability, free trade, national self-sufficiency, nutrition, poverty, and reducing female subjugation. More recently, Lang and Ingram (2014, p.1) see food security as '*combining the politics of population growth, diet, and the globalisation of food production and distribution with the limitations of soil, water, land use availability, and climate change*'. Ritson (2016) argues food security has fractured and lost its potency in terms of human wellbeing, warning that higher internationally traded food prices and the vulnerability of food imports are real possibilities in the future. Hoekstra and Mekonnen (2016) similarly warn food imports from water stressed regions will decline or become impossible altogether and warn that government does not appropriately appreciate the risks involved. Food seasonality is also considered; climate change will impact food availability through extreme weather events, degradation and desertification, and more gradual risks such as rises in sea levels will make flooding more likely in low-lying areas, limit freshwater availability, and alter growing seasons (Met Office, 2014; Watts *et al.*, 2015; Morison and Matthews, 2016; Lowe *et al.*, 2018; NERC, 2018). In their recent case study, Parsons *et al.* (2018) sees the potential for a more integrated UK food policy being held back by a legacy of old policy frameworks and poor institutional capacities. Commenting on the National Food Strategy consultation Jay Rayner, the British journalist, writer, and food critic claims powerful retailers have jeopardised the food supply chain to such an extent, that the country is no longer able to adequately feed itself (Rayner, 2017); the effects of previous naïve and short-sighted food policy whereby responsibility was devolved to the food retailers; and changing global demographics meaning limited access to global food imports at a time of increasing risk in international food markets (*see* DEFRA, 2006d; DEFRA, 2008b; DEFRA, 2009b; DEFRA, 2009c; DEFRA, 2010b). Further warnings include climate change altering the chemical and pathogen content of food, especially with changes the quantities of imported food or the geographical location where it is grown; and pathogens and chemicals being transferred from animals to humans, reinforcing the need for the FSA to work with the EFSA to monitor animal health to be able to detect threats before human infection occurs (Baylis and Githheko, 2006; Lake *et al.*, 2010; Luck *et al.*, 2011; Baylis, 2017; NAP, 2019d).

The level of self-sufficiency in food has long been part of the food policy narrative and this is increasingly the case with growing market fragility (Timmer, 2010b; Benton, 2017; Hamm, 2019). In the UK, it has been decreasing over the past 30 years (figure 56) and figure 57 shows relative cereal and starchy root self-sufficiency in global comparison. From a policy perspective, the focus on self-sufficiency is often criticised by economists for putting political priorities before the benefits of economic efficiency offered by international trade. More recently, research recommends it is politically and economically prudent to pursue policies to increase domestic food production where the capacity exists (Barling *et al.*, 2008;

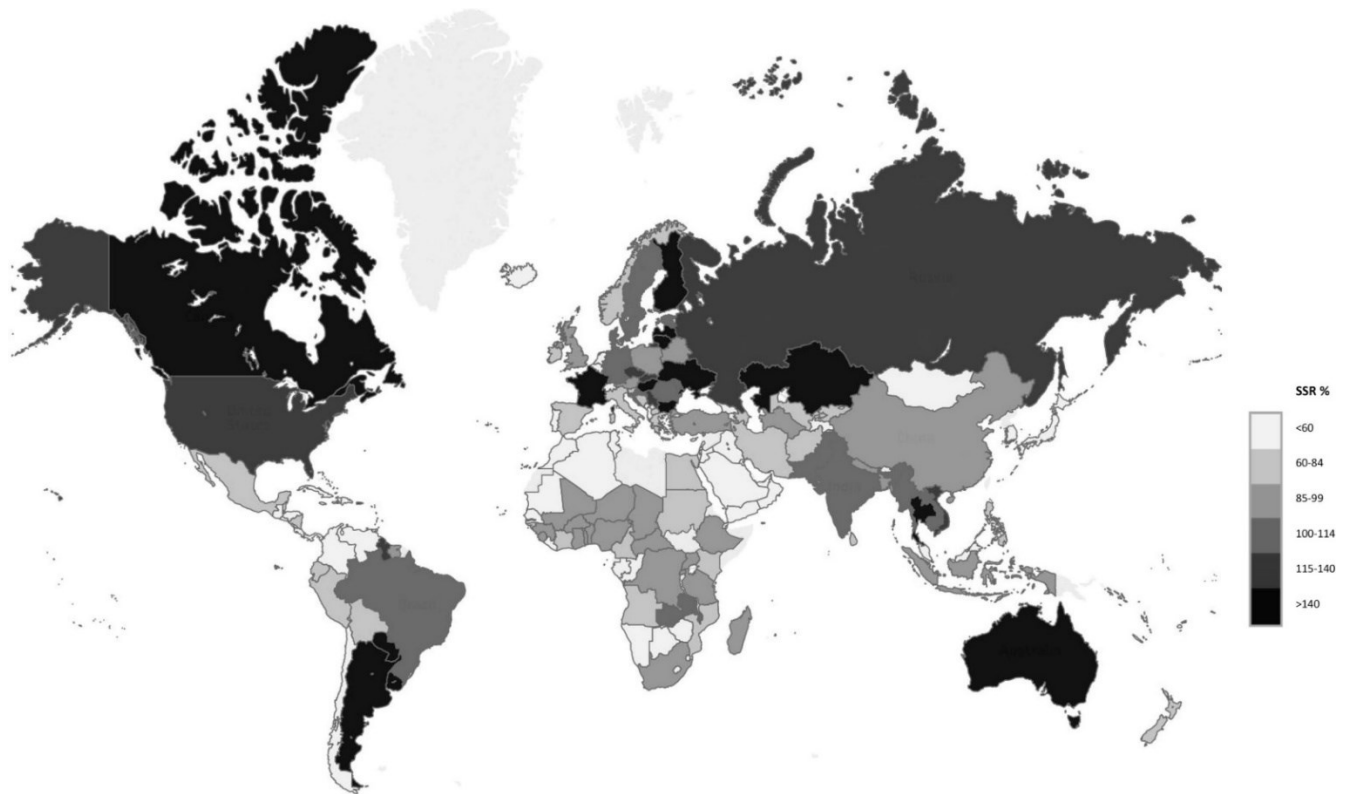
Barling et al., 2015; Clapp, 2016; Benton, 2017; Clapp, 2017; Wegren and Elvestad, 2018; EAC, 2019; Armstrong-McKay et al., 2019; Schramski et al., 2019). The grey literature also shows a resurgence of interest in self-sufficiency, especially given the probability of higher prices post Brexit (Fairlie, 2007; Carrington, 2014; EAC, 2019).



**Figure 56:** The UK’s food production to supply ratio (self-sufficiency ratio) from 1988 to 2018

**Source:** DEFRA (2019n; 2020).





**Figure 57:** Food self-sufficiency ratios (SSRs) for cereals and starchy roots, 2007–2011

**Source:** FAO data cited in Clapp (2017).

The interdisciplinarity of food requires integrated solutions but the lack of clarity remains a major challenge. The recent trend towards food-systems thinking is not only facilitating a better understanding of the complex interactions influencing health, the environment, and the economy, but also the conflicts that often prevent the co-benefits from being realised (Parsons and Hawkes, 2018). Various thoughts on future directions are emerging: the need for a radically new approach that includes healthier, plant-based diets, less waste, and better technologies to improve the way food is grown to ensure the world is able to feed its population in 2050 (Springmann *et al.*, 2018b); the fallacy of thinking technological solutions will enable humanity to get around the limitations in growth implicit within the planetary boundaries concept (Dyke, 2019); concerns over further delay in addressing the accelerating civilisational crisis caused by both the increasing power of corporations and the political self-interest that fuels denialism (Lucas and Horton, 2019); fake news’ stories, such as claiming that scientists agreed that palm oil plantations did not have a negative impact on tropical peat lands (Wijedasa *et al.*, 2016); denial also obscuring the public’s recognition of the health hazards, as was demonstrated previously by the tobacco industry (McMichael *et al.*, 2015; Häyhä *et al.*, 2016; Carbon Brief, 2017a); and, the need for governments to act specifically against those corporations responsible for carbon emissions on the premise that climate change is a global threat that needs planetary-scale reform (Byskov, 2019; Carbon Disclosure Project, 2019).

### 2.6.5 Conflicting interests between policies and politics

Several studies raise ongoing concerns about the disconnect between the scientific consensus on future policy trajectories and political direction. The IPCC (2018b) is largely acknowledged as the final call to avoid climate catastrophe (Denkenberger and Pearce, 2015; McGrath, 2018b; Shine, 2018): specifically, the impacts of climate change are worse than anticipated and expected sooner than originally thought, with the global temperature increase heading for 3°C with rapid, far-reaching and unprecedented changes in all aspects of society; addressing this challenge will be expensive; but warning that the current political consensus remains focused on economies and living standards. Maintaining temperature increases at 1.5°C or even 2°C will be impossible without full political backing and the market interventions required (Abraham, 2018; Betts *et al.*, 2018; Harvey, 2018; Leahy, 2018). The differences in political approach between the left and the right is marked: right-wing populism promotes scepticism and hostility towards policies addressing climate change (Lockwood, 2018); impacts funding of the SDGs (Hatefi, 2017); conservative think-tanks deny and manufacture uncertainty on the reality and significance of climate science (Poortinga *et al.*, 2011; Dunlap and Jacques, 2013; Supran and Oreskes, 2017; Cowtan and Lewandowsky *et al.*, 2018; Lawrence, 2019); personal experience driving political affiliation (Whitmarsh, 2011; Aleksandrowicz *et al.*, 2015); influences from the USA (NAP, 2011; Seekell *et al.*, 2017; Funk and Kennedy, 2018; Leiserowitz *et al.*, 2018; Holden, 2019; Harrabin, 2020; Landler and Sengupta, 2020) and other countries such as Australia, Brazil, Russia and Saudi Arabia falling short on their international commitments (Murphy, 2019); and the propensity of the left to be more engaged with climate science (Saunders *et al.*, 2018; Franzen, 2019). The type and nature of the political consensus ultimately influences decisions on a wide range of issues, including investments, governance, and policy developments. Even when policies to address climate change have broad public support, opposition can soon arise where certain communities are seen to bear the burden of associated costs (Pinstrup-Andersen, 2013; Stokes, 2015; Tol, 2018b), making successful policy integration difficult (Candel and Pereira, 2017). Carbon Brief (2018) argue carbon pricing may be near-impossible on a national level, let alone on a global scale. However, numerous examples of successful carbon tax and emissions-trading schemes do exist, where the key to success was passing the money raised back to citizens garnered support equally from the political left and right (Carattini *et al.*, 2019; Maestre-Andres *et al.*, 2019). The UK government acknowledge responsibility for turning public expenditure into better public services to improve people's lives and to delivering world-class services that citizen's value (HM Government, 2017a). Until their National Food Strategy is published, however, it is not possible to determine the exact level of this commitment to food, the environment, or health. Although the contributions of political science to health will be discussed later, two current medical perspectives are worthy of mention at this juncture. The first is the arguments for resource-centred science to provide solutions for planetary health (Acunzo *et al.*,

2018) and the second, that political interests already exert a disproportionate influence to the detriment of health (Lucas and Horton, 2019). Both questions will be addressed shortly.

The food policy literature has developed significantly over the past decade and is now seen as increasingly critical in finding a way forward (Brambila-Macias *et al.*, 2011; Thomson *et al.*, 2018). The scale of this current challenge appears gigantic, as with '*no stretch of the imagination could our complex web of food supply, consumption patterns and impact be currently described as sustainable*' (Lang *et al.*, 2011, p.6). The term food policy is used to describe all the various policies that influence food systems and consumer diets, including food imports, prices, food safety, waste, labelling, and education. Where policies are successful, food security, safety, and healthy nutrition are both compatible and complimentary; where political trade-offs between them are made, conflict arises (Walls *et al.*, 2019). Other policies such as social, energy, migration, and taxation policies may also affect food indirectly. As many of these policies are then implemented by the private sector on behalf of government, the private sector has a strong influence over policy (Hawkes and Parsons, 2019). Emerging themes within the literature include policy malfunctions (Barling *et al.*, 2002; Lang, 2009; Barilla Center for Food and Nutrition Foundation, 2018), calls for planetary (Haines, 2017; Bianchi *et al.*, 2018; EAC, 2019) and ecological public health (Barling *et al.*, 2002; Raynor *et al.*, 2008; Lang, 2009; Lang and Rayner, 2012), growing governance needs (Gupta, 2004; Barling, 2007; Coppola and Pascucci, 2008; Biesbroek *et al.*, 2010; Clapp and Cohen, 2012; Cook and Bakker, 2012; FAO, 2012b; FAO, 2012e; Marsden, 2013; Candel, 2014; Duncan, 2015; Escajedo San-Epifanio, 2015; San-Epifanio, 2015; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Constantine and Santarelli, 2017; Moragues-Faus *et al.*, 2017; Beumer *et al.*, 2018; Candel and Biesbroek, 2018; Parsons and Hawkes, 2018; Benton, 2019a), trade liberalisation versus national economic competitiveness (Serrano and Pinilla, 2010; Hawkes *et al.*, 2012; Brooks *et al.*, 2013; DEFRA, 2014a; Brooks and Matthews, 2015; Clapp, 2015; Brown *et al.*, 2017; Benton, 2019b; Hawkes and Parsons, 2019; Parsons, 2019), the disconnect with nutrition (Sundaram, 2014; van't Veer *et al.*, 2017; Maas, 2018; Marten *et al.*, 2018; Hawkes and Parsons, 2019) and, within the past 5 years, the threat to availability and affordability of food in the UK when it leaves the EU (Committee on Climate Change, 2016d; Bellora *et al.*, 2017; European Parliament, 2017; Food Foundation, 2017; Landworkers' Alliance, 2017; Lang, 2017a; Lightfoot *et al.*, 2017; Ries *et al.*, 2017; Research for AGRI Committee, 2017; The Collective Psychology Project, 2017; DEFRA, 2018e; Food Foundation, 2018a; House of Commons Environment, Food and Rural Affairs Committee, 2018; House of Lords, 2018; Lang and McKee, 2018; McFarlane *et al.*, 2018; Springmann and Freund, 2018; Billiet, 2019; EAC, 2019; Economist Intelligence Unit, 2019; Heron *et al.*, 2019; Poppy *et al.*, 2019; Soil Association; 2019; Barons and Aspinall, 2020). More recently, calls have been made for greater food policy integration within domains such as health, environment, education and migration, thereby overcoming past conflicts, disconnects and irrationalities (Development Initiatives, 2017; Development Initiatives, 2018; IAP, 2018; Mwatsama, 2018; Parsons *et al.*, 2018; Benton, 2019a; Parsons, 2019; Parsons and Hawkes, 2019b; RSA -

FFCC, 2019d; Biesbroek and Candel, 2020). An indication of the roles undertaken by the UK policymaking institutions and their policy responsibilities is detailed in table 7.

<b>Department</b>	<b>Policy responsibility</b>
Food Standards Agency	Food safety aspects of food labelling, and for investigating incidents in the UK, including misleading labelling and food fraud
Department for Environment, Food and Rural Affairs	Food composition, authenticity, and labelling policy in England, when it does not relate to food safety or nutrition. Leads on EU labelling negotiations for the UK
Department of Health	Nutrition labelling and health claims policy and leads on relevant EU negotiations
Public Health England	Identifying and investigating outbreaks of foodborne infection
Local Authorities	Delivering and enforcement of food safety and food authenticity, tasked by and submitting results to the FSA

**Table 7:** Responsibility for food policy in the UK

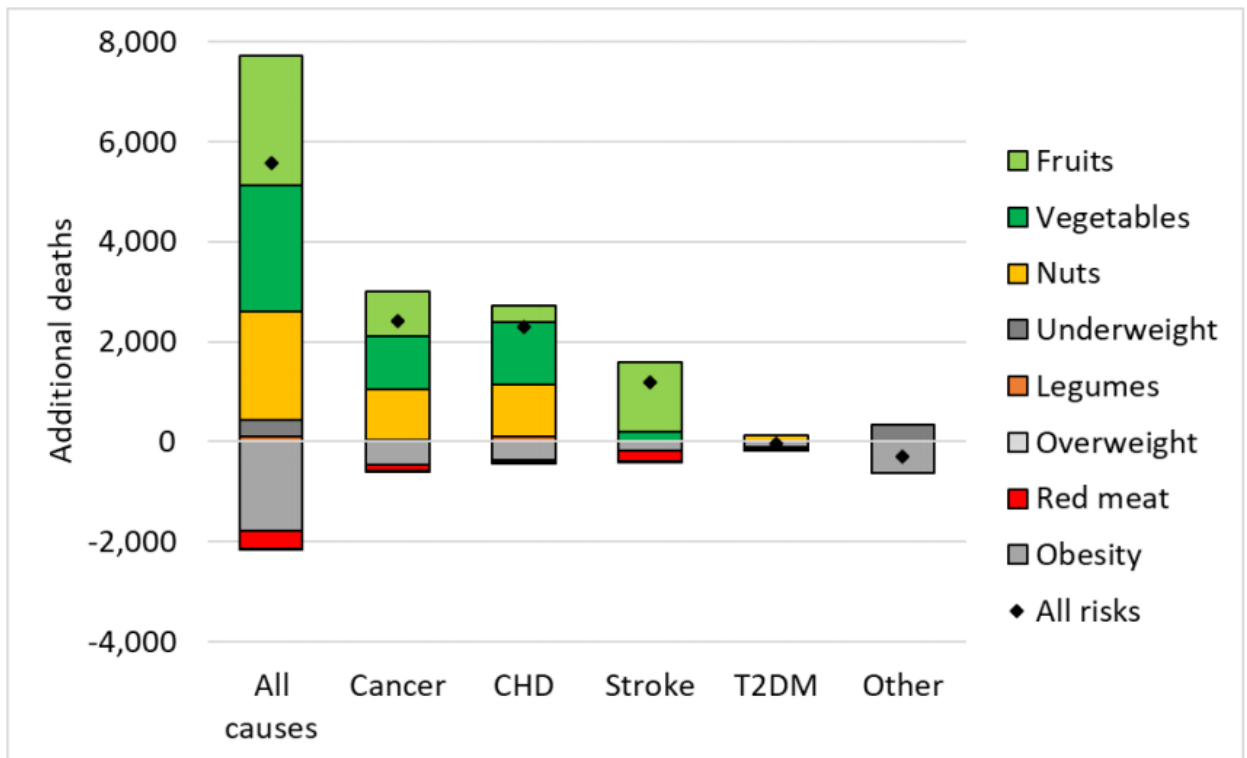
**Source:** Parsons *et al.* (2018).

### 2.6.6 United Kingdom policy directions after leaving the European Union

The full impact of the UK leaving the EU has yet to be fully understood. Although earlier consultations propose replacing production subsidies with the environmental schemes that many farmers already benefit from under the existing EU's CAP (DEFRA, 2018e; HM Government, 2019), they do not include the scientific prerequisites essential for sustainable policy, for example: addressing the direct health and environmental impacts of agriculture; reversing the decline in soil health; mitigation and adaptation of livestock systems to meet emissions targets; and, opportunities for regenerative agriculture. Nor is there any detail on the intended shape of future food policy (Lin, 2011), despite EAC concerns over Government complacency about the current risks to food security or the need for a National Food Strategy to ensure healthy diets for all (EAC 2019). As such, the potential implications resulting from Brexit prompts much debate (Lightfoot *et al.*, 2017; Lang and McKee, 2018; McFarlane *et al.*, 2018; *The Lancet*, 2019a; Monbiot, 2019). Early analyses identified many disadvantages (loss of funds for the environment, higher food prices, reductions in collaborative research, and concerns over trading standards) but also potential benefits in bringing food, health, and the environment together with mutually beneficial policies (Schoen and Lang, 2016; Barling, 2018). The decision to close the Department of Energy and Climate Change soon after the referendum removed a critical part of the governance infrastructure and gave the impression of Brexit's

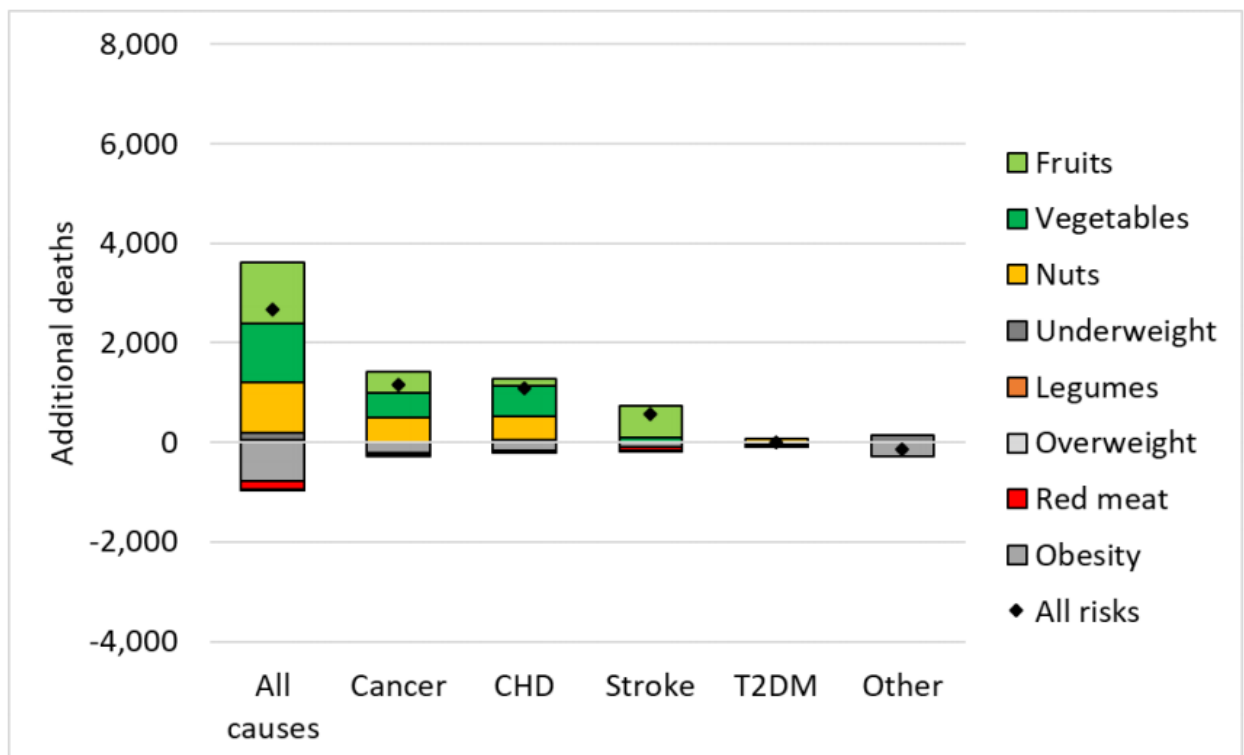
relative importance ahead of climate change (Institute for Government, 2015). As the Paris Agreement is essentially discretionary rather than obligatory, with the expectation that countries set their own NDCs, this discretion lies entirely with the incumbent government (Allen *et al.*, 2016). Inside the EU, the UK is bound by the EU's collective commitments; outside the EU, however and without an NDC, Murphy (2018) argues the UK will become a climate 'laggard'. Responsibility has now passed to the Committee on Climate Change, who are supposedly independent and able to critique the governments' objectives, policies, and performance, but this is limited to an advisory role. Furthermore, whilst warning about current strategy shortcomings and expectations that the 2030 carbon emissions targets will not be met, they also recommend government remain on the same trajectory (Committee on Climate Change, 2016d), giving rise to criticisms over both its independence and the short-term perspective of government departments (Paulson, 2015; Murphy, 2018; Benton, 2019). Benton *et al.* (2019) summarise the EU influence over the UK food system into five key areas: CAP subsidies (£2.3bn per annum); intra-EU trade; the EU providing around 98 per cent of the labour in agriculture and 30 per cent in food manufacturing; regulation for environmental and safety standards of food; and extra-EU trade, whereby UK both exports and imports with countries which have an EU trade agreement.

Numerous concerns are already starting to appear within the scientific literature. These include additional risks to UK food security (Lang *et al.*, 2018a; Rickard, 2019; Barons and Aspinall, 2020), weaker regulation and food standards (Garnett, 2011; CiWF, 2014; Clonan *et al.*, 2015; Lang and Schoen 2016; Millstone, 2017; Herzog *et al.*, 2018; Lang and McKee, 2018; RSPCA, 2018; Stevenson, 2018; Benton *et al.*, 2019; CiWF, 2019; McCulloch, 2019; SCWG, 2019), labour shortages (Lang and McKee, 2018), increased food prices (Clarke *et al.*, 2017; Chakraborty and Dobson, 2018; Lang and McKee, 2018; Lang and Mason, 2018; Case, 2019; Heron *et al.*, 2019; Barons and Aspinall, 2020), damage to supply chains (Barling, 2017; Lang and McKee, 2018; Rickard, 2019) and disruption in regional food supplies in areas such as Wales (Powell and Castle, 2019), Ireland (Lang and McKee, 2018), and especially food flows through Northern Ireland (Lang *et al.*, 2018b; Lang and McKee, 2018), taking the UK further away from sustainable food policies (Lang and Mason, 2018; Bash and Donnelly, 2019; Benton *et al.*, 2019), and multiple impacts on health and mortality (Springmann and Freund, 2018; Millstone *et al.*, 2019; Barons and Aspinall, 2020). Springmann and Freund (2018) calculate Brexit will lead to reductions in the average per-capita consumption of fruits, vegetables, root-crops, and dairy, with further, moderate reductions in beef, pork, poultry, sugar, and vegetable oils. More significantly, however, a hard Brexit resulted in 5,600 additional deaths (see figure 58) compared to only 2,700 additional deaths for a soft Brexit (see figure 59). The relative, additional health care costs associated with the two scenarios were £600m for the Hard Brexit and £290m for the Soft Brexit, with approximately one-third due to direct costs and the remainder attributed to related, informal care and lost productivity.



**Figure 58:** Changes in mortality in the UK by risk factor and cause of deaths in the Hard Brexit scenario  
*Coronary heart disease (CHD); stroke, type-2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)*

**Source:** Springmann and Freund (2018).



**Figure 59:** Changes in mortality in the UK by risk factor and cause of deaths in the Soft Brexit scenario

**Source:** Springmann and Freund (2018).

Further comparisons to the similar free market transition undertaken by New Zealand are made, but Arnott (2018) highlights the devastating impact on their environment that this transition had. Further research studies consider the impacts of Brexit on particular products or issues such as fishing rights (Alberro, 2018; Greenwood, 2019), pesticide regulation (Milner and Boyd, 2017; Cohen *et al.*, 2018), bottled water regulations (Nobajas, 2018) and impact on sustainable intensification (Flavell, 2010; Garnett *et al.*, 2013; Abraham *et al.*, 2014; Franks, 2014; Godfray, 2014; Gunton *et al.*, 2016; Rasul and Sharma, 2016; Rees *et al.*, 2016; Whitfield and Marshall, 2017; Acevedo *et al.*, 2018; Dicks *et al.*, 2018; Armstrong McKay *et al.*, 2019). As a large purchaser of emission permits from the EU Emissions Trading System for GHG, Tol (2018a) calculates that in leaving the EU, the UK will find it much more difficult to meet its climate policy targets and incur additional costs equating to 0.2 to 0.4 per cent of GDP. Jackson and Shepotylo (2018) found all post-Brexit scenarios would make the UK poorer, with a Hard Brexit generating GDP losses of 4.1 - 5.3 per cent (£77 to £99bn). Hauk (2020) warns that Brexit could reduce the impacts of globalisation in the UK and suggests the real challenge will be keeping the gains in global prosperity that it enabled without ceding control through international trade. Brexit is succinctly described by Clutterbuck (2017, p.1) as *'a woefully misconceived agricultural export drive that cannot possibly deliver'* and by Lang *et al.* (2017, p.4) as *'the worst policy situation imaginable'* which represents a new form of imperialism with the expectation that other countries will feed us. Further detail on the health impact assessment of a no-deal Brexit can be found in appendix 8.3.

### 2.6.7 Governance structures

Food governance is shared between many different public, private, and CSOs globally; most are seen as needing to be redesigned to deliver the systemic changes needed. Many global bodies have come under recent criticism: the UN (Conforti, 2011; Brown, 2013), the WTO (Shatrugna, 2012); investors (Clapp *et al.*, 2015d; Lambek, 2015; Hodson, 2017; UN, 2017a). The lack of political will to address the challenges that threaten life on Earth is a concern (*The Lancet*, 2019), with Kahn *et al.* (2014) seeing an urgent need for governance that can both comprehend the impacts of ecosystem changes and better develop strategies to prevent and mitigate the resulting health effects. They argue that, when it comes to environmental protection, no single, international agency is in charge; instead responsibility is fragmented between many entities. Despite the UNEP being around for nearly 50 years, the debate remains ongoing regarding both its effectiveness and future role; similarly, although the WHO has an environmental health section, it receives only a fraction of the overall budget and does not really address the human impact on the environment. Watts *et al.* (2018, p.581) see two divergent trajectories: anthropogenic climate change undermining 50 years of public health gains; or, a comprehensive response to climate change could be *'the greatest global health opportunity of the 21st century'* with the potential to realise *'the highest attainable standard of health, wellbeing, and equity worldwide'* (Maini *et al.*, 2017, p.1).

The long-established debate over the type and scope of UK food system governance has received a resurgence of interest within the last five to ten years, caused in part by several sequential changes. The traditional challenges of bringing together the disparate functions of agricultural production and dietary needs, compounded by initiatives such as World Trade Agreements and the CAP (Barling, 2007; Day and Lee, 2011; Doberman and Nelson, 2013), have been superseded by the SDGs, the Paris Agreement, and Brexit (Clarke *et al.*, 2017; Arnott, 2018; Barling, 2018; Ziv *et al.*, 2018; Benton *et al.*, 2019; Stewart *et al.*, 2019). The current picture remains one of flux, with much discussion over the type of governance needed and how to improve issues such as integration, connectivity, and inclusion (Whitmee *et al.*, 2015; Hawkes and Parsons, 2019; Parsons *et al.*, 2019). A number of theoretical questions remain: the role and increasing power of big food companies as global environmental governors (Dauvergne and Lister, 2012; Österblom *et al.*, 2015; Richards *et al.*, 2015; Scott, 2015; Clapp, 2017; Clapp and Scrinis, 2017; IPES, 2018; Lawrence, 2019; Rossi *et al.*, 2019); the extent of responsible consumption through food citizenship (Wilkins, 2005; Maniates, 2010; de Tavernier, 2012; Henderson *et al.*, 2013; Lang, 2014c; Crawford and Montague, 2017; Food Citizenship, 2017; New Citizenship, 2017; New Citizenshift, 2017; Food Ethics Council, 2019a; Mi and Coffman, 2019); whether current governance systems are equipped to handle challenges such as those raised by the SDGs (Acunzo *et al.*, 2018); the types of political and institutional leadership and market incentives required (Balgopal *et al.*, 2014; Anderson, 2016; James *et al.*, 2017); and, the food system actions and transformations required (Campbell *et al.*, 2018). Having originally been critical of the governments deregulated 'free-market' approach (Lang and Mason, 2018), some studies provide a critique on the governments Agricultural Bill. Not only does this Bill lack any vision for food or health, Lang (2018) argues the UK will in addition soon lose the protection of more than 35 infrastructural food institutions as it leaves the EU. Similarly, there are calls for the precautionary principle to be enshrined into UK law, to halt the serious decline in biodiversity (Carrington, 2018; IPBES, 2018; Chambers, 2019). Further studies recommend developing policy guidelines (Willett, 2001; King, 2007; Day and Lee, 2011; American Heart Association, 2015; Health Council of the Netherlands, 2015; Monteiro *et al.*, 2015; British Nutrition Foundation, 2016; Head, 2017; Louie and Rangan, 2018).

### **2.6.8 Power relations and potential conflicts**

In continually striving for growth food businesses are better able to acquire more assets and fund investments. The consolidation that then follows places key decisions into the hands of an ever-decreasing number of companies, enabling them disproportionate influence over lobbying policymakers, directing research, and influencing media coverage. Numerous studies call for a paradigm shift to reform the business-as-usual approach (Welch and Graham, 1999; Fritz and Schiefer, 2008; Food Ethics Council, 2013; Marsden and Morley, 2014; Wynn, 2014; Grafton *et al.*, 2015; Leisinger, 2015; Rasmussen and Storm, 2015; Swannell, 2016; WRAP, 2017; Barkham, 2018; de Pee *et al.*, 2018). The overall impact, however,



means these companies are shaping the field of global health (Cohen, 2011; de Sá, 2014; O'Connor, 2015; Ireland and Ashton, 2017; Lang, 2017b; Fleming, 2018; Greenhalgh, 2019). One systematic review established such financial conflicts of interest had biased conclusions on consumption and impacts on obesity (Bes-Rastrollo *et al.*, 2013). The social cost of political lobbying is also examined within the literature (Brulle, 2018; Ferns, 2018; Meng and Rode, 2019), with claims from climate scientist James Hansen over the major international oil companies buying off the UK government with Canadian produced Tar sands oil, threatening to make climate change unstoppable being reported in the mainstream press (Carrington, 2013). Also of grave concern are reports from the NGO Global Witness (2018) who are focused on breaking the links between resource exploitation, conflict, poverty, corruption, and human rights abuses worldwide. Their latest report linked 53 killings to government security forces in 2017, with a further 90 killings to corporations with vested interests, especially in Africa. Although the grey literature frequently contains warnings of the consequences to health of consuming industrially-made food (Blay-Palmer and Donald, 2008; O'Connor, 2016; Oxfam, 2016; Riley, 2017; Boseley, 2018d; Lawrence, 2018; New Food Magazine, 2018; Steele and Sarcevic, 2019), the academic discourse is sparse. Further studies also recommend changing the food system to address the conflicts of interest between public health and commercial powers (Weldegebriel, 2005; Cohen, 2011; Chandon and Wansink, 2012; Igumbor *et al.*, 2012; Stuckler and Nestle, 2012; Moodie *et al.*, 2013; Gorski and Roberto, 2015; Loder, 2015; Scrinis, 2015; Williams and Nestle, 2015; Häyhä *et al.*, 2016; Howard, 2016; Food Ethics Council, 2017a; Garst *et al.*, 2017; Hawkes and Watson, 2017; IPES, 2017a; Tempels *et al.*, 2017; Cancer Research UK, 2018; Freidberg, 2018; Haddad, 2018; Mozaffarian *et al.*, 2018; Richards *et al.*, 2018; Scrinis, 2018; Branca *et al.*, 2019; Cairns, 2019; *Foot Print*, 2019; IPES, 2019; Rossi *et al.*, 2019; Steele *et al.*, 2019; Swinburn, 2019). One of the most prolific academic authors in this field, Marion Nestle, argues that although these issues have been criticised within the nutrition community for decades, they have been largely ignored within the medical literature (Nestle, 2018). There is particular concern about marketing disguised as nutrition science and food industry finance being used to fund not-for-profit professional or research bodies (Fleming, 2018). Nestle recommends instead that no commercial funding is allowed; instead, funding could be raised through a tax payable by all food companies. Boseley (2019, p.395) concurs, stating that the food industry must now be publicly challenged over the '*marketing of high sugar, high fat, high salt products that cause obesity and damage health*'. Concerns are also raised over the concentration of ownership of '*climate-smart*' agriculture, with both knowledge and power being controlled by a handful of global corporations, which not only threatens the democratic governance of food and policy, but also insecurity and environmental degradation as well (Long *et al.*, 2016; Krishna, 2017; Mann, 2017; Brouziyne *et al.*, 2018; Dass *et al.*, 2018; Kakraliya *et al.*, 2018; Lan *et al.*, 2018; Thornton *et al.*, 2018).

### 2.6.9 Chapter summary

This chapter firstly presents the research objectives for this thesis; to synthesise the challenges from the food– environment–health nexus, the anticipated impacts of climate change on this nexus, and identify the dietary behaviours that need to be adopted to reduce the impacts on human health. It then evaluates the existing published literature to understand the impact of the identified risks to UK food security in the immediate future. It synthesises the latest findings on sustainability science, the challenges of producing food sustainably, the correlation between planetary health and human health, what constitutes a healthy diet, and how the existing policy instruments can be adapted and coordinated to ensure both future food sustainability and security. Lang and Mason (2017) provide a useful overview of the policy approaches available (see appendix 8.14).



## 3. Research questions and methodology used to address them

### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the qualitative and quantitative approaches employed, the overall research design, how the data was collected, the tools used to model the impacts of climate change, the scenario analyses, and the requirements for the conceptual framework. The initial review of the literature identified gaps in the knowledge base on future policy options for the UK. From each gap five research questions were identified, as detailed in table 8. Three separate methods were then used. A synthesis of published systematic reviews and meta-analyses (umbrella review) was used to determine the extent of existing evidence for each of the five research questions. This was specifically chosen due to health professionals' familiarity of such a method providing answers to specific clinical questions, thorough and unbiased data on the relevant literature, and using explicit criteria for assessing and structuring the results. Modelling predictions were also employed for research question three on how climate change will impact the UK's ability to produce healthy food; specifically to provide a case study on the impacts on food production in one area of the UK. Finally, scenario analyses were used to evaluate how climate change will impact the UK's ability to produce and import food.

The research predominantly adopts a qualitative approach, which is typical within the field of health behaviour, where it is used to further the understanding of the processes that direct the development of health policy and practice. The final section of the methodology chapter considers how the data was analysed to answer the five questions of this thesis. The research synthesises recent evidence to evaluate the effectiveness of the current policies that influence food and determine what needs to be done to address systemic failures in terms of biological, outcome, consumption, and security effects in the United Kingdom's current food systems. It also attempts to both further identify specific knowledge gaps that need to be addressed to enable effective socio-political decision-making, and address the previously identified problems associated with the reliability and lack of uniformity of existing data. In systematically mapping the latest evidence on how climate change will impact the UK's ability to both produce and import healthy food and developing recommendations for a new policy framework, it attempts to make an original contribution to the research field. The second original contribution comes from synthesising what constitutes a healthy diet and providing a framework for UK health professionals that will enable them to deliver evidence-based information.

No:	Question:	Method		
		UR	MP	SA
RQ1:	What constitutes a healthy diet, how sustainable are current UK diets, and the potential benefits of changes in dietary behaviour towards healthier eating?	✓		
RQ2:	How effective is the existing regulatory framework and what should a new policy framework comprise to ensure both risk minimisation and the security of sustainable, healthy food in the UK?	✓		
RQ3:	How will climate change impact the UK's ability to produce healthy food?	✓	✓	✓
RQ4:	How will climate change impact the UK's main imported food commodities and what will this mean for major UK food supplies?	✓		✓
RQ5:	What should health professionals be doing to inform and enable the behavioural changes needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets?	✓		

UR = Umbrella Review

MP = Modelling Predictions

SA = Scenario Analyses

**Table 8:** Research questions for this thesis

The methodology adopts an inductive reasoning approach, whereby it assimilates various observations at the onset and then looks to propose policy solutions in its conclusions. The methodology is also aligned to an ontological (the philosophical study of the nature of reality) and epistemological (truth, belief and justification) perspective of critical realism. This philosophical approach combines ontological realism with epistemological constructivism (Sayer, 1992; 1999; Dyson and Brown, 2005), both of which are associated with disciplines including sustainability (Zachariadis *et al.*, 2013) and health (Benoliel, 1996). Ontological realism assumes that truth is correspondent with fact where a mind-independent reality exists and defends the possibility of causal explanation. It also assumes that knowledge is communicatively constructed, where concepts and beliefs are historically generated and conditioned. Finally, it accepts that the explanatory knowledge formed through realist analysis will always be open to challenge and subject to change on theoretical and empirical grounds, as reality is based on individual experiences.

The aim of this research was primarily to evaluate the effectiveness of the current policies that influence food and determine their appropriateness in terms of being able to tackle the imminent threats to future

UK food security. The effectiveness of current policies and their ability to tackle the rapidly approaching, increasing burden of risk is a particular challenge for UK policymakers, following several decades of minimal, direct market interventions and devolved responsibility to the EU. The government's own auditors have recently claimed that the UK government is ignoring advice issued by its own statutory committee on food security and not doing enough to prepare for future risks.

Although the understanding of threats to, and need for, sustainable food systems has been gathering momentum for the past four decades, this has taken on a new urgency over the past ten years as the scientific consensus has become centred around the realisation of high magnitude risks caused by climate change and the likelihood of them increasing. Only in 2017, for example, has the UK Committee on Climate Change published the top three main risks to the UK: namely flooding; temperature affecting domestic food production; and, the threats to imported food supplies caused by trade disruptions, as other nations struggle with their own climate change problems. This raises five urgent issues for UK policymakers and therefore the research questions for this thesis (table 8):

### **3.2 Research design**

Research design is critical to ensure that the evidence obtained effectively addresses the research problem. The last decade has witnessed a huge growth in the number of studies, many of which fundamentally change the understanding of what policies and regulations will be needed to mitigate against the risks of climate change and environmental degradation to ensure future food systems provide sustainable, secure and healthy diets. The initial literature review considered these studies and identified the growing scientific consensus for sustainable food systems to address future high magnitude risks with increasing urgency (Webster and Watson, 2002). The introductory chapter lays out the research problem, the overall objective and main purpose for this thesis. The research problem originates from the growing sense of urgency among the scientific and professional communities to mitigate against the increasing risks to food systems: from the impacts of climate change (more flooding, temperature effects on food production, and trade disruptions increasingly threatening imported food supplies); from the growing health concerns associated with current UK diets; concerns regarding the perceived weaknesses with the existing policy and regulatory frameworks, especially in their ability to minimise risk and ensure future food security; and, the general lack of suitable and accessible information for health professionals to enable them to play a part in helping mitigate against these risks and bring about positive change. The subsequent literature review further reinforces the urgency and importance of mitigating against these risks and the general lack of preparedness. In order to achieve the overall research objective of a better understanding of the risks to UK food security in the immediate future, this thesis uses meteorological predictive models to systematically map the latest evidence on how climate change will impact domestic

production factors and overseas risks to imported food security. It synthesises what constitutes a healthy diet, how existing policy instruments can be adapted and coordinated to ensure future food sustainability, resilience, and security, and how the growing trends in diet-related diseases might be reversed. It will also recommend specific proposals for UK health professionals to enable them to deliver evidence-based information to inform and bring about the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets.

The original literature review was initially conducted in April 2019, to synthesise existing literature and identify gaps using three university databases, each with its own subject specialisms. This included all articles published since 2010, with the search being repeated regularly up to June 2020 to capture any subsequent publications. Both scholarly (peer-reviewed) articles and the grey literature (including from organisations such as the FAO and CSOs) were included. To assist in identifying the grey literature, the Prague definition was assumed. This defines grey literature as *'manifold document types produced on all levels of government, academics, business and industry in print and electronic formats that are protected by intellectual property rights, of sufficient quality to be collected and preserved by library holdings or institutional repositories, but not controlled by commercial publishers i.e. where publishing is not the primary activity of the producing body'* (Schöpfel, 2011, p.11).

The empirical study comprises two core methodological steps. For the first part of the study, a synthesis of existing systematic reviews and meta-analyses was used to determine what constitutes a sustainable and healthy diet, the potential benefits of changing dietary habits towards healthier eating, and the available policy options to minimise risk and ensure a secure supply of sustainable, healthy food in the UK. Evidence-based primary research is expanding fields in both health and policy (Aromataris *et al.*, 2015). Systematic review methods are increasingly being used within food systems as well, with their information retrieval methods being informed by experience gained from health (Wood *et al.*, 2018) where they have been used progressively since the 1970s (Aromataris and Munn, 2017) and are now widely regarded as the gold standard for determining evidence-based practice (Aromataris and Riitano, 2014). Their main strengths include providing comprehensive and unbiased syntheses, their international scope, their ability to provide evidence to inform practice and policy, and results that are both meaningful and reliable (Aromataris and Riitano, 2014; Aromataris and Munn, 2017).

The second part addresses research questions three and four on how climate change will impact both domestic food production and the availability of food imports. Here, scenario analyses are used to systematically map the possible trajectories for a number of the major food commodities to assess the risks to address how climate change will impact both domestic food production and the availability of food imports. Formative scenario analysis is a scientific technique that constructs sets of assumptions into

the potential development of scenarios (Scholz and Tietje, 2002). The technique is especially useful for the efficient synthesising and communicating of complex and extensive information to decision makers and consumers (Alcamo, 2001), helping understand the severity and probabilities of such scenarios (Denkenberger and Pearce, 2015), supporting strategy and public policy especially when disruptive change requires new coping mechanisms (Ramírez and Wilkinson, 2016), pushing trends to their logical end (Billen *et al.*, 2018), assisting with both imagining plausible futures and unlocking ‘*business as unusual*’ thinking (Benton, 2019c), especially where long-term horizons such as 2050 are involved (Reilly and Willenbockel, 2010). It is also commonly used to assess climate change impacts (Arnell *et al.*, 2004; Victor, 2011; Carney *et al.*, 2019), the environmental impacts of food systems (Cazcarro *et al.*, 2015; World Economic Forum, 2017; Foresight4food, 2019), and for health and dietary change (Stich *et al.*, 2009; Popp *et al.*, 2010; Hallström *et al.*, 2015).

### 3.3 Search strategy for the umbrella review

The rationale for doing the umbrella review was essentially to find and select studies that were more likely to produce reliable and accurate conclusions, as well as synthesising findings from multiple studies. Systematic reviews and meta-analysis are both seen as useful scientific tools that can help with large amounts of data that otherwise would be confusing or statistically difficult. The initial review of the literature covered in chapter two demonstrates the massive expansion of research output, both in peer-reviewed publications and the grey literature such as conference papers and symposia. This volume of research makes it more difficult to ensure that recommended policies keep up to date with the best research evidence. The next stage in the PRISMA process was to formulate the problem which, for the purpose of the systematic review, was determined as what constitutes a sustainable and healthy diet, the potential benefits of changing dietary habits towards healthier eating, and the policy options to minimise risk and ensure a secure supply of sustainable, healthy food in the UK. As far as the three search engines were concerned, this topic has not yet been the subject of a systematic review. Ultimately, the review will be registered once other academics are able to add to the specific expertise required.

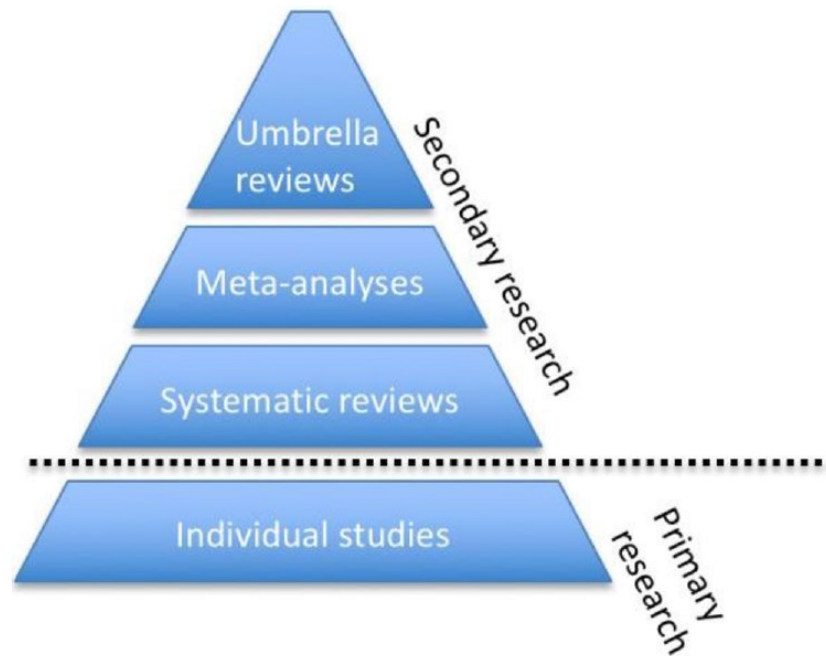
The relative newness of umbrella reviews means there is little published evidence on the most effective ways to conduct searches, design studies, the most appropriate databases and, the extent of publication bias within the present food system literature. The initial literature review showed that hundreds of relevant studies have already been published; Bastian *et al.* (2010) estimated 11 systematic reviews were published every day, far too many for most people involved within the health professions to identify and consider when making decisions (Smith *et al.*, 2011; Aromataris and Munn, 2017). In addition, in part to avoid confusion between systematic reviews and meta-analyses, more recent systematic approaches have been developed to reduce bias and thereby distinction between the two techniques. Today, meta-

analyses are mostly used for statistical synthesis and may be part of the systematic review (Egger *et al.*, 1997; Aromataris and Munn, 2017). As the literature increases, the methodological approach and conduct of reviews has also increased and evolved (JBI, 2015; Peters *et al.*, 2017), enabling them to become increasingly influential within the biomedical literature (Fusar-Poli and Radua, 2018; Schultz *et al.*, 2018). A systematic review of systematic reviews and / or meta-analyses is a recognised method within this professional sector of helping decision makers to gain a better understanding of a broad topic area, and thereby make better decisions (Smith *et al.*, 2011; Aromataris *et al.*, 2015). They are particularly useful where previous empirical studies have been published but there is uncertainty about the results, or where the findings of different reviews need to be compared and contrasted in relation to a particular challenge or question (Aromataris *et al.*, 2015). They can also enable a more rapid response to given problems (Khangura *et al.*, 2012). The main reasons for conducting an umbrella review are to examine, compare, and summarise the results from published research syntheses (Aromataris *et al.*, 2015). One study into the typology of such reviews found 14 review types and their associated methodologies (Grant and Booth, 2009). Although the terminology of such approaches tend to vary (e.g. synthesis / overview / summary / umbrella review of existing systematic reviews), they all share one common feature in that they only include systematic reviews or meta-analyses as a study type (Grant and Booth, 2009; Becker and Oxman, 2011; Smith *et al.*, 2011; Hartling *et al.*, 2012; Aromataris *et al.*, 2015). For this thesis, the term umbrella review is adopted henceforth, as per the classification provided by Fusar-Poli and Radua (2018) and shown in figure 60. As such, Fusar-Poli and Radua (2018, p.95) argue that umbrella reviews '*represent one of the highest levels of evidence synthesis currently available*'; this was also the view of earlier observations by Aromataris *et al.* (2015) and Romund (2017). The Cochrane Handbook (Becker and Oxman, 2011) gives five objectives for undertaking an overview of reviews: essentially, they summarise evidence on different interventions for the same condition or problem; on the same intervention for the same condition or problem where different outcomes are addressed; of the same intervention for different conditions, problems or populations; about adverse effects of an intervention from the use of the intervention for one or more conditions; and, to provide a comprehensive overview of an area, including studies not included in systematic reviews.

Several major repositories of systematic reviews are available, including the Joanna Briggs Institute (Aromataris *et al.*, 2014; JBI, 2015; JBI, 2020), the Cochrane Database of Systematic Reviews (Becker and Oxman, 2011; Cochrane Library, 2017; Higgins and Thomas, 2019), and the PROSPERO register. In addition, organisations within the UK health professions sector, such as the National Institute of Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) and the Cochrane Collaborations (named after the British epidemiologist Archie Cochrane), are dedicated to the preparation of systematic reviews. According to the Cochrane Library (2017), which contains over 4,000 registered health-related reviews, a systematic review attempts '*to identify, appraise and synthesize all the empirical evidence that meets pre-specified eligibility criteria*



to answer a given research question'. A systematic review of individual studies that appraises, summarises, and brings together existing studies in a single place would seem a logical and appropriate step. It also enables judgements to be made on the quality of the evidence base and conclusions to be compared. Systematic reviews comprise clearly defined objectives and eligibility criteria, an explicit and reproducible methodology, a systematic search to identify all studies, an assessment of the validity of the studies, and are presented in a systematic manner.



**Figure 60:** Hierarchy of evidence synthesis methods

**Source:** Fusar-Poli and Radua (2018).

In response to the increased number of systematic reviews available, there have been recent calls for a more formalised and logical approach to the review of existing systematic reviews (Aromataris *et al.*, 2015; Fusar-Poli and Radua, 2018). Of note is the Australia-based Joanna Briggs Institute, who work with over 70 global collaborations to disseminate evidence-based healthcare (JBI, 2020). Recognising the growing importance of systematic reviews and meta-analyses, JBI have developed methodological guidance for the conduct of quantitative and qualitative umbrella reviews (Liberati, 2009; Moher *et al.*, 2009; Lee *et al.*, 2011; Smith *et al.*, 2011; Aromataris and Riitano, 2014; Aromataris *et al.*, 2014; Aromataris *et al.*, 2015; Moola *et al.*, 2015; Haby *et al.*, 2016; Peters *et al.*, 2017; Kerins *et al.*, 2018; Pulker *et al.*, 2018; *The Lancet*, 2018; Maynard *et al.*, 2020). The latest JBI manual was therefore used as a template for reviewing the systematic reviews, as a guide how to plan, register the review title and protocol, and the expected standards for publishing (Aromataris and Munn, 2017).

### 3.4 Data collection for the umbrella review

The three databases for this literature search were chosen for specific, identified strengths (Falagas *et al.*, 2008) especially in terms of scientific impact rather than volume of coverage (Martín-Martín *et al.*, 2018). Europe PMC is one of the most frequently used databases for searching health subjects and offers optimal update frequency; Aromataris and Riitano (2014) argue its use is essential for any systematic review within health and policy. The Web of Science core collection covers science, technology, social sciences, arts and humanities, whereas Scopus covers the physical sciences, health sciences, life sciences, social sciences and humanities. Scopus offers a wider journal range, which Falagas *et al.* (2008) previously estimated offered around 20 per cent more coverage than Web of Science. More recently, Iowa State University (2019) claim Scopus covers 21,950 journals (excluding trade journals) compared to the Web of Science core collection at 13,100 journals. The Web of Science does, however, cover more conference proceedings at 10.5 million, compared with 8 million in Scopus. Screening the title and/or abstract enabled many of the papers initially identified as not fulfilling the inclusion criteria to be discarded (Stern *et al.*, 2014). Studies identified in the search databases were initially screened based on the relevance of their titles and abstract. The full text of all those articles deemed to be potentially relevant were then retrieved, before the decision could be made as to which papers would be included in the final review. Only studies conducted between 1<sup>st</sup> January 2000 and June 30<sup>th</sup> 2020 were included, to provide recent evidence and up-to-date perspectives (table 15).

The umbrella review of systematic reviews and meta-analyses was conducted according to explicit, rigorous, and transparent methodology (Greenhalgh *et al.*, 2004; 2005; Fusar-Poli and Radua, 2018) using predetermined steps as advocated by Sargant *et al.* (2006) and detailed in figure 65. It was undertaken based on the minimum standards guidance provided by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) commonly used by researchers working within the health professions sectors, using the recommended nine steps (Moher *et al.*, 2009a; 2009b; Beller *et al.*, 2013) as outlined in table 8 (see also the full PRISMA checklist in appendix 8.18 and 8.19). The data was extracted electronically, to minimise transcription errors, and piloted before the final search in order to refine.

The umbrella review involved the following steps. First, the study question of what policies and regulations are needed to mitigate against the risks of climate change and environmental degradation to ensure future food systems provide sustainable, secure, and healthy diets was formulated. This then was further expanded into the outline umbrella review protocol (Protocol v 1.0 – 20th April, 2020) entitled ‘*A food sustainability narrative for health professionals*’ that can be found in appendix 8.20. It should be noted that not every aspect of the protocol was able to be completed at this stage due to the limitations of this thesis, hence the reference to ‘outline’ protocol. This will be addressed more fully in the limitations

section, but essentially refers to undertaking the process as a sole researcher rather than using the preferred group of researchers with specialist skills. Once these weaknesses can be addressed, the intention is to register the review title and protocol, again following the guidelines laid down in the JBI Manual (Aromataris and Munn, 2017). Then a structured search strategy was used to identify the studies. This involved searching three major databases: Scopus; ISI Web of Science (WoS); and Europe PMC (formerly PubMed, UK). In as much as was possible, the same syntax was used, with the only minor modifications being those required by each individual database, as follows:

1. *The search strategy syntax in Scopus:*

TITLE-ABS-KEY (systematic review OR meta AND food OR climat\* OR change\* OR environment\* OR sustain\* OR health\* OR secur\* OR diet\* (LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR, 2010) TO LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR, 2020) AND (LIMIT-TO (DOCTYPE, "re"))).

2. *The search strategy syntax in Web of Science:*

TOPIC: (systematic review OR meta AND food OR climat\* OR change\* OR environment\* OR sustain\* OR health\* OR secur\* OR diet\*) Refined by: DOCUMENT TYPES: (REVIEW) AND PUBLICATION YEARS: (2010 TO 2020) Timespan: 2010 to 2020. Indexes: SCI-EXPANDED, SSCI, A&HCI, CPCI-S, CPCI-SSH, BKCI-S, BKCI-SSH, ESCI, CCR-EXPANDED, IC.

3. *The search strategy syntax in Europe PMC:*

KW:"systematic review" OR "meta" AND ABSTRACT:"climat\*" OR "change\*" OR "environment\*" OR "sustain\*" OR "health\*" OR "secur\*" OR "diet\*") AND (PUB TYPE:"Review" OR PUB\_TYPE:"review-article") AND (LANG:"eng" OR LANG:"en" OR LANG:"us") AND (FIRST\_PDATE:[2010-01-01 TO 2020-06-30]).

### 3.5 Study selection and data extraction for the umbrella review

Once the search had been piloted, amended, and completed, the abstracts were screened for relevance and to determine suitability for inclusion in the umbrella review. The results of the search were monitored continually as the search strategy was developed to determine whether the results were relevant (Aromataris and Riitano, 2014). Hand screening was also used with each full paper, to find additional evidence by cross-referencing. Those reviews that were deemed suitable received further critical appraisal; those included in the study were then subject to data extraction and quality appraisal. This data is then available for possible meta-analysis, along with summarising and interpretation. The summary of the umbrella review results is shown in table 15 in chapter four.

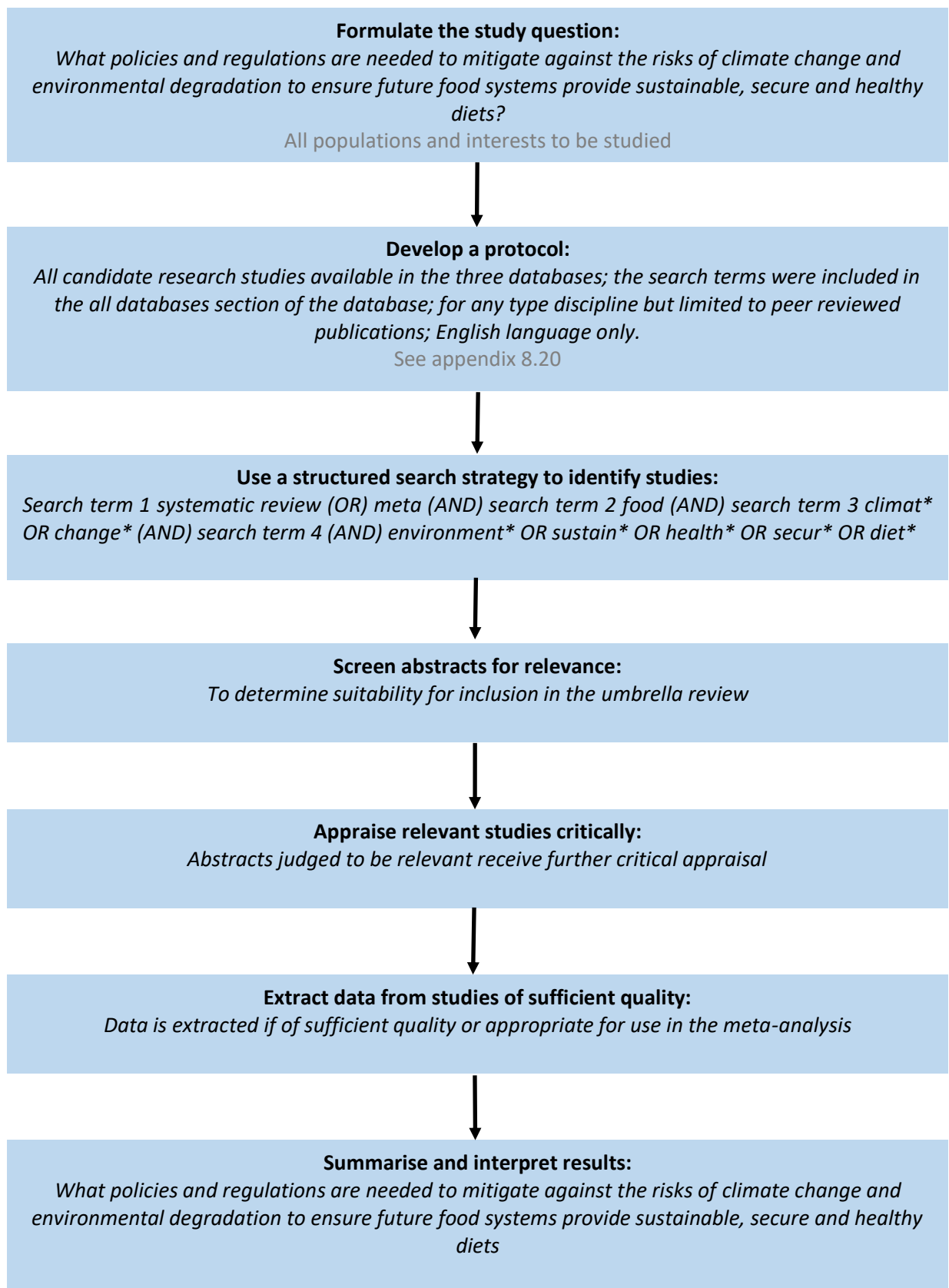
Step	PRISMA guidance
1	Establish rationale for doing the systematic review
2	Determine who will be involved
3	Formulate the problem and establish if it has been done before
4	Performing the search
5	Data extraction
6	Critical appraisal of studies (quality assessment)
7	Data synthesis
8	Presenting results
9	Archiving and updating

**Table 9:** PRISMA guidance on what to include when reporting a systematic review

**Source:** adapted from Moher *et al.* (2009a; 2009b).

To select the relevant studies, inclusion and exclusion criteria were developed to assist in initial screening and abstract coding (table 11). The inclusion criteria were defined by using the PICO-tool for qualitative studies (Methley *et al.*, 2014; Perez-Cueto, 2019), which classifies criteria into population or problem, interest, and context (as opposed to the PICOS quantitative criteria of population, intervention, comparison, outcome, study design or setting). Other alternative tools are available for other settings, including ones specifically for public health (Robinson and Lowe, 2015) but, as this study considers a wider range of issues, the PICO-tool was deemed more suitable. Specifically, the criteria used included: for population, all age groups were included, in any developed country (defined by OECD membership) and additional EU-28 members; interventions could include upstream, population level, public health policies in food and nutrition that use fiscal policy, regulation, preventative intervention, behavioural (e.g. nudges, social media), provision of information (e.g. labels) or nutrition education; context considered nutritional status, food choices, food consumption, and dietary behaviour. Any reviews not reporting themselves as systematic were also included where they had applied a systematic review methodology. In addition to removing duplicate studies, papers were also excluded where the reference to sustainability was outside the domain of human food, where reference to health was outside the domain of human health, and where studies looked exclusively at a specific medical condition (e.g. diabetes), target populations (e.g. postpartum), or specific food environment (e.g. primary schools). For the very small number of papers where no abstract was available these were also retrieved and coded, with inclusion and exclusion criteria then applied to the full papers. Where articles could not be retrieved, the authors of the papers were

contacted directly through the European commercial social networking site for scientists and researchers, 'ResearchGate'. The inclusion and exclusion criteria were evaluated in pilot runs which enabled the coding scheme to be refined and finalised. The three databases provided a sum of 134,351 initial titles which, after first screening and the removal of duplicates, provided 845 results for coding. Based on the coding of available abstracts 214 papers were taken to full paper screening, where a further 19 studies were excluded, giving a final 197 studies for inclusion in the qualitative synthesis. Full details of this breakdown are shown in the PRISMA flow chart for selection of studies (figure 61). The choice of PRISMA technique of reporting systematic reviews was made by following the EQUATOR consensus reporting guidelines (<http://www.equator-network.org/>) shown in appendix 8.19. EQUATOR specifically aims to enable improvements in health research reporting. No further ethical considerations were made as this is an umbrella review and, as such, it did not include individual data or deal with sensitive information. The results from the umbrella review are shown in table 15 (pages 167-180).



**Figure 61:** Steps followed to develop the umbrella review

**Source:** Based on Sargant *et al.* (2006).

### 3.6 Quality appraisal and data synthesis for the umbrella review

Although systematic reviews invariably share the same overall goals, the sheer diversity in designs, data collection methods, types of data, and analytical methods employed within existing published studies makes comparing methodological quality difficult. Umbrella reviews need to consider the appropriateness of study design to the research objectives, potential risk of bias to study quality, choice of outcome measure, quality of reporting, and generalisability. As Aromataris and Riitano (2014) argue, systematic reviews have greater validity because of the methods used to minimise bias, so this is particularly critical (Rothstein *et al.*, 2006). Here again, there were several options available, including the relatively new ROBIS.14 introduced in 2015 which, the developers argue, is the first rigorously developed tool specifically for systematic reviews risk assessment (Whiting *et al.*, 2013; Whiting *et al.*, 2015). Ultimately, the critical appraisal tool chosen for these extracted studies was the consensus reporting guidelines proposed by [AMSTAR](#) (Assessment of Multiple Systematic Reviews). This tool was chosen as it is specifically designed to assess the methodological quality of systematic reviews within healthcare (Shea *et al.*, 2007). Specifically, a recently revised version of AMSTAR (AMSTAR 2) was used, as it assigns an overall quality classification to reviews (Shea *et al.*, 2017). AMSTAR 2 does not generate an overall score; instead, it is designed to identify high quality systematic reviews using the metrics high (zero or one non-critical weakness), moderate (more than one non-critical weakness but no critical flaws), low (one critical flaw and may not provide an accurate and comprehensive summary) and critically low (more than one critical flaw and should not be relied on to provide an accurate and comprehensive summary). These quality classification terms are distinct in that they mirror the ones used in Cochrane Reviews (table 10), although the definitions of bias are the same. The systematic reviews were also narratively synthesised into five categories where possible (studies on sustainable and secure food systems; the impacts of climate change on food systems; the impacts of climate change on human health; on sustainable diets; and about food policy) accordance with the research questions, in order to ascertain key contributions and gaps in the literature.

<i>Risk of bias</i>	<i>Interpretation</i>	<i>Relationship to individual bias criteria</i>
Low	Possible bias, unlikely to seriously affect the study results	All criteria met; if criteria not reported, study does not drop to medium category unless random/concealed allocation criteria not reported
Medium	Possible bias that raises some doubt about the results	One or more criteria partially met
High		One or more criteria not met

**Table 10:** Scores used to assess risk of bias

**Source:** The Cochrane Handbook (Higgins and Green, 2009).

The data is primarily synthesised narratively (most typically used for qualitative studies) as the studies were mostly very heterogeneous. Finally, the results are presented according to the PRISMA guidance and research methodological recommendations (Liberati *et al.*, 2009).

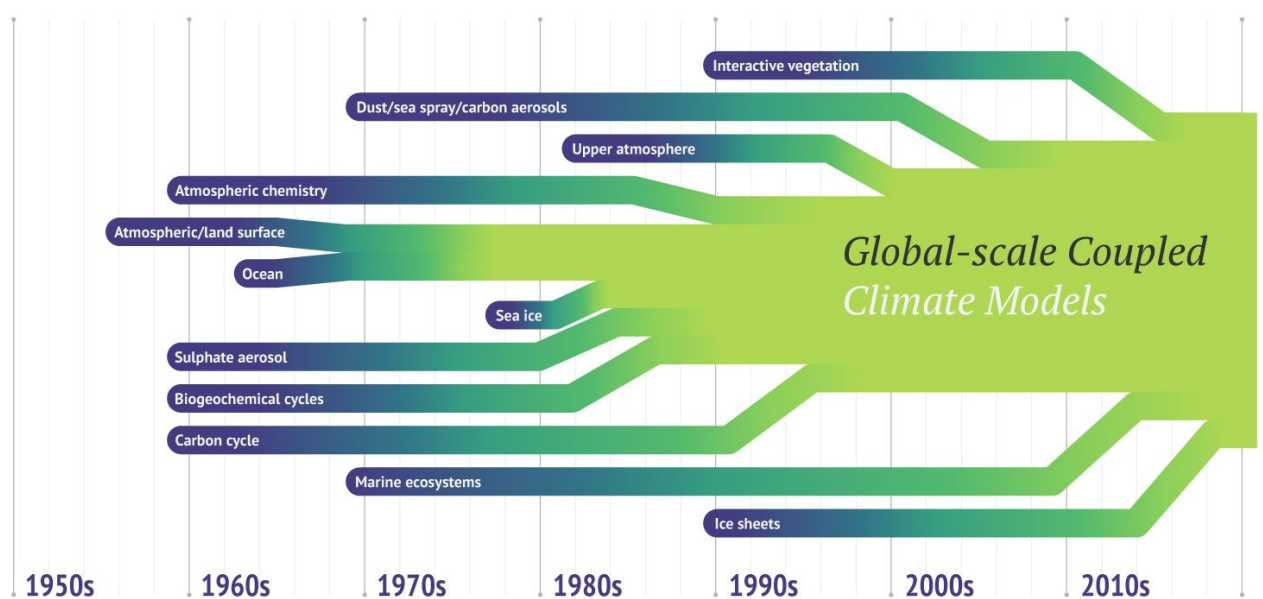
	<i>Inclusion/exclusion criteria</i>
<i>Formalities:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Published between 1<sup>st</sup> January 2000 and June 30<sup>th</sup> 2020</li> <li>• Excluded if not peer reviewed</li> <li>• Excluded if written in a language other than English</li> <li>• Excluded if duplicate studies published in more than one paper</li> <li>• Excluded if failed the critical appraisal</li> </ul>
<i>Study Population:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Excluded if study settings were for specific medical conditions e.g. colorectal cancer or diabetes</li> <li>• Excluded if studies conducted among specific population ages e.g. postpartum</li> <li>• Excluded if studies related to under-nutrition and / or in developing economies</li> </ul>
<i>Study Design:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Included any study design which involved policy, regulation or governance / intervention</li> <li>• Included all study designs which involve aspects of climate change adaptation and mitigation where food might be impacted</li> <li>• Included all study designs which consider environmental degradation that has the potential to impact food</li> <li>• Included all study designs which consider environmental degradation that has the potential to impact human health</li> <li>• Included all study designs that consider the sustainable and secure food systems</li> <li>• Included all study designs that evaluated healthy diets</li> <li>• What policies and regulations are needed to mitigate against the risks of climate change and environmental degradation to ensure future food systems provide sustainable, secure and healthy diets</li> <li>• Excluded study designs that were purely clinical or experimental, clinical or treatment guidelines, and case reports</li> <li>• Included all study designs that were economic evaluation studies</li> <li>• Included all study designs that were synthesis research papers such as systematic reviews and meta-analyses</li> <li>• Excluded study designs that were methodology papers</li> </ul>
<i>Outcome:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Effective policies and regulations</li> <li>• risks mitigation strategies</li> <li>• adaptation and mitigation of climate change</li> <li>• strategies to address and reverse environmental degradation</li> <li>• metrics for food systems sustainability and security</li> <li>• defining and measuring sustainable and healthy diets</li> </ul>
<i>Relatedness:</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Systematic Reviews; Reviews of Systematic Reviews; Overview of Systematic Reviews; Systematic Literature Review; Meta-Analysis; Meta-Synthesis; Meta-Regression; Meta-Narrative; Meta-Data</li> </ul>

**Table 11:** Inclusion/exclusion criteria used for the systematic review



### 3.7 Modelling climate change to predict impacts

Climate change models provide essential primary data that assists policymakers in systematically mapping how climate change will impact the UK’s ability to produce and import food. Climate modelling refers to the quantitative and qualitative measurement of the interactions of the main, known drivers of climate change, such as atmosphere, oceans, land surface and ice (de Sherbinin *et al.*, 2019). Such models have long been essential tools within the various scientific disciplines such as atmospheric physics and biogeochemistry to understand the Earth’s climate, with the qualitative models used to produce narratives for scenario analysis. Hausfather (2018) argues that, over the past fifty years, climate models have been quite accurate in predicting what has happened. As a result, some studies suggest that such modelling approaches could be used for other areas such as crops (Wallach *et al.*, 2016; Lobell and Asseng, 2017) and to better understand socioeconomic and emissions pathways (Wiebe *et al.*, 2015). Figure 62 shows a timeline for the various model origins. The IPCC Fifth Assessment Report (Stocker *et al.*, 2013) suggests 100 per cent of climate change is due to human contribution; this is reinforced by climate model predictions covering the past 150 years (Hausfather, 2017a). Although many different climate models exist, from those covering one region or climate system to those capable of modelling the whole planet, scientists are developing increasingly complex coupled or global scale models (McSweeney and Hausfather, 2018). The UK Met Office, for example, has used a single ‘unified’ model for both weather and climate prediction since 1990 (Met Office, 2020). Data produced by this model has been incorporated into all of the IPCC Assessment Reports.



**Figure 62:** The origins and development of current climate models

**Source:** Schmidt, cited in McSweeney and Hausfather (2018).

Current modelling predictions provide a range of invaluable interpretations for scenario planning. For example, the proportion of land which suffers from extreme drought is predicted to increase from the current 1 per cent to 30 per cent by 2100 (Burke *et al.*, 2006; Sévellec, 2018), with lower rainfall and higher temperatures in the USA (Chiang *et al.*, 2018) and the Mediterranean (Brouziyne *et al.*, 2018) expected to cause food security problems and shortages of irrigation water (Elliott *et al.*, 2014). A number of studies therefore consider climate change mitigation and adaptation options within the food system (Denef *et al.*, 2012; Del Prado *et al.*, 2013; Wynes and Nicholas, 2017; van Meijl *et al.*, 2018), including policies to encourage consumers to combine health and nature-related values with their food choices (de Boer *et al.*, 2014), understanding the climate and environmental effects of changing diets and food consumption (Dubey *et al.*, 2016; Djekic *et al.*, 2018), and the specific risks of climate change on humans and ecosystems (Revesz *et al.*, 2014). Although the 2015 Paris Agreement requires countries to limit global-mean temperature rise to 1.5°C, the transition pathways needed to achieve this have not yet been fully explored (Rogelj *et al.*, 2018). Some recent climate models also show that the Earth's atmosphere has warmed much faster since 1979 than previous modelling of satellite data had predicted (Hausfather, 2017b; Mears and Wentz, 2017). Emissions from air pollutants continue to rise in China, India, the Middle East, and some South American nations (Crippa *et al.*, 2018). These issues led Burke *et al.* (2018) to recently conclude that the Earth system is moving towards climate changes that may be outside the range of evolutionary adaptive capacity.

One critical gap in the literature identified previously in chapter 2.4.7 relates to the climate model anomalies for sea-level rise. Although most of the studies evaluated record around 11-16cm of sea-level rise during the 1900s and further predict around 50-100cm rise before 2100, the majority of these studies are based on medium-emissions scenarios and immediate cuts in carbon emissions (Dasgupta and Meisner, 2009; Mimura, 2013). Future sea-level rise is dependent upon which Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) emission scenario transpires; Oppenheimer *et al.* (2019) predicts 230 to 540cm of sea-level rise for RCP8.5 but few studies currently address the time scales. One recent study by Kulp and Strauss (2019), however, considers model data under higher-emissions scenarios, where early-onset Antarctic ice sheet instability becomes a contributory factor. Central to this factor is the anticipated tipping point, thought to be between 2°C and 3°C, where these ice sheets will fall into rapid melt which would mean a sea-level rise of at least 200cm within the same timescale. Although it has long been understood that losses accelerate with greater warming, King *et al.* (2015) had already raised concerns over the lack of scientific studies considering impacts of 3°C or above. Other recent studies (Bamber *et al.*, 2019; Robinson, 2020; Royal Society, 2020) argue that, despite the modelling advances since the last Assessment Report (IPCC, 2014), the contribution of ice sheets remain the largest source of uncertainty in projecting future sea-level rise and this uncertainty is growing. For the 5°C temperature scenarios expected with unchecked emissions growth, Bamber *et al.* (2019) calculate global sea-levels will rise

between 51cm and 178cm. Further contributions from thermal expansion and glaciers could push sea-level rise above 200cm before 2100; and in the century beyond, both uncertainty and sea-level rise increase rapidly for the 5°C scenario to around 750cm, due to the increasing instability in Antarctica. Using a new digital elevation model developed by Climate Central called '*CoastalDEM*', another study (Kulp and Strauss, 2019) was widely reported in the global media (Dobson, 2019; Mooney, 2019; Vaughan, 2019; Watts, 2019) and the local press in the Fens (Verney, 2019). This latter study overcomes some of the previous weaknesses in measuring the population numbers likely to be affected by sea-level rise; the estimates of 630 million people living in areas at risk of sea-level rise is three times higher than previous estimates. This has potentially serious consequences for UK food production in particular, as it would significantly add to the 444,780 acres of the '*Best and Most Versatile*' farmland area identified at risk in the Government Office for Science's Future of the Sea Evidence Review (Edwards, 2017). Barron (2018) argues such weaknesses with climate models continue to distort policy design. This thesis will therefore look to develop scenario data for the Fens using the *CoastalDEM* model to further the understanding on the impacts on food production within this important best and most versatile farmland area.

### 3.8 Scenario analysis for case studies

UK policymakers also need to have access to research data on the impacts climate change will have on the UK's main imported food commodities, to be able to reduce uncertainty in assessment of the risks to major food supplies. Scenario planning is a deliberative and participatory method to build a range of plausible alternative scenarios using the key drivers of future change (Böjeson *et al.*, 2005; Bradfield *et al.*, 2005; Paillard *et al.*, 2014). Scenario analysis is increasingly used in a wide range of disciplines to consider possible, alternative outcomes or future options where they are efficient tools for synthesising and communicating complex and extensive information to policymakers and consumers (Alcamo, 2001). A scenario is defined by the Oxford English Dictionary as '*a postulated or projected situation or sequence of potential future events*' (OED, 2020). Its origins are in performance theatre and military planning, with business later adopting scenario planning to aid comparative advantage (Alcamo, 2001; Reilly and Willenbockel, 2010). Such scenarios are essential for all those involved in developing long-term plans, policies, and capabilities. Without such a strategic context, the MoD (2014) argue there is a risk that policymakers might assume futures that adhere to preconceived thoughts and assumptions.

Scenarios can be classified as exploratory (descriptive scenarios) or anticipatory (prescriptive or normative scenarios); alternatively, as baseline or policy scenarios, whereby baselines represent the non-intervention (default) perspective compared with the policy scenario which depicts a future with policy intervention (Alcamo, 2001). Böjeson *et al.* (2006) further develops this classification by providing a typology of scenario types that can be used to determine the most appropriate choice (table 12).

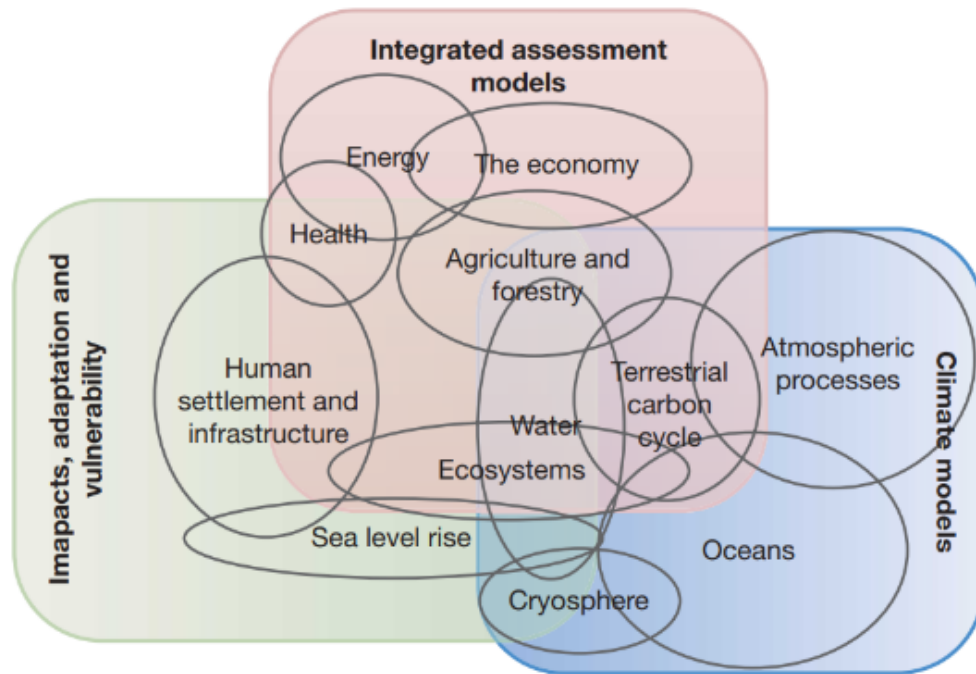
<i>Scenario category / type</i>	<i>Quantitative/qualitative</i>	<i>Time-frame</i>	<i>System structure</i>	<i>Focus on internal or external factors</i>
<b>PREDICTIVE—what will happen?</b>				
Forecasts	Typically quantitative, sometimes qualitative	Often short	Typically one	Typically external
What-if	Typically quantitative, sometimes qualitative	Often short	One to several	External and, possibly, internal
<b>EXPLORATIVE—what can happen?</b>				
External	Typically qualitative, quantitatively possible	Often long	Often several	External
Strategic	Qualitative and quantitative	Often long	Often several	Internal under influence of the external
<b>NORMATIVE—how can a certain target be reached?</b>				
Preserving	Typically quantitative	Often long	One	Both external and internal
Transforming	Typically qualitative with quantitative elements	Often very long	Changing, can be several	Not applicable

**Table 12:** The key aspects of scenario analysis types

**Source:** Börjeson *et al.* (2006).

The benefits of scenario analysis have been variously described as providing a plausible glimpse of the future of food based on assumptions (Matsuoka *et al.*, 1995; Börjeson *et al.*, 2006; Zurek and Henrichs, 2007; Reilly and Willenbockel, 2010), an efficient scientific technique for synthesising knowledge and communicating complex information (Alcamo, 2001; Scholz and Tietje, 2002; Börjeson *et al.*, 2005; Parson, 2008), to enable a move away from linear thinking towards a better understanding of external change (van der Heijden, 2005), and as a way of pushing trends to their logical end (Billen *et al.*, 2018). Scenario analysis has previously been employed as a methodological approach across a wide range of food studies, including: changes in energy and land requirements for European dietary change (Duchin, 2005); for comparing livestock system greenhouse gases (Garnett, 2010); formulating a research programme on future food production (Öborn *et al.*, 2013); the health and GHG emissions co-benefits of reducing meat consumption in Italy (Farchi *et al.*, 2017); impacts on agriculture and marine fisheries (Thiault *et al.*, 2019); and most recently, to consider land-use change and food production in the UK after the climate tipping point (Ritchie *et al.*, 2020). With the potential to combine quantitative scenarios with qualitative hypotheses (Alcamo, 2001; Hubert *et al.*, 2010), Reilly and Willenbockel (2010) argue scenario analysis is replacing predictive forecasting as a more effective approach towards transformative change. These qualitative approaches are of particular use to policymakers (Alcamo, 2001), where narratives can be used to describe how the future might be shaped through events, strategies, and policies (Bowman *et al.*, 2012). They are commonly used within the area of sustainability (Alcamo, 2001) by intergovernmental bodies such as the IPCC, to deliver its remit of providing objective, scientific information on the risks of, and possible response options to, anthropogenic climate change through the use of ‘*narrative story lines*’

(Arnell *et al.*, 2004). In the UK, the methodology was employed in DEFRA commissioned research into future UK food scenarios to 2035 (Garnett *et al.*, 2014). This means scenario analysis can be used to support strategy and public policy in a world characterised by turbulence, uncertainty, novelty, and ambiguity (Ramírez and Wilkinson, 2016). Moss *et al.* (2010) provide a detailed précis on the needs and capabilities of next generation of climate change scenarios. Figure 63 shows the wide range of facets that this involves; not just on how earth systems change in response to radiative forcings, but human responses in the form of changes in technology, economies, lifestyle, and policy.



**Figure 63:** Scenarios for climate change research and assessment

**Source:** Moss *et al.* (2010).

With much of the focus for food policy being on future-timeline dates such as 2030 and 2050, scenario analysis is increasingly used to conceptualise the contexts of social welfare, food security and natural capital outcomes that impact the food system (Ericksen, 2007). The technique has been used within sustainability science (Swart *et al.*, 2004), for climate change impact assessments (Arnell *et al.*, 2004; Moss *et al.*, 2010), for assessing emissions reduction measures (Li *et al.*, 2015) and was advocated by the Bank of England to assess strategic resilience and financial risks from climate change (Carney *et al.*, 2019). The technique is also increasingly used to help understand the effects of climate change on food systems (Parry *et al.*, 2004; Reilly and Willenbockel, 2010; Öborn *et al.*, 2013; Bodirsky *et al.*, 2015). Further studies use this approach to conceptualise the food system within the context of social welfare, food security and natural capital outcomes (Ericksen, 2007; Garb *et al.*, 2008; Vervoort *et al.*, 2014), including in response to planning for global catastrophes and crises that might affect food systems (Denkenberger and Pearce, 2015; Foresight4food, 2019). Some studies see scenario analysis as being critical for imagining plausible trade and dietary futures beyond the ‘business as usual’ norm (Cazcarro *et al.*, 2015; Benton, 2019c;

Foresight4food, 2019). Hallström *et al.* (2015) calls for improved knowledge of dietary scenarios; Moreira *et al.* (2015), for example, calculates 175,000 CVD deaths could be saved in the UK by 2030 through policies that substantially reduce ultra-processed food intake. One major study from the French-based Agricultural Research Centre for International Development and the previously-named National Institute of Agricultural Research (CIRAD-INRA) had earlier suggested two possible future scenarios: one where economic growth feeds the world where environmental protection is not a priority; alternatively, to feed the world while preserving its ecosystems (Chaumet *et al.*, 2009; Hubert *et al.*, 2010). This thesis will therefore use scenario analysis to develop case studies for the main UK food commodities: grains; potatoes; fish protein; animal protein; fruit and vegetables. These case studies will specifically consider existing research on production- and import-related variables, policy options, and identify gaps in the knowledge for future research.

### **3.9 Conceptual framework for health professionals**

The initial literature review identified several extremely significant and ongoing challenges in both moving towards sustainable food systems and ensuring the benefits to health and well-being. Despite the plethora of recent research, many important questions remain. Systematic reviews and meta-analyses will also be used to synthesise the latest evidence on what constitutes a healthy diet, how sustainable are current UK diets, and the potential benefits of change in dietary habits towards healthier eating. This data will then be used to develop a framework to guide health professionals, including evidence-based information to inform and enable them to assist with the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets. Alongside the framework, this thesis also considers the UK's existing regulatory framework and synthesises the latest recommendations for a new policy framework capable of ensuring the supply of secure, sustainable, and healthy food.

### **3.10 Chapter summary**

This chapter outlines the qualitative and quantitative approaches employed for each of the three methods used. It first details the search strategy, data collection, selection, data extraction, quality appraisal, and data synthesis for the umbrella review. Secondly, it details how modelling climate change was used to predict the impacts of sea-level rise on one, particularly vulnerable, food producing region of the UK. Finally, scenario analyses were used to evaluate how climate change will impact the UK's ability to produce and import food. This data was then used to develop a framework to enable health professionals to assist with the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets.



## 4. Results

This chapter details results obtained from the umbrella review of published systematic reviews and meta-analyses, the scenario analyses, and the modelling predictions on how climate change will impact food production. The results from the initial literature searches are shown in table 13. From the initial database of 25,036 items, duplicate articles were then removed, and the articles initially sifted by title and abstract, followed by full contents, which brought the number of articles down to 4,573. An additional 35 key articles, mostly published prior to 2010, were identified through cross-referencing. Thematic analysis was then used to identify, analyse, and interpret themes and patterns of meaning within data (Daly *et al.*, 1997), with coding used to identify and tag themes of analytic interest in the data (Boyatzis, 1998). Although thematic analysis is commonly used within qualitative research, it is mostly seen as an overarching term covering several, distinct philosophical and conceptual assumptions, each with its own procedure. The procedure adopted for this study was originally described by Braun and Clarke (2006) as reflexive thematic analysis, whereby coding precedes the development of themes (Braun and Clarke, 2019).

<i>Keywords</i>	<i>Library databases</i>		
	<i>University of Reading</i>	<i>Manchester Met. University</i>	<i>Bangor University</i>
Sustainable & food	3,487	268	116
Climate change & food	4,078	2,778	1,407
Climate change & health	5,518	3,961	2,545
Sustainable & policy	348	252	75
Sustainable & diet	47	152	4

**Table 13:** Results from the initial search of literature databases from January 2010 and updated to June 2020, inclusive

**4.1 Results from the umbrella review: options for UK sustainable diets, health, and policy [RQ1, 2 & 5]**

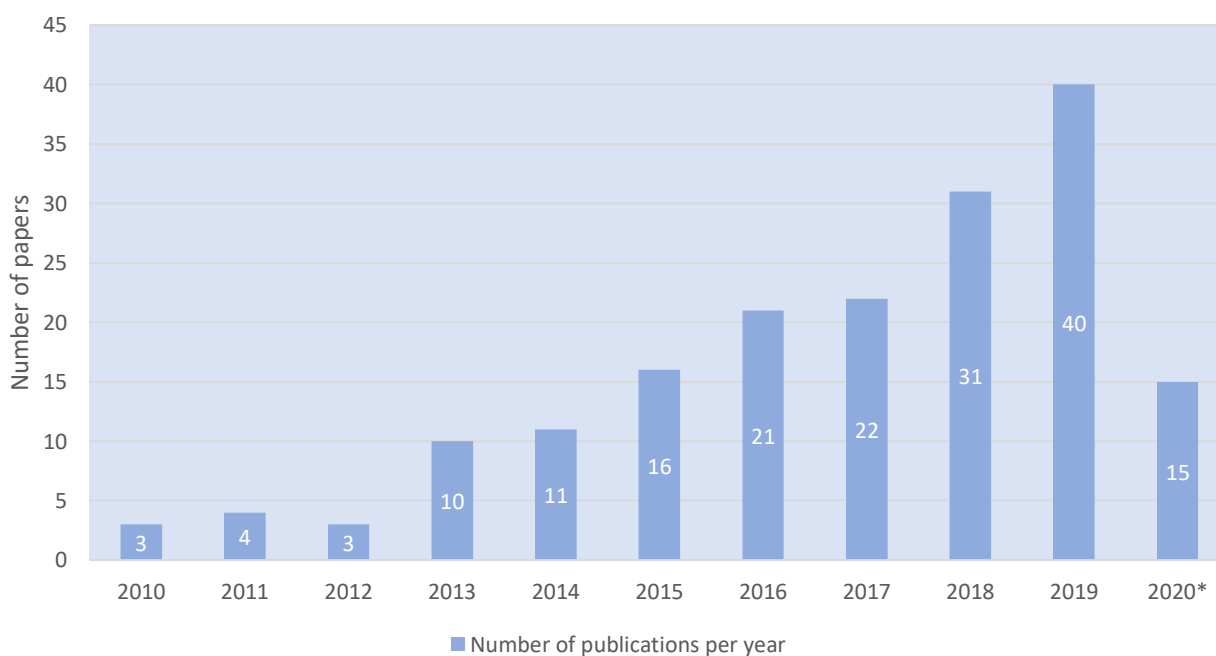
In total, 197 systematic reviews and meta-analyses were identified reporting 14,251 unique relevant primary studies. The reviews summarised evidence of all types of future policy requirements for sustainable and secure food systems in response to the food production and health impacts of climate change. For inclusion, reviews must evaluate one or more of the essential prerequisites: food; climate change; environment; sustainability; health; food security; and, diet. Many interventions are considered, including fiscal, regulation, education, preventative, mitigation, and adaptation across six public health domains (food, drink, nutrition, health, diet, and the environment). Results were mixed across the public health domains; some studies reported negligible effects, others reported small sample sizes or quality concerns, where others were conclusive in their findings. There were no systematic reviews covering marine fishing. The quality of the included reviews (and their primary studies) were mixed and gaps in the existing knowledge have been highlighted. Table 15 shows the resulting characteristics and main outcomes of the included reviews. The narrative synthesis approach was used, as the papers revealed a large heterogeneity with results that would not be comparable with the same metrics. This narrative synthesis focuses on the six main research fields from this umbrella review: factors contributing to sustainable and secure food systems; the impacts of climate change on food systems; the impacts of climate change on human health; factors contributing to sustainable diets; the requirements for food policy; and any other, general factors that the reviews revealed.

Table 15 shows the summary of the umbrella review results for studies conducted between 1<sup>st</sup> January 2000 and June 30<sup>th</sup> 2020 and figure 60 shows the increasing frequency of data publication throughout the 11 years of the study. The PRISMA flow chart for selection of studies can be found in figure 61, followed by the resulting characteristics and main outcomes of included reviews in table 15 on pages 167-180.



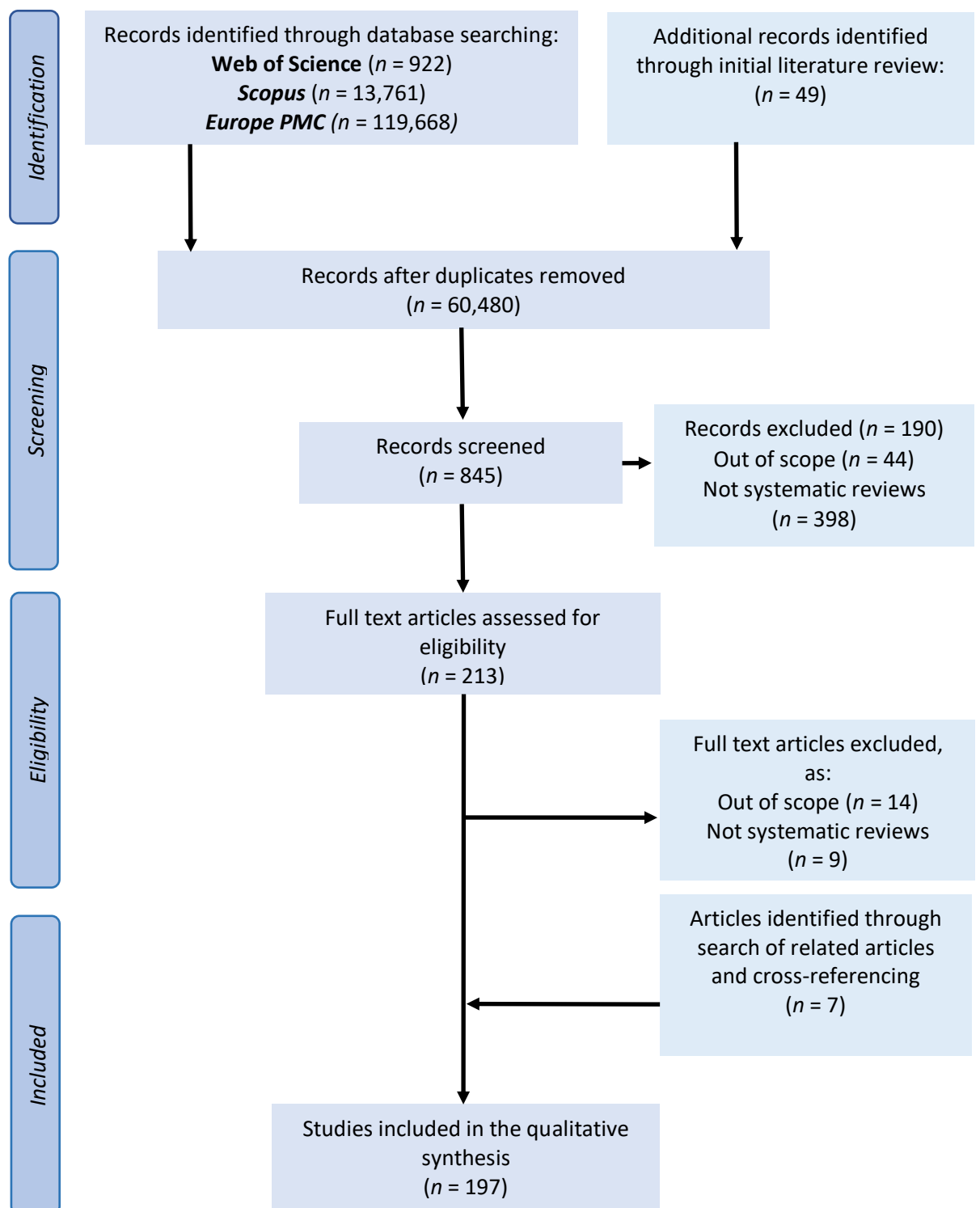
	Systematic review search databases		
	Web of Science	Scopus	Europe PMC
Total number of studies	922	13,761	119,668
Number of studies meeting the inclusion criteria for initial screening	505	330	10
Number of studies retrieved for review	77	84	10
Duplicates	21	22	3
Total number of studies reviewed	213		

**Table 14:** Results from the umbrella review search from January 2010 to June 2020, inclusive



**Figure 64:** Frequency of data publication 2010 to 2020\* (11 years)

\* data for January to June only



**Figure 65:** PRISMA flow chart for selection of studies

Author (year):	Country where review performed:	Review design #:	No. of articles included:	Intervention focus:	Reported outcomes:
Abeykoon <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Canada	SR	11	Impact of new food store on health	A new food store does not necessarily improve access or enhance health-related outcomes in the short term. Complex linking pathways / mechanisms are yet to be elucidated. More high-quality research in different communities with longer follow-up periods needed to inform policy decisions
Abril and Dempsey (2019)	USA	SR	14	Effectiveness of social marketing campaigns in healthy eating behaviours	Campaigns with both stop and go outcomes (such as swapping) and outcomes that were not clarifying whether they were stop or go (such as calling a coach) tended to be more successful than campaigns with simple stop or go outcomes. Further, campaigns that were longer than six months seemed consistently successful
Adam and Jensen (2016)	Denmark	SR	42	Effectiveness of obesity interventions in retailers	Carefully designed in-store healthy food interventions which combined price, information and easy access to and availability of healthy foods with interactive and engaging nutrition information can help consumers buy and consume more healthy foods
Afshin <i>et al.</i> (2017)	USA	SR & MA	30	Food pricing impacts on improving dietary consumption	Both subsidies to increase consumption of healthy foods and taxation for unhealthy foods and beverages are effective; the use of subsidies and combined multicomponent interventions appear most effective
Åkesson <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Sweden, Norway, and Finland	SR	57	Health effects of the Nordic diet	Mostly inconclusive, except for moderate evidence only for whole grains protecting against type 2 diabetes and CVD
Alae-Carew <i>et al.</i> (2019)	India	SR	11	The character of likely future diets in India	Increases in consumption of vegetables, fruit and dairy products, but little projected change in cereal and pulse consumption. Meat consumption expected to remain low. Understanding and mitigating the impacts of projected dietary changes in India is important to protect public health and the environment
Alae-Carew <i>et al.</i> (2020)	UK / Finland	SR	105	Yield and nutritional quality of fruits, nuts and seeds	In the absence of adaptation strategies, predicted environmental changes will reduce yields of fruits, nuts and seeds. With global intake already well-below WHO recommendations, declining yields may adversely affect population health
Alagiyawanna <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Sri Lanka / UK	SR	14	Food tax & subsidy impacts on consumption & health	Although such interventions can have an impact on healthy food consumption in high income countries, this may not be directly applicable to middle-income and low-income countries
Albrecht <i>et al.</i> (2018)	USA	SR	245	Trade-offs and synergies of water, energy, and food systems	To address complex resource and development challenges, mixed-methods and transdisciplinary approaches are needed that incorporate social and political dimensions of water, energy, and food; utilize multiple and interdisciplinary approaches; and engage stakeholders and decision-making
Aleksandrowicz <i>et al.</i> (2016)	UK	SR	63	Impacts of dietary change on GHG emissions, land use, water use, and health	Reductions in environmental footprints were generally proportional to the magnitude of animal-based food restriction. Dietary shifts also yielded modest benefits in all-cause mortality risk. Environmental and health benefits are possible by shifting current Western diets to a variety of more sustainable dietary patterns
An <i>et al.</i> (2018)	USA/China	SR	50	Relationships between global warming and the obesity	Policies that endorse deployment of clean and sustainable energy sources, and urban designs that promote active lifestyles, are likely to alleviate the societal burden of global warming and obesity
Anastasiou <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Australia	SR	26	Relationships between food label use and dietary intake	Nutrition facts labels were associated with healthier diets, but insufficient research on the association between dietary consumption and use of ingredients lists, serving size information and front-of-pack labels. Apart from health-related claims, food labels are associated with healthier diets & should continue to be promoted through policies & education
Andreyeva <i>et al.</i> (2010)	USA	SR	160	Impact of food prices on consumption	Increasing food prices or falling incomes create pressure to purchase the foods lowest in cost, making processed, calorie-dense foods more attractive. Future research needed on predicting the impact of specific public health policies aimed at improving diets and reducing the burden of chronic disease
Appleton <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Europe	SR	77	Fruit & vegetable health & consumption patterns	Greater per cent success is currently found from environmental, educational and multi-component interventions, but publication bias is likely, and long-term effects and cost-effectiveness are rarely considered
Arno and Thomas (2016)	Ireland	SR & MA	42	Efficacy of nudge strategies in dietary behaviour	Nudge holds promise as a public health strategy to combat obesity. More research is needed in varied settings, however, & future studies should aim to replicate previous results in more geographically and socioeconomically diverse countries
Atallah <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Canada	SR	26	Diets, weight loss & CVD	Head-to-head RCTs, providing the most robust evidence available, demonstrated that Atkins, WW, and Zone achieved modest and similar long-term weight loss. Despite millions of dollars spent on popular commercial diets, data are conflicting and insufficient to identify one popular diet as being more beneficial than the others

Bandy <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK	SR	68	Sales data in public health nutrition research	Food sales and purchase data are a valuable tool in nutrition research, despite the cost of access, the lack of transparency on data-collection methods and restrictions on publication. Product and brand-level sales data are particularly useful for assessing how changes by individual food companies can impact on diet and public health
Barlow <i>et al.</i> (2016)	UK / Denmark	SR & MA	41	Unhealthy diets, obesity and time discounting	Moderate evidence that high time discounting is a significant risk factor for unhealthy diets, overweight and obesity and may serve as an important target for intervention
Barlow <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK	SR	17	Health impacts of trade and investment agreements	Limitations in existing studies preclude definitive conclusions of the health impacts of regional trade and investment agreements, but some evidence that trade agreements pose significant health risks. Health protections in trade and investment treaties may mitigate these impacts
Barth <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Sweden	SR	21	Sustainable business innovation	Proposes a conceptual framework for sustainable business model innovation in the food sector that can be used to meet the challenges encountered in taking a sustainability perspective
Bennett <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Australia	SR	16	Price promotions influence on purchasing behaviour	Policies that reduce the prevalence and/or influence of price promotions on unhealthy foods and beverages may shift consumer purchasing away from unhealthy foods and beverages. Empirical studies needed to understand how consumers and industry may respond to such policies
Bes-Rastrollo <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Germany / Spain	SR of SR	17	Food company bias of scientific research	Financial conflicts of interest may bias conclusions from systematic reviews on sugar-sweetened beverage consumption and weight gain or obesity
Bianchi <i>et al.</i> (2018)	UK / Germany	SR	14	Reducing meat consumption for environment and health	Some interventions restructuring physical micro-environments could help to promote lower demand for meat. Interventions reducing portion sizes of meat servings, providing meat alternatives, or changing the sensory properties of meat and meat alternatives at point of purchase offered the most promise in the context of experimental studies
Bivoltsis <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia	SR	14	Food environments and dietary intakes	Availability measures may produce significant and greater effect sizes than accessibility measures. However, both availability and accessibility measures may be important concepts of spatial exposure depending on the food outlet type and dietary outcome examined
Black <i>et al.</i> (2012)	Australia	SR	14	Less healthy diets in those of low socio-economic status	Limited high-quality evidence of the impacts of food subsidy programs on the health & nutrition of adults & children in high income countries was identified. The improved intake of targeted nutrients and foods, such as fruit and vegetables, could potentially reduce the rate of NCD in adults, if the changes in diet are sustained
Blake <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Canada / Australia	SR	107	Healthy food retail strategies	Examination of business outcomes to date has largely focused on objective commercial viability outcomes and customer perspectives, with limited exploration of retailer perspectives or community outcomes
Bourke <i>et al.</i> (2014)	UK	SR	5	Dietary interventions to increase fruit and vegetable consumption in children	To tackle obesity narrow interventions focusing on single aspects of behaviour are unlikely to achieve long-term change. Successful public health interventions tackling childhood obesity will need to take a holistic approach & target behaviour change in multiple aspects of children's lifestyles & their surroundings: education; parental support; & physical activity
Bouزيد <i>et al.</i> (2013)	UK	SR	33	Public health interventions to reduce the health impact of climate change	The evidence base is mostly weak for environmental interventions that could have the most value in a warmer world. Nevertheless, such interventions should not be dismissed. Future research on public health interventions for climate change adaptation needs to be concerned about quality in study design and should address the gap for floods, droughts and other extreme weather events that pose a risk to health
Boyland <i>et al.</i> (2016)	UK / Australia	SR & MA	18	Advertising as a cue to consume	Evidence to date shows that acute exposure to food advertising increases food intake in children but not in adults. Support public health policy action that seeks to reduce children's exposure to unhealthy food advertising
Brandstetter <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Germany	SR	8	Empowering nutrition in health promotion	Very low number of studies with some having limitations in terms of reporting how the empowerment approach was actually applied. The empowerment approach still seems to be unfamiliar within the field of healthy nutrition
Broers <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Belgium	SR & MA	20	Nudging to increase fruit and vegetable choice	Indicates the effectiveness of nudging on fruit and vegetable choice in terms of actual effect-sizes; also highlights the problems that must be addressed before more definitive conclusions can be drawn
Brown <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia	SR	32	Nutrition and health information on food labels effects on portion size	Nutrition and health information presented on food labels has varying impacts on portion sizes consumed, from increased to decreased intake. Recommendations for future research include evaluating more recent food label types and achieving more consistent reporting standards
Bucher <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Australia / Denmark	SR	15	Nudging consumers towards healthier choices	The evidence that food position influences food choice is consistent; but difficult to quantify the magnitude of impact on food choice & intake & the effect size of these choice architecture interventions on actual food consumption & health outcomes. Use of harmonised terminology & indicators allows comparability between experiments or interventions
Calancie <i>et al.</i> (2015)	USA	SR	33	Policy and environmental strategies to prevent obesity	The varied populations and settings mean findings were too diverse to empirically assess effectiveness. Instead, the findings provide guidance on adapting and implementing policy and environmental strategies in rural communities

Candel (2014)	Holland	SR	50	Food security governance	Identifies seven main themes that recur throughout the literature. Recommends the design of smart governance arrangements that are capable of addressing food insecurity in more effective ways in the future
Caspi <i>et al.</i> (2012)	USA	SR	38	The local food environment and diet	Many measurement challenges remain, but accurate & comprehensive assessments of the food environment–diet relationship can provide insight into how the local environment may be altered to elicit actual improvements in dietary health: combination of rigorous spatial & store audit measures; intelligent use of neighbourhood informant data
Cecchini and Warin (2016)	France	SR & MA	6	Food labelling impacts on choices & eating behaviours	Nutrition labelling may be an effective approach to empowering consumers in choosing healthier products. Interpretive labels, as traffic light labels, may be more effective
Cerri <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Italy / Denmark	SR	388	Social desirability bias	Advocates three improvements in survey research about sustainable food: a better description of the data collection process to identify the limitations & strengths of a specific study; procedural remedies against social desirability used more consistently; more research in social desirability scales & specialised questioning techniques for sensitive answers
Chai <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Denmark	SR	34	Environmental impact of vegan, vegetarian and omnivorous diets	The environmental impact on land and water differs among the three diets. The more animal protein consumed in a diet, the higher the water use will be. A vegan diet has the lowest land use and water use and the least environmental impact. In order to be sustainable, local products that minimize the environmental impact of transport should be preferred
Challinor <i>et al.</i> (2014)	UK / USA / Australia	SR & MA	1700	Crop yield effects of climate change	Without adaptation, losses in aggregate production are expected for wheat, rice, & maize by 2°C of local warming. Crop-level adaptations increase simulated yields by 7-15%, with adaptations more effective for wheat & rice than maize
Chau <i>et al.</i> (2018)	USA	SR	16	Social media in nutrition interventions	Social media is a promising feature for nutrition interventions for adolescents and young adults
Chen <i>et al.</i> (2013)	China	MA	5	Meat consumption and stroke risk	Indicates that consumption of red and/or processed meat increases the risk of stroke, in particular, ischemic stroke
Christoph and An (2018)	USA	SR/MA	16	Effect of nutrition labels on dietary quality	Nutrition labels had a moderate but positive effect on dietary intake of college students
Clarke <i>et al.</i> (2016)	USA	MS	17	The policy process to obesity prevention	The limited application of political science theories indicates a need for future theoretically based research into the complexity of policy-making and multiple influences on obesity prevention policy processes
Clune <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK / Australia	SR & MA	369	GHG emissions for fresh food	Enables streamline calculations of the global warming potential of human diets
Cobb <i>et al.</i> (2015)	USA / Canada	SR	71	The local food environment and obesity	Despite the large number of studies, we found limited evidence for associations between local food environments and obesity. The predominantly null associations should be interpreted cautiously due to the low quality of available studies
Colley <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Canada	SR	11	School food programmes impact on children’s nutrition and health	Programmes incorporated a variety of components: policy; education; family & community involvement; food provision. Positively associated with development of nutrition knowledge, dietary behaviour changes, & healthy foods intake; barriers include intervention duration, intensity, & availability of resources impacted children’s diets and overall health
Cornelsen <i>et al.</i> (2015)	UK / Italy	SR & MA	78	Global food price elasticities	Changes in food prices had the largest own-price effects in low-income countries. Cross-price effects were more varied and depending on country income level were found to be reinforcing, undermining or alleviating own-price effects
Crockett <i>et al.</i> (2010)	UK	SR	28	Nutritional labelling for healthier food choice	Nutritional labelling with energy information on menus may reduce energy purchased in restaurants. Evidence assessing the impact on consumption of energy information on menus or placed on a range of food options in laboratory settings suggests a similar effect to that observed for purchasing, although the evidence is less definite and also of low quality
Croker <i>et al.</i> (2020)	UK	SR & MA	14	Nutritional labelling schemes	Labels including an interpretative message (beyond simply provision of nutritional information) appear to have greater potential for impacting behaviour. Evidence from experimental studies support ‘high in’ and multiple traffic light front of pack label and evidence from interrupted time series studies for ‘high in’, traffic light and Guideline Daily Amounts
Cullerton <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Australia	SR	63	Political science to progress public health nutrition	Limited research into the nutrition policy process in high income countries. Small increase in the use of policy process theory from 2003, an opportunity to expand its use is evident. Nutrition policy would benefit from a pragmatic approach to ensure policymakers are equipped with basic knowledge around these theories
Cullerton <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Australia / UK	SR	54	Interactions between population health researchers & the food industry	High levels of agreement in themes relating to research governance, transparency, & publication but less agreement & guidance on how principles should be applied in relation to funding & risk assessment. Agreement on some of the general principles for preventing & minimizing conflicts of interests for population health researchers when interacting with the food industry. For assessing the appropriateness of an industry partner, greater clarity and consensus required
D’Alessandro <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Italy	SR & MA	59	Mediterranean diet	The Mediterranean diet is well defined into its characteristics as quantity and frequency of intake is compatible with the Reference Italian Mediterranean Diet. It lowers the risk of type 2 diabetes and coronary heart disease

Dangour <i>et al.</i> (2013)	UK	SR	4	Nutrition promotion through food price policies	Paucity of robust direct evidence on the impact of agricultural price policies on nutrition and health. Price policies have rarely been evaluated from a nutrition or health standpoint and the evidence base explicitly linking these policies to nutrition and health outcomes is extremely limited. Needs interdisciplinary thinking and innovations in study design
Dania <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Indonesia / Australia	SR	30	Collaboration in sustainable supply chains	Key behavioural factors for effective collaboration system for sustainable supply chain management are identified: joint efforts; sharing activities; collaboration value; adaptation; trust; commitment; power; continuous improvement; coordination and stability
Darmon and Drewnowski (2015)	France / USA	SR	151	Food prices cost disparities in diet quality and health	Socioeconomic disparities in diet quality may be explained by the higher cost of healthy diets. Identifying food patterns that are nutrient rich, affordable, and appealing should be a priority to fight social inequalities in nutrition and health
Dinu <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Italy	SR & MA	108	Vegetarian, vegan diets and multiple health outcomes	Significant protective effect of a vegetarian diet versus the incidence and/or mortality from ischemic heart disease (-25%) & incidence from total cancer (-8%). Vegan diet conferred a significant reduced risk (-15%) from total cancer
El Bilali (2019)	Austria	SR	111	Changes needed for sustainable food systems	Research on food sustainability transitions should fill research gaps relating to agency ( <i>cf.</i> role of social movements and civil society, firms and industries, etc.) and spatiality/geography in transitions
Escarcha <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia	SR	126	Livestock and climate change	Lack of research in Asia & South America; a lack of mutual investigation & linkages between impacts & adaptation; lack of emphasis on mixed crop-livestock systems; lack of emphasis on monogastric livestock; underrepresentation of quantitative methods including yield impact models
Escaron <i>et al.</i> (2013)	USA	SR	58	Retailer promotion on healthy food choices and eating practices	More rigorous testing of interventions aimed at improving food and beverage choices in food stores, including their effect on diet and health outcomes, is needed
Eyles <i>et al.</i> (2012)	New Zealand	SR	32	Food pricing strategies, diets and NCD	Taxes on carbonated drinks & saturated fat & subsidies on fruits & vegetables associated with beneficial dietary change, with potential for improved health. Research into compensatory purchasing & population health outcomes is needed
Ferrari <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Italy	SR	25	Nudging to improve the environmental impact of food supply chain	Green nudging can be effective in leveraging more sustainable practices. Should not replace stricter environmental and food policies, but rather should be regarded as potential complements to be implemented with the aim of gradually moving society in a direction that might benefit all
Ferreira Gregorio (2018)	Spain	SR	449	Bio, green and circular economy trends	Literature is rich in analysing implemented policies & issues related to the strategies & organisational models of companies looking for a more sustainable path. Case studies and evaluations of the economic impact are needed. To promote, encourage & support companies in cleaner production & approach a more sustainable path must be prioritised
Fleischhacker <i>et al.</i> (2011)	USA	SR	41	Fast food access	Fast food restaurants more prevalent in low-income areas and higher concentrations of ethnic minority groups. Higher body mass index was associated with living in areas with increased exposure to fast food. Research needs to understand if & how fast-food access impacts dietary intake and health outcomes; and socioeconomic, race/ethnicity & age
Flies <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia / USA	SR & MA	22	Future global food demand	Estimates of kilocalorie demand have a broad range, but are not consistently dependent on model complexity or form. Models often make similar predictions to integrated assessments (e.g. with expert opinions, future prices or climate influencing forecasts) despite having different underlying assumptions and mechanisms. Reporting of model accuracy and uncertainty was uncommon, leading to difficulties in making evidence-based decisions about which forecasts to trust. Needs improved model reporting and transparency and improve the pace of development in this field
Frewer <i>et al.</i> (2013)	UK / Holland	SR & MA	70	Consumer and societal attitudes to GM food production	Risk and benefit perceptions of GM food production have been increasing with time. European consumers tended to be more negative about GM overall compared to Northern American and Asian consumers. Ethical and moral concerns of consumers were, however, greater in North America (and possibly Asia) compared to Europe.
Gao <i>et al.</i> (2018)	China / UK / New Zealand	SR	36	Public health benefits of GHG emissions reduction	Co-benefits of GHG mitigation seen in five economic sectors; measures across various sectors tend to provide greater ancillary health gains; health co-benefits assessments of GHG reductions are based almost entirely on descriptive or modelling studies; overestimation or underestimates may arise during the health co-benefits assessment of GHG mitigation strategies; standard methods to estimate the co-benefits of GHG abatement are needed
German <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK	MA	143	Environmental impact and productivity	Strong evidence of the relationship between crop yields and the negative externalities created by food production across a range of measures
Ghai <i>et al.</i> (2017)	India	SR	72	Organic food health claims	Organic food business in India lack standard guidelines for quality, policy framework for domestic and export market. Traceability should be given prime importance to ensure removal of fraudulent practices

Gillespie <i>et al.</i> (2019)	USA / UK	SR	11	Nutrition and governance in South Asia	Policies that strengthen the nutrition-sensitivity of food systems is a political task. Navigating and negotiating policy agendas requires an understanding of the competing incentives and interests of the various actors involved, including the private sector and civil society. A better understanding of governance can facilitate such negotiations, helping to identify opportunities, resolve trade-offs and strengthen nutrition-relevant pathways and outcomes. Governance needs commitment, power, accountability, coherence, data, leadership and capacity
Giskes <i>et al.</i> (2011)	USA	SR	28	Environmental factors and obesogenic diets	Living in a socioeconomically-deprived area was the only environmental factor consistently associated with a number of obesogenic dietary behaviours. Associations between the environment and weight status are more consistent than that seen between the environment and dietary behaviours. The environment may play an important role in the development of overweight/obesity, however the dietary mechanisms that contribute to this remain unclear and the physical activity environment may also play an important role in weight gain, overweight and obesity
Gittelsohn <i>et al.</i> (2017)	USA	SR	30	Pricing strategies for healthy foods	Pricing interventions generally increased stocking, sales, purchasing, and consumption of promoted foods and beverages. Research needed to differentiate the potential impact of selected pricing strategies and policies over others
Gordon <i>et al.</i> (2018)	USA / Rome	SR	48	Healthier choices in school cafeterias	This review found successful fast and intuitive thinking school cafeteria interventions to be more common than slow and cognitively demanding interventions with the latter being less effective than the former
Green <i>et al.</i> (2013)	London / Italy	MR	136	Rising food prices and food consumption	Changes in global food prices will have a greater effect on food consumption in lower income countries and in poorer households within countries. This has important implications for national responses to increases in food prices and for the definition of policies designed to reduce the global burden of undernutrition
Green <i>et al.</i> (2016)	UK / India	SR	11	Dietary patterns in India	Large variability between regions in dietary patterns and some evidence of change in diets over time, but no evidence of different diets by sex or age was found. Consumers of high-fat dietary patterns were more likely to have greater BMI, and a dietary pattern high in sweets and snacks was associated with greater risk of diabetes compared with a traditional diet high in rice and pulses, but other relationships with NCD risk factors were less clear. Shows dietary pattern analyses can be highly valuable in assessing variability in national diets and diet-disease relationships
Grieger <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Australia	SR	45	Models to estimate dietary strategies on nutritional intake	Targeting a variety of foods rather than individual foods or nutrients theoretically appears most effective in estimating improvements in nutritional intake, particularly reducing intake of nutrients commonly consumed in excess. Combination of strategies could be used to deliver the best improvement in outcomes
Grosso <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Italy	SR	58	Mediterranean diet and CVD	Most studies showed favourable effects of MD on CVD, although a certain degree of controversy remains in the respect of obesity. Methodological differences and limitations in the studies make difficult to compare results, thus further studies, particularly randomized clinical trials, are needed
Haby <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Australia / USA / Mexico / Brazil	SR	22	Interventions for sustainable food production and health	Needs careful implementation of interventions with expected positive health impacts but with concurrent, rigorous evaluation. Possible impact on health inequalities needs to be considered and measured by future primary studies and systematic reviews, as does impact of interventions on all dimensions of sustainable development
Halford <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Europe	SR	26	Dietary interventions to reduce appetite and energy intake	Maintenance of intervention effects on appetite or energy intake needs to be confirmed but seems likely where acute effects are robust and replicable in adequately powered studies
Hallström <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Sweden	SR	14	Environmental impact of dietary change	Dietary change, in areas with affluent diet, could play an important role in reaching environmental goals, with up to 50% potential to reduce GHG emissions and land use demand associated with the current diet. The choice of functional unit, system boundaries and methods for scenario development and accounting for uncertainties are methodological aspects identified to have major influence on the quality and results of dietary scenario analysis
Hallström <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Sweden	SR	24	Dietary quality scores to assess sustainability of food and diets	Choosing which method to quantify dietary quality scores as well as how they are combined with environmental assessments can affect the results and the conclusions of which foods that are more sustainable to eat. This is critical to understand for the set-up of studies and for the interpretation of results and drawing conclusions
Harguess <i>et al.</i> (2020)	USA	SR	15	Strategies to reduce meat consumption	Correlational studies were useful agents of behaviour change in experimental studies. More studies needed to confirm modifications of the food environment e.g. increasing the number of meatless meals on restaurant menus
Harris <i>et al.</i> (2020)	UK	SR & MA	41	Water footprint of diets	Changes toward healthier diets could reduce total water use of agriculture but would not affect blue water use. Rapid dietary change and increasing water security concerns underscore the need for a better understanding of the amount and type of water used in food production to make informed policy decisions



Hartmann and Siegrist (2017)	Switzerland	SR	38	Sustainable protein consumption	Consumer awareness of the environmental impacts of meat is surprisingly low therefore, willingness to change behaviour is low as well. How people can be motivated to decrease their meat consumption behaviour is underexplored
Hartmann-Boyce <i>et al.</i> (2018)	UK	SR	35	Retailer interventions to change food purchasing behaviours	Findings suggest that interventions implemented in stores, particularly ones that manipulate price, suggest swaps, and perhaps manipulate item availability, have an impact on purchasing and could play a role in public health strategies to improve health
Hedin <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Sweden	SR	15	Digital behaviour change interventions for sustainable consumption	Studies had major quality issues from a behaviour change perspective, therefore unable to find evidence on if digital behaviour change interventions worked or not. Future research needs to expand from the exploratory phase to conducting scientifically rigorous studies of higher quality, thoroughly grounded in behaviour change theory & methods
Hendry <i>et al.</i> (2013)	UK	SR	80	Interventions to promote healthy eating	Regulations can achieve compliance in terms of increasing the proportion of food items, people, or organisations that accord with the regulation. Whether regulations affect food choices, nutrition, obesity, or other health outcomes is unclear. Strategies to reduce artificial trans-fats might improve diets without affecting individual behaviours; reinforcing consumer engagement should strengthen public health messages while inducing food producers to reformulate
Hollis-Hansen <i>et al.</i> (2019)	USA	SR	15	Retail impacts on fruit and vegetable intake	Studies which change the food environment support increasing access to healthy food to improve diet; studies needed to assess the differences between types of retailers; & to identify strategies for improving impact. Understanding which types of new food retail programs will best impact diet has implications for policies which incentivise new food retail
Horne <i>et al.</i> (2020)	USA	SR	25	Nudges to promote healthy food in the school	Identifies the requirement for well-designed and well-controlled investigations into the effects of changing the choice architecture in school cafeterias, assessing short-, medium-, and long-term changes in individual children's consumption, utilizing validated measures, and conducted across a variety of settings
Houghtaling <i>et al.</i> (2019)	USA	SR	31	Choice architecture and strategies to encourage healthy consumer purchases	Multiple social-ecological factors impact retailer decision-making and willingness or ability to support healthy food and beverage objectives in food stores. Overall, there is a dearth of retailer information available within the literature. Research approaches and intervention plans must align with retailer goals, business models, and available resources
Hyseni <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK	SR	23	Dietary trans-fat reduction interventions	Multicomponent interventions including legislation to eliminate TFAs from food products were the most effective strategy. Reformulation of food products and other multicomponent interventions also achieved useful reductions in TFA intake. Interventions targeted at individuals consistently achieved smaller reductions
Iaccarino Idelson <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Italy	SR	58	Mediterranean Diet	Further validation of MD indexes in terms of reproducibility and consistency with the MD is needed. At the same time, more prospective cohort and intervention studies may better elucidate the relationships of MD adherence with behavioural and health outcomes
Jia <i>et al.</i> (2019)	China / Singapore / US/Holland	SR & MA	36	Fast food restaurants and child obesity	Higher fast-food restaurant access was not associated with weight-related behaviours in most studies. It was, however, commonly associated with more fast-food consumption. Systematic review and meta-analysis show insignificant results
Johnson <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia	SR	18	Parental provision of unhealthy foods	Variation in characteristics and components of interventions, as well as limited effectiveness, emphasize that there is currently no one best approach
Jones <i>et al.</i> (2016)	USA	SR	113	Measurement of sustainable diets	GHGEs of foods with the use of the Life Cycle Assessment approach was the most common method applied to measure the environmental impacts of diets. Many components of sustainable diets identified in existing conceptual frameworks and studies that examine consumer demand for sustainable dietary alternatives are under-represented
Jung <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Germany	SR	8	Dietitians' and nutritionists' stigma with obesity	Results not homogenous. The degree of negative attitudes by dietitians and nutritionists towards people with obesity appeared to be slightly less pronounced compared to the general public and other health care professionals. Stigma and its consequences should be included into educational programs to optimally prepare dietitians and nutritionists
Jurgilevich <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Finland	SR	42	Climate risk and vulnerability assessment	While the number of studies that include dynamics is growing, and while all studies included socio-economic aspects, often only biophysical dynamics was considered. Discusses the challenges of assessing socio-economic and spatial dynamics, particularly the poor availability of data and methods. Suggests that future-oriented studies assessing risk dynamics would benefit from larger stakeholder involvement, discussion of the assessment purpose, the use of multiple methods, inclusion of uncertainty/sensitivity analyses and pathway approaches
Kaur <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK / Holland / Sri Lanka	SR	9	Impact of health-related claims on dietary choices	The prevalence of price promotions is very context specific, and any proposed regulations should be supported by studies conducted within the proposed setting(s)



Kaur <i>et al.</i> (2020)	UK / Sri Lanka / Holland	SR & MA	13	Price promotions on food	Very high level of heterogeneity among the studies due to the different food groups, settings and methods of the included studies means the meta-analysis is of limited use. The prevalence of price promotions is very context specific, and any proposed regulations should be supported by studies conducted within proposed settings
Kirkpatrick <i>et al.</i> (2014)	USA	SR	51	Dietary assessment	Tendency to use brief dietary assessment instruments with low cost & burden rather than detailed instruments that capture intake with less bias. Use of error-prone dietary measures lead to spurious findings & detections of associations
Klümper and Qaim (2014)	Germany	SR & MA	147	GM crops	The meta-analysis reveals robust evidence of GM crop benefits for farmers in developed and developing countries. Such evidence may help to gradually increase public trust in this technology
Knapp and van der Heijden (2018)	Switzerland	SR & MA	193	Yields of organic and conservation production	Organic agriculture has, per unit yield, a significantly lower temporal stability (-15%) compared to conventional agriculture. Although organic farming promotes biodiversity & is generally more environmentally friendly, future efforts should focus on reducing its yield variability. The use of green manure & enhanced fertilisation can reduce the yield stability gap between organic and conventional agriculture. The temporal stability (-3%) of no-tillage does not differ significantly from those of conventional tillage indicating that a transition to no-tillage does not affect yield stability
Knox <i>et al.</i> (2016)	UK / Italy	SR & MA	41	Climate impacts on crop yield	Projected change in average yield in Europe for the seven crops by the 2050s is +8%. Strong regional differences with crop impacts in northern Europe being higher (+14%) and more variable compared to central (+6%) and southern (+5) Europe. Maize is projected to suffer the largest negative mean change in southern Europe (-11%). Evidence of climate impacts on yield was extensive for wheat, maize, sugar beet and potato, but very limited for barley, rice and rye
Labonté <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Canada / London	SR	78	Nutrient profile models in policies for health promotion and NCD disease prevention	Given the proliferation of nutrient profile models worldwide, this new resource will be valuable for assisting health professionals and policymakers in the selection of an appropriate model when the establishment of nutrition-related policies requires the use of nutrient profiling
Landauer <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Finland / Austria	SR	112	Climate change adaptation and mitigation	Finds evidence that supports examining adaptation and mitigation policies together. Urban climate policymaking is important in global climate change governance
Langellier <i>et al.</i> (2019)	USA	SR	27	Complex systems approaches to diet	Opportunities remain to advance the state of the science of complex systems approaches to diet & nutrition, including using models to better understand mechanisms driving population-level diet, models for policy decision support, and leveraging the wide availability of epidemiologic, and policy evaluation data to improve model validation
Lara Silva and Sanjuan (2019)	Brazil / Spain	SR	20	LCA of alternative food processing	Case studies help improve the application of LCA in food processing: the functional unit, system boundaries, scale & data source issues, & process water & wastewater composition. Research needs to (re)think technological and operational conditions (with an emphasis on cleaner production techniques), the inclusion of scale decision and consumption, and the importance of incorporating nutritional, sensorial and socio-economic dimensions to assist decision making
Le Mouél and Forslund, (2017)	France	SR	25	Global scenario studies for feeding the world in 2050	Covering additional world needs will require increasing the world supply of agricultural products, by increasing yields and/or expanding agricultural land. Crop and livestock yields as well as land area devoted to agriculture are thus two other levers advocated for feeding the world up to 2050. Alternative scenarios involve dietary change and yield growth
Lee <i>et al.</i> (2011)	Australia	SR	49	Effect of food cost on diet and disease	Manipulation of food cost may alter food consumption and therefore risk factors for chronic disease. Further longitudinal studies investigating the impact of pricing strategies on diet quality and disease risk are needed
Lennox <i>et al.</i> (2018)	UK	SR	25	Sustainability in healthcare	Choosing a sustainability method can pose a challenge because of the diverse approaches reported in the literature. This review provides a valuable resource to researchers, healthcare professionals and improvement practitioners by providing a summary of available sustainability approaches and their characteristics
Lewis and Lee (2016)	Australia	SR	11	Costs of healthy food	Healthy food price assessment methods lack comparability across all metrics & most do not align with a healthy diet as recommended by the current Australian Dietary Guidelines. Assessment of the price, price differential and affordability of healthy and current diets would provide more robust and meaningful data to inform health and fiscal policy
Liberato <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Australia	SR	32	Healthy interventions at point-of-sale	A range of intervention types used at point-of-sale to encourage healthy purchasing and/or intake of healthier food options and to improve health outcomes. Needs more studies on the effectiveness of point-of-sale interventions to encourage healthier eating & improve health outcomes, & the mediating factors that might impact these interventions
Lopez-Medina <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Spain / UK / Germany / Holland	SR	32	Climate change threats to public health	Identifies the educational approaches necessary to provide a broad based curriculum and a cross-disciplinary approach, including topics such as the use of resources, food, health promotion, globalism, disease management, and the environmental impact of delivering healthcare, if embedded in nursing education could support the nursing profession's response for this new and important aspect of healthcare

Lynch (2019)	UK	SR	22	GHG emissions from beef production	Very high levels of beef consumption are climatically unsustainable, regardless of carbon dioxide equivalence metric. Where individual GHG compositions were available, significant variation was found for all gases. Non-grass-fed systems generally appear more emissions efficient but, using the 100-year global temperature potential (GTP100) metric, grass-fed beef had lower footprints
Lytle and Sokol (2017)	USA	SR	432	Food environment measures	To strengthen research examining the relationship between the food environment and population health, there is a need for robust and psychometrically-sound measures and more sophisticated study designs
Mackenbach <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Holland	SR	4	Food environment and dietary behaviours	No clear evidence for socioeconomic differences in the association between food environments and dietary behaviour, although a limited number of studies focusing on economic and school food environments generally observed stronger associations in lower socioeconomic populations
Mah <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Canada	SR	86	Retail food environments	Retail food environments are one of the main sources of diet-related risk, but also hold health promotion policy possibilities. They are physical, social, economic, and cultural spaces that shape our dietary behaviours and where structural barriers to nutritional health such as the power over and ownership of food sources are manifest
Mahon <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK	SR	75	Sustainable intensification	SI viewed with scepticism because of lack of specificity and elucidation of the rationale, scale, and farm type for which SI is proposed. The number of the indicators were so loosely defined that the interventions they imply could be enacted without due consideration of the social impacts of their adoption
Makarem <i>et al.</i> (2018)	USA	SR	37	Sugar and cancer risk	Associations between dietary sugars and cancer vary by cancer site. Null results were observed for the consumption of total sugar and sucrose, but some study findings are suggestive of a potential detrimental impact of added sugars, dietary fructose, and sugary beverages on cancer risk
Mandal (2016)	Greece	SR	16	GHG emissions of food groups and diet	While ruminant meat consumption is environmentally costly, healthier and nutrient dense foods such as fruits and vegetables on average have higher GHGE than foods with poorer nutrition that are high in sugar. Therefore, nutritionally suboptimal diets which contribute to diabetes and obesity actually have a lower carbon footprint
Marcano-Olivier <i>et al.</i> (2020)	UK/USA	SR	25	Nudges to promote healthy food choices	Identifies the requirement for well-designed and well-controlled investigations into the effects of changing the choice architecture in school cafeterias, assessing short-, medium-, and long-term changes in individual children's consumption, utilising validated measures, and conducted across a variety of settings, including school dining rooms
Mayén <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Switzerland	SR	33	Socio-economic determinants of diets	In low- and middle-income countries, high socioeconomic status or living in urban areas is associated with overall healthier dietary patterns. However, it is also related to higher energy, cholesterol, and saturated fat intakes. Social inequalities in dietary intake should be considered in the prevention and control of NCD in LMICs
Maynard <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Brazil	SR & MA	31	Sustainability indicators in food services	Studies in food services are seeking to insert indicators that cover the three pillars of sustainable meal production. Many works encompass the importance of sustainability, but few explore which indicators are most applied or detail their implementation in food services
Mayne <i>et al.</i> (2015)	USA	SR	37	Policy and built environment changes on obesity-related outcomes	Some policy and built environmental interventions, especially active transportation infrastructure improvements, bans or restriction on unhealthy foods, and altering purchase / payment rules for low-income food vouchers, can increase certain types of physical activity and improve diet
McDermott <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Australia	SR & MA	46	Planned behaviour and discrete food choices	There is a clear imperative for the design of interventions to maximise the health and wellbeing populations by increasing rates of health promoting food choices and concurrently discouraging health-compromising food choices. Understanding the key determinants of these behaviours can assist in the development of such interventions
McKay <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Australia	SR	57	Food Insecurity	Researchers are using a variety of methods to collect information about food insecurity, including a single item question that has been found to return an inaccurate measure of food insecurity. As a result, there is little understanding of the true prevalence and severity of food insecurity in Australia
Meiklejohn <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Australia / Ireland	SR	13	Nutrition education programmes	Multi-strategy interventions can have significant impacts on nutrition of adolescents when the nutrition education is theoretically based and facilitated by school staff in conjunction with parents and families, and includes changes to the school food environment
Mekonnen <i>et al.</i> (2020)	USA / Norway	SR	20	Socio-economic inequalities in diet	Consistent mediators of the effects of socioeconomic position on dietary behaviours among the youth were: self-efficacy, food preferences and knowledge at the intrapersonal level; and availability and accessibility of food items at home, food rules and parental modelling at the interpersonal level.
Micha <i>et al.</i> (2018)	USA / Greece	SR & MA	91	School food environment policies	Specific school food environment policies can improve targeted dietary behaviours; effects on adiposity and metabolic risk require further investigation. These findings inform ongoing policy discussions and debates on best practices to improve childhood dietary habits and health

Michel-Villarreal <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK / Italy	SLR	61	Sustainability of alternative food networks	No frameworks based on metrics and indicators have been used for the evaluation of sustainability in AFNs. This is surprising considering that AFNs are largely regarded as being more sustainable than the 'conventional' food system. More efforts are needed to establish a common language of sustainability for the study of AFNs
Mills <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK / Australia	SR	38	Determinants and outcomes of home cooking	Home cooking layers of influence include non-modifiable, individual, community and cultural factors. Key determinants included female gender, greater time availability and employment, close personal relationships, and culture and ethnic background. Putative outcomes were mostly at an individual level and focused on potential dietary benefits.
Mytton <i>et al.</i> (2014)	UK	SR & MA	8	Effects of increased vegetable and fruit consumption	Promoting increased fruit and vegetable consumption, in the absence of specific advice to decrease consumption of other foods, appears unlikely to lead to weight gain in the short-term and may have a role in weight maintenance or loss. Longer studies or other methods are needed to understand the long-term effects on weight maintenance and loss
Nelson <i>et al.</i> (2016)	USA	SR	15	Healthy dietary patterns and environmental sustainability	Concurs with the conclusions of the original US Dietary Guidelines Advisory Committee SR, in that adherence to several well-characterized dietary patterns, including vegetarian diets, dietary guidelines-related diets, Mediterranean-style diets, the Dietary Approaches to Stop Hypertension (DASH) diet, and other sustainable diet scenarios, promotes greater health and has a less negative impact on the environment than current average dietary intakes
Nichols <i>et al.</i> (2009)	UK	SR	36	Health, climate change and sustainability	Research reports the potential health effects of climate change and policies & strategies to tackle these effects. An urgent need to identify and report on the implementation of strategies to mitigate and adapt to these challenges and to publish real examples of actions. Actions that are taken need to be evidence/policy based, & implementations monitored, evaluated & published
Niebylski <i>et al.</i> (2015)	USA / Canada	SR	78	Healthy food subsidies and unhealthy food taxation	Consistent evidence that taxation and subsidy intervention influenced dietary behaviours. The quality, level and strength of evidence along with identified gaps in research support the need for further policies and ongoing evaluation of population-wide food / beverage subsidies and taxation. Food taxes and subsidies should be a minimum of 10 to 15% and preferably used in tandem
Nour <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia	SR	10	Vegetable intake and weight outcomes	Provides moderate quality evidence for an inverse association between vegetable intake and weight-related outcomes in adults. When these findings are coupled with no apparent harm from vegetable consumption, the evidence-base can be used with acceptable confidence to guide practice and policy
O'Halloran <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Norway / S. Africa / Australia	SR	38	Assessing the school food environment	Reveals there are no standardised methods used to measure the school food environment. Robust methods to monitor the school food environment across a range of diverse country contexts is required to provide an understanding of obesogenic school environments
Olstad <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Australia / Canada / USA	SR	20	Policies to reduce obesity	Of the 10 studies of government policies, policies providing information/education and fruit and vegetable subsidies had positive impacts amongst children, but no impact amongst adults. Policies involving changes to built environments yielded nearly uniformly null findings in children and adults. Overall, the largest quantity of high-quality evidence of effectiveness was for comprehensive interventions that included school policies, and government policies targeting disadvantaged children in schools. None of the government policies targeting disadvantaged adults proved effective. Interventions during childhood may ameliorate negative obesity-related manifestations of socioeconomic disadvantage. Gaps in knowledge remain surrounding effective policies in adults, adolescents and very young children
Oostenbach <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Australia	SR	11	Impact of nutrition claims	While nutrition claims may lead consumers to improve their nutrition knowledge & select healthier options, may also lead to increased food consumption and overall energy intake, counter to efforts to address overweight and obesity
Ottrey <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia	SR	92	Ethnography in nutrition and dietetics	Ethnography increases understanding of complex food and nutrition related health issues and their contributing factors across public health nutrition, foodservice, and clinical dietetic practice. Can be used to explain health inequalities, direct policy, and inform more effective intervention design and delivery. Wider uptake of this research approach as a stand-alone or complementary study design will advance efforts to improve health and wellbeing through food and nutrition
Payne <i>et al.</i> (2016)	UK	SR	16	Health impacts of low GHG diets	Dietary scenarios that have lower GHGE compared with average consumption patterns may not result in improvements in nutritional quality or health outcomes. Dietary recommendations for reduced GHGE must also address sugar consumption and micronutrient intake
Pearce <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Australia	SR	390	How Australia adapting to climate change	Finds compelling evidence that adaptation to climate change is happening in Australia: most focused on eastern Australia, with agriculture, coastal adaptation, and health being primary areas

Pearson and Biddle (2011)	UK	SR	53	Sedentary behaviour and diet	The association drawn mainly from cross-sectional studies is that sedentary behaviour, usually assessed as screen time and predominantly TV viewing, is associated with unhealthy dietary behaviours in children, adolescents, and adults. Interventions need to be developed that target reductions in sedentary time to test whether diet <i>also</i> changes
Pember and Knowlden (2017)	USA	SR	10	Dietary change interventions	Theory-based studies exclusively focused on dietary behaviours are needed that address social norms, upperclassmen and non-residential students, environmental supports, feedback, goal setting, and measures aside from fruit and vegetable consumption
Perez-Cueto (2019)	Denmark	UR of SR	26	Food choice and nutrition	Common indicators for outcome measures on food choice and nutrition studies are nutrition knowledge, healthy food choices, food purchases and food and nutrient intake. The most common strategy implemented to alter food choice with a nutritional aim is nutrition education, followed by provision of information through labels. Among children, parent modelling is key to achieving healthy food choices. In general, combining strategies seems to be the most effective way to achieve healthier food consumption and to maintain good nutrition in all age groups
Pineda <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK / New Zealand	SR & MA	21	School food environments and obesity	Effective interventions in the prevention of childhood obesity were banning of sugary drinks in schools and an increase in availability and accessibility of fruits and vegetables for children from an early age. Multisystem approaches, such as stringent and monitored school meal programmes, alongside the collaboration, training, education, and integration of the school staff, parents, and students, increased acceptability and adaptability according to the local needs and sustainability of the food environment interventions. Changes in the environment lead to behaviour modifications
Porter <i>et al.</i> (2014)	UK	SR	15	UK household adaptation to climate change	The ability for quantitative analysis of emergent patterns was limited. UK households routinely take small, low cost, low tech, intuitive, and quickly implementable actions such as changing diets, clothing, and opening/closing windows, as coping responses to existing climatic variability. Past exposure to extreme weather, pressures of social acceptability, and long-term financial rewards appear to be the main drivers of household adaptation. Long-term household adaptations are unlikely to happen autonomously. For evidence-based policymaking, government needs more high-quality empirical research to aid climate adaptation policymaking
Poutiainen <i>et al.</i> (2013)	Canada	SR	190	Civil society organizations and adaptation to the health effects of climate change	Key findings include health adaptation actions are predominantly led by environmental CSOs; most actions are occurring at national and regional levels; food and/or water contamination and air quality are dominant climate change stimuli for action; responses reflect awareness and research activities; consideration of vulnerable groups is limited. Indicates a deficit in terms of what needs to be done for health adaptation and what is being done. Coordinated adaptation planning at federal and provincial level is needed, involving collaboration between CSOs and public health bodies
Pulker <i>et al.</i> (2018)	Australia	SR	68	Supermarket power and public health	Supermarkets have obtained instrumental, structural & discursive power from many sources that overlap & reinforce each other. Few positive public health impacts of supermarket power were identified, providing many opportunities for improvement in the domains of food governance, the food system and public health nutrition. Examination of supermarket own brands is of particular importance owing to their pivotal role as a source of power and their potential to improve public health outcomes, such as obesity
Quam <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Sweden / Athens / UK	SR	31	Lifestyle-related climate change mitigation strategies	Difficult comparison due to variations in assumptions and measurement units. More attention needs to be given to developing realistic and relevant diet and transportation modifications strategies. The most effective approach in the literature is the combination of a Pigouvian tax for GHGE and a “sin” tax on unhealthy food items. A tax on GHGE alone will not necessarily result in a healthier diet. Meat consumption reduction strategies may be best suited to countries with excess consumption of meat & protein; others need to develop low GHGE meat production systems that can supply their nation with a healthy protein source
Rajmil <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Europe	SR	24	Financial crisis and child health	Most studies suggest that the economic crisis may pose a serious threat to children’s health, and disproportionately affects the most vulnerable groups. There is an urgent need for further studies to monitor the child health effects of the global recession and to inform appropriate public policy responses
Rao <i>et al.</i> (2013)	USA	SR & MA	27	Cost of healthier foods	Challenges and opportunities for reducing financial barriers to healthy eating: lowering the price of healthier diet patterns should be a goal of public health and policy efforts, and some studies suggest that this intervention can indeed reduce consumption of unhealthy foods. Efforts to create an infrastructure and commercial framework that facilitates production, transportation and marketing of healthier foods could increase the availability and reduce the prices of more healthful products. Taxation of less healthy foods and subsidies for healthier foods would also be an evidence-based intervention to balance price differences

Reinhardt <i>et al.</i> (2020)	USA	SR	22	Dietary patterns and sustainability	Challenges prior findings that diets adhering to national dietary guidelines are more sustainable than current average diets and indicate that the Healthy US-style dietary pattern recommended by the DGA may lead to similar or increased greenhouse gas emissions, energy use, and water use compared with the current US diet. Among healthy dietary patterns, those higher in plant-based foods and lower in animal-based foods are beneficial for sustainability
Reverter <i>et al.</i> (2020)	France / Germany	MA	460	Aquaculture and antimicrobial resistance	Low- and middle-income countries present high AMR levels. Infected aquatic animals present higher mortalities at warmer temperatures. Countries most vulnerable to climate change will probably face the highest AMR risks, impacting human health beyond the aquaculture sector, highlighting the need for urgent action. Sustainable solutions to minimise antibiotic use and increase system resilience are therefore needed
Robinson <i>et al.</i> (2014)	UK	SR & MA	15	Effect of informational eating norms on eating behaviour	There was consistent evidence that norms influenced food choices; norm information indicating that others make low-energy or high-energy food choices significantly increased the likelihood that participants made similar choices. Information about eating norms influences choice and quantity of food eaten, which could be used to promote healthy changes to dietary behaviour
Ronto <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Australia	MS	28	School-based healthy food policies	Need for better communication strategies, financial & social support prior to school-based food policy implementation. Findings of this review contribute to a thorough understanding of factors that underpin best practice recommendations for the implementation of school-based food policy, and inform those responsible for improving public health nutrition
Sanchez-Sabate and Sabaté (2019)	Chile / USA	SR	34	Environmental concerns of meat consumption	Consumers aware of the meat impact on the planet, willing to stop or significantly reduce meat consumption for environmental reasons, and who have already changed their meat intake for ecological concerns are a small minority. However, environmental motives are already appealing significant proportions of Westerners to adopt certain meat curtailment strategies. Those who limit meat intake for environmental reasons are typically female, young, simply meat-reducer (not vegan/vegetarian), ecology-oriented, and would more likely live in Europe and Asia than in the USA
Sanchez-Sabate <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Chile / USA	SR	10	Attitudes towards reducing meat consumption for environmental reasons	Consumer awareness is hindered by beliefs about food, meat, and personal behaviour. Nutrition, health, and taste were found to be both enablers and barriers with regard to willingness. Vegetarians and vegans perceive the environment as simply another reason, among others, to maintain a meatless diet. Based on these results, makes recommendations for future dietary public health interventions, and for future research endeavours
Scheelbeek <i>et al.</i> (2017)	UK	SR	12	Effect of environmental change on yield and quality	Effects of environmental change on yields & quality of fruits & vegetables that might pose threats to population health, especially in areas vulnerable to climate-change & food insecurity: directly through reduced consumption, & indirectly through income pathways that might result in restricted household dietary energy intake & dietary diversity
Scheelbeek <i>et al.</i> (2018)	UK / Finland	SR (MA)	174 (24)	Environmental changes on vegetable and legume yields and nutritional quality	Impacts of environmental changes on nutritional quality were mixed. In a business-as-usual scenario, predicted changes in environmental exposures would lead to reductions in yields of nonstaple vegetables & legumes. Where adaptation possibilities are limited, this may substantially change their global availability, affordability, and consumption in the mid to long term. Stresses the importance of prioritising agricultural developments, to minimise potential reductions in vegetable & legume yields & associated negative health effects
Siegner <i>et al.</i> (2018)	USA	SR	130	Does urban food production improve security	Although strong focus on elucidating the multiple benefits of urban agriculture, few studies robustly measure the impact of urban farms on improving food security in low-income communities. Much of the literature is theoretical, focused on the production potential of urban agriculture, while more work is needed to understand and overcome barriers to access and distribution among communities in need. Concludes with a set of recommendations for researchers, practitioners, and policymakers who seek to create spaces in cities for food justice, equity, access, and sovereignty
Silchenko <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Switzerland / Denmark / Italy	SR	190	Health and food marketing	Knowledge is predominantly driven by USA-authored, experiment-based studies with statistical scope that often fail to articulate a discernible theoretical anchor. Despite a plethora of themes, the concept of health is primarily operationalised in the context of isolated, often dichotomous, product evaluations rather than in the context of everyday consumption experiences. Looks at "what," "where," and "how" of research, & contributes to the debate about the current state & the future of this research domain
Sildén (2018)	USA	SR	34	Effects of competitive foods	Discovered substantial evidence that competitive foods are highly available in schools, however, lacking in robust evidence proving causality in increasing BMI or weight. Strong corroboration in the research revealing that other effects are factors worthy of studying further. Additional longitudinal and higher-quality research needs to be performed

Sisnowski <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Australia	SR	36	Regulatory interventions targeting population nutrition	Isolated regulatory interventions can improve intermediate outcomes but fail to affect consumption at clinically significant levels. The literature covered six different types of interventions, with 19 studies reporting on chain restaurant menus. The large majority of the identified interventions were conducted in the US. Early results from recent taxation measures were published after the review cut-off date but these suggested more favourable effects on consumption levels. Nevertheless, the evidence assessed in this review suggests that current policies are generally falling short of anticipated health impacts
Smith <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Australia / UK	SR	71	Marketing influences on children's attitudes, preferences and consumption	Strong evidence to support the restriction of food marketing to children. However, the review also signposted distinct gaps: Firstly, there is a lack of use of qualitative and physiological methodologies. Secondly, contemporary and sophisticated marketing techniques used in new media warrant increased research attention. More research is needed to evaluate the longer-term effects of food marketing on children's weight
Snuggs <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK	SR	39	Healthy eating interventions in the home	Evidence- & theory-based interventions tended to be more successful than those that did not report detailed formative or evaluative work although details of theory application were often lacking. Results did not show any further systematic similarities shared by successful interventions. Recommends the need for more clearly theoretically driven interventions, consistent approaches to measuring outcomes and clarity regarding target populations and desired outcomes
Sonntag <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Germany	SR	36	Influence of the food industry on obesity	Narrative synthesis revealed six key obesogenic environments by which the food industry possibly influences obesity-related dietary behaviours in young children: schools; retailers; mass media 'television'; mass media 'internet'; home; & promotional campaigns. Identifying these obesogenic environments is critical for monitoring and controlling the food industry, the development of effective environmental-level interventions to prevent childhood overweight and obesity
Stefani <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Europe / USA	SR	77	Public food procurement	Although a relatively recent literature, it embraces different disciplinary approaches as well as research methods. The studied cases are evenly split between Europe and the USA being influenced by the specific legislative frameworks in the two areas. Differently from the literature on Public procurement where the themes of contracting and cost minimisation are prevalent, the literature on PFP is centred on the concepts of localisation and structured demand and its impacts on food chain actors as well as citizen-consumers and on sustainability at large
Talati <i>et al.</i> (2017)	Australia	SR	24	Responses to on-pack health claims	These findings are relevant to policymakers who are considering the effectiveness of mandating an NFP and/or a front-of-pack label alongside health claims
Tang <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Canada	SR & MA	127	Antibiotic restriction in food-producing animals	Broad interventions that restrict global antibiotic use appear to be more effective in reducing antibiotic resistance compared with restrictions that narrowly target one specific antibiotic or antibiotic class. Interventions that allow for therapeutic antibiotic use appear similarly effective compared with those that restrict all uses of antibiotics, suggesting that complete bans are not necessary. These findings directly inform the creation of specific policies to restrict antibiotic use in food-producing animals
Taub <i>et al.</i> (2008)	USA	SR & MA	228	CO <sub>2</sub> effects food protein concentration	While the magnitude of the effect of elevated CO <sub>2</sub> varied depending on the experimental procedures, a reduction in protein concentration was consistently found for most crops. These findings suggest that the increasing CO <sub>2</sub> concentrations of the 21st century are likely to decrease the protein concentration of many human plant foods
Thapa and Lyford (2014)	USA	SR	18	Behavioural economics in school lunchtimes	All studies show that nudging in the lunchroom leads to healthier food choice decision. None of the studies found that nudging is not effective. Addressing the childhood obesity epidemic by applying behavioural economics is relatively new and most of the research in this area conducted so far has often focused on increasing healthy food consumption, including fruits and vegetables
Thow <i>et al.</i> (2010)	Australia	SR	24	Fiscal policy effects on diet, obesity and chronic disease	Food taxes and subsidies have the potential to contribute to healthy consumption patterns at the population level. However, current evidence is generally of low quality and the empirical evaluation of existing taxes is a research priority, along with research into the effectiveness and differential impact of food taxes in developing countries
Thow <i>et al.</i> (2014)	Australia	SR	38	Food taxes and subsidies to improve diets	Taxes and subsidies are likely to be an effective intervention to improve consumption patterns associated with obesity and chronic disease, with evidence showing a consistent effect on consumption across a range of tax rates emerging. Future research should use prospective study methods to determine the effect of taxes on diets and focus on the effect of taxation in conjunction with other interventions as part of a multi-sectoral strategy to improve diets and health
Tobi <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK / India	SR	30	Sustainable diets	Environmental and social responsibility labelling schemes are of more value to food consumers than previously suggested. Consumers show a marked preference for organic labels in particular. With health often cited as a motivation for purchasing organic, despite a lack of evidence demonstrating organic food's nutritional superiority compared to conventional production methods, the 'health halo' effects of green marketing are powerful. Care should be taken to ensure this does not negatively impact on public health nutrition by leading some consumers to choose environmentally friendly products, even if less nutritious



Tørris and Mobeck (2019)	Norway	SR	21	Nudging for healthier food choices to improve CV health	The results show that many of the studies included traffic-light labelling, which may be a promising strategy. The reviewed findings, however, also highlight the challenges that confront experimental studies examining the impact of nudging on diet
Turbutt <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK	SR	14	Hot food takeaways near schools	Most included studies compared anthropometric measures with geographical location of hot food takeaways to find correlations between environment and childhood obesity. There was good evidence of more hot food takeaways in deprived areas and children who spend time in deprived neighbourhoods tend to eat more fast food and have higher BMIs. Few studies were able to quantify the correlation between school's environment and obesity amongst pupils. This lack of evidence is likely a factor of the studies' ability to identify the correlation rather than lack of a correlation between the two variables
Turton <i>et al.</i> (2016)	UK	SR & MA	39	Healthier eating habits for eating and weight disorders	In healthy controls the implementation intention approach produces a small increase in healthy food intake and reduction in unhealthy food intake post-intervention. The size of these effects decreases over time and no change in weight was found. Unhealthy food intake was moderately reduced by food-specific inhibition training and attention bias modification post-intervention
Vaitkeviciute <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Australia	SR	13	Food literacy and dietary intake	Food literacy may play a role in shaping adolescents' dietary intake. More rigorous research methods are required to effectively assess the causality between food literacy and adolescents' dietary intake in order to confirm the extent of the relationship. Evidence recommends public health practitioners and policy makers consider new public health strategies that focus on increasing understanding of food literacy in adolescence
Valli <i>et al.</i> (2019)	International	SR	41	Values and preferences on meat consumption	Low-certainty evidence suggests that omnivores are attached to meat and are unwilling to change this behaviour when faced with potentially undesirable health effects
Vandergeten <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Belgium / Ethiopia	MA	73	Land grabbing	According to the results, both host governments and local communities experience loss. This results in a win-loss-loss status of the Trans-national Land Deals. The major challenge remains in establishing good land governance, which can guarantee the benefits to local people and their access to land
Vecchio and Cavallo (2019)	Italy	SR	36	Healthy food choices through nudges	Over 80% of the reviewed empirical research reported positive outcomes. The work provides insights to further analyse the most promising approaches and critically discusses the core shortcomings of available studies. Future research avenues are highlighted as the need for more replications and scalability of interventions
Vins <i>et al.</i> (2015)	USA	SR	82	Mental health and drought	Given the increasing concern over the association between climate change and drought, the linkages between drought and mental health are increasingly important. There is a substantial body of literature on the topic that allows for identification of several distinct and inter-related pathways by which drought can adversely impact mental health as well as several coping and adaptation strategies. Most of these relationships are mediated through environmental or economic pathways, and the outcomes most closely studied are mood disorders and, to a lesser degree, intimate partner violence and suicide. Few associations between drought exposure and adverse mental health outcomes have been quantified. This research is an initial step in bringing this important issue forward and outlining possible implications for prevention, mental health services, and future research
Vivero-Pol (2017)	Belgium	SR	70	Food as commons	Results points to the ontological absolute 'food is a private good' developed by the economic scholars as a dominant narrative that locked other valuations of food by legal, political or historical scholars or non-scientific epistemologies. In a world where the industrial food system has clearly proven its unfitness to feed us adequately in a sustainable way, the need for academia to explore other food valuations seems more urgent than ever. Scholars need to approach other narratives of food (as commons or public good) that go beyond the hegemonic and permitted ideas, unlocking unexplored food policy options to guarantee universal access to food for all humans, regardless their purchasing power, without mortgaging the viability of our planet
Walls <i>et al.</i> (2018)	UK / Australia	SR	4	Agricultural input subsidy impacts	Both impact and its context are poorly understood but crucial for nutrition-sensitive policymaking. Given the financial resources devoted to AIS in some countries (and resurgence of interest in AIS programmes), this is an important area to be addressed
Weiler <i>et al.</i> (2015)	Canada	MA	1414	Food sovereignty, security and health equity	Crosscutting themes include climate change, biotechnology, gender, racialization, indigeneity, poverty, citizenship and HIV as well as institutional barriers to reducing health inequities in the food system. The concept of food sovereignty has important but largely unexplored affinities with health equity. Food sovereignty-based approaches such as advancing healthy school food systems, promoting soil fertility, gender equity and nutrition, and addressing structural racism, can complement the longer-term socio-political restructuring processes that health equity occasions

Wickramasinghe <i>et al.</i> (2013)	UK	SR	168	GHG of sustainable diets	Organic foods and locally produced foods do not always produce fewer GHGEs. Little consistency in LCA methods makes direct comparisons of estimates difficult. Future LCA food studies should make efforts to follow a uniform approach, to include common definition of stages in the lifecycle and inclusion of similar activities always under each category of food. These GHGE estimates are for common food groups in a FFQ and could be combined with existing nutrition databases to address questions around sustainable healthy diets. These findings will be used to quantify the GHGE changes of different dietary scenarios in the UK to achieve GHGE reduction targets
Wilson <i>et al.</i> (2016)	Australia	SR	13	Nudging healthier food choices	The review had limited ability to determine effectiveness of nudging due to various populations and settings tested and the use and reporting of incomparable outcome measures. It finds minimal uptake of nudging in the academic literature, and mixed effectiveness of nudging for influencing healthier food and beverage choices
Wirehn (2018)	Sweden	SR	60	Nordic agriculture under climate change	Although the agricultural sector in the Nordic region is facing certain benefits from climate change, this review demonstrates profound challenges related directly to climate change. The synthesis of suggested adaptation actions furthermore indicates that adaptation involve trade-offs, however, increased knowledge on this subject is required. Failing to address these challenges might impede Nordic agriculture's potential gains from climate change in a long-term perspective
Wood <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK	SR	102	Health tax policies	Health taxes to reduce consumption of unhealthy products requires the implementation of taxes that increase the price of products by 20% or more. Where taxes are effective in changing health behaviours, the predictability of the revenue stream is reduced. Policy actors need to be clear about the primary goal of any health tax and frame the tax accordingly – not doing so leaves taxes vulnerable to hostile lobbying. Conversely, earmarking health taxes for health spending tends to increase public support so long as policymakers follow through on specified spending commitments
Wrieden <i>et al.</i> (2019)	UK	SF		Sustainable diets in the UK	Aimed to develop a systematic, traceable, and comprehensive Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) framework to quantify the various dimensions of environmental sustainability of the main UK food items. Only 16.6% of households could be described as more sustainable; this rose to 22% for those in the lowest income quintile. Increasing the diet quality index criteria to >80% resulted in only 100 households being selected, representing 0.8% of the sample. The framework enabled identification of more sustainable households, providing evidence of how we can move toward better diets in terms of the environment, health, and costs.
Wright and Bragge (2018)	Australia	SR	10	Promoting healthy eating choices when dining out	Results indicate that policies or interventions that aim to improve healthy choices or consumption when dining out would benefit from harnessing social norms and positive positioning of social identity. Provision of health information should always be accompanied by an interpretative guide, such as traffic lights. Manipulation of plate / portion / cutlery size may be effective; however, the effect size is small and further research is required to investigate whether this effect is retained in overweight or obese populations
Xin <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Canada / USA / UK / East Asia	SR	41	Convenience stores access and childhood obesity	The density of and proximity to convenience stores in children's residential and school neighbourhoods were positively associated with unhealthy eating behaviours. However, their associations with children's weight status varied significantly by regions. The association between convenience store access and children's weight status was found to be negative in Canada, rather mixed in the USA and the UK, and not significant in East Asia
Yang <i>et al.</i> (2020)	China / USA / Holland	SR	11	Fruit and vegetable market access and childhood obesity	The limited amount of relevant evidence may not be a strong guide for policymaking, but rather an important research gap that needs to be filled if successful public health interventions are to be undertaken
Zaęe <i>et al.</i> (2020)	Italy	SR	9	Food insecure children in Europe	Achieving food security means designing targeted policies and interventions, both at a national and EU level. Policymakers and governments should make the appropriate efforts to deliver food security as a public good
Zenk <i>et al.</i> (2015)	USA	SR	16	Local food environments and diet-related health outcomes	Finds geographic disparities in the availability of healthy foods across the USA and empirical evidence of the relationship between these disparities and dietary intake among some populations. Results continue to challenge investigators to measure geographic disparities of disease patterns
Zhang <i>et al.</i> (2019)	USA	SR & MA	6	Glyphosate herbicides and non-hodgkin lymphoma risk	The meta-analysis of human epidemiological studies suggests a compelling link between exposures to GBHs and increased risk for NHL

**Table 15:** Resulting characteristics and main outcomes of included reviews

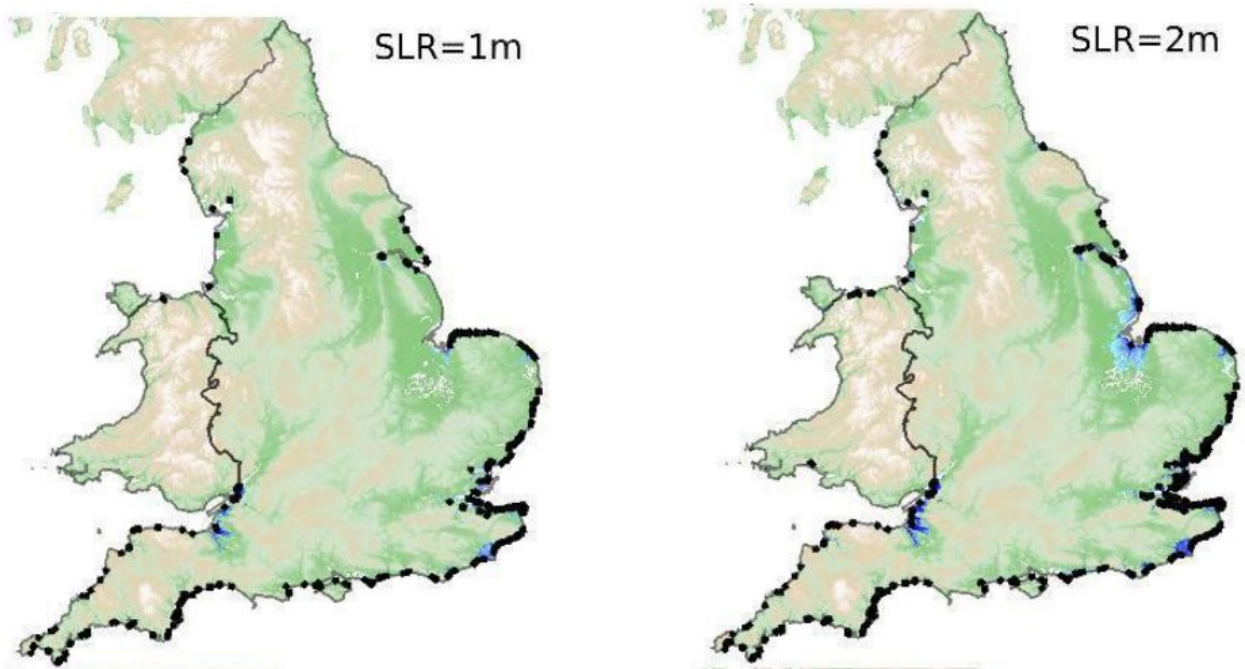
#Key: **SR** = Systematic Review; **SR & MA** = Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis; **SR of SR** = Systematic Review of Systematic Reviews; **SLR** = Systematic Literature Review; **MA** = Meta-Analysis; **MS** = Meta-Synthesis; **MR** = Meta-Regression; **MN** = Meta-Narrative; **MD** = Meta-Data.



## 4.2 Results from modelling predictions: the impacts of climate change on the sustainability of UK food production [RQ3]

The Climate Central '*CoastalDEM*' model was used to determine possible UK scenarios for sea-level rise. The literature review identified a significant gap regarding the ambiguity of future rises; estimates of future rises range between 50-100cm before 2100, assuming medium-emissions scenarios and immediate cuts in carbon emissions were possible. Edwards (2017) had also identified areas in the UK seen as most vulnerable to increasing inundation with sea-level rises of 1 metre (SLR = 1m) and 2 metre (SLR = 2m), but this did not allow for a more detailed analysis at a local level. These are shown in figures 66 and 67; both clearly identify the Lincolnshire Fens as being one of the areas at most risk. The *CoastalDEM* model uses peer-reviewed science from leading journals to provide maps for screening; that is, to further identify the places that require deeper investigation of risk. The first analysis considered the extent of the risk by estimating the area of land projected to be below annual flood level and affected by sea-level rise by 2050, assuming moderate cuts in pollution, and an average range of sea-level rise from the literature (e.g. Kopp *et al.*, 2014). The results, shown in figure 68, indicate the areas affected by sea-level rise are shaded in red, show around 50 per cent of Lincolnshire's land area will be at risk by 2050, including the majority of land classified as Best and Most Versatile food producing land area. This is consistent with earlier reports (Watts, 2017).

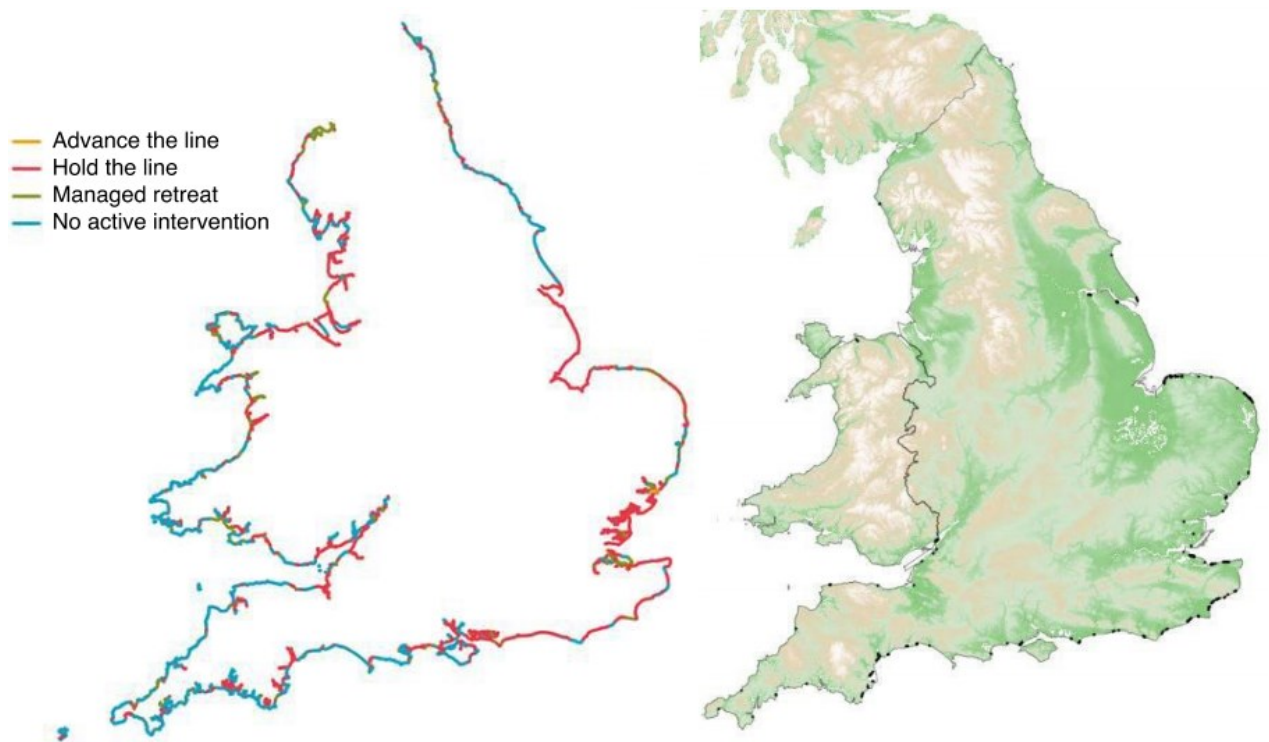
The weaknesses acknowledged with the *CoastalDEM* model are that its accuracy is less reliable when assessing extreme weather events such as floods. The maps are not based on physical storm and flood simulations and do not consider other variables such as erosion, future changes in the storm frequency or intensity, flooding, or rainfall. The real strength of the model, however, lies in its ability to accurately map the permanent future sea-level rise. Further, more detailed scenarios were run through the *CoastalDEM* model, to establish the rate of change and address the timescale gap identified previously within the literature. Using the same criteria as for the map in figure 68, five further scenario maps were produced: for 1 metre (figure 69); 2 metre (figure 70); 3 metre (figure 71); 5 metre (figure 72), and 10 metre (figure 73). By way of comparison, the Natural England's (2020) map of Grade 1 and Grade 2 showing the Best and Most Versatile food producing land in the Lincolnshire fens is also shown in figure 74 and reproduced at approximately the same scale as the preceding five *CoastalDEM* maps.



**Figure 66:** Increasing inundation with sea-level rise of 1 metre (SLR = 1m) and 2 metre (SLR = 2m)

*Temporary inundation extent (blue) under a 1:200 year return period tidal surge if vulnerable defences were lost, for different values of local sea-level rise (SLR); defences at risk are shown in black*

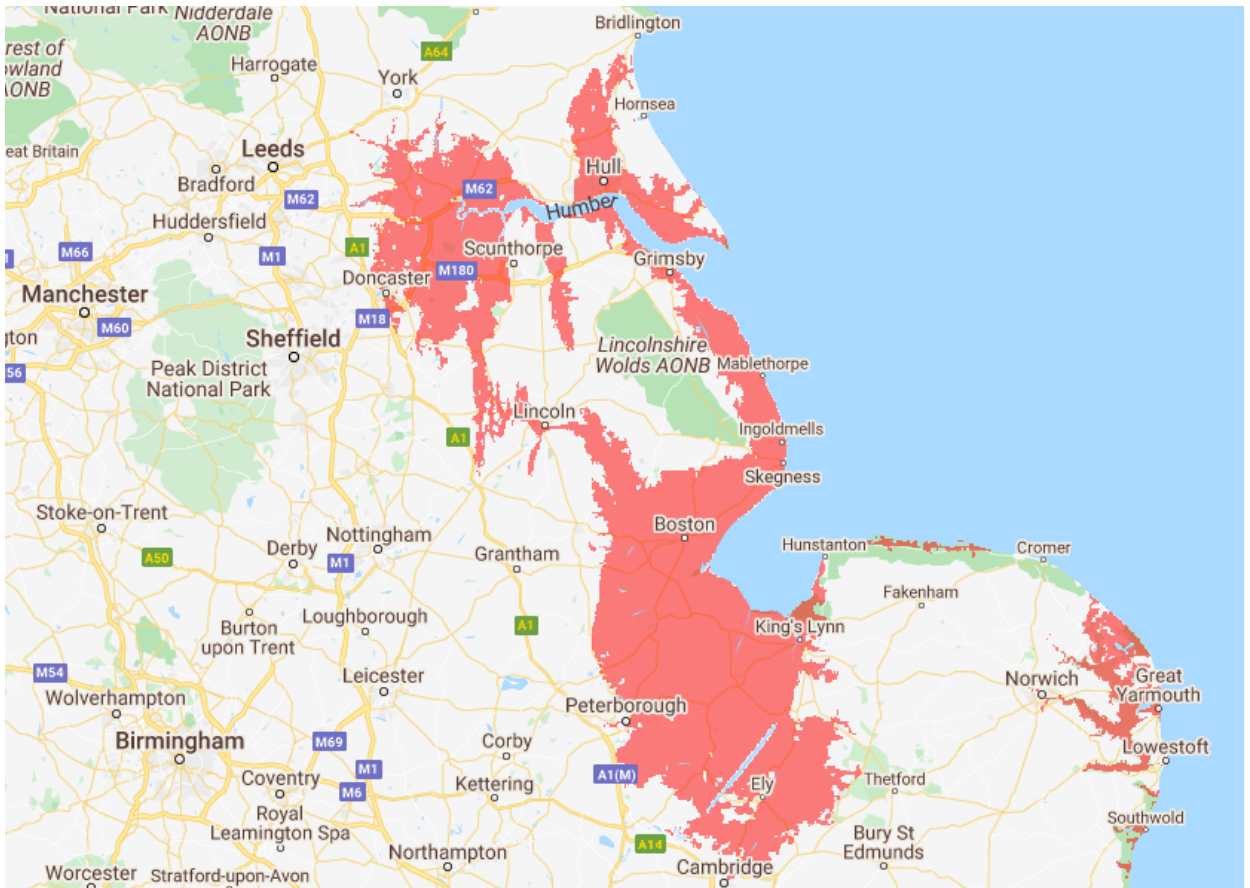
**Source:** Sayers *et al.* (2015) cited in Edwards (2017).



**Figure 67:** Shoreline Management Plans (SMPs) and vulnerable defences

*Left map shows SMP options for 2010–2030; Right map shows estimated vulnerable defences with no sea-level rise, shown as black lines, for England only*

**Source:** Sayers *et al.* (2015) cited in Edwards (2017).



**Figure 68:** The extent land at risk of being affected by annual flooding and sea-level rise by 2050

**Source:** based on *CoastalDEM* model data (2020).



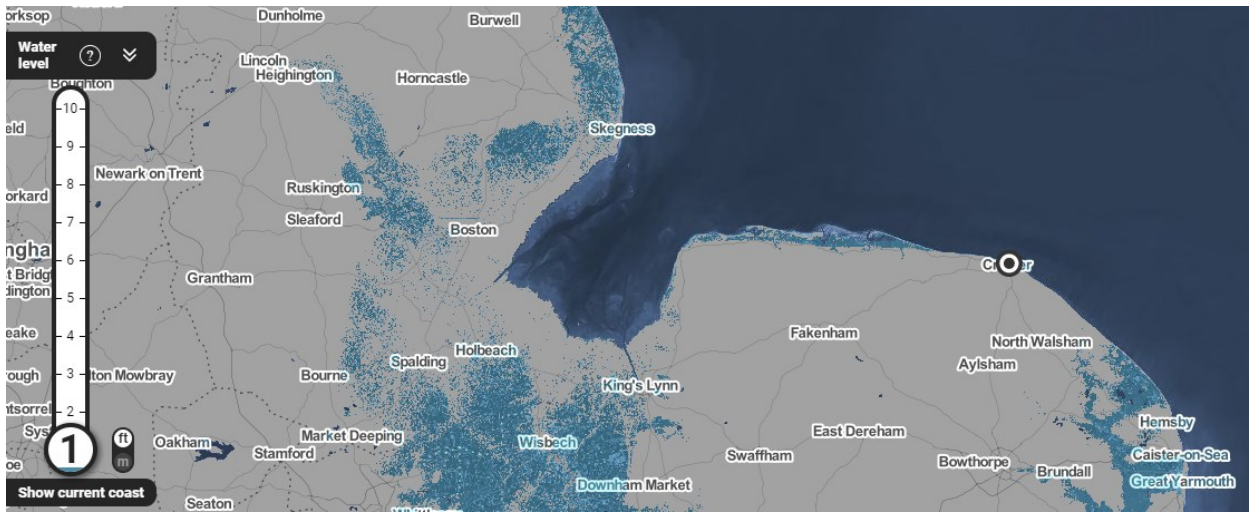


Figure 69: Climate Central CoastalDEM projected 1 metre sea-level rise on the Lincolnshire fens

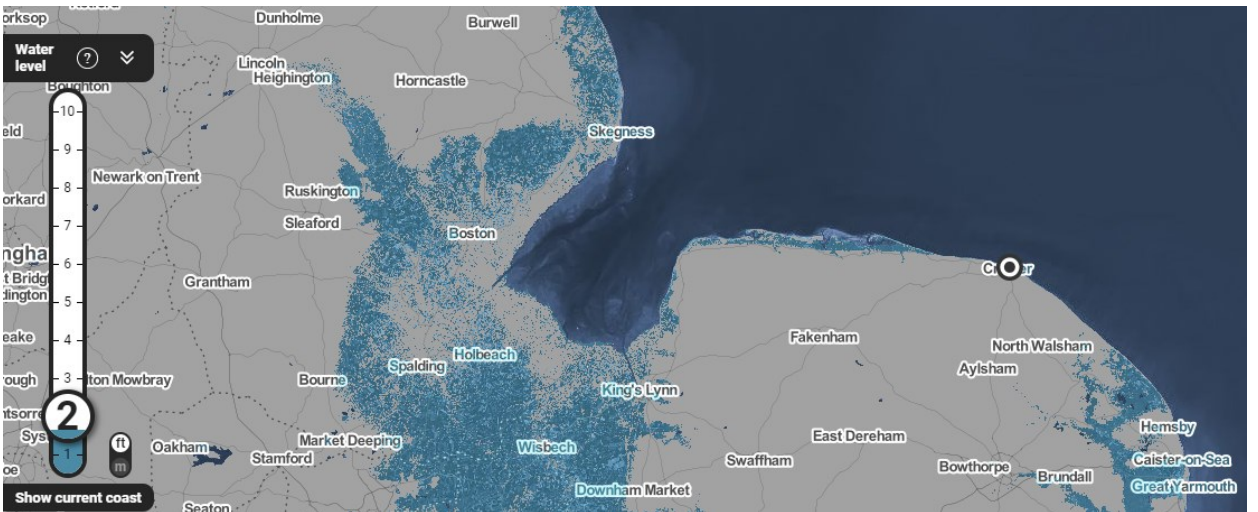


Figure 70: Climate Central CoastalDEM projected 2 metre sea-level rise on the Lincolnshire fens

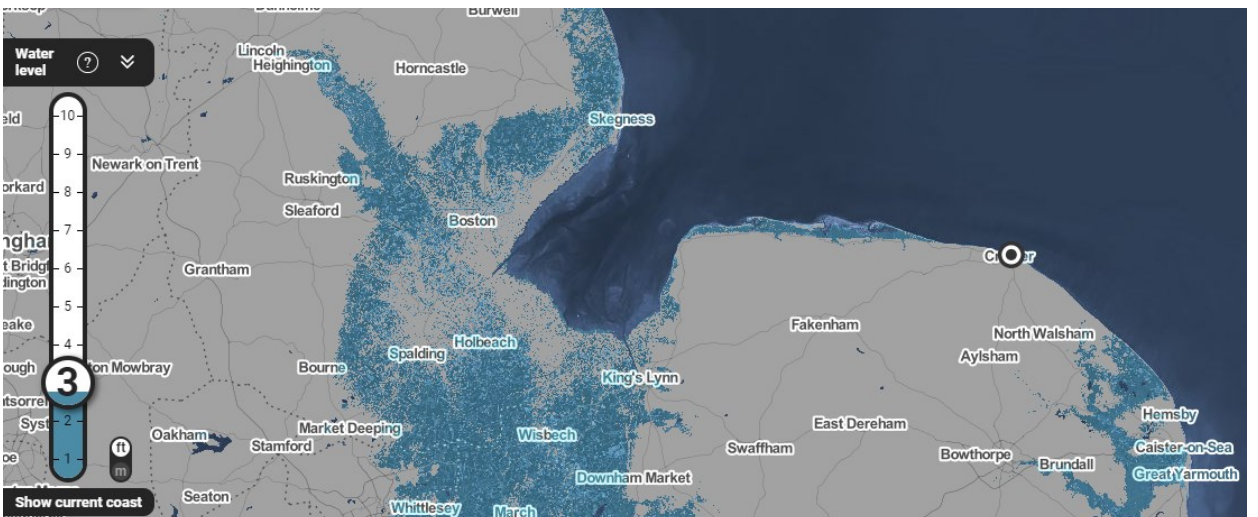
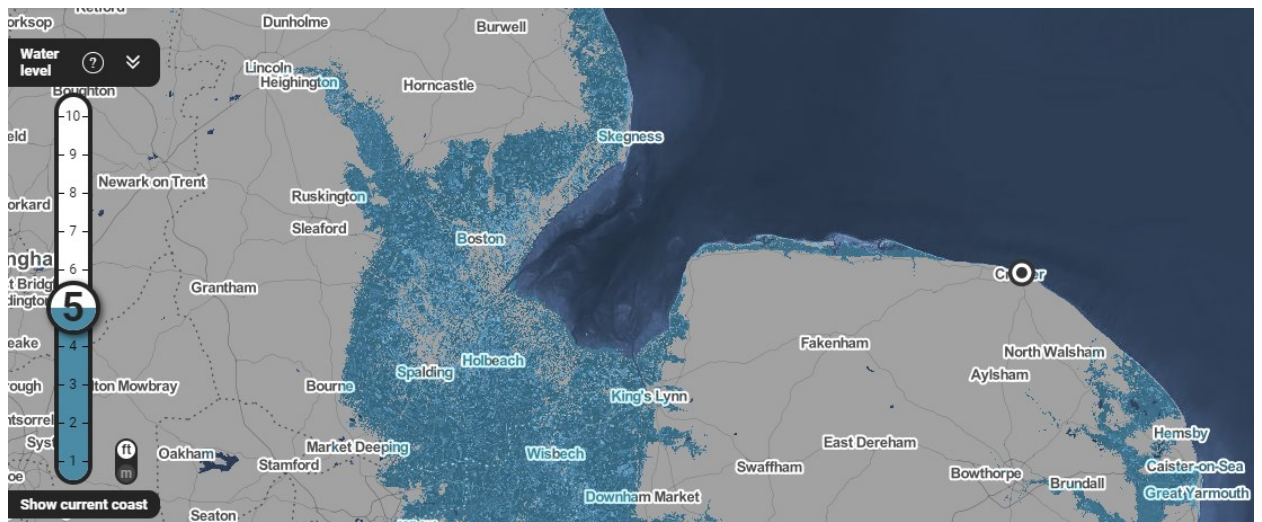
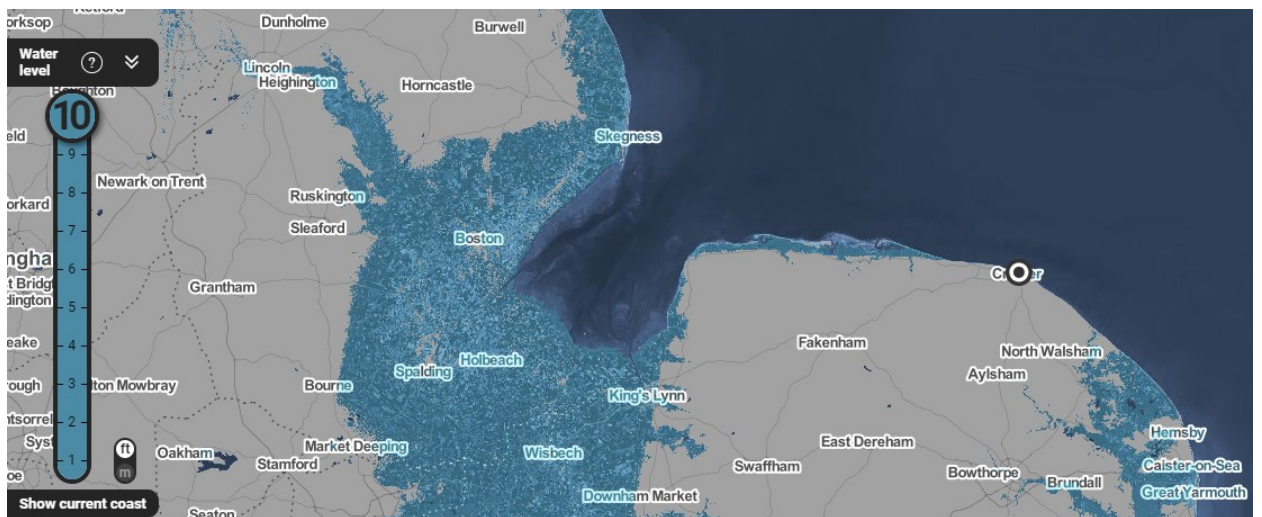


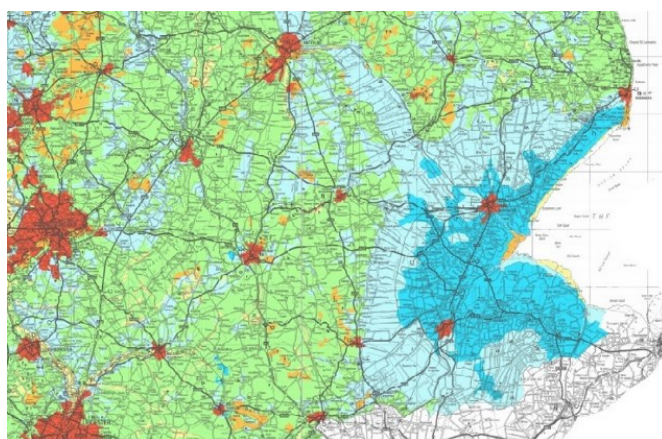
Figure 71: Climate Central CoastalDEM projected 3 metre sea-level rise on the Lincolnshire fens



**Figure 72:** Climate Central CoastalDEM projected 5 metre sea-level rise on the Lincolnshire fens



**Figure 73:** Climate Central CoastalDEM projected 10 metre sea-level rise on the Lincolnshire fens



**Figure 74:** Natural England's (2020) map of Grade 1 (royal blue) and Grade 2 (light blue) Best and Most Versatile food producing land in the Lincolnshire fens (for a more detailed version, see appendix 8.22)

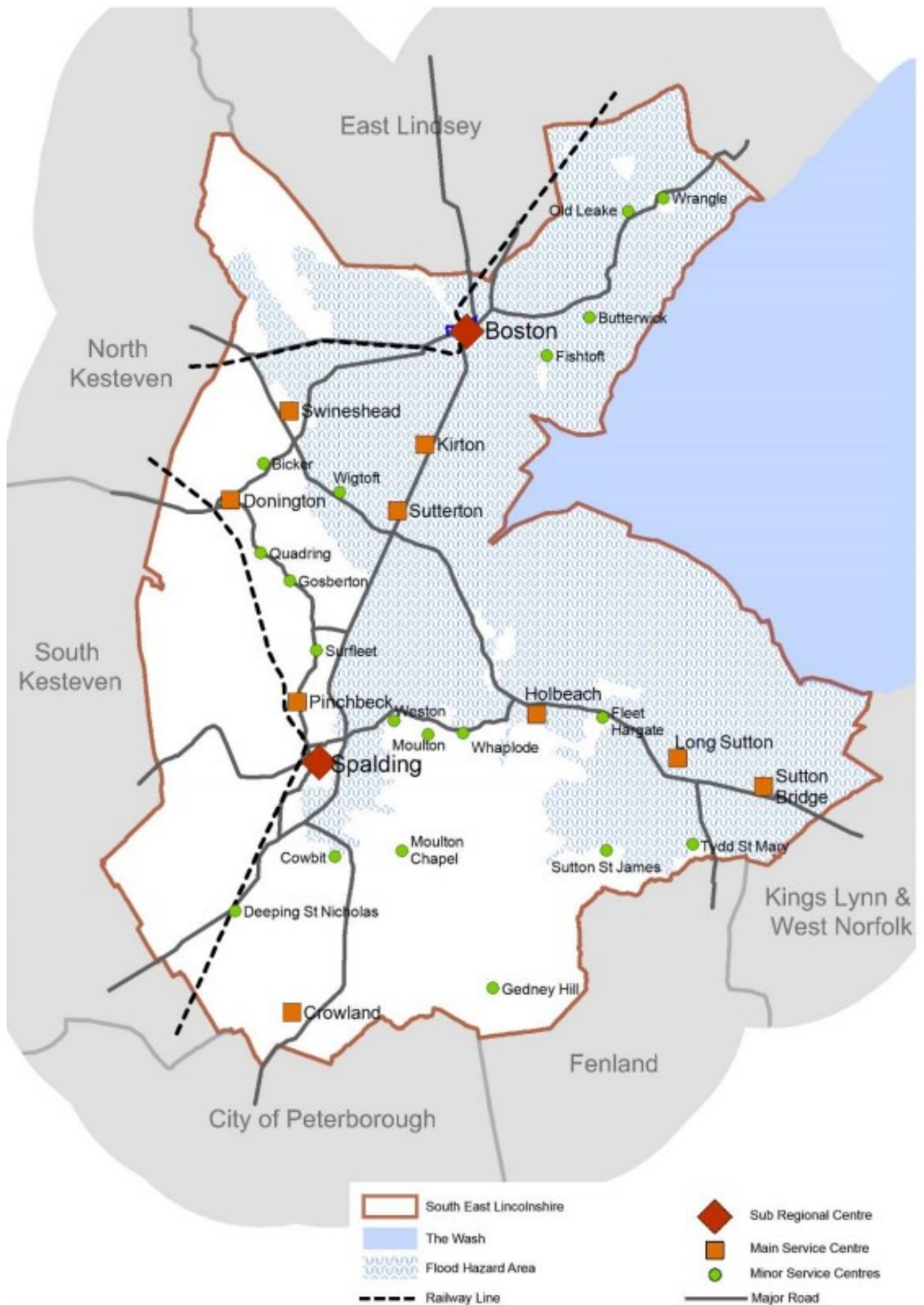
**Source:** Natural England (2020).

<i>Sea-level rise</i>	<i>Current</i>	<i>Low-Medium</i>		<i>High</i>		<i>Extreme</i>	
<i>Adaptation level</i>	<i>Current</i>	<i>Current</i>	<i>Enhanced</i>	<i>Current</i>	<i>Enhanced</i>	<i>Current</i>	<i>Enhanced</i>
Best and Most Versatile agricultural land area (acres)	321,230	444,780 (37%)	395,360 (25%)	444,780 (39%)	420,070 (31%)	444,780 (39%)	420,070 (31%)

**Table 16:** Current and future impacts of sea-level rise on the UK’s Best and Most Versatile food producing land area (acres)

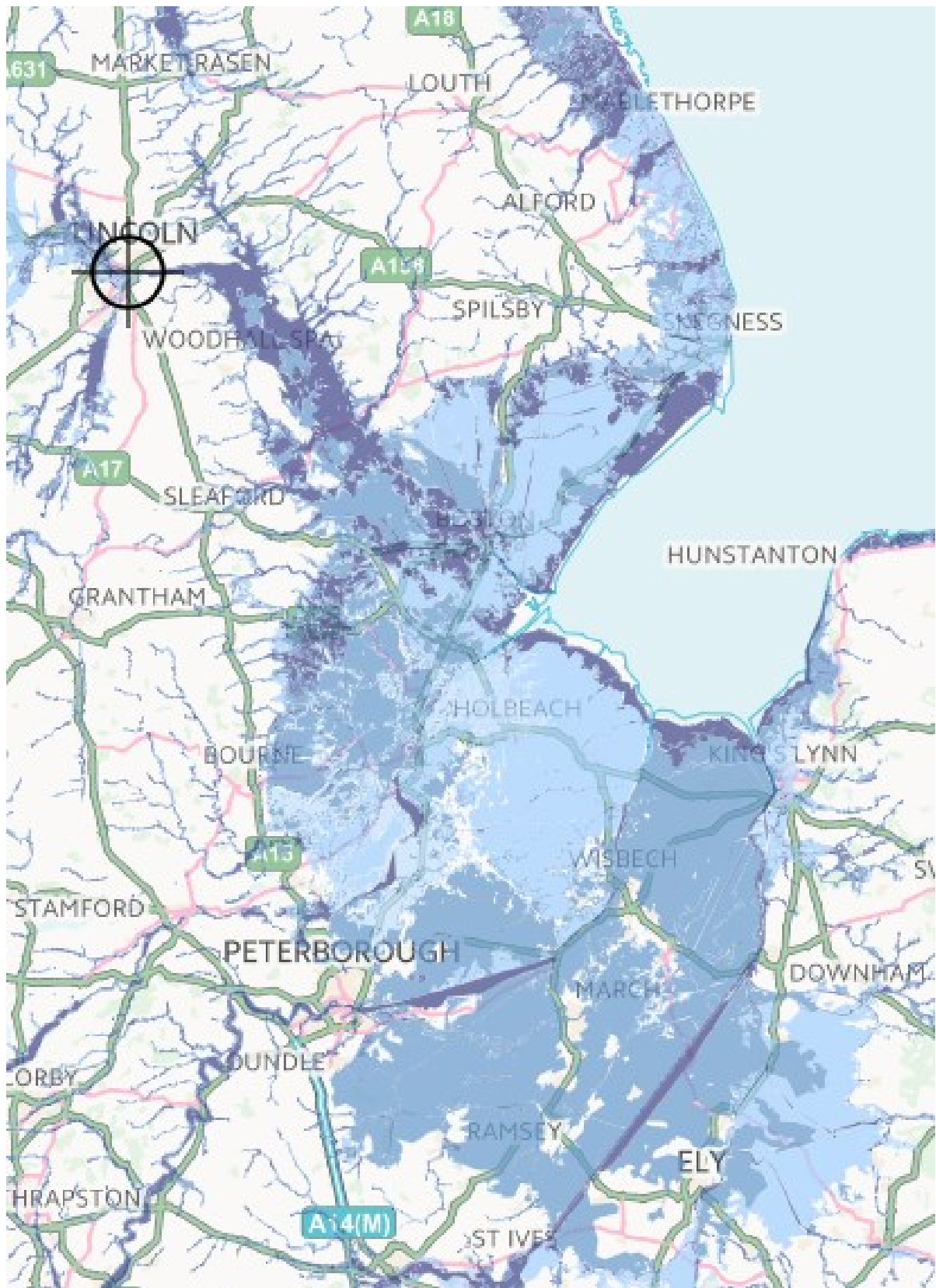
**Source:** adapted from Edwards (2017).



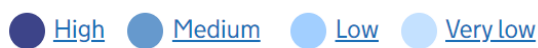


**Figure 75:** South East Lincolnshire regional authority analysis of the extent of current flood risk

**Source:** SEL-JPU (2019).



**Figure 76:** Government Flood Warning analysis of the extent Fenland flood risk from rivers or the sea



**Source:** UK Government Flood Warning Information Service (2020).





**Figure 77:** Environmental Agency Coastal evacuation routes in Lincolnshire

*Blue shaded area represents area identified at risk of flooding by the Environmental Agency*

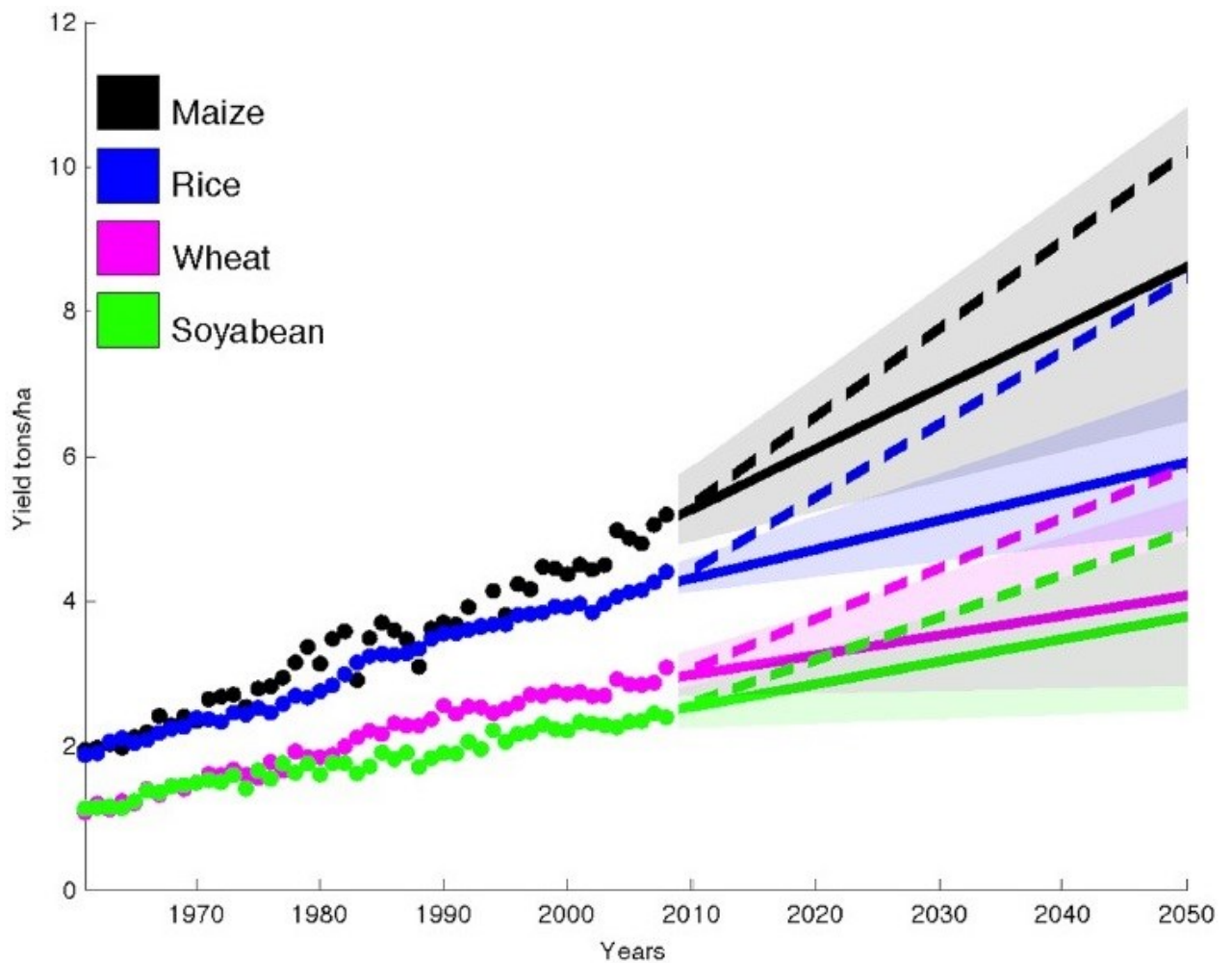
**Source:** Environmental Agency (2020).

### 4.3 Results from the scenario analysis case studies: the impacts of climate change on the UK’s main imported food commodities [RQ4]

Scenario analysis has long been part of trying to understand plausible outcomes for the future, certainly since Malthus (1798) predicted scenarios for population growth and food demand. Reilly and Willenbockel (2010) suggest there have been at least 30 analyses of global food supply and demand undertaken from 1950 to 2010. Since 2010, several studies have tended to develop scenario axes based on two dimensions of uncertainty, such as the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment scenarios shown in figure 81. The four scenarios present contrasting options for international cooperation and trade (global or regional) along with contrasting options for ecosystem management (pro-active versus reactive). This four-scenario approach was also utilised by a number of other significant studies, including by the Royal Institute of International Affairs (Ambler-Edwards *et al.*, 2009), the University of Cambridge in collaboration with the Institute of Manufacturing (Livesey *et al.*, 2010), the World Economic Forum (2017) and, most recently, by Benton (2019c). These models are shown in figures 6, 82, 83, and 84 respectively.

A considerable number of more recent analyses are increasingly suggesting significant yield reductions across a range of important global food commodities. It would appear that wheat, maize and barley are particularly sensitive to temperature change. Lobell and Field (2007), for example, put the annual combined losses of these three crops at 40mt per year since 2002, due to increases in temperature alone. Some climate change model projections suggest, however, that the threat of global crop yield reductions caused by higher temperatures and less soil moisture / precipitation will largely be offset by rising CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Easterling and Apps, 2005; Fuhrer, 2009; Lobell and Gourdj, 2012; Rötter and Höhn, 2015). Long *et al.* (2006) disagrees, seriously doubting whether rising CO<sub>2</sub> will fully offset the losses caused by climate change and Fernando *et al.* (2012) warn that rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations affects the mineral nutrient and protein concentration of wheat. Rising CO<sub>2</sub> levels also raises additional human health concerns, due to it lowering zinc, iron and protein concentrations and raising the starch and sugar content in crop such as wheat, rice and soyabeans (Elbehri, 2015). Extrapolating lab-based calculations into field trials, where many more variables exist, creates considerable uncertainty. Many studies recognise the uncertainty associated with such predictions and call for improvements in model capabilities as well as for local air quality and emission control strategies. Further studies model the impacts of increasing mean surface ozone concentrations which reduces the yield of many crops (Morgan *et al.*, 2006; Fuhrer, 2009; Avnery *et al.*, 2011; Hollaway *et al.*, 2012). Morgan *et al.* (2006) predicts surface ozone concentrations will increase by 23 per cent by 2050 which, Hollaway *et al.* (2012) argue, could reduce wheat, rice, and potato yields by 42.3–95.2 per cent, and maize and soyabean by 59.2–85.9 per cent. The total crop production losses from increased ozone levels are estimated by Avnery *et al.* (2011) at 79–121mt per annum. Another study considers 2.5 million yield records between 1961–2008, and observes 24–39 per cent of maize, rice, wheat and soyabean growing regions show yields as either never improving, stagnating or collapsing (Ray *et al.*, 2012). Collectively, these four commodities provide around 66 per cent of global calories; relying on such a small range of food commodities means increasing vulnerability to climate change (Panko, 2017; Tutwiler, 2017). Even though the overall picture suggests annual yield increases of 1.6, 1.0, 0.9, and 1.3 per cent, respectively, these are far below the 2.4 per cent growth required annually to meet projected demand by 2050 (Ray *et al.*, 2013). Similar findings are also reported by subsequent studies (Fischer *et al.*, 2014; Rötter and Höhn, 2015; Lunt *et al.*, 2016; FAO, 2017d), although Lobell and Tebaldi (2014) expect maize yields to be more severely impacted, with a more concentrated growing region and the crop more sensitive to temperature increases. The FAO (2017d) also raise concern about the level of yield growth since the 1990s (figure 75), as they argue the additional quantities of food required to feed a growing population needs to come from yield increases rather than expanding the land area required. During this time the global average yields of maize, rice, and wheat have been slightly more than 1 per cent, whereas soyabeans and sugarcane have been below 1 per cent. Figure 78 shows that where these growth rates need to improve for each of the four commodities by 2050 (maize by 67 per cent, rice by 42 per cent, wheat by 38 per cent, and soyabean by 55 per cent). Beyond

2050, the FAO expects even larger yield reductions caused by climate change that will impact the low- and middle-income countries in particular (FAO, 2017d). These are shown in figures 79 and 80.



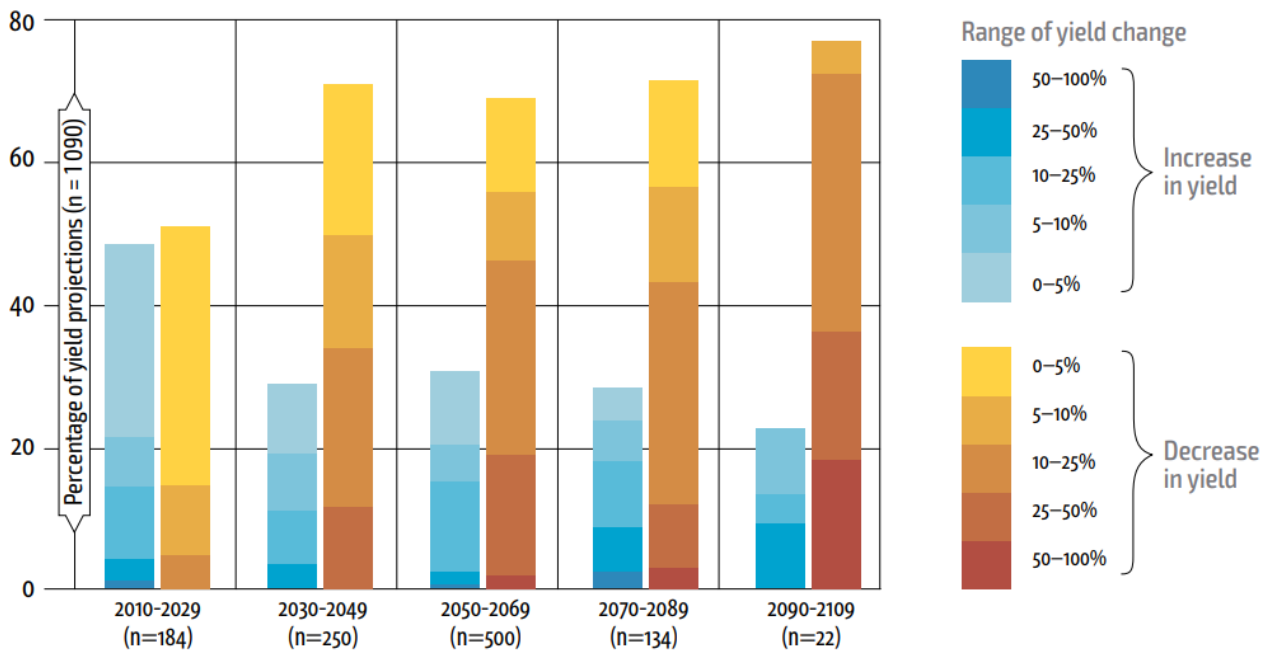
**Figure 78:** Global crop yield increase projections to 2050

*Observed area-weighted global yield 1961–2008 shown using closed circles and projections to 2050 using solid lines for maize, rice, wheat, and soybean*

*Shading shows the 90 per cent confidence region derived*

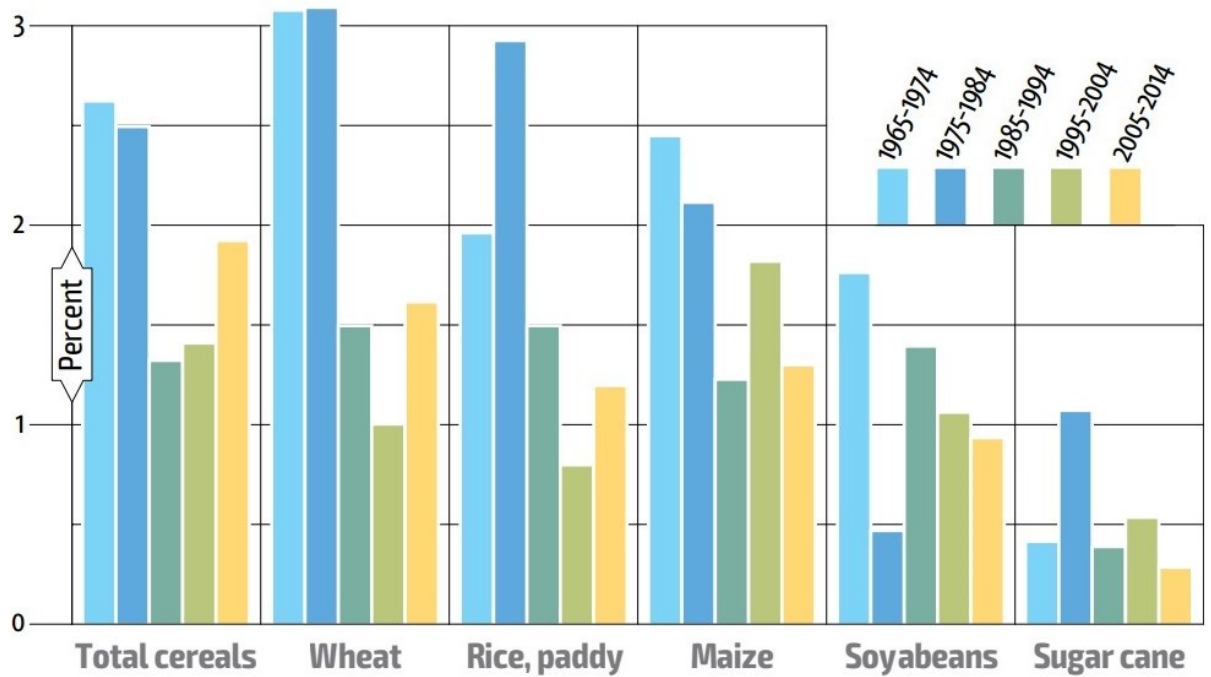
*Dashed line shows the trend of the 2.4 per cent yield improvement required each year to double production in these crops by 2050 without bringing additional land under cultivation starting in the base year of 2008*

**Source:** adapted from Ray *et al.* (2013).



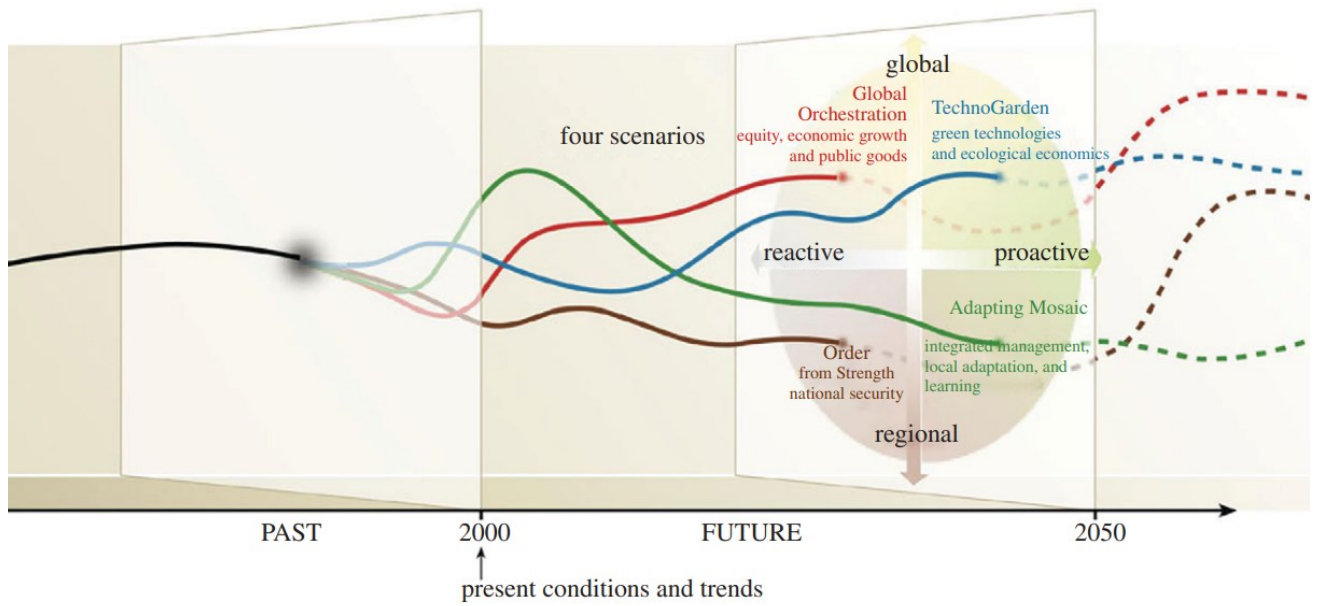
**Figure 79:** Projected changes in crop yields owing to climate change

**Source:** Porter *et al.* (2014) cited in FAO (2017d).



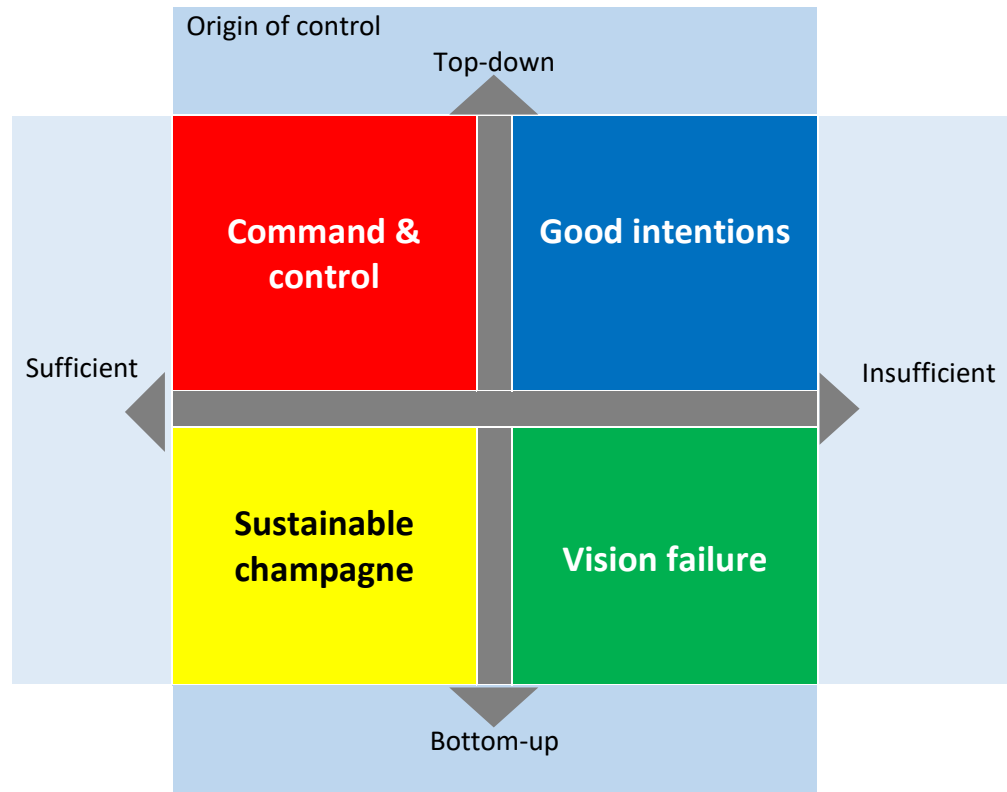
**Figure 80:** Average annual growth rates for selected crop yields

**Source:** FAO (2017d).



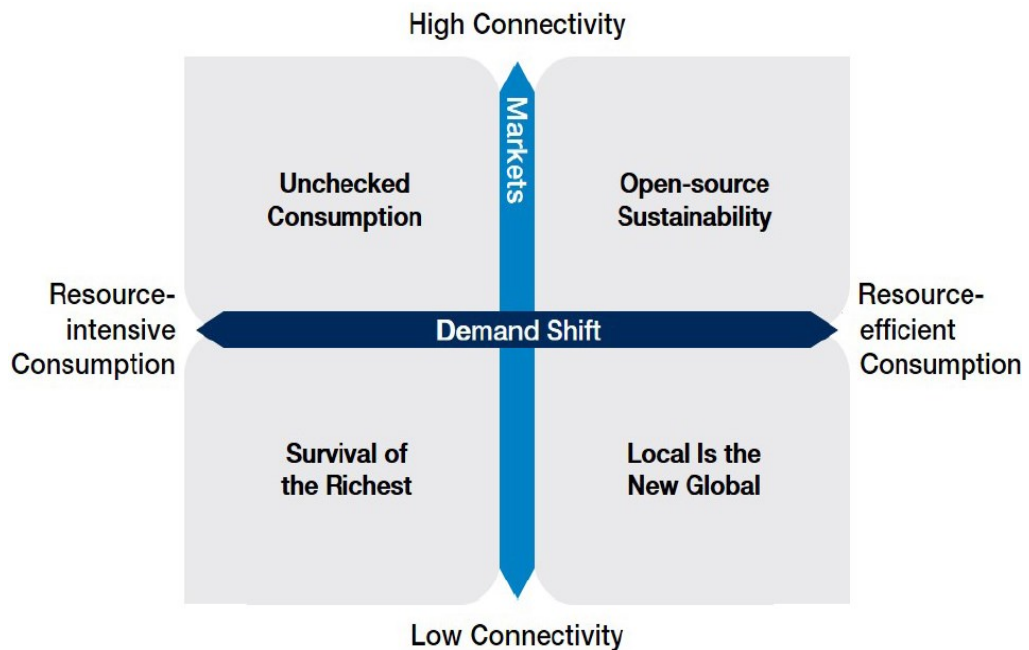
**Figure 81:** Axes of the Millennium Ecosystem Assessment scenarios

**Source:** Carpenter *et al.* (2005), cited in Reilly and Willenbockel, (2010).



**Figure 82:** Four scenarios based on impetus for change and resource availability

*Source:* adapted from Livesey *et al.* (2010).

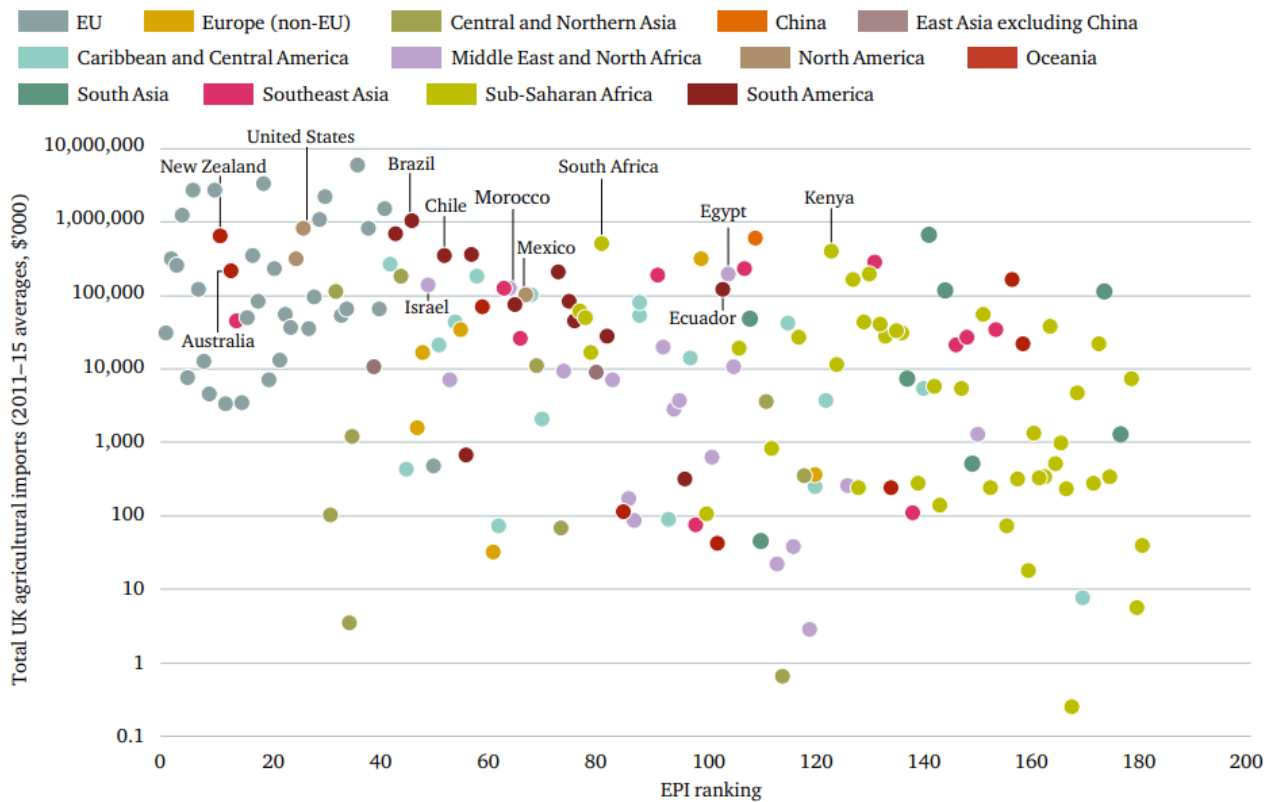


**Figure 83:** Four potential future worlds

*Source:* The World Economic Forum (2017).



The UK currently imports around half of all food consumed, which de Ruiter *et al.* (2016) estimate results in two-thirds of the land requirement being located overseas. Following Brexit, it is possible that the source of these imports may shift from EU countries with a high Environmental Performance (EPI) ranking to countries with lower standards (figure 84).



**Figure 84:** UK imports from EU suppliers with the highest environmental rankings

*The Environmental Performance Index (EPI) is a method of quantifying the environmental performance of a state's policies*

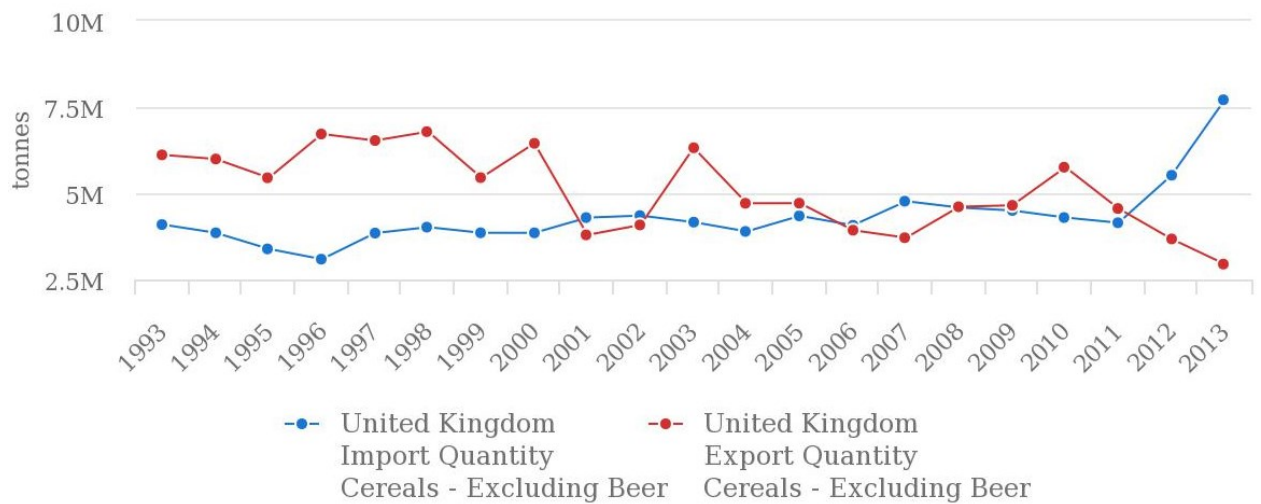
**Source:** Benton *et al.* (2019).

**4.3.1 Grains**

Cereal grains are the principal component of human diets around the world and have been for thousands of years. Wheat, rice, and maize alone provide two-thirds of all human energy requirements (Cassman, 1999) and over 30 per cent of the food calories for 4.5 billion consumers (Shiferaw *et al.*, 2012). Cereals are grown under four, main production systems: irrigated, multi-cropped, continuous systems such as rice in lowland Asia which account for 25 per cent of global rice production; irrigated rice and wheat double-cropped systems in India, Pakistan, Nepal, and southern China; rain-fed maize production in the North American plains supply 40 per cent of global maize supplies; and rain-fed systems in Europe that produce

20 per cent of global wheat supplies (Cassman, 1999). The role of existing and potential future diets is also invariably linked to cereal production. For example, Krishna Bahadur *et al.* (2018) estimate that current global cereal production is 2.5 times more than would be needed if everyone adopted the USA's dietary guidelines. Furthermore, Benton (2019c) suggests global fruit and vegetable production supplies only 20 per cent of what would also be needed. The main systems in which cereals are grown have arguably been the foundation of human food supply for the past 30 years (Cassman, 1999). The intensified crop management systems that have brought about previous yield improvements comprise four main components: improved germplasms; higher fertiliser usage; multiple cropping on the same land within one season; and irrigation (Cassman, 1999). These inputs often mean that grain production systems are increasingly reliant upon fossil-based inputs (D'Silva, 2017; Wang *et al.*, 2018). Proponents of sustainable intensification see further improvements in these components as vital in meeting future food demand (Areal *et al.*, 2018; FAO, 2018b), although the exploitable gap between crop yields and genetic potential is closing (Cassman, 1999; Król *et al.*, 2018; Kumar *et al.*, 2018). Sustainable intensification is also dependent upon improvements in soil quality as well as precise management of all production factors to limit environmental damage. The likely causes of long-term yield declines in rice and cereal yields, include depletion of soil potassium levels (Ladha *et al.*, 2003), climate change induced temperature changes from 1990 onwards (Brisson *et al.*, 2010; Hernandez *et al.*, 2010; Welch *et al.*, 2010; Butler and Huybers, 2012; Sánchez *et al.*, 2014; Valizadeh *et al.*, 2014; Butler and Huybers, 2015) and more frequent extreme weather events (Trnka *et al.*, 2014; Trnka *et al.*, 2015; Butler *et al.*, 2018). Asseng *et al.* (2015), for example, estimate that global wheat production will fall by 6 per cent for every additional 1°C of temperature increase. The meta-analysis by Al-Hadeethi *et al.* (2019) confirms that, although rising levels of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> has some yield benefits, grain quality decreases to such an extent that it compromises human health. Long-term yield stagnation has largely occurred within developed nations, including the UK, France and Germany (Lin and Huybers, 2012). Such observations have led to concern that production of cereals will be insufficient to meet population demands for food by 2050 (Gilland, 2002), especially given that over 30 per cent of the USA's grain production is diverted away from human foods into biofuel production and animal feed. Recent import trends are shown in figure 85.



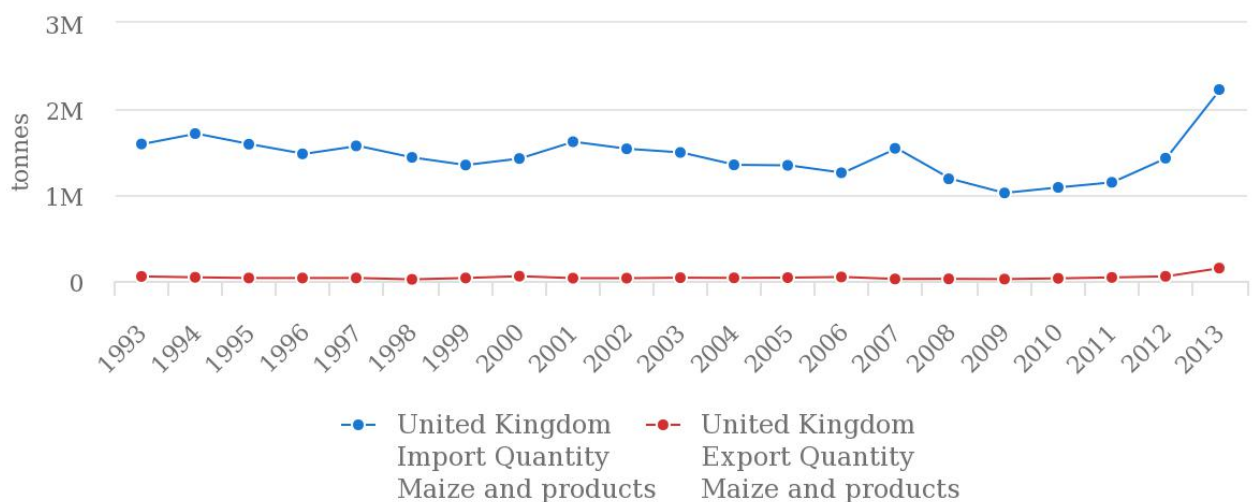


**Figure 85:** Cereal import and export trends in the United Kingdom 1993-2013

**Source:** FAOSTAT (2020).

Maize has the highest production of all cereals with 1,207mt predicted for the 2020 global harvest, up from 817mt a decade ago (FAO, 2020). The top three maize-producing countries in the world, the USA, China, and Brazil, produce around 80 per cent of the global crop (Ranum *et al.*, 2014). It is an important food staple as well as being used for animal feed and industrial applications such as bioethanol fuels, starch, sweeteners, beverages, glue, and industrial alcohol. Critics of industrialised maize production argue that such systems are highly unsustainable, with potentially global consequences. D’Silva (2017) lists burning forests, hunger, soil degradation, and the ‘massive’ fertiliser input requirements. Climate change and increasing weather variability brings additional challenges for Maize, including rises in abiotic and biotic stresses. Maize is heat intolerant. Should temperatures increase to over 30°C, yields drop away very quickly as higher night temperatures disrupt the pollination process (Lobell *et al.*, 2013; Hatfield, 2016). As production is increasingly unable to meet demand, especially with the USA consuming 40 per cent of its crop for fuel production (Ranum *et al.*, 2014), the market is becoming increasingly volatile and prices have risen substantially (Shiferaw *et al.*, 2012). Given its role in ensuring food security, Kent *et al.* (2017) estimate the probability of climate-induced, multiple breadbasket failure increases by 6 per cent each decade. With each degree Celsius of warming, the global yield of maize drops by 7 per cent (Zhao *et al.*, 2017). Tigchelaar *et al.* (2018) estimate that probability of simultaneous production losses increases by 7 per cent for 2°C of warming, but this rises to 86 per cent with a 4°C warming. This rising instability poses a potentially devastating impact for the 800 million people living in extreme poverty who are most vulnerable to food price spikes. This volatility is especially the case in years of limited water availability where rainfed production systems are used (Muchow and Sinclair, 1991). In rainfed systems, changes to rainfall patterns is also reducing yields (Murray-Tortarolo and Jaramillo, 2018; Murray-Tortarolo *et al.*,

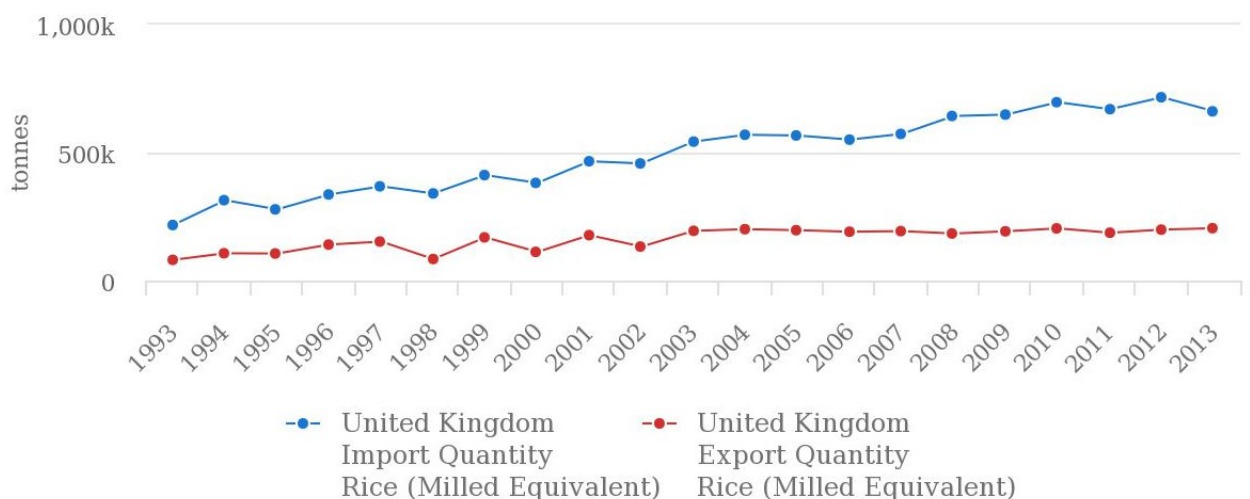
2018), particularly in the USA where increasing climate sensitivity is coupled with a growing specialisation in maize production (Ortiz-Bobea and Tack, 2018). Although improved crop breeding continues to bring about productivity gains (Osvald *et al.*, 2018; Allier *et al.*, 2019), the rate of improvement is currently insufficient to counter the negative impacts of climate change. This has led to calls for long-term, concerted and vigorous measures from both the public and private sectors, along with sustained governmental commitment and policy support, to avoid hunger and food insecurity for millions of poor consumers (Shiferaw *et al.*, 2012; Snapp *et al.*, 2018). The majority of maize grown for human food is produced in hot, arid climates where C4 photosynthesis takes place i.e. where plants are able to maintain low oxygen levels in their leaves by keeping the stomata closed to prevent water loss. In climates where C4 photosynthesis is not possible, such as the UK, maize is primarily grown for animal feed and increasingly as an energy crop for anaerobic digesters to produce biogas for fuel. According to DEFRA (2020), there were 558,446 acres of maize grown in the UK during 2019. This is a dramatic increase over the past 40 years when the area was less than 20,000 acres. Using such a large area of arable land to grow food for cattle and biogas has been controversial. The UK Soil Association, for example, instigated a major campaign to raise awareness to the damage the crop was doing to soil structures, and potential consequences in terms of food supply (Farnworth and Melchett, 2014). At the time, farmers were subsidised to grow biogas in addition to the subsidies from the EU Common Agricultural Policy; in total, over £33 million. The Soil Association argued that biogas production was not environmentally sustainable and policy should not encourage diverting land away from food production. Two years later, the UK government reduced the subsidy for biogas maize by fifty per cent (Melchett, 2016). Recent import trends are shown in figure 86.



**Figure 86:** Maize import and export trends in the United Kingdom 1993-2013

**Source:** FAOSTAT (2020).

Rice is the second largest cereal crop after maize at around 700mt annually, compared to 685mt a decade ago (FAO, 2020). As a staple food for more than half of the world’s population, the crop is critical in ensuring food security, with demand growing at 0.8 per cent per annum. By 2035, Seck *et al.* (2012) estimate population growth will create demand for an additional 116mt, with Africa alone needing an additional 30mt. This rising demand also causes increasing pressure on demand for land, and concern that increasing competition will draw land away from other crop production sectors such as wheat (Chang *et al.*, 2015). Other studies raise concern over the environmental sustainability of rice production: Sabiha *et al.* (2016) attributed up to 69 per cent of environmental damage was caused by the cultivation of high yielding rice varieties; and work by Kritee *et al.* (2018) calculates global rice cultivation is responsible for 2.5 per cent of current anthropogenic warming. Rice production is also impacted by climate change: with each degree Celsius of warming, the global yield of rice drops by 3 per cent (Zhao *et al.*, 2017); the further benefits of additional CO<sub>2</sub> may decline as temperatures warm beyond optimum photosynthetic levels (Easterling and Apps, 2005); higher temperatures reduce water availability; and, shorter growing seasons reduce yields by up to 24 per cent (van Oort and Zwart, 2018). Zhu *et al.* (2018) also found that increasing CO<sub>2</sub> levels will cause declines in the protein, micronutrients, and vitamin content (B1, B2, B5, and B9) of rice with potential health consequences for the poorest 600m rice-dependent populations. Yields vary widely depending on availability of irrigation; all of China’s production is irrigated, whereas more than 50 per cent of India’s and most of Africa’s crop is rainfed (Seck *et al.*, 2012). As such, Chapagain and Hoekstra (2011) argue that rice is one of the largest water consumers in the world. Recent import trends are shown in figure 87.



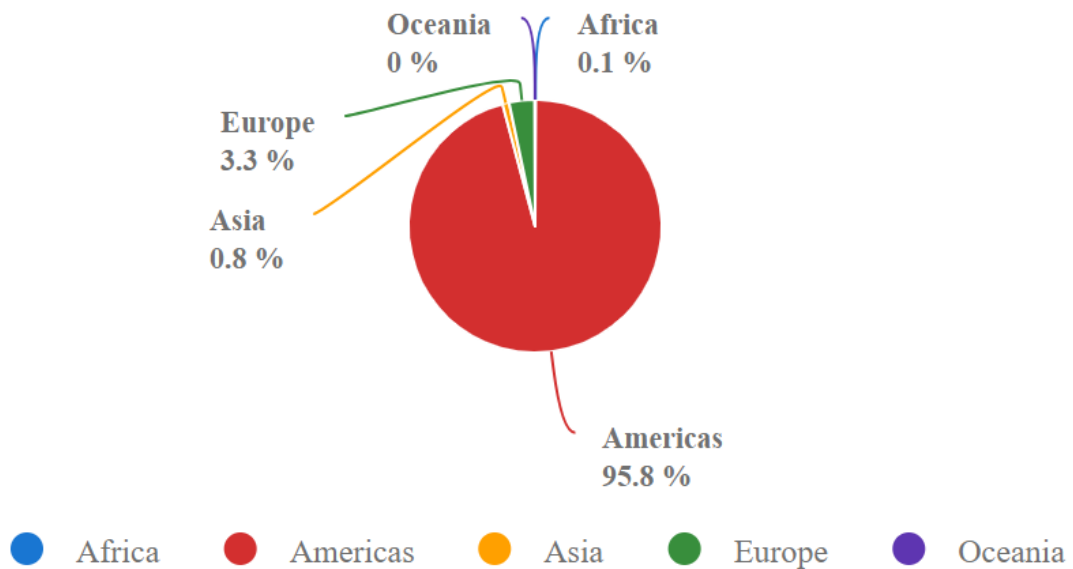
**Figure 87:** Milled rice import and export trends in the United Kingdom 1993-2013

**Source:** FAOSTAT (2020).

Global wheat production is forecast to reach 769mt for the 2020 harvest (International Grains Council, 2020). When measured by area, wheat is the most widely grown crop in the world, accounting for 11 per cent of total crop production (G20, 2018) and providing 20 per cent of the daily protein requirements and food calories for 4.5bn people (Shiferaw *et al.*, 2013; FAO, 2020). Production levels do not always meet demand, which causes market instability; by 2050, population growth is predicted to increase demand by 60 per cent, especially in the developing regions. Changing consumer tastes and the associated environmental, economic, and political issues risk increasing the demand for wheat in unsustainable ways (Roeder *et al.*, 2011). Current annual yield rises are below 1 per cent, lower than the 1.6 per cent minimum required to meet this demand growth (Trnka *et al.*, 2015). Agronomic improvements offer some potential for further improvement in yields (Ladha *et al.*, 2016), but limitations associated with genetic improvements, including being unable to control locations and linkage relationships, an inability to predict outcomes, and societal opposition remain (Blechl and Jones, 2009). To address this threat to global food security, the G20 instigated the '*Wheat Initiative*' to coordinate and stimulate research efforts. The G20 is, however, not without its critics, especially when their initiative to boost food production and relieve poverty required African nations to change seed, land and tax laws in favour of large global businesses over small farmers, was seen as a new wave of colonialism. Röder *et al.* (2014), however, suggests global demand could be met if northern hemisphere producers exploit the potential benefits for climate change by increasing production and narrowing their yield gaps. Nonetheless, current production is threatened by climate change, particularly through increasing temperature effects on growth and development; with each degree Celsius of warming, the global yield of wheat drops by 6 per cent (Porter and Gawith, 1999; Zhao *et al.*, 2017). The expected increase in the frequency of adverse weather events is also expected to reduce yields (Trnka *et al.*, 2015), especially given its vulnerability to droughts (Simelton *et al.*, 2012). Rising atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations also affects the mineral nutrient and protein concentration of wheat (Fernando *et al.*, 2012). The increasing use of fertiliser in wheat production is also a concern. These contain substances and chemicals including methane, carbon dioxide, ammonia and nitrogen, the emissions from which contribute to greenhouse gases. Global food production currently uses 100mt of fertiliser annually and, as their environmental impacts are not costed into food prices, there is currently no real incentive to reduce reliance on this fertiliser (Röder *et al.*, 2014). In the case of one of the 12m loaves sold in the UK every day, Goucher *et al.* (2017) estimate fertiliser accounts for 43 per cent of all GHG emissions associated with the product. The UK produced 16.3mt of wheat in 2019, with additional, high protein wheat being imported from Germany and Canada (DEFRA, 2019d). In many respects, a similar picture emerges with barley production. Total production amounted to 141mt in 2019 (FAO, 2020), making it the fourth largest cereal. It is predominantly used as flour for human consumption, for animal feeds and as malt in alcoholic drinks. UK production is around 8.2mt (DEFRA, 2020). In addition to the risk factors identified for wheat, Yawson *et al.* (2017) predict that the UK may face large deficits in domestic feed barley production, which will also impact future meat supplies. They also question where future

imports of barley or meat to address the deficits will come from. Xie *et al.* (2018) used climate models and scenarios to consider future risks to UK barley production; their research foresees barley's vulnerability to the threats of climate change-induced heat and drought resulting in higher beer prices. On a more positive note, Newton *et al.* (2011) see future potential for barley through the exploitation of the health benefits of whole grain and beta-glucans, its ability to adapt to multiple biotic and abiotic stresses, and overall resilience.

Soyabean is an important protein source and also grown for oils, flour, meal and milk (DEFRA, 2006e). Global production is currently around 346mt annually, significantly up from 230mt a decade ago (FAO, 2020). It is found in two-thirds of manufactured foods in the UK, the range of which is phenomenal: as an emulsifier in chocolate; breakfast cereals; gluten-free flour; high-fructose corn syrup in processed foods; ice cream; meat substitutes such as tofu; salad dressings; soya flour to extend the shelf-life of many products and improve the colour of pastry; soya proteins for biscuits, sweets, diet drinks, pasta and a variety of frozen foods; spreads; substitutes for those with intolerances or allergies such as soya drinks; and vegetable fats. It is also increasingly used in biofuels (Knoope *et al.*, 2019). Despite its versatility as a source of protein, especially in plant-based diets, around 75 per cent (by weight) is fed to livestock (Fraanje and Garnett, 2020). Garnett *et al.* (2014) estimate that soya intake in the UK is between 1-3.5g per day. Being a non-perishable commodity makes it ideal for global trading. The UK imports approximately 3.2mt of soya and soya products annually (UK Roundtable on Sustainable Soya, 2019). Most comes from South America, either directly or through the Netherlands, with the remainder from the USA. A further 0.6mt of additional soya is imported indirectly 'embedded' in products. The main soya exporting countries are shown in figure 88. Collectively, the USA, Brazil, and Argentina account for about 82 per cent of global production (USDA, 2020).



**Figure 88:** Exports of soybeans by region 1993-2013

**Source:** FAOSTAT (2020).

Soya is also leguminous, so it is able to fix its own nitrogen and so can be grown on poorer soils. Despite its popularity with those consumers seeking a more sustainable, plant-based diet, soya is however associated with a number of environmental concerns (Patthanaisaranukool and Polprasert, 2016). Since the introduction in 1996 of glyphosate-tolerant genetically modified (GM) soya has led to the expansion of the crop into previously degraded land (Fraanje and Garnett, 2020). At the same time, however, Bøhn and Millstone (2019) argue this has introduced thousands of additional tonnes of glyphosate into the food chain. The number of applications per season has doubled (from two to four), with the latter application now occurring later in the season and during the full-flowering stage of the plant. This not only increases the environmental burden of the crop, but also results in an estimated 2,500-10,000t of glyphosate entering the global food chain every year. Furthermore, Bøhn and Millstone (2019) argue that flaws in the current testing regime creates knowledge gaps and seriously underestimates the health risks to consumers. Wang and Serventi (2019) appraise the large volumes of wastewater used in soya processing. As the area in South America devoted to growing soya has increased from 1m acres in 1961 to 348m acres in 2017 (FAO, 2020), it has become increasingly associated with direct and indirect land-use change, loss of natural vegetation, and especially deforestation of the Brazilian Amazon, the Brazilian Cerrado, and the Gran Chaco region in Argentina and Paraguay (Garrett and Rausch, 2016; Sauer, 2018; West *et al.*, 2018; Fraanje and Garnett, 2020). Much of this soya is exported to China and Europe, where it is primarily used to feed animals, raising additional concerns about the sustainability of meat and dairy supply chains (Taelman *et al.*, 2015). Efforts to decouple soya production from deforestation, such as the Brazilian Soy Moratorium of 2006 and other certification schemes, are estimated to cover only 0.2 to 6 per cent of soya sold worldwide (Kastens *et al.*, 2017; Fraanje and Garnett, 2020). Since 2012, overall deforestation rates

in the Amazon has risen again, but the extent to which they are linked to soya production remains unclear (Garrett *et al.*, 2016; Garrett *et al.*, 2018). The election of a far-right, populist president in 2019 has also raised concerns in terms of the future of the Amazon in the consumer press (Sandy, 2019). Other environmental concerns associated with soya production include the impacts of growing biofuels on water availability (Knoope *et al.*, 2019). Finally, the role of soya within international trade remains contentious. Barth (2019) is critical of the USA 'Farm Bill' subsidy programme, in the way that it seemingly perpetuates support for producing low margin commodities frequently grown in vast industrial-scale monocultures that are associated with detrimental environmental and public health consequences. Such production systems ensure surplus commodities most years, ensuring prices remain low and thereby perpetuate the need for subsidies. Roe *et al.* (2019) recommends campaigns directly targeting consumers in the EU and China to reduce consumption of deforesting products such as soya and meat would offer the greatest emissions impact. Sun *et al.* (2018) argue that importing such foods can also damage the domestic environment and ecology. This argument is counter to the widely held belief that importing countries gain environmental benefits while displacing environmental costs to the exporting country. The authors cite the example of cornfields in Mexico and South America being converted to grow vegetables, demanding more nitrogen inputs, due to the influxes of cheap USA grains.

#### 4.3.2 Potatoes

Potatoes are the world's third most important staple food with 350mt being grown annually (Reay, 2019) to provide an important source of starch (Birch *et al.*, 2012). They are now produced on all continents except Antarctica and have expanded dramatically in developing countries within the last two decades. In the UK, potatoes feature on the PHE's Eatwell Guide and are considered as nationally important staple foods. Early work by Hijmans (2003) used a simulation model to predict the impacts of climate change on potato yields around the globe. It suggested that higher temperatures of between 1°C and 1.4°C would bring about yield decreases of 18 to 32 per cent (without adaptation) and by 9 to 18 per cent (with adaptation). These effects would lead to changes in the time of planting, the use of later-maturing varieties, and shift potato production geographically. In many of these regions, changes in potato yield are likely to be relatively small, and sometimes positive. At lower latitudes where shifting planting time or location would be less feasible, climate change would have a greater negative effect on potato production. Further research assesses the ecological and financial sustainability of resource-use efficiencies (Steyn *et al.*, 2016) and the socio-economic considerations of GM potatoes (Gillund *et al.*, 2016). A number of studies assess specific impacts on UK production. Yakovleva (2009) uses a case study on these effects on the potato supply chain and evaluates options to ensure sustainability. This finds that potato producers are the most vulnerable part of the supply chain and recommends improving genetic variability, quality and water management. Knox *et al.* (2011, p.82) use scenario analysis for production in Norfolk, Lincolnshire, and Suffolk, warning that irrigation needs may exceed current capacity for around

half of future years and the economic risks expected from flooding. Their report to the UK Potato Council recommends wide-ranging adaptations, including ‘earlier planting and harvest dates, better adapted varieties, less dependence on soils with low water holding capacities, moving the production to regions with suitable agroclimate and water availability, and the uptake of GM technology’. Research by Cranfield University (2015) studies the potential and wide-ranging impacts of extreme weather events such as coastal and inland flooding on potato production, including to yields, resources, operations (including markets), supply, and processing. The frequency of extreme weather events is also analysed by Adesina and Thomas (2020), who note the 2006, 2012, and 2018, potato growing seasons were all affected, especially in regions such as the Lincolnshire Fens. Higher temperatures are a particular concern, with studies attempting to ascertain whether potatoes can withstand high temperatures in realistic conditions (Lehretz *et al.*, 2019) and the impacts of drought. This is seen as a particular risk in the UK, where few producers use irrigation and higher temperatures will increase evapotranspiration by 20-30 per cent (Adesina and Thomas, 2020). Reay (2019) warns the viability of rain-fed potatoes could shrink to 5 per cent of its current extent as droughts intensify with climate change, unless adaptations such as disease and drought-resistant varieties, investments in irrigation, soil management and greater nutrient efficiency are made. At the same time, Hess *et al.* (2016) estimate that with consumers switching preferences away from British grown potatoes to Italian pasta and Indian rice, this has resulted in an increase in blue water scarcity and a transfer of burdens from the UK to Italy and India (Hess *et al.*, 2016).

#### 4.3.3 Fish proteins

Fish presents similar challenges within current food-based dietary guidelines (Clonan *et al.*, 2011; Clonan and Holdsworth, 2012; Johnston *et al.*, 2014a; Dötsch-Klerk *et al.*, 2016; Fischer and Garnett 2016), especially as it is not adequately addressed within the sustainable diet literature (Farmery *et al.*, 2017). Furthermore, to continue eating fish at the current recommended intake levels will invariably exceed the current and future availability of fish stocks (Dötsch-Klerk *et al.*, 2016; WWF, 2019a; WWF, 2019b). Climate change will continue to disrupt marine ecosystems, so there is a need to improve fisheries governance, in areas such as the high seas (HLPE, 2014b; Alberro, 2018; Cheung *et al.*, 2019) and even the EU, where politicians have ignored scientific advice over fish stocks for decades (The Economist, 2014c; 2014d).

Although fish have been exploited since at least Palaeolithic times, archaeological evidence suggests quantities peaked during the Roman Empire, but then declined during the middle ages (Scarce, 2009). By the 1300s, however, England had established distribution networks which enabled cart traffic from the coastal fisheries to cover the interior markets. But reports of hyper abundance and the rapaciousness of many natural resources are described by Hoffmann (2005) as myths. The decline in quantities of



freshwater fish available for consumption in the UK coincides with the sudden development of commercial sea fishing. Archæologists now believe this began around the year 1000, as advances in isotopic sampling techniques now reveal fish coming from farther away with the development of long-distance trade. In Southampton, for example, the point at which marine species remains outnumber fresh water species has been dated quite precisely to the year 1030 (Boissoneault, 2019). Zooarchæological evidence has also been used to demonstrate that changes in UK populations of natural herring and cod occurred as early as 600, predating the expansion of England's sea fisheries by at least 400 years, with the similar date of 1000 marking the greatest shortfall in availability (Barrett *et al.*, 2004; Barrett, 2016a; Barrett, 2016b; Barrett, 2019). By the 1300s, population levels remained high, but further strains were also starting to appear in food supply. Malnutrition is thought to have developed gradually during this period which lowered resistance to disease. The competition for resources led to a greater incidence of warfare, at the same time as increasingly lower temperatures depressed crop yields (Grove, 2004; Matthews and Briffa, 2005). The Great Famine of 1315 and outbreaks of the Black Death (plague) in 1348 and 1420 caused rapid declines of more than 50 per cent of the population, with the resultant profound impacts on the economy and society lasting for many years (Virgili, 2020). Perhaps rather obviously, traditional historiography sees this period as characterised by a long period of instability and economic recession. Goldberg (2004), however, argues that despite the disruption and friction, those remaining found themselves better off, with greater resource availability and higher wages for labour. The resultant responses by government to impose price and wage controls triggered the Peasants' Revolt of 1381. Furthermore, Brenner (1976) cites the influence of feudal control over rents causing subsistence survival and hereditary sub-division of peasant farms as limiting both the economies of scale and productivity of the food system. The above scenarios led Bois (1998) to question whether the appearance of the plague was accidental or part of a much wider process.

Marine fishing became an increasingly profitable enterprise for British fishermen throughout the mid to late Middle Ages. Tittler (1977) describes the annual summer to autumn harvests of local herring, followed by spring and early summer catches of cod and ling off the Icelandic coast. Holm *et al.* (2019) estimate a 15-fold increase in the amount of cod caught in the North Atlantic around 1500. When the Tudor warship Mary Rose sank off the coast of southern England in 1545, it was full-freighted and in the midst of conflict with the French fleet in the battle of the Solent. A study by Hutchinson *et al.* (2015), employing DNA and stable isotope analyses on the cod stored in the ship's larder not only provides evidence of the continuation of the Icelandic fishing activities, but also reveals evidence of cod sourced from Newfoundland in eastern Canada. The English Newfoundland fishery had been established in 1502, with round trips taking between three to six months. This suggests that demand for fish was exceeding national supplies, and that globalised fisheries were already well established. Despite the increased levels of trade and competition from government-subsidised fleets such as the Dutch, the trade became

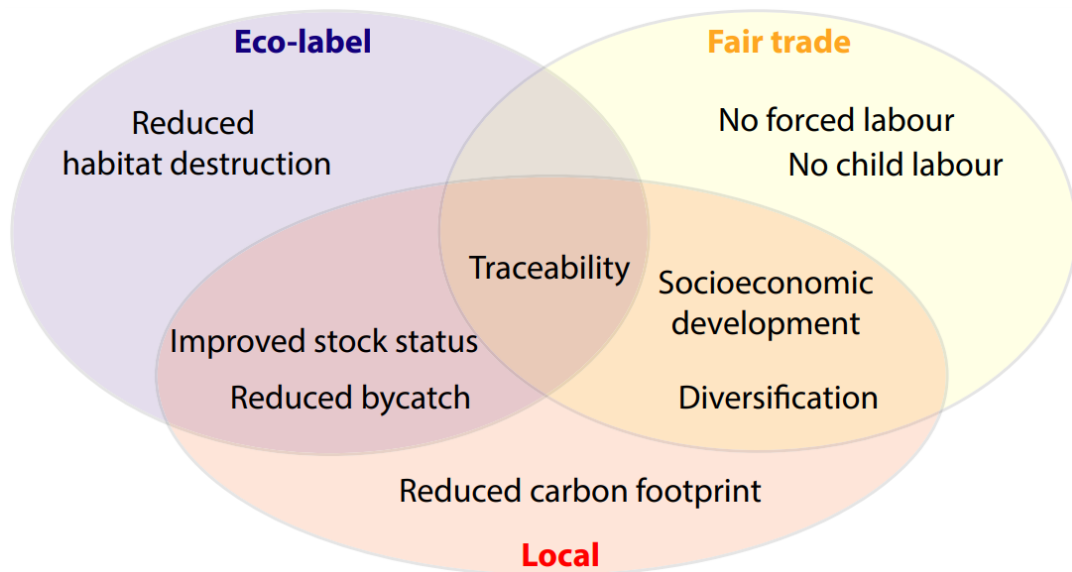
synonymous with the nation's strong maritime tradition that laid the foundations for sea-borne colonial expansion (Rappaport, 2017).

Fish is the largest source of animal protein globally and is arguably one of the most important foods in the history of humanity. The current annual amount of fish used is around 179mt, of which 156mt is consumed directly by humans (FAO, 2020). This latest FAO data is taken from the year 2018, which set new records in terms of total production, trade and consumption: fish capture has increased by 14 per cent since the base year 1990; aquaculture correspondingly increased by 527 per cent; and consumption during the same time by 122 per cent. Average annual growth rates across both sectors are significant at around 8.8 per cent (Kumar, 2014). Fish provides 17 per cent of the total animal protein and 6 per cent of all protein consumed by humans (McMichael and Butler, 2005; Purvis, 2009; van Hoof *et al.*, 2019). Behind this growth, however, is a plethora of scientific studies and public concerns about both the current sustainability of this critical food source and the prognosis for its future (Hollingsworth, 2017). Collectively, these studies provide depth to a complex narrative; one which is full of major concerns such as: fish, human health, and marine ecosystems being on a collision course (Brunner *et al.*, 2009); where longstanding concerns over the tragedy of the commons remains (Hadjimichael *et al.*, 2014; Iizuk and Katz, 2015; Costello *et al.*, 2016; Webster, 2016); where claims that humankind has set sail on the wrong course, with every chance this will harm the very source of human prosperity (McMichael and Butler, 2005; Greenpeace, 2012c; Roberts, 2014); and predictions of a climate change-led perfect storm with the potential to drive the marine web, and the fisheries which depend on it, into collapse (Nellemann *et al.*, 2008; Barange and Perry, 2009; de Silva and Soto, 2009; Pickering *et al.*, 2011; Blanchard *et al.*, 2012; Cheung *et al.*, 2013; Cheung *et al.*, 2016; Dahlke *et al.*, 2018; Gaines *et al.*, 2018; Le Bris *et al.*, 2018; Moore *et al.*, 2018; Ullah *et al.*, 2018; Plagányi, 2019; Thiault *et al.*, 2019). The meridional overturning circulation is slowing, with serious potential consequences for fisheries (Easterling *et al.*, 2007), warming oceans threaten fish species (Cheung *et al.*, 2013), and ocean acidification has already decreased seawater pH by 0.1 units with further reductions of 0.3-0.5 pH units predicted, with disastrous consequences for shell-borne organisms, tropical coral reefs, and cold water corals (Barange and Perry, 2009; Cooley *et al.*, 2012; Heinrich and Krause, 2016).

From the perspective of marine fisheries there are numerous specific concerns. The oceans were once seen as inexhaustible providers (Delgado *et al.*, 2003) of low cost or uncosted environmental goods and services (Botsford *et al.*, 2009; Bostock *et al.*, 2010), but evidence of over-exploitation and unsustainability has been mounting for decades (Ye *et al.*, 2013). The global fishing fleet increased from 1.7 million vessels in 1950 to 3.7 in 2015, and is expected to reach nearly 5m by 2050, as developing countries continue their transition into motorised vessels (Rousseau *et al.*, 2019). Estimates suggest this is 3-4 times the number of boats than the annual catch requires (Pauly, 2009; McClanaha *et al.*, 2015). At present, Europe

dominates the global fishing effort, followed by Asia (Anticamara *et al.*, 2011). Monitoring and recording the activities of these vessels is challenging, especially given concerns over the accuracy of catch data (Cawthorn and Mariani, 2017) and evidence of under-reporting (Pauly and Zeller, 2016). Further studies report concerns over the incentive-driven, free market where industrialised fishing techniques have been increasingly practiced by these vessels since the 1950s (Pauly, 2009; Anticamara *et al.*, 2011; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Pauly and Zeller, 2016), exhausting fish stocks first in the Northern Hemisphere, before moving to the Southern Hemisphere, deeper waters, and developing-nation coastal waters. Kroodsma *et al.* (2018) used the automatic identification system installed on all industrial fishing vessels to track their fishing activity in over 50 per cent of the world's oceans. A similar approach by Tickler *et al.* (2018) records vessels from Taiwan, South Korea, Spain, and China travelling up to 2,500 miles to start their fishing activities. The techniques used by the wealthy countries who dominate industrial fishing (McCauley *et al.*, 2019) have contributed to the annual decline in fishcatch of around 1 per cent, reports of population collapse of some species (Easterling *et al.*, 2007; Pauly and Zeller, 2016), and the total exploitation of over 90 per cent of the world's marine fisheries since the 1980s (Pauley *et al.*, 2002; Delgado *et al.*, 2003; Pitcher and Lam, 2015; Gladek *et al.*, 2016). Österblom *et al.* (2015) observes that just thirteen corporations control 11-16 per cent of the global marine catch (9-13mt) and 19-40 per cent of the largest, most valuable stocks, and ecosystem-critical species. This domination extends through all segments of fish production, operating through extensive global networks that dominate. Pauly (2009) also highlights the damaging political power that companies like the Japanese Mitsubishi use to gain access to the few remaining plentiful stocks of tuna. In the UK, local extinctions have included Bluefin Tuna and Angel Shark; the once common Skate is now also virtually extinct (Purvis, 2009; Harvey, 2013). Sardines were also once abundant in UK waters and Herring was found in great shoals. Globally, many species are no longer counted in terms of monitoring fish stocks, as being so low they are no longer fished commercially. Press reports suggest some species are deliberately overfished to free up resources for other species, thereby enabling them to grow faster (Roberts, 2014). This is based on the theory that the maximum sustainable yield is reached when stocks are reduced by 50 per cent, or even as much as 80 per cent (Colloca *et al.*, 2013). From a biological perspective, these industrialised techniques remove mass and energy that is then no longer available to the higher trophic levels (Coll *et al.*, 2008) and threatens the bioeconomic sustainability of many species (Pelletier *et al.*, 2009; Yamazaki *et al.*, 2015; Dueri *et al.*, 2016; Martinet *et al.*, 2016; Tickler *et al.*, 2018). Wider human activities also contribute to deterioration of the ocean environment. Oils, fuels, polychlorinated biphenyls from plasticisers and fire retardants, polymers from plastic that gets into the ocean, and other persistent organic pollutants concentrate in the surface of the ocean (Radford, 2013). This layer is also critical to life in the sea, containing fats, fatty acids, proteins, floating eggs and millions of micro-organisms. The close proximity of the two mean that pollutants get into the food chain. Industrialised fishing also catches immature species (Vasilakopoulos *et al.*, 2011) and is responsible for the unnecessary killing of wildlife such as dolphins and seabirds (Clover, 2004; Pauly,

2009; Roberts, 2014). Despite the improvements in scale and technology Radford (2013) reports that, for every hour of fishing, fishing vessels catch 1 per cent of what they did 120 years ago. The total catch is, however, at least twice that needed to maintain sustainability (Coll *et al.*, 2008).



**Figure 89:** Classification of seafood sustainability initiatives with example goals

**Source:** McClenachan *et al.* (2016).

Aquaculture in both coastal and inland areas has been on a very different trajectory during this same time. It is arguably the fastest growing, global food-producing sector; by 2014 it accounted for more than 50 per cent of the world's fish (Belton *et al.*, 2018; FAO, 2020). Volumetrically, 90 per cent of commercial aquaculture occurs in developing countries, where it is a source of protein, employment, income, and foreign exchange (Hishamunda *et al.*, 2009). Here again, however, current practices and future prognosis particularly in terms of sustainability have been the subject of much academic debate. In particular, there are a number of key environmental concerns (Tisdell, 1999; Samuel-Fitwi *et al.*, 2012). Firstly, although species requirements do vary, most systems require wild fish to be rendered as fishmeal and fish oil for their food, with feed-to-edible product ratios of 3kgs of forage fish to produce 1kg of edible farmed fish seen as typical. With sole, however, Clover (2004) suggests a ratio nearer to 16:1 and, as the fish feed industry accounts for 36 per cent of the global marine catch, this is seen as representing poor sustainability efficiency (Tacon, 2006; Olsen and Hasan, 2012; Natale *et al.*, 2013). Studies call for the animal and fish feed industries to reduce their reliance on wild marine fish so as to not compromise the future of aquaculture, price volatility, or worsen food insecurity (Merino *et al.*, 2012; Bartolino *et al.*, 2014; Hixson *et al.*, 2014; Troell *et al.*, 2014; Carter, 2015; Lam *et al.*, 2016; Andrews, 2017; Froehlich *et al.*, 2018a; Froehlich *et al.*, 2018b). Current innovative solutions include GM plant-based feeds, but these may

well be resisted by the consumer (Kristofersson and Anderson, 2006; Lazard *et al.*, 2014; Schweisfurth, 2017). The increasing use of grain, soyabeans, lupins, and blended vegetable oils in fish feeds is also problematic, as these are lower in long-chain fatty acids (especially n-3 PUFAs) compared to wild-caught fish feeds, suggesting the health benefits of farmed fish are reduced (McMichael and Butler, 2005). Secondly, there are many environmental concerns associated with pollution from aquaculture (Papatryphon *et al.*, 2005; Barange and Perry, 2009; Duarte *et al.*, 2009; Pauly, 2009; Olesen *et al.*, 2011; Worm and Branch, 2012; Worm, 2016). These include waste from faecal matter and unused feed around the farmed area (Mungkung *et al.*, 2013), increased eutrophication potential (d'Orbcastel *et al.*, 2009) and the increasing routine use of antibiotics, antifoulants, and pesticides (Orsini, 2016; Edwards, 2017; Schweisfurth, 2017; McVeigh, 2019; Yamamuro *et al.*, 2019). Reverter *et al.* (2020) meta-analysis raise the prospect of those countries most affected by climate change at greatest risk from AMR and calls for immediate and urgent action. Also of particular concern must be the recent finding that Neonicotinoids may be used in fish farms to control fish lice (Macaskill and Leake, 2020). Kaiser (2005, p.195) found parasitic lice from fish farms caused '*a moving cloud of infection*' that passed onto other species, causing increased mortality in wild species such as salmon (Krkošek *et al.*, 2005; Hilborn, 2006). Paterson (2017), for example, raises concern over increasing mortality rates on Scottish salmon farms; the disposal of 10m salmon (or 22,480 tonnes) in 2016 suggests mortality rates of 25 per cent, and a doubling in just three years. Schweisfurth (2017) also reports on the decline of wild salmon and sea trout stocks due to parasitisation, suggesting some Scottish rivers are now close to extinction. Thirdly is the association between aquaculture and habitat destruction (Kumar, 2014) which can be both localised and far-reaching. Further concerns include water quality being affected by discharges to surface water, abstractions, the removal of sediments, and the replacement of stream structures such as weirs. Fourthly, escaping salmonids, for example, have been found to impact wild fish stocks by spreading disease, occupying their habitats, and interbreeding which risks losing genetic integrity (Eagle *et al.*, 2004; Papatryphon *et al.*, 2005; Standal and Utne, 2007; Olesen *et al.*, 2011; Orsini, 2016; Schweisfurth, 2017; Gibbens, 2018). This concern is further exacerbated when the farmed salmon is genetically modified, such as with the 'AquaAdvantage®' salmon now being farmed in Canada since approval in 2016 (Goubau, 2011; Thompson, 2017).

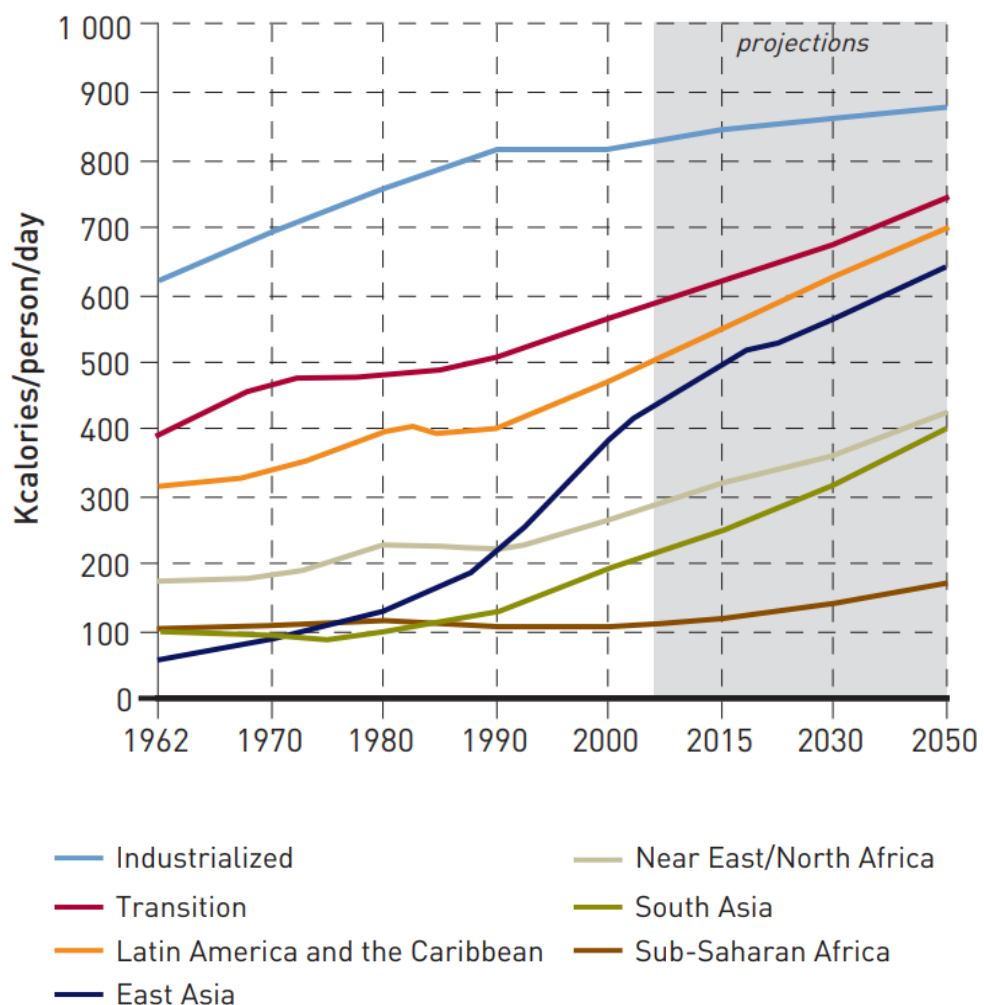
For the responsible consumer wanting to purchase sustainably sourced fish for the mainly, well-publicised health benefits that it brings, there is also need for clearer information. Exposure to a regular array of mixed messages is unlikely to help them make the right, well-informed choices. Dietary guidelines, such as the USA's 2010 iteration, advocate the doubling of fish intake but, given the future prognosis on the availability of fish, the sustainability of such advice has to be questioned (Love *et al.*, 2015; Farmery *et al.*, 2017). Studies using LCA of fishing systems show variable results, even within single species (Pelletier *et al.*, 2009; Mungkung *et al.*, 2013; Denham *et al.*, 2015), with reports suggesting that the carbon emissions

of lobster and shrimp are higher than chicken, pork, and sometimes even beef (Bryce, 2018). More fish is good for health, but too much is bad for the biosphere's health, and therefore ultimately human health too. Furthermore, using market power to make the right choices may in fact unintentionally harm the health of consumers in developing countries. Even within the UK, consumer decisions are far from straightforward. Whitmarsh and Palmieri (2011), for example, discuss the challenges of marketing Scottish salmon to consumers ever more concerned with environmental performance. When faced with messages advocating the need to eat less fish altogether instead of more sustainable fish (Esteban, 2011), or that eating a tuna role at a sushi restaurant should be considered no more environmentally benign than driving a Hummer or harpooning a Manatee (Pauly, 2009), it is perhaps unsurprising that such beliefs do not correlate with responsible purchasing or consumption behaviour (Verbeke *et al.*, 2007). Reports of the failure of metrics such as ecological footprint / sustainability index add more uncertainty (Roth *et al.*, 2000; Volpe *et al.*, 2013), as does the absence of environmental accounting for organic aquaculture (Georgakopoulos and Thomson, 2005). Furthermore, marketing techniques such as renaming unfamiliar species (e.g. shark into rock; slimehead into orange roughy; Patagonian toothfish into Chilean seabass) simply add further confusion (Pauly, 2009). From a health perspective, consumers have a real dilemma choosing between increasing consumption to improve health or being more sustainable by eating less fish (Mitchell, 2011). Fish represents one of the only significant sources of long-chain omega 3 fatty acids, but aquaculture-produced sources may be increasingly limited (Buttriss, 2010; McMichael and Butler, 2005; Byelashov and Griffin, 2014; Moomaw *et al.*, 2017). The use of prebiotics, non-digestive food ingredients that stimulate growth through the colon, also pose an additional risk consideration given the current lack of evidence on their effects (Ringø *et al.*, 2010).

#### 4.3.4 Animal proteins

The role of livestock within sustainable food systems is undoubtedly one of the most contentious and divisive. Protein is fundamental to human health, but current meat consumption levels and production practices are creating huge challenges for resources, the climate, and public health (Djekic, 2015; Forum for the Future, 2019). Although earlier reports had raised concerns over increasing demand for livestock (Delgado *et al.*, 1999) and its correlation with human population (Tran Thi Dan *et al.*, 2003), it was the FAO's (2006a) 'livestock's long shadow' report that first brought together the evidence on livestock's significant contribution to environmental problems and suggested the need for urgent policy reform (Ilea, 2008; Koneswaran and Nierenberg, 2008; Josling *et al.*, 2019). It called for urgent redress of the problem areas, including land degradation, loss of biodiversity, water shortages, air and water pollution and climate change, through cross-cutting policy frameworks. As such, it has become one of the most cited in both the scientific and consumer-focused literature, especially the initial estimate that livestock were responsible for 18 per cent of global GHG emissions (FAO, 2006b); later studies provide estimates of 14.5 per cent (Bailey *et al.*, 2014; Eisler *et al.*, 2014; Rojas-Downing *et al.*, 2017) and 23 per cent (Reisinger and

Clark, 2018). In terms of the total carbon amount that the global livestock sector is already responsible for, studies variously estimate quantities of 5.6–7.5 (Herrero *et al.*, 2016), 7.1 (Wellesley *et al.*, 2015; Grossi *et al.*, 2019), and 9.8–16.9 gigatonnes of CO<sub>2</sub>e released each year (Vermeulen *et al.*, 2012). These figures are a significant proportion of the total industrial emissions of CO<sub>2</sub>: for example, in 2018 Jackson *et al.* (2019) puts this at 37 gigatonnes. The current production and consumption of livestock products is impacting planetary life support systems and creating one of the most important ecological challenges facing humanity (Eisler *et al.*, 2014; Arcari, 2017; Mottet *et al.*, 2017; Greenpeace, 2018b; Vigo, 2018; Bowles *et al.*, 2019). The demand projections from the FAO (2006) are shown in figure 90. These projections are based on growing populations, increasing affluence, changing dietary preferences, and globalisation boosting the trade in livestock inputs and products. They also suggest that meat will more than double from 229mt in 2001 to 465mt by 2050; milk will similarly increase from 580mt to 1,043mt; such increases are reflected in later studies (Rojas-Downing *et al.*, 2017; Rööös *et al.*, 2017a).



**Figure 90:** Historical and projected food consumption of livestock products

*For past, three-year averages centred on the indicated year. Livestock products include meats, eggs, milk, and dairy products (excluding butter)*

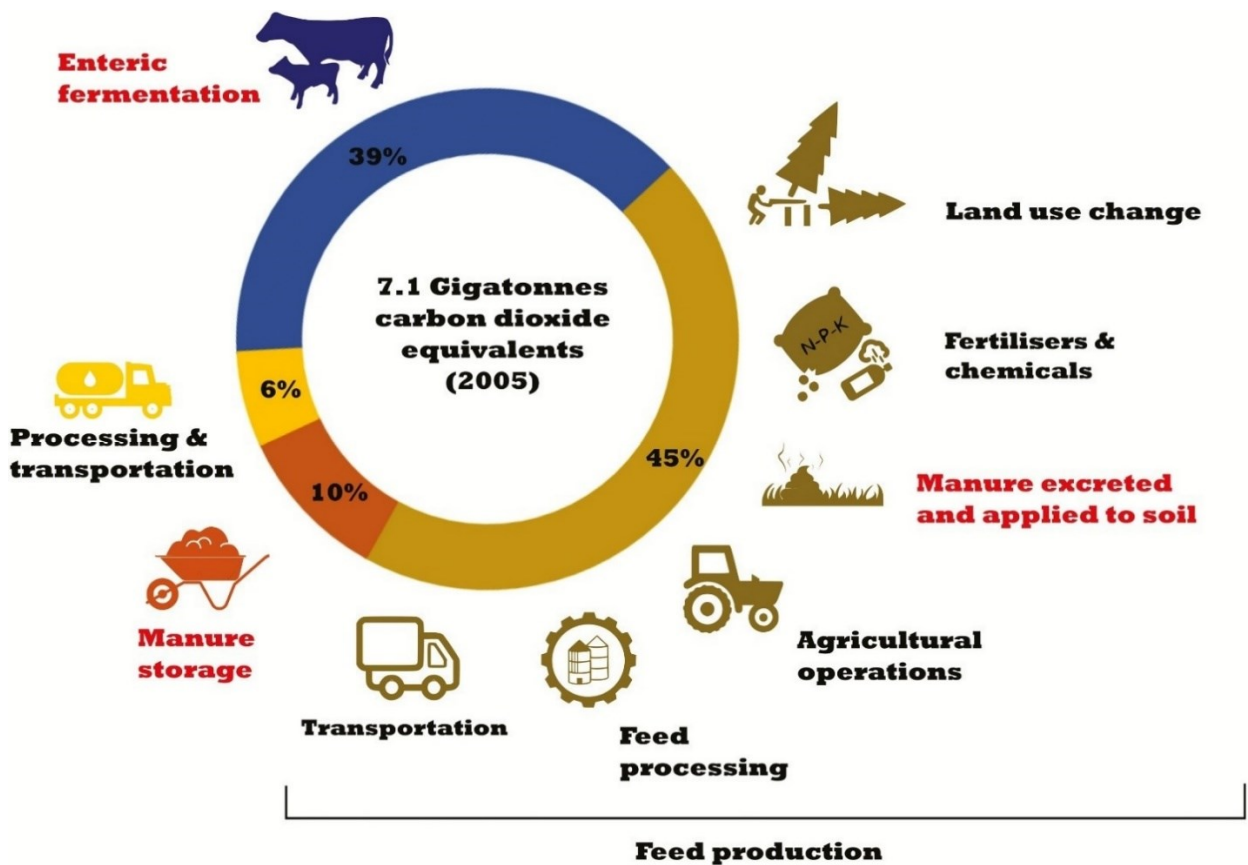
**Source:** FAO (2006).

In the case of the UK (figure 92), Benton (2020) suggests that livestock provide 18 per cent of calories and 37 per cent of dietary protein, but use more than 80 per cent of farmland and produce more than half of the GHGs. The growth in consumption is despite systems such as ruminant agriculture been seen as increasingly unsustainable, even though much of the UK's grassland is unsuitable for much else (Wathes *et al.*, 2013). Recent recommendations include a reduction in the consumption of livestock products, due to the increasing evidence associated with their environmental impacts (WWF, 2008b; Perignon *et al.*, 2016; Ponsioen and van der Werf, 2017; Bankman, 2018; Scott, 2018; Fanzo and Herrero, 2019; Hawkins, 2019). The WHO (2018b) also advocate the need for healthy diets that are sustainably produced and consumed. More detailed analyses suggest that the scale and type of the livestock system produces significantly different levels of GHG emissions (Clonan and Holdsworth, 2012; de Carvalho *et al.*, 2013; Clonan *et al.*, 2015; Hyland *et al.* 2017; Barré *et al.*, 2018; Benton, 2020). From the consumers' perspective, Macdiarmid *et al.* (2016) found a general lack of consumer awareness about consumption and climate change, followed by an unwillingness to adapt their behaviour accordingly. Yet, the need to address the consequences of livestock consumption is becoming increasingly urgent. Bryngelsson *et al.* (2016), for example, argue the only way that the EU can meet its climate targets is by reducing ruminant meat consumption by more than 50 per cent. Exactly how this can be achieved remains uncertain (Macdiarmid *et al.*, 2012), although Macdiarmid *et al.* (2016) suggest that such dietary recommendations would need to consider the cultural, social, and personal values associated with eating meat.

Grossi *et al.* (2019) provide a recent breakdown of sources of GHG emissions for livestock (figure 91). It shows feed production and processing contributing 45 per cent, enteric fermentation 39 per cent, manure storage 10 per cent, and 6 per cent for the processing and transport. Figure 93 shows the GHG incidences that enteric fermentation and manure storage have across the main global livestock species. Livestock production is associated with particularly harmful greenhouse gases: for example, 65 per cent of human-related nitrous oxide, which has 296 times the Global Warming Potential (GWP) of CO<sub>2</sub>, mostly from manure (FAO, 2006a; 2006b); 37 per cent of all human-induced methane is produced by ruminants (23 times as warming as CO<sub>2</sub>) (Wolf *et al.*, 2011; Wolf *et al.*, 2017; Lynch *et al.*, 2020); and, 64 per cent of ammonia which causes acid rain (FAO, 2006; Eisler *et al.*, 2014; Hansen, 2019). The 500L of methane gas emitted daily by every cow equates to 50 per cent more GHG emissions than 1 billion vehicles on the road at present (Barclays, 2019). Dietary and management options can reduce methane emissions without lowering production (Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011) and biogas used to provide renewable energy (FAO, 2006). Should livestock numbers continue to grow on the current trajectory, it may cause humanity to overshoot its safe operating space (Pelletier and Tyedmers, 2010), with the cumulative emissions accounting for one third of the remaining carbon budget under the 1.5°C Paris Agreement (Livestock Global Alliance, 2016; Forum for the Future, 2017b). Macroeconomic policies to ensure both sustainable production and consumption practices are urgently required as part of the transition to sustainable food



systems and ensuring humanity operates within its safe operating space (Buckwell and Nadeau, 2018; Bowles *et al.*, 2019). Djekic (2015) argues the environmental impacts of producing livestock comprise three dimensions: the consumption of natural resources, climate change, and environmental pollution.



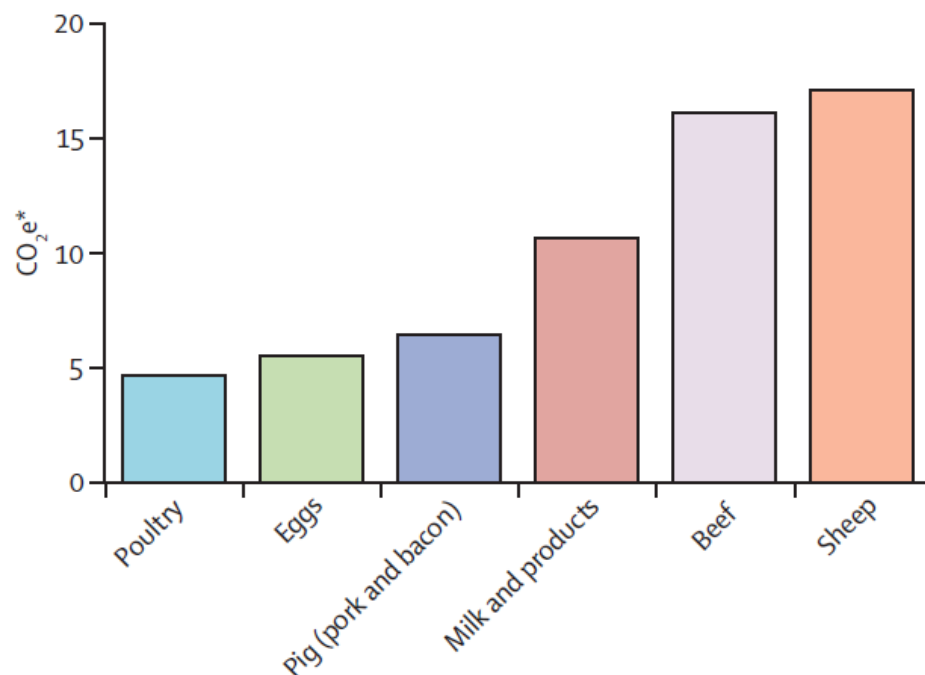
**Figure 91:** Livestock emissions by source

*Direct livestock emissions are shown in red*

**Source:** adapted from Gerber *et al.* (2013) cited in Grossi *et al.* (2019).

In terms of consuming natural resources, land-use and associated changes are especially significant. Livestock production already accounts for 70 per cent of all agricultural land-use, at around 6 billion acres (Mottet *et al.*, 2017; Fraanje and Garnett, 2020) or 30 per cent of the earth’s entire land surface (FAO, 2006a). It is also the single largest anthropogenic user of land by a considerable margin (Herrero and Thornton, 2013). Most of this is down to pasture, where grazing continues to degrade the land, despite increasing trends towards intensification and industrialisation (Pollan, 2006; Bailey *et al.*, 2014; Gladek *et al.*, 2016; Rööös *et al.*, 2016; Soder and Muller, 2016; D’Silva, 2017; Garnett *et al.*, 2017; Greenpeace, 2019b; Mozaffarian, 2019; zu Ermgassen and Yoh, 2019). Should the USA switch to grass-fed only beef systems, Hayek and Garrett (2018) estimate this would require 30 per cent more cattle and the present area of grassland could only accommodate 27 per cent of the current national herd. Land-use change, especially with deforestation, also has a dramatic impact (Peters *et al.*, 2014; Wellesley *et al.*, 2015; Global

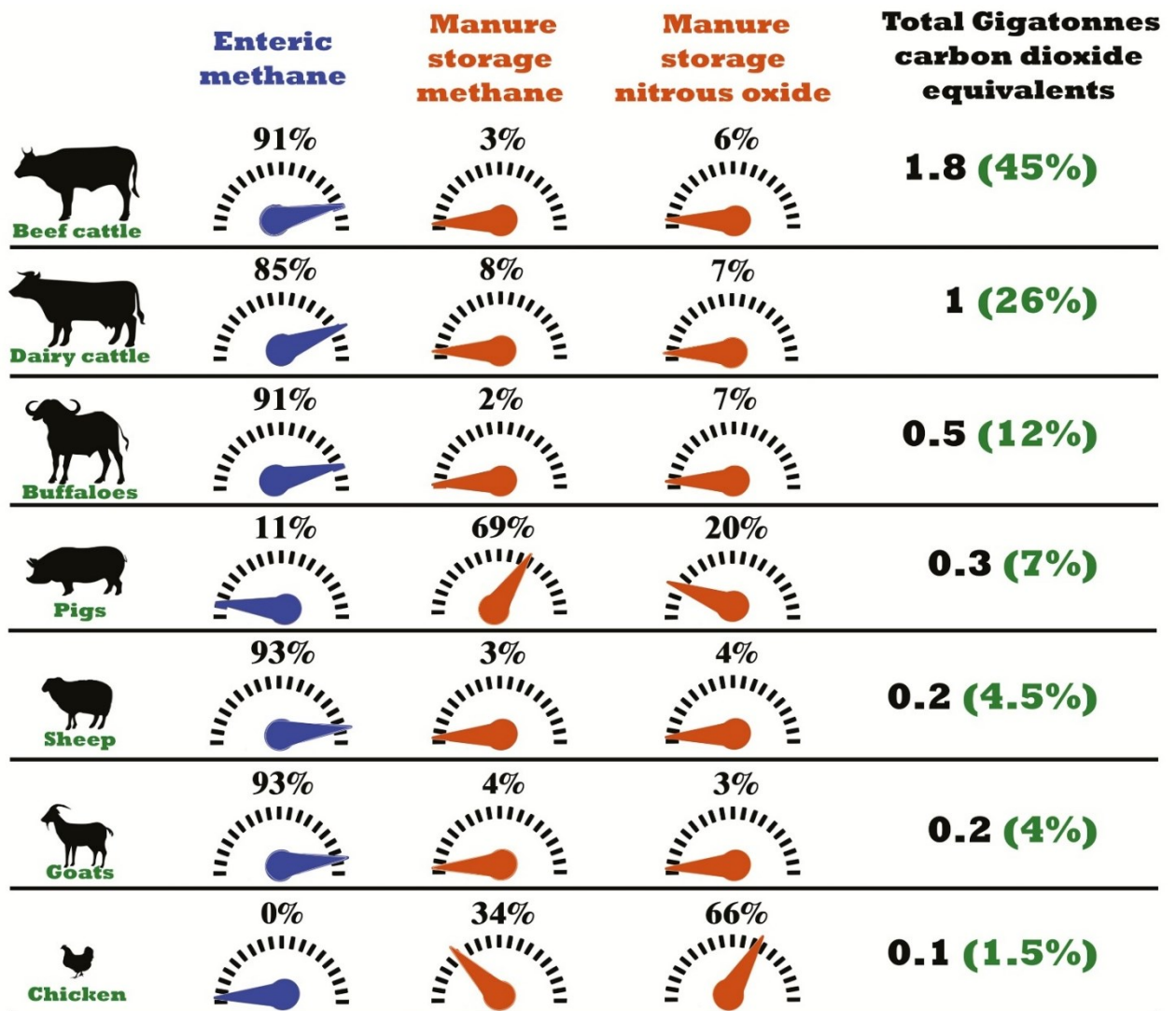
Forest Alliance, 2016; Greenpeace, 2018b; Phillips *et al.*, 2019; Spring, 2020). For example, between 1990 and 2005, 71 per cent of deforestation in South America was caused by demand for additional pastures; industrial livestock production systems such as Concentrated Animal Feedlot Operations (or Confined Animal Feeding Operations) and ranching are also replacing sustainable farming practiced by small farmers, communities, and indigenous peoples (Fiala, 2008b; Global Forest Alliance, 2016; Rotz *et al.*, 2019). To produce 1kg of meat requires around 2.8kg of human-edible feed in ruminant systems and 3.2kg in monogastric systems (Mottet *et al.*, 2017), so a further 33 per cent of arable land is used for animal feed, meaning livestock are actually consuming human-edible biomass (Van Zanten *et al.*, 2018; Karlsson and Roos, 2019). On a global scale, estimates suggest animal feeds consumes 1 billion tonnes cereal grains, enough to feed up to 3.5 billion humans (Herrero *et al.*, 2013; Eisler *et al.*, 2014; Davis and D’Odorico, 2015; Breewood and Garnett, 2020). Given the pressures of consumption growth ultimately increasing demand for land, there is an urgent need to find a solution to this complex issue. For example, increasing efficiency reduces land-use, but invariably creates higher inputs usage, waste, and pollution levels. The concentration into industrialised units, however, may keep the additional damage more localised and easier to regulate (Davis *et al.*, 2015; Garnett, 2015; Garnett, 2017). Research is also underway to find alternative sources of feedstock, such as the industrial production of microbial proteins (Pikaar *et al.*, 2018).



**Figure 92:** Estimates of total greenhouse-gas emissions for livestock products in the UK

*\*Tonnes of CO<sub>2</sub>e per tonne of carcass weight, 20,000 eggs (about 1 tonne), or 10m<sup>3</sup> milk (about 1 tonne dry matter equivalent)*

**Source:** Friel *et al.* (2009).



**Figure 93:** Greenhouse gases incidence of enteric fermentation and manure storage by animal type, expressed as gigatonnes of carbon dioxide equivalents

*Source:* FAO data cited in Grossi *et al.* (2019).

The existing literature provides a wealth of detail on the various livestock systems, including the problems associated with ruminants (O’Mara, 2012; Broom *et al.*, 2013; Eisler *et al.*, 2014; Niman, 2014; Mottet *et al.*, 2017; Bowles *et al.*, 2019; Costain, 2019; Jordan, 2019; Salami *et al.*, 2019) as well as the environmental consequences of different production systems for beef (Richards and Padilla, 2007; Nguyen *et al.*, 2010; Opio *et al.*, 2013; Eshel *et al.*, 2018) and lamb (Worsley, 2018). Dairy systems within broader processes of social-environmental change also receive comprehensive coverage too (Lassen *et al.*, 2008; Forum for the Future, 2012; Van Middelaar *et al.*, 2013; Dairy 2020 (Forum for the Future, 2014); Glenk *et al.*, 2014; Gollnow *et al.*, 2014; Herzog *et al.*, 2018; Clay *et al.*, 2019; FAO, 2019c). The various attributes of the monogasts has received less attention to date (Jensen, 1996; de Vries and de Boer, 2010;

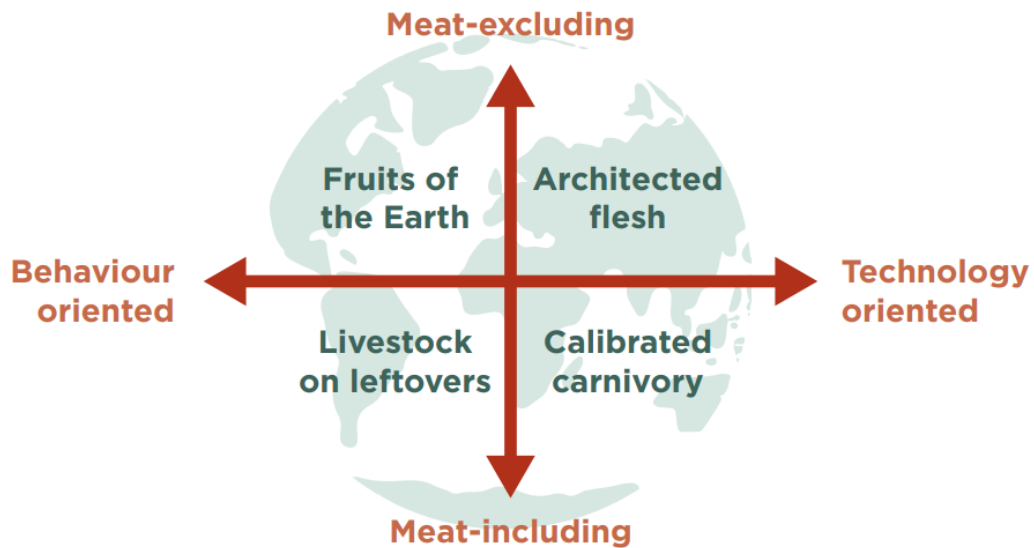
Vardoulakis and Heaviside, 2012; Lara and Rostagno, 2013; Rööös *et al.*, 2013; Mottet *et al.*, 2017; Young, 2017), although poultry systems are covered by Westgren (1999), Wang *et al.* (2010), MacLeod *et al.* (2013), the Sustainable Food Trust (2017a), Bennett *et al.* (2018), Rigod and Tovar (2019), and Rocchi *et al.* (2019); similarly, the various pork systems used globally (Taylor, 2006; Wognum, 2008; Leat and Revoredo-Giha, 2013; MacLeod *et al.*, 2013; Sonesson *et al.*, 2016; Rudolph *et al.*, 2018). Further analysis on GHG emissions of production systems in a range of different countries to date includes Australia (Peters *et al.*, 2010; Arcari, 2017), Brazil (de Oliveira Silva *et al.*, 2015; Gibbs *et al.*, 2015; National Research Council, 2015; Hajjar *et al.*, 2019), Italy (Farchi *et al.*, 2017), Norway (Austgulen *et al.*, 2018), and Sweden (Cederberg *et al.*, 2009; Hellstrand, 2013; Rööös *et al.*, 2014; Rööös *et al.*, 2016; Sonesson *et al.*, 2016; Rööös, 2017).

The environmental impacts from consuming meat and dairy produce are also integral to the debate on the drivers of climate change (Bailey *et al.*, 2014). The sheer scale and speed of growth of the global livestock sector has both caused problems that will invariably become worse with climate change, and risks influencing the climate directly (Nardone *et al.*, 2010; Herrero and Thornton, 2013; Havlík *et al.*, 2015; Garnett *et al.*, 2017). Of particular concern are the consequences of pollution on water and air quality (Mekonnen and Hoekstra, 2012; Hunt *et al.*, 2014; McKenna, 2017; Harris *et al.*, 2019), and the vast quantities of GHG emissions released into the atmosphere. Examples of pollution include from animal wastes, antibiotics and hormones (Wellesley *et al.*, 2015), chemicals from tanneries, fertilisers and pesticides used for feed crops, and sediments from eroded pastures; these can then contribute to eutrophication (Payen *et al.*, 2020), 'dead' sea zones in coastal areas, and the degradation of coral reefs. In the UK, antibiotic growth promoters were first permitted for use in 1953, following which AMR in livestock occurred almost immediately as Fleming (1945) had warned (Nunan, 2017). Across the world today, Nunan also argues that 110 countries have few or no regulations covering their use on livestock. China alone is estimated to generate 243mt of waste faeces every year; it also consumes over 50 per cent of global antibiotics (FAIRR, 2018). Climate change also threatens feed quality, water availability, milk production, disease incidence including zoonosis, and affects reproductive performance (Eisler *et al.*, 2014; Greger, 2017; Rojas-Downing *et al.*, 2017; FCRN, 2018k). Livestock are also one of the main threats to biodiversity, which arises from their impacts on climate, air, water, and land (Shiva, 2019a). As they account for 20 per cent of the total terrestrial animal biomass and use 30 per cent of the land surface, much of this will have caused habitat loss in the natural ecosystem there previously (Bernués, 2017; Hansen, 2019). This invariably leads to a number of consequences, including land degradation, pollution, sedimentation of coastal areas, facilitating invasive species, and species endemism (i.e. the ecological state of a species being unique to a defined geographic location) (Rööös *et al.*, 2014; Stoll-Kleemann and O'Riordan, 2015; Wirsenius *et al.*, 2017). The tools available for measuring and benchmarking emissions is also studied extensively (IDF, 2010; de Boer *et al.*, 2011; Flachowsky and Kamphues, 2012; Lebacqz *et al.*, 2012).

*al.*, 2012; Roy *et al.*, 2012; Weiss and Leip, 2012; Gerber *et al.*, 2013; MacLeod *et al.*, 2013; O'Brien *et al.*, 2013; Opio *et al.*, 2013; Rööß *et al.*, 2013; Vellinga *et al.*, 2013; Liedke, 2014; Djekic and Tomasevic, 2016; DeWeerd, 2017; Layman, 2018; McAuliffe *et al.*, 2018; Eme *et al.*, 2019).

The role of livestock protein within a healthy diet is also the topic of much debate. Garnett *et al.* (2017) recognises its various virtues: as a popular protein with consumers; with high nutrient density; and a culturally significant food. Piazza *et al.* (2015) evaluates the traditional rationalisation of meat consumption, especially those consumers who believe that eating meat is natural, normal, necessary, and nice. Lang *et al.* (2010) sees a battle for hearts and minds over the place of meat within culture, whereas Sutton and Dibb (2013) suggest placing more value on meat. It may also provide income, livelihoods, and food security, as well as traditionally being used to transfer nutrients from grassland onto crops through waste manures. Increasing consumption of meat and dairy products was also seen as an indicator of both progress (Lang, 2017f) and affluence (Godfray *et al.*, 2018). Despite these contributions, however, Thornton (2010) argues that future demand will be moderated by socio-economic factors including human health concerns and changing socio-cultural values. Anthropogenic CO<sub>2</sub> emissions from livestock are contributing to the increasingly adverse health consequences of climate change, threatening the availability of food in many countries (McMichael *et al.*, 2007) and widening the disparity in protein intakes with disproportionate impacts for those on plant-based diets (Medek *et al.*, 2017). Garnett (2015) considers consumer behaviour when it comes to buying meat and develops a scenario model to better understand the complex beliefs and ideologies that underpin their decisions, as well as the polarisation that exists. This allows typologies to be extended (figure 94): proponents of intensive and efficient systems could see artificial meat as a logical way forward (Gaffney *et al.*, 2019); proponents might, however, see this artificial meat as a threat to health and move more towards what they see as higher quality, grass-fed beef using ecological leftovers; for those who see eating meat as morally wrong (Graça *et al.*, 2014), consuming animals fed on ecological leftovers would still be unacceptable whereas artificial meat may be more acceptable. Consumer choices are also influenced by sensory-based associations and conceptual interpretations of social situations (de Boer and Aiking, 2017; Chiles and Fitzgerald, 2018; Eker *et al.*, 2019), as well as targeted, persuasive messages regarding meat (Apostolidis and McLeay, 2016; Palomo-Vélez *et al.*, 2018), all of which would need bridging frames to encourage dietary reductions in meat. The role of meat within the diet has long been debated by those in the health professions community; the meta-analysis by Chen *et al.* (2013) found a clear correlation between the consumption of red and processed meat and an increased risk of strokes, especially ischemic stroke; various other systematic reviews have established clear links between levels of meat consumption, CVD and cancer risk (Rayner and Scarborough, 2017). Today, many countries issue advice to lower meat consumption to reduce this risk accordingly through their dietary guidelines, although few have yet to factor-in the additional benefits from a planetary perspective. Clonan *et al.* (2015, p.2446) also calls for health

professionals to help increase the public's awareness of the environmental impact of eating red and processed meat and for policymakers 'to ensure that dietary guidelines integrate the nutritional, animal welfare and environmental components of sustainable diets'. Eme *et al.* (2019) compared 52 previous methodological approaches towards assessing sustainable diets to design a proposed framework to guide such dietary transitions.



**Figure 94:** Four scenarios for future animal protein production

**Source:** Garnett (2015).

Further studies add to the knowledge base by making specific dietary and behavioural recommendations concerning the consumption of livestock products. Hoolohan *et al.* (2013) illustrates how British consumer choices could help reduce the average, daily, food-related GHG emissions from 8.8 kg CO<sub>2</sub>e person<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. Here specifics include removing meat from the diet (35 per cent reduction), moving from carbon-intensive meats such as lamb and beef to less carbon-intensive options such as pork and chicken (18 per cent reduction), eliminating all avoidable waste (12 per cent reduction), and not consuming foods grown in hot-houses or air-freighted (5 per cent reduction). They conclude that such actions would easily bring down food-related GHG emissions by 25 per cent which, if adopted by the whole population, would be equivalent to 50mt CO<sub>2</sub>e year<sup>-1</sup> or 71 per cent of emissions from all cars. The UK-based CSO Eating Better identifies key drivers that provide opportunities to encourage dietary shift (table 17) and calls upon governments, public health bodies, business, researchers and CSOs to work together to address the interlinked issues of climate change, public health, and fair and human access to food worldwide (Dibb and Fitzpatrick, 2014; Dibb and de Llaguno, 2018).

<i>Driver</i>	<i>Opportunities</i>
1. Habits	Non-meat or lower-meat choices to be good value, accessible and desirable tasty choices
2. Cultural significance of meat eating	Opportunity to draw on traditional diets based on low meat/plant-based eating e.g. Mediterranean diet, Asian and Middle Eastern cuisines
3. Price/cost	Lower meat diets can save money and enable 'better' meat choices within the same budget
4. Convenience	Food companies and the food service sector to offer more non-meat and lower meat meal alternatives. Education to increase cooking skills for plant-based eating
5. Interest in health	Promotion of strong public health messages on health benefits of lower meat and plant-based diets. Myth busting information provision on nutritional adequacy of lower/non meat eating e.g. protein and iron. Reducing meat, rather than eliminating it completely to offer nutritional reassurance
6. Awareness of the environmental impacts	Awareness raising campaigns, information, education and better labelling (where appropriate)
7. Concern for animal welfare	Opportunities to link animal welfare concerns to wider environmental and health concerns to encourage less and better meat eating. Greater provision and promotion of meat produced to higher animal welfare standards
8. Interest in provenance and traceability	Opportunity to connect people with where their food comes from and the people that produce it, and offer higher quality/taste, environmental, welfare standards and better returns to producers/local economy. Food retailers and caterers, to include 'local' distinctiveness as part of 'better' meat offer
9. Knowledge about alternatives to meat	Growth in meat replacement and meat alternative market provides opportunities to help consumers transition to a lower meat diet
10. Food scares	Opportunity to raise awareness of 'better' meat choices or meat alternatives

**Table 17:** Ten drivers to provide opportunities to encourage dietary shift

**Source:** Eating Better (Dibb and Fitzpatrick, 2014).

The literature also considers the alternative sources of protein for meat (Pluhar, 2009; Ercin *et al.*, 2012; Wellesley *et al.*, 2015; Bianchi *et al.*, 2018; Buckwell and Nadeau, 2018; Rödl, 2018; Shepon *et al.*, 2018; Baggini, 2019; Mozaffarian, 2019; Sexton *et al.*, 2019; Tubb and Seba, 2019; Tuomisto, 2019; WEF, 2019d) as well as edible insects (Premalatha *et al.*, 2011; Verbeke, 2015; FAO, 2016j; Proteinsect, 2016; Weinbren, 2018; FCRN, 2019a). Writing in *The Ecologist*, the Indian environmental activist and food sovereignty advocate Vandana Shiva condemns industrialised food systems in general and fake foods such as GM soya-based alternative meats in particular, seeing them as the big food companies attempting to further the industrialisation of food that will invariably further destroy the planet, human health and ultimately bring about mass extinction. She is equally dismissive of the role of the Eat Forum, suggesting it is trying to impose a '*monoculture diet of chemically grown, hyperindustrially processed food on the world*' in partnership with '*the junk food industry and Big Agriculture*' to build '*on a century and a half of food imperialism and food colonisation*' that will '*accelerate the rush to collapse*' (Shiva, 2019c). The roles of

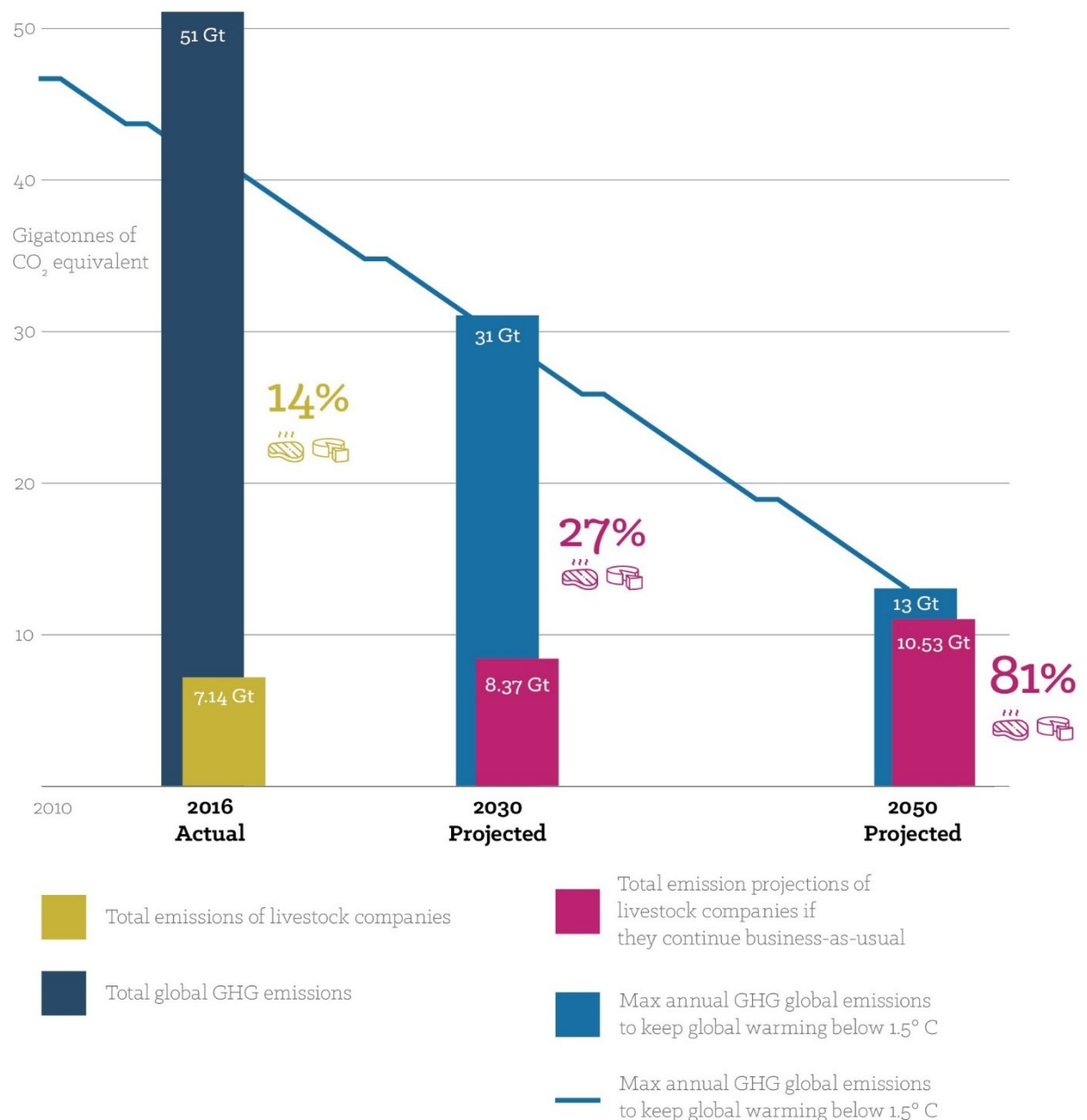


market investors and speculators also have a significant part in influencing future diets. US-based investment advisors StreetAuthority (2015) warn of future losses, unless the meat industry lobby convince the USDA to omit the expert committee's new recommendations or water them down enough to render them ineffective (GRAIN, 2017). Similarly, the Paraguayan-based CSO Global Forest Coalition evaluates the free trade model used within the livestock sector and observes an industry attitude that their food business should not be the business of consumers (Malig and Hall, 2017). Organisations such as the FAIRR Initiative (Farm Animal Investment Risk & Return), however, provide alternative advice to those investors wanting to avoid intensive livestock production stocks (Food Service Footprint, 2018g; FAIRR, 2019; FAIRR, 2019b). They highlight companies who supply global brands including McDonald's, Tesco, Nestlé and Walmart: most don't measure their GHG emissions; none have a comprehensive policy to stop deforestation (Greenpeace, 2018d); or are committed to phasing out the routine use of antibiotics. Although McDonald's has pledged to reduce antibiotics use in their beef supply chain, its suppliers do not have a policy to avoid the routine use of antibiotics.

Given that global livestock numbers are responsible for roughly the same amount of emissions as all transport in the world, they are a critical element in any policies to reduce the impact of climate change. Furthermore, as reducing emissions alone will not be enough to avoid the worsening effects of climate change (Garnett, 2009; Bailey *et al.*, 2014; Wellesley *et al.*, 2015; Canadell and Jackson, 2019), policies are urgently needed to bring about changes in consumption behaviour. GRAIN (2018) suggest that total global emissions must rapidly decline from 51 gigatons to 13 gigatons (figure 95). Governments and environmental groups, however, are mostly reluctant to pursue policies to shift this behaviour for fear of backlash (Bailey *et al.*, 2014). At best, some consumers consider the environmental impacts after taste, price, health and food safety when choosing food. Lang (2017f) argues that meat is a test case to see how and whether policymakers will be able align the food system with sustainability goals. For those with low or even no awareness, then environmental impacts do not feature at all. One recent multi-country online survey found consumers in Brazil, China and India showed higher levels of awareness, consideration, and willingness to modify their behaviour when buying meat and dairy products (Bailey *et al.*, 2014; Clonan *et al.*, 2016). To mitigate against GHG emissions within the food sector, there are three major policy choices (Hedenus *et al.*, 2014). These comprise productivity improvements in the livestock sector, such as policy measures that include full cost pricing, regulatory frameworks for limiting inputs and scale, specified discharge levels, and planning restrictions to reduce conflict with urban populations. Secondly, a range of specific, dedicated technical mitigation measures to be used. This offers considerable scope, given estimates that livestock accounts for up to half of the technical mitigation potential of the agriculture, forestry and land-use sectors (Herrero *et al.*, 2016). Examples would include better feed conversion and feeds that increase soil carbon sequestration versus carbon emission (Hermansen and Kristensen, 2011;



Garnett *et al.*, 2017; Dass *et al.*, 2018). Finally, and most significantly to this thesis are policies to bring about human dietary change.



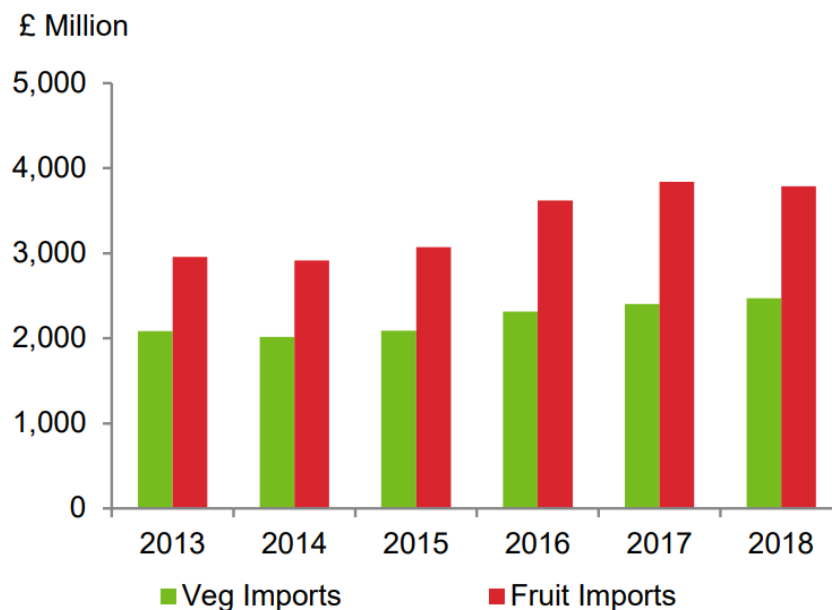
**Figure 95:** Estimated global GHG targets to keep within a 1.5°C rise in temperature compared to emissions from global meat and dairy production based on business-as-usual growth projections

**Source:** GRAIN (2018).

#### 4.3.5 Fruit and vegetables

The UK consumes around 11mt of vegetables annually (Frankowska *et al.*, 2019). Much of this is imported along with fresh fruit, especially those crops that cannot be grown here out of season. A similar disconnect can be found with the dependency in the UK on imported fruit and vegetables, where a switch to higher

consumption levels would have very significant impacts on the additional carbon costs associated with air freight, out of season supplies, waste, and perishability (Clonan and Holdsworth, 2012). These imports equate to 7.5mt of fruit and vegetables (Tones, 2019) or around 51 per cent of the total consumed and, valued at €10.3bn in 2016, was the largest food import category by value, creating a €9.2bn trade deficit. This includes non-indigenous items such as exotic fruits that cannot be grown in the UK. Figure 96 shows the monetary value of these fruit and vegetable imports from 2013 to 2018; figure 97 similarly shows the tonnages of both fruit and vegetables to 2017, as well as indicating the degree of self-sufficiency. Over the last 30 years the number of acres planted to vegetables in the UK has decreased by 26 per cent (Landworkers’ Alliance, 2017a). DEFRA (2020) latest estimates record vegetable imports at £2.5bn in 2018, a 2.8 per cent increase on the previous year with volumes up by 4.4 per cent to 2.3mt. Fruit imports cost a further £3.8bn in 2018. In addition, the Sustainable Food Trust (2019b) estimate a further 4.5mt of domestic production is lost to aesthetic grading including, for example, up to 50 per cent of all carrots produced.

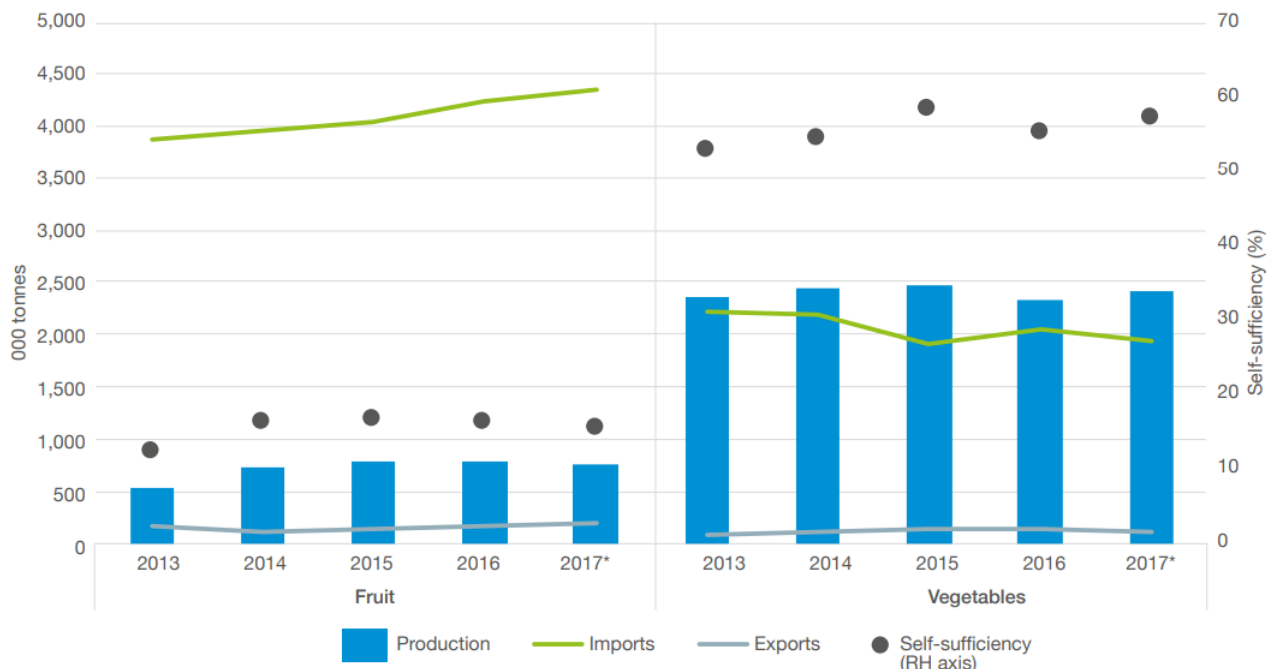


**Figure 96:** Imports of fruit and vegetables by value

**Source:** DEFRA (2019n).

Imports to the UK come primarily from the EU: one recent estimate suggests around 76 per cent of vegetable imports and 41 per cent of fruit; furthermore 40 per cent of them come from countries that are already water-stressed (Frankowska *et al.*, 2019). The UK now only produces 31 per cent of the apples it consumes; the remainder comes from the EU, South Africa, and New Zealand (DEFRA, 2020). Figure 97 provides a more detailed breakdown of the location of fruit imports for 2013 to 2017, whereas figure 98 provides percentages from the major vegetable importers. The UK only produces around 20 per cent of its tomatoes, so is increasingly sourcing them from Morocco, where imports have increased from 7,148

tonnes in 2007 to 49,334 tonnes in 2017 (HMRC, 2020) as well as the more traditional markets in The Netherlands and Spain. Spain, Egypt and South Africa similarly supply the bulk of the oranges. Much of Spain’s strawberry production, for example, is located next to the Doñana national park, a world heritage site, where it currently uses up to half the water this wildlife-rich wetland needs to survive (Leahy, 2015). Such challenges are set to increase the demand on water (Hess and Sutcliffe, 2018), worsening the risks of extreme weather events and climate change on fresh produce production (Moretti *et al.*, 2010; Reganold *et al.*, 2010; Kirezieva *et al.*, 2015; Parajuli *et al.*, 2019), and increasing the need to ensure the environmental sustainability of production (Kamp and Østergård, 2016; Angevin *et al.*, 2017; Garofalo *et al.*, 2017; Lazzarina *et al.*, 2017; Iocola *et al.*, 2018; Walters and Stoelzle Midden, 2018; Frankowska *et al.*, 2019; Parajuli *et al.*, 2019). As with other supply chains, the fruit and vegetable sector continues to be further impacted by the increasing concentration and power of the food retailers (Maruyama and Hirogaki, 2007); the sector has also been associated with labour shortages and low wages (Fairtrade International, 2014; Navarrete *et al.*, 2014; 2015), especially with the uncertainty of leaving the EU (Landworkers’ Alliance, 2017b). Imports from outside the EU are tariff-free under existing EU trade agreements and so, under a ‘no deal’ scenario, such trade agreements would no longer apply (Tones, 2019).



**Figure 97:** UK fruit and vegetable supplies by tonnage

*\*2017 production figure is provisional ~ Fresh/chilled vegetables, excluding potatoes*

*Consumption figures used for self-sufficiency calculation were derived using production + imports – exports*

**Source:** DEFRA, HMRC cited in Tones (2019).

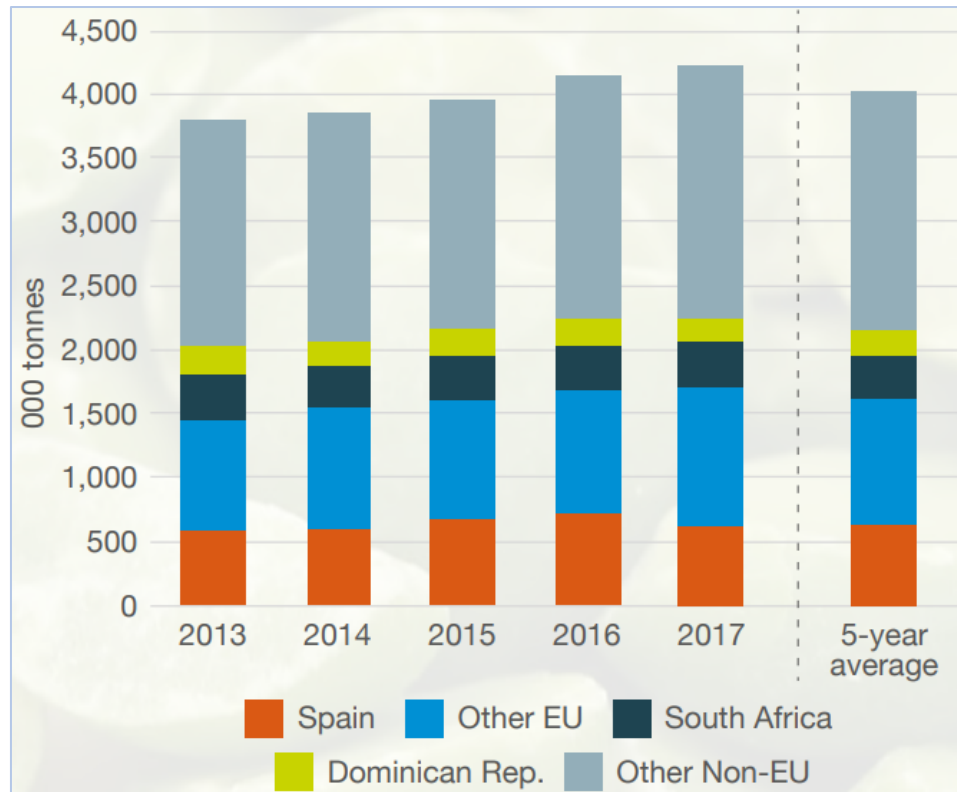


Figure 98: UK fruit imports 2017

Source: HMRC cited in Tones (2019).

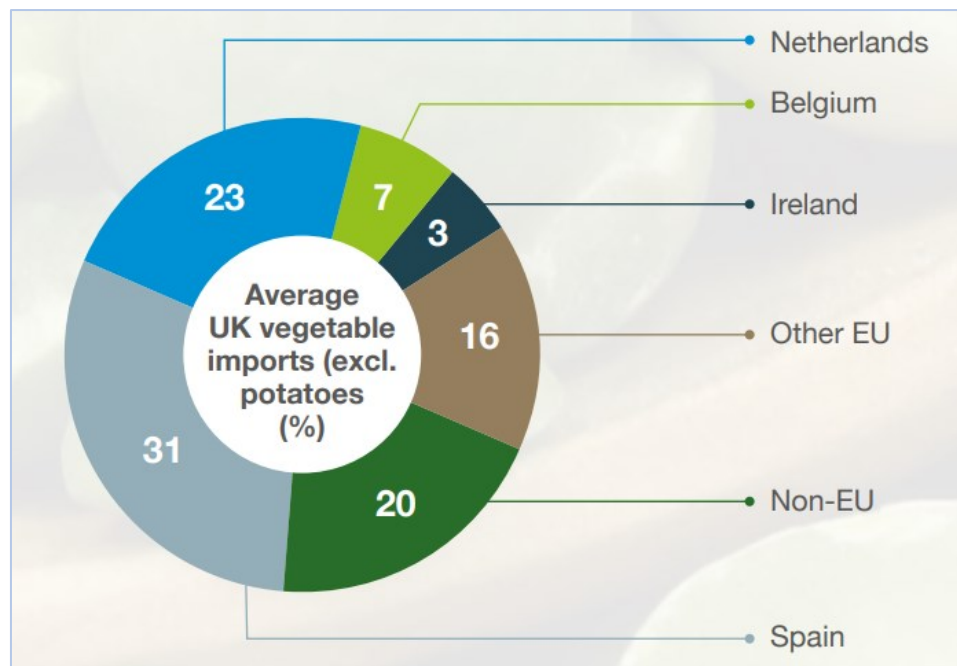
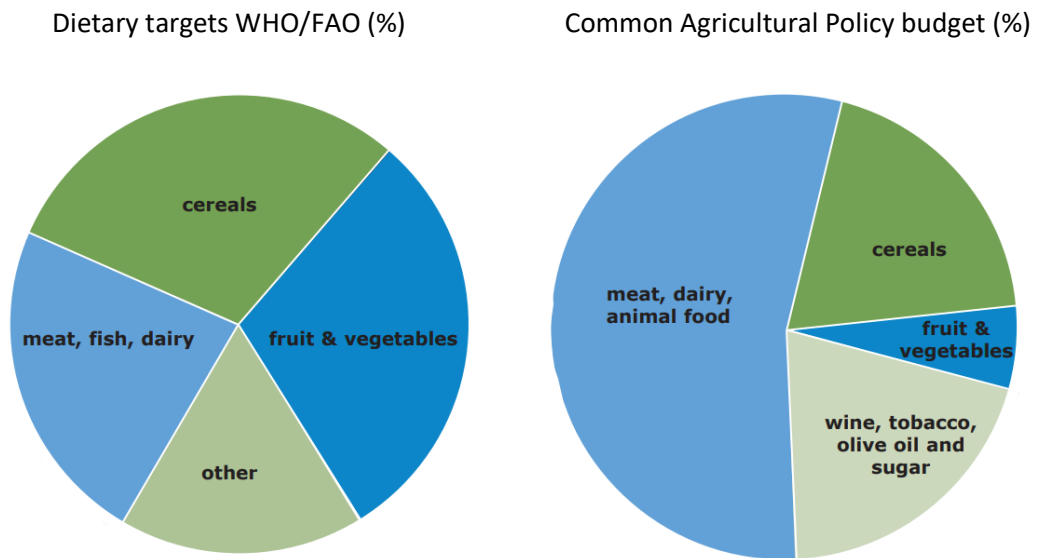


Figure 99: Average UK vegetable imports (excluding potatoes), 2013–2017

Source: HMRC cited in Tones (2019).



**Figure 100:** CAP expenditure versus nutritional health

**Source:** Birt *et al.* (2007).

#### 4.4 Chapter summary

This chapter provides the results obtained from each of the three methods employed. The umbrella review synthesises the extent of existing evidence on future options for UK sustainable diets, health, and policy to address research questions one and two. Results from modelling predictions illustrate how climate change will impact the UK’s ability to produce healthy food in one area of the UK to address research question three. Finally, results from the scenario analysis case studies show the impacts of climate change on the UK’s main imported food commodities such as grains, potatoes, fish protein, animal protein, fruit, and vegetables.



## 5. Discussion

### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter interprets the empirical findings in terms of the research aims, objectives, and how this contributes to the wider literature. The original purpose of this thesis was to synthesise the challenges from the food–environment–health nexus, the anticipated impacts of climate change on this nexus, and identify the dietary behaviours that need to be adopted to reduce the impacts on human health. This synthesis would then be used to help train and enable UK health professionals to bring about the changes necessary in the move towards more sustainable diets. It starts from a premise over two decades ago that changing policy and food practices was a formidable but urgent challenge for both humanity and the environment on which it depends. Two decades on, *The Lancet* is warning that civilisation is facing an accelerating crisis as food security cannot be balanced within existing planetary resources; the scientific consensus on the potentially catastrophic global impact and gigantic scale of climate change has grown; more recently, when civilisation should be coming together to address this formidable global challenge, many nations have instead chosen a path of nationalism in their continued fixation with growing their share of these planetary resources. With this better understanding facilitated by an increasing knowledge base, the urgency is becoming ever more acute.

### 5.2 What constitutes a healthy diet, how sustainable are current UK diets, and the potential benefits of changes in dietary behaviour towards healthier eating? [RQ1]

The umbrella review adds considerable insight into the first research question. The topic has attracted many systematic reviews, accounting for around 40 per cent of all the studies included in this umbrella review, so the range of issues and possible interventions is very wide. Sustainable diets, health promotion and nudge theory have been particularly well-served by systematic reviews; less so for policy interventions to improve healthy diets. Reviews also recommend promoting healthier diets through a combination of food pricing and taxation policies. These reviews add important detail to the debate which, although such detail may not in itself be new, the review process does show where the current consensus lies. Collectively, they also make a compelling and overwhelming case for dietary change. The chance to reduce GHGs and land-use by half, along with the environmental and health benefits this would also bring would negate many of the less attractive sustainability options, such as sustainable intensification (Mahon *et al.*, 2017). Increasing consumer awareness of the environmental impacts of their dietary choices remains a challenge, especially given the norm that most have not had to previously consider where their food has come from or the effects that this may have. Publication bias and the perceived weaknesses associated with nutrition science remain limiting factors, as well. Getting the message into all six food environments including schools and hospitals remains a challenge too. Some UK

hospitals, for example, remain unable to adhere to the PHE Eatwell Guide because of contractual obligations with their current catering suppliers.

Diets that promote greater health benefits with fewer negative impacts on the environment have generated wide ranging discussion on the policy requirements to implement such changes. Consumer awareness of the benefits of dietary change is generally low, however, as is their current willingness to change. Here again the umbrella review identifies remaining gaps in the scientific knowledge, including how to motivate consumers to bring about the behavioural change needed to reduce their meat consumption, inequality, and the necessary improvements in health research (Haby *et al.*, 2016; Lennox *et al.*, 2018; Cerri *et al.*, 2019; El Bilali (2019). Diets based on organic and local do not always produce lower GHGe and direct comparison can be difficult. But buying local does reduce the environmental costs of transport, ensuring that it will assume greater importance in the future as food systems have to cover their full environmental costs. An early study by Caspi *et al.* (2012) recognised the potential for local environments to be altered to bring about improvements in dietary health, although later studies found limited evidence for associations between local food environments and obesity (Cobb *et al.*, 2015; Mackenbach *et al.*, 2019), and Zenk *et al.* (2015) similarly find geographic disparities in these environments and dietary intake among some populations.

Numerous reviews evaluate strategies to reduce meat consumption or modify behaviour. Early studies called for caps on demand (Garnett, 2010) and on reducing per capita meat consumption (Porritt, 2010; Porritt, 2017). Chen *et al.* (2013) finds that the consumption of red and / or processed meat increases the risk of stroke, in particular, ischemic stroke. Other suitable interventions to reduce meat consumption are also featured, such as reducing portion sizes, providing meat alternatives, or changing the sensory properties of meat and meat alternatives at the point of purchase (Bianchi *et al.*, 2018). Beef production is especially problematic in terms of its GHG emissions and current levels of consumption are climatically unsustainable. Production systems do vary, but with less overall impact than was previously thought: non-grass fed systems are more GHG emissions efficient but, grass-fed beef has lower carbon footprints (Lynch, 2019). Writing in *The Lancet*, Harwatt *et al.* (2020) suggest CO<sub>2</sub> emissions will need to be limited to 420b tonnes, with a further 720b tonnes removed from the atmosphere to limit global warming to 1.5°C; the business-as-usual trajectory would see livestock emissions accounting for 49 per cent of the emissions budget by 2030. If meat and dairy continues on the business-as-usual trajectory, it will account for 27 per cent of all emissions by 2030 and 81 per cent by 2050. Disagreement on policy direction still exists, however. The *Animal* journal recently published an opinion piece by Haniotis (2019) who argues that beef has assumed the disproportionate burden of proof on climate action; a similar article in the *Animal Frontiers* journal by Varijakshapanicker *et al.* (2019) appears to complain that too much of the sustainability discourse is placed on the environment, when 'equally important' factors include the need

to ensure food and nutritional security in a culturally acceptable manner that ensures its accessibility, affordability, and safety. Harguess *et al.* (2020) evaluates strategies to reduce meat consumption and advocates modifications of the food environment such as increasing the number of meatless meals on restaurant menus. Several find low consumer awareness of the environmental impacts of meat is resulting in a low willingness to change (Hartmann and Siegrist, 2017; Sanchez-Sabate *et al.*, 2019) even when faced with potentially undesirable health effects (Valli *et al.*, 2019). Sanchez-Sabate and Sabaté (2019) find that where consumers are aware of the environmental concerns of consuming meat, they are more likely to be female, young, simply meat-reducer (not vegan/vegetarian), ecology-oriented, and living in Europe and Asia rather than in the USA. Allwood *et al.* (2019) makes specific recommendations: reduce beef and lamb consumption; buy locally sourced but not air-freighted; use less frozen and processed meals; and, insist farmers use less fertiliser.

Fish consumption is similarly problematic with many of the studies suggesting an imminent crisis. From the year 2000, studies and reports refer to a tipping point, beyond which stocks might collapse and millions of humans starve (Clover, 2004; Brunner *et al.*, 2009; Pauly, 2009; Clover, 2012; Pauly and Froese, 2012; Levitt and Thomas, 2014; Thurstan and Roberts, 2014). Financial subsidises distort the industry (Sumaila *et al.*, 2007; Pauly, 2009; Sovacool, 2009; Sumaila *et al.*, 2010; Österblom *et al.*, 2015; Gibbens, 2018; Sala *et al.*, 2018; Tickler *et al.*, 2018; Costello *et al.*, 2019; Sumaila *et al.*, 2019) and reduce the total biomass of commercially important species (Heymans *et al.*, 2011). Governance mechanisms have failed to deliver effective fisheries management (Garcia and Rosenberg, 2010; Greenpeace, 2012c; GRID-Arendal, 2012; Kalfagianni and Pattberg, 2013; Hadjimichael *et al.*, 2014; Malone *et al.*, 2014; Bremer *et al.*, 2015; Bush and Mol, 2015; Iizuk and Katz, 2015; Costello *et al.*, 2016; Webster, 2016; ISSF, 2018; Pinsky *et al.*, 2018), especially the EU Common Fisheries Policy (Purvis, 2009; Froese *et al.*, 2012; Fernandes and Cook, 2013; Belschner, 2014; Säwe and Hultman, 2014; Belschner *et al.*, 2019). The UK catch equates to 32 per cent of its Exclusive Economic Zone (EEZ), the assumed jurisdiction over marine resources within the 200 mile radius from shore (Forse *et al.*, 2019). The remaining 700,000 tonnes is taken by other EU states, Norway and the Faroe Islands; the UK also lands a further 92,000 tonnes annually from EU waters. Despite the extra-ordinary decline UK fishing productivity brought about by industrialised fishing, down 94 per cent over last 130 years (Thurstan *et al.*, 2010), perceptions of the CFP's relative unfairness was a key focus influencing the Brexit decision (Billiet, 2019). At the same time, further studies conclude that fisheries certification will not arrest the decline in fish stocks (Lacquet and Pauly, 2007; Gulbrandsen, 2009; Hallstein and Villas-Boas, 2013; Kvalvik *et al.*, 2014; Madin and Macreadie, 2015; Hadjimichael and Hegland, 2016; Terazono, 2016; Smith, 2017). Calculating fish stocks is also problematic (Vassallo *et al.*, 2007; Khalilian *et al.*, 2010; Branch, 2012; Froese *et al.*, 2012; Fernandes and Cook, 2013; Pritcher and Cheung, 2013; Belschner, 2014; Byelashov and Griffin, 2014; Vasilakopoulos *et al.*, 2016; Belschner *et al.*, 2019).



The supply and availability of fruit and vegetables is critical to any nutritional policy, and particularly with the urgent need to switch to a sustainable diet. In the UK, the 5-A-Day campaign was launched in 2003 with the aim of reaching 5 portions a day for the whole of the UK population by 2015. Analysis of sales data by the National Farmers Union (2016) suggests actual consumption is around 3 portions a day; Beckenham (2009) had previously estimated 3.9 portions per day for all households, but only 3.5 for low-income households. The challenge was further exacerbated in 2014, with recommendations from the NHS that this moves to 7 portions per day. The Landworkers' Alliance (2017a), for example, calculated this would require 2.4mt of additional fresh produce which would equate to a 66 per cent growth in UK production. Finally, studies identify the urgent need for systematic public policy to target the constraints to producing and consuming fruits and vegetables, including increasing consumer education on healthy diets (Mason-D'Croz *et al.*, 2019), otherwise global food systems will not be able to produce enough fruit and vegetables to meet the nutritional needs of the world's population (Bahadur KC *et al.*, 2018).

Learning from best practice elsewhere is also complex due to the variability of national diets. Evidence on the health benefits of the Nordic diet is inconclusive; although the Indian diet is high in fruit and vegetable consumption, it varies significantly between regions and often has high levels of dietary fat and sugar; only the Mediterranean diet is associated with lower risk of type-2 diabetes and coronary heart disease. Vegan and vegetarian diets have lower overall health risks, and simply increasing fruit and vegetable consumption results in obesity reduction. More recently, the benefits of a worldwide healthy diet have gained some traction, with Wellesley *et al.* (2015) estimating has the potential to reduce emissions by 25 per cent by 2050 and a study observing when countries reduced their animal product consumption when switching to nationally recommended diets (Scherer *et al.*, 2019). At the same time, Willett *et al.* (2019) suggest reductions in the consumption of red meat greater than 50 per cent will be required. Poppy *et al.* (2019) consider the trade of meat into the UK after Brexit, especially as the world's fifth largest importer, but concludes that any shortfall from the EU could be made up by other nations. There is also a need to establish international norms for healthy and sustainable diets in conjunction with bodies such as the WHO, FAO and IPCC, and continue to build the evidence base to help guide policymakers.

The price and affordability of current diets is also a common theme throughout the reviews. Here variables such as socio-economic status and inequalities in diet were also associated with specific consequences (Mayén *et al.*, 2014; Mekonnen *et al.*, 2020). Living in a socioeconomically-deprived area is associated with a number of obesogenic dietary behaviours (Giskes *et al.*, 2011). Fleischhacker *et al.* (2011) found a connection between access to fast food and the prevalence of such outlets in low-income areas with higher concentrations of ethnic minority groups; Jia *et al.* (2019) similarly find an association with more fast-food consumption. Later reviews call for robust and psychometrically-sound measures and more sophisticated study designs to further understand this disparity (Lytle and Sokol, 2017), along with

availability measures and accessibility measures (Bivoltsis *et al.*, 2018). Early reviews considered the impacts of increasing food prices forcing consumers to switch to lower cost foods with higher disease risks (Andreyeva *et al.*, 2010; Lee *et al.*, 2011; Cornelsen *et al.*, 2015; Lewis and Lee, 2016) and ultimately further increased socio-economic disparities (Green *et al.*, 2013; Darmon and Drewnowski, 2015; Lara Silva and Sanjuan, 2019) especially during times of economic crisis (Rajmil *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, promoting healthier diets through food pricing policies should be a goal of public health and policy efforts, and can reduce consumption of unhealthy foods (Dangour *et al.*, 2013; Rao *et al.*, 2013). Here, subsidies to promote fruit and vegetable consumption could potentially reduce the rate of NCDs (Black *et al.*, 2012) but need to be of a magnitude of 10-20 per cent lower in price before they become effective (Niebylski *et al.*, 2015; Wood *et al.*, 2019). Price and availability are also important determinants of food choice and are therefore critical in addressing the current obesity epidemic. Birt *et al.* (2007) argue that these two factors were partly regulated by the EU CAP and that there has long been a disconnect between global nutritional health recommendations and CAP expenditure. Further studies also record concern regarding having access to sufficient quantities to be able to adhere to recommendations such as the WHO's minimum target of 400 g/person per day (Siegel *et al.*, 2014; Mason-D'Croz *et al.*, 2019) and national dietary guidelines (National Farmers Union, 2016).

The reviews on dietary change also offer benefits in lowering diet related GHG emissions. Hallström *et al.* (2015) estimated that for areas with affluent diet, dietary change could reduce up to 50 per cent of the GHG emissions and land use demand associated with current diets. Further examples include the environmental and health benefits of changing to more sustainable dietary patterns (Aleksandrowicz *et al.*, 2016) such as vegan, vegetarian and omnivorous diets, with the vegan diet having the lowest land use and water use and the least environmental impact, especially when local products are used (Dinu *et al.*, 2016; Chai *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, adhering to sustainable diets promotes greater health and has a less negative impact on the environment than current average dietary intakes (Nelson *et al.*, 2016; Albrecht *et al.*, 2018; Harris *et al.*, 2020). Reinhardt *et al.* (2020), however, found that diets adhering to the USA national dietary guidelines lead to similar or increased GHG emissions, energy use, and water use when compared to the current US diet.

**5.3 How effective is the existing regulatory framework and what should a new policy framework comprise to ensure both risk minimisation and the security of sustainable, healthy food in the UK? [RQ2]**

The evidence clearly indicates that UK food security is in a perilous state and certainly not where any developed nation would wish to be. Warnings that civilisation is in an accelerating crisis which threatens human existence because we can no longer provide a healthy diet while balancing planetary resources cannot be ignored; neither can claims that UK policy lacks overarching agenda that aligns healthy eating and environmental protection to deliver sustainable diets (Langdon and Mwatsama, 2018). Although previous scenario analyses have considered policy options ranging from increasing self-sufficiency through to increasing reliance on global imports (Benton, 2020), the evidence considered within this thesis would certainly not advocate the latter. The irony of a global pandemic starting mid-way through the writing of this thesis further reinforces the view, as global institutions such as the World Bank (Espitia *et al.*, 2020a; 2020b) and the IFPRI (Laborde *et al.*, 2020) raise concerns that trade reactions to COVID-19 further risk turning a health crisis into a food crisis. Altman (2020) likewise observes that COVID-19 and the public health response are causing the largest and fastest decline in international flows in modern history. At the same time, the disruption to UK supplies caused shortages (Murray, 2020), panic buying, and further exacerbated food inequalities (Rayner, 2020). At the very time when we require our government to show leadership and clarity of vision, the evidence would suggest the opposite. When DEFRA and PHE were recently asked about setting up an expert committee on food and nutrition to assist during the COVID-19 crisis, DEFRA said that PHE was responsible; PHE in turn said the matter was for ministers; clearly both thought the responsibility wasn't theirs. This is after the UK climate minister went on record in 2018 to state it is not the government's job to advise people on a climate-friendly diet (Harrabin, 2018). Simultaneously, the food and consumer media is awash with concerns about the potential impacts on UK food standards as the UK government embarks on a trade deal with the USA. Whatever the outcome, the recent recommendation to government from the RSA-FFCC (2019b) that it should not use trade deals to off-shore climate and environmental commitments to countries with fewer resources or weaker environmental standards remains fundamental. It is also the focus of a current Greenpeace campaign. Further calls for proactive government leadership include: the resources and scale capacities needed to change diets; to incentivise business; to provide soft interventions to nudge consumers to more sustainable diets; to provide a clear rationale for interventionist taxes (Weis, 2015; Wellesley *et al.*, 2015; Springmann *et al.*, 2018a; *The Lancet*, 2018e; Baggini, 2019); to help increase consumer awareness on the links between livestock, diet and climate change; and, the public expects leadership whereas inaction risks signalling unimportance. Wellesley also argues that the market is failing with insufficient incentives for business to reduce supply. The issue is further complicated by so-called trade-offs. Here beef is the oft-cited example, as emissions from intensive systems are often lower than

grass-fed systems but is associated with a host of other concerns (McMichael *et al.*, 2007; Wellesley *et al.*, 2015; Young, 2018; Mozaffarian, 2019). To overcome potential confusion, trusted experts will be needed, especially to engage with the mainstream media. Finally, ensure that this receives cross-departmental support within government.

The review demonstrates the wealth of literature available to help inform policy development. The interdisciplinarity of the problem, the growing imbalance of power, finance and governance remain challenging and more effort is needed to ensure that all stakeholders and interested parties are contributing towards the same ends. Neither is the problem necessarily a new one, as the unsustainability of food systems has contributed to the fall of civilisations throughout history. But the gravity and enormity of the task has been growing now since at least the 1960s; some would argue even earlier; and its current scale is unprecedented. Not only do food systems impact mortality, morbidity and environmental degradation; coupled with the insatiable need for growth, they also compromise the ability of future generations to meet their own needs, and threaten attainability of the SDGs and the Paris Climate Agreement. Numerous scientific studies have been referring to the need for an urgent solution for at least the past two decades. Today, attention is very much focused on resolving the multitude of challenges as quickly as possible; beyond 2030 is generally regarded as being too late to significantly alter the course of the trajectory towards the impending existential threat (RSA FFCC, 2017; Porritt, 2020).

The reviews highlight the importance of using a combination of strategies to deliver the best improvements, so healthy diets should be used in conjunction with other strategies such as lifestyle improvements. Health promotion interventions such as health education, nutrition education, dietary change strategies and environmental modification are considered across a range of settings, including schools, workplaces, restaurants and retailers. Such strategies are especially important within the six obesogenic environments for the young: namely, schools, retailers, television, the internet, in the home, and those promotional campaigns targeted at them. Others include food taxes and subsidies to improve diets and health (Thow *et al.*, 2014; Alagiyawanna *et al.*, 2015; Walls *et al.*, 2018), as well as the more recent focus on public food procurement (Stefani *et al.*, 2017). Legislative options include multi-component interventions to assist in dietary reformulation and to limit access to unhealthy foods such as those which are ultra-processed or contain Trans-Fatty Acids. The simultaneous use of taxes and subsidies offer the dual benefit of reducing GHGe and ensuring healthier diets. Care is needed, however, given the complexities of the GHGe of some foods, especially when healthier and nutrient-dense foods can be associated with higher GHGs than foods providing poorer nutrition, higher sugar consumption, or lower micro-nutrient uptake. Similarly, taxes on items such as carbonated drinks and foods containing saturated fat were associated with beneficial dietary change (Eyles *et al.*, 2012; Afshin *et al.*, 2017). The success of such interventions can, however, be undermined by publication bias with little data on either the longer-

term effects or cost-effectiveness (Appleton *et al.*, 2016). The umbrella review also identifies various specific needs: for smart governance systems (Candel, 2014); to better understand what food insecurity looks like (McKay *et al.*, 2019); for food to become a public good and guaranteeing universal access (Bes-Rastrollo *et al.*, 2013; Vandergeten *et al.*, 2016; Vivero-Pol, 2017; Zaçe *et al.*, 2020); to target inequalities in food insecurity for vulnerable groups such as children; for interdisciplinary approaches and stakeholder engagement to address the challenges; and, for science-informed policy decisions.

Finally, recommendations for how food policy should be developed to ensure UK food security and specific proposals for UK health professionals that will enable them to deliver evidence-based information to inform and bring about the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets. Here examples include extending better labelling of healthier foods to include sustainable diets as well (Crockett *et al.*, 2010; Cecchini and Warin, 2016; Clune *et al.*, 2017; Chau *et al.*, 2018; Christoph and An, 2018; Croker *et al.*, 2020). This would empower consumers to make healthier food choices. It needs to be done with care, however, to ensure the use of consistent health and nutritional information without undermining public health nutrition, especially should consumers buy more environmentally friendly foods that may be less nutritious. Interpretive labels such as traffic lighting have been found to be more effective across the retail, hospitality and takeaway settings and therefore offer greater potential for nudging consumers towards behavioural change. These also need to be used in conjunction with clearer guidance and standardisation on portion sizes and definitions such as small, medium and large. Once again, such policies also need to be supported through better education.

#### **5.4 How will climate change impact the UK's ability to produce healthy food? [RQ3]**

The third research question also sought to establish the latest scientific consensus on the policy changes needed to enable domestic food production to adapt to climate change. Here the umbrella review helps provide a definitive prognosis on the increasing environmental and climate change-related issues across four areas. The first is the increasing scale of the risk to global food security along with a wide range of possible future scenarios that this increasing risk may bring. The second area relates to the state of readiness of the current UK food system and its likely ability to be able to adapt to an increasing scale of change. Here again the consensus is a cause for concern. The UK has not had a clear food policy for many decades; instead, it has chosen a free-market approach which has exploited global sourcing in favour of preserving domestic food production; much of the necessary infrastructure has either been dismantled or has fallen by the wayside. Successive UK governments have become accustomed to a system that they believed negated the need for market intervention. Furthermore, increasingly powerful commercial interests were best-placed to provide food for the UK and sometimes even help decide health policy too. The net result of this free-market approach has led to a policy vacuum, whereby government either no

longer sees the need for robust food policy, or they remain reassured by the continued availability of food on supermarket shelves. But the scientific consensus and even the evidence commissioned either by them, or provided by their own auditors, clearly presents a very different prognosis for the future. The current status quo cannot possibly accommodate the many and varied risks the UK food system now faces. In fact, the current comparative metrics provide grim reading for the UK. Poor diets, growing food inequalities and spiralling health costs all suggest both a failure of the market and an urgent need to change. The UK urgently needs clearer policy direction that links climate risk and vulnerability assessment effects of healthy food supplies. The continued decline in domestic food production is increasing food insecurity in the UK and needs urgent intervention to reverse, especially given the increasing risk of insecurity with food imports caused by increasingly volatile markets. The UK needs to produce more of its own food, especially foods that are suited to UK growing conditions e.g. fruit and vegetables, across all regions, shorter supply chains as part of a national drive to contribute to global targets such as the SDGs. Lang (2020) had earlier suggested returning to the 80% self-sufficiency of the 1980s. Thirdly, a similar free-market approach and increasingly deregulated planning environment has dramatically increased competition for land in the UK. This has increasingly seen land best reserved for food production being used for a whole variety of other purposes, including fuel and house building. Increasing use of land to grow animal feeds such as maize have also accelerated rates of soil degradation. The umbrella review, however, suggests that land used to produce food needs much greater levels of protection from other potential uses and to further reduce the degradation caused by land-use change. The UK urgently needs to devise a policy that protects the land currently used for food production as well as preserving its other functional uses, such as water, carbon storage, rewilding, biodiversity, etc. Similarly, the UK needs to reduce the amount of land used for animal production, especially where it is intensively produced, as well as carefully monitoring and regulating the amount and effects of biofuel production. Finally, by making better use of its own, domestic food-producing capabilities, the UK can reduce its dependency on the resources of other countries at a time of increasing shortages and pressures on such resources. This is the only realistic way that the UK can meet its existing international commitments to carbon emissions reductions.

Despite the initial enthusiasm following the launch of the Climate Change Act of 2008, the target of reducing 80 per cent of all GHG emissions by 2050 is now seen as insufficient and the timescale too slow; the latest analysis by the Committee on Climate Change (2019f) also finds poor performance in nearly all policy areas. As a matter of urgency, the Government needs to ensure the timely delivery of existing policy commitments; look to improve ambition and timeliness by further challenging and incentivising stakeholders; and invest in domestic production capacity in a controlled and strategic manner. This latter commitment should be both focused on foods that the UK has a natural capacity to grow now, and those that may become more attractive as our climate changes. Farmers should be better awarded for their

contribution towards supplying healthy foods and environmentally beneficial methods of production. Reduce dependency on imports to those products and raw materials that cannot be grown here, such as exotic fruits and hard wheat. Improving the ambition and speed of response is even more critical, given the post-Paris Agreement consensus of the need to reduce temperature increases to 1.5°C rather than 2°C. Other policy options include employing punitive taxes to discourage commodity imports for animal feed production in particular (e.g. fishmeal, maize, soya, and palm oil) as well of those destined for food manufacture and, where appropriate, on those products for direct human sale (e.g. ultra-processed foods containing maize, soya, and palm oil). Government should provide incentives at a regional and local level for alternative supply chains to develop. To address the environmental and health externalities of food they should use a combination of price controls and other financial tools. They also need to respond to calls from the ASC to undertake more research into the likely effects of flooding on UK food production to better inform policy direction. As for biofuels, government should abandon current ambitions and incentives for any form of bioenergy that requires land-use, given the rises anticipated would use an additional 1.8bn acres globally, with potentially catastrophic impacts on ecosystems. This should be part of a wider, overall move to change and improve land management policies for sustainable food production in ways that enhances the biodiversity of ecosystems. Although sustainable intensification offers clear benefits, it should only be able to proceed under clearly defined circumstances i.e. that the prerequisites of enhancing the biodiversity of ecosystems remains the over-riding priority. If this is not the case, then the risk becomes repeating mistakes already experienced in the UK i.e. protect the areas that need protecting (e.g. national parks and areas of natural beauty) but the vast majority of the remaining land can carry on with maximising production without full regard for the longer-term consequences. Rather than becoming increasingly isolated, the UK should look to fully engage with and even lead by example in international co-operations that are working to address climate change, such as the 10-year action agenda by the UN Convention on Biodiversity later this year (van Havre and Ogwal, 2020). This global activity could possibly include using the ability to trace historical emissions back to the 90 industrial producers mainly responsible and target them for future regulative control.

The initial prognosis for food production in the UK is reasonably positive. As crop yields are determined by both growing season temperatures and precipitation, the general assumption based on global modelling projections suggest growing conditions in the UK could improve marginally towards 2050. Furthermore, the UK could potentially contribute more food in the global drive to offset the significant falls in yields expected for many developing nations in the southern hemisphere, where the climate change prognosis is much more severe. This initial UK prognosis, however, does not fully take into consideration the caveats that are also accorded to it. Much of the UK's crop producing areas are currently located in the lower-lying alluvial soils mostly associated with coastal areas and river plains. Using meteorological predictive modelling to understand how climate change will impact domestic production

on one important food growing region – the Lincolnshire Fens, one of the regions most at risk from climate change, raises a number of specific challenges.

The soils in Lincolnshire can be broadly classified into three types: soils overlaying limestone; soils overlaying chalk; and deep, alluvial clay and peat soils associated with historical river flood plains and areas reclaimed from the sea. It is these deeper soils that provide the right conditions for vegetable and potato production. The detailed study by Edwards (2017) identified a number of areas around the UK where sea-level rise could temporarily or permanently impact current production including, for example, the Lincolnshire Fens. This current thesis used the *CoastalDEM* model, specifically designed to identify areas at particular risk, to further investigate the impacts on this region under various future scenarios. The results indicate that, even at relatively modest levels of sea level rise (30-115cm) the area affected would be wide ranging and, by 2050, even assuming moderate cuts to existing GHG emissions, the model suggests around half of Lincolnshire's land area will be affected (figures 69-74) including almost all of its 'Best and Most Versatile' food producing land (i.e. those predominantly located in coastal areas, including reclaimed salt marshes and numerous river plains). This land has national importance in terms of domestic food security. Sayers *et al.* (2015) estimates over 320,000 acres of best arable land is at risk of flooding, whereas LCC (2019) suggest a total figure of 960,000 acres (including fenlands in neighbouring counties). The NFU (2018) estimate this area currently produces 37 per cent of English vegetables, 27 per cent of the potatoes, and 3 per cent of the fruit. Mitigating against such risks is especially difficult and may prove prohibitively expensive.

The geography and history of the area means much of the land is at or below current sea level, where it is protected by 60 miles of coastal sea walls, 96 miles of fluvial embankments, and a further 3,800 miles of watercourse drainage (NFU, 2019). The area also contains three vital shipping ports identified by DEFRA as critical to existing food imports, especially meat, fresh vegetables, palm oil, and sugar; the extent of the threat is deemed so severe, that DEFRA recommend other ports develop contingency plans and the food industry reduce its current dependency on EU refining, processing and consolidation centres. Despite this, although the Committee on Climate Change list a range of concerns for the coastal impacts of climate change, the lists makes little reference to expected impacts on agriculture and none on food systems. They do claim, however, that the government's current approach towards flooding and coastal erosion is unfit for purpose and they need to wake up to the real challenges ahead. The Environment Agency are similarly critical; they estimate the coastal erosion and sea-flooding schemes will require expenditure of more than £1bn a year over the next 50 years (Wall, 2019); the government has allocated £1.2bn for 2015 to 2021 i.e. 20 per cent of the amount needed per annum. Clearly, priorities will need to be identified but sparsely populated, rural food-producing areas may be deemed low priority. This may also be reflected in the local authority publications, almost all of which fail to prioritise protecting food producing land as a



priority in flood defence planning, as well as in the attitudes of local businesses who had done little to mitigate and did not see a need to relocate (Evans, 2012). Those businesses who acknowledged the forthcoming risks believed additional barriers and defences would be put in place to protect the area. The current food sector plan for the area does at least acknowledge the risk to the food commodities mentioned earlier, and also raises the additional concern for the 70 per cent of the nation's fish processing capacity along with its associated vegetable freezing and processing facilities (which accounts for 12 per cent of national capacity) within one of these vulnerable ports (LLEP, 2019).

Implementing policy at a local authority level is particularly challenging, given the fragmented nature and differing types of government, including county councils, district councils, unitary authorities, metropolitan districts and boroughs. In the case of the Fens, then these cut across several local authority responsibilities. Early publications by Lincolnshire County Council make no mention of climate change, flooding risk, or sustainability (LRO, 2007); the LRO (2011) makes first reference to specific concerns regarding flood defences and makes the case for ensuring that high value, Grade 1 farmland is recognised as a priority in district flood defence planning. That said, however, the issue is more about the problems of supply caused by the 2010 spring and early summer drought, rather than longer-term concerns. In response to the government's Planning Policy Guidance 25 (PPG 25), which delegated flooding risk to local authorities in 2001, Lincolnshire's first Strategic Flood Risk Assessment was published (North and North East Lincolnshire, 2011). A review of policy the following year was produced in response to concerns raised by the Adaptation Sub-Committee in their biennial report to the Committee on Climate Change that very little, tangible action was occurring at local authority level. This policy review acknowledges the vulnerability to rising sea levels and flood risk with large areas at, or even below, existing sea level; it concludes by calling for immediate action to limit the impact of climate change and to prepare for unavoidable changes that must occur (LRO, 2012). A DEFRA-commissioned study (Evans, 2012) also looked to elicit attitudes and behaviours of the food industry and, in particular, what steps were being undertaken to safeguard food security. Responses from fenland food producers demonstrated a good awareness of the Climate Change Act, but little evidence of adaptation or mitigation. Examples of those adapting included buying sandbags in the case of floods; none believed their businesses would need to relocate because of flooding; others thought scenarios suggesting large parts of the region would be under water within 30 years were unlikely to happen; others accepted the scenarios, but believed flood barriers would be erected and sea defences put in place to protect such areas; few businesses had considered disruption to their supply chains caused by flooding; many were uncertain as to whether they had signed-up to the flood warning service and few had checked the environment agency maps for context. This data on the attitudes and behaviours of managers within the food industry was used to inform the food sector plan 2014-2020 that followed (Collison, 2014) and the later addendum (Collison, 2017). These see flood risk as a major weakness for the food businesses within this area. It details specific

risks caused by both fluvial and estuarine flooding and includes major clusters such as the fish processing facilities in Grimsby, the associated vegetable freezing and processing facilities, fresh produce and horticultural distribution facilities, and large swathes of highly-productive, food producing land. The plan also lists threats such as flooding discouraging future investment and reducing scales within the food sector. It also predicts increases in winter rainfall (14 per cent extra by 2050) and reduced summer rainfall (17 per cent less by 2050) as necessitating additional storage capacity. It also refers to further work needing to be done to assess the cost of flooding and the crop failures that this would cause, as well as considering growth potential, especially in replacing imports of intensively-grown food crops. The East Lindsey region followed suit with their strategic flood risk assessment in 2017 (ELDC, 2017) and the areas came together in a Local Enterprise Partnership to explore future economic growth (LLEP, 2019). This sets out the areas importance to national food security: specifically, 12 per cent of the England's food and processing capacity, including foods such as ready meals, soups and pizzas; 70 per cent of its fish processing; 25 per cent of vegetable production; 19 per cent of sugar beet production; and 18 per cent of the country's poultry. It argues in favour of the regions international reputation, as well as its contribution to the local economy (24 per cent of jobs compared to 13 per cent nationally and 2 per cent of its economic output compared to 7 per cent nationally). Responses to flooding are also considered in the Local Plan to 2032 for North East Lincolnshire Council (2018) and South East Lincolnshire to 2036 (SEL-JPU, 2019). They describe how much of the land area was originally reclaimed from the sea by a vast network of drainage systems, coastal defences, and interconnected tidal rivers with pumping stations and sluices. The risk of flooding is seen as not only threatening whole settlements, but also inundating valuable soils with saline water which would negate food production for many years. In a Foresight report for the UK Government Office for Science, Edwards (2017) estimates that 321,230 acres of Best and Most Versatile food producing land is currently at risk from sea-level rise; this will eventually increase to 444,780 acres when such levels become more extreme (table 16). The three future scenarios to 2100 used here are 30cm sea-level rise (low-medium) with strong mitigation, 60cm sea-level rise (high) based on the current trajectory of GHG emissions, and 2.5m sea-level rise (extreme) to simulate the impacts of melting ice sheets on the speed of climate change. The figures in the enhanced column give an indication of the anticipated effects of mitigation measures to reducing flood probability, exposure, and vulnerability. For comparison purposes, figure 75 shows one regional authority analysis of the extent of current flood risk, figure 76 the Government's Flood Warning Information Service analysis of Fenland flood risks, and the coastal evacuation routes introduced by the Environmental Agency in 2015 (figure 77).

### **5.5 How will climate change impact the UK's main imported food commodities and what will this mean for major UK food supplies? [RQ4]**

The literature is currently inconclusive as to the longer-term prognosis for the impacts of climate change on the major, global commodities. The problem here is the extent to which yield reductions will be offset by higher rates of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. Yields are invariably determined by growing season temperatures and precipitation; together, these two factors are ordinarily responsible for yield ranges of around 30 per cent between successive years (Lobell and Field, 2007). With climate change progressively increasing temperatures, the general consensus is that warmer temperatures of 2–3°C will diminish crop yields in the tropical latitudes, especially when accompanied by increasing precipitation, but be more positive in high-latitude regions (Easterling and Apps, 2005; Lobell *et al.*, 2011; Elbehri, 2015). The prognosis for Africa is particularly severe: the IPCC warn that many of the crops grown at present will be unable to survive temperature increases by 2050 (Appropriate Technology, 2016; Palazzo *et al.*, 2017). By using climate change models and world food trade system scenarios, some studies suggest that climate change will not bring about a net decline in global yields therefore the world should be able to feed itself in 2050 (Parry *et al.*, 2004; Lobell and Gourdj, 2012). Such optimism does come with caveats, such as although the developed world would need to increase production to compensate for losses in those developing countries more severely impacted by climate change (Parry *et al.*, 2004), or that climate change threatens sustaining global productivity growth at the rates needed to meet demand to 2050 (Lobell and Gourdj, 2012). Benton (2016) also argues that the productionist approach of greater quantities of cheaper food facilitated through international trade is unlikely to provide either sustainable diets, equity, or food security. Benzie *et al.* (2017) sees the EU as increasingly exposed to the risks of climate change impacts outside of its borders through an increasing reliance on trade. Ingram *et al.* (2019) similarly argues the UK's food system is more vulnerable to disruption due to both importing half the food needed and the present diet that demands a wide range of foods to be available all year round. Such disruptions include increasingly extreme weather, currency fluctuations, and changes in trading arrangements; fruit and vegetables imports from water-scarce countries such as Spain, South America and South Africa are seen as especially vulnerable (Salmoral *et al.*, 2018). Whatever the actual outcome, it does seem ironic that global efforts to reduce the rate of increase and ultimately reverse the levels of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, may in time further reduce yield projections and affect their nutritional quality, too. Further uncertainty surrounds predicting the impacts of future ozone levels; estimates of yield reductions vary widely – from 24 to 95 per cent. Whatever the actual amount, it can only be assumed at this stage that future ozone levels will significantly lower yields and therefore reduce the total amounts of maize, rice, wheat, and soyabean available. Even where yields are increasing, the rates are insufficient to meet the global demand increases caused by population growth. Collectively, these four commodities provide

two thirds of global calories so any reduction in the quantities available would cause serious and potentially catastrophic consequences for many developing and import-dependent countries alike.

The umbrella review also adds to the consensus to the fourth research question on the substantial risks that climate change poses to the future availability of imported food. It reaffirms the position that the overall prognosis for global food supplies will be characterised by a combination of climate-induced yield reductions, greater risks from trade disruptions and possible conflicts, higher food prices and longer-term threats to availability. These growing threats to global food security will transpire at a time of both increasing demand driven by population growth and heightened uncertainty in the marketplace. The impacts of climate change on food systems has, rather unsurprisingly perhaps, been explored more extensively through the systematic review process, producing 16 relevant reviews to date. One of the earliest to meet the inclusion criteria for this umbrella review is also one of the most significant; it looked at 1700 studies into the global effects of climate change on crop yields, with the meta-analysis finding that yields for wheat, rice, and maize are at particular risk at temperature increases of 2°C (Challinor *et al.*, 2014). One earlier review had already found increasing CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were likely to decrease the protein concentration of many plant foods (Taub *et al.*, 2008). Later systematic reviews soon added to the knowledge base: the effects on yields in Europe is more positive, especially in Northern Europe where yields could be higher by 2050, whereas in southern Europe yield reductions of 11 per cent were predicted (Knox *et al.*, 2016); the meta-analysis by German *et al.* (2017) suggested the link between yields and the negative externalities caused by a range of measures including efficiencies in energy-use, water-use, nutrient-use, pollination, abundance or effectiveness of natural predators, and soil biodiversity; in those areas where yield is more effected, this would further impact quality and ultimately nutritional health especially in fruit, vegetables, nuts, legumes, and seeds (Scheelbeek *et al.*, 2017; Scheelbeek *et al.*, 2018; Alae-Carew *et al.*, 2020); Knapp and van der Heijden (2018) found that although organic production systems promoted biodiversity and environmental benefits, yields were 15 per cent lower and Wickramasinghe *et al.* (2013) claim that organic and locally produced foods do not always produce fewer GHGEs; whereas Escarcha *et al.* (2018) saw gaps in the research for large parts of the world and Le Mouël and Forslund (2017) recommended scenarios that both increased yields and involved dietary change. Further systematic reviews call for improved model reporting and methodological improvements in order to better predict future global food demand (Flies *et al.*, 2018), better assess climate risk and vulnerability (Jurgilevich *et al.*, 2017), adaptation strategies (Pearce *et al.*, 2016), the need for greater knowledge (Wirehn, 2018) and the need to examine adaptation and mitigation policies together (Landauer *et al.*, 2015). One of the latest meta-analyses finds that those countries most at risk from climate change will also face the highest AMR risks affecting both aquaculture and human health (Reverter *et al.*, 2020) which requires global antibiotic policies to effectively restrict (Tang *et al.*, 2019). Many countries will be forced to limit food exports to ensure their own domestic food security, and thereby further exacerbating the

availability of food supplies. The scientific evidence adds further weight to the existing EAC warning to government of the significant risk to existing food security, especially the current sourcing of fruit and vegetable imports from countries at a higher risk of being impacted by climate change. The evidence also confirms the risks to food security are also further exacerbated by Brexit and a 'no-deal' trade outcome with the EU.

To understand the significance of these impacts in more detail, the research also uses scenario analysis to develop case studies on the impacts of climate change on selected food commodities - grains, potatoes, fish, meat, and fruit and vegetables - are of particular importance to the UK. These cases primarily demonstrate a disconnect between what modern food systems demand and what future diets should look like. Here estimates suggest that the current global cereal production provides 2.5 times more cereals, but less than one-fifth of the fruit and vegetables needed should everyone adopt the USA's dietary guidelines. Many systems are heavily dependent on both fossil-based inputs and water availability; yield growth is plateauing and may well fall further with increasing temperatures. This in turn is expected to mean that supply will be unable to keep up with the projected increases in demand caused by population growth. The sustainable intensification techniques currently advocated in some circles may well be restricted by failing soil fertility. Perhaps the biggest limitation, however, is the current practice of feeding around a third of all grain to cattle. As the population increases and many become more affluent, the increasing consumption of animal products will further exacerbate this problem, with even more serious deterioration in the environmental degradation that this causes. Maize is the largest cereal market globally, but critics are concerned about highly unsustainable associations including deforestation, high water needs, soil degradation, and fertiliser usage. It is also highly threatened by increasing temperature changes, where rapidly reducing yields could have devastating impacts on millions of the world's poorest consumers who rely on this as a staple crop. In the UK it is grown as a cattle feed and increasingly for bio-gas generation, both of which have led to rapid declines in soil biodiversity. Rice production causes similar concerns from a sustainability perspective: yield increases cannot keep up with rising demand; this demand is creating additional pressure on land resources; and the crop is also highly susceptible to temperature increases. Wheat provides daily calories for 4.5 million people, but increasingly cannot be grown in sustainable ways and again demand is outstripping yield growth. The crop is particularly susceptible to drought and heat diminishes important quality characteristics. Soya production has increased by 50 per cent within the last decade, fuelled by genetic modification and dependency on multiple applications of glyphosate. Around three quarters of all production is again fed to livestock; it is also used in biofuels. Despite its multitude of possible food uses and being found in two-thirds of UK processed foods, it remains a highly controversial component within plant-based diets. Of the 3.2mt imported as raw material into the UK, the majority comes from South America where its rapid growth is synonymous with land-use change, industrial-scale monocultures and deforestation. Although

responsible certification schemes are in operation, they cover only a minute proportion of the total crop sold. Climate change is also expected to bring about yield reductions in potatoes, as well as forcing significant changes to where and how the crop is grown. Know *et al.* (2011) predict UK production in areas such as the Lincolnshire Fens will be impacted in around half of all future seasons, either by water shortages or flooding, whereas at present only around one third of all harvest years are impacted (Adesina and Thomas, 2020). The ability for the UK crop to withstand climate change remains a gap within the current literature.

The case studies in meat and fish are associated with a huge array of sustainability issues. In the case of fish, the problems are invariably down to systematically overfishing and environmental degradation. Consumption is increasing by nearly 10 per cent per annum which, although this may be good from a dietary perspective, is responsible for many additional concerns. The case study into both fish capture and aquaculture makes for dire reading, with much of the scientific language framed with terms including collision course, harming human prosperity, a climate-led perfect storm into total collapse, and a tragedy of the commons. Poor political governance, including under the CFP, has had a significant part to play, especially when increasingly sophisticated, industrial-scale vessels have been allowed to catch amounts far beyond those deemed essential by scientists to enable stocks to recover. Without time to recover, scientist warn global fish stocks could be tipped into collapse by 2050 or even earlier, causing millions to starve. Once again, these practices are controlled by a diminishingly small circle of global corporations, based in wealthy countries but extracting fish from the other countries' waters. Many UK fish species have either long-since disappeared or are no longer economically viable. Although the UK has established a limited number of protected zones, the latest reports suggest even these were fished for over 3000 hours in 2019, by industrial 'super-trawlers' from Russia, The Netherlands and Poland (Carrington, 2020b; Drummond, 2020; Webster, 2020). Brexit may facilitate taking back control of British waters, but it is unlikely to bring about much of a change in the amount of fishing being done by UK vessels. One estimate suggests fishing activity is down by 94 per cent since the 1880s. British aquaculture, albeit undertaken by Norwegian companies, has a similarly long list of woes although, to be fair, these are common throughout this rapidly growing industrial sector. The main concern is the environmental cost, measured in terms of pollution, eutrophication, increasing dependency of antibiotics and other chemicals to control disease (and in the future this may potentially include neonicotinoids). The one meta-analysis into aquaculture raises concern regarding AMR and calls for urgent action. Fish farms also cause increased mortality in native species when they are exposed to unnaturally high levels of lice. The use of wild fish as a feedstock and cereal-based feed-stocks reducing the nutritional value of farmed fish both raise additional concerns; the farms also cause habitat destruction and water quality problems; GM escapes also threaten native species. In all, the limited number of LCA studies reveal that such rearing systems have high carbon footprints, with some higher than meat. Fish may be good for health, but in damaging the biosphere, it

ultimately risks damaging human health, too. There is much to be done before aquaculture can become truly sustainable. The same can be said about achieving SDG 14. Various studies call for fish consumption to be curtailed, until such times that it can be deemed more sustainable (Grigorakis, 2010; Olesen *et al.*, 2011; Pinto de Moura *et al.*, 2012; Bovenkerk and Meijboom, 2012; Kalshoven and Meijboom, 2013; Regnier and Schubert, 2013; Röcklinsberg, 2014; Säwe and Hultman, 2014).

Despite its previous rich history, the UK now only produces a fraction of the fruit and vegetables that it once did, which is a major obstacle when these are the major components within sustainable diets. At the same time, consumption of fruit and vegetables is woefully inadequate, averaging well below the target set in 2003 and is now around half of the NHS's 2014 recommendation of 7 portions per day. Of course, this average masks huge inequalities but, once again, the current COVID-19 pandemic has shown just how extreme these inequalities can become (BMJ, 2020; Laborde *et al.*, 2020). The declining levels of production is down to a variety of factors, including poor producer margins that have in turn led to lower investments in production technologies and food retailers sourcing year-round supplies from the global market. Although figures vary depending on source, one recent estimate suggested 76 per cent of all vegetables and 41 per cent of all fruits are imported, mostly from the EU and a wide range of other countries such as South Africa, Morocco, Egypt and New Zealand. All these countries have their own particular challenges as they face adapting to future climate change. Critics argue that at best, the UK is exporting its environmental burdens and importing scarce resources such as water from countries where these resources are needed for domestic consumption; at worst, Lang (2020) argues this is the result of a neo-colonial and post-imperial model of food supply, whereby the UK expects other countries to feed it. UK consumers also eat the fruits from the labour of others, completely unaware of the consequence such consumption may be causing: Cherry tomatoes from Morocco have been associated with slave labour (Fairfood International, 2014); avocados from Chile, where some plantations have installed illegal pipes and wells diverting water from rivers to irrigate their crops, violating the water rights of those who live there; and strawberries from Spain, where diminishing water tables continue to threaten ecosystems in the neighbouring national park. When a UK food producer plans a radical departure from the norm, such as with the proposed Nocton mega-dairy a decade ago, the public reaction based on environmental and animal welfare grounds became a national media story that became so vociferous, the company withdrew its application. But when five young people died after inhaling fumes in a chicken plant in Bangkok which supplies large fast-food restaurant chains in the UK (*Bangkok Post*, 2017), the story doesn't even make the UK media. As with all these overseas products, the supply chain is so long that consumers rarely get to see the consequences of their purchasing actions or appreciate the many complexities involved along the way.

## 5.6 What should health professionals be doing to inform and enable the behavioural changes needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets? [RQ5]

The impetus for this thesis comes from working alongside health professionals. They are incredibly committed and adept practitioners, dedicated to improving the lives of those they seek to help. Many have a detailed knowledge garnered over many years on the various attributes of food, coupled with a strong conviction regarding what constitutes a healthy and nutritious diet. When discussing the various health-enhancing properties of popular choices such as salmon, pomegranates and avocado, for example, there is a tendency not to consider details such as where food comes from, its resource requirements, environmental impacts, and consequences of getting it to UK consumers. Several studies call for health professionals to be more proactively involved in the dietary transition process. Gill and Scott (2009, p.1953) suggested health professionals should *'reach beyond conventional professional boundaries to collaborate with policymakers and scientists concerned with the study, development, and implementation of policies and technologies to mitigate climate change'*. Most, however, have no training or background in this area and there are few, readily available resources to assist. The umbrella review is especially useful in helping develop a framework for health professionals to enable them to contribute to the behavioural changes needed. Although most nutritionists and dietitians will have had little or no training in sustainable diets or ecological public health, most will be familiar with methodological approaches that include systematic and umbrella reviews to determine both the latest evidence and approaches towards remedying treatment. Knowledge on the rationale behind sustainable diets needs to be embedded into further and higher education for all health professionals, with ongoing training and support to assist all those working within this new and quickly emerging aspect of healthcare. The earlier research questions address both the public health interventions required to reduce the health impacts of climate change, and the policies needed to enable transformational dietary change. Consumers will need help to understand the need for change, guidance on the best ways to engage with such changes, and specific guidance on how to ensure their diets become more sustainable. Using the data garnered from the initial literature and the umbrella review, figure 101 synthesises this information into a simple healthy and sustainable diet framework for UK health professionals.

Systematic reviews are used extensively to understand the impacts of climate change on human health. Nichols *et al.* (2009) UK based review identified an urgent need for mitigation and adaptation strategies to be evidence-based. Further reviews link food sovereignty and health equity (Weiler *et al.*, 2015) and the possible impacts on health inequalities (Haby *et al.*, 2016). Health promotion and marketing have been the focus of many review, covering the effects of retailer promotion on healthy food choices and eating practices (Escaron *et al.*, 2013; Hartmann-Boyce *et al.*, 2018; Blake *et al.*, 2019; Hollis-Hansen *et al.*, 2019; Houghtaling *et al.*, 2019) and obesity interventions (Adam and Jensen, 2016). Interestingly, Jung



*et al.* (2015) find dietitians and nutritionists are more likely to have a stigma with obesity. Other reviews consider interventions to promote healthy eating (Hendry *et al.*, 2013; McDermott *et al.*, 2015), the effects of increased vegetable and fruit consumption (Mytton *et al.* (2014), the value of eating norms and empowering nutrition in promoting healthy changes to dietary behaviour (Brandstetter *et al.*, 2015; Robinson *et al.*, 2014), the impact of health-related claims on dietary choices (Kaur *et al.*, 2017; Smith-Taillie *et al.*, 2017), the effectiveness of social (Chau *et al.*, 2018; Abril and Dempsey, 2019) and digital (Hedin *et al.*, 2019) campaigns in healthy eating behaviours, and health and food marketing (Silchenko *et al.*, 2019) including to children (Smith *et al.*, 2019). Nudge theory is also recommended in a further 10 studies (Arno and Thomas, 2016; Bucher *et al.*, 2016; Wilson *et al.*, 2016; Vecchio and Cavallo, 2019) including applications such as in school (Thapa and Lyford, 2014; Horne *et al.*, 2020; Marcano-Olivier *et al.*, 2020), increasing fruit and vegetable choice (Broers *et al.*, 2017); to improve health (Tørris and Mobekk, 2019), and towards products with a lower environmental footprint (Ferrari *et al.*, 2019). Finally, a range of further reviews add to the knowledge base, ranging from the public health interventions needed to reduce the health impacts of climate change (Bouzid *et al.*, 2013), the lifestyle-related changes that would be required (Quam *et al.*, 2017) to UK households (Porter *et al.*, 2014), the role of CSOs (Poutiainen *et al.*, 2013), and the educational approaches needed to support the health professions (Vaitkeviciute *et al.*, 2015; Lopez-Medina *et al.*, 2019) through to the increasing concern over the association between climate change and mental health (Vins *et al.*, 2015), and the association between Glyphosate herbicides and non-hodgkin lymphoma risk (Zhang *et al.*, 2019).

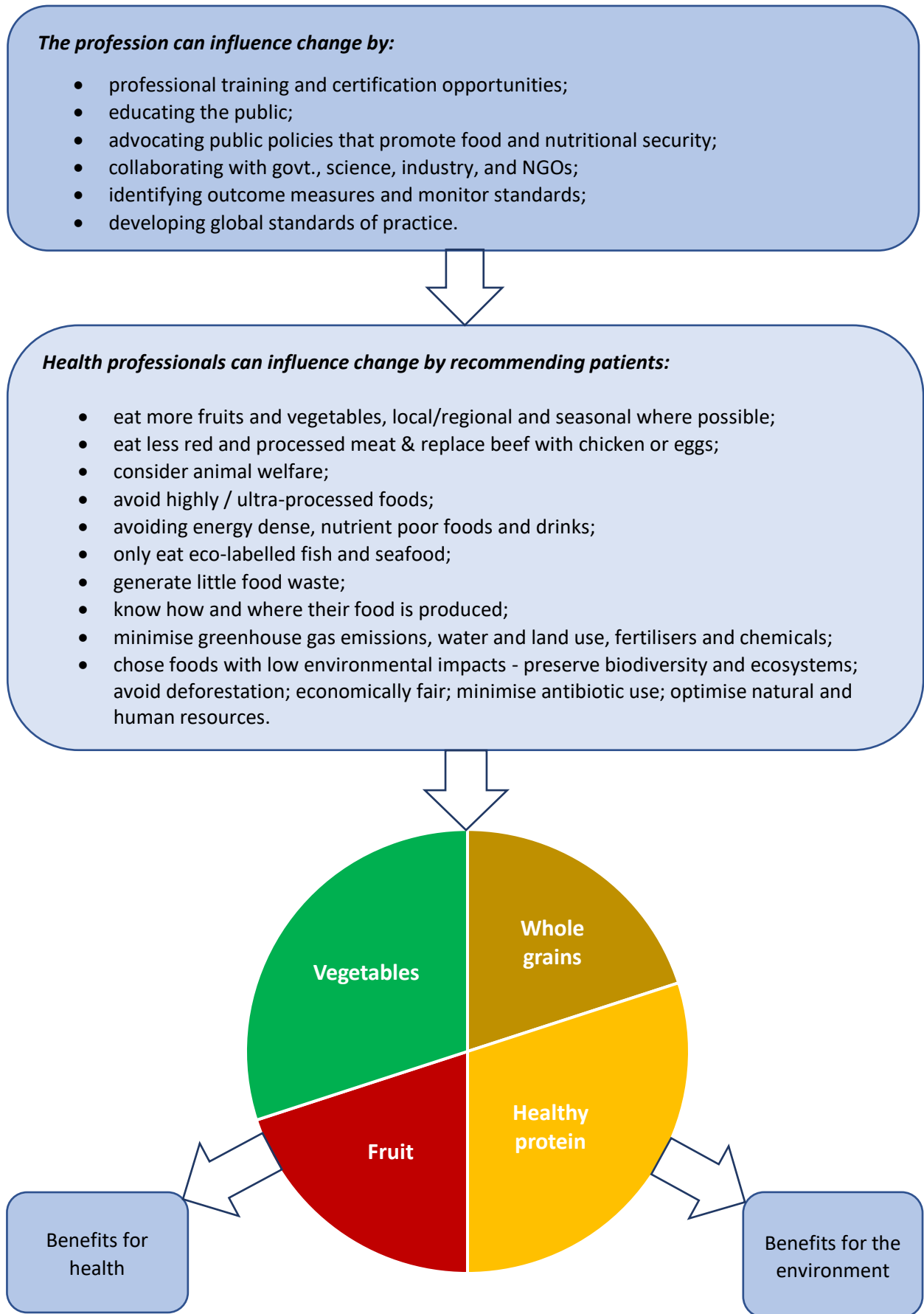
One of the most pressing and immediate challenges stems from the strategic drift or policy vacuum mentioned previously; the UK does not currently have any sustainable dietary guidelines; the Eatwell Guide has a chequered history and needs to be science-based and free from commercial influences. But excellent examples of sustainable dietary guidelines are beginning to emerge elsewhere (e.g. Sweden and The Netherlands both launched theirs in 2015). Both these share similar approaches, by providing a clear rationale for consumers to switch their diets: to more plant-based foods and smaller portions of meat; to sustainably-sourced fish; to seasonal fruit and vegetables or those that store well; eating fewer sweets, cakes, cookies and snacks; minimising waste; and more 'eco-smart' food choices. The Dutch guidelines also attempt to quantify the daily amounts involved (e.g. 200 grams of vegetables, 200 grams of fruit, and 90 grams of wholegrains each day). The UK urgently needs to replace its Eatwell Guide with sustainable dietary guidelines; these need to be science-based, independent, and reviewed regularly. They also need to be enshrined in law and overseen by the British Standards Institute, with their own Publicly Available Specification to ensure integrity and approach. Food policy can then address the current disconnect between recommendations and the availability of sustainable sources as with the case of fish. Health professionals can then prioritise support that encourages behavioural change. Such initiatives would need to start with primary schools and extend right up to Further- and Higher-Education, covering planetary

resources, environmental impacts of consumption, and health promoting behaviours. The school food environment is also critical in improving targeted dietary behaviours (Bourke *et al.*, 2014; Olstad *et al.*, 2017; Colley *et al.*, 2019; Ronto *et al.*, 2020). Here reviews recommend using best practice to design policies that help improve childhood dietary habits and health (Micha *et al.*, 2018) and reduce the impact of highly available, competitive foods (Sildén, 2018) such as food takeaways near schools (Turbutt *et al.*, 2019). Further reviews find such best practice includes multi-strategy interventions involving schools and families (Meiklejohn *et al.*, 2016) and the need for more robust methods to monitor the school food environment to further understand obesogenic school environments (O'Halloran *et al.*, 2020). Effective interventions to prevent childhood obesity included banning sugary drinks in schools and increasing the availability and accessibility of fruits and vegetables (Pineda *et al.*, 2019), healthier choices in school cafeterias (Gordon *et al.*, 2018), and the regional variations in the access to convenience stores (Xin *et al.*, 2019). Health professionals can then contribute to the areas identified within the umbrella review as needing further research; to better understand consumer and industry responses to reducing price promotions, the effects of commodity prices on nutrition and health, and other public health interventions. Such market interventions are urgently needed now as part of wide-ranging policies to change behaviour before the costs of curing the health and environmental burdens become unaffordable.

The commercial food industry is seen as one of the main sources of diet-related risk through its influence within the six key obesogenic environments (Sonntag *et al.*, 2015), where conflicts of interest abound, but where health promotion policy possibilities exist (Cullerton *et al.*, 2019; Mah *et al.*, 2019), but where retailer instrumental, structural and discursive power means positive public health impacts of supermarket power were rarely identified (Pulker *et al.*, 2018) and healthy interventions at the point-of-sale were of uncertain benefit (Liberato *et al.*, 2014). Maynard *et al.* (2020) similarly reviews the sustainability indicators in the food service sector and Bandy *et al.* (2019) uses commercial sales data to assess dietary change. Trade and investment agreements also pose significant health risks (Thow *et al.*, 2010; Barlow *et al.*, 2017). The anomaly that healthier and nutrient dense foods invariably have higher GHGe than foods with poorer, nutritionally suboptimal diets that are high in sugar is a common concern (Mandal, 2016; Payne *et al.*, 2016) as is the associate link with cancer (Makarem *et al.*, 2018). Reviews into healthy eating interventions in the home have been largely inconclusive (Snuggs *et al.*, 2019), although home cooking was associated with potential dietary benefits (Mills *et al.*, 2017) where parental influence (Johnson *et al.*, 2018; Perez-Cueto, 2019) and support (Bourke *et al.*, 2014) were both seen as critical elements within a holistic approach. Environmental and social responsibility labelling schemes are of more value to food consumers than previously thought, although care is needed to ensure this does not negatively impact on public health nutrition by leading some consumers to choose environmentally friendly products that might be less nutritious (Tobi *et al.*, 2019). The systematic reviews also contribute to the measurement (Kirkpatrick *et al.*, 2014; Jones *et al.*, 2016; Hallström *et al.*, 2018; Wrieden *et al.*

2019) and modelling of sustainable diets (Grieger *et al.*, 2017), sedentary behaviour (Pearson and Biddle, 2011) and weight management (Atallah *et al.*, 2014; Turton *et al.*, 2016; Nour *et al.*, 2018; Oostenbach *et al.*, 2019), the benefits to public health from reducing GHG emissions (Gao *et al.*, 2018), and a plethora of studies into dietary change interventions (Hyseni *et al.*, 2017; Pember and Knowlden, 2017; Halford *et al.*, 2018) and future dietary patterns (Green *et al.*, 2016; Alae-Carew *et al.*, 2019).

The third stage of the framework should ideally feature the UK's sustainable dietary guidelines. Unfortunately, however, no such definitive blueprint currently exists. The existing PHE Eatwell Guide has been heavily criticised previously for the unhelpful and misleading intervention from the commercial food sector (Cobiac *et al.*, 2016); the 2016 edition is still perceived to have similar shortcomings and still does not fully incorporate sustainable diets at its core; and in 2018 the EAC urged further revision to include foods with lower environmental footprints and clear recommendations to help consumers choose healthy and sustainable diets. Its recommendations were informed by an external reference group that included the British Retail Consortium (i.e. the big food retailers and food manufacturers), the Food & Drink Federation (the main food processing companies, including those promoting ultra-processed foods), the Association of Convenience Stores (a government lobbying group), and the Agriculture & Horticulture Development Board (the levy board representing food producers). The Royal College of Nursing were also included, but they failed to attend most meetings. After the new Guide was published, one manufacturer even ran a series of media adverts telling consumers that it was great to have their Flora vegetable spread accepted onto the guide (see appendix 8.16). As an alternative, the Eat-Lancet planetary health plate (see appendix 8.6) could be used if it is adopted. Here, once again however, the jury remains out as to whether this diet fully meets all the necessary dietary requirements, and the policy literature clarifies the role of big agri-food companies in recommending plant-based foods that require high levels of food processing. Lang (2020) also advocates the need to enshrine such guidelines by the British Standards Institution with their own Publicly Available Specification.



**Figure 101:** A healthy and sustainable diet framework for UK health professionals

*For the time being, stage three of the framework is purely a hypothetical representation of what a future UK based, healthy and sustainable diet plate might look like*

Professional bodies such as the WHO, the International Union for Health Promotion and Education, the European Public Health Association, the UK Health Alliance on Climate Change, the British Medical Association, the UK's Climate and Health Council, the British Nutrition Foundation, and the Food Standards Agency are also central to enabling health professionals to lead by example (Gill and Stott, 2009; Dixon, 2015; British Medical Association, 2016; FSA, 2016; *The Lancet*, 2016c; Galea, 2017; EUPHA, 2017; UKHACC, 2020). Lang (2017c) also acknowledges other recent initiatives, such as the International Panel of Experts on Food (IPES-Food), the EAT-Lancet Commission, the Global Alliance coalition, and funders such as the Wellcome Trust. The UKHACC (2020) recommendations on climate change are further detailed in appendix 8.12.



## 6. Conclusions, recommendations, and reflections

### 6.1 Introduction

This final chapter considers the conclusions along with the significance and implications of the findings for each of the five research questions. It also considers the main contributions made to the existing knowledge, particularly the extent to which it addresses the gaps previously identified. Finally, the chapter considers the limitations of this thesis and areas for further research.

### 6.2 Overview of findings: significance and implications

The main findings and their implications are grouped into five areas. The first is the scale of the scientific consensus and enormity of evidence calling for change. The world now feels a very different place to the one that has delivered our food over the past four decades. The scientific evidence is increasingly focused on an overwhelming consensus that human behaviour is creating conditions that will, at best, drastically and permanently curtail humanity's potential and, at worst, lead to its extinction. As the UK tries to find its position in the world outside of the EU, the global political landscape also looks very different. The rise of right-wing populism and increasingly nationalistic stances taken by some countries are reshaping the cultural, political and economic landscape, generating fear and uncertainty, and causing many to question the benefits and equity of globalisation. CSOs and social movements such as Extinction Rebellion and Black Lives Matter add further pressure for global change. The post-imperial default policy, whereby the UK relies on food imports, is no longer fit for purpose, increasingly seen as morally corrupt (Lang, 2020), and has left the country vulnerable to the most appalling human catastrophes such as COVID-19 (Horton, 2020). Oceans and land are critical natural and national assets that need both nurturing and protecting, and yet the UK has some of the most depleted resources which are unable to support sufficient food production. The prevailing government perspective sees food security as a combination of both local food production and international trade (Houses of Parliament, 2020). Research shows the UK is currently using 5-6 times its own land area to produce food, that 70 per cent of this land and 64 per cent of the GHG emissions is located overseas, especially in countries where climate change will be much more severe. Fifteen years ago DEFRA warned about the increasing risks of crop failure affecting UK imports and called for policymakers to adapt accordingly; a message repeated more recently by the Adaptation Sub-Committee, further demonstrating that current food policy is as unsustainable as it is indefensible.

The second area of findings and implications relate to inherent weaknesses in the neoliberal market. Much of the evidence links anthropogenic climate change to capitalism and the growth treadmill that it requires. Alternative sustainable approaches that are urgently needed; and protectionist reactions are increasingly predicted as the global crisis starts to affect more nations. At the same time, however,

continuing to put politics ahead of health or the planet will become increasingly unacceptable. The laissez-faire approach that has increasingly dominated UK food policy for over 40 years has undoubtedly delivered cheap food. The increasing propensity to liberalise world markets has brought huge societal rewards for many; so much so, that the virtues of the free market have now almost become a given. Even the limited regulations imposed by the UK's membership of the EU was seen as restricting access to the free market beyond. The mere suggestion that this growth might not last, that it was storing-up potential problems for the future, or that it might even threaten the very survival of future generations, could be easily dismissed when supermarkets offered ever-more choice of foods from around the world. The growing magnitude of these distant suggestions have, however, been gathering pace for some time, fuelled-on by the growing scientific consensus. Today, few consumers doubt the reality of climate change; many are beginning to accept the need for change; and the CSOs are focusing attention on the urgency such change now requires. As the door opens on the legacy of cheap food, the enormity of the task ahead is huge: our diets are now the major cause of mortality, morbidity and disease; many ecosystems have declined to such an extent that their very survival is now at risk; environmental damage risks pushing temperature increases to levels beyond which we would be unable to regain control; and the food security taken as a certainty for so long is brought into sharp focus when supermarket shelves empty within a couple of days of disruption. The evidence for change is clear and overwhelming: what is lacking, however, is the political will to change. Until that political will is galvanised into change, the business-as-usual default position will continue, but the evidence suggests that this trajectory is the quickest route towards existential crisis. To galvanise political will needs electoral focus: not just by the dedicated few sitting on the fringes, but vast swathes of the electorate who see their lives and the future for their children in serious peril. The CSOs along with a relatively small number of environmental journalists continue to ensure that these issues remain in the news. The absence of a national food strategy and general lack of consumer awareness of the need to change consumption behaviour continues to exacerbate the UK situation.

The third area of findings and implications relate to the urgency to find a solution. COVID-19 has already infected 168 million people across 222 countries (30<sup>th</sup> May 2021) and provides further evidence of the link between planetary and human health. If ever there was a point in history that galvanised a need for urgent change on a global scale, this must be it. This is certainly not a new finding; many studies over the past two decades make similar recommendations. Nor is it a fact lost on UK governments: their very own Stern Review in 2006 referred to this overwhelming scientific evidence and the need for decisive and urgent action; Carney has reminded them that the responsibility for responding to climate change remains with them; and yet, the present Government still does not seem fully aware or conversant of the risks. The relative lack of progress over this time, coupled with the increasing knowledge that science has delivered at the same time, has fundamentally shifted many assumptions. It is clear from this thesis that

the world is not currently on track to achieve either the SDGs or the Paris Agreement. More recent studies are increasingly focused on 2030 as the date, beyond which, there is a high probability that the existential threat will become unstoppable. The tipping points that climate scientists predict, in particular the collapse of global ice sheets and the melting of permafrost, will trigger an acceleration in temperature rises that will be both impossible to reverse, and therefore be impossible for vast swathes of humanity to endure. Furthermore, the biodiversity of the ecosystems which support all life systems will be irreparably damaged. These factors have significantly changed recommendations within the literature, which is now focused on the few remaining years left to prevent the stoppable becoming unstoppable. Globally, more effort is urgently required to go further and faster, otherwise the consequences of this inaction further compounds the seriousness of the problems ahead. Current modelling trajectories are continuing to predict average temperature increases of around 3.5-4°C on the medium to high emissions path. The tipping point, beyond which climate change is expected to become irreversible, is thought to be between 2-3°C. To continue on this trajectory will quickly result in higher food prices; meta-analyses predict significant yield declines which will exacerbate supplies even further; putting further pressures on water stress thereby forcing many increasingly vulnerable countries to export less. The world must ensure that the 1.5°C target is realised; it cannot allow nationalism or political disunity to stand in the way of achieving this goal; nor can those countries on a faster track towards lowering emissions do so alone. The developed nations must also help the developing nations to achieve the same goal within the same timescale. Despite the poor and clearly inadequate progress to date, the evidence undoubtedly suggests that the threats from climate change can be avoided by 2050, and importantly, that current food production has sufficient capacity to meet the nutritional needs of the population in 2050, providing that the radical social adaptations required start now. Lack of progress over the past two decades in the UK is of particular concern.

The fourth area of findings and implications relate to the obstacles that remain and continue to inhibit possible solutions. Even today, the general impression in various UK governmental departments is that responsibility isn't within their brief and, without a national food strategy, collectively the government is failing to take responsibility on the assumption that the neoliberal marketplace can resolve. Little wonder then that auditors find the government failing to deliver on 24 out of 25 areas. Concerns over the credibility of the Committee on Climate Change have to be resolved and its independence guaranteed. The threat from climate change is so great that it needs to have one department with specific overall responsibility. Even the government's slow response to the COVID-19 public health crisis could be seen as further evidence for both the urgent need for them to have robust plans and mechanisms in place to respond to future shocks to food security. The Committee on Climate Change provided clarity in 2017 on the three main risks to UK and, in doing so, identified the urgent priorities: from flooding; temperature increases affecting domestic food production; and threats to imported food supplies caused by climate



change reducing availability and disrupting trade. The Government's own auditors, however, warn that it is ignoring the advice on food security from the Committee on Climate Change; specifically, importing over 40 per cent of its food, including from countries classified as highly and moderately climate vulnerable. They also warned this risk would be even greater should the UK leave the EU which provides over 40 per cent of current supplies. Although the academic discourse has made very significant gains over this time; the political discourse has not. Even today, the general impression by the various governmental departments is that responsibility isn't within their brief and, without a national food strategy, the government is failing to act on the assumption that the neoliberal market place can resolve without any need to intervene.

For at least the past 40 years, the lack of a national food strategy has inadvertently allowed strategic drift with the UK's food security. The previous imperialist approach to sourcing food from around the world seemed to morph quite readily into the neo-liberal markets that globalisation provided, driven by an abundance of affordable fossil fuels making the global trade in commodities a possibility. Lang (2020) continues to call for a national food strategy that addresses the fundamental questions of how to use our land, the policy requirements to ensure food is affordable to all, defines a good diet, determines what a sustainable food systems should look like and, most importantly of all, designing exactly what form the transformational shift should take in the move from the current, high risk neo-colonial import-dependency model to a truly sustainable food system that delivers healthy diets to all. Until such a strategy is in place, all further land-use change should cease until such times that it can be done in a planned and co-ordinated manner. Other nations should be encouraged to do the same; any notion that Africa, for example, could be 'tapped' to provide palm oil for the world's cattle and processed foods market should be abhorrent, given the extent of the challenge facing nations in the southern hemisphere as they adapt to changing climates. This national food strategy would also be instrumental in shaping food policy once the UK fully leaves the EU, as well as steering the country towards achieving the SDGs and Paris Agreement commitments. It would also ensure co-ordination between government departments, so often seen as disjointed. The latest PostNote from the Houses of Parliament (2020) does at least acknowledge that some experts are proposing such a notion but falls short of really advocating it. The much-anticipated National Food Strategy scheduled for publication later in the summer of 2021 is eagerly awaited. If it is singularly focused on the clear scientific consensus, there will be genuine jubilation from scientists and many health professionals alike; if however, the powerful food lobby continues to insist that the market economy is best able to tackle the challenges and that the business-as-usual will soon return, the future prognosis will be grim. The challenge of getting the politicians to act upon the recommendations remains a further hurdle. Fears that Brexit and now COVID-19 will further distract government from the emphasis and trajectory urgently needed remains. After Brexit, food imports could switch from high Environmental Performance Index EU countries to ones with much lower ratings, posing

a whole new array of safety concerns, whereas the UK should only be trading with those nations that are fully complying with international commitments on climate change. The UK also urgently needs a new governance system to replace those once undertaken by the EU.

The final area of contribution this thesis makes has implications for policy. Since Lang (1999) highlighted the intricacies globalisation was inflicting on UK food policy, continued developments in the scientific discourse have enabled a much more detailed understanding of this 'formidable' problem. Unfortunately, there has been little adjustment in policy and food practices in the intervening period. While the fixation on the ability of neoliberal markets to cure-all ills remains, our diet-related health worsens as the existential threat to ecosystems continues to build. With both this greater understanding of the science and Lang's (2020) latest blueprint of the critical infrastructural components for a national food strategy, the UK could soon be on its way towards a sustainable and more secure food system. The umbrella review also provides a clear blueprint for what any successful National Food Strategy must include. It needs to have science-informed ecological public health at its core; it needs effective governance to successfully manage issues such as power, accountability, leadership, and provide longevity beyond changing governmental priorities. It needs to be fully funded, so that Research & Development can support regional development. It also must effectively promote better nutrition and healthier foods through pricing policies that, for example, increase local fruit and vegetable consumption. It must also restrict antibiotic usage, curtail the use of therapeutic antibiotics in farm animals, and prevent similar such products entering the UK food chain thereby risking the health of UK consumers. Such a strategy needs to be part of a wider, more comprehensive effort that enables the social impacts of climate change to be tackled much faster; health policies similarly need to do more to effectively prevent obesity across all ages. Here such policies will need to incentivise and control (where necessary) food retail and hospitality, target educational policies to change dietary behaviour, and health promotion to help educate consumers about portion sizes. Pricing policies are needed to tax unhealthy choices (at suggested levels of 20%) and subsidies to ensure healthy and sustainable food is available to all income groups. Public health strategies also need to be targeted at retailers, so that their relative power can be used to bring about more positive public health benefits. The review also addresses gaps within the knowledge base by calling for more research to understand potential impacts, into the drivers behind current diets, to better understand which interventions are more effective in changing dietary behaviour, and which retailer interventions should be encouraged. The health profession will need to play an important role, and this will involve a detailed understanding of the rationale for, and main components of, a sustainable diet. The initial framework proposed in this thesis could be used to inform the debate, to improve understanding across the profession, and ultimately be used to advise and educate patients and wider consumer groups alike.

### 6.3 The main contribution made by this thesis, recommendations, and limitations

This thesis makes four original contributions to the research field. Firstly, the research provides an umbrella review of the latest evidence on how climate change will impact the UK's ability to both produce and import healthy food and develops recommendations for a new policy framework to ensure the sustainability and security of UK food. The umbrella review is one of only a handful done to date. It is believed to be both the first to consider the policy issues connected to food security and the first specifically written to guide health professionals through the complex narratives surrounding sustainable diets. The size of the sample studied is particularly significant for two reasons: firstly, the interdisciplinarity of food policy means that this encompasses a wide range of inter-related topics; and secondly, systematic reviews and meta-analyses are themselves becoming much more widely used as tools of analysis across these disciplines. The technique is also especially useful for identifying where further systematic reviews and meta-analyses need to be undertaken. The umbrella search using three additional databases produced a significantly difference dataset to that from the initial literature search. So collectively, the six databases used provided useful complementarity. The main strength of this thesis is that it uses a methodological approach that has been increasingly used within the medical profession over the past few decades, so many health professionals will be comfortable with, and have confidence in the approach, even though the concept of sustainable diets may be new to them. Furthermore, the umbrella review provides an overview of the many variables that contribute to the interdisciplinarity of food policy mentioned previously; it also provides both methodological familiarity and a narrative for the required next steps for those nutritionists and dietitians working within the health professions sector.

Secondly, it uses commodity case studies to further analyse the likely impacts on the future availability of both food grown in the UK and areas critical to food imports. Here the lack of consensus on the impacts of climate change on the import regions is complex and there is currently a lack of available data to be able to determine precise impacts. There is some scope for crops to move geographically as temperatures change but, thus far, few studies have considered this aspect. This is then linked to the wider literature and considers possible future constraints such as, for example, the increasing vulnerability of some supplying nations as they struggle to cope with climate change, and the possible impacts on availability and prices caused by the increasing prevalence of nationalism.

Thirdly, it uses climate modelling to quantify the impact of flooding to vegetable and potato production in one important UK growing region, the Lincolnshire Fens, by way of example. The results show that even relatively small levels of sea-level rise risk impacting the majority of Lincolnshire's vegetable and potato capacity. Should this be the case, *ceteris paribus*, the UK's self-sufficiency in vegetables would be further impacted by around 0.6 – 0.9mt of vegetable production per annum based on the loss of production of the Lincolnshire Fens alone, thereby further exacerbating the country's dependency on the increasingly

volatile imports option. This thesis also highlights a gap in the scientific literature, between current estimates of climate change under predicted emissions scenarios, and the greater uncertainty surrounding the post-tipping point estimates. Although local authorities have assessed the likely impact on local populations and the physical location of some business, the assessment does not appear to cover farms or land used for food production. The findings lead to recommendations that local authorities need to better co-ordinate the planning and acknowledge the issue within their local plans; policymakers also need to do more to better understand the impacts of sea-level rise in particular, on vulnerable parts of the UK where there is no national strategy in terms of flood defence or the protection of national food production capacity. The case for the UK growing more of what it possibly can do, as an insurance against what might well turn into chaos within global markets, has never been stronger. At the same time, the moral arguments against using the resources of others, whose needs will be much more adversely affected by climate change than our own, must also have a bearing. Similarly, the UK must assume responsibility for all carbon emissions, included on imported goods. Further research is needed to understand the cost-benefit analysis of flood mitigation and adaptation in these areas; however, it is entirely possible that in the foreseeable future vegetable production will no longer be possible in the Lincolnshire fens.

Finally, it synthesises the latest findings on what constitutes a healthy diet and provides a framework for UK health professionals that will enable them to deliver evidence-based information to inform and bring about the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets. This includes using the framework for the training of, and dissemination by, UK health professionals that will enable them to deliver evidence-based information to inform and bring about the behavioural change needed in the transition to more sustainable and healthy diets. There is a need for health professionals, especially dietitians and nutritionists, to receive formal training in sustainable diets; currently, few options are available. The framework proposed here could be further developed in order to be used for training within the professional community and also form the basis of educating patients and the wider community. The weakness in the current model is the lack of a definitive sustainable diet recommendation. The original intention to use either the latest PHE Eatwell Guide or the EAT-Lancet planetary health diet had to be abandoned due to the further work that needs to be done on both before they could be included and effectively endorsed. It was beyond the scope of this thesis to determine which currently provides the better fit; this requires specific medical and nutritional examination. The final stage of the model is therefore included for illustrative purposes only. Once the sustainable diet element of the framework is established, the intention would be to formally register the outline protocol and the review with the Prospero register and ultimately publish the framework within an international journal in order to receive peer feedback and reach a wider audience as possible. This would also enable potential collaborators to be identified, thereby addressing one of the weaknesses with the current thesis. The

weakness of the current status of nutrition science also remains a limiting factor, especially in arriving at a clear consensus of the key components of a healthy diet. Similar ambiguities also exist as to how healthy diets become sustainable. Further obstacles can be found within the medical profession, many of whom may not have received medical training on diets for health, and in the process of generating the PHE Eatwell Guide. Both of these need to be addressed as a matter of urgency. Similarly, the potential for a more sustainable diet such as the EAT-Lancet planetary health diet needs further evaluation to determine the full extent of possible benefits. Again, this would need to be fully endorsed by the medical profession and then suitable specifications drawn-up by the BSI.

Several limitations in the research have been identified. The first relates to the recommendation that umbrella reviews are best performed by teams with specialist skills. Given the requirements of this thesis, this wasn't possible and, as Perez-Cueto (2019) demonstrates, should not necessarily preclude later journal publication. The second limitation is that a formal meta-analysis was not possible as originally intended. It is noted, however, that this limitation is common to other such reviews where the heterogeneous nature of the studies' settings, designs and outcome measures means a narrative synthesis is more appropriate. The final limitation is the lack of an applicable sustainable diet that is covered in detail in relation to the framework for health professions. This thesis also identifies gaps throughout the analysis. Of particular importance is the lack of data on marine fishing, aquaculture and sustainable intensification, all of which require significant further study.

Finally, to address the continued lack of political engagement demonstrated by successive UK governments, this thesis ends with a specific recommendation. One possible solution to reverse the political disinterest that has seemingly held back meaningful progress over the past two decades would be initiatives to engage widespread consumer interest, in the assumption that this voter-power will convince government of the need to engage. This could be done using main-stream television to highlight the growing plight of food supply. Food has always been a popular genre for TV programmes, but what is needed here is a Professor for Public Engagement role i.e. someone with the right scientific expertise and credentials to engage a mainstream media audience, much in the same way that Brian Cox has done for Astronomy, Bettany Hughes has done for history, and Alice Roberts has done for archæology. On the latter example, the TV programme 'Time Team' helped turn archæology into mainstream TV for the best part of two decades, with around 20m viewers per annum. If done effectively, this medium could be used to inform and educate the general public about the numerous challenges and available options. In the case of extolling the virtues of rewilding, for example, the ongoing story of the Knepp Estate project in West Sussex would be a point in case, especially given the potential of the stork reintroduction programme and the nesting success in 2020 to capture the nation's attention.



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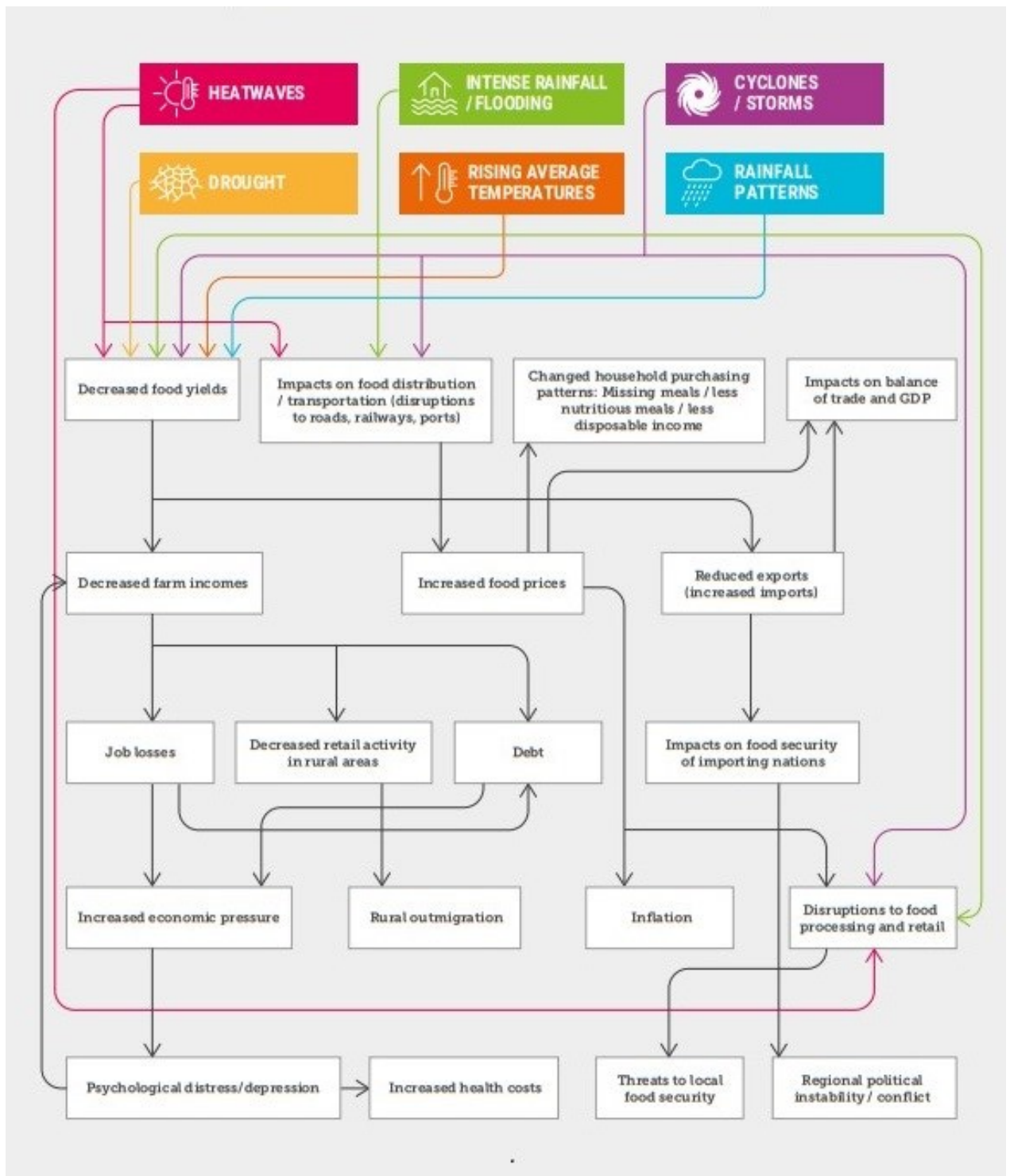
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## **8. Appendices**

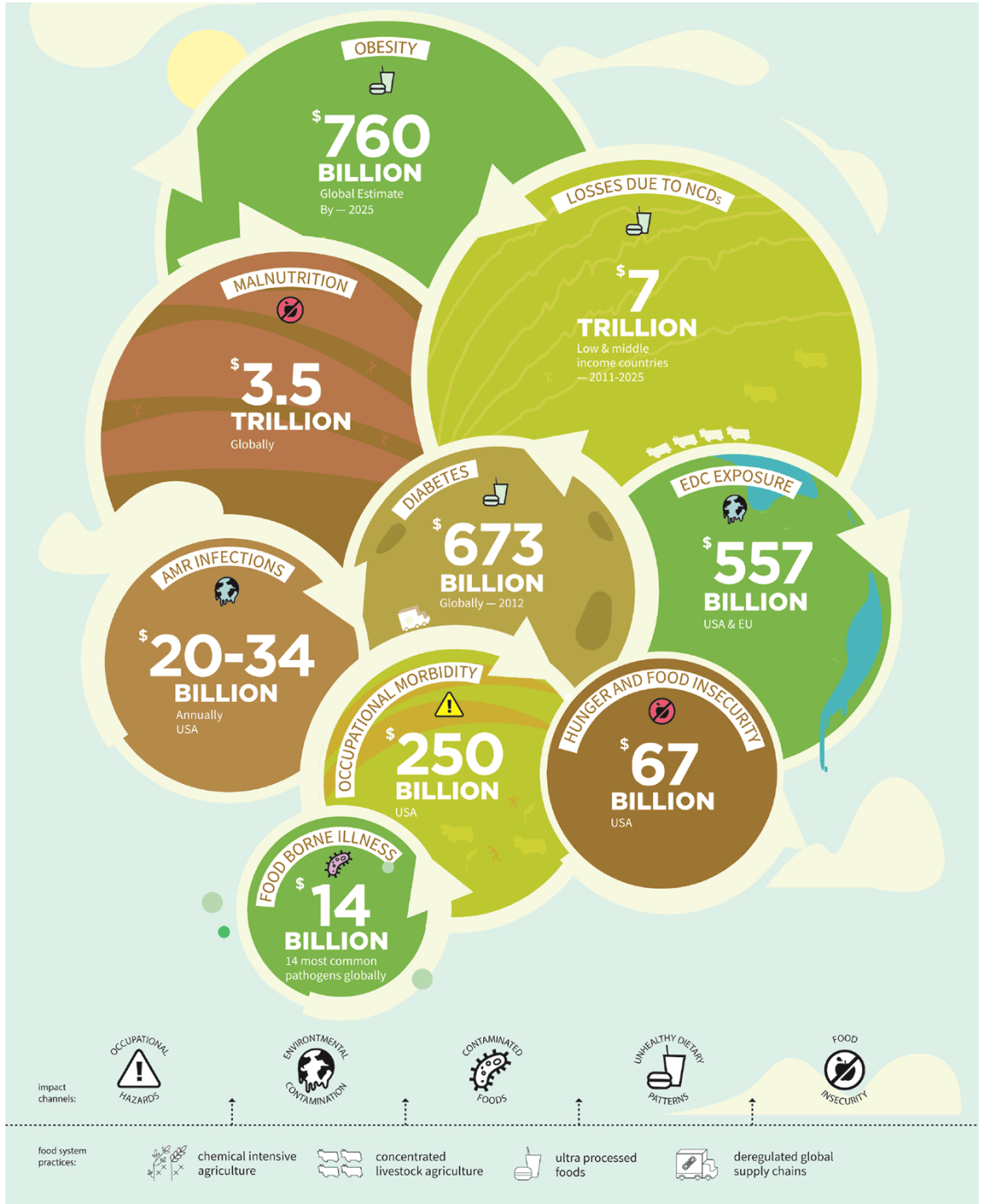
8.1 Impacts of climate change on the food system



Source: Climate Council of Australia (2019).



8.2 The ballooning costs of health impacts

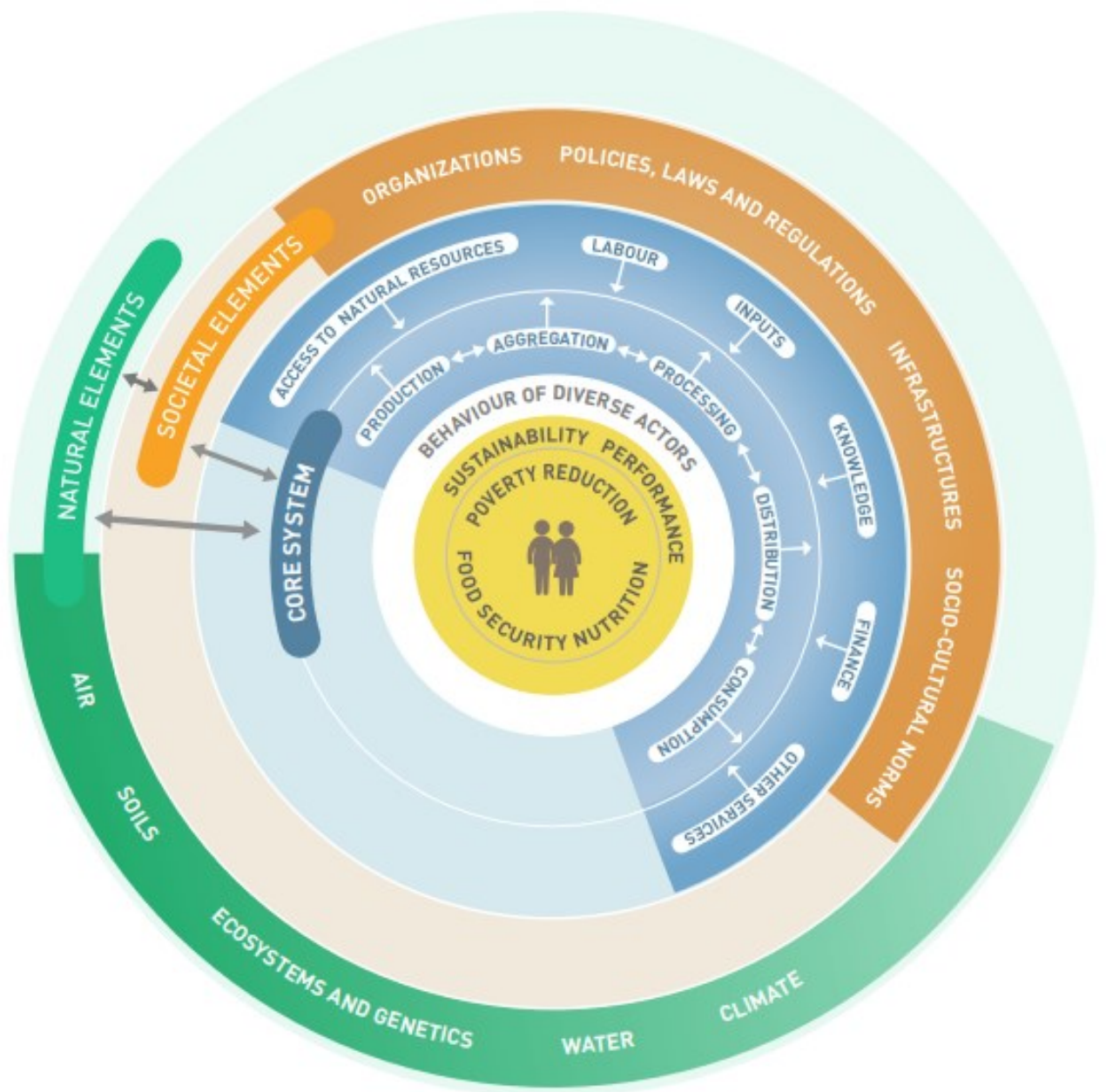


Source: IPES-Food (2017).

### 8.3 Conceptual framework for health impact assessment of a no-deal Brexit

**Source:** van Schalkwyk *et al.* (2019).

8.4 The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations 'food system wheel'



Source: FAO (2018).

### 8.5 The United Nations 'Decade of Action on Nutrition (2016-2025)'



The Decade calls all Member States to act across six pillars for nutrition action based on the commitments of the Rome Declaration on Nutrition and the recommendations included in the Second International Conference on Nutrition (ICN2) Framework for Action (the ICN2 was held in Rome, Italy, on 19<sup>th</sup> -21<sup>st</sup> November 2014):

- Sustainable food systems for healthy diets
- Aligned health systems providing universal coverage of essential nutrition actions
- Social protection and nutrition education
- Trade and investment for improved nutrition
- Enabling food and breastfeeding environments
- Review, strengthen and promote nutrition governance and accountability

**Source:** WHO (2016).

8.6 The EAT-Lancet Commission planetary health plate



Source: Willett et al. (2019).

## 8.7 The Lancet Countdown indicators

### **Climate change impacts, exposures, and vulnerability**

- 1.1: health and heat
- 1.1.1: vulnerability to extremes of heat
- 1.1.2: health and exposure to warming
- 1.1.3: exposure of vulnerable populations to heatwaves
- 1.1.4: change in labour capacity
- 1.2: health and extreme weather events
- 1.2.1: wildfires
- 1.2.2: flood and drought
- 1.2.3: lethality of weather-related disasters
- 1.3: global health trends in climate-sensitive diseases
- 1.4: climate-sensitive infectious diseases
- 1.4.1: climate suitability for infectious disease transmission
- 1.4.2: vulnerability to mosquito-borne diseases
- 1.5: food security and undernutrition
- 1.5.1: terrestrial food security and undernutrition
- 1.5.2: marine food security and undernutrition

### **Adaptation, planning, and resilience for health**

- 2.1: adaptation planning and assessment
- 2.1.1: national adaptation plans for health
- 2.1.2: national assessments of climate change impacts, vulnerability, and adaptation for health
- 2.1.3: city-level climate change risk assessments
- 2.2: climate information services for health
- 2.3: adaptation delivery and implementation
- 2.3.1: detection, preparedness, and response to health emergencies
- 2.3.2: air conditioning—benefits and harms
- 2.4: spending on adaptation for health and health-related activities

### **Mitigation actions and health co-benefits**

- 3.1: energy system and health
- 3.1.1: carbon intensity of the energy system
- 3.1.2: coal phase-out
- 3.1.3: low-carbon emission electricity
- 3.2: access and use of clean energy
- 3.3: air pollution, energy, and transport
- 3.3.1: exposure to air pollution in cities
- 3.3.2: premature mortality from ambient air pollution by sector
- 3.4: sustainable and healthy transport
- 3.5: food, agriculture, and health
- 3.6: mitigation in the health-care sector

### **Economics and finance**

- 4.1: economic losses due to climate-related extreme events
- 4.2: economic costs of air pollution
- 4.3: investing in a low-carbon economy
- 4.3.1: investment in new coal capacity
- 4.3.2: investments in low-carbon energy and energy efficiency
- 4.3.3: employment in low-carbon and high-carbon industries
- 4.3.4: funds divested from fossil fuels
- 4.4: pricing greenhouse-gas emissions from fossil fuels
- 4.4.1: fossil fuel subsidies
- 4.4.2: coverage and strength of carbon pricing
- 4.4.3: use of carbon pricing revenues

### **Public and political engagement**

- 5.1: media coverage of health and climate change
- 5.2: individual engagement in health and climate change
- 5.3: engagement in health and climate change in the UN General Assembly
- 5.4: engagement in health and climate change in the corporate sector

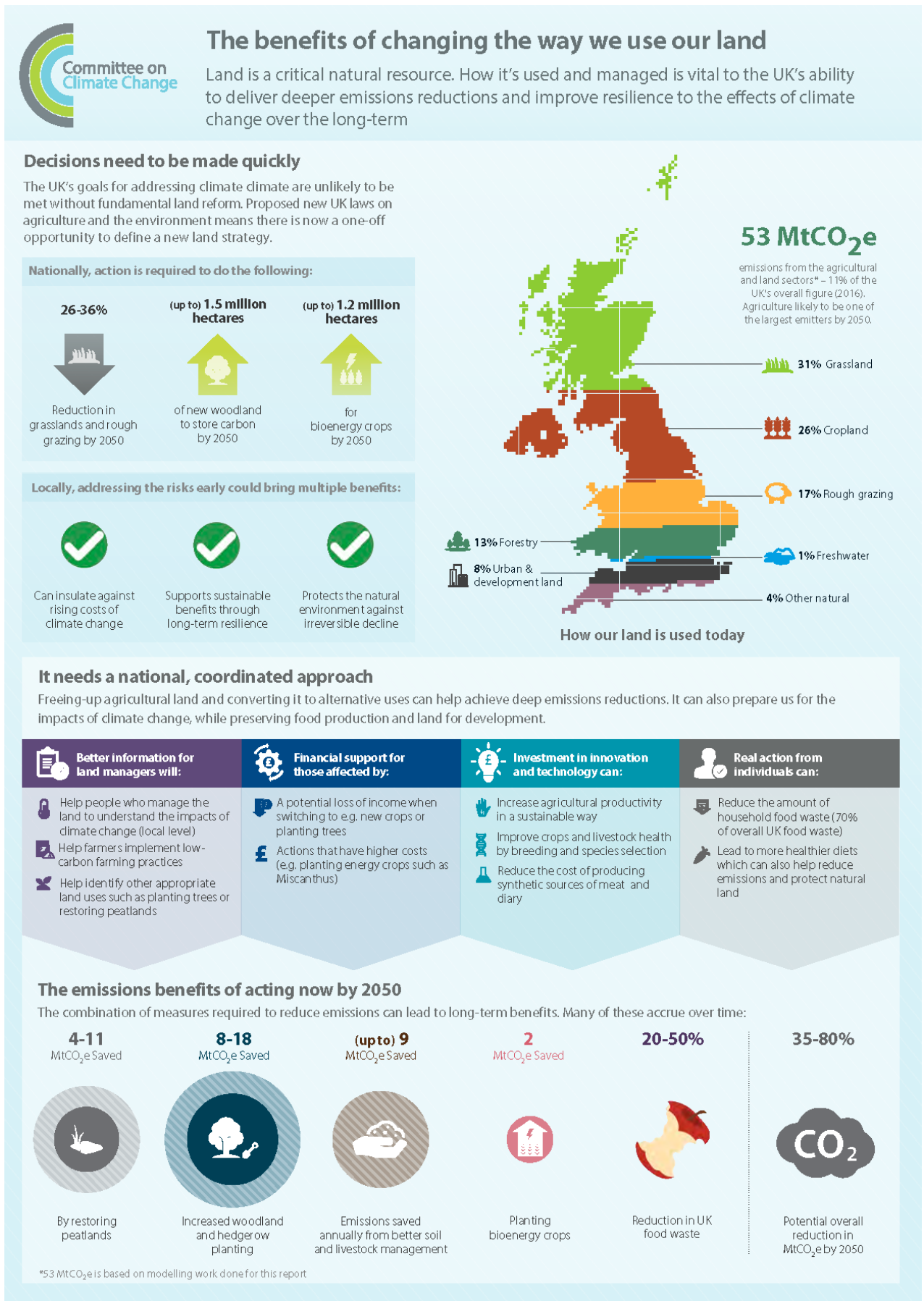
*Source: Watts et al. (2019).*

8.8 Key historical events in modern nutrition science, with implications for current science and policy

**Source:** Mozaffarian *et al.* (2018)



### 8.9 The benefits of changing the way we use our land



Source: Committee on Climate Change (2018d; 2020).



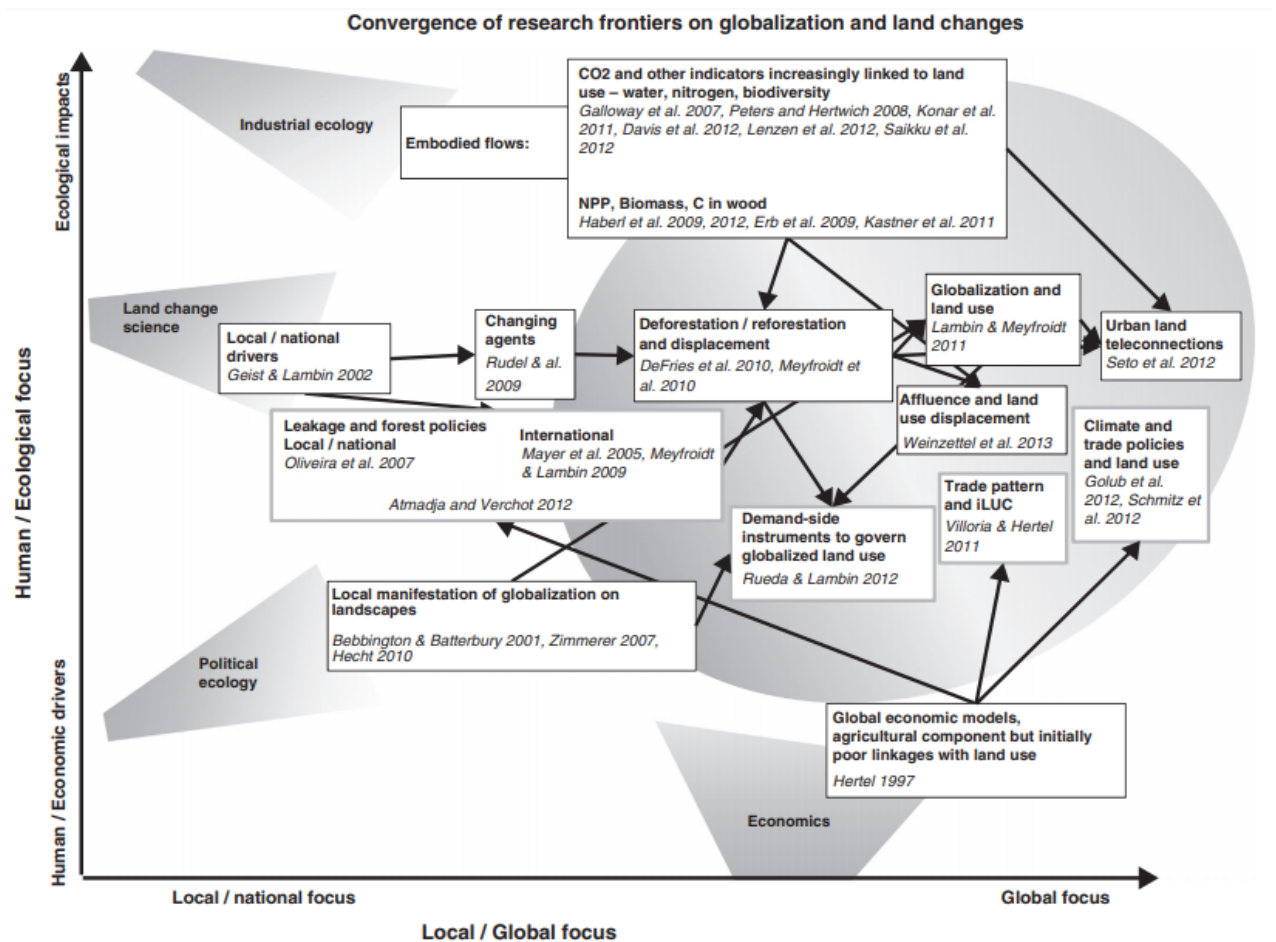
8.10 Potential policy ‘families’ for food-related adaptation and mitigation of climate change

Family	Sub-family	Scale	Interventions	Examples
Supply-side efficiency	Increasing agricultural efficiency and yields	I, N	Agricultural R&D	Investment in research, innovation, knowledge exchange, e.g., on genetics, yield gaps, resilience
		I, N	Supporting precision agriculture	Agricultural engineering, robotics, big data, remote sensing, inputs
		I, N	Sustainable intensification projects	Soils, nutrients, capital, labour
		N, R	Improving farmer training and knowledge sharing	Extension services, online access, farmer field schools, farmer-to-farmer networks (CABI 2019)
	Land-use planning	N, R,	Land-use planning for ecosystem services (remote sensing, ILK)	Zoning, protected area networks, multifunctional landscapes, ‘land sparing’ (Benton <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Jones <i>et al.</i> , 2013)
		N, R, L	Conservation agriculture programmes	Soil and water erosion control, soil quality improvement
			Payment for ecosystem services	Incentives for farmers/landowners to choose lower-profit but environmentally benign resource use,
	Market approaches	I, N	Mandated carbon cost reporting in supply chains; public/private incentivised insurance products	Carbon and natural capital accounts (CDP 2019), crop insurance
	Trade		Liberalising trade flows; green trade	Reduction in GHG emissions from supply chains
Raising profitability and quality	Stimulating markets for premium goods	N, R	Sustainable farming standards, agroecology projects, local food movements	Regional policy development, public procurement of sustainable food
Modifying demand	Reducing food waste	I, N, L	Regulations, taxes	‘Pay-As-You-Throw (PAYT)’ schemes; EU Landfill Directives;
		I, N, L	Awareness campaigns, education	FAO Global Initiative on Food Loss and Waste Reduction
		I, N	Funding for reducing food waste	Research and investment for shelf life, processing, packaging, cold storage
		I, N, L	Circular economy using waste as inputs	Biofuels, distribution of excess food to charities
	Reducing consumption of carbon intensive food	I, N, L	Carbon pricing for selected food commodities	Food prices reflective of GHG gas emissions throughout production and supply chain (Springmann <i>et al.</i> , 2017; Hasegawa <i>et al.</i> , 2018)
		I, N, L	Changing food choice through education	Nutritional and portion-size labelling, ‘nudge’ strategies (positive reinforcement, indirect suggestion) (Arno and Thomas, 2016)
		I, N, L	Changing food choices through money transfers	Unconditional cash transfers; e-vouchers exchanged for set quantity or value of specific, pre-selected goods (Fenn, 2018)
		N, L	Changing food environments through planning	Farmers markets, community food production, addressing ‘food deserts’ (Ross <i>et al.</i> , 2014)
	Combining carbon and health objectives	I, N, L	Changing subsidies, standards, regulations to healthier and more sustainably produced foods	USDA’s ‘Smart Snacks for School’ regulation mandating nutritional guidelines (USDA, 2016) Incentivising production via subsidies (direct to producer based on output or indirect via subsidising inputs)
			Preventative versus curative public healthcare incentives	Health insurance cost reductions for healthy and sustainable diets
		I, N, L	Food system labelling	Organic certification, nutrition labels, blockchain ledgers (Chadwick, 2017)
		N, L	Education and awareness campaigns	School curricula; public awareness campaigns
		N, L	Investment in disruptive technologies (e.g., cultured meat)	Tax breaks for R&D, industrial strategies (EU, 2018)
		N, L	Public procurement	For health: Public Procurement of Food for Health (Caldeira <i>et al.</i> , 2017) Public Procurement Code (Mairie de Paris, 2015)

The column ‘scale’ refers to scale of implementation: International (I), national (N), sub-national-regional (R), and local (L).

Source: adapted from IPCC (2019).

8.11 Convergence of research frontiers on globalisation and land changes, and land use displacement



Convergence of research frontiers on globalisation and land changes, and land use displacement. Arrows trace the evolution and cross-fertilization of research lines. The X axis situates research topics on a gradient from studies focused on local processes, to studies focused on global processes, with the middle being occupied by medium-range studies or studies explicitly linking local processes to global forces. The Y axis situates research topics on a gradient of focus from the human processes driving land changes, towards measuring and tracing environmental impacts. Some studies (with bolded border) are directly oriented towards the governance of linkages between globalization and land changes.

Source: Meyfroidt et al. (2013).

8.12 UK Health Alliance on Climate Change key recommendations



# A breath of fresh air

Six key recommendations for action on health and climate change



The UK Health Alliance on Climate change has recommended six strategies, which simultaneously address two major challenges: air pollution and climate change. They suggest that a joined-up approach - tackling these threats together - can reap enormous benefits, particularly for the most vulnerable people in the UK.

<p>♥♥♥ Medium</p> <p><b>Health benefits</b></p> <p>Reduce the number of health-focused policies which have an adverse effect on the environment.</p> <p><b>Promoting diesel cars</b></p> <p><b>Biomass</b></p> <p><b>Some conventional biofuels</b></p>	<p><b>1 Cross-departmental collaboration</b></p> <p>Increase cross-departmental collaboration to promote a joined-up approach to tackling air pollution and climate change.</p>	<p><b>Environmental benefits</b> Medium 🌳🌳🌳</p> <p>Reduce the unintended adverse health effects of policies which only consider the environment.</p> <p><b>Flue gas desulphurisation</b></p> <p><b>3-way catalysts</b> (petrol)</p> <p><b>Particulate filters</b> (diesel)</p>
<p>♥♥♥ High</p> <p><b>Health benefits</b></p> <p>A complete end to UK coal use would prevent:</p> <p><b>1,600</b> Premature deaths</p> <p><b>68,000</b> Additional days of medication</p> <p><b>363,266</b> Working days lost</p> <p><b>1m+</b> Incidents of lower respiratory symptoms</p> <p><b>Up to £3.1bn</b> Costs incurred</p>	<p><b>2 Phase out coal</b></p> <p>The Alliance calls for a rapid coal phase out, by 2025, and the creation of a policy environment that supports clean energy sources.</p>	<p><b>Environmental benefits</b> High 🌳🌳🌳🌳</p> <p>Eliminating coal use would reduce the UK's greenhouse gas emissions by:</p> <p><b>17%</b> Carbon dioxide</p> <p><b>22%</b> Nitrogen oxides</p> <p><b>44%</b> Sulphur dioxide</p>
<p>♥♥♥ Medium</p> <p><b>Health benefits</b></p> <p>Clean air zones</p> <p>Better urban planning</p> <p>Reduced emissions: PM2.5, PM10, NO<sub>2</sub></p> <p>More walking and cycling</p> <p>Less respiratory disease</p> <p>Better health and quality of life</p>	<p><b>3 Clean air zones</b></p> <p>Expand clear air zones to urban centres beyond London. Strengthen them, to include private vehicles. Encourage cycling and walking.</p>	<p><b>Environmental benefits</b> Low 🌳🌳🌳</p> <p>Clean air zones</p> <p>Better urban planning</p> <p>Less polluting road transport</p> <p>More walking and cycling</p> <p>Decreased CO<sub>2</sub> emissions</p> <p>Lessened impact of climate change</p>
<p>♥♥♥ Low</p> <p><b>Health benefits</b></p> <p>Vulnerable people are disproportionately affected by air pollution.</p> <p><b>Children</b> <b>Older people</b></p> <p><b>People with chronic health problems</b></p> <p>Publicly available, clearly communicated data on air quality could be used to make them aware of the risks.</p>	<p><b>4 Better monitoring</b></p> <p>Place air quality monitors around schools, hospitals, and healthcare facilities, where vulnerable populations are concentrated.</p>	<p><b>Environmental benefits</b> Low 🌳🌳🌳</p> <p>Increased engagement with air pollution can lead to a greater uptake of measures to tackle it.</p> <p><b>Cycling instead of driving</b></p> <p><b>Home insulation</b></p> <p>Greater uptake of these measures will also benefit emissions reduction.</p>
<p>♥♥♥ Medium</p> <p><b>Health benefits</b></p> <p>EU regulations define limits for:</p> <p><b>CO</b> Carbon monoxide</p> <p><b>NO<sub>2</sub></b> Nitrogen dioxide</p> <p><b>SO<sub>2</sub></b> Sulphur dioxide</p> <p><b>PM10</b> Particulate matter</p> <p><b>PM2.5</b> Particulate matter</p> <p><b>O<sub>3</sub></b> Ozone</p> <p><b>Pb</b> Lead</p> <p><b>+</b> Certain toxic heavy metals</p>	<p><b>5 Retain standards from EU regulations</b></p> <p>It is essential that the UK continues to work with the EU in responding to trans-boundary air pollution sources and reducing climate change.</p>	<p><b>Environmental benefits</b> Medium 🌳🌳🌳</p> <p>Climate change can only be tackled through collective action, therefore we need to continue close collaboration with the EU.</p>
<p>♥♥♥ Low</p> <p><b>Health benefits</b></p> <p>Health professionals can lead the way as advocates for more active and less polluting lifestyles.</p> <p><b>-</b> Pollution near generation sites</p> <p><b>-</b> Respiratory disease <b>+</b> Exercise</p> <p><b>+</b> Quality of life</p>	<p><b>6 Health Professionals taking action</b></p> <p>We recommend health services and professionals:</p> <p><b>Switch to clean energy providers</b></p> <p><b>Use and promote cycling, walking, and LEVs<sup>1</sup></b></p> <p><b>Provide more care in people's homes</b></p>	<p><b>Environmental benefits</b> High 🌳🌳🌳🌳</p> <p>It is estimated that measures like these could reduce NHS carbon emissions by one million tonnes a year by 2020<sup>2</sup>.</p> <p><b>-</b> Greenhouse gasses from generation</p> <p><b>-</b> Greenhouse gasses from transport</p> <p><b>-</b> Need for travel to healthcare sites</p>

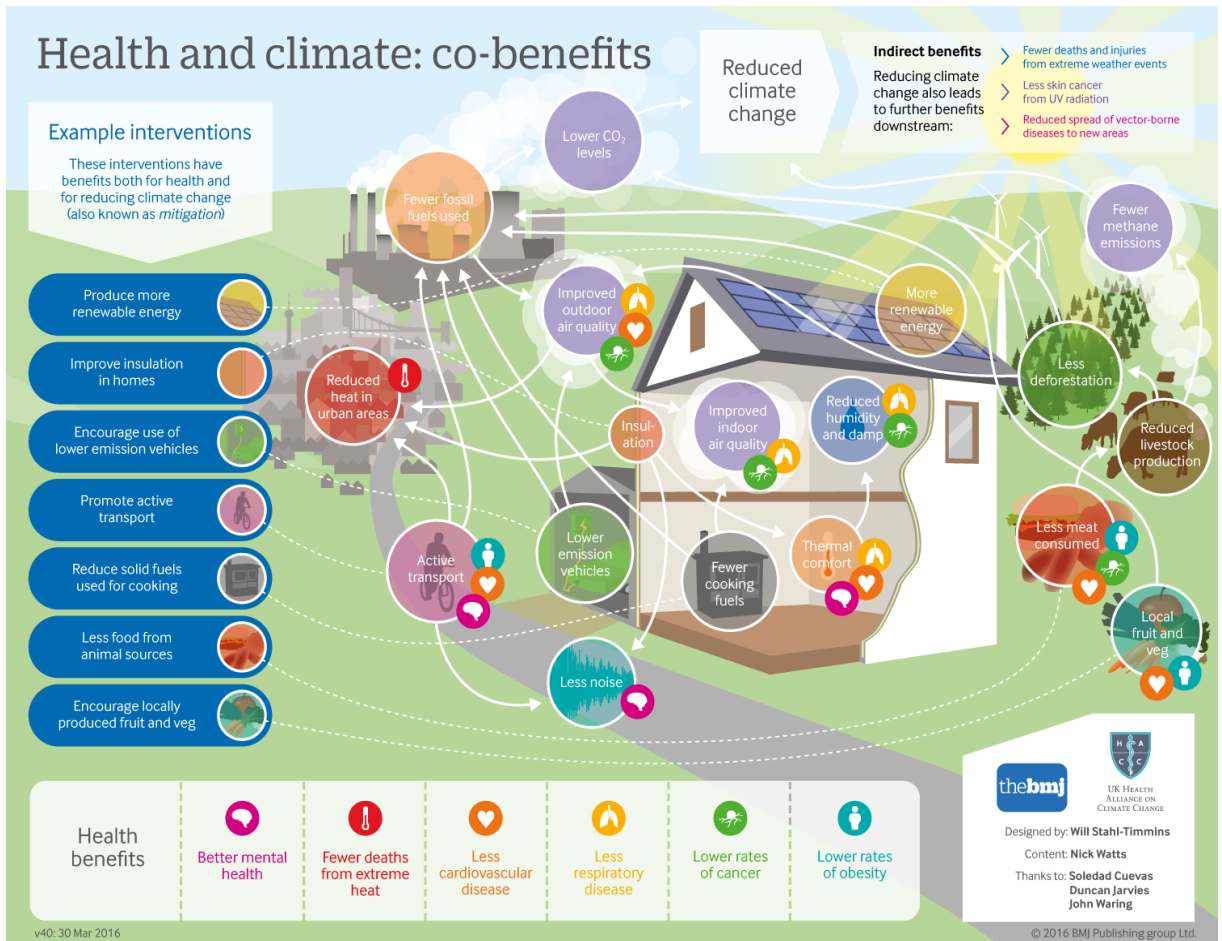
<sup>1</sup> LEV = Low Emissions Vehicles (such as electric cars).

<sup>2</sup> *Securing Health Returns*, NHS England, 15 June 2016.

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Source: UKHACC (2016).

8.13 The co-benefits of health and climate change in the UK



Source: UKHACC (2020).

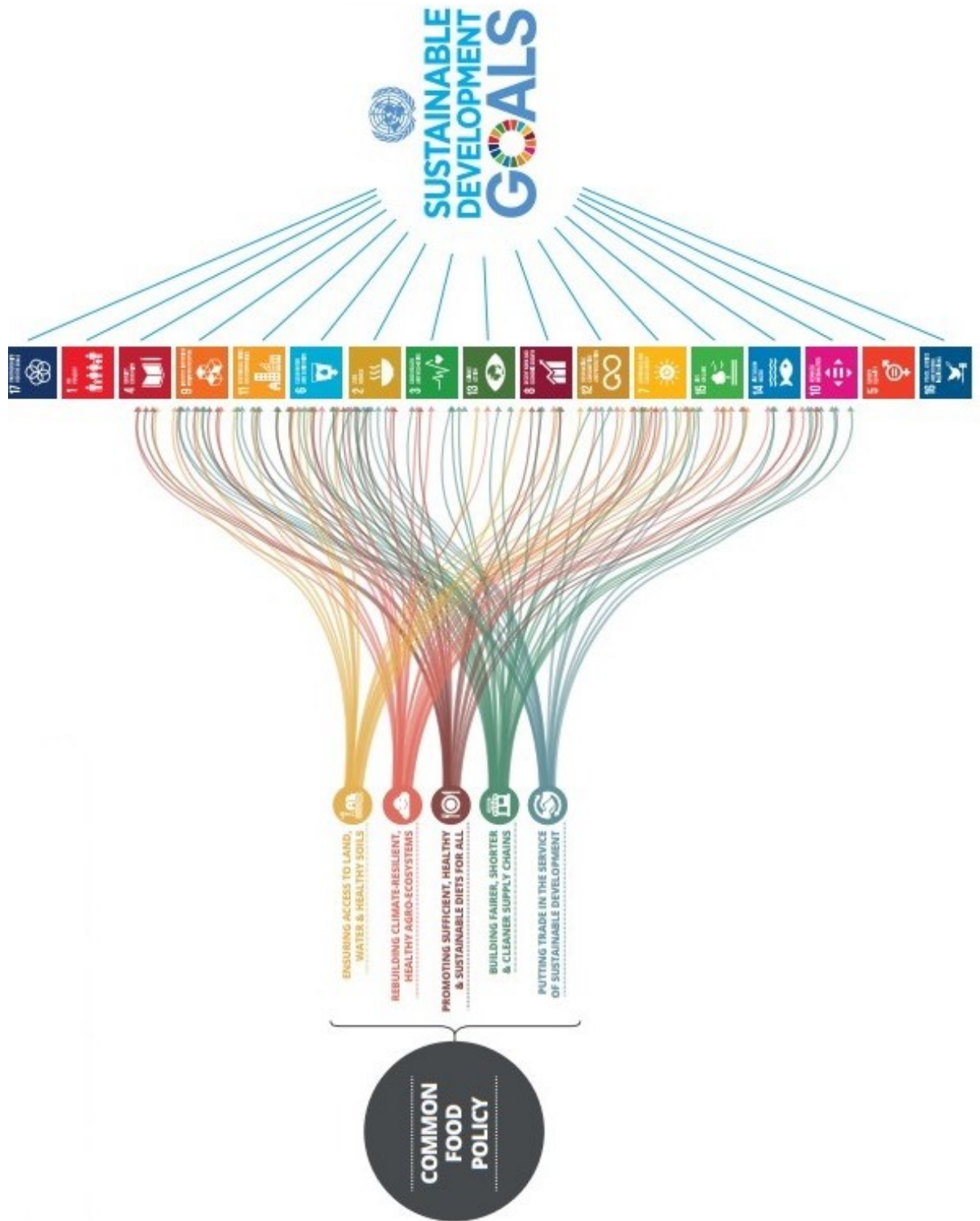
8.14 Preliminary lessons from different policy approaches to sustainable diets

<i>Policy approach</i>	<i>Mode</i>	<i>What this means for advice</i>	<i>Examples</i>	<i>Lessons learned</i>
Orientation	Simplification	Guidelines focus on nutrition alone or possibly one other factor	Australian (2013) Guidelines; UK Cabinet Office (2008): energy + carbon; meat reduction strategies by China (2016) and UK (2016)	Pragmatic but reduces range of issues required for a good diet; has low ‘threat’
	Complexity (multi-criteria)	Best fit with interdisciplinary sciences; guidelines are based on multiplicity of dietary impacts	Sweden (2009) Guidelines; Qatar (2014) Guidelines; German (2014) Sustainable Shopping; EU sustainable consumption and production (2012)	A multi-criteria approach is possible
	Core and periphery	A prime focus on nutrition with other issues less high profile	Brazil (2014) Guidelines	Nutrition focus with strong environmental underpinning and overt cultural messaging has retained policy support despite government change
	Incremental	Slow, steady accrual of policy advice to deliver complexity	The Netherlands since 2010	This is pragmatic and requires multi-agency engagement within and beyond the state
Engagement	Soft	Strong emphasis on consumer choice and measures such as education and labelling	Sweden (2015) cultural advice; Germany (2014) Sustainable Shopping; UK (2012) Green Food Principles	Engagement with food culture: soft approach. Although labelling is a favoured soft measure, it is hard to deliver on sustainable diets because it requires space and detail
	Hard	Use of fiscal, legal and regulation to shift norms	Qatar (2014); Brazil (2014)	Used to form regulations and contracts, etc.
	Choice-editing	Action is taken mostly within the food chain ‘below the radar’ before consumers see or buy the food	Carbon reduction programmes by many big food companies, e.g. Marks & Spencer (UK) Plan A	Policy engagement is unlikely to be achieved by science and evidence alone
Leadership	State	Government takes a facilitator role and offers guidelines to be used widely	Sweden (2009); China (2016) meat reduction strategy; UK (2012) Green Food Project	States have democratic legitimacy but outcomes depend on how far it can deliver; pronouncements can be made but not be followed up
	Business	Can have direct impact on food supply chains and what is offered to consumers	Single company actions, e.g. Barilla (2010) double pyramid; PepsiCo 50-in5; Marks & Spencer Plan A; intercompany actions, e.g. WBCSD (2017) FReSH initiative	Companies have sectoral interests, but this shows rising concern and preparedness to engage
	Civil society	CSO speak directly to their members and act as change agents	WWF (2011) and (2017) Livewell Plate; UK Eating Better Coalition	Can open up public interest and facilitate political commitment by winning policy support, showing sustainable diets are feasible

**Source:** Lang and Mason (2017).



8.15 How a common food policy helps meet the SDGs



Source: De Schutter (2019).

8.16 Flora vegetable spread

**Flora**  
March 18 at 1:31pm · 🌐

We're glad to see the new NHS Eatwell Guide encourages more sustainable plant-based diets and advise to choose lower fat spreads, as opposed to butter, as a good way to reduce saturated fat intake. Get more info about the updates and making healthy choices on the NHS website.

**We are delighted that unsaturated fats, like the oils found in our spreads, now have a dedicated section of the Eatwell Guide and are recognised as the healthy option.**

**#PoweredbyPlants**

**Eatwell Guide**

Check the label on packaged foods. Both energy content and salt/saturated fat content are listed on the label. Choose healthy lower in fat, salt and sugars.

Use the Eatwell Guide to help you get a balance of healthier and more sustainable food. It shows how much of what you eat overall should come from each food group.

Choose vegetables or fruits (at least 5 a day)

Choose potatoes or bread, rice, pasta, cereals, grains, pulses, legumes, nuts and seeds (at least 3 a day)

Choose unrefined oils and use in small amounts

Choose lower fat and lower sugar options

Choose protein, fish, eggs, meat and plant-based protein

Eat more plants and pulses. 2 portions of sustainable fish per week, one of which is oily. Eat less red and processed meat

Eat less often and in small amounts

Water, lower fat dairy, sugar free drinks including tea and coffee, all count. Limit high sugar and/or saturated fat drinks to 1 a day

Oil & spreads

For 40g fiber 2500kcal 2000mg salt = ALL FOOD = ALL OPTIONS

Source: Upfield (2016).

8.17 The Good Life Goals - personal actions to support the Sustainable Development Goals



Source: UNEP (2020).



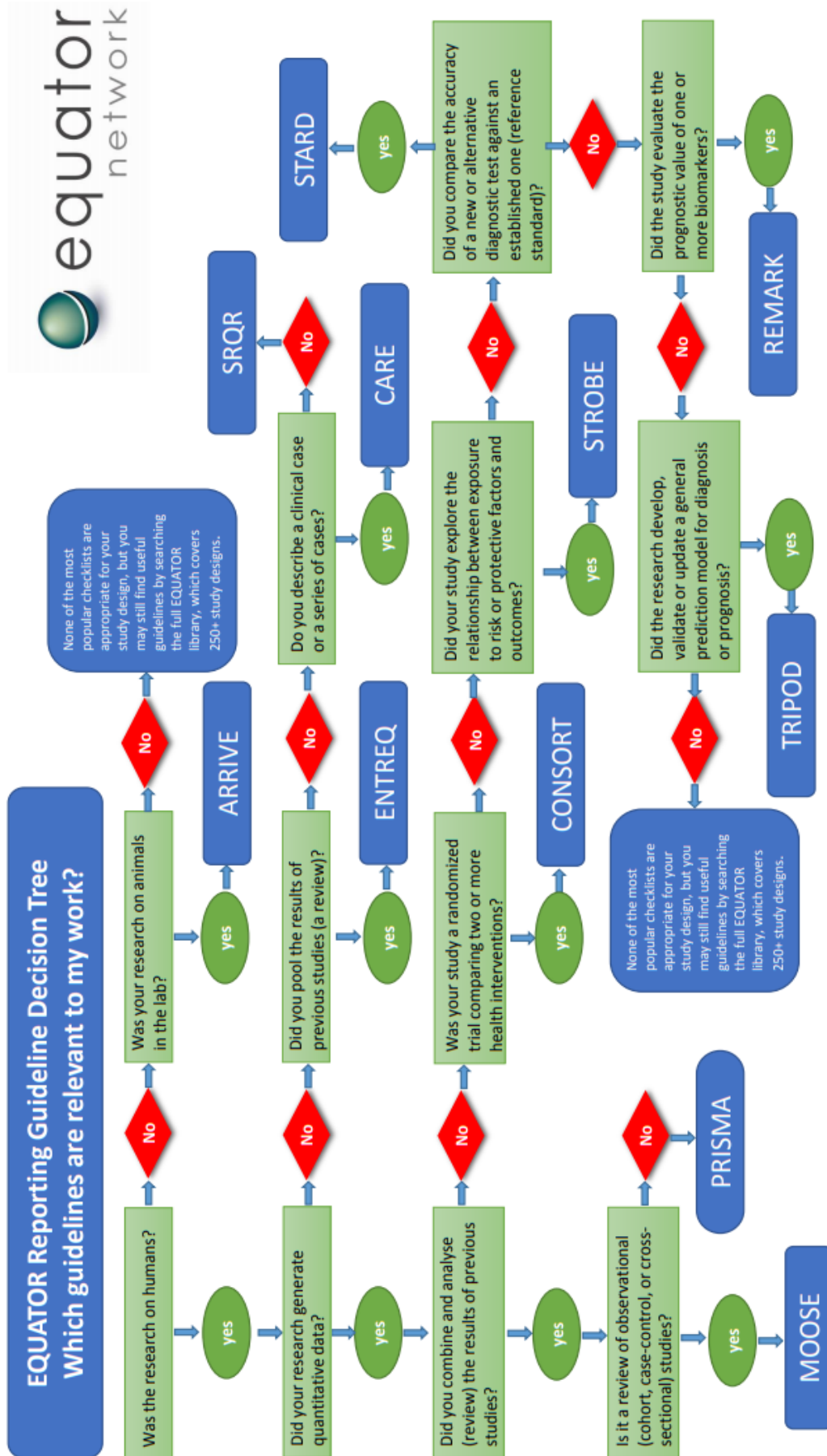
## 8.18 PRISMA 2009 Checklist

<i>Section/topic</i>	<i>#</i>	<i>Checklist item</i>	<i>Reported on page #</i>
<b>Title</b>			
Title	1	Identify the report as a systematic review, meta-analysis, or both.	
<b>Abstract</b>			
Structured summary	2	Provide a structured summary including, as applicable: background; objectives; data sources; study eligibility criteria, participants, and interventions; study appraisal and synthesis methods; results; limitations; conclusions and implications of key findings; systematic review registration number.	
<b>Introduction</b>			
Rationale	3	Describe the rationale for the review in the context of what is already known.	
Objectives	4	Provide an explicit statement of questions being addressed with reference to participants, interventions, comparisons, outcomes, and study design (PICOS).	
<b>Methods</b>			
Protocol and registration	5	Indicate if a review protocol exists, if and where it can be accessed (e.g., Web address), and, if available, provide registration information including registration number.	
Eligibility criteria	6	Specify study characteristics (e.g., PICOS, length of follow-up) and report characteristics (e.g., years considered, language, publication status) used as criteria for eligibility, giving rationale.	
Information sources	7	Describe all information sources (e.g., databases with dates of coverage, contact with study authors to identify additional studies) in the search and date last searched.	
Search	8	Present full electronic search strategy for at least one database, including any limits used, such that it could be repeated.	
Study selection	9	State the process for selecting studies (i.e., screening, eligibility, included in systematic review, and, if applicable, included in the meta-analysis).	
Data collection process	10	Describe method of data extraction from reports (e.g., piloted forms, independently, in duplicate) and any processes for obtaining and confirming data from investigators.	
Data items	11	List and define all variables for which data were sought (e.g., PICOS, funding sources) and any assumptions and simplifications made.	
Risk of bias in individual studies	12	Describe methods used for assessing risk of bias of individual studies (including specification of whether this was done at the study or outcome level), and how this information is to be used in any data synthesis.	
Summary measures	13	State the principal summary measures (e.g., risk ratio, difference in means).	
Synthesis of results	14	Describe the methods of handling data and combining results of studies, if done, including measures of consistency (e.g., $I^2$ ) for each meta-analysis.	

<b>Section/topic</b>	<b>#</b>	<b>Checklist item</b>	<b>Reported on page #</b>
Risk of bias across studies	15	Specify any assessment of risk of bias that may affect the cumulative evidence (e.g., publication bias, selective reporting within studies).	
Additional analyses	16	Describe methods of additional analyses (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression), if done, indicating which were pre-specified.	
<b>Results</b>			
Study selection	17	Give numbers of studies screened, assessed for eligibility, and included in the review, with reasons for exclusions at each stage, ideally with a flow diagram.	
Study characteristics	18	For each study, present characteristics for which data were extracted (e.g., study size, PICOS, follow-up period) and provide the citations.	
Risk of bias within studies	19	Present data on risk of bias of each study and, if available, any outcome level assessment (see item 12).	
Results of individual studies	20	For all outcomes considered (benefits or harms), present, for each study: (a) simple summary data for each intervention group (b) effect estimates and confidence intervals, ideally with a forest plot.	
Synthesis of results	21	Present results of each meta-analysis done, including confidence intervals and measures of consistency.	
Risk of bias across studies	22	Present results of any assessment of risk of bias across studies (see Item 15).	
Additional analysis	23	Give results of additional analyses, if done (e.g., sensitivity or subgroup analyses, meta-regression [see Item 16]).	
<b>Discussion</b>			
Summary of evidence	24	Summarize the main findings including the strength of evidence for each main outcome; consider their relevance to key groups (e.g., healthcare providers, users, and policy makers).	
Limitations	25	Discuss limitations at study and outcome level (e.g., risk of bias), and at review-level (e.g., incomplete retrieval of identified research, reporting bias).	
Conclusions	26	Provide a general interpretation of the results in the context of other evidence, and implications for future research.	
<b>Funding</b>			
Funding	27	Describe sources of funding for the systematic review and other support (e.g., supply of data); role of funders for the systematic review.	

**Source:** Moher *et al.* (2009).

8.19 EQUATOR reporting guidelines decision tree



Source: EQUATOR Centre / University of Oxford (2015).

## 8.20 A food sustainability narrative for health professionals: an outline umbrella review protocol

Andrew P. Hollingsworth  
Protocol v 1.0 – 20<sup>th</sup> April, 2020

<b>Background</b>	The essential prerequisites for a sustainable and healthy diet are complex, multi-faceted and interconnected. Existing literature calls for dietary change (Aleksandrowicz <i>et al.</i> , 2016; Jones <i>et al.</i> , 2016) and transformation (Lucas and Horton, 2019; Willett <i>et al.</i> , 2019) to improve health (Blackstone <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Milner <i>et al.</i> , 2018; Archer and Lavie, 2019; Forouhi and Unwin, 2019; McCarthy and Li, 2019) and reduce environmental impacts (Scarborough <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Hallström <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Nelson <i>et al.</i> , 2016) including from climate change (Florin and Allen, 2019) in order to safeguard future resources (Green <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Knight, 2015; de Boer <i>et al.</i> , 2018) and ensure food security (Macdiarmid <i>et al.</i> , 2018). Further studies consider the policies and regulations (Joyce <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Lang and Mason, 2018; Mwatsama, 2018) necessary to ensure that these diets are affordable to all (Rao <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Wickramasinghe <i>et al.</i> , 2013; Reynolds <i>et al.</i> , 2019). This proposed umbrella review will synthesise what policies and regulations are needed to mitigate against the risks of climate change and environmental degradation to ensure future food systems provide sustainable, secure and healthy diets.
<b>Review objectives</b>	“What are the essential components for sustainable, secure and healthy diets?”
<b>Methods</b>	
• <b>Inclusion criteria</b>	For inclusion, reviews have to evaluate one or more of the essential prerequisites: food; climate change; environment; sustainability; health; food security; and, diet
• <b>Types of participants</b>	Participants include all age groups in any developed country (defined by OECD membership) and additional EU-28 members
• <b>Interventions</b>	All types of interventions will be included if they impact one or more of the essential prerequisites. Interventions could include upstream, population level, public health policies in food and nutrition that use fiscal policy, regulation, preventative intervention, behavioural (e.g. nudges, social media), provision of information (e.g. labels) or nutrition education
• <b>Outcomes / contexts</b>	The outcome to be examined in this umbrella review is sustainable and healthy diets. The FAO (2010) definition will be used: “Sustainable Diets are those diets with low environmental impacts which contribute to food and nutrition security and to healthy life for present and future generations. Sustainable diets are protective and respectful of biodiversity and ecosystems, culturally acceptable, accessible, economically fair and affordable; nutritionally adequate, safe and healthy; while optimizing natural and human resources”. Context considered include nutritional status, food choices, food consumption, and dietary behaviour
• <b>Types of studies</b>	Systematic reviews and meta-analyses will be included. Primary research studies, observational studies, theoretical studies, opinion, and non-systematic reviews will not be included

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Search strategy</i></li> </ul>	<p><i>Search term 1 systematic review (OR) meta (AND) search term 2 food (AND) search term 3 climat* OR change* (AND) search term 4 (AND) environment* OR sustain* OR health* OR secur* OR diet*</i></p> <p>The following databases will be searched from 2010 to the present: Web of Science; Scopus; and, Europe PMC</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Assessment of methodological quality</i></li> </ul>	<p>The methodological quality of included reviews will be assessed using the JBI (2019) critical appraisal checklist tool. Reviews will not be excluded based on methodological quality. Quality assessment of individual interventions is beyond the scope of this umbrella review</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Data collection</i></li> </ul>	<p>A data extraction sheet will be used to extract information on the citation, type of review, participants, intervention, setting, relevant outcomes, databases searched, date range, number of studies included, instrument (if any) used to assess the quality of those studies, results, and any additional comments. This will follow the AMSTAR 2 guidance requirements for quality.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>Data analysis</i></li> </ul>	<p>Descriptive analyses will be performed for each systematic review and meta-analysis. If more than one review exists on the same intervention, differences in reported conclusions will be examined, with the most recent review retained. If a systematic review or meta-analysis includes more than one type of intervention, each type of intervention will be examined separately. A formal meta-analysis will be used providing that the nature of the data allows. If, however, the heterogeneous nature of the studies' settings, designs and outcome measures make this impractical, a narrative synthesis will be provided instead.</p>
<p><i>References</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Aleksandrowicz, L., Green, R., Joy, E.J.M., Smith, P., and Haines, A. (2016). The impacts of dietary change on greenhouse gas emissions, land use, water use, and health: a systematic review, <i>PLoS One</i>, 11, 11, e0165797, doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0165797.</li> <li>• Archer, E. and Lavie, C.J. (2019). Healthy diets and sustainable food systems, <i>The Lancet</i>, Vol. 394, No. 10194, pp.214-215, doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(19)31130-4.</li> <li>• Blackstone, N.T., El-Abbadi, N.H., McCabe, M.S., Griffin, T.S. and Nelson, M.E. (2018). Linking sustainability to the healthy eating patterns of the Dietary Guidelines for Americans: a modelling study, <i>The Lancet Planetary Health</i>, Vol 2, Iss 8, pp.e344-e352, <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30167-0">https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30167-0</a>.</li> <li>• de Boer, J., de Witt, A. and Aiking, H. (2018). Help the climate, change your diet: a cross-sectional study on how to involve consumers in a transition to a low-carbon society, <i>Appetite</i>, Vol. 98 pp.19-27, <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2015.12.001">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2015.12.001</a>.</li> <li>• de Ruiter, H., Macdiarmid, J.I., Matthews, R.B. and Smith, P. (2018). Moving beyond calories and protein: micronutrient assessment of UK diets and land use, <i>Global Environmental Change</i>, Vol. 52, September, pp.108-116, <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2018.06.007">https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gloenvcha.2018.06.007</a>.</li> <li>• Florin, T.H. and Allen, D.W. (2019). Health and climate change, <i>The Lancet</i>, Vol. 393, Iss. 10187, pp.2196-2197, <a href="https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(19)30303-4">https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(19)30303-4</a>.</li> <li>• Forouhi, N.G. and Unwin, N. (2019). Global diet and health: old questions, fresh evidence, and new horizons, <i>The Lancet</i>, 3<sup>rd</sup> April, doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(19)30500-8.</li> <li>• Green, R., Milner, J., Dangour, A.D., Wilkinson, P., Haines, A., Chalabi, Z., Markandya, A., Spadaro, J. and Wilkinson, P. (2015). The potential to reduce greenhouse gas emissions in the UK through healthy and realistic dietary change, <i>Climate Change</i>, Vol. 129, No. 253, doi: 10.1007/s10584-015-1329-y.</li> <li>• Hallström, E., Carlsson-Kanyama, A. and Börjesson, P. (2015). Environmental impact of dietary change: a systematic review, <i>Journal of Cleaner Production</i>, Vol. 91, No. 1, pp.1-11, doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.12.008.</li> </ul>

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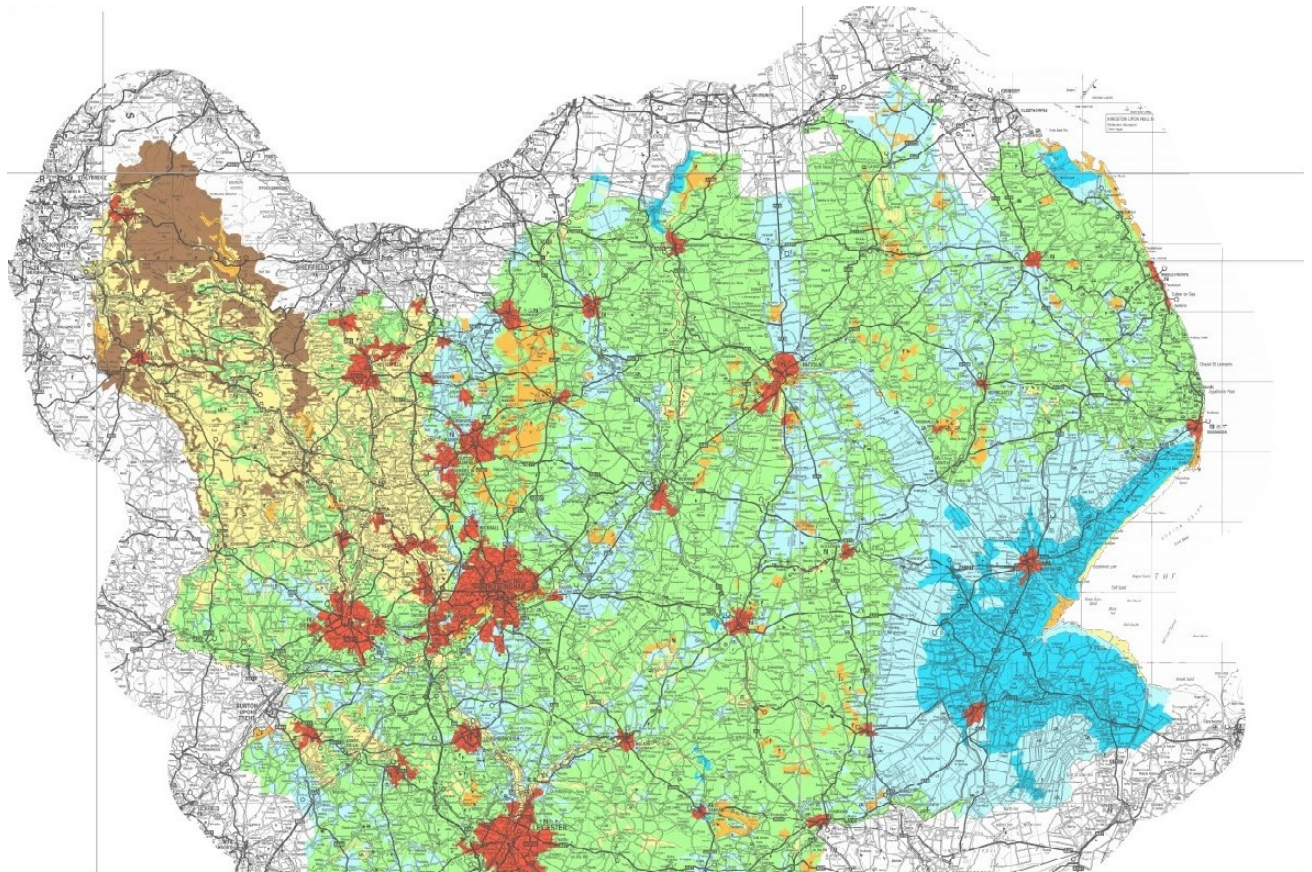


## 8.21 AMSTAR 2 guidance questionnaire

	<i>Question</i>	<i>y/n</i>
1	Did the research questions and inclusion criteria for the review include the components of PICO?	
2	Did the report of the review contain an explicit statement that the review methods were established prior to conduct of the review and did the report justify any significant deviations from the protocol?	
3	Did the review authors explain their selection of the study designs for inclusion in the review?	
4	Did the review authors use a comprehensive literature search strategy?	
5	Did the review authors perform study selection in duplicate?	
6	Did the review authors perform data extraction in duplicate?	
7	Did the review authors provide a list of excluded studies and justify the exclusions?	
8	Did the review authors describe the included studies in adequate detail?	
9	Did the review authors use a satisfactory technique for assessing the risk of bias (RoB) in individual studies that were included in the review?	
10	Did the review authors report on the sources of funding for the studies included in the review?	
11	If meta-analysis was justified did the review authors use appropriate methods for statistical combination of results?	
12	If meta-analysis was performed did the review authors assess the potential impact of RoB in individual studies on the results of the meta-analysis or other evidence synthesis?	
13	Did the review authors account for Risk of Bias in individual studies when interpreting/ discussing the results of the review?	
14	Did the review authors provide a satisfactory explanation for, and discussion of, any heterogeneity observed in the results of the review?	
15	If they performed quantitative synthesis did the review authors carry out an adequate investigation of publication bias (small study bias) and discuss its likely impact on the results of the review?	
16	Did the review authors report any potential sources of conflict of interest, including any funding they received for conducting the review?	



**Source:** AMSTAR (2020).  
<https://amstar.ca/docs/AMSTAR-2.pdf>

8.22 Map of the Best and Most Versatile food producing land correlating with the Lincolnshire Fens



<b>Grade</b>	<b>Description</b>
1	Excellent
2	Very Good
3	Good to Moderate
4	Poor
5	Very Poor

**Non-Agricultural Land**

-  Other land primarily in non-agricultural use
-  Land predominantly in urban use

**Source:** Natural England (2020).