

# 1 **Conceptual frameworks linking agriculture and food security: a review and** 2 **recommendations for improvement**

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## 8 **Abstract**

9 Many conceptual frameworks have been developed to facilitate understanding and analysis of the  
10 linkages between agriculture and food security. Despite having usefully guided analysis and investment,  
11 these frameworks exhibit wide diversity in perspectives, assumptions and application. This paper  
12 examines this diversity, providing an approach to assess frameworks and suggesting improvements in the  
13 way they are specified and applied. Using criteria based systems modelling conventions, we evaluate 36  
14 frameworks. We find that many frameworks are developed for the purpose of illustration rather than  
15 analysis and do not clearly indicate causal relationships, tending to ignore the dynamic (stability)  
16 dimensions of agriculture and food security and lacking clear intervention points for improving food  
17 security through agriculture. By applying system modelling conventions to a widely used framework, we  
18 illustrate how such conventions can enhance a frameworks' usefulness for overall illustration purposes,  
19 delineation of hypotheses on agriculture-food security links, and examining potential impacts of  
20 interventions.

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## 23 **Main**

24 With increased attention in recent years by governments and the global development community on  
25 understanding the role of agriculture and food systems in achieving food security, research communities  
26 in both fields have focused more intently on understanding the linkages between agriculture and food  
27 security outcomes. This has resulted in the creation of many distinct conceptual frameworks linking  
28 agriculture and food security, which often form the basis for setting research and policy objectives or  
29 priorities. Such frameworks represent the relationships between agriculture and food security with  
30 combinations of relevant theories and concepts from a wide range of academic fields that engage with  
31 either agriculture, food security or both. Although these frameworks have understandably disparate  
32 purposes and content, and are undoubtedly useful in many contexts, the lack of standardization and clarity

33 of their diagrammatic representations may imply a limit on their usefulness. As proposed by Béné et al.<sup>1</sup>  
34 *“the shift toward sustainable food systems should be accompanied by a more appropriate*  
35 *conceptualization, one that presents food system as complex, heterogeneous over space and time and*  
36 *replete with linear and non-linear feedbacks.”*

37 Principles and criteria from systems thinking and modelling provide a relevant means for assessing and  
38 improving the frameworks that link agriculture and food security. Systems thinking and modelling tools  
39 can improve understanding of the causal factors linking agriculture to food security outcomes as well as  
40 address dynamics and non-linearities. These tools facilitate the representation and integration of complex  
41 interacting factors that can limit the effectiveness of interventions and create unintended side effects,  
42 including in public health<sup>2</sup>.

43 Despite the clear affinity between systems modelling and conceptual frameworks linking agriculture to  
44 food security outcomes, there are few published applications exploring this link<sup>3</sup>. However, the field of  
45 systems modelling has a history stretching back more than six decades, and many of these tools are well-  
46 developed and appropriate for the development of conceptual frameworks. The potential benefits of  
47 wider use of systems modelling tools for conceptual framework development among many disciplines  
48 that contribute to knowledge of food security outcomes motivates our focus on those tools herein.

49 Our principal objective is to suggest approaches drawing on systems modelling that can improve the  
50 clarity and usefulness of conceptual frameworks that link agricultural production to food security  
51 outcomes. This includes specifying evaluation criteria for conceptual frameworks linking agriculture and  
52 food security, with an emphasis on the application of well-developed tools and concepts from systems  
53 modelling; evaluating existing conceptual frameworks using these defined criteria; and finally illustrating  
54 the modification of an existing framework to better align with systems modelling conventions. By raising  
55 awareness of the applicability of systems modelling principles and tools to food security analyses, and by  
56 reinforcing a definition of food security that goes beyond production and calories, we aim to improve the  
57 robustness, conceptual soundness, applicability, and comparability of frameworks for agriculture and food  
58 security in ways that reach across and unite researchers from various disciplines working in this area.

59

60 A number of definitions and delineations are relevant to stating these objectives more precisely. First, we  
61 apply a broad definition of a “conceptual framework” and include any discussion or diagram that  
62 describes or represents hypothesized pathways linking agricultural production and food security, whether  
63 or not that is a principal objective. Second, following the internationally accepted definition, we consider  
64 four dimensions of food security in our assessment: availability, access, utilization and stability<sup>4,5</sup>.

65 Finally, we focus on the nature of the conceptual representations (e.g. how diagrams are constructed to

66 represent hypothesized pathways) rather than on their specific content. We recognize that different  
67 purposes and perspectives require different content; a diagram focusing on how increased livestock  
68 production affects food security outcomes would have different pathways than one focusing on the  
69 impacts of increases in the production of horticultural crops. However, food security is itself a complex  
70 concept, with multiple underlying components and potential metrics. Thus, it will often be appropriate to  
71 disaggregate the representation of conceptual frameworks into multiple components (availability,  
72 accessibility, utilization and stability).

73  
74 To identify the conceptual frameworks to be assessed, we undertook a SCOPUS search with the terms  
75 “food security conceptual framework”, which returned 447 documents. These citations were reviewed for  
76 appropriateness for our purposes and supplemented with other frameworks previously known to the  
77 authors. This yielded 36 frameworks (Supplementary Table 1). We included all frameworks showing  
78 linkages between agriculture and food security, although not all frameworks had those linkages as a focal  
79 point. We first characterized the frameworks by their principal intended purpose (Table 1), using our  
80 judgment about the purpose if this was not explicitly stated and recognizing that a framework may have  
81 multiple purposes.

82 We then assessed the frameworks through the lens of systems thinking and modelling tools (Table 2),  
83 particularly those diagramming practices used in system dynamics<sup>6</sup>. System Dynamics (SD) is a method  
84 used to understand the origins of behaviours considered problematic and to identify potential solutions  
85 that will result in sustained improvement. It applies systems control theory to social and economic  
86 systems, with an emphasis on stock-flow-feedback processes. SD provides a set of conceptual and  
87 computational tools to enhance learning in complex systems through incorporation of knowledge from  
88 multiple disciplines. This can help to identify the most effective actions that will result in sustained  
89 improvement of specific outcomes<sup>2</sup>. These tools emphasize the delineation of clear model boundaries  
90 relevant to understanding what is endogenous, exogenous or excluded from a conceptual model. This  
91 facilitates the analysis of the stability dimension of food security, which often receives limited emphasis  
92 in conceptual analyses of food security<sup>3</sup>.

93 Diagramming tools in SD delineate stocks (accumulations or observable states) and flows (variables  
94 resulting in changes to stocks), the polarity of individual causal linkages (positive or negative indicating  
95 whether changes in a causal variable result in changes in the same or opposite direction in the resulting  
96 variable), and depict feedback processes and their polarity (positive polarity reinforcing change, or  
97 negative polarity dampening change). Because SD conceptual or empirical models aim to understand

98 how to improve outcomes, diagrams often indicate key points for intervention and actors whose decisions  
99 are key to their implementation.

100 We also describe the level of analysis (e.g. national, regional, household, intra-household) used in the  
101 conceptual frameworks. Different food security components are often—but not always—aligned with  
102 different levels (e.g. availability is more frequently considered at a national, regional or community level,  
103 access at a household level, utilization at an intra-household level). In addition, we assess the specificity  
104 of the food security indicators as it relates to the purpose and principal pathways examined in the  
105 framework. Generally, frameworks are used to examine specific aspects of agriculture-food security  
106 linkages. Consequently, they can define outcomes more specific than just ‘food security’ because they can  
107 identify interactions and indicators for the different linkages and pathways and relate them to the principal  
108 pillars of food security (availability, access, utilization and/or stability). For example, biophysical  
109 linkages with crop yields might be emphasized for availability, while income might receive more  
110 emphasis for access.

111 [Table 1 about here](#)

112 [Table 2 about here](#)

113 To achieve the third objective, we selected one framework – a diagram originally presented in Heady et  
114 al.<sup>7</sup> and subsequently adapted by Kadiyala et al.<sup>8</sup>. We evaluated it using the criteria in Table 2 and applied  
115 the systems thinking and modelling conventions discussed above to illustrate the process and potential  
116 usefulness of a systems modelling approach.

117

## 118 **Existing Frameworks**

119 Conceptual frameworks can be characterized based on multiple criteria, including their purpose,  
120 indicators, scale of the analysis and principal linkage pathways (Supplementary Table 1). Here  
121 we critique the relative consideration given within the current state of practice to the following  
122 dimensions: framework purpose; model boundaries; feedback processes and dynamics; actors and  
123 decisions; levels of aggregation; intervention entry points; food security indicators. By looking at  
124 these characteristics within framework diagrams, we can assess the extent to which different  
125 frameworks enhance logical rigor, clarify our understanding of causal linkages and facilitate the  
126 development of quantitative analyses of impact pathways between agriculture and food security.

127

128 **Framework Purpose** The purposes of conceptual frameworks include exposition (illustration),  
129 summarizing empirical evidence and enhancing logical rigor. Frameworks that focus on food security  
130 and specify pathways linking agriculture to outcomes include those presented in Kadiyala et al.<sup>8</sup>,  
131 Randolph et al.<sup>9</sup>, Dobbie and Balbi<sup>10</sup>, Garrett<sup>11</sup>, Kanter et al.<sup>12</sup> and Sassi<sup>13</sup>. The illustrative pathways in  
132 these frameworks suggest more directly the mechanisms (variables and relationships) by which  
133 agricultural systems outcomes and food security outcomes are linked. Many other frameworks are quite  
134 high-level and describe very general relationships rather than specific pathways. The ShiftN<sup>14</sup> food  
135 system diagrams have a greater level of complexity and begin to delineate pathways, but do not focus  
136 specifically on food security.

137 For the vast majority of conceptual frameworks, the main purpose is exposition, i.e. the frameworks  
138 visualize concepts and linkages to facilitate reader understanding of text descriptions. One-third of the  
139 reviewed frameworks complement exposition with evidence summary. Only six frameworks fall into the  
140 logical rigor category, and even fewer use the conceptual frameworks to describe either the design or  
141 computations for focused<sup>10,15</sup> or integrated assessment models<sup>16</sup>.

142

### 143 **Model Boundaries**

144 Model boundaries define what is endogenous, exogenous or excluded for the purposes of the (conceptual  
145 or quantitative) analysis. In many frameworks, the boundaries are not clearly delineated. *Context* or  
146 *environment* variables (we use italicized text for terms used in the frameworks) appear to be assumed to  
147 be exogenous, and these encompass a vast variety of factors (political, social, cultural, knowledge,  
148 infrastructure, services, (macro)economic, climate, disease outbreak, policies, programs, conflicts,  
149 technology, food environments, legal systems, ethical values, productive assets and sometimes even food  
150 availability itself). As such, the frameworks often do not incorporate them explicitly into the  
151 representation nor make clear at what level or to what degree these factors explicitly engage with other  
152 elements of the framework and influence outcomes. For example, the World Food Programme  
153 Conceptual Framework of Food and Nutrition Security<sup>17</sup> (Supplementary Figure 1, from which many

154 subsequent frameworks are derived) seems to indicate that all factors have equal impact at the community  
155 and household levels, and *exposure to shocks and hazards* affects all levels (implied equally).

156

### 157 **Feedback Processes and Dynamics**

158 Diagramming conventions used to depict feedback processes and dynamics are highly variable. Many  
159 frameworks show connecting lines (sometimes with arrows in both directions) without really indicating  
160 implied directions of causality, and only Randolph et al (in their ‘Figure 2’)<sup>9</sup> indicates polarities of  
161 hypothesized linkages. Diagrams are inconsistent in their depictions of hypothesized feedback processes,  
162 and in some cases, it is difficult to determine what is connected to what. Language is often cryptic or  
163 inconsistent among linked variables (e.g. *resources* cause *inadequate education*; UNICEF)<sup>18</sup>. The  
164 conventions used in “Causal Loop Diagramming” (e.g. Sterman<sup>6</sup>) and similar hybrid diagrams that also  
165 show stocks and flows would bring a good deal of additional clarity of meaning to these diagrams (and  
166 allow them to more clearly delineate hypothesized pathways).

167 Most of the frameworks do not specifically represent intertemporal dynamics or feedback processes, both  
168 of which are important to represent the stability component of food security. Stability implies a high  
169 degree of consistency in food availability, access and utilization, and is thus sometimes placed in the  
170 context of the broader concept of resilience. Some frameworks discuss general resilience concepts<sup>4,19</sup>, but  
171 the linkages to the stability component of food security are not explicit. Burchi et al.<sup>20</sup> depicts stability in  
172 a framework that primarily defines the four components of food security but include suggested actions  
173 and strategies to promote stability of food availability, access and utilization. Allen and Prosperi<sup>20</sup>  
174 integrate resilience concepts into the frameworks proposed by Ericksen<sup>22</sup> and Ingram<sup>23</sup>.

175 Many of the frameworks also depict a linear cause-and-effect model with limited feedbacks among  
176 system elements determining food security outcomes. Representation of feedback is relevant because  
177 food systems demonstrate feedback and interdependence within and across levels<sup>24,25,26,27</sup>. Appropriate  
178 representation of feedback processes is particularly useful when considering proposed agriculture-based  
179 interventions designed to improve food security outcomes. The systems modelling literature (e.g. as  
180 summarized in Sterman<sup>6</sup>; but cf. also Hammond and Dubé<sup>28</sup>) has long since noted that feedback  
181 processes, accumulation and non-linearities result in dynamic complexity, which gives rise to policy  
182 resistance (the intended effects of interventions will be delayed or largely offset) and unintended  
183 consequences (other, often negative, effects may occur in response to interventions; short-term and long-

184 term impacts of system changes can differ). Thus, understanding and representing feedback processes  
185 will often be necessary, and provide a specific link with intertemporal dynamics.

186 The frameworks that do represent feedback processes tend to include only a few such linkages, and these  
187 linkages differ for each diagram. General resilience frameworks<sup>4,19,29</sup> tend to represent changes in high-  
188 level “states” over time. The high-level framework from Hammond and Dubé<sup>28</sup> indicates feedback  
189 processes (and some specific mechanisms) among the *agri-food*, *environmental* and *health/disease*  
190 components of the system that determine food security. One of the more common inclusions is feedback  
191 between the food system (or agriculture) and environmental outcomes<sup>14,20,21,22,23,30,31</sup>. Frameworks that  
192 focus on household assets and livelihood strategies<sup>8,32,33</sup> tend to link livelihood outcomes (including food  
193 security) back to increases in household assets in a reinforcing feedback loop. Similarly, the UNICEF  
194 framework<sup>34</sup> shows a reinforcing feedback process where lack of initial livelihood assets limits  
195 improvements in child nutritional status—with ongoing intertemporal effects.

196 Other frameworks focus on feedbacks between consumer decisions and the structure of food supply  
197 chains and food environments<sup>16,35,36,37</sup>. An extension of this concept includes when consumer decisions  
198 and related outcomes (nutritional, social, economic, environmental) are hypothesized to affect system  
199 drivers such as biophysical, environmental, technology, political, socio-cultural, and demographic  
200 factors<sup>21,22,23,36</sup>. More specific to food security, a number of frameworks depict interactions—if not exactly  
201 feedback—between nutrition and health outcomes<sup>9,11,38</sup>.

202 Although all of the represented feedback processes are likely to be appropriate for specific purposes, the  
203 lack of consistency among the frameworks about factors, directionality, feedback and intertemporal  
204 dynamics implies challenges for effective and agreed-upon representation of these effects in frameworks  
205 linking agriculture to food security. The Randolph et al.<sup>9</sup> diagram is probably the most detailed and  
206 relevant of the feedback-inclusive frameworks since it provides a more detailed representation of  
207 alternative pathways (including some described elsewhere, e.g. Kadiyala et al.<sup>8</sup>; Gillespie et al.<sup>38</sup>) linking  
208 agriculture, nutrition and health in the specific context of livestock ownership.

209

## 210 **Actors and Decisions**

211 It is often relevant for frameworks to indicate which actors make what decisions. We consider *actors*  
212 those individuals or organisations that make decisions influencing food security outcomes. Common  
213 examples would be individuals, private businesses, government agencies and NGOs. Appropriately  
214 representing actors involves indicating which decisions they make and what information or processes are  
215 involved in reaching decisions. Many frameworks are also not particularly clear about which actors and

216 decision processes are covered or who makes what decisions. Hawkes<sup>39</sup> and Hawkes et al.<sup>37</sup> present an  
217 Actors-Processes-Outcomes framework, but this is quite high level and *processes* include *ag inputs* that  
218 are not always clearly defined. Acharya et al.<sup>16</sup> includes producers, *food chain actors* and *consumers*.  
219 *Consumers* or *households* are frequently represented<sup>11,40</sup>.

220

## 221 **Levels of Aggregation**

222 The level of aggregation in the reviewed frameworks (national, regional, community, household,  
223 individual) varies, with specific effects or outcomes of interest for each (the Food Insecurity and  
224 Vulnerability Information and Mapping System (FIVIMS)<sup>41</sup>). These levels indicate the degree of  
225 aggregation for decision making by actors or for the purposes of reporting outcomes. Overlap can exist  
226 between *actors* and *levels*, but for purposes of modeling they should be clearly defined. For example,  
227 farmers are actors (decision makers) but their actions could be represented in a framework as those of  
228 individuals, or households, aggregated by farm types in a community or single market (regional, national)  
229 supply response. Food security metrics are often reported in an aggregated manner, for example,  
230 individual food consumption at the national level<sup>7</sup>.

231 The majority of frameworks depict highly aggregated or generic levels. They discuss linkages between  
232 agricultural production and food security outcomes in a general way rather than for specific levels of  
233 aggregations such as the national or household level. Few of the frameworks address intra-household food  
234 security issues, e.g. with a focus on individuals. Of the 36 frameworks reviewed, only 4 had explicit  
235 treatment of individuals with the household, focusing on children (especially for nutritional status) and  
236 women. Six frameworks implied treatment of individuals (e.g. Sassi<sup>13</sup> mentions *individual food and*  
237 *nutrition pathways*), but in general the conceptual treatment of the linkages determining intra-household  
238 food security status is limited. Although we did not search for frameworks specifically addressing intra-  
239 household allocation and outcomes, the limited treatment of this issue in more generic frameworks  
240 suggests the need to reconsider this from both the conceptual and empirical perspectives.

241

## 242 **Intervention Entry Points**

243 Less than half of the reviewed conceptual frameworks discuss specific entry points for interventions to  
244 improve outcomes. Frameworks that include entry points for intervention vary widely in the level of  
245 specificity and often only implicitly mention the factors assumed to be exogenous. Some refer to generic  
246 interventions such as *political and environmental groundwork*<sup>42</sup>, *policy drivers* for nutrition, inequality,  
247 and growth<sup>8,38</sup>, the *larger biophysical and social/institutional context*<sup>29</sup>, components of *enabling*



248 *processes*<sup>43</sup>, *intervention*<sup>44</sup>, *coping mechanisms*<sup>13</sup>, *adaptation strategies*<sup>16</sup>, *external factors* including  
249 government and NGOs<sup>31</sup>, or *incentives: organizational, financial, technological, and*  
250 *regulatory/policy*<sup>37,39,45</sup>. More specific frameworks describe economic, agricultural, environmental, trade,  
251 and development policy, subsidies, price controls, regulations, taxes, tariffs and infrastructure  
252 charges<sup>14,40,46</sup>. De la Peña et al.<sup>47</sup> lists activities that could enhance outcomes and impacts in nutrition-  
253 sensitive value chains, as well as women’s empowerment as mediator of impacts.

## 254 **Food Security Indicators**

255 The indicators (metrics) of food security are an important component of conceptual frameworks. Most  
256 frameworks (even some focused primarily on food security) do not include all elements of availability,  
257 access, utilization and stability. The last is most often ignored. It is also not clear if these are separate or  
258 hold some sort of hierarchy (especially the availability-access-utilization linkages). Most frameworks do  
259 not include specific indicators for food security or nutrition outcomes; it is common to have the outcome  
260 be *food security* or *nutritional status* and only a few mention specific indicators at the household level  
261 such as dietary diversity<sup>12</sup>.

262

263 **Table 3 about here**

264

## 265 **Use of Systems Diagramming Tools**

266 Although each framework must primarily satisfy a given analytical purpose, and so there is  
267 understandable variation in detail or presentation, some general observations can be made. Kadiyala et  
268 al.<sup>8</sup> provides a diagram (Figure 1) and related discussion of the empirical evidence about linkages  
269 between agriculture and food security and nutrition outcomes in India. This diagram is an adaptation of  
270 the framework first presented in Headey et al<sup>7</sup> and further developed in Gillespie et al<sup>38</sup>. The Kadiyala et  
271 al framework embodies characteristics of many of the diagrams and frameworks that depict linkages  
272 between agriculture and food security and nutrition (Table 4). Its frequent citation by other authors (more  
273 than 120 times since its publication) suggests its usefulness and common acceptance. Given its  
274 comprehensiveness and clarity, it illustrates well how to apply evaluation criteria and diagramming tools  
275 from systems modelling to strengthen such frameworks. This framework describes six principal pathways  
276 linking agriculture, food security, and nutrition, and describes the empirical evidence for elements of each  
277 pathway It is one of a relatively small number of frameworks indicating at least one feedback process. It  
278 also has a very clearly stated purpose (summarizing empirical evidence) and provides implied linkages to

279 potential interventions through policy drivers. This framework also specifies multiple indicators of  
280 nutritional outcomes and multiple levels of aggregation (national, household, intra-household). However,  
281 the model boundary could be more clearly defined (e.g. policy drivers are exogenous, but also lead to  
282 other exogenous causes such as inter-household inequality or public health factors). Likewise, the nature  
283 of the linkages and the causal direction are not always clear (does a variable positively or negatively  
284 affect outcomes for which it is presumably a causal factor?). The diagram does show one major feedback  
285 process (individual nutrition outcomes scale up to national nutrition outcomes, which improve household-  
286 level assets and income generation, further improving nutrition—a feedback loop), although it omits other  
287 feedback processes that could influence nutritional outcomes or that could be useful for a conceptual  
288 assessment of interventions. It does not explicitly link the analysis based on the diagram to the data  
289 describing outcomes over time (Figure 2), and there is limited emphasis on dynamics. The entry points  
290 for potential interventions to improve nutritional outcomes – not an explicit goal of this paper – are  
291 implied through exogenous policy drivers but without explicit pathways through which policy is  
292 hypothesized to improve outcomes.

293

294 [Figure 1 about here](#)

295 **Figure 1. Framework from Kadiyala et al. Linking Agriculture with Nutritional Outcomes.** Taken  
296 from their manuscript showing a mapping of agriculture-nutrition pathways in India.

297 [Table 4 about here](#)

298

299 The process of using systems modelling tools to develop a conceptual framework (especially as  
300 represented with a diagram) differs from that likely used for the development of most frameworks we  
301 reviewed and offers the possibility of improvement, especially in terms of dynamics and greater  
302 specificity. A systems modelling approach would begin by defining specific intertemporal behaviour(s)  
303 that the diagram seeks to explain. This is referred to as the “reference mode behaviour” and is almost  
304 always shown as a graph over time. For example, in Kadiyala et al., information on the prevalence of  
305 stunting, wasting and underweight is provided for two periods, 1998-99 and 2005-06 (Figure 2). Although  
306 in this case there are only two data points for each series – which may make the figure seem trivial – we  
307 include a line graph as an illustration of a necessary “reference mode” that will typically consist of a  
308 larger number of observations and demonstrate more complex behaviour. The reference mode is useful  
309 because it focuses the diagrammatic representation on outcomes of interest, indicates a pattern of change  
310 over time (i.e. is dynamic) and indicates a relevant time frame over which the dynamics are important.

311 Moreover, the reference mode illustrates a behaviour that should be possible to explain with elements of  
312 the diagrammatic representation. In this case, the diagrammed framework should be able to indicate why  
313 wasting has increased during the time period, whereas stunting and underweight have decreased  
314 nationally. From the perspective of systems modelling, it is also generally more appropriate to focus a  
315 conceptual representation on a specific behaviour or outcome of interest—rather than a “system”, as is  
316 often depicted—because this facilitates the delineation of appropriate model boundaries. Model  
317 boundaries are particularly important in SD modelling because of its focus on endogenous (i.e. internally  
318 generated) drivers of observed dynamics.

319

320 [Figure 2 about here](#)

321 **Figure 2. Potential Reference Mode Behaviours Based on Data from Kadiyala et al. (Table 1, p. 44)**

322 Graph of stunting data over time to demonstrate how this can be used to generate a reference mode that  
323 can be used in systems models.

324 Once a reference mode is defined, a causal diagram that represents known or hypothesized relationships  
325 can be developed to represent the stock-flow-feedback processes that generate the observed behaviour. A  
326 major premise of SD modelling is that a system’s behaviour (outcomes over time) arises from its  
327 “structure”, meaning the interactions among system elements that can be represented in terms of stocks  
328 (accumulations or observed states), flows (variables or relationships that change stocks) and feedback  
329 processes (a series of causal linkages that form a loop). Standard practice for the development of  
330 diagrams includes 6 major points (Box 1). The point on causality merits additional comment, given that  
331 linkages in conceptual frameworks may be based on statistical associations and even correlations. In  
332 much systems modelling work (including SD models), it is considered important to represent causal  
333 linkages rather than correlations, even if the nature of the linkages based on current information is one of  
334 hypothesized causality. In that sense, SD modelling practice is consistent with a better delineation of  
335 causal factors that is often the research goal, even when this is more difficult to achieve. Moreover, the  
336 characterisation of different degrees of evidence about causal relationships in Habicht et al.<sup>48</sup> supports an  
337 emphasis on causality, but which can be evaluated through assessments of “adequacy”, “plausibility” and  
338 “probability,” depending on the degree to which the decision maker needs to be confident that any  
339 observed effects are due to a particular linkage, programme or intervention. This view encourages the  
340 inclusion of a wider range of information—as relevant to a specific linkage—and draws attention to the  
341 need for assessment of the strength of the inferences about the relationships of interest, which seems  
342 consistent with our recommendation above.

343

344 **Box 1. Points involved in the development of causal diagrams**

- 345 1) Variables should be specific and measurable (observable in principal) and named as nouns or  
346 noun phrases rather than verbs indicating directions of change;
- 347 2) Linkages shown are hypothesized to be causal, not only correlations or associations;
- 348 3) Polarities of the links should be indicated;
- 349 4) Feedback loops should be identified and their polarity indicated;
- 350 5) Stocks should be depicted with boxes, and the use of other shapes is limited for clarity;
- 351 6) Important known or hypothesized delays (where time is required for a change in a causal variable  
352 to have an impact on a resulting variable) should be indicated.

353

354 The diagram from Kadiyala et al. can be modified based on these principles to illustrate the potential  
355 usefulness of the SD approach (Figure 3). For the purposes of this exercise, we have retained many of the  
356 variables from Figure 1, although in principle additional modifications for greater specificity (point 1  
357 above) and alignment with the evidence in the text may be appropriate.

358 [Figure 3 about here](#)

359 **Figure 3. Diagram Modified from Kadiyala et al.<sup>8</sup> Using Systems Diagramming Conventions.** Stocks are  
360 shown in boxes. Variables in red seemed implied by the Kadiyala et al diagram (disaggregation of child and  
361 maternal health and nutrient intakes, other non-food expenditures, and household-level food production) and were  
362 added to clarify the nature of the hypothesized pathways. Exogenous variables are indicated in orange and potential  
363 intervention points in pink. The signs ‘+’ and ‘-’ indicate that the direction of the change in a resulting variable is the  
364 same as, or opposite of, the direction of change in a causal variable, respectively. ‘?’ indicates an ambiguous  
365 direction of change. Reinforcing processes are indicated by the R enclosed by a clockwise arrow. Dashed arrows  
366 represent hypothesized additional loops.

367 Consistent with the guidelines above, the diagram now indicates hypothesized or known linkages among  
368 elements of the pathways linking agriculture and nutritional outcomes. Some variable names have also  
369 been adjusted as per SD naming conventions. Known or hypothesized causal links between variables,  
370 along with their polarities, are indicated. The direction of the change in a resulting variable may be the  
371 same as that of the causal variable or the opposite. For example, an increase in household income is  
372 hypothesized to lead to an increase in food consumption expenditures, whereas a decrease in household  
373 income would lead to a decrease in food consumption expenditures (i.e. positive polarity). An increase in  
374 women’s energy expenditure may cause a decrease in maternal health status and vice-versa (i.e. negative  
375 polarity). Note that these situations indicate the directions of change between causal and resulting  
376 variables and do not imply symmetry in the nature of the responses to increases and decreases.

377 It is not considered good SD diagramming practice to have linkages with ambiguous polarities.  
378 Typically, this implies a lack of specificity for variable names, as all variables should have clear  
379 hypothesized causality – and not just be general categories of variables. An example is the *Drivers of*  
380 *“taste”* variable included in the Kadiyala et al framework shown in Figure 1, which contains many sub-  
381 elements (culture, location, growth, globalization) that could influence *food expenditure*; and includes a  
382 variable such as *culture* that does not suggest a specific relationship with food expenditures. The  
383 polarities of these different embedded relationships are not separately accounted for in the original  
384 Kadiyala et al framework from Figure 1, so we have similarly shown these ambiguous polarities only to  
385 maintain consistency with the original diagram from Kadiyala et al. We emphasize that in SD  
386 diagramming practice *all* polarities must clearly indicated.

387 Selected feedback loops and their polarities are also identified and emphasized beyond the one feedback  
388 loop shown in Figure 1. In principle, all feedback loops and their polarities should be identified and the  
389 loops named, but for simplicity this is not done here. For example, the main feedback loop shown in  
390 Figure 3 (R1) links household assets to household income, and nutrient consumption to nutritional  
391 outcomes at the household and national levels, which ultimately affects household assets. Feedback loop  
392 polarity is defined as the resulting direction of change in a variable through the feedback process if that  
393 variable were to increase. For example, if household assets were arbitrarily increased, this would increase  
394 incomes, food expenditures, nutrient consumption, nutritional status (at the household and national levels)  
395 – *and also* household assets. Identifying reinforcing feedback loops has relevance because these loops  
396 can often serve as a focal point for interventions to promote sustained improvements<sup>49</sup>.

397 A “balancing” loop is shown between food prices and food production. If there is an increase in food  
398 production, there will be a decrease in food prices, other things being equal; the link polarities (positive or  
399 negative) in feedback loops indicate partial effects, not overall directions of change. A decrease in food  
400 prices is hypothesized to decrease food production keeping other things constant (i.e. through a  
401 producer’s supply response), so an initial increase in food production levels will eventually be at least  
402 partly offset by this supply response effect of future price decreases. Balancing loops often indicate  
403 processes that need to be overcome or weakened to promote sustained improvements in outcomes. Our  
404 representation suggests that the underlying system structure is more “feedback rich” than is shown in  
405 Figure 1.

406 A number of variables including household assets, health status and nutritional outcomes are considered  
407 stocks. Stocks can be observed or measured at a particular point in time. They can include physical  
408 quantities (of goods or money), physical states (such as health status) or even emotional states. One

409 reason to clearly delineate stocks is that they are sources of “memory” and inertia in a system; they  
410 accumulate the effects of a variety of previous causal factors and are sources of delays in responses,  
411 which can be particularly important to assess the likely impacts of interventions. Delays are shown with  
412 the “//” symbol on some of the causal linkages, e.g. those relating improved nutritional status to increased  
413 nutrient intake. This reflects the fact that time is often required after nutrient intakes are increased to  
414 demonstrate substantive improvement in nutritional status. The indication of a delay depends on the time  
415 required for a causal impact to occur, relative to the time horizon defined for the conceptual framework.  
416 Consideration of delays is often relevant for effective intervention design, which can also be linked to  
417 appropriate timing and metrics for monitoring and evaluation.

418 Finally, a model boundary diagram (MBD) is a useful construct to provide additional perspective on the  
419 hypothesized relationships. It consists of a listing of the exogenous, endogenous and excluded (or only  
420 implied) factors represented in the framework (or diagram). The MBD provides one indicator of the  
421 degree of assumed endogeneity and also indicates which concepts have been excluded. This sort of  
422 construct is important for ensuring that relevant feedback processes are captured, as indicated by Bené et  
423 al.<sup>1</sup>, but also for providing a checklist for discussion, as the analyst can relate the framework to the  
424 evidence to explain why certain processes were excluded.

425 The MBD applied to Kadiyala et al. indicates a number of important exogenous *drivers*, especially those  
426 related to policy (Table 5). Many factors are represented as endogenous with some feedback processes  
427 implied. However, the nature of the variables excluded from the diagram (which can include those that  
428 are implied but not explicitly represented) suggests that the diagram does not always align with the factors  
429 for which the empirical evidence is summarized in the text. In addition, the discussion often omits  
430 components of the causal pathways identified in Figure 3. For example, Kadiyala et al (p. 48) notes  
431 evidence that increases in household income will result in increased caloric intake. However, the linkages  
432 between income and caloric intake in Figure 3 are more complex than those discussed in the text; they  
433 include hypothesized pathways through food and non-food expenditures and nutrient consumption—  
434 besides other potential causal variables such as food prices and women’s employment. Omitting evidence  
435 about some causal pathways is understandable given the nature of the studies reviewed but does not  
436 facilitate the use of the diagram to understand the discussed linkages and their polarities.

437

438 [Table 5 about here](#)

439

## 440 **Adaptation of a framework using Systems Modelling Tools**

441 Systems modelling tools and principles can be used to strengthen the presentation of conceptual  
442 frameworks, such as those considering the links between agriculture and food security. First, this  
443 approach can improve the understanding of causal linkages, both in isolation and in feedback processes,  
444 and then assist in identifying the type and nature of relevant interventions. Many existing diagrams  
445 summarizing linkages in conceptual frameworks have ambiguous meanings (particularly when arrows are  
446 drawn to arrows, such as when *intra-household inequality* is linked to an arrow connecting *nutrient*  
447 *consumption* to *nutrient intake* in Figure 1). Clarifying the polarities of individual linkages provides  
448 additional information that summarizes existing knowledge or identifies relevant testable hypotheses.  
449 Identification of major feedback loops is important because they are key components of system structure  
450 and, as such, influence observed behaviours. Changing outcomes thus relies on understanding (and in  
451 some cases modifying) feedback processes that limit the ability of the system to change—particularly  
452 balancing feedback processes. The SD approach encourages analysts to clearly identify outcomes to be  
453 changed (through a reference mode diagram like Figure 2) and delineate factors internal to the system  
454 (endogenous variables) so that they appropriately represent existing evidence and the potential impacts of  
455 proposed interventions.

456 Our diagram (Figure 3) indicates three potential types of interventions that might be undertaken to  
457 improve child nutritional outcomes (as one possible outcome, consistent with the reference mode shown  
458 in Figure 2). Along one of these pathways, a successful intervention to increase the productivity of crop  
459 and livestock production will increase food production, which, through an increase in quantity, would  
460 increase the value of food produced by the household (i.e. as imputed income). However, if increased  
461 production is sufficiently widespread, this has a decreasing effect on food prices, with a corresponding  
462 impact on the value of home food production. The net effect is an empirical question—one with great  
463 importance for determination of the appropriateness of using increased agricultural productivity to  
464 improve nutritional outcomes. Along another pathway, a successful intervention to improve public health  
465 access is hypothesized to improve child and maternal nutritional outcomes. This is hypothesized to then  
466 lead to increases in household assets, and thus higher income nutrient intakes and nutritional outcomes,  
467 but the delay shown in the diagram between *national nutritional outcomes* and additional household asset  
468 accumulation suggests that this process may take time to achieve, especially if variation in within  
469 household equity is considered. The nature of the delays and their causes are thus a relevant component of  
470 a research agenda to better understand which interventions matter most, their sequencing, and timing. It  
471 is a testable hypothesis whether there is an additional feedback loop (shown in Fig. 3 with dashed red  
472 arrow) connecting current income to household asset accumulation that would operate with stronger  
473 impact on a shorter time scale than effects through national nutritional status averages.

474 Finally, an intervention to empower women is shown as reducing intra-household inequality (a negative  
475 polarity for this linkage means that decreased inequality implies improved care), which is hypothesized to  
476 have a positive effect on the effectiveness of care and thus child health outcomes. However, intra-  
477 household inequality is shown as an exogenous variable—uninfluenced by other factors in the framework.  
478 Another testable hypothesis is whether endogenous factors (perhaps household assets) affect the degree of  
479 intra-household inequality; if so, interventions to empower women would be enhanced through feedback  
480 mechanisms.

481 Another advantage of the systems modelling tools discussed here is that there is a well-developed  
482 approach to derive frameworks with them using participatory methods<sup>50</sup>. Such an approach can facilitate  
483 shared understanding by stakeholders with alternative perspectives and greater consensus on what actions  
484 are appropriate. In some settings, the analysis of ‘system archetypes’<sup>51</sup> and ‘systems traps’<sup>52</sup> may provide  
485 additional insights about the appropriateness of intervention strategies. One system trap relevant to this  
486 framework is ‘policy resistance’, where intended improvements are undermined by so-called ‘side  
487 effects’. This trap is illustrated by the discussion above of the ambiguous impacts of productivity  
488 increases: intended improvements in food security may be undermined by scaling-up market effects.

489 The specification of a reference mode, a causal system diagram, and a MBD are useful to enhance  
490 understanding of the linkages between agriculture and food security for the reasons noted above.  
491 However, diagrams alone (for any type of conceptual diagram) cannot quantify the direction and  
492 magnitude of changes over time in response to specific interventions. One example has been noted  
493 previously: the impact of (scaled-up) increased agricultural productivity on nutritional outcomes is an  
494 empirical question highlighted by the alternative pathways influencing household income (through  
495 quantities and prices). As Sterman<sup>2</sup> notes, “In systems with significant dynamic complexity, computer  
496 simulation will typically be needed” to assess intervention priorities more rigorously. SD diagramming  
497 tools are steps in a process to the development of quantitative simulation models that can provide  
498 additional insights about the linkages between agriculture and food security, as demonstrated in  
499 Nicholson et al.<sup>53</sup>

500 The SD approach has a clear overlap with concepts from Theory of Change (TOC) in that both focus on a  
501 long-term goal or outcome, consider what conditions must be in place to achieve this goal, and delineate  
502 causal pathways<sup>54</sup>. This conceptual overlap suggests that application of SD concepts could be  
503 complementary to TOC. TOC methods, however, are used mostly in project and programmatic contexts  
504 to delineate what needs to happen to have the project or program work more effectively. They seek to



505 make explicit connections between inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes, and impacts, with a particular  
506 view to informing monitoring and evaluation.

507 Some parallels also exist between SD and Program Impact Pathways (PIPs), which are theory-based,  
508 schematic diagrams that display the conceptual pathways “from an intervention input through  
509 programmatic delivery, household and individual utilization to its desired impact”<sup>55</sup>. PIPs can be useful  
510 to elucidate how programs or interventions work (the mechanisms) and under what conditions (mediating  
511 or modifying determinants<sup>56,57</sup>). PIPs have been increasingly adapted from the field of evaluation and  
512 applied to small and large nutrition program development, monitoring and evaluation, and  
513 research. Earlier versions of PIPs were used to design program process evaluations post-hoc<sup>58,59</sup>, while  
514 more recently, PIPs are being used in the program development and design phase and used for monitoring  
515 and real-time adaptation to strengthen intervention delivery<sup>60,61</sup>. Although the use of PIPs allows nutrition  
516 interventions to be more grounded in theory, they have been designed and displayed in multiple formats,  
517 usually representing linear unidirectional relationships and with varying representation of mechanisms  
518 and interactions between inputs, behaviours, and outcomes. The use of PIPs to guide collection and  
519 analysis of data also lacks uniformity, ranging from simple comparisons between groups to structural  
520 equation modelling.

521 Undoubtedly, some readers will prefer the relative simplicity of Figure 1 to that of Figure 3, because the  
522 ‘optics’ of conceptual frameworks can be quite important for some audiences and purposes. However, we  
523 note that a main purpose in developing this diagram was to illustrate the potential usefulness of the  
524 approach, the result of which can differ from a diagram that would be most effective to communicate key  
525 messages about a particular system and potential interventions. Any SD-based diagram will be more  
526 effective when appropriately focused on variables associated with its purpose, and with consideration of  
527 the time scale and main feedback effects. However, even for more complex diagrams such as this one,  
528 visual representation can be done in a manner to make key messages more accessible to non-experts by  
529 including basic definitions of system concepts and sequential additions of relevant stock-flow and  
530 feedback structures. A diagram showing the system structure underlying the linkages between livestock  
531 ownership and nutritional outcomes in Randolph et al.<sup>9</sup> has been effectively presented to diverse  
532 audiences using this approach. In addition, the potential for development of systems diagrams using  
533 participatory stakeholder processes can facilitate shared understanding and appropriate application of an  
534 SD-based framework for decision making generally<sup>50</sup> and specifically for nutrition issues<sup>62</sup>.

535

## 536 **Conclusion**

537 A main purpose of this paper is to highlight the usefulness of systems thinking and modelling conventions  
538 and tools for the assessment (and future development) of conceptual frameworks linking agriculture and  
539 food security, as well as to recommend the use of a checklist consistent with these concepts (Table 2).  
540 We specified a set of relevant evaluation criteria based on these conventions (which may in and of itself  
541 be useful) and used these criteria to assess a set of existing frameworks from the literature. That  
542 assessment suggests that conceptual framework development and application would be improved with a  
543 greater focus on specific dynamic behaviour(s) over relevant time horizons and explicit consideration of  
544 the nature of stock-flow-feedback processes—and decision rules used by actors—that generate them.  
545 Clearer definition of system boundaries (i.e. what is endogenous, exogenous and excluded) would  
546 complement the development of frameworks with these characteristics. Because frameworks are likely to  
547 be more useful when they can shed light on the likely impacts of various interventions on specific  
548 outcomes, improved delineation of intervention points and discussion of the likely directions of impacts  
549 can add value to existing frameworks and facilitate subsequent quantitative analysis of relevant  
550 hypotheses.

551 Conceptual frameworks matter because they capture a worldview—how we perceive different elements as  
552 interacting to affect outcomes—and thus influence how resources are allocated for programmatic and  
553 research efforts. On the basis of our review, the predominant worldview emphasizes static analyses in  
554 which individual variables can be modified to achieve outcomes with limited consideration of the impacts  
555 of other interactions (balancing feedback loops) or potentially-important time delays. This view aligns  
556 with the development of shorter-term projects working to research or intervene on discrete or  
557 disconnected elements of a system to achieve change. In contrast, the SD-based approach recommended  
558 above explicitly recognizes dynamics and system linkages, which in many cases aligns more closely with  
559 the realities of the complex and dynamic systems that must be modified to improve food security  
560 outcomes. SD emphasizes the need for the perspectives of multiple disciplines to understand and act  
561 upon these linkages. A more dynamic approach like SD provides both a tool for initial assessment of  
562 interventions (e.g., pathways and testable hypothesis) but also facilitates assessment of the sequencing of  
563 the interventions that is more likely to bring about lasting change. SD also implies that not all pathways  
564 matter equally and that facilitating positive outcomes through some pathways may require heavy  
565 investments for long periods.

566 Systems thinking and SD modelling have a long history of applications in diverse fields—but have been  
567 less used in the analysis of food and agricultural issues. It appears that they would have great potential to  
568 contribute to improved thinking about the complex linkages between agriculture and food security,

569 particularly given the increased focus on developing sustainable food systems that provide healthy diets  
570 and operate within planetary boundaries.

571

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## 797 **Contributions**

798 All authors contributed to the development of the structure of the article and the criteria for assessment.  
799 Nicholson, Kopainsky, Stephens wrote the first draft, with subsequent input from other authors.  
800 Kopainsky and Stephens developed the summary in Table 3, and Nicholson developed the application of  
801 systems modeling tools to the Kadiyala et al framework.

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805 **Ethics declaration**

806 **Competing interests**

807 The authors declare no competing interests.

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811 **Table 1. Potential Purposes for Conceptual Frameworks Linking Agriculture and Food Security**

812 **Used for Assessment**

<b>Purpose of the Framework</b>	<b>Description</b>
Exposition	Accompanies a text description of concepts and linkages to facilitate reader understanding
Evidence summary	Provides a summary of empirical evidence about specific linkages or pathways
Logical rigor	Facilitates a conceptual analysis of key components underlying food security outcomes, often for research or policy design
Empirical model components or computations	Depicts specific model components or computational procedures for empirical models
Framing of testable hypotheses	Depicts pathways with the purpose of identifying hypotheses testable with further research or policy experiments

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830 **Table 2. Assessment Criteria for Conceptual Frameworks Linking Agriculture and Food Security,**  
831 **Emphasising Concepts from Systems Modelling**

<b>Assessment Criterion</b>	<b>Description</b>
Framework purpose	<i>The intended purposes of the framework are clearly stated. Purposes could include exposition, evidence summary, or enhancement of logical rigor in analysis of system interactions.</i>
Model boundary	<i>The framework clearly indicates what components are endogenous (determined by internal interactions among elements of the framework), exogenous (influences not determined within the framework) and excluded (not represented).</i>
Linkage polarity	<i>The ‘polarities’ of hypothesized linkages are clearly indicated. Polarities indicate whether the directions of change are the same or opposite for changes in one variable hypothesized to cause changes in another.</i>
Feedback processes	<i>Feedback processes are shown explicitly when appropriate, rather than only uni-directional or static linkages.</i>
Dynamics	<i>Intertemporal dynamics are explicitly represented with a focus on explaining a specific behaviour over a relevant time horizon.</i>
Actors and decisions	<i>The actors, decisions and information used for decisions are clearly depicted. Actors can include individuals (or households) acting as producers or consumers, private businesses, NGOs or government agencies, among others.</i>
Levels of aggregation	<i>The levels of aggregation assumed (e.g. global, national, regional, local, household, intra-household) are included or emphasized when appropriate.</i>
Intervention entry points	<i>Potential intervention points are clearly indicated in the framework.</i>
Food security indicators	<i>Specific food security metrics representing relevant dimensions of food security (availability, access, utilization and stability) are included.</i>

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833 **Table 3. Summary Assessment of N=37 Conceptual Frameworks Linking Agriculture and Food**  
 834 **Security**

Summary Characteristic	Number of Papers
<i>Likely Purpose</i>	
Exposition	27
Evidence summary	13
Logical rigor	8
Other	4
<i>Levels of Analysis Included (or Focus)</i>	
Aggregated (general)	17
National	8
Household	12
Individual	8
Other (regional/flexible/unclear)	6
<i>Actors (Decision makers) specifically defined</i>	15
<i>Dynamic dimension (stability outcomes) clearly indicated</i>	8
<i>Feedback processes indicated<sup>a</sup></i>	20
<i>Intervention points specifically indicated (rather than implied)</i>	7
<i>Type of food security indicators included:</i>	
General (e.g. “Food Security”, “Malnutrition”)	9
Availability	5
Access	8
Utilization	6
Stability	3
Nutritional status	14
Health outcomes	8
Consumption or intake	6
Other (dietary diversity, quality)	3
Not defined	5

835 Note: sums can add up to more than the total number of reviewed frameworks as one framework can, for example,  
 836 have several purposes or be relevant at several levels.

837 <sup>a</sup> Includes all frameworks with potential or implied feedback processes, not just those frameworks with more  
 838 substantive treatment and discussion of feedback processes and impacts, which are far fewer (N=7).

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846 **Table 4. Assessment Criteria for Conceptual Frameworks Linking Agriculture and Food Security,**  
 847 **Applied to Kadiyala et al.**

Assessment Criterion	Description
Purpose	Clearly stated, primarily a summary of empirical evidence: “In light of...complex linkages between agriculture and nutrition, the goal of this review is to systematically assess the available evidence in the Indian context.”
Model boundary	Could be more explicitly described as such, but <i>policy drivers</i> (of growth, inequality and nutrition) appear to be exogenous, affecting household assets, resource access, tastes, intra-household inequality and public health. Excluded variables not explicitly discussed. Endogenous factors shown but not clearly described as such.
Linkage polarity	Polarities not indicated in the diagram. Some linkages likely have ambiguous polarities. For example, food prices (represented with a single arrow) can increase or decrease food expenditures depending on food demand elasticity values.
Feedback processes	A limited number of feedback processes are shown (e.g. linkages between household assets and nutritional status). Neither feedback loops nor their polarities are emphasized.
Dynamics	No explicit behaviour over time is highlighted, and language focused on <i>pathways</i> suggests a more linear conceptualization. Time horizon for impacts not clearly defined, although data show outcomes.
Actors and decisions	Actors implied include households, women, policy makers (governments). Specific decisions not emphasized.
Levels of aggregation	Specifies national level (for food markets), household level (for income generation and expenditure) and Individual level for nutrient intake and health status.
Intervention entry points	Implied by exogenous policy drivers for government, but no specific interventions are associated with policy or indicated elsewhere in diagram.
Food security indicators	Multiple indicators include <i>food output</i> (availability), <i>food expenditures</i> (access), <i>nutrient intake</i> and <i>nutrition outcomes</i> (utilization). No explicit mention of the stability component of food security.

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849 **Table 5. Model Boundary Diagram Based on the Conceptual Diagram in Kadiyala et al.**

Exogenous Variables	Endogenous Variables	Excluded <sup>a</sup>
Policy drivers of inter-household and intra-household inequality	Food production, imports, and prices	Agricultural productivity
Policy drivers of nutrition	Non-food production	Household-level food production
Policy drivers of (economic) growth	Household income and employment	Specific indicators such as stunting
Water and sanitation quality	Household expenditures on food, non-food and health care	Crop diversification
Health services	Women’s time allocation to employment	Dietary diversification
Education access and quality	Household nutrient consumption	Livelihood diversification
Access to credit and public services	Caring capacity and practices	Livestock assets (although part of household assets)
Tastes and preferences (and their drivers)	Women’s and children’s health status	Animal-source foods (although part of nutrient consumption)
Gender bias	Women’s energy expenditure	Household net producer status
Family size	Nutrient intake	Relative prices of micronutrient-rich foods
	Child and maternal nutrition outcomes	Women’s asset ownership
	National nutrition outcomes	
	Household assets (livelihood strategies)	

850 Note: Columns provide a listing of the three types of variables included in a typical Model Boundary Diagram. There is no  
 851 linkage among these concepts across the rows of the table.

852 Note: Exogenous variables are those assumed given for the purposes of the conceptual framework (diagram), i.e. those not  
 853 changed by other elements of the framework. Endogenous variables are those affected by other variables shown in the  
 854 framework. Excluded variables are those not explicitly shown in the diagram that could affect outcomes of interest.

855 <sup>a</sup> In principle, the list of “excluded” variables can be quite large, but the focus here is on those that might reasonably be  
 856 linked to included variables but are not given the focus provided by the reference mode behaviour. Note that the excluded  
 857 variables in model boundary diagrams can also serve as a basis for critiquing the framework by highlighting omitted  
 858 variables. We provide only a few examples here based primarily on concepts mentioned in the text but absent from Fig. 1.