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10 **The role of food retailers in improving resilience in global food supply**

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54 **Abstract**

55 We urgently need a more resilient food supply system that is robust enough to absorb and
56 recover quickly from shocks, and to continuously provide food in the face of significant
57 threats. The simplified global food supply chain we currently rely upon exacerbates threats
58 to supply and is unstable. Much attention has been given to how producers can maximise
59 yield, but less attention has been given to other stakeholders in the supply chain.

60 Increasingly, transnational food retailers (supermarkets) occupy a critical point in the chain,
61 which makes them highly sensitive to variability in supply, and able to encourage change of
62 practice across large areas. We contend that the concentration in the chain down to a few
63 retailers in each country provides an opportunity to increase resilience of future supply
64 given appropriate, scale-dependent interventions. We make ten recommendations aimed at
65 reducing variability in supply that can be driven by retailers (although some of the
66 interventions will be implemented by producers). Importantly, resilience in our food supply
67 requires the restoration and expansion of ecosystem services at the landscape-scale.

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69 **Keywords**

70 Vulnerability, resilience, ecosystem services, sustainable intensification, landscape,

71 supermarkets

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76 **Highlights**

77 • The global food supply system we currently rely upon is unstable.

78 • Changes to production practices are necessary to increase resilience to threats.

79 • Retailers are ideally placed to mandate for change across large areas.

80 • Resilience in our food supply requires the restoration of ecosystem services.

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98 **1. Introduction**

99 Our daily lives increasingly depend on a well-functioning global food production and
100 delivery system. With rapid population growth in some regions, demographic and geo-
101 political change, set against changing climate patterns and extremes, resilience of global
102 food supply is paramount. Even small shocks early in the supply chain can amplify through
103 the global agri-food system impacting people who are geographically distant from the
104 disturbance (Puma et al., 2015; Suweis et al., 2015). For example, a drought period in
105 2007-08, coupled with low stocks and export restrictions, led to food price inflation
106 sparking food riots in many places (Berazneva and Lee, 2013; Galtier, 2013). Significant
107 crop (and post-harvest) losses due to weeds, invertebrate pest and disease outbreaks have
108 continued over the last 40 years, despite increased use of pesticides (Oerke, 2005; Stokstad,
109 2013). Additionally, many countries have reached the limit of available land suitable for
110 agricultural, with significant areas of this land now so degraded that returning it to
111 productivity will be both difficult and costly (Smith, 2013; Strassburg et al., 2014). Without
112 adaptive changes to the global agri-food system, climate change is expected to reduce crop

113 yields in regions that are required to produce more in the future, and to increase variability
114 in productivity in other regions (Challinor et al., 2014; Wheeler and von Braun, 2013).

115

116 We urgently need a more resilient food supply system that is robust enough to absorb and
117 recover quickly from shocks, and continuously provide food in the face of significant
118 internal and external threats (Suweis et al., 2015, see text box 1). These threats range from
119 local factors such as pest outbreaks, pesticide resistance, extreme weather events, and
120 political instability, to global threats such as climate change and changes in land use. In
121 addition, threats outside the supply system (in the demand chain, Gilbert 2010) can interact
122 and lead to price variability. Inputs such as water and agrochemicals are currently over-
123 used in many production contexts whilst pesticide and antibiotic resistance threatens the
124 effectiveness of these inputs. Increased reliance on inputs at the expense of natural
125 ecosystem processes increases environmental externalities (Pretty et al., 2001), but also
126 makes farming more vulnerable to changes that influence the price and availability of
127 inputs. Without significant changes these factors may induce increased spatial and temporal
128 variability in future food supply.

129

130 The purpose of our article is to highlight ways in which stakeholders along the food supply
131 chain can contribute to reducing production variability by adopting more sustainable
132 practices. We focus on the role of retailers, as they provide the link between producers and
133 consumers, and therefore have an ability to influence decision-making at both ends of the
134 food supply chain. Furthermore, their reach has increased in recent years in terms of

135 accessibility for consumers in developing countries, and sourcing products or ingredients
136 from producers around the world. We highlight 10 practical recommendations to improve
137 resilience in food supply systems to a range of threats. The conceptual foundations of
138 resilience in ecology are often applied to agro-ecosystems (text box 1), and here we use that
139 foundation to explore ways in which we can reduce production variability. One of our main
140 conclusions is that implementing certain intervention strategies at the landscape-scale is
141 necessary to achieve the desired outcomes.

142

143 **2. Characteristics of our current global food supply system**

144 The food supply chain consists of many inter-connected stakeholders (producers,
145 processors, packagers, distributors, transportation companies, wholesalers, supermarket
146 retailers and consumers, Fig. 1) who will all benefit from, and must contribute to, a more
147 resilient global food supply system. The simplified global food supply chain we currently
148 rely upon exacerbates threats and is potentially highly unstable. This supply chain, which
149 producers around the world deliver into (Fig. 2), encourages uniform production practices
150 (Allison and Hobbs, 2004) that are highly efficient in “good years” but can also be
151 maladaptive under changing conditions (Bennett et al., 2014). For example, inputs such as
152 pesticides are often used to protect crops from damage, regardless of whether a pest is
153 present, or if the overall risk of pest outbreaks has reduced due to climate change. Changing
154 production practices, to those that are more sustainable using the recommendations we
155 outline below, but may carry more risk for the producer in the short-term. Therefore, it is

156 important that other stakeholders in the chain understand these risks and do not leave it up
157 to producers along to bring about change.

158

159 Food retailers occupy a critical point in the food supply chain (Fig. 1), which makes them
160 highly sensitive to variability in supply, and well-positioned to encourage change of
161 practice across large areas (Burch et al., 2012; Konefal et al., 2005). There has been a
162 “supermarket revolution” especially in developing countries over the past 20 years
163 (although this has only just started in parts of Africa) (Reardon et al., 2012). As an
164 example, in Thailand about 85% of people now have access to, and regularly purchase food
165 from, supermarkets, compared to 47% ten years ago (Kelly et al., 2014). There has been a
166 concentration and multinationalizing of retailers (Burch et al., 2012, and also processing
167 and wholesale stakeholders, Reardon 2015). We contend that the concentration in the chain
168 down to a few retailers in each country provides an opportunity to increase resilience of
169 future supply given appropriate, scale-dependent interventions.

170

171 Many valid recommendations have been made for increasing food supply and reducing
172 waste, and there is growing recognition that despite adequate food production, inequity in
173 distribution ensures that malnutrition persists (Godfray et al., 2010). However, much of the
174 focus of the global food security discourse has recently been about growing average yields,
175 and has emphasized the role of highly productive, large-scale agriculture systems without
176 much regard to their vulnerability to external shocks (McKenzie and Williams, 2015; Shen
177 et al., 2013). Thus, our specific focus here is on reducing variability in production as a

178 consequence of changing environmental, social, and market conditions since this variability
179 has the potential to cause significant social and economic impacts (see text box 1).

180 Resilience to threats in our food supply system, we contend, is often crucially related to
181 under-pinning ecological functions that allow for enhanced delivery of ecosystem services
182 within sustainable agri-food system (Bennett et al., 2014; Yachi and Loreau, 1999).

183

184 **3. Resilient food systems necessitates a landscape-scale perspective**

185 To increase resilience of production and supply, stakeholders should encourage, and in
186 some cases mandate, sustainable practices with an emphasis on co-ordination at the
187 landscape-scale (text box 2). Success of such practices frequently requires their
188 implementation at the landscape-level. For example, area-wide pest management is
189 required for: effective deployment of insect mating confusion pheromones, the removal of
190 alternative host plants or sources of weed seeds, the maintenance of non-transgenic or
191 unsprayed refugia for susceptible pest genotypes that delay the development of pesticide
192 resistance, and the maintenance of vegetative habitat to support viable populations of
193 arthropods that provide pollination and pest control services (Tscharrntke et al., 2005).
194 Longer-term interventions that improve ecosystem services such as water purification,
195 flood control, and soil erosion prevention also need to be implemented at landscape-scale or
196 greater to achieve the desired outcomes for sustainable food supply (Rodriguez-Loinaz et
197 al., 2015). Government-directed policy initiatives often struggle to implement change at the
198 landscape-scale (and in a global market) and instead focus on individual landowners to
199 effect change.

200

201 Landscape-scale management requires local collaboration among landowners, which can
202 otherwise be threatened by the ‘tragedy of the commons’ or lack of mechanisms for
203 collective decision-making (Lant et al., 2008). We argue that food retailers operate at the
204 interface between producers and consumers and consequently, hold a critical position to
205 overcome this dilemma and influence production practices at the landscape scale (Jennings
206 et al., 2015), while also shaping consumer attitudes to environmental costs of production,
207 and thereby increasing demand for sustainable products (Lazzarinin et al., 2001). Consumer
208 access to food through supermarkets has increased dramatically in recent years (Kelly et al.,
209 2014), yet in some countries only a few food retailers sell to consumers (Fig. 1). This
210 concentration of source products or ingredients from thousands of producers and traders
211 around the world (Fig. 2), through a limited number of retailers, thus provides an
212 opportunity for them to improve resilience to shocks in food supply.

213

214 **4. Recommendations to improve resilience**

215 We highlight 10 recommendations that can be implemented by stakeholders along the
216 supply chain (Fig. 1), to reduce variability in supply and improve recovery from shocks.
217 Examples of interventions based on existing knowledge and technologies that support these
218 recommendations are given in Table 1. We focus just on these ten as they have significant
219 research underpinning them (as identified by conversations amongst the authors), and are
220 likely to improve sustainability and resilience across a range of farming systems. Retailers
221 are well equipped to proactively maintain predictable flows of produce by implementing (or

222 incentivising producers and consumers to implement) many of these recommendations, and
223 this is likely to improve the resilience of their business and the sustainability of agricultural
224 production. Likewise retailers can influence consumer decision-making at a range of scales
225 to re-inforce sustainable production practices. Some retailers already have existing
226 sustainability standards and some of our recommendations will be encompassed by these
227 (but see text box 1). Our recommendations are:

228

229 **1. *Mandate practices that maintain and restore soil resources.*** Global degradation of soils
230 threatens food supply. However, regenerative management interventions have
231 demonstrated potential to improve soil-microbe interactions, increase yields and ensure
232 sustained high productivity that is less vulnerable to the extremes of water logging and
233 drought, with the additional benefit of helping to mitigate climate change by increasing
234 soil organic carbon (Alliaume et al., 2014; Holland, 2004; Lal, 2004).

235 **2. *Protect water resources.*** Increased variability in rainfall, reduced water quality and
236 increased competition for water resources threaten the production of irrigation-
237 dependent crops (Mancosu et al., 2015). To prevent water-borne contamination of
238 produce, or human conflict under extreme water scarcity, interventions include rainwater
239 capture and storage, conservation tillage, vegetative buffers against agricultural run-off
240 entering waterways, and expansion of efficient irrigation infrastructure.

241 **3. *Identify marginal or low productivity land and encourage its removal from high-input***
242 ***production.*** Degraded and less productive parcels of land with high input costs relative
243 to yields can be conserved to support the environmental benefits increasingly demanded

244 by society. Connectivity of these patches at the regional-level supports producers' social
245 licence to operate and benefits biodiversity-based ecosystem services. We should
246 investigate strategies for integrating these areas across the landscape, and using them to
247 create multifunctional agricultural landscapes (Renting et al., 2009).

248 **4. Ensure producers use agrochemicals judiciously.** Reduced pesticide-use reduces the
249 evolution of pesticide resistance in insects and weeds (Stokstad, 2013), harm to non-target
250 organisms, environmental contamination (Pelosi et al., 2013), and residues on food.
251 Consumer demand for reduced health risks will require producers to adopt strategies that
252 replace chemical inputs, where possible, with the activities of naturally occurring
253 ecosystem service providers as in conservation biological control and adoption of area-wide
254 pest management strategies against mobile pathogens. Increased nutrient-use efficiency and
255 better targeting of nutrient input to areas where nutrient deficiency is recognized as the
256 limiting factor has the potential to reduce farmer costs and limit runoff into waterways
257 (Grafton and Yule, 2015).

258 **5. Encourage landscape-scale diversification.** A diverse crop portfolio protects farmers
259 from price- and environmental-volatility and provides trade opportunities for
260 smallholder farmers, thereby helping to ensure farm business resilience (Abson et al.,
261 2013). Moreover, landscapes that integrate crop, livestock and forestry systems with
262 natural set-aside areas experience a higher, and more resilient, provision of ecosystem
263 services such as crop pollination and pest control (Kremen and Miles, 2012; Liebman
264 and Schulte, 2015; Tschardt et al., 2005). Finally, diverse landscapes improve the

265 efficiency of resource flows among landscape components, such as winter feed for stock
266 or use of stock manure as fertiliser.

267 **6. *Encourage sustainable livestock management practices.*** Global demand for livestock
268 produce is growing. Supplying this demand means meeting increasing consumer demand
269 for evidence of humane livestock conditions, whilst improving the sustainability of
270 fodder production, reducing the risk of disease outbreaks (which may spread across
271 continents) and preparing for the consequences of growing antibiotic resistance (Eisler et
272 al., 2014; Martin and Greeff, 2011). Accounting for the full environmental costs of
273 livestock production practices, and if applicable, offsetting these costs using
274 interventions in other regions, is critical to future improvements.

275 **7. *Identify future crops and products and help prepare farmers.*** As climate changes make
276 some crops non-viable in certain regions, production may need to shift to new crops,
277 forage plants and livestock breeds that are better-suited to future conditions (e.g.
278 bambara nuts, moringa, perennial grains), or to “rediscovered” traditional agricultural
279 products that can be marketed to a new generation of consumers. Perennial cultivation,
280 with many benefits for soil health and sustainability, will need a careful and supportive
281 articulation with markets (and consumers), differing from annual production systems
282 that can more readily switch crop-types (FAO, 2013). Often producers have already
283 identified potential new products, but require support to develop them into marketable
284 commodities.

285 **8. *Support the farmers of the future.*** The average age of farmers is increasing in many
286 countries as young people migrate to urban areas or face professional barriers (e.g., land

287 prices and availability). Whilst this issue goes beyond food retailers, there is a critical
288 need for retailers to recognise the impact of this shift on the resilience of their business.
289 Interventions include encouraging support networks for farmers, ensuring that the rural
290 way of life is profitable (through fair pricing), lobbying governments to support
291 sustainable land tenure agreements, and encouraging retailers to better understand
292 farmers aspirations and production constraints (de Snoo et al., 2013; Farmar-Bowers,
293 2010).

294 **9. Identify products (and their ingredients) that are produced in high-risk regions.** Risks
295 of disrupted supply in some regions may be generated by local environmental (e.g.
296 climate change) or social/political instability (Lagi et al., 2011) (Fig. 2). Solutions will
297 require either policy mechanisms to reduce risks, production specifically tailored to
298 build local sustainability and resilience to withstand environmental risks (Rossing et al.,
299 2014), or carefully planned alternative sourcing by retailers and food manufacturers
300 from a wider spectrum of producers.

301 **10. Identify products (and their ingredients) that have costly environmental externalities**
302 **- mitigate these externalities.** Trade-offs between increased productivity and the
303 environment may negatively feedback to production and ultimately generate an
304 unsustainable and low-resilience supply (e.g., through soil degradation, loss of
305 pollination services, inefficient water use) (Matson et al., 1997). In some cases this could
306 be ameliorated through improved management practices; in others, product substitution
307 must be considered. True cost accounting, including the cost of negative externalities in
308 the prices of agricultural produce, is one means of creating incentives for change (Pretty

309 et al., 2001). Importantly, consumers should have access to the provenance, and
310 estimated environmental costs, of products and ingredients in products sold by retailers,
311 so they can make informed choices.

312

313 **5. The role of retailers**

314 The fundamental basis of many of the 10 recommendations is the restoration and expansion
315 of ecosystem services in agricultural landscapes. Encouraging producers to move away
316 from input-driven agricultural decision-making is challenging and retailers have a role to
317 play in this transition process. Retailers have the power to issue production mandates that
318 can lead to wide-scale change of practice. The scale of implementation of these production
319 mandates and specific interventions (e.g., Table 1) is critical, as is the farming context in
320 which they take place. Crop failures occur when mutually disruptive practices are
321 employed in individual farming operations, such as monocultures that homogenize
322 resources for specific pest species, landscape-wide use of the same varieties that facilitate
323 disease spread, uniform spray tactics that harm pollinators and soil biota and select for
324 pesticide resistance, or planting times that assist pest or pathogen build-up. Coordinated,
325 long-term interventions are necessary for sustaining the provision of ecosystem services
326 that buffer against these threats. Importantly, some of these interventions can be
327 implemented now through relatively simple changes. For example, many strawberry
328 producers in California still use methyl bromide soil fumigants to control diseases,
329 nematodes and weeds, despite it being banned in other crops. The transition away from this
330 practice is foreseeable, and is already taking place through individual growers who have

331 begun to implement anaerobic soil disinfection, a promising alternative treatment involving
332 microbial shifts after carbon inputs and flooding (Butler et al., 2014). Encouraging all
333 growers to find alternative approaches could be aided by purchase premiums offered by
334 retailers and associated education of consumers.

335

336 Standards and policies dictated by retailers already have a global reach, influencing
337 production practices in terms of food safety, quality and environmental impacts (Burch et
338 al., 2012). However, many small-scale producers cannot meet standards or price points, and
339 must operate independently using local markets (Konefal et al., 2005). These local markets
340 should be viewed as collaborators, not competitors of big retailers. In many instances, local
341 markets use complementary food distribution systems such as food hubs, community-
342 supported agriculture or farmers' markets. Farmer to farmer movements and agroecological
343 farming models support local consumption and export crops in parallel supply chains
344 outside of the mainstream markets, and may provide innovative examples for resilience in
345 the face of climate change and market fluctuations (Babin, 2014). In addition smallholder
346 farmers in certain contexts may require different management strategies to improve
347 resilience to shocks that we have not addressed properly here.

348

349 **6. Conclusions**

350 Our food supply system needs to be and can be made more resilient through the
351 implementation of appropriate interventions at the appropriate scale, but this should not be
352 left up to producers or government policy alone. Stakeholders, such as global food retailers

353 and consumers, also have a key role to play in ensuring resilience in our global food supply
354 system to a range of current and future threats. If the 10 recommendations outlined here
355 were adopted as a road map for resilience by transnational retail companies there would be
356 significant changes in the way large areas of agricultural land are managed in the future.
357 These recommendations may also help shift consumer perceptions around the true costs
358 certain products. These interventions, based on currently available knowledge and
359 technology, could lead to more sustainable agricultural landscapes over a relatively short
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361

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377

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518

519

520

521 **Text box 1. The concept of ecological resilience**

522 The term resilience is used in a variety of contexts but can often be vaguely defined and
523 difficult to quantify. In ecological systems resilience is described as the ability of a system
524 to absorb changes in state variables and so persist after a disturbance (Holling, 1973). In
525 social–ecological systems, such as agriculture, resilience can be defined as the ability of the
526 system to withstand stress factors while maintaining productivity, and the capacity to learn
527 and adapt (Folke et al., 2010). Thresholds of disturbance, at which an ecosystem switches
528 to another state, can be used as a measurement of resilience (Standish et al., 2014). Here we
529 talk about resilience in terms of production variability, and the ability of agro-ecosystems to
530 maintain stability in production levels even in the face of disturbances. The replacement of
531 ecosystem services with artificial inputs such as pesticides, fertilisers, and irrigation is one
532 way to reduce production variability in the short-term. However, these practices come with
533 a range of environmental externalities (Pretty et al., 2001) that eventually lead to negative
534 feedbacks and ultimately a reduction in productivity. Allison & Hobbs (2004) use land-use
535 change in the Western Australian agricultural region as an example of how you can apply a
536 framework based on resilience theory to examine capacity for change and renewal to a
537 large-scale social-ecological system. More recently resilience thinking is being applied
538 real-world species conservation and ecosystem management decisions.

539

540 **Text box 2. What does a resilient global food supply system look like?**

541 For our food supply system to be “resilient” it must be able to withstand shocks, or recover
542 quickly from those that occur (Holling, 1973). Food security is defined as when people, at
543 all times, have access to sufficient, safe, nutritious food to maintain a healthy and active life

544 (FAO, 2008). A resilient food supply system is therefore critical for delivering food “at all
545 times”. The recent global food price spikes have illustrated that the food supply system we
546 currently rely on is fragile (Berazneva and Lee, 2013; Galtier, 2013) and this leads to
547 transitory periods of food insecurity for some, and chronic food insecurity issues for others.
548 At the global-level our food supply system is vulnerable to self-propagating disruptions due
549 to the fact that many countries rely on imports for staple foods and often will stop exporting
550 to other countries during a crisis to protect domestic supply (Puma et al., 2015). One way to
551 increase resilience in this context is to increase redundancy at the production level. If
552 production of certain commodities are interrupted in one region, other regions can
553 potentially make up for the losses. A second way is to reduce the risk of wide-scale
554 production losses due to extreme weather, pest outbreaks, or other events. Whilst food
555 retailers cannot stop such events they can help to ensure that agricultural landscapes are
556 managed in such a way to improve robustness to these shocks. Often these management
557 interventions (Table 1) need to be implemented at the landscape-level to achieve the
558 desired outcome. Resilience is one component of sustainability in this context. A discussion
559 of the inter-connectedness of these two concepts is beyond the scope of this article,
560 however we do observe that there is a strong relationship between management practices
561 aimed at improving sustainability and those that help build resilience in production
562 landscapes.

563

564 **Table 1.** Examples of intervention strategies that may be used by stakeholders in response
 565 to the 10 recommendations made above to improve resilience in the food supply chain. The
 566 second column highlights the potential threats that could be minimized using the
 567 intervention strategies outlined in the third column.

<i>Recommendation</i>	<i>Threats or negative changes</i>	<i>Examples of interventions to increase resilience</i>
1. Maintain and restore soil resources	Loss of productive land due to erosion and salinity, yield losses from crop disease owing to reduction in microbial diversity needed for pathogen suppressive soils.	Apply minimum or conservation tillage and other interventions that build soil organic matter. Repair degraded soils via re-vegetation initiatives, green manures and application of organic matter. Reduce soil erosion by maintaining year-round plant cover (e.g. cover crops, wind breaks). Use precision agriculture to ensure nutrient inputs/irrigation are matched to the conditions and crop requirements.
2. Protect water resources	Production losses from insufficient water supply for crops, food contamination from microbial movement in water, and groundwater pollutants.	Match crops to water availability. Manage soils and habitats to hold water, prevent water loss and mitigate pollution. Build infrastructure for holding and distributing water (e.g. improved irrigation channels, drip systems). Protect riparian corridors by implementing spray buffers, re-vegetation, and fencing from livestock.
3. Remove marginal land from high-input production	Loss of customers, shift of customers to other food supply chains.	Invest in conservation interventions – like habitat restoration, traditional farming on non-productive land and in strategies for integrating these interventions across the landscape or within multifunctional landscapes. Financially support conservation interventions aimed at iconic farmland species and habitats (e.g. traditionally managed grasslands). In some contexts low-intensity farming can support biodiversity conservation. Develop habitat conservation interventions that also support the provision of ecosystem services. Improve guidelines on land tenure in marginal lands such that farmers have security to make environmentally sustainable investments (i.e., support mobility).
4. Use agrochemicals judiciously	Pesticide resistance, loss of natural pest control, unacceptable level of residues on food. High inorganic fertilizer prices.	Encourage farmers to use the appropriate quality and quantity of agrochemicals. Provide training and support for integrated pest management and area-wide management strategies. Interventions to enhance or maintain biodiversity-mediated pest control, such as hedgerows, perennial non-crop habitat in farming landscapes. Educate consumers to recognize and accept cosmetic damage to fresh produce and to focus more on the health and environmental aspects of food.
5. Encourage	Dwindling or	Encourage farm businesses to produce a diversity of crop types

landscape-scale diversification	<p>unsustainable supplies of synthetic chemical inputs.</p> <p>Increasing threats from pest and disease outbreaks in homogenous landscapes.</p>	<p>and varieties.</p> <p>Support farming systems that integrate livestock and crop production.</p> <p>Use manure and leguminous cover crops to improve soils.</p> <p>Return waste/by-products from crops/food processing to livestock.</p> <p>Encourage agro-forestry.</p>
6. Encourage sustainable livestock management practices	<p>Livestock production becomes prohibitively costly through thresholds such as antibiotic resistance, pasture loss, or increased cost of imported feed.</p>	<p>Encourage mixed forage systems.</p> <p>Match stocking levels to available forage to prevent land degradation from erosion and over-grazing.</p> <p>Support certification for humane livestock standards that avoid pathogenic conditions and lower disease incidence.</p> <p>Encourage pastoral production through development of new forage mixes and livestock breeding programmes.</p> <p>Develop new sustainable feeds that are locally derived.</p>
7. Identify and prepare for the products of the future	<p>Our current products are not well suited to future environmental and societal conditions.</p>	<p>Invest in Research, Development & Extension activities around newly emerging products that have the potential to be sustainably produced under future environments.</p> <p>Work with producers who have identified a potential new product to overcome marketing constraints.</p> <p>Assist in the development of “demand forecasting” strategies for certain agricultural industries.</p> <p>Articulate how these new products differ from existing products (e.g., perennial grain crops).</p>
8. Support farmers of the future	<p>Farming is not considered an attractive lifestyle or career path, changing demographic trends in many rural areas that we don’t fully understand.</p>	<p>Develop policies for negotiating with producers that respects their role as farmers and land-stewards.</p> <p>Ensure that the capability to continue farming in a region is present by sponsoring learning opportunities for champion farmers and promoting other education initiatives.</p> <p>Be aware and knowledgeable of the local context and community attitudes and cultural differences when negotiating with farmers around interventions. Recognise and value the traditional knowledge of some producers.</p> <p>Encourage sustainable land tenure agreements.</p>
9. Identify products that are produced in high-risk regions	<p>Disruption to supply by hurricanes, workers strikes, warfare, or production delays from worker shortages, and disease epidemics.</p>	<p>Initiate alternative sourcing for products from these regions, or identify and support local alternative products and incentivize long-term sustainable production practices that support local livelihoods and reduce vulnerability to risks.</p>
10. Identify products that have significant and costly environmental externalities	<p>Production practices cause resource degradation that undermines stability of production. Product supply dependent on practices harmful to non-target organisms. Consumers avoid products because of</p>	<p>Ensure all supply chains are evaluated by retailers and are transparent to consumers. True cost accounting.</p> <p>Identify products sourced from locations with hard trade-offs with the environment. Can these be sourced from a more desirable location or produced in a different way?</p> <p>Encourage an increased use of seasonal local products and wean consumers off year round supplies of certain products.</p> <p>Circulate sustainability advisory lists (as is done with seafood) to indicate which products are the best choices, acceptable, and best to avoid.</p>

real or perceived
environmental and/or
social costs.

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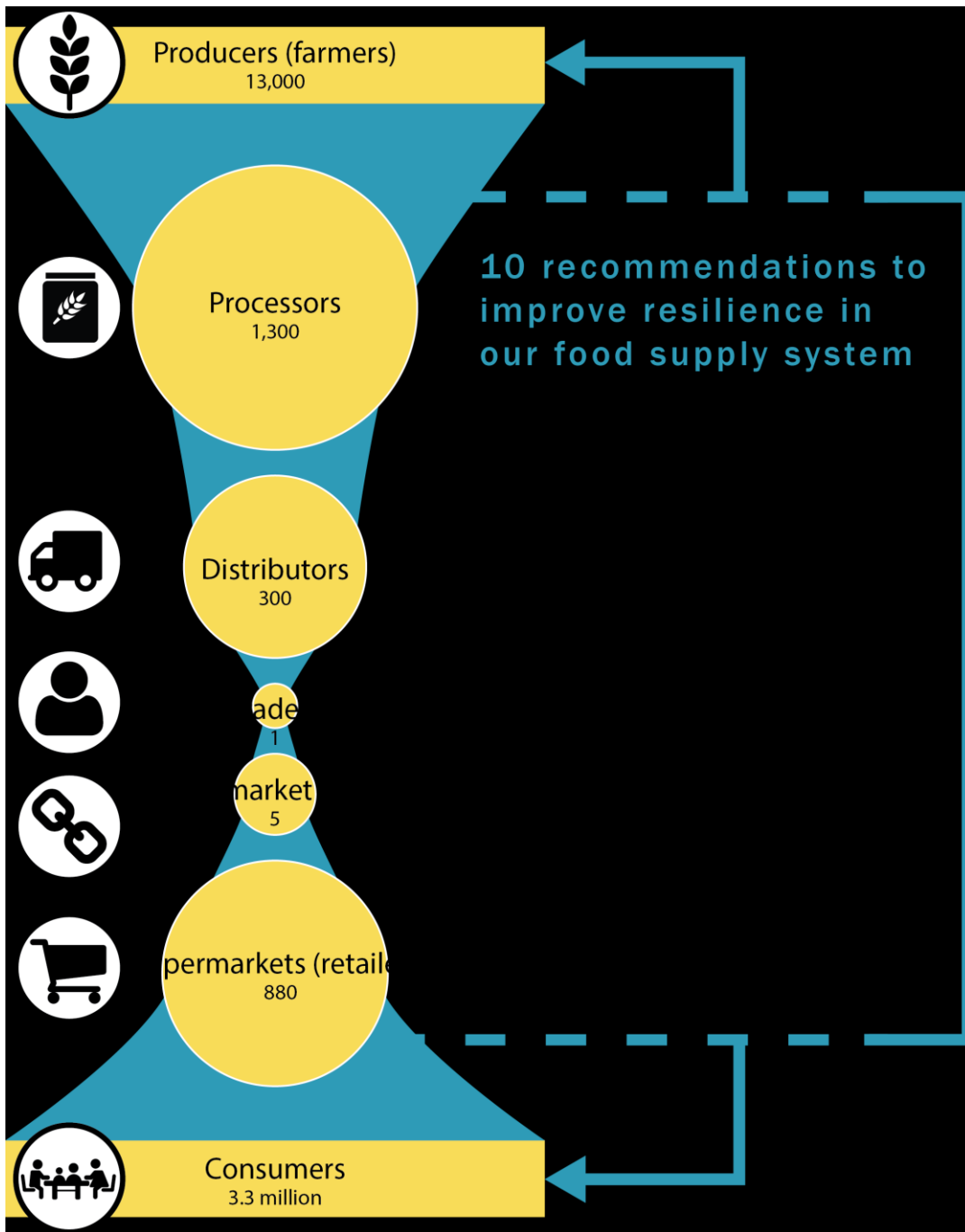
572

573 **Figure 1.** The simplified food supply chain typically comprises many stakeholders, but few
574 organisations in the centre. However, where few organizations dominate a section of the
575 food supply chain, their mandates have the power to influence production practices (top
576 arrow) and consumer decisions (bottom arrow). The illustration (not to scale) is based on a
577 study by the Dutch Environmental Agency (Hoogervorst et al., 2012). Five wholesale
578 traders serve the 16.5 million Dutch consumers, therefore for every trader there is an
579 equivalent of 13,000 producers, 1,300 manufacturers and 300 distributors; there is one
580 trader for every five supermarket chains that retail through 880 supermarkets. We make 10
581 recommendations for ways in which these stakeholders can improve resilience of the food
582 supply chain.

583

584 **Fig. 2.** Ingredients for any product are frequently sourced from a wide variety of countries.
585 The provenance of ingredients for a chocolate bar produced in the UK is likely to extend
586 across 4 different continents, based on the major exporting countries for each ingredient.
587 Disrupted supply of any ingredient threatens the supply of the entire product, and is hence
588 an incentive for adopting a broadly adaptive resilience framework (see recommendations 9
589 and 10).

590



591

592 **Figure 1.**

593

594

595

596

597

598



599

600 **Figure 2.**

- Milk
- Cocoa
- Salt
- Wheat flour
- Butter
- Soy (protein)
- Sugar
- Palm oil (fat)
- Whey