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Models of Future Food Systems Should Address Transformation Complexity and Uncertainty

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ABSTRACT

Food systems face increasing, multi-dimensional pressures that demand fully integrated assessments of environmental, social, health, nutritional, and economic dimensions to inform their transformation. Food system models traditionally designed for market-driven optimisation and economic efficiency may not be well suited to address these emerging needs, limiting their ability to support decisions and participatory processes effectively. Here we evaluate the extent to which current models represent food system transformations and identify challenges and opportunities in relation to key aspects of transformative change, including the representation of socio-political dynamics and human-nature feedbacks, links between global and local scales, robustness under uncertainty, and flexibility to evolving stakeholder needs. Based on an evaluation of current food system models, we identify ways forward to enhance the potential usefulness of modelling tools. Key research priorities include rethinking how models are *designed*, emphasising modularity and a diversification of models, as well as rethinking how models are *used*, suggesting their more effective integration into social and decision-making processes. Enhancing the utility of food system models is expected to prioritise and guide the practical activities involved in transforming food systems.

45 1. INTRODUCTION

46 Food systems are deeply interconnected with climate change, environmental sustainability, and broader
47 societal systems, resulting in contested sustainability outcomes and highlighting the urgent need for
48 transformative changes (2, 3). Understanding the complex, multi-decadal impacts of current food systems
49 and transforming them towards preferred future systems that ensure food safety, security, and economic
50 prosperity while improving public health and environmental sustainability is critical and challenging (4). It
51 involves analyses that consider diverse technological and policy options in the long-term future (5).

52 Models are potentially useful tools in food system analysis (6), and have been used to serve scientific
53 purposes including (but not limited to) evaluating agricultural mitigation strategies (7), designing
54 sustainable land management practices (8), informing healthy diets (9), assessing impacts on natural
55 capitals (10), and evaluating economic risks in agriculture (11). Some food system models have been
56 specifically designed to inform policy decisions, particularly in Europe, where they play a role in impact
57 assessments, including in regular reforms of the Common Agricultural Policy (12). Recent applications in
58 policy evaluation include the EU Waste Directive Amendments (13), the EU 2030 Climate Target Plan and
59 Biofuel Mandates (14), and the US Environmental Protection Agency's Renewable Fuel Standards (15). Their
60 usefulness is underpinned by their ability to analyse possible systemic interactions, to provide insights into
61 the complex sustainability impacts of current and future food systems. Food system models are diverse in
62 scope and methodology (6, 16, 17). This paper defines them as formal analytical frameworks that represent
63 multi-sector dynamics (18) by assessing the development of interconnected sectors across value chains.
64 This ranges from focused analyses of food, land, and agriculture (19) to broader assessments of human-
65 environmental interactions, including food and agriculture interactions with land, economy, water, and
66 energy systems (20).

67 Food system transformations are inherently complex and uncertain, which must be addressed by models to
68 meaningfully inform researchers and stakeholders. By transformation we mean a fundamental
69 reorganisation of the way things are done to cope with drivers of change beyond the capacity of existing
70 systems to adapt to (21). Moreover, food systems are characterised by greater diversity compared to other
71 systems like energy, encompassing highly interconnected global value chains and diverse local and
72 indigenous food systems, with often atomistic stakeholders, such as small and large-scale farmers, firms of
73 different sizes in the food industry, specialised food stores and supermarket chains, NGOs, and consumers.
74 This complexity means that food system transformations are challenged by information asymmetry and
75 contested goals that need to be reflected in food system models. Transformations are also driven by
76 interlinked technological changes and political, cultural, and societal shifts. This creates winners and losers
77 which can provoke institutional and social lock-ins. Modelled transformation pathways might not
78 accurately reflect the resulting barriers which challenge their feasibility (22, 23). Moreover, the long-term,
79 multi-decadal nature of food system transformations, conditioned by the information asymmetries, makes
80 food system transformation a highly dynamic and deeply uncertain process. These uncertainties, often
81 falling under the categories of Knightian/Keynesian, deep, or severe uncertainty, challenge the inferences
82 drawn from models for long-term decision-making (24-27).

83 Food system models vary in their ability to address the complexity and uncertainty of transformative
84 change, depending on their modelling approach and structure, boundary conditions, scenario assumptions,
85 and output metrics. For example, while progress has been made in modelling social heterogeneity and
86 behavioural changes on the demand side, modelling dynamics in producers' behaviour remains challenging,
87 such as farmers' adoption to climate change (28, 29). Similarly, uncertainty of food system transformations
88 has been addressed by different scenario types and modelling approaches (30). Common approaches
89 include sensitivity analyses (31) or evaluating pre-specified scenarios (32). However, it is still uncommon to
90 capture broad system uncertainties with unknown probabilities (33) or to model uncertainties
91 endogenously within the assumptions used to build model structures, such as farmers' expectations of

92 changing agricultural policies or unpredictable droughts and how they adapt their practices accordingly (17,
93 34).

94 Models by nature focus on processes and result in metrics that are more easily simulated but that risk
95 under-representing harder-to-formalise aspects due to limited data availability, missing empirical
96 parameters, and methodological or computational challenges. This can provoke a disproportionate focus
97 on some aspects, leaving out important real-world challenges or resulting in oversimplification, jointly
98 creating cognitive biases in understanding food system transformations. These biases could make food
99 system stakeholders to develop an illusion of analytical certainty or cherry-pick specific models or model
100 results to support their own agenda.

101 Despite these concerns, models that sufficiently address complexity and uncertainty and can be effectively
102 embedded in social processes that support decision-making can offer valuable insights that result in
103 practical steps towards preferred future food systems. Given their potential role, it is imperative to identify
104 model limitations in representing food system transformations and explore opportunities to improve them.
105 Existing reviews have examined specific aspects of modelling such as their role in decision-making (35),
106 scenario analysis (30), and governance (16). However, the extent to which these models capture the
107 dynamics of transformative change in food systems remains underexplored. This leaves a gap in
108 understanding the strengths, weaknesses, and emerging developments in modelling practices for food
109 system transformations, which this paper aims to address.

110 Here we evaluate the extent to which current models capture food system transformations, highlight the
111 challenges they face, and explore evolving approaches that can empower food system stakeholders to
112 manage complexity in a dynamic and uncertain futures. While past studies have discussed the technical
113 details of these modelling capabilities, we focus here on how these capabilities work together to address
114 various aspects of transformation, and the resulting ability of different types of models to be embedded in
115 social processes capable of supporting decision-making.

116 Among various approaches to food system modelling, we start by evaluating 20 models that represent
117 different types of economic (partial and general equilibrium), integrated assessment, and coupled
118 modelling (Sections 2 and 3). These types, while not representing or being mutually exclusive of other
119 modelling approaches (e.g., process-based biophysical, multi-agent, econometrics), are widely recognised
120 as commonly-applied types of models for food system analysis. They integrate micro- and macro-economic
121 theory with social and natural system constraints, provide broad coverage of value chains (from production
122 to consumption), enable cross-sectoral analysis, and play a key role in scenario frameworks that link to
123 other research areas like climate and sustainability (16, 17). The evaluation of current models leads to
124 identification of four challenges and four improvement opportunities that could push the boundaries of the
125 current food system models, supported by case studies that we have conducted in recent years to illustrate
126 their implementation (Sections 4 and 5). We then summarise these findings and call for diversifying array of
127 models using different analytical approaches to better address complexity and uncertainty (Section 6). This
128 can help in paving the way for food system models' further contribution to decision-making under
129 uncertainty in high-impact international science-policy arenas as well as national and local decision-making.

130 2. METHOD

131 2.1. Selecting Models

132 Food system models in the context of this paper are computational tools used to simulate and analyse the
133 interactions within and between food and other human-natural systems, such as agriculture, land, health,
134 energy, and the broader economy. These models are designed to capture the complexities of food
135 production, distribution and consumption, as well as their economic, health, and environmental impacts.

136 There is a vast body of literature that explains how these models evolved and function in food and
137 agriculture (16, 17, 36) as well as in relation to food, land, and agriculture interactions with other systems
138 in an integrated sustainability context (37-39). Key elements typically included in these models are land-
139 use, crop and livestock production, trade, food demand, and costs of production. They integrate data from
140 various sources to quantitatively estimate the supply, demand, and price of different agricultural
141 commodities and to calculate their economic, health, and environmental impacts, using different
142 methodological approaches (36, 40). The models are used to develop projections and explore impacts of
143 changes in exogenous variables, or shocks, such as income and demography, policy, preferences or
144 technology, and can thus also inform decisions for transformation to more sustainable food systems.

145 To provide an overview of key features and capabilities, we selected an illustrative set of models. We
146 implemented a structured process similar to a systematic search with clear exclusion and inclusion criteria.
147 This approach was designed to specifically focus on the most commonly used (rather than all, as a
148 systematic review would have done) modelling framework and important published studies that used these
149 models in the last two decades. We selected models based on three general inclusion/exclusion criteria:

- 150 • *Food and agriculture focus:* We prioritised models with a focus on the food system, excluding
151 broader economic, energy, or climate mitigation models with only indirect links to food systems.
- 152 • *Commonly applied approaches:* We focused on frequently applied economic modelling approaches,
153 that is partial and general equilibrium, integrated assessment models, as well as their coupled
154 applications. We excluded approaches that, so far, have been less frequently applied to assess
155 global food system transformations, such as statistical analysis (41) or purely biophysical process-
156 based models (42, 43), or those considered niche or emerging, such as models of physical trade
157 flows (44), multi-objective optimisation (45, 46), machine learning (47), and agent-based models
158 (48). Some of these emerging approaches will be discussed later as opportunities in Section 4.
- 159 • *Relevance across geographical contexts:* We only included models with global or regional scope, as
160 they are more widely known, and produce insights relevant across various contexts and regions.
161 Several models at national and subnational scales are not explicitly covered in this section, but
162 some are briefly mentioned later in Section 4.

163 The model selection initially relied on published studies suggested by four key modelling review papers on
164 food system models in recent years (16, 30, 40, 49). This resulting list of models was then expanded with
165 additional studies through backward snowballing, in which a reference list is used to identify new sources,
166 and forward snowballing, in which additional sources are identified based on those cited by our initial list.
167 We further triangulated this list with food system studies using models in the context of the Agricultural
168 Model Intercomparison and Improvement Project (AgMIP) (36), and models listed by the Integrated
169 Assessment Modelling Consortium (IAMC). Some of these studies used the same model to address different
170 questions, others used different models with similar approach, boundary, and level of detail, and some
171 used multiple models differing more substantially for intercomparison.

172 This iterative process identified 20 food system models (Appendix A) used frequently in the literature,
173 across 150 published studies that provide sufficient technical and application information to enable their
174 assessment (Appendix B). These 20 models were categorised under partial equilibrium, general equilibrium,
175 and integrated assessment models, as well as the coupling of models from these three types that are
176 frequently used in the food system transformation context.

177 Commonly used partial equilibrium models include AgLINK-COSIMO (50), CAPRI (51), GLOBIOM (52),
178 IMPACT (53), MAgPIE (54), and SIMPLE-G (55). These are economic models specifically developed to
179 examine food, agriculture, and land use change (56). The second type includes general equilibrium models,
180 which are also economic models for simulating economy-wide impacts of policies and shocks, such as AIM
181 (57), CGEBox (58), DART-BIO (59), GTAP (60), GTEM (61), MAGNET (62), and MIRAGRODEP (63). A third type

182 includes standalone integrated assessment models, which are simplified representations of physical and
183 social systems, focusing on the interaction between economy, society, and the environment, such as GCAM
184 (64) and IMAGE (65). These primary types serve as umbrella terms that encompass a variety of models in
185 terms of solution method (simulation vs. optimisation), incorporation of climate impacts (endogenous vs.
186 exogenous), spatial and temporal dimensions, interventions considered (supply vs. demand), and number
187 of food commodities included (38). We also considered the coupling of models from these types as
188 different types of models mentioned above can be coupled to form integrated assessment models, for
189 example, Globe-IMPACT (66), LandSyMM (67), MAGNET-IMAGE (68), MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM (69), and
190 REMIND-MagPIE (70). A full list of these models, their full names, description, and sources are provided in
191 Appendix A.

192 The list of selected models is not exhaustive nor intended to show the entire literature. For example,
193 process-based (43), statistical (71), and multi-agent (29) models are not included in this section. There were
194 also other models under the selected types of economic (partial and general equilibrium), integrated
195 assessment, and coupled modelling which we did not study. Rather, the purpose of the paper is to select
196 and evaluate in detail a few exemplary, commonly used models for food system analysis, with a view to
197 assessing whether this institutionalised dependence remains warranted as new approaches evolve. Readers
198 can refer to Teeuwen *et al.* (16) for a more systematic model typology and this paper's Appendix C where
199 we provided a list of some of these other models for interested readers.

200 **2.2. Evaluating Model Capabilities**

201 We evaluated the extent to which selected models can address three key dimensions of food system
202 transformations, each of which have multiple sub-dimensions (italicised here): sustainability outcomes,
203 drivers of change, and value chains. These dimensions reflect the need to understand transformation as
204 responses to systemic drivers of change that are beyond the capacity of current food systems to adapt, and
205 the need to redirect food system activities toward preferred outcomes across multiple spatial and temporal
206 scales (5, 21, 72). These outcomes can include *food security and nutrition, social welfare, economic*
207 *prosperity, and environmental sustainability*. Various drivers of change flow through entire value chains,
208 from *production*, to *distribution, processing, consumption, and waste*. Key drivers can be *innovative*
209 *interventions* (e.g., technology and practice change, novel proteins for food) (73), *techno-economic drivers*
210 (e.g., innovation, economies of scale, maturation of technologies), *biophysical* drivers (e.g., land-use
211 change, climate change impacts), *socio-economic* drivers (e.g., demographical change, taxes, subsidies,
212 regulation), and *political-institutional drivers* (e.g., vested interests and coalitions of powerful actors) (23).
213 These dimensions together represent the multifaceted nature of food system transformation which we
214 used to evaluate the selected models (see Table D1 in Appendix D for dimension definitions).

215 Two primary co-authors initially analysed published studies (i.e., papers in Appendix B) related to the
216 selected models and assigned one of four levels of inclusion for each dimension assessed, based on the
217 authors' interpretation. These levels align with a framework previously applied by the IPCC for the
218 qualitative assessment of modelling frameworks in the context of climate change mitigation (74, 75):

- 219 • *Endogenous-explicit*: The dimension is directly simulated within the model through an explicit
220 representation.
- 221 • *Endogenous-implicit*: The dimension is directly simulated within the model using a proxy (e.g.,
222 average food affordability estimated through changing food prices).
- 223 • *Exogenous-explicit*: The dimension is modelled as an external driver rather than simulated, but is
224 explicitly represented.

- 225 • *Exogenous-implicit*: The dimension is modelled as an external driver rather than simulated and is
226 indirectly represented through a proxy (e.g., a reduction in food demand as a proxy for reducing
227 food loss and waste).

228 We did not consider a dimension to be endogenous when it was simulated through loosely coupled models,
229 for instance a health model that uses the outputs a food system model as inputs, but we acknowledged
230 these relevant applications in Appendix Table D2. In several cases, models can simulate a dimension both
231 endogenously and exogenously, for instance carbon price within the agrifood and climate policy dimension.
232 In such situations, we classified the dimension as endogenous.

233 For any dimension not included in a model or for which insufficient information was available, the “not
234 included or insufficient information” classification was applied. In our study, the assignment of these levels
235 was grounded in how the selected models were used in the context of the published studies analysed (i.e.,
236 papers in Appendix B), rather than their broader potential capabilities or future development. The co-
237 authors provided justifications for the assigned levels, referencing relevant studies as evidence (see Table
238 D2 in Appendix D for detailed evaluations). To minimise bias in the evaluation, all co-authors reviewed the
239 assigned levels and flagged those parts that could be assessed differently, for further deliberation and
240 modification. We acknowledge that these models are continuously evolving, with several dimensions
241 potentially under development or already implemented but not yet published. We also recognise that
242 coupled models have the potential to cover a greater scope of dimensions of the food system at once
243 compared to individual models.

244 **2.3. Identifying challenges and opportunities**

245 The evaluation of selected models highlighted key limitations and gaps in their representation of food
246 system transformation, which varied across models depending on their levels of complexity and modelling
247 capabilities. We focused on gaps and those aspects that were underdeveloped, to identify and discuss
248 critical challenges. To address these challenges, we drew on best practices and alternative approaches
249 introduced in the broader literature or used in modelling case studies by co-authors in recent years, beyond
250 standard general and partial equilibrium, integrated assessment, and coupled modelling, to suggest
251 potential opportunities and areas for future improvement. These included alternative approaches from
252 diverse disciplines, such as agent-based modelling, participatory systems modelling, and statistical
253 surrogate modelling. When discussing these alternative approaches as opportunities, we emphasised their
254 potential applications and critically examined their constraints, grounding in both published critiques and
255 the co-authors’ previous experiences. This balanced perspective ensures that these approaches are not
256 introduced as tools with specific strengths and constraints.

257 **3. STATE OF THE ART**

258 Food system models evaluated vary in their design, each having different boundaries and details, resulting
259 in different levels of model complexities and diverse modelling capabilities. Recognising these distinctions,
260 this overview focuses on their broader strengths and limitations across sustainability outcomes, drivers of
261 change, and value chains (Table 1), providing a foundation through which we will explore the challenges
262 and opportunities in the rest of the paper.

263 In representing diverse drivers of change (Table 1), most models evaluated account for a broad range of
264 exogenous drivers regarding technology and policies, including drivers of productivity improvement and
265 food waste reduction (76). However, the real-world effectiveness of these drivers depends heavily on
266 behavioural responses to them, such as the adoption and diffusion of these technological innovations (77)
267 and the implementation of adequate policy support. These socio-political-institutional drivers are broadly

268 absent or under-represented in most of the models evaluated. Partial and general equilibrium models, for
269 instance, often rely on assumptions of perfect markets and economically optimal decision-making. While
270 some studies have attempted to integrate cultural factors into the parameterisation of food system models
271 (78), a more comprehensive and general representation of culture as driver of transformation is missing.
272 Among the models reviewed, partial equilibrium models are also more limited than other multi-sectoral
273 (general equilibrium and integrated assessment) models in their ability to evaluate feedbacks between food
274 system transformation and other sectors of the economy. Together these limit the capability of most
275 models evaluated for endogenously representing socio-political drivers and human feedback interactions,
276 which can significantly influence food demand and play a critical role in the sustainability transformation of
277 food systems through change in lifestyle and diet. As a result, these are often represented in scenarios
278 quantified as exogenous assumptions like the shared socioeconomic pathways. We will further explain
279 these challenges around the modelling of socio-political drivers and human feedbacks in Section 4.1.

280 In terms of sustainability outcomes (Table 1), most models evaluated have predominantly focused on
281 sustainability outcomes related to production, such as greenhouse gas emissions, land use, and economic
282 output. This emphasis is largely driven by modelling demand and policy priorities, particularly in areas
283 where there has been more demand for robust quantification, such as emission accounting and agricultural
284 productivity assessments. Since important environmental impacts originate at the production stage, there
285 has been greater investment in models designed to capture these effects, reinforcing perhaps a production-
286 centric bias. However, this bias has led to underrepresentation of the broader food system in these models,
287 particularly post-production processes such as food distribution, processing, retail, and heterogeneity of
288 consumers. As a result, critical sustainability dimensions such as dietary health impacts and nutrition are
289 often underrepresented. While some models have expanded to incorporate these elements, they remain
290 fragmented and secondary to production-oriented analyses. Among the models reviewed, general
291 equilibrium models are built to model economies rather than food systems, which means they include
292 aggregated representations of agricultural production and consequently aggregated projections of
293 sustainability outcomes. Recent developments in the databases used by some general equilibrium models
294 have led to an improved, more nuanced representation of land use (79), nutrient accounting (80), irrigation
295 water use (81), trade (82), and agri-food commodities (83). These advancements now enable general
296 equilibrium models to offer more detailed environmental and health impacts of the food system. However,
297 all models reviewed are constrained by a certain level of spatial aggregation which highlights the trade-offs
298 between model applicability across different regions of the world and the limited representation of local
299 environmental, socio-economic, and cultural characteristics of food systems. Moreover, while these models
300 can explore equity, or lack thereof, in food system transformation across broad world regions (84), they are
301 often more constrained in their ability to assess sub-national and household-level variations in food
302 affordability and undernourishment. This limits their ability to analyse social heterogeneity and multi-scale
303 processes. We will further unpack this challenge in Section 4.2.

304 Value chains play a crucial role in shaping food system dynamics. Most of the evaluated models are
305 dynamic, incorporating supply and demand over time, and can analyse competing demands for food, feed,
306 fibre, and bioenergy. They also tend to focus heavily on international trade and supply-demand balance.
307 Among models evaluated, general equilibrium models offer a more global value-chain perspective by
308 capturing some of the key economy-wide impacts of food system changes (85). While these models
309 simulate trade dynamics and interconnected agricultural markets, they are often limited in representing
310 the extent to which countries are sensitive to both domestic and external demand fluctuations. This
311 includes their ability to assess supply chain resilience in the face of acute shocks, such as extreme weather
312 events, which is particularly critical for economies reliant on agri-food imports to meet demand or on
313 exports as a key revenue source. Current models also often work under the assumption that risks are
314 predictable and can be addressed by assigning probabilities to clearly defined events. This approach has
315 contributed to a reliance on Bernoullian utility theory (i.e., the idea that people consider both the possible

316 gains and losses of an action, as well as the utility they'll receive from it (86)). While useful in many
 317 contexts, such assumption can limit the ability to fully account for the complexities and uncertainties
 318 inherent in dynamic and evolving food systems. Together, these limit the extent to which uncertainty
 319 across value chains can be explored with these models (see further discussion in Section 4.3).
 320 Underrepresenting uncertainties can increase reliance on pre-specified scenario assumptions.

321 While coupled models provide broader coverage of food system transformation dimensions, they tend to
 322 be less flexible or include less details than individual models. Achieving consistency between models often
 323 requires additional model development efforts, as well as iterative simulations to achieve satisfactory
 324 convergence in results (e.g., REMIND-MAgPIE (70)). Alternatively, some coupling frameworks rely on
 325 emulator models, which may simplify underlying dynamics of the system (e.g., MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM (69)).
 326 These limitations ultimately constrain the ability of such models to effectively support decision-making in
 327 rapidly evolving policy and market landscapes (see further discussion in Section 4.4).

328 The evaluation of food system models across sustainability outcomes, drivers of change, and value chains
 329 highlighted key challenges related to both complexity and uncertainty. These included limited
 330 representation of socio-political drivers, human-nature feedbacks, social heterogeneity, and multi-scale
 331 processes (complexity-related issues) as well as difficulties in addressing uncertainty and adapting to
 332 evolving stakeholder needs in dynamic contexts (uncertainty-related issues). Addressing these challenges
 333 requires innovative approaches to food system modelling. We unpack and further discuss these challenges
 334 as well as innovative approaches that currently exist to address them in the next section.

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 339 **Table 1.** Overview of the ability of each model to represent various dimensions at different levels of inclusion:
 340 explicitly or implicitly, endogenously or exogenously. Levels of inclusion were assigned by co-authors based on a
 341 review of selected published studies for these models. Appendices A and B provide the detailed and extended list of
 342 selected food system modelling studies reviewed for this evaluation. Tables D1 and D2 in Appendix D provide
 343 definition of the dimensions and justification/references in support of the assessment provided in each cell,
 344 respectively. PE is partial equilibrium, GE is general equilibrium, and IAM is integrated assessment model. This table is
 345 for illustrative purposes to identify challenges and does not provide a comprehensive review of all modelling work in
 346 the literature.

Dimensions			PE						CGE						IAM		Coupled models						
			AgLINK-COSIMO	CAPRI	GLOBIOM	IMPACT	MAgPIE	SIMPLE-G	AIM	CGEBox	DART-BIO	GTAP	GTEM	MAGNET	MIRAGRODEP	GCAM	IMAGE	GLOBE-IMPACT	LandSyMM	IMAGE-MAGNET	MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM	REMIND-MAgPIE	
Sustainability outcomes	Food security and nutrition	Health impacts of diets	E	E	E	A	A	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	A	E	E	E	E	A
		Average food affordability	A	C	C	C	C	C	A	C	C	A	E	A	A	C	E	A	A	A	A	A	A
		Undernourishment	A	E	A	A	A	E	A	E	C	A	E	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
	Social welfare	Employment	E	E	E	E	A	E	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	B	E	A	E	A	A	A	A
		Economic prosperity	Trade	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	E	A	A	A	A	A
	Economic return		A	A	A	A	C	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	E	A	E	A	A	A	A
	Environmental sustainability	Emissions	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
		Biodiversity loss	E	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	A	E	E	E	E	E	A	E	A	A	A	A	A
		Water resource use	E	A	A	A	A	A	E	A	E	A	E	E	E	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
		Biogeochemical flows	A	A	A	A	A	A	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A

Drivers of change	Interventions	Technology/practice (AFOLU measures)	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	E	E	A	E	A	E	A	B	A	E	A	A	A		
	Socio-economic drivers	Demographics	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	
		GDP	B	B	B	B	B	B	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	B	A	B	A	A	A
		Food demand	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	B	A	A	A	A	A
		Agrifood and climate policies	B	A	B	B	B	B	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	B	A	A	A	A	A
	Biophysical drivers	Land-use change	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	E	E	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
		Bioenergy supply	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	B	A	A	A	E	A	A	A	A	A	A	B	A	A	A	A
		Chronic climate change impacts	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	E	B	B	B	E	B	B	B	A	A	A	A	A
		Acute shocks	B	E	E	B	E	E	B	E	E	E	B	E	B	B	B	E	B	E	B	E	E	E	E
	Techno-economic drivers	Maturation of technology/innovation	B	B	B	B	B	B	C	E	E	C	C	C	E	C	C	B	C	C	B	B	B	B	
Political-institutional drivers	Vested interests and coalitions	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E		
Value chains	Production	Primary production	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	
		Aquaculture and fisheries commodities	A	A	D	E	E	E	E	A	A	A	A	E	A	A	E	E	E	E	A	D	E	E	E
	Distribution	Domestic transport and storage	E	C	E	E	A	B	E	D	D	D	D	D	D	D	A	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	
	Processing	Processed food commodities	A	A	A	A	E	C	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	E	E	A	E	A	A	A	A	
	Consumption	Demand shift	B	B	B	B	B	E	B	B	B	B	B	E	B	B	B	E	B	B	B	B	B	B	
		Novel food and feed	E	B	B	E	B	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	A	E	E	E	E	E	A	B	B	B	
	Waste	Food loss and waste	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	E	B	E	B	B	D	E	B	D	B	B	B	

347 4. CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

348 4.1. Socio-Political Drivers and Human-Nature Feedbacks

349 Globally, food systems have been driven over decades mostly by technological advancements and assessed
350 according to economic goals such as the value of production and exports. Technology has spread through
351 global and national market integration, partially fostered by policy reforms. These processes are relatively
352 well represented in existing (mostly partial and general equilibrium) economic food system models, which
353 have been in common use for several decades. They have therefore dominated the understanding of food
354 system change, emphasising market mechanisms, supply-chain interactions, and more recently
355 biogeochemical processes impacting environmental footprints. Key socio-political drivers, such as changes
356 in consumer preferences and policies including taxes, subsidies and regulation, are mainly exogenous to
357 these models and addressed by scenario analysis. However, these drivers themselves depend on the food
358 system, and their feedback interactions can be also endogenously represented in models, for instance, how
359 food system impacts on the environment, animal welfare, import dependency, and nutrition and public
360 health can shift preferences and drive policy change. Equally, models cannot, or only very partially, capture
361 impacts on broader human health, well-being, equity, and social justice (87, 88). These omissions have led
362 to a preference for evaluating technology and policy options with clearly defined market impacts, a focus
363 on economic outcomes, and selected environmental impacts that directly threaten those economic
364 outcomes. It has also resulted in the underrepresentation of Indigenous food systems and knowledge from
365 these models (e.g., traditional food crop cultivation, indigenous knowledge of food processing and
366 preservation), overlooking their critical contributions to sustainable and resilient food practices (89), as well
367 as their role in addressing equity and social justice in food systems (90).

368 For example, model-based scenarios have been crucial in establishing the GHG mitigation potential of
369 dietary changes and their impacts on land-use, fertiliser consumption, and ecological restoration (91-95).
370 Yet, analysis often draws on stylised (and sometimes unlikely) assumptions such as a homogenous global
371 shift to flexitarian or Mediterranean diets, largely overlooking the complex cultural, social, and lifestyle
372 factors influencing dietary behaviour (96, 97). They also often base their projections on modern

373 contemporary diets, underrepresenting the traditional plant-based dietary diversity of Indigenous
374 communities, which has been recognised for its significant health and nutritional benefits (98). While
375 simplified assumptions are sometimes unavoidable for practical data and modelling requirements, they run
376 the risk of undermining the plausibility and feasibility of policy recommendations (99, 100).

377 Current approaches to economic modelling rarely consider human risk behaviours adequately in the way
378 they explicitly model decision-making. Empirical studies have repeatedly shown that human behaviour is
379 more complex and diverse (101), constrained by what we can practically know at any one time, and
380 deviates significantly from, for instance, expected utility theory (102, 103). Some modelling efforts have
381 explored the effects of these deviations, such as incorporating degrowth principles and equitable wealth
382 distribution in Bodirsky *et al.* (71). These adjustments however are typically introduced exogenously as
383 scenarios rather than being integrated directly into decision makers' objective functions. Understanding
384 human feedback is important for identifying promising demand-side levers for accelerating food system
385 transformation, and policy levers to reinforce dynamics such as social contagion feedback that promote the
386 spread of new behaviours and can move systems rapidly into a new state (104, 105).

387 Incorporating these social and political dynamics into integrated food system models requires more specific
388 models that can sufficiently represent socio-political dynamics without becoming overly complex or all-
389 encompassing, for example modelling transformation via coupling with other models. Modelling
390 approaches, such as agent-based and system dynamics models among others (e.g., models of social
391 innovation diffusion (106)), can offer valuable tools for integrating socio-political factors. Agent-based
392 models can simulate diverse behaviours and decision-making across actors and scales (e.g., alternative
393 land management strategies (35)), while system dynamics model aggregate interactions within human-
394 natural systems (e.g., interactions between climate health risk perception and dietary shifts in Model
395 Snapshot 1 (107)). That said, it is important to also recognise that some of these models may have
396 challenges when scaling up to national and global levels, which could limit their practical applicability. For
397 example, agent-based models can face computational constraints when applied to a large population while
398 system dynamics models, due to their high level of aggregation, may oversimplify sectoral heterogeneities
399 when operating at broader scales. While these alternative modelling approaches can offer valuable insights
400 into potential food system processes and dynamics, their integration into food system analysis also requires
401 careful consideration. Ensuring empirical grounding and addressing scalability issues are critical steps to
402 enhance their relevance and reliability. Attention is also needed to ensure models are sufficiently
403 transparent to provide confidence in their result to decision makers.

404 Integrating insights from diverse disciplines and practice into food system models can also enhance models'
405 relevance to socio-political and human factors. For example, the role of policy beyond taxes and subsidies
406 in shaping the policy context is often underrepresented in food system models. Empirical studies related to
407 policy, such as Wuepper *et al.* (108), are emerging that can inform food system models, improving their
408 relevance and accuracy in guiding policy and decision-making. In another example, behavioural economics
409 offers insights into how farmers deviate from the standard rationality assumptions in land management
410 (109). Psychology also offers insights into reciprocal interactions between personal and social drivers in
411 dietary shifts (110), while political economy offers insights into how power relations shape stakeholder
412 actions (111). Incorporating diverse ways of knowing (i.e., respectfully, collaboratively, ethically, and
413 reciprocally) can also enhance our understanding of local ecosystems and better integrate Indigenous
414 Peoples' knowledge systems, which are invaluable for promoting environmental sustainability (112).
415 Empirical research on sustainability transitions and transformations has also generated insights and
416 frameworks for understanding the social and political mechanisms driving transformative change including
417 socio-political struggles between emerging innovation and established systems (113). Recent research has
418 begun exploring opportunities to combine these more qualitative insights with quantitative modelling, such
419 as in modelling lifestyle changes (107), circular economy options (114), and regenerative agriculture
420 adoption (115).

Model Snapshot 1. Modelling human-earth system feedbacks to explore dietary shifts

Felix is a globally aggregated, feedback-rich system dynamics model of climate, economy, environment, and society. It represents the main biophysical and socioeconomic mechanisms of global environmental and economic change within and between economy, energy, carbon cycle, climate, biodiversity, water, population, and land use systems (116, 117). The main purpose of the model is to support what-if analyses of cross-sectoral feedback, with less focus on techno-economic detail at a high-resolution level. The model has been used in a variety of cases, such as assessing the socioeconomic and environmental impacts of improving Earth observations (118), analysing alternative livestock feed sources as well as atmospheric and terrestrial carbon cycle impacts of global emission pathways (119), investigating sustainable development pathways based on an endogenous analysis of SDG synergies and trade-offs (120), and analysing the trade-offs between environmental pressures and poverty (121).

Felix includes several cross-sectoral feedback interactions between biophysical and socioeconomic systems, such as the climate impacts of energy and land use emissions, the environmental impacts of water and fertiliser use, and the impacts of climate damage on economic growth, crop yields, and human mortality. Besides those, Eker *et al.* (107) extended the Felix model to include behavioural factors, and the dietary shift dynamics resulting from the interaction of behavioural, social and environmental drivers.

Figure 1 depicts the two main feedback mechanisms in this extension. First, the social transmission loop describes how individuals change their intentions and eventual behaviour, i.e., by shifting to a vegetarian diet, according to social norms. The visibility of the new behaviour in the society influences the individual intentions in return. Second, an increase in perceived climate and health risks associated with red meat consumption stimulates further behaviour change towards low-carbon diets, and these population dynamics drive the food demand, GHG emissions and climate events through the existing modules of the Felix model. Considering the uncertainties in quantification of this global model of human behaviour, Eker *et al.* (107) used it as a heuristic platform to run computational uncertainty analyses and reached two key conclusions: First, for harnessing the positive impacts of dietary changes on land use, carbon emissions and fertiliser consumption, a moderate consumption of animal products by a large population fraction is more important than a small population fraction abandoning animal products completely. Second, the social norm effects, especially among young adults, is the main factor accelerating widespread dietary shifts.

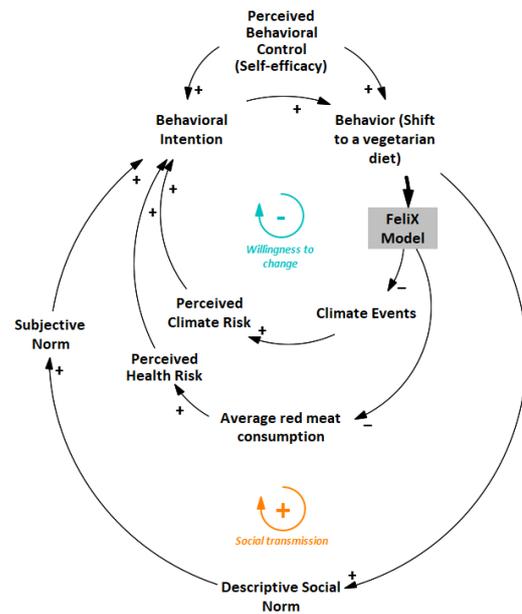


Figure 1. Main feedback mechanisms governing dietary shifts in the Felix model

421 4.2. Social Heterogeneity and Multi-Scale Processes

422 Food systems span diverse socio-economic-ecological contexts, from primary production to industrial food
 423 manufacturing, and to nutrition and health via food distribution and retailing. Each of these is shaped by
 424 unique biophysical, socio-economic, and institutional factors (122). Given that effective transformations are
 425 multi-scale, efforts to model food system transformation should be able to incorporate spatial scales,
 426 diverse agents, and context-specific decision-making.

427 Among the models evaluated in Section 3, the availability of harmonised global statistics of countries (e.g.,
 428 from FAOSTAT since 1949) underpins efforts to enhance a diversified representation of primary agriculture
 429 in partial equilibrium models like GLOBIOM, CAPRI, and IMPACT. Some models also incorporate sub-
 430 national data to better capture bio-physical factors (e.g., climate, soil, slope) that influence agricultural

431 production and land use. For instance, some general equilibrium models use GTAP's Agro-Ecological Zones
432 to disaggregate national land-use into global zones, while others, like CAPRI and CGEBox, rely on sub-
433 national statistics for finer resolution. Gridded land-use data from satellite products, used in models like
434 MAgPIE and GLOBIOM, have further enhanced spatial detail. To improve environmental impact
435 representation, economic models have been also linked to bio-physical models operating at fine grid levels
436 (123), with downscaling techniques like cellular automaton (124). Despite these efforts, representing sub-
437 national technological and consumption differences remains challenging. GTAP's AEZ approach, for
438 example, assumes uniform cost structures across zones within a country, while GLOBIOM and some other
439 models often assume uniform yield gaps between potential and observed yields at national level.

440 Beyond spatial disaggregation, another challenge in economic models for food systems is representing
441 agent heterogeneity and localised decision-making. Production, intermediate, and final household demand
442 of agricultural products are mostly represented by aggregated agents in food system models, such as by
443 one representative firm for each sector and one representative household in each model region in most
444 global general equilibrium models. In order to avoid aggregation bias, in addition to using a higher spatial
445 resolution, partial equilibrium models have sometimes partially dis-aggregated production decisions to
446 more detailed representative farms by farm size and specialisation (125-127), for instance, to depict the
447 impact of differentiated policy support schemes. In another example, while partial equilibrium models do
448 not capture labour markets, general equilibrium models typically show limited dis-aggregation (for
449 instance, gender differentiation is missing) and partly take simplified assumptions, such as full mobility, no
450 wage rigidities, and other market imperfections.

451 These simplifications are sometimes unavoidable and are partly due to limited high-resolution socio-
452 economic data, which makes it challenging to incorporate nuanced assumptions about the context, without
453 introducing significant uncertainties. Sub-national (e.g., consumption) data is also often scarce, as
454 harmonised global household surveys with regional, demographic, or income-based differentiation are
455 rarely available. Consequently, while higher spatial resolution improves the representation of land-use
456 changes and environmental impacts, it offers limited progress in capturing sub-national agricultural
457 production systems or consumption patterns.

458 A multiscale modelling approach could address some of these limitations. For example, bio-economic farm
459 models offer a more detailed representation of agricultural technologies compared to some existing food
460 system models (128), but they often lack the ability to incorporate market feedback, which limits their
461 scope. Recent advancements in surrogate modelling (129) present promising opportunities for coupling and
462 integrating these models with other frameworks like agent-based models to better capture local and
463 regional interactions among farms, such as the adoption and diffusion of new technologies (130). That said,
464 the global application of these approaches is constrained by the limited availability of farm structure data
465 and related statistics needed to inform and calibrate such models. Model coupling, particularly with global
466 economic models, could allow spatially explicit models to focus on local contexts while global models
467 capture broader dynamics, such as trade. For example, Johnson *et al.* (131) demonstrated the integration
468 of local to global models to analyse economy-ecosystem interlinkages; an approach that could enhance
469 food system transformation by capturing local diversity while maintaining coherence with global processes.

470 Another approach involves calibrating a global model with national statistics, policies and stakeholder
471 inputs, producing nationally specific yet globally consistent outcomes. Examples of such initiatives to
472 address global questions by tailoring models include the FABLE Scenathon (i.e., Scenario-Marathon) (132)
473 and country-level calibrations of current global models such as GLOBIOM-China (133), GLOBIOM-Brazil
474 (134), MAgPIE-China (135), and GCAM-USA (136) models.

475 Integrating local and indigenous knowledge through participatory and co-creation methods can help bridge
476 the gap between generalised scientific models and diverse regional realities (137, 138). For example, at the
477 sub-national level, participatory modelling approaches, such as those by Davis *et al.* (139) in South Africa,

478 can reveal diverse stakeholder perspectives and local priorities, informing a more nuanced understanding
 479 of food system transformations. Participatory process can also capture regionally significant co-benefits
 480 and trade-offs. For instance, group model-building in Pakistan (140) and participatory systems modelling in
 481 Australia (1) identified multi-objective solutions to address priorities related to agricultural production, soil
 482 salinity, and water management (see Model Snapshot 2). Approaches like serious games, foresight, and
 483 scenario planning can also complement participatory modelling, helping actors envision and implement
 484 sustainable food systems within their local and regional context (141-143). Furthermore, incorporating
 485 Indigenous and First Nations knowledge into these participatory methods can highlight traditional
 486 practices, cultural values, and deep connections to the land, enabling more equitable and context-specific
 487 food system transformations (144). While these approaches show a great promise to better represent
 488 social heterogeneity and multi-scale processes, their successful implementation could be challenging and
 489 requires careful coordination, collaboration, and support to build the capacity to co-design and manage
 490 models and their interactions.
 491

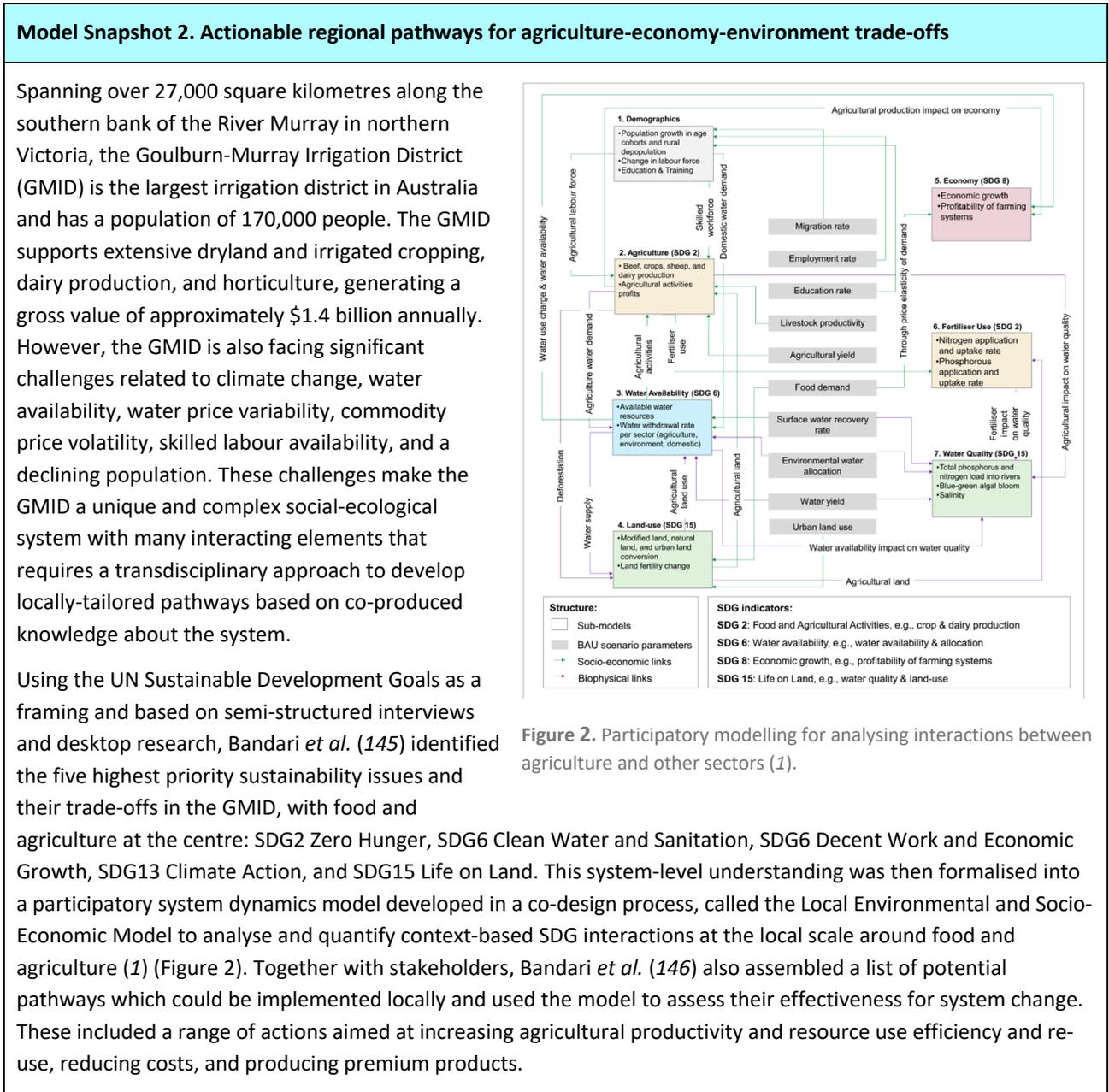


Figure 2. Participatory modelling for analysing interactions between agriculture and other sectors (1).

493 **4.3. Unpredictability and Knowledge Uncertainty**

494 Food system transformations are ongoing and unpredictable processes, shaped by diverse forces such as
495 technological advancements that reshape agricultural practices and changing consumer and political
496 preferences that can influence patterns of food consumption and waste. These changes highlight the
497 complex dynamics of agri-food systems, where outcomes are often deeply uncertain, possibly presenting
498 both opportunities and challenges. Under these conditions of uncertainty, the role of models shifts from
499 being simply computational tools that provide answers to decision-makers, to models being seen as a
500 thinking aid to navigate complex and uncertain environments and one of many factors influencing the
501 heuristics and practice of decision-making (147).

502 There are times that risk-based, statistical, and probabilistic approaches are appropriate to address well-
503 understood (i.e., known knowns) aspects of the current food system such as understanding the nutritional
504 benefits of diverse diets and the risks of over-reliance on processed foods (148). However, even in areas
505 that appear to be well-understood, unexpected possibilities can underline risk-based, probabilistic
506 assessments. Such deep uncertainties can manifest in ways that cannot be characterised probabilistically or
507 be assigned a likelihood of occurrence (149). These uncertainties are often epistemological, stemming from
508 inadequate theoretical frameworks, vague boundaries defining food systems, or differing social values in
509 measuring sustainability (i.e., known unknowns).

510 With probabilistic frameworks ill-equipped to handle deep uncertainty, some food system modelling
511 studies have adopted scenario-based approaches. While powerful and practical, these approaches are
512 often constrained by computational limits, restricting these studies to a small number of scenarios typically
513 based on shared socioeconomic pathways. For instance, emissions-neutral food systems were modelled
514 using five scenarios in MAgPIE (71) and four in IMAGE (150). Although scenarios are valuable tools,
515 especially when developed through participatory processes that incorporate the shared visions and
516 priorities of diverse stakeholders, they can limit the full range of variability in sustainability impacts
517 observed across other studies (151-153). In essence, an overly narrow focus on predefined assumptions
518 about future possibilities may restrict the scope for a broader and more robust exploration of
519 transformation pathways. Another consequence of this is that while models are often promoted for their
520 ability to support what-if scenarios analysis of key policy choices, there is a risk that this use could
521 inadvertently sideline broader discussions about relevant scenarios, particularly in contexts where
522 scenarios are designed in more top-down or less participatory ways (154). Encouraging a more open and
523 inclusive dialogue around these models and their scenarios could help ensure that their insights are used
524 without prematurely closing off debate.

525 There are also other approaches that can improve the robustness of modelling results to some forms of
526 deep uncertainty. Among them to improve robustness is the systematic exploration of uncertainty space
527 through large scenario ensembles (155). Although such ensembles may not be a representative of full
528 system variability, they can still represent a more diverse assumptions about boundary conditions,
529 indicators, and model structures and parameters, enabling a more comprehensive analysis of future
530 possibilities (156). One way to operationalise ensemble approaches is through multi-model assessments,
531 such as in AgMIP (157), which integrates projections from various models to characterise uncertainty while
532 addressing inconsistencies in data and assumptions (7, 158, 159). While effective, implementing scenario
533 ensembles necessitates addressing two key challenges: the computational burden of running ensemble
534 simulations across multiple models and the complexity of synthesising, interpreting, and communicating
535 scenario results, as we elaborate in the following.

536 Running scenario ensembles can be computationally expensive, with a single model run ranging from
537 minutes to days, depending on the model type, software implementation, and available computational
538 resources. To address this computational burden, various approaches rooted in surrogate modelling have

539 been developed (160). Surrogate models provide simplified, computationally efficient alternatives to
540 complex, resource-intensive models. These models, often based on statistical methods or machine
541 learning, emulate the behaviour of more complex systems, enabling a more efficient exploration of
542 uncertainty across various model inputs (see Model Snapshot 3). Surrogate modelling has been widely
543 applied in uncertainty assessments across domains such as food demand, food system change, land-use
544 sustainability, and soil carbon sequestration (49, 156, 161-163).

545 Interpreting and synthesising the extensive modelling results from scenario ensembles is challenging, as the
546 generated scenarios may not fully or evenly capture the uncertainty space, unlike traditional probabilistic
547 approaches to uncertainty assessment. Moreover, reconciling differences between independently
548 developed models, while essential for exploring model structural and dataset uncertainties, adds further
549 complexity to the integration process (36, 164). This complexity is amplified when communicating results to
550 model users and decision-makers. Advanced visualisation techniques and data-mining methods like
551 clustering can help simplify interpretation, making results more practical for users (165).

552 Beyond these forms of uncertainties, there are unpredictable and unforeseen challenges or opportunities
553 that could arise during food system transformation and represent events or developments that are entirely
554 outside current expectations or planning frameworks (e.g., impact of pandemic or geopolitical conflict on
555 supply chain) and are unmeasurable through modelling (e.g., the politics of risk and uncertainty around
556 genetically modified crops) (166). Navigating such uncertainties demands more adaptive and pluralistic
557 approaches that involve continuously assessing and monitoring changes as they evolve and prioritising
558 flexibility, experimentation, and learning over relying on the prevailing assumption that can engineer
559 pathways to a desired future. While there are analytical frameworks, such as robust decision-making and
560 adaptive policy pathways, that can be used to derive more practical decision insights under such
561 uncertainties (25, 167), effectively addressing these uncertainties ultimately demands a fundamental
562 rethinking of policies, institutions, and practices. This shift involves prioritising incremental learning and
563 adaptation in response to evolving, uncertain environments (i.e., the concept of 'muddling through') (168,
564 169).

565

Model Snapshot 3. A global food system transformation within environmental limits

By pooling together inputs and outputs from 63 diverse food system modelling studies and their underlying scenarios, Hadjikakou *et al.* (156) used surrogate modelling to carry out a quantitative synthesis of the global food system literature. This was aimed at assessing the individual and combined effect size of key interventions in terms of mitigating the risk of exceeding global environmental limits (170), considering a comprehensive range of key methodological assumptions made in other models.

Hadjikakou *et al.* (156) first assembled a comprehensive database of environmental impact estimates against 8 key environmental indicators covering land-system change, freshwater use, climate change, and biogeochemical flows, impacted by the global food system based on a systematic review of 63 global food system scenario modelling studies. Second, they identified 10 major demand- and supply- side interventions and extracted relevant data to create a set of harmonised quantitative input variables (e.g., crop yields, feed efficiency, dietary composition) to parameterise these interventions. A set of statistical models were then developed by using the compiled data to fit a linear mixed-effects meta-regression model for each environmental indicator using the harmonised intervention variables as predictors and environmental impacts as dependent variables. Using the statistical models, they simulated all plausible intervention combinations considering four representative ambition levels of

implementation to yield mean estimates and prediction intervals for each environmental indicator in 2050. Finally, Hadjikakou *et al.* (156) used probabilistic risk assessment (171) to calculate the risk of exceeding environmental limits associated with each intervention level combination using the statistical models (Figure 3).

While the resulting statistical models assume a linear response to the various scenarios drivers and cannot explicitly incorporate the complex dynamics of process-based models, their significant advantage is that they can run at a fraction of the time compared to more computationally intensive models typically used in food system studies. This allows many thousands or millions of scenarios encompassing a much more complete range of possible futures.

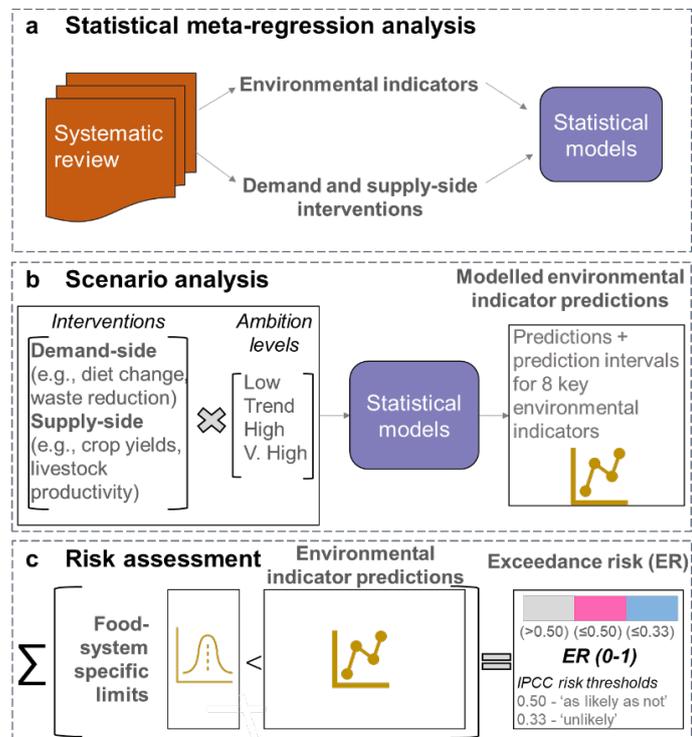


Figure 3. Overview the meta-analysis process.

566 4.4. Evolving Needs and Scenarios

567 The increase in the number of new scenarios, novel technology and policy options, and emerging
 568 environmental and societal indicators to be measured and explored quantitatively creates a significant
 569 challenge for modelling frameworks to remain responsive to these evolving needs of food system
 570 transformation. Understanding and leveraging new socioeconomic assumptions, such as circular
 571 economies, degrowth, and green growth models, has become increasingly critical (71, 114, 172). Future
 572 technologies and policies spanning production (e.g., agroecology, precision agriculture) to consumption
 573 (e.g., dietary improvements, waste reduction) carry both intended and unintended consequences for
 574 reshaping food systems that require in-depth exploration (73, 173). Emerging indicators, such as the

575 interplay between human and planetary well-being or multidimensional inequality, are also becoming
576 central to transformation efforts, yet they are rarely explicitly projected by current models (174). Achieving
577 these insights sometimes cannot afford delays from years-long development of new models or
578 reconfiguration of existing ones.

579 There is also an increasing number of new stakeholders, bringing fresh perspectives and seeking innovative
580 applications for model-based insights. Beyond the traditional users, financial institutions, corporations, and
581 industries are now leveraging models to assess the risks and benefits of transitioning to more sustainable
582 practices, as well as to identify cost-optimised pathways for resilient investments (175). Similarly, NGOs and
583 civil society organisations are exploring new use-cases, utilising models as tools to facilitate community
584 engagement and develop governance mechanisms that support transformative change (176). However, the
585 rapid pace of change in food systems, coupled with the shorter timelines for investment, policymaking, and
586 action, often contrasts with the longer timeframes required for model development and refinement. This
587 mismatch can create significant barriers to the usability of models, limiting their ability for direct
588 engagement with end users to respond to their evolving needs.

589 To meet these evolving needs, food system models need to be capable of generating fresh insights for a
590 diverse range of use-cases within shorter assessment cycles. This requires a deep understanding of the
591 changing problem context and close connection to stakeholders. Modelling that is disconnected from
592 decision-making processes can limit the translation of model outputs into actionable policy insights.
593 Embedding modelling in participatory processes remains a significant challenge for modelling frameworks
594 but one that is necessary to foster collaboration, transparency and trust, and ensure models remain policy
595 and decision-making relevant. In prioritising participatory approaches, bringing collaborative design
596 thinking to the modelling process seems to be essential to ensure that models remain relevant, usable, and
597 adaptable to changing demands over time, ultimately leading to more effective solutions that better align
598 with the diverse interests of all parties involved (177).

599 Addressing stakeholder needs within shorter assessment cycles often favours models of intermediate
600 complexity, that trade off precision against ease of calibration to new applications via reduced data
601 requirements and modular, parsimonious design (178, 179). Intermediate complexity enables faster
602 building while allowing for effective user feedback and iteration (see Model Snapshot 4). Such simpler
603 models are not intended to replace larger models, and there should be part of the portfolio of diverse
604 models used to serve different purposes in informing food system transformation. Similarly important is
605 the focus on user interfaces and integrating interactive visual analytics tools. These tools can effectively
606 communicate, visualise, and translate model results for a wider range of end-users (165). Such tools have
607 been designed and exist already to enable the exploration of projected global food security (49, 180),
608 sustainability trade-offs arising from agricultural land uses (46, 181), and impacts of labour conditions on
609 food production (46, 181). Enhancing usability through these tools can increase model relevance, address
610 current accessibility gaps, and support applications in decision-making across government, industry,
611 business, and civil society.

Model Snapshot 4. Globally consistent national pathways towards sustainable food and land

The Food, Agriculture, Biodiversity, Land and Energy (FABLE) Calculator is a MS Excel-based model that represents the dynamics of national food and land use systems in simple terms and in relation to food production, food demand, biodiversity (via land use occupation), emissions, water use and trade (182). The calculator is pre-set to represent a specific world country using global datasets from sources (e.g., FAO, IIASA), and country teams from the FABLE Consortium refine and calibrate their calculator using the best available in-country data and knowledge. The FABLE Calculator represents the effect of changes as exogenous assumptions in relation to agricultural practices, consumption patterns (e.g., diets), and policies on a range of outcome indicators related to food, agriculture, biodiversity, land and energy (FABLE) outcomes in 5-yearly timesteps in a transparent manner.

The FABLE Calculator is a tool that allows for rapid prototyping and iteration with users, provided that the right data to parametrise scenarios can be elicited. For example, in the 2019 and 2020, the Australian country calculator introduced livestock density growth scenarios, which subsequently helped better understand the potential impacts of increased livestock production on resource use and sustainability in the agricultural sector (33). The system of national FABLE Calculators and other process-based models linked using a tool called FABLE Linker which aggregates the national results into global results offered a novel way to address global policy questions while taking into consideration the socio-economic and political circumstances of each country (132).

The FABLE Calculator also offered full transparency of data, formulas and results as it is a collection of Excel spreadsheets, which can be opened to see the input and output values, and make changes to them as necessary. However, the number of tables, columns, and formulas can quickly become overwhelming and therefore an obstacle to new users. In some country versions of the Fable Calculator (e.g., Australia), there is a functionality that allows users to control the entire model from a single central table where they can define which variables act as stochastic inputs (minimum and maximum value for each variable) and which ones to track as outputs. This allows the model to run 1000 iterations in five minutes. The data generated by these iterations can then be visualised in a series of density plots and a correlation matrix to display the strength of the relationship between inputs and outputs, and summary figures and tables to quantify the likelihood of achieving concurrent FABLE targets under different scenarios. This information can be compared with existing countries' commitments to analyse whether they are likely to be compatible with long term sustainability of the land use sector.

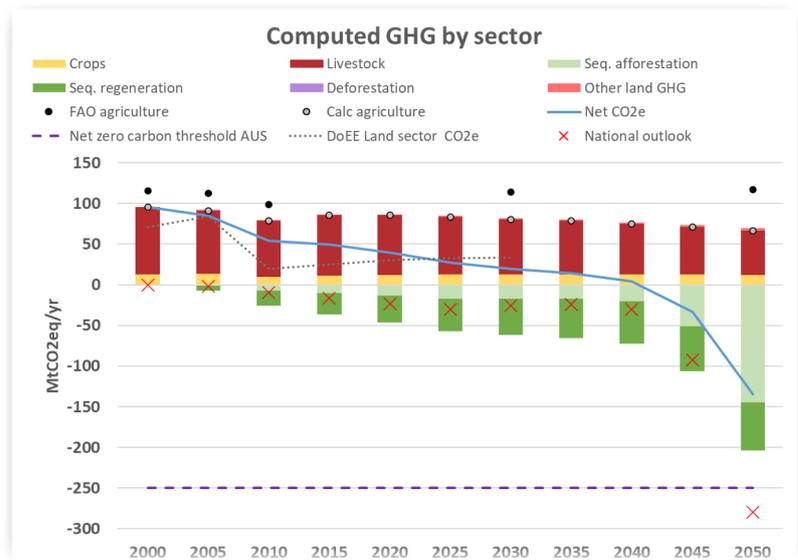


Figure 4. An example of the Australian FABLE Calculator's outputs, i.e., GHG emissions by sector and year for the sustainability pathway scenario

612 5. MANAGING TENSIONS AND TRADEOFFS

613 Throughout the challenges and opportunities discussed, balancing complexity and simplicity in food system
 614 modelling may imply inherent tensions and trade-offs. While greater complexity is often necessary to
 615 capture uncertainties, local-system characteristics, and socio-political drivers, overly complex models risk
 616 becoming opaque, computationally demanding, and inaccessible to stakeholders. Conversely, simpler
 617 models enable rapid prototyping and scenario exploration but may oversimplify critical dynamics,
 618 potentially compromising utility.

619 Addressing these tensions requires rethinking model design, purpose, and application via participatory
 620 processes. It also requires a deep understanding of how computational models can support human
 621 decision-making. A key issue is whether models are seen as providing detailed scenario solutions to
 622 decision makers who consequently require a deep understanding of model strengths and weaknesses to
 623 interpret results appropriately and choose a course of action, or whether model results are seen as one of
 624 many diverse influences on the heuristics that decision makers use to manage deep uncertainty. A general
 625 principle is the more sophisticated models do not necessarily predict outcomes better in terms of
 626 predictability and support for decision-making (183). Moreover, no single model can encompass every

627 dimension and scale of a complex, uncertain process like food system transformation. Instead, different
628 models are suited to different tasks, and their limitations should be explicitly acknowledged, addressed,
629 and communicated to their users. Several studies of other systems like energy and climate have
630 acknowledged the limitations of models that formalise multi-sector dynamics and called for more holistic
631 analyses through a more diverse range of models (37, 155, 184, 185). As with other complex systems,
632 transforming food systems also demands a spectrum of models, each tailored to specific objectives. These
633 models should leverage their unique strengths and complement one another to construct a comprehensive
634 understanding of the change process.

635 Within this context, a promising path forward would be adopting modular and interoperable modelling
636 frameworks that promotes transparency, interchangeability, and adaptability. Inspired by practices in Earth
637 system modelling (186) and systems engineering architecture (187), this approach emphasises establishing
638 and agreeing on standards and protocols for data, modelling, and interoperability and allows for "plug-and-
639 play" functionality, where components can be adapted or replaced as needed, allowing models to be
640 flexible and scalable.

641 The demand for flexibility and interchangeability also highlights the need to strengthen the coupling of
642 models to better capture the complexity and uncertainty inherent in the transformation of food systems
643 through the strengths of different modelling frameworks (see Model Snapshot 5). For example, this
644 approach could support the development of a multi-resolution model for complex systems. Initially, a
645 model of high-level abstraction can facilitate ensemble methods for exploring uncertainties, offering broad
646 insights across scenarios. Subsequently, a full-resolution model can delve deeper into specific behaviours of
647 interest, providing detailed analysis where needed. This layered and adaptable approach ensures that
648 models are robust and practical, and effectively address the challenges posed by complexity and
649 uncertainty.

650

Model Snapshot 5. Model coupling for a more comprehensive framing of food system transformation

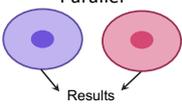
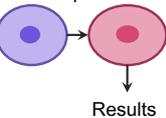
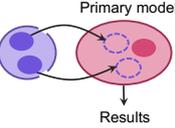
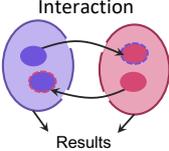
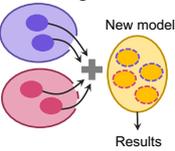
Model coupling is already a well-established practice in partial and general equilibrium modelling, as well as in integrated assessment modelling in food and agriculture. However, there is still much to learn from the decision support and operations research communities' practices (188), particularly in exploring various ways to combine multiple models. These could offer insights into how coupling can be structured and the strategic choices involved in integrating diverse models to leverage their unique strengths.

The simplest type of coupling is *parallel*, where models operate independently within harmonised boundaries to provide complementary insights or enable comparability, as seen in multi-model intercomparison and ensemble modelling projects (36). However, the future states of food systems generated via a parallel coupling are not statistically representative and may skew results towards dominant models. *Sequential* coupling involves one model informing another in a one-way relationship, such as demographic models projecting food demand for spatial land-use models (189). While this ensures detailed process representation and transparency, it often lacks feedback between system components.

Another type of coupling is *enhancement*, which integrates elements of one model into another to enrich its scope, as demonstrated by the Felix model's analysis of diet shift incorporating C-ROADS for carbon cycle formalisation (107). This allows for systematic uncertainty assessment and generation of statistically representative scenarios but adds computational complexity. *Interaction*, another type of coupling, involves models remain independent operating within their own distinct frameworks exchange data iteratively to address each other's needs. For instance, the soft coupling of REMIND and MAGPIE iteratively aligns assumptions about bioenergy, emissions, and costs, enabling consistent scenario generation (70). This type of coupling provides system feedback but requires intensive coordination and synchronisation.

Integration represents the most advanced form of coupling, merging multiple models into a unified framework to create a coherent system. This approach, as seen in surrogate models using regression analysis (156) or machine learning methods (190), enables structured scenario ensembles with probabilistic insights. However, integration increases complexity, requiring careful assessment of its impact on model development and testing. The choice of a collaboration form between models for conducting an integrated assessment of food system transformation ultimately depends on the context of the assessment and the needs of stakeholders (see Table 2).

Table 2. Overview of different types of model coupling (adapted from Morgan *et al.* (188) and Moallemi *et al.* (191))

Type of coupling	Direction, form, frequency of exchange	Implementation	Advantage	Disadvantage
 <p>Parallel</p>	No interaction	Built in one or two modelling frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Complementary insights from multiple views 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Little flexibility in exploring uncertainty
 <p>Sequential</p>	One-way; model insights and hard data; single frequency	Built in one or two modelling frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved traceability and controlled complexity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of endogenous feedback Potential inconsistencies
 <p>Enhancement Primary model</p>	One- or two-way; hard data; high frequency	Built in one unified modelling framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Endogenous feedback (hard coupling) High internal consistency Structured scenarios for uncertainty assessment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for new testing and validation Increased complexity and intransparency
 <p>Interaction</p>	One- or two-way; model insights and hard data; limited frequency	Built in one or two modelling frameworks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Improved traceability and controlled complexity Assessment of feedback (soft coupling) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Little flexibility in exploring uncertainty Potential inconsistencies
 <p>Integration New model</p>	Two-way; hard data; high frequency	Built in one unified modelling framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Endogenous feedback (hard coupling) High internal consistency Structured scenarios for uncertainty assessment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Need for new testing and validation Increased complexity and intransparency

651

652 While recognising potential tensions and trade-offs, we argue that these tensions can sometimes also be a
653 symptom of more fundamental problem; a problem that lies in a conventional aspiration to create an
654 “ultimate” all-encompassing model and therefore find tensions in consolidating all features discussed in
655 Section 4 into a single package. Such an aspiration is often driven by the view that adding more details
656 inherently increases accuracy or effectiveness (192, 193). We acknowledge that given the highly complex
657 and deeply uncertain nature of food system transformations and their interactions, it is unlikely that we will
658 ever “fully” understand them or be able to “control” them, so this shouldn’t be the end goal. The tensions
659 between different features for modelling food system transformations can also stem from the
660 understanding of what complexity means and how it should be addressed in models. Complexity does not
661 always equate to large, highly detailed, and data-intensive models. Instead, it arises from non-linear
662 interactions, feedback loops, and emergent phenomena, which can all exist in models with relatively simple
663 structures (194, 195). For example, the logistic map, a single-variable deterministic equation, can produce
664 complex behaviour through non-linear dynamics, demonstrating that complexity is not solely dependent on
665 the number of components (196).

666 While these issues can have varying degrees of implications across models, there are existing modelling
667 efforts that have experienced at least some of these issues (197). In balancing between complexity and
668 simplicity, a path forward is question-driven (198) and participatory modelling where stakeholders, such as
669 users, are more genuinely involved during model design and development to ensure that the level of
670 complexity aligns with the specific questions, uncertainties, and decision priorities tailored to the context.
671 The push for more detailed models can be also guided by techniques such as uncertainty and sensitivity
672 analysis (199), which help modellers understand the relationship between model complexity and
673 uncertainty and identify the most influential aspects of the model that needs further specification (200).
674 This enables modellers to recognise when adding further detail no longer improves the model and allows
675 for a better calibration of model complexity to suit the specific context and application (193).

676 6. CONCLUSIONS

677 Relying on a narrow set of models to guide food system transformation risks limiting the range of pathways
678 and missing the full potential of what food systems can achieve. The transformation of food systems
679 towards a more sustainable future is inherently complex and uncertain, and this poses challenges to the
680 relevance and utility of models relied on in the past. A tendency to overlook complexity and uncertainty
681 can hinder identification of actionable insights for real-world change. An inability to model socio-political
682 drivers, power dynamics, and human feedback loops risks favouring technically idealistic solutions that may
683 ignore pragmatic contextual realities. And there is no need to perpetuate these limitations. Alternative
684 approaches are evolving that can address these challenges by enhancing the endogenous representation of
685 socio-political drivers, improving model robustness in the face of uncertainty, ensuring that models capture
686 multi-scale, context-specific dynamics, and that enable adaptation of participatory process to meet
687 emerging stakeholder needs. These represent dimensions against which future models and their usefulness
688 could be interrogated and checked.

689 No single model can fully capture the complexity of food system transformation; at best, all models are
690 only approximations of the reality and dynamics at play. But this is consistent with the boundaries on
691 knowledge that constrain human decision-making, which mean that model complexity works against model
692 utility in supporting decision-making. Addressing the complexity and uncertainty of transformation requires
693 a diverse array of models using different analytical approaches that enable more comprehensive analysis
694 and interpretation of the impacts of various policy options. These need to be embedded in responsive
695 participatory processes that facilitate dynamic recombination of model capability to meet evolving needs.

696 The analysis and discussion of this paper represents only the tip of an iceberg. We aimed to provide an
697 overview of commonly used food system models by classifying them based on their ability to simulate
698 different dimensions of the food system. However, the level of detail and complexity can vary significantly
699 across models for each dimension, even with the same classification. Future research could improve the
700 representation of this complexity by incorporating insights from experts and model developers. We see a
701 clear opportunity for a more thorough review of the successes and limitations of food system models for
702 transformation, which would deepen our understanding, broaden analytical perspectives, and help identify
703 more effective pathways for future food systems.

704

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708 Park, USA) for their valuable feedback and reading of the paper prior to submission.

709 Appendix A

710 Partial Equilibrium (PE) Models

711 These models focus on specific sectors of the economy, such as agriculture, and assume that changes in this
712 sector do not significantly affect the rest of the economy. Some of these models include a spatially explicit,
713 gridded representation of agriculture. Compared to other types of models, some partial equilibrium models
714 with a gridded representation of land use allow more detailed representation of land-use trade-offs (91)
715 and of environmental outcomes (201, 202). However, because partial equilibrium models focus on a
716 specific part of the economy, they lack broader economic interactions with other sectors. These models can
717 significantly differ in their methodological approaches, for instance, whether they depict bi-lateral or just
718 net-trade. Demand is expressed in these models based on so-called 'primary product equivalent' (i.e., in
719 units of the primary products they are derived from. Quantities are measured in physical units). Market
720 clearing is achieved by adjusting prices. Partial equilibrium models are most commonly used to analyse
721 changes in economic outcomes of the food system (often agricultural) production, consumption, trade, and
722 prices. They were developed from food balance sheets which have been in continuous use since at least
723 3500 years BC (203).

724 Some key features of the selected six PE model are given in the list below:

725

- 726 1. *IMPACT*: The International Model for Policy Analysis of Agricultural Commodities and Trade
727 (*IMPACT*) is a spatially explicit recursive-dynamic net-trade model developed by the International
728 Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI). The model focuses on global food supply and demand, trade,
729 and food security (53, 204-206)
- 730 2. *GLOBIOM*: The Global Biosphere Management Model (*GLOBIOM*) is a spatially explicit recursive-
731 dynamic model that combines agricultural, forestry, and bioenergy sectors to analyse land-use
732 dynamics, food production, and environmental impacts, developed by the International Institute
733 for Applied System Analysis (IIASA) (52, 207, 208). It is based on explicit optimisation including the
734 minimisation of international transport cost and production costs to satisfy demand.
- 735 3. *MAGPIE*: The Model of Agricultural Production and its Impact on the Environment (*MAGPIE*) is a
736 spatially explicit recursive-dynamic model that combines economic and biophysical approaches to
737 simulate spatially explicit global scenarios of land use until 2100 and the respective interactions
738 with the environment, developed by the Potsdam Institute for Climate Impact Research (PIK) (54).
- 739 4. *CAPRI*: The Common Agricultural Policy Regional Impact model (*CAPRI*) is a detailed comparative
740 static partial equilibrium model for the European agricultural sector, used for policy impact
741 assessment on agriculture, environment, and rural areas, developed by the European Commission
742 (123). Europe is depicted by technology rich programming models at subnational level which are
743 iteratively coupled with a global PE, which depicts bi-lateral trade based on the Armington
744 assumption and draws on theory-consistent demand and supply function.
- 745 5. *AgLINK-COSIMO*: *AG*ricultural *LINK*age - *CO*mmodity *SI*mulation Model (*AGLINK-COSIMO*) is a net-
746 trade recursive-dynamic, partial equilibrium, supply–demand model of world agricultural markets
747 developed jointly by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the
748 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) Secretariats (50). The model is used
749 to make projections 10 years into the future.
- 750 6. *SIMPLE-G*: The Simplified International Model of agricultural Prices, Land use, and the
751 Environment-Gridded (*SIMPLE_G*) is a comparative static spatially-explicit version of the *SIMPLE*
752 partial equilibrium agricultural trade model that has been validated for the study of long-run
753 sustainability and food security (55, 209).

754 **Global multi-regional Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) Models**

755 These models consider the interactions between all sectors of the economy and can capture the broader
756 economic impacts of changes in the agrifood system. General equilibrium models tend to be more
757 uniformly structured than partial equilibrium models as they draw mostly on a set of standard assumptions:
758 competitive markets for products and factors, utility maximising final demanders and cost-minimising
759 representative firms, one in each sector. Many of the economic decisions are depicted by using Constant-
760 Elasticity-of-Substitution (CES, production function, trade composition, part of final demand) and Constant-
761 Elasticity-of-Transformation functions (CET, allocation of resources to sectors). Equations are usually
762 templated such that models can be used with differently detailed database (regions, sectors). The
763 databases informing these models include all sectors of the economy, but often less detailed with regard to
764 agriculture and land use sector than partial equilibrium models. Some models, such as AIM, GTAP and
765 GTEM, were initially developed without a specific focus on the agrifood sector but later incorporated
766 applications related to the food system. In contrast, models like MAGNET and MIRAGRODEP have had an
767 intrinsic focus on agricultural policy analysis since their inception. General equilibrium models are used to
768 analyse interactions between sectors of the economy such as agriculture and food manufacturing.

- 769 7. *AIM/CGE* or *AIM/HUB*: The Asia-Pacific Integrated Model (AIM) general equilibrium model includes
770 a detailed agricultural module to assess land use and food production in the context of climate
771 change, developed by the National Institute for Environmental Studies (NIES) (57, 210).
- 772 8. *CGEBox*: *CGEBox* is a modular platform for CGE modelling departing from the GTAP Standard model
773 (58). For food system analysis, it usually dis-aggregates the GTAP Database to rich agri-food detail
774 (including rainfed and irrigated crops; open catch versus aquaculture), employs the GTAP-AEZ land-
775 use component, uses detailed nesting in final demand and the production functions to depict
776 substitution between closely related products, adds nutrient accounts and an empirical estimated
777 MAIDADS demand system with food detail to depict income dynamics and uses either multiple
778 households or a post-model micro-simulation to assess distributional aspects. It can be used in
779 comparative or recursive-mode, for the latter, the G-RDEM component depicts important aspect of
780 structural change dynamics (income dependent cost and expenditure shares, endogenous savings,
781 sector differentiated productivity growth).
- 782 9. *DART-BIO*: *DART-BIO* is a variant of the Dynamic Applied Regional Trade (DART) model, a multi-
783 sectoral, multi-regional recursive dynamic CGE model of the world economy, that includes land use
784 (59). It was developed at the Kiel Institute for the World Economy.
- 785 10. *GTAP*: The Global Trade Analysis Project (GTAP) model is a global general equilibrium model with
786 several variations, e.g., *GTAP-W* (211), *GTAP-AEZ* (212), *GTAP-BIO* (213), *G-RDEM* (214) and *CGEBox*
787 (58), as well as *DART-BIO* and *MAGNET* covered separately in this section. The model is used for
788 analysing international trade policies, including agricultural and environmental policies, developed
789 by Purdue University (211, 215).
- 790 11. *GTEM*: The Global Trade and Environment Model (GTEM) is a dynamic, multiregional and
791 multisectoral general equilibrium model of the global economy, developed originally by the
792 Australian Bureau of Agricultural and Resources Economics (ABARE) (61, 216) with recently work
793 led by the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO).
- 794 12. *MAGNET*: The Modular Applied GeNeral Equilibrium Tool (MAGNET) is a recursive dynamic global
795 general equilibrium model, a variant of the GTAP model, that includes a detailed agricultural sector
796 module for analysing global food and agricultural policies, developed by Wageningen University
797 (62, 68).
- 798 13. *MIRAGRODEP*: Modelling International Relations under Applied General Equilibrium model
799 enhanced for the AGRODEP modeling consortium (MIRAGRODEP) is a recursive-dynamic, multi-

800 region, multi-sector computable general equilibrium model, developed by IFPRI for trade and
801 agricultural policy analysis. It is developed for African Growth Development Policy (AGRODEP) and
802 draws upon the Modelling International Relationships in Applied General Equilibrium (MIRAGE)
803 model developed by Centre d'Etudes Prospectives et d'Informations Internationales (CEPII) (63,
804 217).

805 **Integrated Assessment Models (standalone)**

806 These models integrate economic, environmental, and social components to provide a holistic view of
807 global changes and policies. These models tend to have representation of more than one sector, for
808 instance agriculture, land use, and energy, but also have a simplified representation of the whole economy
809 compared to general equilibrium models (39). They have evolved especially to recognise interactions
810 between the environment (especially climate) and the economy (39).

811 14. *IMAGE*: The Integrated Model to Assess the Global Environment (IMAGE) model is an integrated
812 assessment modelling framework that can be used to explore the long-term pathways for future
813 environmental and sustainable development problems as well as possible response strategies,
814 developed by the Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency (PBL) (65, 94).

815 15. *GCAM*: The Global Change Assessment Model (GCAM) integrates energy, economy, land use, and
816 water to assess climate change mitigation and adaptation policies, including their impacts on
817 agriculture, developed by the Pacific Northwest National Laboratory's Joint Global Change Research
818 Institute (64).

819 **Coupled models**

820 16. *IMAGE 3.0*: The IMAGE 3.0 framework is a suite of models combining the standalone IMAGE model
821 with the MAGNET CGE model (65, 150).

822 17. *MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM*: The MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM integrated assessment framework is a global
823 energy–economic–agricultural–land-use model developed at IIASA that couples the energy model
824 MESSAGEix, the land-use model GLOBIOM (208), the air pollution and greenhouse gas (GHG) model
825 GAINS, the aggregated macro-economic model MACRO, and the simple climate model MAGICC (69,
826 218-220).

827 18. *REMIND-MAgPIE*: The IAM REMIND-MAgPIE is developed by PIK and combines the energy-
828 economy model REMIND (regional model of investments and development) with the food and
829 land-use model MAgPIE (model of agricultural production and its impact on the environment) (70,
830 221).

831 19. *LandSyMM*: The Land System Modular Model (LandSyMM) integrates the Parsimonious Land Use
832 Model (PLUMv2) is global land-use and food-system model, Lund-Potsdam-Jena general ecosystem
833 simulator (LGJ_GUESS) and the modified, implicit, directly additive demand system (MAIDADS)
834 demand model (222, 223).

835 20. *Globe-IMPACT*: The Globe-IMPACT framework couples the IMPACT partial equilibrium model of
836 agriculture with the Globe model, a global CGE model based on a Social Accounting Matrix (SAM)
837 and calibrated using data derived from the Global Trade Analysis Project's (GTAP) database (66,
838 224-226).

839

841 Table B1. Food system modelling papers reviewed to evaluate the selected models in Table 1 (main text).

Author	Year	Journal	Title
Alexander, P., Arneth, A., Henry, R., Maire, J., Rabin, S., Rounsevell, M.D.A.	2023	Nature Food	High energy and fertilizer prices are more damaging than food export curtailment from Ukraine and Russia for food prices, health and the environment
Alexander, P., Rabin, S., Anthoni, P., Henry, R., Pugh, T.A.M., Rounsevell, M.D.A., Arneth, A.	2018	Global Change Biology	Adaptation of global land use and management intensity to changes in climate and atmospheric carbon dioxide
Araujo Enciso, S.R., Fellmann, T., Pérez Dominguez, I., Santini, F.	2016	Food Policy	Abolishing biofuel policies: Possible impacts on agricultural price levels, price variability and global food security
Awais, M., Vinca, A., Byers, E., Frank, S., Fricko, O., Boere, E., Burek, P., Poblete Cazenave, M., Kishimoto, P.N., Mastrucci, A., Satoh, Y., Palazzo, A., McPherson, M., Riahi, K., Krey, V.	2024	Geosci. Model Dev.	MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM nexus module: integrating water sector and climate impacts
Bartelings, H., Philippidis, G.	2024	Sustainable Production and Consumption	A novel macroeconomic modelling assessment of food loss and waste in the EU: An application to the sustainable development goal of halving household food waste
Beckman, J., Estrades, C., Aguiar, A.	2019	Food Security	Export taxes, food prices and poverty: a global CGE evaluation
Beusen, A.H.W., Doelman, J.C., Van Beek, L.P.H., Van Puijenbroek, P., Mogollon, J.M., Van Grinsven, H.J.M., Stehfest, E., Van Vuuren, D.P., Bouwman, A.F.	2022	Global Environmental Change-Human and Policy Dimensions	Exploring river nitrogen and phosphorus loading and export to global coastal waters in the Shared Socio-economic pathways
Bjørndal, T., Dey, M., Tusvik, A.	2024	Aquaculture	Economic analysis of the contributions of aquaculture to future food security
Bodirsky, B.L., Dietrich, J.P., Martinelli, E., Stenstad, A., Pradhan, P., Gabrysch, S., Mishra, A., Weindl, I., Le Mouél, C., Rolinski, S., Baumstark, L., Wang, X., Waid, J.L., Lotze-Campen, H., Popp, A.	2020	Scientific Reports	The ongoing nutrition transition thwarts long-term targets for food security, public health and environmental protection
Bodirsky, B.L., Popp, A., Weindl, I., Dietrich, J.P., Rolinski, S., Scheffele, L., Schmitz, C., Lotze-Campen, H.	2012	Biogeosciences Discussions	Current state and future scenarios of the global agricultural nitrogen cycle
Bouët, A., Laborde, D.	2018	The World Economy	US trade wars in the twenty-first century with emerging countries: Make America and its partners lose again
Bouwman, A.F., Beusen, A.H.W., Griffioen, J., Van Groenigen, J.W., Hefting, M.M., Oenema, O., Van Puijenbroek, P.J.T.M., Seitzinger, S., Slomp, C.P., Stehfest, E.	2013	Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences	Global trends and uncertainties in terrestrial denitrification and N ₂ O emissions
Bouwman, L., Goldewijk, K.K., Van Der Hoek, K.W., Beusen, A.H.W., Van Vuuren, D.P., Willems, J., Rufino, M.C., Stehfest, E.	2011	Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences	Exploring global changes in nitrogen and phosphorus cycles in agriculture induced by livestock production over the 1900–2050 period
Britz, W.	2022	Journal of Global Economic Analysis	Disaggregating Agro-Food Sectors in the GTAP Data Base

Author	Year	Journal	Title
Britz, W., Roson, R.	2019	Journal of Global Economic Analysis	G-RDEM: A GTAP-Based Recursive Dynamic CGE Model for Long-Term Baseline Generation and Analysis
Britz, W., Verburg, P.H., Leip, A.	2011	Scaling methods in integrated assessment of agricultural systems	Modelling of land cover and agricultural change in Europe: Combining the CLUE and CAPRI-Spat approaches
Britz, W., Witzke, P.	2014	NA	CAPRI model documentation 2014
Calvin, K., Fisher-Vanden, K.	2017	Environmental Research Letters	Quantifying the indirect impacts of climate on agriculture: an inter-method comparison
Calvin, K., Patel, P., Clarke, L., Asrar, G., Bond-Lamberty, B., Cui, R.Y., Di Vittorio, A., Dorheim, K., Edmonds, J., Hartin, C., Hejazi, M., Horowitz, R., Iyer, G., Kyle, P., Kim, S., Link, R., McJeon, H., Smith, S.J., Snyder, A., Waldhoff, S., Wise, M.	2019	Geosci. Model Dev.	GCAM v5.1: representing the linkages between energy, water, land, climate, and economic systems
Calvin, K., Wise, M., Kyle, P., Patel, P., Clarke, L., Edmonds, J.	2014	Climatic Change	Trade-offs of different land and bioenergy policies on the path to achieving climate targets
Calzadilla, A., Rehdanz, K., Tol, R.S.J.	2010	Journal of Hydrology	The economic impact of more sustainable water use in agriculture: A computable general equilibrium analysis
Chang, J., Havlík, P., Leclère, D., Vries, W., Valin, H., Deppermann, A., Hasegawa, T., Obersteiner, M.	2021	Nature Food	Reconciling regional nitrogen boundaries with global food security
Chatzopoulos, T., Pérez Domínguez, I., Toreti, A., Adenauer, M., Zampieri, M.	2021	Environmental Research Letters	Potential impacts of concurrent and recurrent climate extremes on the global food system by 2030
Chatzopoulos, T., Pérez Domínguez, I., Zampieri, M., Toreti, A.	2020	Weather and Climate Extremes	Climate extremes and agricultural commodity markets: A global economic analysis of regionally simulated events
Chen, M., Vernon, C.R., Graham, N.T., Hejazi, M., Huang, M., Cheng, Y., Calvin, K.	2020	Scientific Data	Global land use for 2015–2100 at 0.05° resolution under diverse socioeconomic and climate scenarios
Daioglou, V., Stehfest, E., Wicke, B., Faaij, A., Vuuren, D.P.	2016	GCB Bioenergy	Projections of the availability and cost of residues from agriculture and forestry
Debnath, D., Giner, C.	2019	Biofuels, Bioenergy and Food Security	Chapter 4 - Interaction between biofuels and agricultural markets, in: Debnath, D., Babu, S.C. (Eds.)
Delzeit, R., Heimann, T., Schünemann, F., Söder, M.	2021	Kiel Working Paper	DART-BIO: A technical description
Delzeit, R., Winkler, M., Söder, M.	2018	Sustainability	Land Use Change under Biofuel Policies and a Tax on Meat and Dairy Products: Considering Complexity in Agricultural Production Chains Matters
Dietrich, J.P., Bodirsky, B.L., Weindl, I., Humpeöder, F., et al.	2024	NA	MAGPIE - An Open Source land-use modeling framework - Version 4.9.0
Doelman, J.C., Beier, F.D., Stehfest, E., Bodirsky, B.L., Beusen, A.H.W., Humpeöder, F., Mishra, A., Popp, A., van Vuuren, D.P., de Vos, L., Weindl, I., van Zeist, W.-J., Kram, T.	2022	Environmental Research Letters	Quantifying synergies and trade-offs in the global water-land-food-climate nexus using a multi-model scenario approach

Author	Year	Journal	Title
Doelman, J.C., Stehfest, E., Tabeau, A., van Meijl, H., Lassaletta, L., Gernaat, D.E.H.J., Hermans, K., Harmsen, M., Daioglou, V., Biemans, H., van der Sluis, S., van Vuuren, D.P.	2018	Global Environmental Change	Exploring SSP land-use dynamics using the IMAGE model: Regional and gridded scenarios of land-use change and land-based climate change mitigation
Doelman, J.C., Stehfest, E., Vuuren, D.P., Tabeau, A., Hof, A.F., Braakhekke, M.C., Gernaat, D.E.H.J., Berg, M., Zeist, W.-J., Daioglou, V., Meijl, H., Lucas, P.L.	2020	Global Change Biology	Afforestation for climate change mitigation: Potentials, risks and trade-offs
Elbersen, B., Fritsche, U., Petersen, J.-E., Lesschen, J.P., Böttcher, H., Overmars, K.	2013	Biofuels, Bioproducts and Biorefining	Assessing the effect of stricter sustainability criteria on EU biomass crop potential
Elleby, C., Domínguez, I.P., Adenauer, M., Genovese, G.	2020	Environmental and Resource Economics	Impacts of the COVID-19 Pandemic on the Global Agricultural Markets
Elleby, C., Jensen, H.G., Domínguez, I.P., Chatzopoulos, T., Charlebois, P.	2021	EuroChoices	Insects Reared on Food Waste: A Game Changer for Global Agricultural Feed Markets?
Escobar, N., Valin, H., Frank, S., Galperin, D., Wade, C. M., Ringwald, L., Tanner, D., Hinkel, N., Havlík, P., Baker, J. S., Lie, S., Ramig, C.	2025	Environmental Science & Technology	Understanding Uncertainty in Market-Mediated Responses to US Oilseed Biodiesel Demand: Sensitivity of ILUC Emission Estimates to GLOBIOM Parametric Uncertainty
Escobar, N., Haddad, S., Börner, J., Britz, W.	2018	Environmental Research Letters	Land use mediated GHG emissions and spillovers from increased consumption of bioplastics
Fellmann, T., Domínguez, I.P., Witzke, P., Weiss, F., Hristov, J., Barreiro-Hurle, J., Leip, A., Himics, M.	2021	Journal of Cleaner Production	Greenhouse gas mitigation technologies in agriculture: Regional circumstances and interactions determine cost-effectiveness
Fellmann, T., Hélaïne, S., Nekhay, O.	2014	Food Security	Harvest failures, temporary export restrictions and global food security: the example of limited grain exports from Russia, Ukraine and Kazakhstan
Ferrari, E., Roson, R. B., Britz, W., Dudu, H.	2019	Global Trade Analysis Project Conference papers	An extended myGTAP model to address subsistence production and sub-national households as a module in CGEBox
Frank, S., Beach, R., Havlík, P., Valin, H., Herrero, M., Mosnier, A., Hasegawa, T., Creason, J., Ragnauth, S., Obersteiner, M.	2018	Nature Communications	Structural change as a key component for agricultural non-CO2 mitigation efforts
Frank, S., Havlík, P., Soussana, J.-F., Levesque, A., Valin, H., Wollenberg, E., Kleinwechter, U., Fricko, O., Gusti, M., Herrero, M., Smith, P., Hasegawa, T., Kraxner, F., Obersteiner, M.	2017	Environmental Research Letters	Reducing greenhouse gas emissions in agriculture without compromising food security?
Frank, S., Havlík, P., Stehfest, E., van Meijl, H., Witzke, P., Pérez-Domínguez, I., van Dijk, M., Doelman, J.C., Fellmann, T., Koopman, J.F.L., Tabeau, A., Valin, H.	2019	Nature Climate Change	Agricultural non-CO2 emission reduction potential in the context of the 1.5 °C target
Frank, S., Lessa Derci Augustynczyk, A., Havlík, P., Boere, E., Ermolieva, T., Fricko, O., Di Fulvio, F., Gusti, M., Krisztin, T., Lauri, P., Palazzo, A., Wögerer, M.	2024	Nature Food	Enhanced agricultural carbon sinks provide benefits for farmers and the climate

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Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T., Ito, A., Takahashi, K., Masui, T.	2018	Scientific Data	Gridded emissions and land-use data for 2005–2100 under diverse socioeconomic and climate mitigation scenarios
Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T., Krey, V., Riahi, K., Bertram, C., Bodirsky, B.L., Bosetti, V., Callen, J., Després, J., Doelman, J., Drouet, L., Emmerling, J., Frank, S., Fricko, O., Havlik, P., Humpeöder, F., Koopman, J.F.L., van Meijl, H., Ochi, Y., Popp, A., Schmitz, A., Takahashi, K., van Vuuren, D.	2019	Nature Sustainability	A multi-model assessment of food security implications of climate change mitigation
Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T., Masui, T.	2017a	Post-2020 Climate Action: Global and Asian Perspectives	AIM/CGE V2.0: Basic Feature of the Model
Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T., Masui, T., Takahashi, K.	2014	Food Security	Land use representation in a global CGE model for long-term simulation: CET vs. logit functions
Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T., Masui, T., Takahashi, K., Herran, D.S., Dai, H., Hijioaka, Y., Kainuma, M.	2017b	Global Environmental Change	SSP3: AIM implementation of Shared Socioeconomic Pathways
Fujimori, S., Kubota, I., Dai, H., Takahashi, K., Hasegawa, T., Liu, J.-Y., Hijioaka, Y., Masui, T., Takimi, M.	2016	Environmental Research Letters	Will international emissions trading help achieve the objectives of the Paris Agreement?
Fujimori, S., Wu, W., Doelman, J., Frank, S., Hristov, J., Kyle, P., Sands, R., van Zeist, W.-J., Havlik, P., Dominguez, I.P., Sahoo, A., Stehfest, E., Tabeau, A., Valin, H., van Meijl, H., Hasegawa, T., Takahashi, K.	2022	Nature Food	Land-based climate change mitigation measures can affect agricultural markets and food security
Gatto, A., Kuiper, M., Middelaar, C., Meijl, H.	2024	Resources, Conservation and Recycling	Unveiling the economic and environmental impact of policies to promote animal feed for a circular food system
Gatto, A., Kuiper, M., van Meijl, H.	2023	Nature Food	Economic, social and environmental spillovers decrease the benefits of a global dietary shift
Gidden, M.J., Riahi, K., Smith, S.J., Fujimori, S., Luderer, G., Kriegler, E., van Vuuren, D.P., van den Berg, M., Feng, L., Klein, D., Calvin, K., Doelman, J.C., Frank, S., Fricko, O., Harmsen, M., Hasegawa, T., Havlik, P., Hilaire, J., Hoesly, R., Horing, J., Popp, A., Stehfest, E., Takahashi, K.	2019	Geosci. Model Dev.	Global emissions pathways under different socioeconomic scenarios for use in CMIP6: a dataset of harmonized emissions trajectories through the end of the century
Godfray, H.C.J., Mason-D'Croz, D., Robinson, S.	2016	Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences	Food system consequences of a fungal disease epidemic in a major crop
Goebel, T., & Britz, W.	2023	The 26th Annual Conference on Global Economic Analysis (Bordeaux, France)	A Computable General Equilibrium Modelling Approach to Assess Biodiversity Effects in Highly Detailed Global Long-Run Analysis
Hasegawa, T., Fujimori, S., Havlik, P., Valin, H., Bodirsky, B.L., Doelman, J.C., Fellmann, T., Kyle, P., Koopman, J.F.L., Lotze-Campen, H., Mason-D'Croz, D., Ochi, Y., Pérez	2018	Nature Climate Change	Risk of increased food insecurity under stringent global climate change mitigation policy

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Domínguez, I., Stehfest, E., Sulser, T.B., Tabeau, A., Takahashi, K., Takakura, J.y., van Meijl, H., van Zeist, W.-J., Wiebe, K., Witzke, P.			
Hasegawa, T., Fujimori, S., Ito, A., Takahashi, K., Masui, T.	2017	Science of the Total Environment	Global land-use allocation model linked to an integrated assessment model
Hasegawa, T., Fujimori, S., Shin, Y., Tanaka, A., Takahashi, K., Masui, T.	2015a	Environmental Science & Technology	Consequence of Climate Mitigation on the Risk of Hunger
Hasegawa, T., Fujimori, S., Takahashi, K., Masui, T.	2015b	Environmental Research Letters	Scenarios for the risk of hunger in the twenty-first century using Shared Socioeconomic Pathways
Hasegawa, T., Sakurai, G., Fujimori, S., Takahashi, K., Hijioka, Y., Masui, T.	2021	Nature Food	Extreme climate events increase risk of global food insecurity and adaptation needs
Havlík, P., Valin, H., Herrero, M., Obersteiner, M., Schmid, E., Rufino, M.C., Mosnier, A., Thornton, P.K., Böttcher, H., Conant, R.T., Frank, S., Fritz, S., Fuss, S., Kraxner, F., Notenbaert, A.	2014	Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences	Climate change mitigation through livestock system transitions
Heimann, T., Delzeit, R.	2024	Ecological Economics	Land for fish: Quantifying the connection between the aquaculture sector and agricultural markets
Henry, R.C., Arneth, A., Jung, M., Rabin, S.S., Rounsevell, M.D., Warren, F., Alexander, P.	2022	Nature Sustainability	Global and regional health and food security under strict conservation scenarios
Hertel, T.W., Baldos, U.L.C.	2016	Global Change and the Challenges of Sustainably Feeding a Growing Planet	Climate Change Impacts in Agriculture
Hertel, T.W., Golub, A.A., Jones, A.D., O'Hare, M., Plevin, R.J., Kammen, D.M.	2010	Bioscience	Effects of US Maize Ethanol on Global Land Use and Greenhouse Gas Emissions: Estimating Market-mediated Responses
Ho, M., Britz, W., Delzeit, R., Leblanc, F., Rosen, R., Schuenemann, F., Weitzel, M.	2020	Journal of Global Economic Analysis	Modelling Consumption and Constructing Long-Term Baselines in Final Demand
Humpenöder, F., Bodirsky, B.L., Weindl, I., Lotze-Campen, H., Linder, T., Popp, A.	2022	Nature	Projected environmental benefits of replacing beef with microbial protein
Humpenöder, F., Popp, A., Dietrich, J.P., Klein, D., Lotze-Campen, H., Bonsch, M., Bodirsky, B.L., Weindl, I., Stevanovic, M., Müller, C.	2014	Environmental Research Letters	Investigating afforestation and bioenergy CCS as climate change mitigation strategies
Islam, S., Cenacchi, N., Sulser, T.B., Gbegbelegbe, S., Hareau, G., Kleinwechter, U., Mason-D'Croz, D., Nedumaran, S., Robertson, R., Robinson, S., Wiebe, K.	2016	Global Food Security	Structural approaches to modeling the impact of climate change and adaptation technologies on crop yields and food security
Jansakoo, T., Sekizawa, S., Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T., Oshiro, K.	2024	Sustainability Science	Benefits of air quality for human health resulting from climate change mitigation through dietary change and food loss prevention policy
Janssens, C., Havlík, P., Boere, E., Palazzo, A., Mosnier, A., Leclère, D., Balkovič, J., Maertens, M.	2022	Nature Food	A sustainable future for Africa through continental free trade and agricultural development

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Janssens, C., Havlík, P., Krisztin, T., Baker, J., Frank, S., Hasegawa, T., Leclère, D., Ohrel, S., Ragnauth, S., Schmid, E., Valin, H., Van Lipzig, N., Maertens, M.	2020	Nature Climate Change	Global hunger and climate change adaptation through international trade
Jansson, T., Säll, S.	2018	Climate Change Economics	Environmental Consumption Taxes on Animal Food Products to Mitigate Greenhouse Gas Emissions from the European Union
Jafari, Y., Himics, M., Britz, W., & Beckman, J.	2021	Canadian Journal of Agricultural Economics/Revue canadienne d'agroeconomie	It is all in the details: A bilateral approach for modelling trade agreements at the tariff line
Jafari, Y., Britz, W., Dudu, H., Roson, R., Sartori, M.	2020	German Journal of Agricultural Economics	Can food waste reduction in Europe help to increase food availability and reduce pressure on natural resources globally?
Jeetze, P.J., Weindl, I., Johnson, J.A., Borrelli, P., Panagos, P., Molina Bacca, E.J., Karstens, K., Humpenöder, F., Dietrich, J.P., Minoli, S., Müller, C., Lotze-Campen, H., Popp, A.	2023	Nature Communications	Projected landscape-scale repercussions of global action for climate and biodiversity protection
JGCRI	2023	NA	GCAM Documentation (Version 7.0)
Kavallari, A., Fellmann, T., Gay, S.H.	2014	Food Security	Shocks in economic growth shocking effects for food security?
Klein, D., Luderer, G., Kriegler, E., Strefler, J., Bauer, N., Leimbach, M., Popp, A., Dietrich, J.P., Humpenöder, F., Lotze-Campen, H., Edenhofer, O.	2014	Climatic Change	The value of bioenergy in low stabilization scenarios: an assessment using REMIND-MAGPIE
Kompas, T., Che, T.N., Grafton, R.Q.	2024	Scientific Reports	Global impacts of heat and water stress on food production and severe food insecurity
Kozicka, M., Havlík, P., Valin, H., Wollenberg, E., Deppermann, A., Leclère, D., Lauri, P., Moses, R., Boere, E., Frank, S., Davis, C., Park, E., Gurwick, N.	2023	Nature Communications	Feeding climate and biodiversity goals with novel plant-based meat and milk alternatives
Kyle, P., Ollenburger, M., Zhang, X., Niazi, H., Durga, S., Ou, Y.	2023	Earth's Future	Assessing Multi-Dimensional Impacts of Achieving Sustainability Goals by Projecting the Sustainable Agriculture Matrix Into the Future
Laborde, D., Herforth, A., Headey, D., de Pee, S.	2021a	Nature Food	COVID-19 pandemic leads to greater depth of unaffordability of healthy and nutrient-adequate diets in low- and middle-income countries
Laborde, D., Mamun, A., Martin, W., Piñeiro, V., Vos, R.	2021b	Nature Communications	Agricultural subsidies and global greenhouse gas emissions
Laborde, D., Martin, W., Vos, R.	2021c	Agricultural Economics	Impacts of COVID-19 on global poverty, food security, and diets: Insights from global model scenario analysis
Laborde, D., Torero, M.	2023	Science and Innovations for Food Systems Transformation	Modeling Actions for Transforming Agrifood Systems

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Laborde, D., Valin, H.	2012	Climate Change Economics	Modeling Land-Use Changes in a Global Cge: Assessing the Eu Biofuel Mandates with the Mirage-Biof Model
Laborde Debuquet, D., Martin, W.	2018	Agricultural Economics	Implications of the global growth slowdown for rural poverty
Latka, C., Parodi, A., Hal, O., Heckelei, T., Leip, A., Witzke, H.-P., Zanten, H.H.E.	2022	Resources, Conservation and Recycling	Competing for food waste – Policies’ market feedbacks imply sustainability tradeoffs
Le Page, Y., West, T.O., Link, R., Patel, P.	2016	Geoscientific Model Development	Downscaling land use and land cover from the Global Change Assessment Model for coupling with Earth system models
Leclère, D., Obersteiner, M., et al.	2020	Nature	Bending the curve of terrestrial biodiversity needs an integrated strategy
Lucas, P.L., Vuuren, D.P., Olivier, J.G.J., Elzen, M.G.J.	2007	Environmental Science & Policy	Long-term reduction potential of non-CO2 greenhouse gases
Maire, J., Alexander, P., Anthoni, P., Huntingford, C., Pugh, T.A.M., Rabin, S., Rounsevell, M., Arneth, A.	2022a	Springer International Publishing	A New Modelling Approach to Adaptation-Mitigation in the Land System
Maire, J., Sattar, A., Henry, R., Warren, F., Merkle, M., Rounsevell, M., Alexander, P.	2022b	Lancet Planetary Health	How different COVID-19 recovery paths affect human health, environmental sustainability, and food affordability: a modelling study
Mason-D’Croz, D., Bogard, J.R., Herrero, M., Robinson, S., Sulser, T.B., Wiebe, K., Willenbockel, D., Godfray, H.C.J.	2020	Nature Food	Modelling the global economic consequences of a major African swine fever outbreak in China
Mason-D’Croz, D., Bogard, J.R., Sulser, T.B., Cenacchi, N., Dunston, S., Herrero, M., Wiebe, K.	2019a	Lancet Planet Health	Gaps between fruit and vegetable production, demand, and recommended consumption at global and national levels: an integrated modelling study
Mason-D’Croz, D., Sulser, T.B., Wiebe, K., Rosegrant, M.W., Lowder, S.K., Nin-Pratt, A., Willenbockel, D., Robinson, S., Zhu, T., Cenacchi, N., Dunston, S., Robertson, R.D.	2019b	World Development	Agricultural investments and hunger in Africa modeling potential contributions to SDG2 – Zero Hunger
Mauser, W., Klepper, G., Zabel, F., Delzeit, R., Hank, T., Putzenlechner, B., Calzadilla, A.	2015	Nature Communications	Global biomass production potentials exceed expected future demand without the need for cropland expansion
Merfort, L., Bauer, N., Humpenöder, F., Klein, D., Strefler, J., Popp, A., Luderer, G., Kriegler, E.	2023	Nature Climate Change	Bioenergy-induced land-use-change emissions with sectorally fragmented policies
Mittenzwei, K., Fjellstad, W., Dramstad, W., Flaten, O., Gjertsen, A.K., Loureiro, M., Prestegard, S.S.	2007	Ecological Indicators	Opportunities and limitations in assessing the multifunctionality of agriculture within the CAPRI model
Molotoks, A., Stehfest, E., Doelman, J., Albanito, F., Fitton, N., Dawson, T.P., Smith, P.	2018	Global Change Biology	Global projections of future cropland expansion to 2050 and direct impacts on biodiversity and carbon storage
Moore, F.C., Baldos, U., Hertel, T., Diaz, D.	2017	Nature Communications	New science of climate change impacts on agriculture implies higher social cost of carbon

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Nelson, G.C., Valin, H., et al.	2014	Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences	Climate change effects on agriculture: Economic responses to biophysical shocks
Niazi, H., Wild, T.B., Turner, S.W.D., Graham, N.T., Hejazi, M., Msangi, S., Kim, S., Lamontagne, J.R., Zhao, M.	2024	Nature Sustainability	Global peak water limit of future groundwater withdrawals
Ohashi, H., Hasegawa, T., Hirata, A., Fujimori, S., Takahashi, K., Tsuyama, I., Nakao, K., Kominami, Y., Tanaka, N., Hijioka, Y., Matsui, T.	2019	Nature Communications	Biodiversity can benefit from climate stabilization despite adverse side effects of land-based mitigation
Osendarp, S., Akuoku, J.K., Black, R.E., Headey, D., Ruel, M., Scott, N., Shekar, M., Walker, N., Flory, A., Haddad, L., Laborde, D., Stegmuller, A., Thomas, M., Heidkamp, R.	2021	Nature Food	The COVID-19 crisis will exacerbate maternal and child undernutrition and child mortality in low- and middle-income countries
Patel, P., Edmonds, J., Kim, S., Zhao, X., Sheng, D., Waldhoff, S., Lochner, E.	2023	NA	Core Model Proposal# 332: GCAM Macro-Economic Module (KLEM Version)
Philippidis, G., Bartelings, H., Helming, J., M'barek, R., Smeets, E., Meijl, H.	2019	Economic Systems Research	Levelling the playing field for EU biomass usage
Philippidis, G., Ferrer-Pérez, H., Gracia-de-Rentería, P., M'Barek, R., Sanjuán López, A.I.	2021	Resources, Conservation and Recycling	Eating your greens: a global sustainability assessment
Philippidis, G., Shutes, L., M'barek, R., Ronzon, T., Tabeau, A., Meijl, H.	2020	Journal of Cleaner Production	Snakes and ladders: World development pathways' synergies and trade-offs through the lens of the Sustainable Development Goals
Popp, A., Rose, S.K., Calvin, K., Van Vuuren, D.P., Dietrich, J.P., Wise, M., Stehfest, E., Humpenöder, F., Kyle, P., Van Vliet, J., Bauer, N., Lotze-Campen, H., Klein, D., Kriegler, E.	2014	Climatic Change	Land-use transition for bioenergy and climate stabilization: model comparison of drivers, impacts and interactions with other land use based mitigation options
Potopová, V., Musiolková, M., Gaviria, J.A., Trnka, M., Havlík, P., Boere, E., Trifan, T., Muntean, N., Chawdhery, M.R.A.	2023	Agriculture	Water Consumption by Livestock Systems from 2002–2020 and Predictions for 2030–2050 under Climate Changes in the Czech Republic
Rabin, S.S., Alexander, P., Henry, R., Anthoni, P., Pugh, T.A.M., Rounsevell, M., Arneth, A.	2020	Earth Syst. Dynam.	Impacts of future agricultural change on ecosystem service indicators
Ramos, R.G., Scarabello, M.d.C., Costa, W., Andrade, P.R., Soterroni, A., Ramos, F.M.	2023	International Journal of Geographical Information Science	A mathematical programming approach for downscaling multi-layered multi-constraint land-use models
Ringler, C., Willenbockel, D., Perez, N., Rosegrant, M., Zhu, T., Matthews, N.	2016	Journal of Environmental Studies and Sciences	Global linkages among energy, food and water: an economic assessment
Roe, S., Streck, C., Obersteiner, M., Frank, S., Griscom, B., Drouet, L., Fricko, O., Gusti, M., Harris, N., Hasegawa, T., Hausfather, Z., Havlík, P., House, J., Nabuurs, G.-J., Popp, A., Sánchez, M.J.S., Sanderman, J., Smith, P., Stehfest, E., Lawrence, D.	2019	Nature Climate Change	Contribution of the land sector to a 1.5 °C world

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Roelfsema, M., Soest, H.L., et al.	2020	Nature Communications	Taking stock of national climate policies to evaluate implementation of the Paris Agreement
Rosegrant, M.W., Sulser, T.B., Dunston, S., Mishra, A., Cenacchi, N., Gebretsadik, Y., Robertson, R., Thomas, T., Wiebe, K.	2024	Global Food Security	Food and nutrition security under changing climate and socioeconomic conditions
Rosegrant, M.W., Zhu, T., Msangi, S., Sulser, T.	2008	Review of Agricultural Economics	Global Scenarios for Biofuels: Impacts and Implications
Schmitz, C., Meijl, H., Kyle, P., Nelson, G.C., Fujimori, S., Gurgel, A., Havlik, P., Heyhoe, E., Croz, D.M., Popp, A., Sands, R., Tabeau, A., Mensbrugge, D., Lampe, M., Wise, M., Blanc, E., Hasegawa, T., Kavallari, A., Valin, H.	2013	Agricultural Economics	Land-use change trajectories up to 2050: insights from a global agro-economic model comparison
Smeets Křístková, Z., Cui, H.D., Rokicki, B., M'Barek, R., Meijl, H., Boysen-Urban, K.	2025	Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews	European green bonds, carbon tax and crowding-out: The economic, social and environmental impacts of the EU's green investments under different financing scenarios
Snyder, A., Calvin, K.V., Phillips, M., Ruane, A.C.	2019	Geoscientific Model Development	A crop yield change emulator for use in GCAM and similar models: Persephone v1.0
Spillias, S., Valin, H., Batka, M., Sperling, F., Havlík, P., Leclère, D., Cottrell, R.S., O'Brien, K.R., McDonald-Madden, E.	2023	Nature Sustainability	Reducing global land-use pressures with seaweed farming
Springmann, M., Clark, M., Mason-D'Croz, D., Wiebe, K., Bodirsky, B.L., Lassaletta, L., de Vries, W., Vermeulen, S.J., Herrero, M., Carlson, K.M., Jonell, M., Troell, M., DeClerck, F., Gordon, L.J., Zurayk, R., Scarborough, P., Rayner, M., Loken, B., Fanzo, J., Godfray, H.C.J., Tilman, D., Rockström, J., Willett, W.	2018	Nature	Options for keeping the food system within environmental limits
Springmann, M., Freund, F.	2022	Nature Communications	Options for reforming agricultural subsidies from health, climate, and economic perspectives
Springmann, M., Mason-D'Croz, D., Robinson, S., Garnett, T., Godfray, H.C.J., Gollin, D., Rayner, M., Ballon, P., Scarborough, P.	2016	The Lancet	Global and regional health effects of future food production under climate change: a modelling study
Stehfest, E., Bouwman, L., van Vuuren, D.P., den Elzen, M.G.J., Eickhout, B., Kabat, P.	2009	Climatic Change	Climate benefits of changing diet
Stehfest, E., Vuuren, D., Bouwman, L., Kram, T.	2014	Netherlands Environmental Assessment Agency (PBL)	Integrated assessment of global environmental change with IMAGE 3.0: Model description and policy applications
Thomson, A.M., Kyle, G.P., Zhang, X., Bandaru, V., West, T.O., Wise, M.A., Izaurrealde, R.C., Calvin, K.V.	2014	Global Environmental Change	The contribution of future agricultural trends in the US Midwest to global climate change mitigation
Valin, H., Sands, R.D., Mensbrugge, D., Nelson, G.C., Ahammad, H., Blanc, E., Bodirsky, B., Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T.	2013	Agricultural Economics	The future of food demand: understanding differences in global economic models

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Havlik, P., Heyhoe, E., Kyle, P., Mason-D'Croz, D., Paltsev, S., Rolinski, S., Tabeau, A., Meijl, H., Lampe, M., Willenbockel, D.			
van den Bos Verma, M., Koch, S., Bartelings, H., van den Burg, S.	2023	Wageningen Economic Research, The Netherlands	The macro-economic effects of increasing seaweed production in the North Sea Region
Van Ha, P., Kompas, T., Nguyen, H.T.M., Long, C.H.	2017	Economic Modelling	Building a better trade model to determine local effects: A regional and intertemporal GTAP model
van Meijl, H., Havlik, P., Lotze-Campen, H., Stehfest, E., Witzke, P., Domínguez, I.P., Bodirsky, B.L., van Dijk, M., Doelman, J., Fellmann, T., Humpenöder, F., Koopman, J.F.L., Müller, C., Popp, A., Tabeau, A., Valin, H., van Zeist, W.-J.	2018	Environmental Research Letters	Comparing impacts of climate change and mitigation on global agriculture by 2050
van Meijl, H., Shutes, L., Valin, H., Stehfest, E., van Dijk, M., Kuiper, M., Tabeau, A., van Zeist, W.-J., Hasegawa, T., Havlik, P.	2020a	Global Food Security	Modelling alternative futures of global food security: Insights from FOODSECURE
van Meijl, H., Tabeau, A., Stehfest, E., Doelman, J., Lucas, P.	2020b	Environmental Research Communications	How food secure are the green, rocky and middle roads: food security effects in different world development paths
van Vuuren, D.P., Stehfest, E., Gernaat, D.E.H.J., Doelman, J.C., van den Berg, M., Harmsen, M., de Boer, H.S., Bouwman, L.F., Daioglou, V., Edelenbosch, O.Y., Girod, B., Kram, T., Lassaletta, L., Lucas, P.L., van Meijl, H., Müller, C., van Ruijven, B.J., van der Sluis, S., Tabeau, A.	2017	Global Environmental Change	Energy, land-use and greenhouse gas emissions trajectories under a green growth paradigm
von Jeetze, P.J., Weindl, I., Johnson, J.A., Borrelli, P., Panagos, P., Molina Bacca, E.J., Karstens, K., Humpenöder, F., Dietrich, J.P., Minoli, S., Müller, C., Lotze-Campen, H., Popp, A.	2023	Nature Communications	Projected landscape-scale repercussions of global action for climate and biodiversity protection
von Lampe, M., Willenbockel, D., Ahammad, H., Blanc, E., Cai, Y., Calvin, K., Fujimori, S., Hasegawa, T., Havlik, P., Heyhoe, E., Kyle, P., Lotze-Campen, H., Mason d'Croz, D., Nelson, G.C., Sands, R.D., Schmitz, C., Tabeau, A., Valin, H., van der Mensbrugghe, D., van Meijl, H.	2014	Agricultural Economics	Why do global long-term scenarios for agriculture differ? An overview of the AgMIP Global Economic Model Intercomparison
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Willett, W., Rockström, J., et al.	2019	The Lancet	Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT–Lancet Commission on healthy diets from sustainable food systems
Wise, M., Muratori, M., Kyle, P.	2017	Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment	Biojet fuels and emissions mitigation in aviation: An integrated assessment modeling analysis
Wilts, R., Latka, C., Britz, W.	2021	Climate Risk Management	Who is most vulnerable to climate change induced yield changes? A dynamic long run household analysis in lower income countries
Zeng, Y., Rao, Y., Xu, Z.	2023	The International Journal of Health Planning and Management	Anticipated cancer burden of low individual fruit and vegetable consumption under climate change: A modelling study in China
Zhao, M., Wild, T.B., Graham, N.T., Kim, S., Binsted, M., Chowdhury, A.F.M.K., Msangi, S., Patel, P.L., Vernon, C.R., Niazi, H., Li, H.Y., Abeshu, G.W.	2023	Geoscientific Model Development Discussions	GCAM-GLORY v1.0: Representing Global Reservoir Water Storage in a Multisector Human-Earth System Model
Zhao, X., Mignone, B.K., Wise, M.A., McJeon, H.C.	2024	Nature Communications	Trade-offs in land-based carbon removal measures under 1.5 °C and 2 °C futures
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845 Appendix C

846 This is a list of various models not included in the evaluation presented in Section 3, yet they remain
847 valuable tools for analysing food systems.

848 **Partial Equilibrium (PE) Models**

849 *GAPS*: The Global Agriculture Perspectives System (GAPS) model is a partial equilibrium model developed
850 by the Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) that includes 34 crop and 4 livestock activities (227).

851 **Computable General Equilibrium (CGE) Models**

852 *ENVISAGE*: The Environmental Impact and Sustainability Applied General Equilibrium (ENVISAGE) model
853 focuses on the interactions between the economy and the environment, with detailed agricultural and
854 land-use components, developed by the World Bank (228).

855 *EPPA*: Emissions Prediction and Policy Analysis (EPPA) is a CGE model used to project economic activity,
856 energy use and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions for 12 world regions through the year 2100 developed by
857 the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (229, 230).

858 *FARM*: The Future Agricultural Resources Model (FARM) is a global CGE model with particular focus on
859 agriculture, forestry and energy sectors, developed by the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA)
860 (231).

861 **Input-Output Models**

862 *MRIO*: The model is designed to track financial and quantity flows between countries and major economic
863 sectors, including agriculture and food (e.g., (232)).

864 *FABIO*: The Food and Agriculture Biomass Input–Output model (FABIO), a set of multiregional supply, use
865 and input–output tables in physical units, that document the complex flows of agricultural and food
866 products in the global economy (233).

867 *AMRIO*: Adaptive Multi-Regional Input–Output (AMRIO) models were developed to overcome limitations of
868 MRIO on the lack of flexibility in the economic system and the inability to assess the consequence of a
869 shock on the supply side (234), and have been applied to assess disruptions in global food supply chains
870 (235).

871 **Biophysical process model**

872 *GLEAM*: The Global Livestock Environmental Assessment Model (GLEAM) was developed by the FAO to
873 enable the quantification of greenhouse gases emissions arising from the production of the 11 main
874 livestock commodities globally at a spatial resolution of 0.05 decimal degrees (236, 237).

875 *BIOSPACS*: The Balancing Inputs and Outputs for the Sustainable Production of Agricultural Commodities
876 (BIOSPACS) is a model developed to quantify nitrogen and phosphorus flows between five interacting
877 components in the food system and those across the system's boundary as a function of food demand
878 (238)

879 *BioBaM*: The Biomass Balance Model (BioBaM) is a biophysical accounting model that calculates the
880 balance between biomass supply and biomass demand at the level of 11 world regions, for 14 biomass
881 demand categories and corresponding primary commodities (43, 239-241).

882 *SOL-model*: The SOL-model is a bottom-up, mass-flow model of agricultural production and the food sector
883 (42, 242).

884 *FALAFEL*: The Flux Assessment of Linked Agricultural Food production, Energy potentials and Land-use
885 change (FALAFEL) (243) and its successor, the Country-Level Land Availability Model for Agriculture (C-

886 LLAMA) (244) model, are bottom-up models using linear projections of global food supply, agricultural
887 efficiencies, and yields to produce trajectories for land use, carbon capture based on FAOSTAT database.
888 The model can explore scenarios up to 2050.

889 **Others**

890 We list below other types of modelling frameworks using different approaches from partial and general
891 equilibrium integrated assessment and input-output models.

892 Food circularity optimisation, such as *CiFoS*: Circular Food Systems (CiFoS) is a biophysical data-driven food
893 system optimization model that accounts for the potential to use natural processes and cycles to ensure
894 that waste or by-products from one process form the input of another process (114).

895 System dynamics, such as *Felix*: The Full of Economic-Environment Linkages and Integration dx/dt (Felix) is
896 a system dynamics model of global social, economic, and environmental Earth systems (116, 245).

897 Multi-objective optimisation, such as *MOO-GAPS* is a multi-objective optimisation model that aims to
898 optimise more than one objective when assessing different options of land use allocation. This type of
899 model can be used to assess the frontier of pareto-efficient land use to produce food and quantify trade-
900 offs between multiple objectives with a particular focus on beef production (46).

901 Agricultural and land use accounting model, such as *FABLE Calculator*: The food, agriculture, biodiversity,
902 land, and energy (FABLE) Calculator is an integrated model designed to help overcome technical and cost
903 requirement barriers related to existing integrated assessment models. It is an open-source, Excel-based
904 food and land-use system assessment tool, that is relatively easy to learn and use yet complex enough to
905 provide reasonable estimates of multi-objective impacts (33, 132, 182).

906 *LCA*: life cycle assessments aim to quantify the total impacts of a product, in this case food commodities,
907 throughout the entire life cycle (246, 247).

908 *Physical trade flows*: Physical trade flow models calculate impacts of food production and consumption
909 considering trade flows based on trade matrices (248, 249).

910 *Mass-balance model*: Mass-balance models can be used to assess impacts of a specific aspect of the food
911 system (250, 251), e.g., food loss and waste, and explore intervention scenarios.

912 *Regression-based model*: Changes in the food system over time, for instance plant-based and animal-based
913 calorie demand, can be simulated using time-dependent regression models (41).

914 *Multi-models or ensemble models*: The use of multiple models, some of which have been described above,
915 whereby simulations are run independently but with the same scenario settings is increasingly used to
916 capture some of the uncertainty pertaining to using different modelling approaches and to provide an
917 envelope of model projections (7, 84, 201, 252, 253)

918

919 Appendix D

920 Table D1. Description of dimensions used to compare models in Table 1 (main text).

Dimension	Description
Health impacts of diets	Evaluation of impacts of different diets on human health
Average food affordability	Simulation on the change in food affordability, accounting for price of food commodities, and available income or wage.
Undernourishment	Simulation of sufficiency of minimum requirements of dietary energy and food quality
Employment	Consideration of the impact of the agrifood system on employment.
Trade	Simulation of the trade of agricultural products
Economic return	The extent to which economic returns from agricultural production are modelled
Emissions	Emissions from the food system that can be simulated
Biodiversity loss	The assessment of the impact of the food system on biodiversity
Water resource use	The extent to which water resources, including water demand and availability of surface and groundwater, are simulated in the model
Biogeochemical flow	The extent to which flows and cycles of nutrients (e.g., nitrogen and phosphorus) are simulated
Technology/practice (AFOLU measures)	The Agriculture, Forestry and Land Use (AFOLU) measures to mitigate GHG emissions that can be considered
Demographics	Simulation of population change and its impacts on the food system
GDP	Inclusion of GDP and its relation to the food system
Food demand	The extent to which models simulate the current and future food demand endogenously
Agrifood and climate Policies	Policies and economic instruments, e.g., agricultural subsidies and taxes, that can be simulated
Land-use change	The simulation of land use change and land use intensity
Bioenergy supply	The types of bioenergy feedstocks that are modelled (e.g., 1 st , 2 nd and 3 rd generation)
Chronic climate change impacts	The inclusion of various long-term climate change (change in temperature, precipitation, drought, flooding) impacts on and their effect on agriculture (yield, heat stress, supply chain disruptions)
Acute shocks	The extent to which acute shocks, such as extreme climate events, pandemics or economic conflicts are simulated
Maturation of technology/innovation	The extent to which models endogenously represent the drivers of learning curves, technological advancements, and associated cost reductions in models
Vested interests and coalitions	The extent to which models internally represent the political economy of change, including the vested interests of powerful actors and their coalitions, which either foster or resist transformation
Primary production	Number of primary or raw agricultural products are included
Aquaculture and fisheries commodities	Number of aquaculture and wild catch fisheries commodities included ^[2]
Domestic transport and storage	The endogenous modelling of logistics and distribution network, including transport, storage, and delivery
Processed food commodities	Number of processed food commodities are included
Demand shift	Simulation of changes in food demand and diet shifts
Novel food and feed	The consideration of novel food (e.g., cultured meat) and feed (e.g., seaweed additive in feed) and their impacts on substitution
Waste and loss	Assessment of food waste and loss for different types of food, and its impact on the food system

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Table D2. Justification and supporting references for the assessment of models provided in Table 1 (main text).

Dimension	Partial equilibrium models (i.e., AgLINK-COSIMO, CAPRI, GLOBIOM, IMPACT, MAgPIE, SIMPLE-G)	General equilibrium models (i.e., AIM, CGEBox, DART-BIO, GTAP, GTEM, MAGNET, MIRAGRODEP)	Integrated assessment models (GCAM and IMAGE)	Coupled models (i.e., GLOBE-IMPACT, LandSyMM, IMAGE-MAGNET, MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM, REMIND-MAgPIE)
Sustainability outcomes				
<i>Health impacts of diets</i>	A-E Most models do not simulate health impacts explicitly, however MAgPIE has been used to project the change in food consumption on body mass index and obesity (9, 254, 255). IMPACT has been linked to health models to simulate macronutrient and caloric intake (kcal/day) for the EAT Lancet recommendations (9) and anticipated disease burden of low individual fruit and vegetable consumption (206, 255)	E Models have not been used yet to assess health impacts of diets but MAGNET has been linked to a health model to assess health impacts of removing agricultural subsidies (Springmann and Freund 2022)	E Models have not been used yet to assess the health impacts of diets	A-E Health impacts have been simulated using LandSyMM modelling framework (256, 257) and can be simulated through model coupling, e.g., with IMPACT and MAgPIE
<i>Average food affordability</i>	A-C Food prices are simulated but no simulation of total household income (258)	A-E Food affordability can be simulated by considering availability, price, consumption, per capita food expenditure and welfare at country level for instance in MAGNET (85, 259) and MIRAGRODEP (63)	C-E Food prices are simulated but household income and wages are exogenous (260)	A Food affordability could be simulated via coupled PE and CGE models, GLOBE and IMPACT (261) and with LandSyMM modelling framework (257)
<i>Undernourishment</i>	A-E Most models have been used to simulate nutrient availability. CAPRI, GLOBIOM, IMPACT and MAgPIE have been used to simulate various indicators of food security, including calorie availability and number of people at risk of hunger (84). IMPACT has been used to simulate future average food supply and population at risk of hunger (225, 262). Aglink-cosimo has been used to model food calories per capita (263)	A-E Scenarios of future risk of hunger have been explored with AIM (264) and MAGNET using calorie intake per person per day (265). MIRAGRODEP has been used to link the COVID-19 pandemic with changes in income and the impact on diets (266)	A Scenarios of future changes in dietary energy availability have been explored with GCAM and IMAGE using calorie intake per person per day (84)	A Risk of hunger can be simulated, for instance by coupling GLOBE and IMPACT models (262), or via IAMs (253)
<i>Employment</i>	A-E Only MAgPIE considers the number of people employed in crop and livestock production (267)	A employment impacts of changes in the food system can be investigated, e.g., with MAGNET model (268)	B-E Labor force participation rate and Labor productivity growth rate are exogenous variables (260)	A-E Coupled CGE models, e.g., GLOBE, can simulate labour force (261)
<i>Trade</i>	A Trade of agricultural products is simulated either as net trade, for instance in IMPACT, or bilateral trade flows are simulated based on cost competitiveness and homogeneous good assumption. Tariffs and trade costs (e.g., CIF) are considered (269, 270)	A Models include detailed representation of global trade across all sectors of the economy and are often used to assess the impacts of trade policies or trade disruptions on the economy (36)	A-E International trade can be simulated by one of two methods: (1) Heckscher-Ohlin (single global markets), or (2) Armington Style Trade (global trade with regionally-differentiated markets with Armington-like preferences between domestic and imported commodities) (271). IMAGE requires coupling with MAGNET to simulate trade.	A Coupled CGE and PE models can simulate trade in agriculture and other economic sectors (224)
<i>Economic return</i>	A-C Economic returns in the agricultural sector can be simulated from agricultural production and prices (258)	A Value of production in all sectors of the economy is simulated and change in	A-E Profit is used to determine decisions in the land system based on logit formulation (64)	A-E Changes in income can be simulated via coupled PE and/or CGE models (258)

		household income can be evaluated (272)		
<i>Emissions</i>	A All models simulate emissions from agriculture although some models do not account for land use change emissions, e.g., IMPACT.	A Coverage of emissions in all sectors of the economy but land-based negative emissions are captured exogenously or at aggregated spatial scales, unless coupled with a spatially explicit land use model, e.g., AIM-CGE (273). CGEBox calculates carbon stock changes at AEZ level (274).	A Comprehensive coverage of emissions in all sectors of the economy including the land sector at regional level in GCAM (275). IMAGE includes all AFOLU emissions (94)	A Coupled models can simulate emissions in agriculture, land use and other sectors of the economy (276)
<i>Biodiversity loss</i>	A-E Land use change can be linked to biodiversity indices, e.g., Biodiversity Intactness Index (BII) in GLOBIOM and MAGPIE (201)	A-E AIM has been used to model biodiversity indices, e.g., BII (201) and vertebrate species loss as a result of land-based mitigation (277). Similar for CGEBox in Goebel and Britz (278).	A-E IMAGE has been used to assess impacts of land use change on species habitats and BII (201) and loss of biodiversity hotspots (279)	A-E Coupled models can simulate biodiversity from land use change via coupled PE or IAM model (201). MAGPIE has been coupled with an ecosystem service model (280)
<i>Water resource use</i>	A-E Water footprint from irrigation and livestock consumption is considered in GLOBIOM (281). IMPACT includes a global hydrology model (IGHM) that simulates runoff, crop water allocation and stress spatially (261)	A-E Most models do not simulate water resource use from agriculture but some models differentiate between irrigated and rainfed agricultural production, e.g., some versions of GTAP (211, 282) and CGEBox (214)	A In IMAGE, the hydrological cycle is represented by linking with LPJmL (283). GCAM includes water markets and the impact of water prices on water supply (284)	A Coupled models can be used to simulate water resource use from agriculture (20, 218, 261)
<i>Biogeochemical flow</i>	A GLOBIOM has been used to quantify regional nitrogen surplus boundaries for different nitrogen mitigation options (285). MAGPIE has detailed Nitrogen (N) flow module (286).	E Limited representation of biogeochemical flows.	A IMAGE model has a detailed representation of nitrogen and phosphorus cycles (287, 288) whereas GCAM simulates N and P fertilizer production and use (288, 289)	A Biogeochemical flows can be simulated via coupled PE models or vegetation models, e.g., LPJ-GUESS for IMAGE-MAGNET or LandSyMM (222, 290)
Drivers of change				
<i>Technology / practice (AFOLU measures)</i>	A PE models, particularly CAPRI, GLOBIOM and MAGPIE have been used to simulate a large range of non-CO ₂ agricultural emissions and land based mitigation measures (7, 252, 291-294). GLOBIOM has been used to simulate CO ₂ mitigation measures on cropland (295). IMPACT has been used to model the effect of new crop technologies on the impact of climate change (296) however it does not simulate land-based mitigation.	A-E AIM/CGE includes a range of mitigation options, including afforestation and BECCS (159). MAGNET has been used to simulate agricultural non-CO ₂ emission reduction potential (7) but requires IMAGE to simulate LULUCF.	A-B In GCAM, afforestation/reforestation, avoided deforestation, and BECCS are explicitly considered as AFOLU measures (275) and agricultural technologies can be simulated exogenously (297). Trend in agricultural technologies and the value of agricultural land use to inform afforestation in IMAGE are taken from MAGNET model (298).	A-E Agricultural technologies and land-based mitigation measures can be simulated via coupled PE or CGE models (299)
<i>Demographics</i>	B Population is considered exogenously as a driver of food demand (258).	B Population is considered exogenously as a driver of food demand (300).	B Population is considered exogenously as a driver of demand (258).	B Population is considered exogenously as a driver of demand (258).
<i>GDP</i>	B GDP is considered exogenously as a driver of food demand (258).	A GDP can be simulated exogenously or included exogenously as a driver (300, 301)	A-B GCAM v7 incorporates a macroeconomic module that allows for fully endogenizing GDP responses (302). IMAGE requires coupling with MAGNET to simulate GDP and its impact on food demand.	A-B GDP can be simulated via a CGE model (e.g., REMIND, MAGNET, GLOBE) or a macroeconomic model (MACRO) in the case of MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM (218). GDP is included exogenously in LandSyMM (67).

<i>Food demand</i>	A Food demand is calculated endogenously, often considering income and price effects but with limited representation of other drivers, e.g., education, local traditions, degree of urbanization (258)	A food demand is simulated based on utility functions using a variety of approaches, e.g., Linear Expenditure System (LES), constant-elasticity-of-substitution (CES) and Constant Differences in Elasticities (CDE) utility functions (258, 303)	A-B GCAM has an exogenous trend in price elasticity depending on time (258) whereas IMAGE uses MAGNET outputs on food demand (68)	A Food demand is simulated endogenously using partial equilibrium models (GLOBIOM, MAGPIE), CGE model (e.g., MAGNET) or a specialised food demand model (e.g., MAIDADS for LandSyMM) (304)
<i>Policy</i>	A-B Most models can simulate policies as shocks, particularly carbon price, on agriculture (84). In addition, CAPRI and IMPACT have been used to simulate the impact of taxes on final meat and dairy products on emissions and health (93, 305). Aglink-COSIMO has been used to simulate trade policies, e.g., ban, quotas and taxes (306) and mandates, tax credits, import and export tariffs (307). CAPRI can simulate several policy instruments endogenously, such as subsidised exports, administrative stocks and tariffs (Britz and Witzke 2014).	A Taxes (e.g., on carbon or processed food) can be modelled exogenously, e.g., in GTAP (308) and DART-BIO (309). Carbon price and emission trading scheme can be simulated endogenously, e.g., in AIM/CGE (310). Agricultural subsidies can be simulated with MIRAGRODEP (311) and MAGNET (312). Green investments, budget-neutrality and import tariffs can be simulated with MAGNET (313, 314). All CGE models capture tariffs, partly as very fine-grained resolution for agri-food such as in Jafari <i>et al.</i> (315).	A-B Taxes, technology subsidies and emission/land constraints can be simulated in GCAM and carbon price can be simulated endogenously (260, 316). IMAGE considers policies exogenously from MAGNET model.	A Models can simulate policies, including carbon price endogenously (317).
<i>Land-use change</i>	A Most models simulate all major land uses endogenously and spatially (152). IMPACT model only assesses changes in agricultural and non-agricultural land uses. Aglink-Cosimo simulates land use change at regional level.	A-E Most models include land use change at regional or country level. All major land uses can be simulated dynamically in AIM (318), and downscaled to obtain gridded land use at 50km resolution (273, 319). MAGNET requires coupling with IMAGE to model land use change.	A Land use change can be simulated at grid level (50km) in the case of IMAGE (150) or regional level and downscaled to gridded level in the case of GCAM (320).	A Land use change can be simulated via coupled PE or IAM model (321) or via land use model PLUMv2 for LandSyMM (222).
<i>Bioenergy</i>	A First and second generation biofuels are considered in most models (258, 322, 323). The feedstock production is simulated endogenously but the demand is exogenous in most models, except Aglink-Cosimo, which simulates demand for biofuels endogenously (324). Biofuel from seaweed and forestry residues can also simulated exogenously (325).	A-E Demand for first and second generation biofuels is considered endogenously in AIM (300, 326), GTAP (327), MIRAGRODEP (328) and DART-BIO (329). Bioenergy and other applications from biomass resources are often captured through splitting up the GTAP database, for instance to assess bio-plastics (Escobar <i>et al.</i> 2018)	A First and second generation biofuels are modelled, as well as biofuel from seaweed and forestry residues in GCAM (321, 330, 331). IMAGE simulates first and second generation bioenergy potential and demand (321, 332).	A-B Bioenergy supply and demand can be modelled endogenously, e.g., in REMIND-MAGPIE and IMAGE framework (65, 333) but demand is exogenous in LandSyMM (222).
<i>Climate change impacts</i>	B Climate change impacts on agricultural productivity are considered exogenously through the impacts on crop and animal yields using gridded vegetation models such as EPIC and LPJML (252, 334-336).	B-E Climate change impacts on productivity at the country level is considered through climate damage functions in GTAP (337) or by using aggregated crop yield projections, e.g., LPJmL or M-GAEZ (338). CGEBox has been used to assess climate change-induced yield changes on welfare of household groups (339).	B Climate change impacts of productivity is considered through the impacts on crop yields using gridded vegetation models such as LPJML for IMAGE (65). Impacts of climate change on crop yields can be simulated at regional level (340) or taken from a yield response emulator to evaluate dynamic yield responses to a climate event, e.g., multi-year drought (341) in GCAM.	A-B Coupled models can simulate climate change impacts on agriculture endogenously, e.g., using sub-models IMOGEN in landSYMM (342) and MAGICC in IMAGE, MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM and REMIND-MAGPIE frameworks (65, 218, 343).
<i>Acute shocks</i>	B-E IMPACT model has been used to simulate the economic impacts of a plant disease outbreak (344). Aglink-Cosimo	B-E Some models, e.g., MIRAGRODEP, have been used to analyse the impact of pandemics on global poverty,	B-E GCAM can be coupled with specialised models to assess the	B-E GLOBE and IMPACT models have been linked to simulate the impacts of an African swine fever outbreak in

	was used to assess the impacts of climate extremes using the combined stress index proxy on the global food system (345) and the impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on the global agricultural markets (346).	food security and diets (266, 347). AIM/CGE was used to examine the effects of extreme climate events on the future risk of hunger (348).	impacts of drought on the economy (341, 349)	China on food system dynamics (224). LandSyMM was used to assess human health, environmental sustainability, and food affordability following the COVID-19 (257).
Maturation of technology/innovation	B Uptake of agrifood technologies is based on economic viability (292) and marginal abatement cost curves (291).	C-E MAGNET includes technology learning rates (314).	C Technical mitigation in the agricultural sector is implemented through MAC curves as implemented in the climate policy submodel of IMAGE (350).	B-C Uptake of agrifood technologies could be represented via coupled PE and CGE models.
Vested interests and coalitions	E Not represented in current models	E Not represented in current models	E Not represented in current models	E Not represented in current models
Primary production	A The major primary crop (16-26) and livestock (5-6) products. IMPACT includes 26 crops (258), CAPRI includes 32 crops, 5 fodder products and 9 marketable animal products (351). Aglik-Cosimo covers over 90 commodities (352).	A Most models include between 6 (AIM) and 12 (GTAP) commodities and the main livestock products (ruminant meat, milk and other meat) (258). Britz (83) dis-aggregates the GTAP data base to cover 40 primary agricultural products.	A GCAM includes 15 crop and 6 livestock commodities (258, 260), IMAGE includes 16 crop and 4 livestock products (159).	A Same representation as in coupled models
Aquaculture and fisheries commodities	A-E Not included in main food product but the model can be adapted to explore scenarios of marine product consumption (325). AGLINK-COSIMO includes “fish and aquaculture”, “fish meal” and “fish oil” as commodities and has been linked to the FAO Fish model for more detailed representation of fisheries commodities (353).	A-E Some models, e.g., GTAP have limited representation of fisheries, included in one aggregated commodity with hunting and trapping. However other models, e.g., DART-BIO (354) and MAGNET (355) have a detailed fisheries, aquaculture and seaweed sector.	E Limited representation of aquaculture and fisheries.	A-E Same representation as in coupled models.
Domestic transport and storage	C-E MagPIE simulates the intraregional transportation of agricultural products between producer site and the next city centre (market) (267). CAPRI includes some storage and transport costs, e.g., seed and manure (51). SIMPLE-G was used to simulate the implications of an expansion of transportation infrastructure of agricultural production in Brazil (356).	D-E Not included.	A-E Agricultural stockholding behaviour is included in GCAM as a technology whereby regional consumers can allocate regional supply to current consumption or future consumption for 13 crop commodities (260).	E Not included.
Processed food commodities	A-E A version of GLOBIOM includes vegetable oil as a commodity (357), whereas IMPACT and CAPRI include 8 and 28 processed commodities, respectively (252, 258). Aglink-Cosimo includes a large range of processed commodities including oilseeds products, sugars and sweeteners, dairy products and fish meal and oil (OECD-FAO 2022).	A Ranging from 1-16 commodities (258). DART-BIO includes 16 processed agricultural products (358). MAGNET includes the same commodities as the included in the GTAP database, in addition to crude vegetable oil.	E Not included.	A-E Same representation as coupled models. LandSyMM does not include food processing (257).
Demand shift	B-E IMPACT model has been used to inform diet shifts based on environmental and health impacts for the EAT Lancet (9, 208). Dietary changes are	B-E Diet shifts and calorie intake can be modelled exogenously using CGE models such as MAGNET (85).	B-E Diet shifts and multiple impacts on sustainability have been investigated with GCAM (289) and IMAGE (94).	B Same representation as in coupled PE and CGE models. LandSyMM models shifts in food demand via MAIDADS sub-model (257).

	generally implemented exogenously.			
<i>Novel food and feed</i>	B-E Models have been used to assess the impacts of innovation on the food system, for instance replacing beef with microbial protein with MAgPIE (359), introducing seaweed for food and feed (GLOBIOM) (325, 360). Aglink-Cosimo has been used to model the use of insects reared on food waste for feed and fuel (361).	A-E MAGNET has been used to simulate the uptake of low-cost feed derived from by-products and agricultural residues endogenously based on agricultural policies (313).	E Not included.	A-E Adoption of novel food or feed could be represented via coupled PE (e.g., GLOBIOM and MAgPIE) and CGE models (e.g., MAGNET).
<i>Waste and loss</i>	B Food waste and loss are included explicitly as exogenous variable for different food types (93, 205, 361, 362).	B-E Most models include food loss and waste exogenously (268, 363-365).	D-E Food waste is captured implicitly in GCAM by adjusting meat consumption and preferences in different SSPs (260).	B-D Same representation as coupled models. LandSyMM only represents food loss in transport (222).
Other model details				
<i>Spatial resolutions</i>	Most models simulate land use change and agricultural production spatially, except Aglink-Cosmo. Spatial resolution of agricultural production varies between ~50km resolution (GLOBIOM and MAgPIE) (152). Downscaling algorithms have been used to disaggregate outputs of GLOBIOM (366) and CAPRI (124) to 1km resolution, and MAgPIE has been used in combination with SEALS to downscale land cover at ~300m resolution (366, 367).	Supply units tend to be aggregated at country or country-AEZ level. Some models, e.g., AIM/CGE have downscaling algorithms to allocate some variables, e.g., land use, from 17 aggregated AEZ regions to 50 km grid (152, 368). CGEBox can depict sub-national units (for instance, Jafari et al. 2020) including sub-national households with subsistence production (369).	Land use change can be simulated at high resolution (~10km) in the case of IMAGE or regional level in the case of GCAM. Downscaling algorithms, e.g., DEMETER can be used to obtain gridded land use at fine spatial resolution (10km) (152, 320, 370) and GLOBIO for IMAGE land use results (300m).	
<i>Temporal dimension</i>	Annual to 10-year time step, with time horizon from 10 years in the future (Aglink Cosmo) to 2100 (e.g., GLOBIOM, MAgPIE). Most models are dynamic except CAPRI and SIMPLE-G, which are comparative static.	Most CGE models are dynamic and can provide results at annual time step until 2100. Some variations of GTAP can be solved in a comparative static (Hertel et al., 2010), recursive dynamic (214) or intertemporal framework (371) and MIRAGRODEP can be used in a comparative static or recursive dynamic approach (372)	5 year time step until 2100 for GCAM (64) and annual time step until 2100 for IMAGE (65).	Between annual (e.g., IMAGE-MAGNET) and 10 year time steps (MESSAGEix-GLOBIOM) up to 2100 in most cases.

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