

Exploring alternative pathways towards more sustainable regional food systems by foodshed assessment – city region examples from Vienna and Bristol

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Abstract

Under substantial international supply disturbances (e.g. through Covid-19), resilience of the food supply system has become a vital issue for many countries. Regionalizing diets and increasing food self-sufficiency highly contribute to shortening food supply chains and, therefore, to increasing resilience of the food system. Simultaneously food supply disturbances can offer a chance for food system transition towards implementing sustainable management practices (SMPs) in agriculture (e.g. organic farming) increasing the sustainability of food production. In this study, delineating the spatial extent for such a regionalization and self-sufficiency discussion, we have proposed a foodshed for the cities of Vienna and Bristol. We used the Metropolitan Foodshed and Self-sufficiency Scenario (MFSS) model to assess the potential self-sufficiency of these areas under different pathways involving more sustainable and resilient food system scenarios, by distinguishing: i) regionalization, ii) production system, iii) food losses and wastage and iv) population growth until 2050. Furthermore, we have found the main local food policies and studies involving both cities, linking them to the current self-sufficiency levels and proposing pathways to increase them. Our results suggest that the proposed foodsheds are suitable to achieve a high degree of potential self-sufficiency when shifting consumer's behavior towards sustainably produced regional products, and reducing food wastes in households and food losses in agriculture. In parallel, this should be accompanied by an increase in the diversification of regional crop production sustainably managed. We call for the adoption of the foodshed approach – based on the concept of sustainable city-region food systems – so that it can be integrated in the food policies, to increase food self-sufficiency sustainably.

Keywords: food policy; sustainable diet; self-sufficiency; resilience; city-region food system

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42 **1. Introduction**

43 The interactions between the food system and the different Earth's components have been
44 widely studied (Alexander et al., 2016; Crippa et al., 2021; Laroche et al., 2020; Mbow et al.,
45 2019; Ortiz et al., 2021), leading to questioning the sustainability of the globalized food systems
46 as well as proposing venues for addressing the trade-offs (Augustin et al., 2021; Herrero et al.,
47 2020; Rocchi et al., 2020; Sánchez et al., 2021).

48 On the other hand, food Self-sufficiency in food supply – generally defined as the capacity of
49 a country to produce sufficient food to cover its own needs – is a topic known to gain increased
50 attention in times of crises (Clapp, 2017), under the umbrella of the overarching concept of food
51 system resilience (Puma, 2019; Savary et al., 2020). The Covid-19 crisis is a paradigmatic
52 recent example that brought these concepts back as hotspot in the debate on the globalised food
53 systems (Erokhin and Gao, 2020; Fan et al., 2021; Farrell et al., 2020; Fontan Sers and Mughal,
54 2020; Garnett et al., 2020; Guo and Tanaka, 2020; Moseley and Battersby, 2020; Nordhagen et
55 al., 2021; Orden, 2020; Vittuari et al., 2021; Woertz, 2020).

56 However, not only at the country level, but at the regional and local level food self-sufficiency
57 is assessed. Thus, feeding metropolitan areas through sustainable regional agricultural
58 production became a local policy concern since the last years (Cardoso et al., 2017; Carey,
59 2011; Doernberg et al., 2019; Vicente-Vicente and Piorr, 2021; Zasada et al., 2019) as well as
60 the creation of resilient city-region and local food systems (CRFS, LFS) (Blay-Palmer et al.,
61 2021; Skog et al., 2018), increasingly resulting in the development of individual city-regional
62 food strategies (Doernberg et al., 2019)

63 Food self-sufficiency can be achieved by implementing policies either in agricultural
64 production and/or food consumption. (Weber et al., 2020) found that the narratives of the
65 current literature on transitions towards sustainable food systems can be grouped in five
66 clusters: i) alternative food movements, ii) sustainable diets, iii) sustainable agriculture, iv)
67 health and diverse societies, and v) food as commons. According to these authors, the
68 sustainability concept varies between the different clusters. Thus, studies on assessing
69 transitions to sustainable diets refer to low resource consumption with low waste and adequate
70 nutrient intake, whereas those assessing sustainable agriculture refer to environmentally-
71 friendly production systems (e.g. organic farming, agroecology, smart farming). The
72 sustainability impact from both sides, consumption patterns and agricultural production
73 systems, have been widely assessed in the last years (Birney et al., 2017; Blas et al., 2018;
74 Chaudhary, 2019; Donati et al., 2016; Esteve-Llorens et al., 2021; Falcone et al., 2020;
75 Hallström et al., 2018; Hyland et al., 2017; Kummu et al., 2012; Mason and Lang, 2017; Mottet
76 et al., 2020; Rööös et al., 2015; Sporchia et al., 2021; Travassos et al., 2020; Vanham et al., 2015;
77 Vicente-Vicente and Piorr, 2020; Wang et al., 2020). Transitions towards sustainable food
78 systems have been recently assessed at the country level in Europe (Galli et al., 2020; Kugelberg
79 et al., 2021) or the UK (Bentham de Grave et al., 2020). Furthermore, assessments on the impact
80 of specific initiatives, like community-led local food initiatives, have been also carried out
81 (Guzman and Reynolds, 2019) (Nicol, 2020; Prost, 2019).

82 However, the majority of sustainable food transition assessments are focused in the global or
83 country scale, and the ones assessing specific interventions at the local level lack on

84 incorporating the regional context. They are mainly focused on studying “local niche
85 developments and discussing governance options for upscaling rather than actual regime
86 change” (Melchior and Newig, 2021). Therefore, applying the concept of self-sufficiency to a
87 regional context introduces the question about to what extent regional production can be
88 adapted not only to the quantitative but also to the dietary needs of a city-region, and where the
89 limits of such adaptation are. Regional self-sufficiency in contrast, has not been a focus of
90 policy decision making until recently (Piorr et al., 2018; Doernberg et al., 2019).

91 Among the few available tools for regional self-sufficiency planning, foodshed models gain
92 attention. They, in short, assess how much agricultural land would be needed to supply a city
93 with food from the region. One type of foodshed approach assesses the flows (Schreiber et al.,
94 2021) and is especially valuable to study the distribution networks (Karg et al., 2016; Moschitz
95 and Frick, 2020; Wegerif and Wiskerke, 2017). Another type of approach is the quantitative
96 one, assessing the production capacity of the area (Schreiber et al., 2021). In capacity
97 assessments, the theoretical food land footprint and the potential self-sufficiency are evaluated
98 by considering the population and current dietary patterns, farmland available, land use cover,
99 and regional yields.

100 The Metropolitan Foodshed and Self-sufficiency Scenario (MFSS) model (Zasada et al., 2019)
101 uses this approach. The result is the achievement of a theoretical self-sufficiency (Vicente-
102 Vicente et al., 2021). The MFSS and similar tools have proven to be useful for application at
103 regional level and to support the development of concrete urban-regional strategies (Cardoso et
104 al., 2017; Świader et al., 2018; Zasada et al., 2019; Moschitz and Frick, 2020).

105 From a spatial perspective, a foodshed can be understood as the area around a metropolitan area
106 that is required to feed its population (Peters et al., 2009; Brinkley, 2013). The foodshed has
107 two main features: size and shape. While the size is directly related to the capacity of the
108 foodshed, as described before, the specification of the shape is more difficult. It may be relevant
109 in contexts where administrative boundaries are to be considered because they concern
110 responsibilities in planning. But also landscape related features, geomorphological properties
111 of the surrounding area or cultural and historical relationships with the nearby regions (Vicente-
112 Vicente et al., 2021) and finally also market and supply chain organisation may make it
113 necessary to consider the shape of the entire foodshed or subunits, e.g. for different product
114 groups. Foodshed models like the MFSS can be furthermore used as a tool to assess the
115 feasibility of specific political strategies (Tavakoli-Hashjini et al., 2020).

116 The ambition of this research is to use of the MFSS model as the basis for the policy debate on
117 pathways towards a sustainable CRFS transformation. In specific how future diets should be,
118 what management practices are suitable or how consumer’s behaviour affect the land footprint.
119 We choose two case studies: Vienna, where this assessment represents the first proposing a
120 foodshed, and Bristol, where the study uses insights from previous studies in order to improve
121 the reliability of the foodshed assessment.

122 In total the objectives of this study are fourfold: i) to carry out a foodshed analysis for two cities
123 having different land uses, population distribution and geomorphological features; ii) to
124 demonstrate the capabilities of the MFSS model for scenario modelling regarding system
125 change towards more sustainable diets via four pathways (i.e. regionalisation, organic farming,
126 reduce food losses and waste, and population growth); iii) to discuss the MFSS model
127 capabilities and concrete research outputs in the context of the emerging local sustainable

128 development food policies; and iv) to suggest specific pathways to increase the resilience of the
129 food system.

130

131 **2. Materials and methods**

132 **2.1 Foodshed model and scenarios**

133 The MFSS model (Zasada et al., 2019) incorporates the two dimensions driving the food self-
134 sufficiency analysis: demand and supply. The model also distinguishes between regional and
135 imported products. Detailed information on the calculations is shown in Data in Brief.

136 In this study a scenario framework from Zasada et al. (2019) was applied. The scenarios
137 consider four key drivers: 1) organic production, 2) diet, 3) food waste and loss, and 4)
138 population growth. By combining changes in these four key drivers we obtain eleven scenarios,
139 plus the business-as-usual one (Table 1).

140 The area demand per capita for each specific food product is calculated by transforming the
141 yields into utilisable agricultural area (UAA) demand per kg of final product, whereas the total
142 area demand per capita results from the average diet. In the model, the aggregated area demand
143 per district or region is spatially represented by a circle – defined by its radius – with a centroid
144 of the administrative boundary polygon. The process can be summarized as the combination of
145 considering the UAA inside the boundaries and the UAA outside the boundaries. The UAA for
146 the whole region is represented as the overall agricultural area share of the region.

147 Together with the foodshed assessment, regional food self-sufficiency is also assessed. Food
148 self-sufficiency as percentage arises from the relationship between the area demand and the
149 UAA, showing the required agricultural area to meet the regional food demand. Thus, self-
150 sufficiency values higher than 100% mean that the complete area demand for food production
151 can be met within the boundaries. On the contrary, values lower than 100% would require food
152 imports.

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154

155 **2.2 Study area**

156

157 *2.2.1. Vienna and Bristol cities' data on food consumption, area and population*

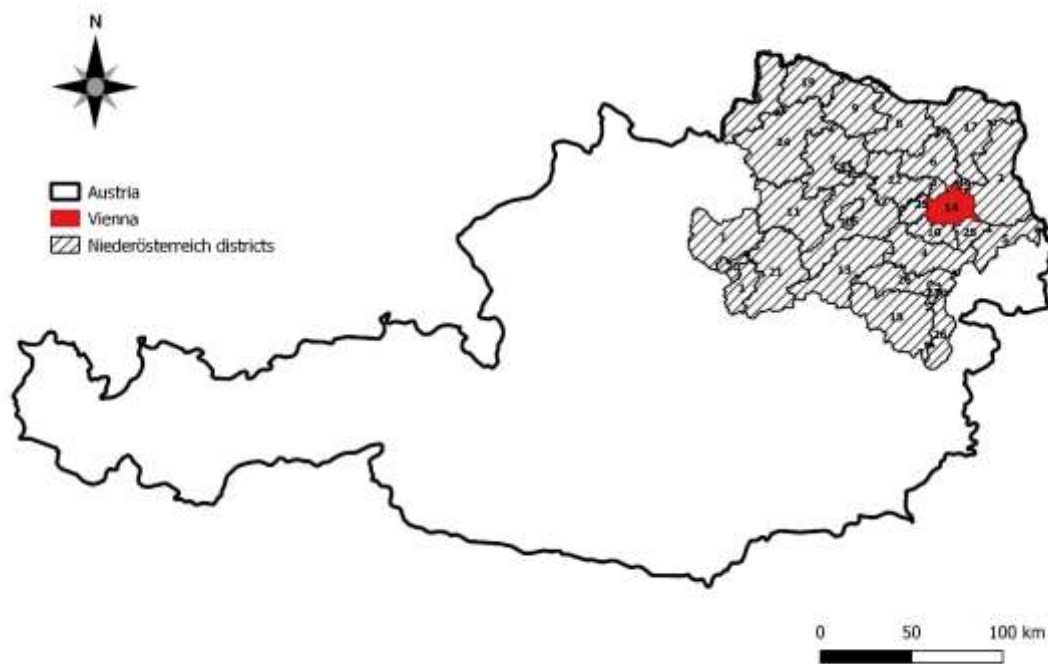
158 The average food consumption per capita for each metropolitan area amounts at total of 1,045
159 kg capita⁻¹ yr⁻¹ for Vienna, whereas this value is slightly lower for Bristol, at 961 g capita⁻¹ yr⁻¹
160 (FAO, 2013)(Data in Brief). On the other hand, Table 2 shows that the total city area of Vienna
161 is almost four times higher compared to that of the city of Bristol, and a very similar factor is
162 found for the total population. Accordingly, the average population density of both cities is very
163 similar. Marked differences appear regarding the UAA, which is around 48 km² for Vienna and
164 7 km² in the case of Bristol. As expected to city regions this leads to an extremely low average
165 UAA per capita for both cities, around 26 m² for Vienna and 15 m² for Bristol (Table 2). This
166 very low UAA per capita explains the need to expand the theoretical foodshed area around the
167 surrounding area of both cities.

168

169 2.2.2 Vienna's and Bristol's foodshed selection for the study

170 a) Vienna

171 The selected foodshed area for Vienna was the NUTS-2 region of Niederösterreich, and the
172 self-sufficiency assessment was done at district, NUTS-3, level (Figure 1).



173

174 **Figure 1.** Vienna and Niederösterreich, selected as the foodshed (study area). Districts are labelled in alphabetic
175 order. Equivalence with the corresponding names is shown in the data in brief.

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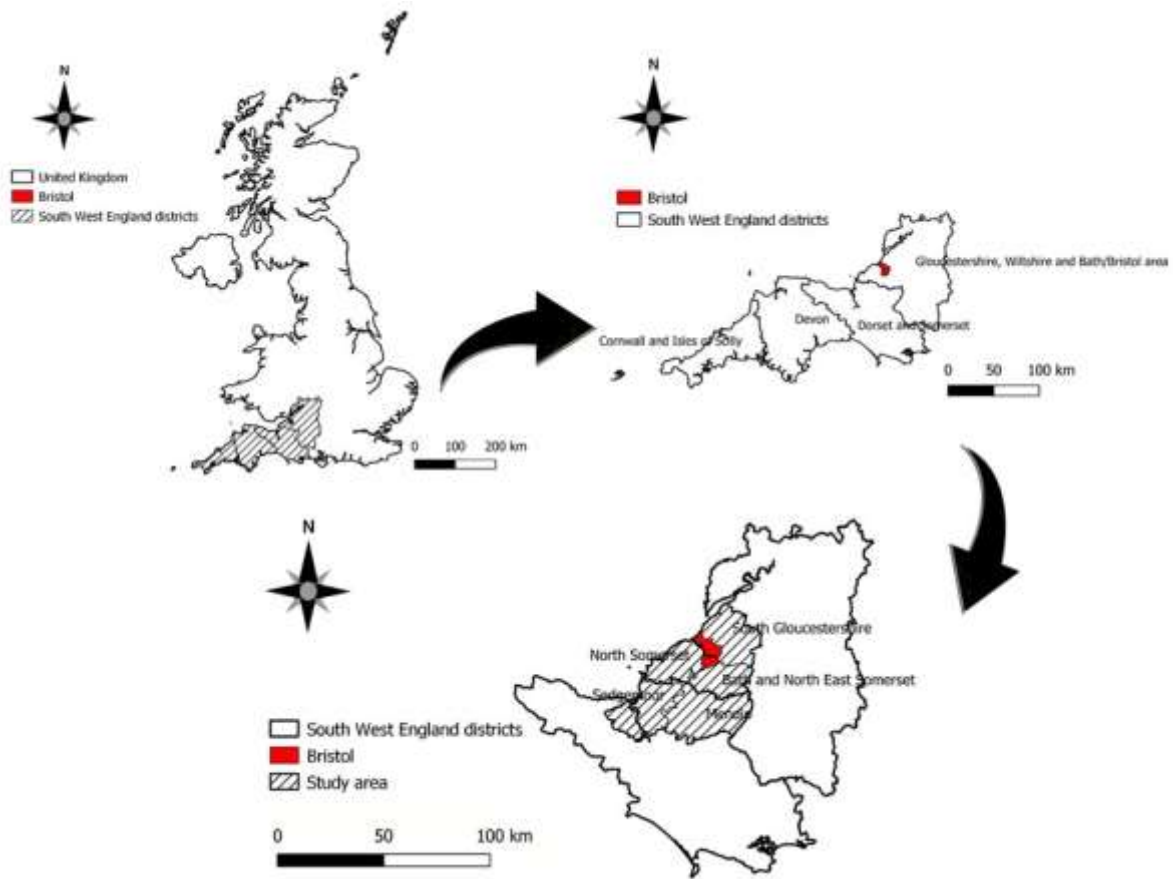
177 b) Bristol

178 The selected foodshed area for Bristol, within the NUTS-1 region of South-West England, is
179 comprised by two different NUTS-2 areas (Figure 2).

- 180 • Gloucestershire, Wiltshire and Bristol/Bath area. Where the following districts (NUTS-
181 3) were selected: Bath and North East Somerset, North Somerset and South
182 Gloucestershire.
- 183 • Dorset and Somerset area, where the districts of Sedgemoor and Mendip within the
184 Somerset area were selected.

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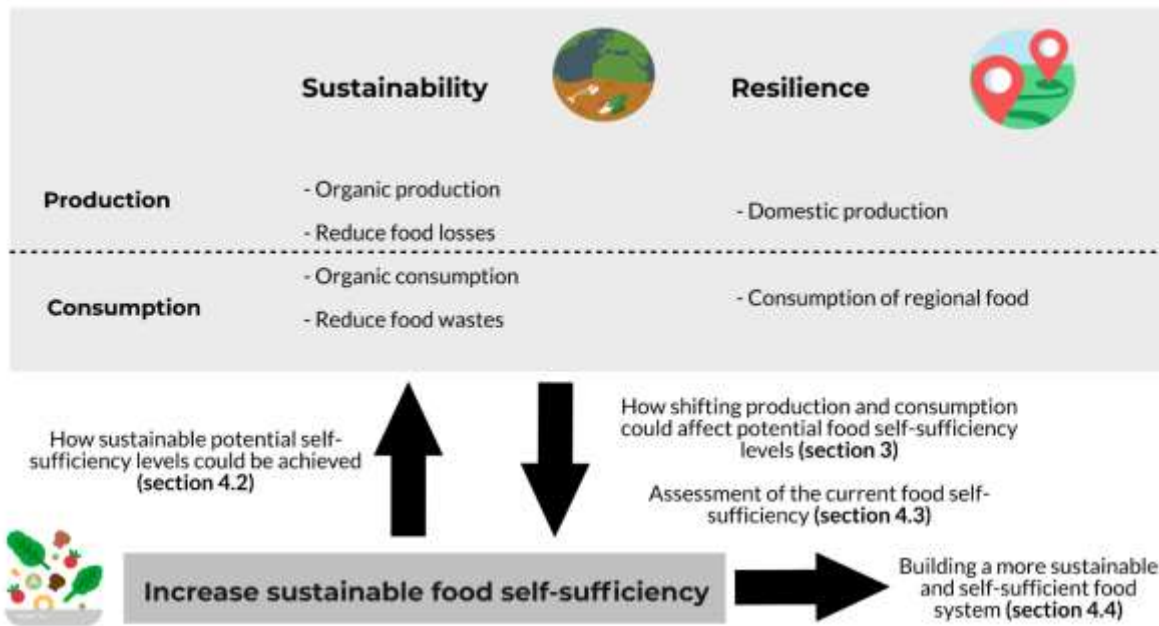
188 **Figure 2.** Location map of the South-West NUTS1 region (top-left), NUTS2 areas forming the South-West region
 189 (top-right), and the foodshed of Bristol formed by different counties and local authorities from the two different
 190 NUTS2 regions selected for the study (down).

191

192 **2.3 Sustainability and resilience concepts in the foodshed assessment**

193 Taking an environmental sustainability perspective, we understand sustainable food as a result
 194 of the sustainable production and consumption. Sustainable production is referred as the food
 195 that is produced organically (Org) and reducing food losses while harvesting, processing and
 196 handling (Org L scenarios); whereas sustainable consumption is understood as the consumption
 197 of organic products and reducing food wastes in households (Org LW scenarios) (figure 3).

198 The resilience component is added with the domestic scenarios (Org D), where only regionally
 199 produced food is consumed (figure 3). These scenarios imply the existence of short supply
 200 chains, the increase in the diversity of food production and the adaptation of diets to the site-
 201 specific biophysical and socio-economic conditions. After incorporating the resilience concept
 202 to the previous sustainability one, a more overarching sustainability concept (TAC/CGIAR,
 203 1989) is adopted and adapted to the food system, referring to the way in which resources for
 204 food self-sufficiency – specially land (i.e. area demand in the MFSS model) – can be used to
 205 meet changing future food needs without undermining the natural resource base (figure3).



206

207 **Figure 3.** Conceptual model of the sustainability, resilience and food self-sufficiency assessments.

208 Thus, the assessment, methodologically, consists of two different parts: 1) analyzing the results
 209 from the MFSS, and 2) framing them within the current policy context. The local food policies
 210 and relevant studies assessing food production and consumption were selected according to our
 211 expertise and knowledge on the topic in both cities.

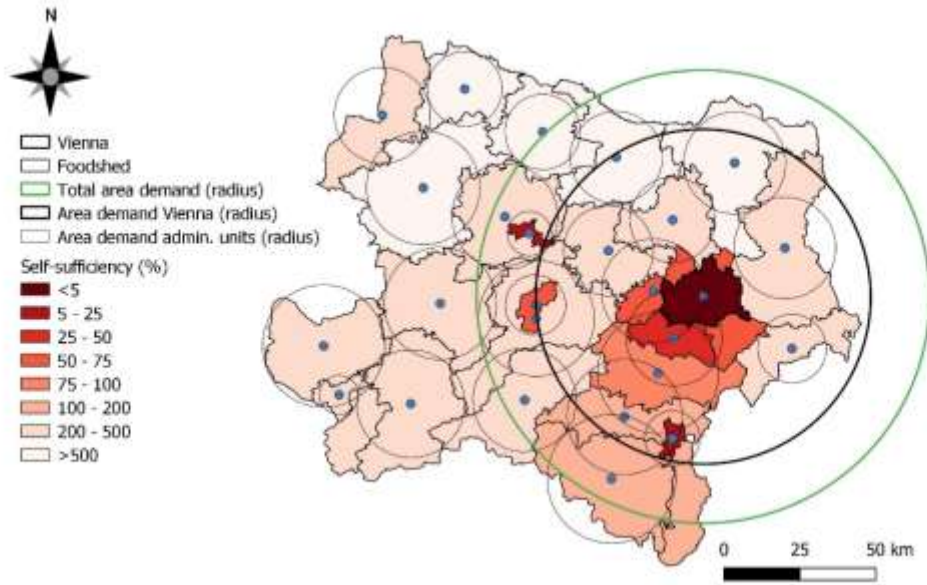
212 Thus, the analytical results on the potential food self-sufficiency under the different scenarios
 213 from the application of the MFSS model in the proposed foodsheds are shown in the Results –
 214 and as Data in Brief – and discussed in sections 4.1 and 4.2. On the other hand, the assessment
 215 of the current self-sufficiency in the context of the local and regional food policies and the city-
 216 region concept, as well as the assessment of pathways, are developed in sections 4.3 and 4.4,
 217 respectively (figure 3).

218

219 **3. Results**

220

221 **3.1 Area demand, radius and self-sufficiency of Vienna's foodshed**



222

223 **Figure 4.** Area demand and self-sufficiency level of Vienna, the administrative units of Niederösterreich and for
 224 the whole region forming the foodshed, for the Base 15 scenario. Please, see Data in Brief for more detailed
 225 information.

226 3.1.1 *Base 15 scenario: business-as-usual scenario and differences between areas*

227 The area demand per capita, based on the average diet and average local site conditions for
 228 cropping, husbandry and related and yields estimated for the baseline scenario is 2,018 m². The
 229 area demand for the whole region is 690,702 ha, and the potential self-sufficiency of the
 230 foodshed is around 112%. Considering the area demand and the UAA, these values can be
 231 represented by a radius of 74.71 km (Table 3).

232 Vienna district, due to the high population numbers and density, amounted to the highest area
 233 demand value, 362,658 ha, and radius, 55.2 km. This value represents 53% of the total area
 234 demand of the region and 74% of the total radius. The estimated area demand per capita in the
 235 baseline scenario is much higher than the calculated current available UAA per capita and,
 236 consequently, Vienna's potential self-sufficiency is estimated to be around 1% (Figure 4)

237 Considering the districts surrounding Vienna mainly to the South and West, all highly densely
 238 populated, a potential self-sufficiency lower than 100% is reached, since the area demand per
 239 capita is much higher than the UAA (between 500 and 1,500 m² capita⁻¹). Due to the fact that
 240 the wider Vienna area is surrounded by intensive and productive agriculture, self-sufficiency
 241 ratios increase markedly when considering the western and southern hinterlands. Values of self-
 242 sufficiency between 200 and 500%, which indicate a clear market supply potential, were found
 243 in districts having very different characteristics in terms of geomorphology and population but
 244 similar values of UAA per capita (5000 – 9000 m²). For instance, these values were achieved
 245 in low populated areas in the mountainous South where the total surface of UAA is very low.
 246 However, similar values appear in flat districts to the East of Vienna, with very high total UAA,
 247 but having higher population density. Finally, the highest potential self-sufficiency (> 500%)
 248 appears in the low-populated districts placed in the very North of the region with very high
 249 UAA per capita (10,000 – 15,000 m²) (Data in Brief)

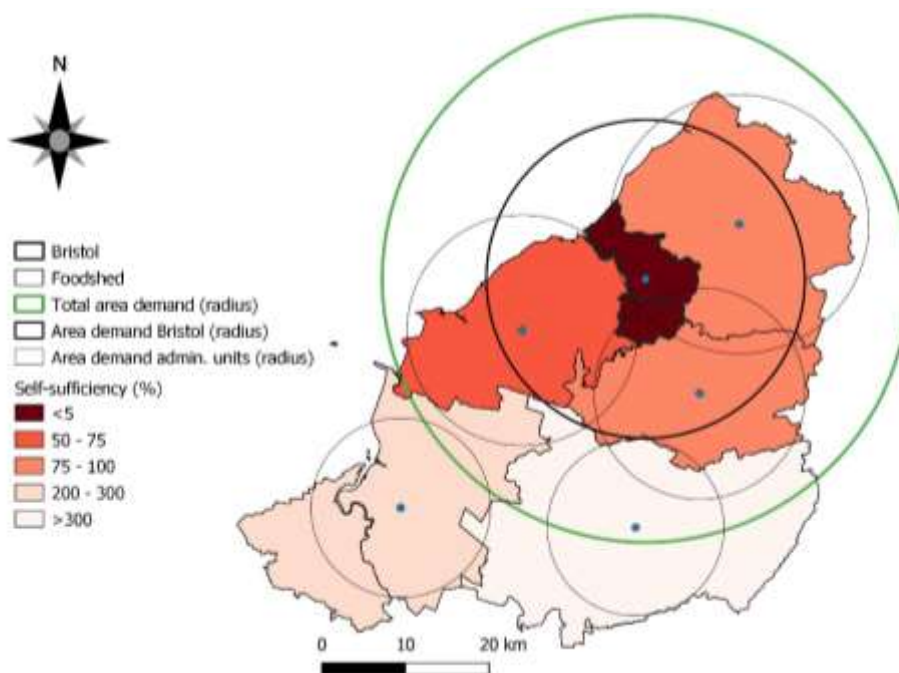
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251 3.1.2. *Differences between scenarios*

252 Simulating a conversion from conventional to organic farming within the spatial borders of the
253 identified foodshed around Vienna, results in a reduction of the self-sufficiency ratio. The
254 lowest value of the self-sufficiency (82%) is achieved in the scenario Org15, where no measures
255 for avoiding food waste and loss are taken and only organic food is consumed. In parallel, the
256 area demand per capita amounted the highest value (2,759 m²) and so the radius (87.4 km).
257 Self-sufficiency values slightly lower than 100% were achieved in the Org L15 and Org D15,
258 95 and 98%, respectively. The rest of the scenarios for 2015 amounted values of self-sufficiency
259 higher than 100%. The type of scenarios LW15 amounted the highest self-sufficiency values
260 for each type of diet (conventional, organic complete and organic regional; 147%, 107% and
261 125%). On average, the lowest self-sufficiency values were achieved in the organic complete
262 diets, followed by organic regional and conventional. Regarding the scenarios for 2050 in the
263 three cases (Base 50, Org 50 and OrgD 50) self-sufficiency values were lower than 100% (95%,
264 69% and 83%) (Table 3). The total area demand increased according to the population growth.

265

266 **3.2 Area demand, radius and self-sufficiency of Bristol's foodshed**



267

268 **Figure 5.** Radius of the area demand and self-sufficiency level of Bristol, the rest of the administrative units and
269 for the whole region forming the foodshed, for the Base 15 scenario.

270

271 3.2.1 *Base 15 scenario: business-as-usual scenario and differences between areas*

272 The area demand per capita estimated for the base 15 scenario is 1,788 m², whereas the area
273 demand for the whole region is 241,508 ha, and the potential self-sufficiency is around 85%
274 (figure 5). Considering the area demand and the UAA, these values mean a 31.5 km of area
275 demand radius (Table 4). The highest area demand is found in the city of Bristol, 80,332 ha,
276 representing one third of the total area demand and 19 km of radius, 60% of the radius for the
277 whole region. The estimated area demand per capita for the city of Bristol is, thus, much higher

278 than the UAA per capita (15.33 m²), bringing the self-sufficiency value of the city to only 1%.
279 Lower than 100% self-sufficiency values are also found in the areas surrounding Bristol. These
280 areas are relatively highly densely populated and have between 1,200 and 1,500 m² capita⁻¹ of
281 UAA. Finally, the highest potential self-sufficiency values are achieved in areas further to the
282 South of the city of Bristol, Mendip (South East) and Sedgemoor (South West), which have
283 relatively low population density and have high UAA per capita (5,791 and 3,991 m²,
284 respectively), leading to high values of self-sufficiency (>200%) (Data in Brief).

285

286 3.1.3. *Differences between scenarios*

287 Only one scenario amounts to a value clearly higher than 100%, the Base LW15, being thus the
288 most favorable scenario with the lowest area demand per capita (1,353m²) and radius (27.4 km).
289 Two other scenarios, Base L15 and Org DLW15, are very close to the 100% of self-sufficiency
290 (Table 4). Regarding Vienna, the order of the scenarios in terms of self-sufficiency for each
291 type of diet (X = Base, Org or OrgD) is: X LW15> X L15>X 15 (inverse order for the area
292 demand and radius). Thus, for the base scenarios values of self-sufficiency are between 85 and
293 112%, for the Org scenarios 60 – 80%, and 75 – 100% for the OrgD scenarios. The lowest value
294 is achieved in the Org15 scenario, with a value of self-sufficiency around 60%. Similar trends
295 were found for the area demand and radius. Considering the population growth until 2050,
296 values of self-sufficiency would be reduced from 85 to 71%, from 60 to 50%, and from 77 to
297 64% for the Base 50, Org 50 and OrgD 50, respectively (Table 4).

298

299 **4. Discussion**

300 **4.1 Selection and suitability of the foodsheds**

301 In this study, for both of the cities, administrative boundaries have been selected as the limit of
302 the respective foodsheds. This is due to the objective to test the capability of foodshed
303 modelling as a tool to support regional governance processes, which typically take place within
304 administrative responsibilities and within the corresponding spatial boundaries. For Vienna,
305 Niederösterreich was selected as the foodshed. This NUTS-2 region surrounds the city of
306 Vienna, and in general its districts are much less populated and have much more UAA, as they
307 are among the most intensive agricultural locations in the country, leading to high potential
308 self-sufficiency levels, 80-100% (Figure 4, and Data in Brief). Similarly, the city of Bristol is
309 surrounded by the districts selected for the foodshed. However, in this case they belong to
310 different NUTS-2 regions: three surrounding districts belong to the Gloucestershire, Wiltshire
311 and Bristol/Bath Area region, whereas two districts to the south belong to the NUTS-2 region
312 of Dorset and Somerset. While the selection of the first districts is very logic, as they surround
313 the city of Bristol, the selection of the two other districts is more complex. The high population
314 density of the surrounding districts forming the foodshed leads to a relatively low theoretical
315 UAA per capita and, therefore, not enough UAA to satisfy the food demand of the district for
316 the majority of the scenarios achieving a potential self-sufficiency of around 40% in average
317 only (results not shown). Therefore, in order to define the foodshed area, two additional
318 districts, Sedgemoor and Mendip – not far from the city of Bristol and with relatively low
319 population density and high UAA – were included to increase the potential achievable self-
320 sufficiency by double (around 80% in average) (Figure 5, and Data in Brief)

321 Crucially, the selection of a foodshed must be done without compromising the food self-
322 sufficiency of any nearby metropolitan areas. While in the case of the city of Vienna this is not
323 relevant since there are no other big Austrian metropolitan areas relatively near the city, when
324 assessing Bristol's foodshed this becomes a key issue. The city of London is just 200 km away
325 to the East of Bristol, and according to Zasada et al. (2019), around 90 km of radius would be
326 needed to meet 60% of London's food self-sufficiency. Additionally, the metropolitan area of
327 Gloucester is 60 km away to the north of Bristol. Therefore, selecting Mendip and Sedgemoor,
328 to the south of the city of Bristol, was the only suitable solution to increase the foodshed's
329 potential self-sufficiency without compromising the self-sufficiency of other nearby
330 metropolitan areas.

331

332 **4.2 Potential self-sufficiency as a starting point of the policy debate towards a more** 333 **sustainable and resilient food system**

334

335 *4.2.1 Sustainability of regionalizing diets and diversifying local crop production*

336 In the OrgD scenarios the model estimates an increase in the potential self-sufficiency
337 compared to the Org scenarios due to the decrease in the consumption of imported products.
338 However, increasing food self-sufficiency by shifting to more regional diets might not be
339 always more environmentally and health-friendly and cultural issues should be considered
340 when proposing a shift in the diets (Johnston et al., 2014; Downs et al., 2017; Mason and Lang,
341 2017; Annunziata et al., 2019). Recently, Yin et al. (2020) demonstrated that a regional diet in
342 a specific area of China was far from being environmentally friendly and also not well balanced
343 in nutrient terms due to the tradition of consuming high amounts of mutton in meat.

344 On the other hand, the shift to more regional diets would only be possible when the supply is
345 diversified. That is, when increasing crop diversification. However, this depends on the specific
346 pedoclimatic conditions, structure of the landscape and cultural and socio-economic conditions
347 of the area (Vicente-Vicente et al., 2021). Increasing crop diversification not only helps in the
348 assurance of food security (Bezner Kerr et al., 2021), but also has positive environmental
349 impacts. For instance, McDaniel et al. (2014) found, after a meta-analysis of 122 studies, that
350 adding one or more crops in rotation to a monoculture increased total soil C and N increased
351 significantly. Furthermore, crop diversity is a key issue for increasing the resilience of
352 agroecosystems. Crop diversification reduces economic and production risks due to the
353 "portfolio effect", since different crops have different responses to the same stress (Bowles et
354 al., 2020). Bowles et al. (2020), after assessing 11 long-term studies, concluded that crop-
355 rotation diversification increased agricultural resilience against droughts. Furthermore, not only
356 crop diversity but also the size of the farms is a driver of food security. As (Ricciardi et al.,
357 2021) found in a meta-analysis after assessing 118 studies, smaller farms have higher yields
358 and provide more crop and non-crop biodiversity at the farm and landscape scales compared to
359 larger farms and, thus, increasing the resilience at the agroecosystem scale.

360 However, regionalizing diets is a challenge, especially when the trend is to globalization of
361 food trade and homogenization of crop supply (Aguilar et al., 2020), where the demand has been
362 detached from the supply, food is often produced for exportation (Davis et al., 2021) and its
363 delivering relies on complex supply chains having many chokepoints and vulnerabilities
364 (Bailey and Wellesley, 2017). Thus, adopting a city-region food system (CRFS)— i.e. a foodshed

365 approach –, which leads to an increase in crop diversification, would contribute to matching
366 demand and supply of regional products and, therefore, to shortening the food supply chains,
367 reduce direct CO₂ emissions from transportation, refrigeration and packaging (Vicente-Vicente
368 and Piorr, 2021) and eventually to an improvement in the resilience at the food-system scale
369 (Blay-Palmer et al., 2021; Vittuari et al., 2021).

370

371 4.2.2 Sustainability of increasing organic food consumption and fostering sustainable 372 management practices (SMPs) in agriculture and livestock

373

374 The production of organic food usually implies a reduction in yields compared to the
375 conventional system. This is taken into consideration in our model, and the immediate effect is
376 the increase in the area demand. Thus, for the Org15 scenarios the UAA per capita was lower
377 than the area demand and, the self-sufficiency was lower than 100% (Tables 3 and 4).
378 Therefore, it appears that there is a trade-off between food self-sufficiency and organic
379 production (L. G. Smith et al., 2019). However, this higher land footprint and lower potential
380 self-sufficiency of the organic management could be offset with an adequate land use change
381 management and the positive impacts or synergies between the organic management and crop
382 diversification with other ecosystem services (e.g. in agroecological systems (Rosset and
383 Altieri, 2017)), for example, higher yields (Ricciardi et al., 2021) decrease in the GHG
384 emissions from the transportation (Vicente-Vicente and Piorr, 2021) or the improvement of soil
385 carbon sequestration (Schwoob et al., 2018) and overall soil fertility features (Migliorini and
386 Wezel, 2017); in addition to social and cultural ecosystem services (Oteros-Rozas et al., 2019).

387

388 Even though crop diversity might have a relevant role on the agroecosystems' resilience and
389 drive many positive environmental impacts, the role of crop management practices must not be
390 neglected (Snapp et al., 2010) and sustainable management practices (SMPs) can contribute,
391 for instance, to increasing soil N and SOC content (McDaniel et al. 2014) and improving other
392 soil properties (Basche et al. 2016). Fostering SOC accumulation decreases CO₂ emissions from
393 soil (Lal, 2004) and fosters different material, non-material and regulating Nature's
394 Contribution to People (NCP), which contribute directly to the achievement of many SDGs,
395 especially SDG2 (food security), SDG 3 (healthy lives and well-being), SDG 6 (water and
396 sanitation for all), SDG 12 (sustainable consumption and production), and SDG 15 (sustainable
397 use of terrestrial ecosystems) (P. Smith et al. 2019). SMPs as substituting inorganic with organic
398 inputs or implementing cover crops have been found to sequester relatively high amounts of
399 SOC (Vicente-Vicente et al., 2016) and, thus, to meet international standards as the 4 per 1,000
400 initiative "Soils for Food Security and Climate" (<http://4p1000.org/>) (Francaviglia et al., 2019).
401 Furthermore, the decrease in the GHG emissions due to the absence of agrochemicals
402 application might offset the CH₄ and N₂O emissions in organic farming (Squalli and
403 Adamkiewicz, 2018).

404

405 However, in order to maximize the benefits of organic farming on these ecosystem services the
406 possible extra land needed to offset the lower yields of the organic system in the proposed
407 foodshed should come from marginal land, where the positive effects of the SMPs on ecosystem
408 services can be maximized (Irmler, 2018; Kazemi and Akinci, 2018; Gonzalez-Roglich et al.
409 2019) and to prevent and reverse land degradation (Sims et al., 2019; van Haren et al., 2019),
410 while the conversion of highly naturalized ecosystems must be avoided. In this regard, in this

411 study all highly naturalized ecosystems have been excluded and only pastures and non-irrigated
412 arable lands were selected as UAA.

413

414 *4.2.3 Sustainability of reducing food losses in agriculture and processing, and food wastes in* 415 *households*

416

417 The results for Vienna and Bristol cases show a decrease in the area demand when minimizing
418 food loss and waste. The immediate effect is an estimated increase in the self-sufficiency in the
419 L 15 and LW 15 scenarios and a decrease in the area demand (Tables 3 and 4). For instance, in
420 the case of Bristol – and same trend was found in Vienna – in the Base 15 scenario, the total
421 area demand for Bristol was 241,508 ha, whereas the area demand was of 289,703 and 258,401
422 ha in the Org L 15 and Org LW 15 scenarios, respectively. However, the area demand for the
423 Org 15 scenario was 340,544 ha. These results suggest, therefore, that avoiding food waste and
424 loss would be close to offset the extra land needed from shifting from conventional to organic
425 farming.

426

427 Food losses refer mainly to food wastage in agricultural production (Augustin et al., 2020),
428 whereas food waste refer to the behavior of the consumers in households. Regarding food waste,
429 Chen et al. (2020) estimate a land footprint of around $131\text{m}^2\text{ capita}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$. This value is in line
430 with our calculations, where a reduction in the area demand per capita in the scenarios reducing
431 food waste at home in the conventional and complete diets where of 186 and $167\text{ m}^2\text{ capita}^{-1}$
432 yr^{-1} for Vienna and Bristol, respectively (Tables 3 and 4). Vegetables, cereals and fruits are the
433 products contributing the most to the overall amount of food wastage. However, cereals and
434 meat are the most contributing in terms of land footprint, due to two facts: i) cereals are highly
435 consumed, compared to other plant-based products, and ii) the area demand per kg of animal
436 product is much higher than that of the plant-based ones (Data in Brief).

437

438 Food losses take place in the food supply chains during the production, postharvest, handling,
439 agro-processing and distribution (FAO, 2016). Our results show that preventing food losses in
440 the Base 15 diet could save around 294 and $268\text{ m}^2\text{ capita}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$ of land, in Vienna and Bristol,
441 respectively. If total amount of food waste and loss is considered, the amount of land footprint
442 saved would be of 480 and $435\text{ m}^2\text{ capita}^{-1}\text{ yr}^{-1}$, meaning a reduction of 24% in the individual's
443 food-related resource consumption (Tables 3 and 4). This figure is in line with the 31%
444 estimated by Birney et al. (2017) for the US, very close to the global estimation of around 23%
445 by Kummu et al. (2012) and higher than the 2 – 7% estimated by (Usubiaga et al., 2018) for the
446 EU when assessing the reduce in the resource inputs in the food chain by 20% and halving the
447 disposal of edible food waste in households based on the Resource Efficiency Roadmap targets
448 set by the European Commission for 2020 (European Commission, 2011)

449

450

451 *4.2.4 Food self-sufficiency and sustainability of diets in an increasingly populated city*

452 The current projections of population growth for 2050 (Eurostat, 2018), and the current trend
453 of people moving from rural to metropolitan areas (Dijkstra et al., 2020), is expected to increase
454 the population density of Vienna and Bristol, and at the same time lead to important trade-offs
455 because of the increase in the urbanization degree (e.g. environmental degradation, land

456 abandonment, agricultural production, land fragmentation, deterioration in rural public services
457 or changes in to well-being) (e.g. Liu et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2019; van Leeuwen et al., 2019;
458 Navarro et al., 2020). Our results show that the population increase in the city of Vienna and its
459 foodshed by 2050 would lead to a decrease in the potential self-sufficiency towards 70 – 95%,
460 and to 50 – 70% in the case of Bristol, without considering any reduction of food waste or
461 losses.

462 Furthermore, the increase in the urbanization of the peripheral areas of the cities previously
463 occupied by crops, and the risk in the land abandonment and fragmentation of land in rural
464 areas might jeopardize regional food production (Price et al., 2015; Terres et al., 2015; Lasanta
465 et al., 2017; Levers et al., 2018; Schulp et al., 2019) and, thus, the achievement of the food
466 security and food self-sufficiency goals (Chen 2007).

467 Although in this study we have not considered a decrease in the food consumption, some
468 authors have already shown the need to decrease the current food consumption per capita in
469 European urban areas (3,456 kcal capita⁻¹ day⁻¹) in order to adjust the current demand to the
470 supply, and thus to achieve the “optimal demand” (2,200 kcal capita⁻¹ day⁻¹), defined as
471 “balanced amount of energy from diet for a person to maintain good health, avoiding
472 overweight and under-nutrition” (Rodríguez-Rodríguez et al., 2015). However, the final food
473 self-sufficiency will depend on the balance between the total consumption per hectare of
474 urbanized land – mainly dependent on the population growth – and the consumption per capita
475 (Kroll et al., 2012). Since the population growth is expected to be slightly positive until 2050
476 the only way to increase the food self-sufficiency in both areas would be to decrease the food
477 land footprint per capita.

478

479 **4.3 Current food self-sufficiency and the city-region concept in the local policy context**

480

481 *4.3.1 Bristol*

482 Bristol Food Policy Council was founded in 2001 as the first one in UK. From then until now,
483 different studies and reports have assessed the state and the future of Bristol’s food system. One
484 of the first and most important ones was the food strategy “A Sustainable Food Strategy for
485 Bristol and Bristol Food Network” (Bristol Food Network, 2009). Later, in a policy-relevant
486 report, Carey (2011) introduces for the first time the Bristol city’s “bioregion” (Bath and North
487 East Somerset, Bristol, North Somerset, and South Gloucestershire). From the point of view of
488 our research, the concept of bioregion could be used as a synonym of foodshed. In our research
489 we have assessed this bioregion, but we extended the foodshed to include Sedgemoor and
490 Mendip areas because of the relatively low potential self-sufficiency of the bioregion, between
491 30 and 50% (results not shown).

492 However, the reality is very different, and there is a huge gap in the demand-supply. For
493 instance, Carey (2011) remarks that currently about the 90% of all the meat that is produced in
494 South West England is exported to other UK regions, and just around a 10% is sold locally. The
495 report shows that around 70% of the cereal production in the region is just for feeding animals.
496 Therefore, currently, a huge amount of land is being used to feed animals whose meat is
497 exported, whereas it reduces the available area to grow them for human consumption. However,
498 the report suggests that for vegetables and fruit even more important is the incapacity of local

499 fruit and vegetable farmers to compete with cheap imports that feed large supply chains, while
500 there is enough knowledge and land to grow them locally.

501 To address these food self-sufficiency and sustainability challenges, the Bristol Food Policy
502 Council launched specific initiatives to increase local organic food production (Bristol City
503 Council, 2015) and to reduce food waste (Bristol City Council, 2018). These sectorial initiatives
504 are part of an overarching strategy, the Bristol One City Plan 2020-2050 (Bristol City Council,
505 2019), establishing specific goals and action plans for six sectors (economy, connectivity,
506 environment, health and well-being, homes and communities, and learning and skills). Food is
507 included in the environmental sector, proposing that “in 2050 everyone will have access to
508 healthy, ethical and sustainably produced food”. For this purpose, the document establishes
509 numerous goals involving reducing food waste or increasing local food consumption from
510 “sustainable producers in the city region”. However, there is not any specification about what
511 regional or sustainable production means.

512

513 4.3.2 *Vienna*

514 In the case of Vienna approaches to food self-sufficiency and thinking comparably to foodsheds
515 have not been developed so far. To date, the main policy debates have been focused on urban
516 farming and smart cities (Vienna City Administration, 2019) or developing the structure of the
517 agricultural land within Vienna’s district (Land Wien, 2017). However, as we have estimated,
518 this amount of land would be able to satisfy just around 1% of the total demand. Nevertheless,
519 this report shows that the current land use of the agricultural area in Vienna is mainly used for
520 vegetables production and, thus, achieving a relatively high degree of self-sufficiency (Land
521 Wien, 2017). This situation has been used by the city to develop public procurement initiatives
522 with regional food, as the ÖkoKauf Wien
523 (<https://www.wien.gv.at/english/environment/protection/oekokauf/>), where for instance food
524 for kinder gardens has to follow specific sustainability criteria (organic, seasonal and regional).

525 Recently, the Vienna’s Food Policy Council published a position paper on shifting the food
526 system towards a democratic and sustainable one in the urban district of Vienna (Ernährungsrat
527 Wien, 2020). However, while the paper focuses on the urban area, it mentions several times the
528 term “regional”, but without referring to specific spatial limits.

529 Regarding the production of animal products locally produced, considering the available data,
530 it is possible to conclude that the current production of local animal products is negligible.
531 However, Niederösterreich accounts for 770,000 ha of UAA. Around 77% of the land is planted
532 by cereals and maize, and 18% with leguminous; whereas the area for vegetables and fruit is
533 much lower (Land Niederösterreich, 2018). As such, the Niederösterreich region is one of the
534 highest food suppliers in Austria, producing more than 80% of potatoes, 70% of rye, 57% of
535 wheat and around 54% of vegetables. However, it only supplies 12% of the fruit and has a
536 relative low contribution of the overall share of animal products (Land Niederösterreich, 2018).

537 Therefore, in light of this data it is possible to conclude that the proposed foodshed for Vienna
538 in this study might be already food self-sufficient for some specific plant-based products
539 (cereals and vegetables), whereas for animal products and fruit it is still far off. However, for
540 cereals, the results suggest that part of the cereal production in the region might be exported as
541 animal feed to other regions or to other countries (Statistik Austria, 2019).

542

543 **4.4. Pathways for building a more self-sufficient and sustainable food system**

544 The existing reports assessing the current situation of the food system in Vienna and Bristol
545 suggest that both foodsheds are still very far from being self-sufficient and rely on national and
546 international flows. As such, both national food systems are not designed to function at regional
547 (i.e. foodshed) level.

548 The dependence on international food supplies due to the supply/demand unbalance makes the
549 system non-resilient and very vulnerable to international food supply disturbances (Bailey and
550 Wellesley, 2017; Béné, 2020; Davis et al., 2021). In order to address the demand-supply
551 mismatch, Keating et al. (2014) identified 14 different pathways, divided into three “food
552 wedges”: 1) pathways that target reducing the food production demand curve (reduce food
553 waste, or over-consumption and meat consumption); 2) pathways that target filling the
554 production gap (expanding agricultural area and efficiency in agriculture and livestock); and 3)
555 pathways that involve avoiding losses in current or future production potential

556 The solution might be a combination of these three mentioned pathways, where the relative
557 weight of each one would depend on the specific characteristics of the foodshed (e.g. degree of
558 current land used, production efficiency, or environmental impact). As such, Alexander et al.
559 (2019) demonstrated that a set of marginal food system changes aimed at increasing food
560 production efficiency, decreasing food losses and shifting diets could lead to a decrease of the
561 agricultural land use by 21%. According to this study, changes in consumer choices in
562 developed countries might be the main driver affecting food land footprint. While in some
563 underdeveloped countries increasing sustainable food production, efficiency and land use
564 change is still a suitable option (Balehegn et al., 2020; Marti and Puertas, 2020), this might not
565 be the case for developed countries, where a high degree of efficiency in production and land
566 use is already achieved. In our study we have demonstrated that reducing food losses and wastes
567 could increase food self-sufficiency by 20-30% because of the decrease in the land footprint
568 (tables 3 and 4). Furthermore, the results show that even considering the potential reduction in
569 yields, when shifting to organic and regional diets both foodsheds could be self-sufficient. As
570 such, pathways for Bristol and Vienna should be focused on dietary changes and consumer
571 behavior, and increasing and diversifying regional production in an environmentally-friendly
572 way. In other words, to include the foodshed approach – based on the sustainable city-region
573 food system (CRFS) concept – in the different food policies, decreasing the vulnerability of the
574 food systems and adapting them to the changing conditions (Blay-Palmer et al., 2021; Vittuari
575 et al., 2021)

576

577 **5. Conclusions**

578 We can conclude that the foodsheds selected for Vienna and Bristol might be suitable to achieve
579 a high degree of potential self-sufficiency based on regional and sustainable production.
580 However, diversification of regional crop production sustainably managed as well as shifts in
581 consumption and food waste patterns should be fostered. We found that while the potential of
582 achieving a high degree of self-sufficiency exists, the tools to transform this potential into
583 reality requires further development. We believe that local food policies should explicitly
584 consider the sustainable CRFS concept and foodshed delimitation. In this regard, we think that
585 our results proposing specific boundaries and showing that a combination of diversifying
586 regional food production, applying sustainable managements and changing consumer’s
587 behavior could lead to the achievement of a high degree of self-sufficiency, could highly
588 contribute to the debate on shifting to resilient and environmentally-friendly food systems.

589

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598

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607

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