

Why are agri-food systems resistant to new directions of change?

A systematic review

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Abstract

A central concern about achieving global food security is reconfiguring agri-food systems towards sustainability. However, historically-informed trajectories of agri-food system development remain resistant to a change in direction. Through a systematic literature review, we identify three research domains exploring this phenomenon and six explanations of resistance: embedded nature of technologies, misaligned institutional settings, individual attitudes, political economy factors, infrastructural rigidities, research and innovation priorities. We find ambiguities in the use of the terms lock-in and path-dependency, which often weaken the analysis. We suggest a framing that deals with interdependencies and temporal dynamics of causes of resistance. Finally, we discuss implications for framing innovation for transformational change and other research gaps.

Keywords

Inertia, lock-in, path-dependency, agri-food systems, innovation, systemic change

1 Introduction

2 It is increasingly clear that agri-food systems have evolved in unsustainable directions over the
3 last fifty years (De Schutter, 2017). A central concern in recent debates about achieving global
4 food security is the need to reconfigure and transform agri-food systems¹ in a way that is better
5 aligned with aspirations for sustainable and socially inclusive patterns of food production and
6 consumption (Caron et al., 2018; Fanzo et al., 2020; FAO, 2018; Herrero et al., 2021). The need
7 for new directions is evidenced by the persistence of environmentally damaging agriculture and
8 food practices (CCAFS, 2020; Kopittke et al., 2019) and by the prevalence of food insecurity,
9 and malnutrition, particularly in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) (Oliver *et al.*, 2018;
10 Roser and Ritchie, 2019; Global Nutrition Report, 2020). Shocks ranging from unpredictable
11 changes in climate and unforeseen events such as the Covid-19 pandemic add urgency to the call
12 for new directions. Countries in the Global South suffer most acutely from the inadequacy of
13 current agri-food systems (Thompson and Scoones, 2009; HLPE, 2017).

14 Agri-food systems are not static, but are dynamic and continuously evolving. Yet, a shift in the
15 direction of agri-food systems change towards sustainability remains a distant prospect
16 (Dorninger et al., 2020). Different components of agri-food systems have co-evolved over time,
17 becoming mutually supportive, keeping current production and consumption patterns solidly
18 established and deeply embedded (Lamine et al., 2012). It is the resistance of agri-food systems
19 to detach themselves from the past and change in new directions that is the concern (De
20 Schutter, 2017). This implies a shift from incremental changes within the existing format of agri-
21 food systems to a reformatting of the system itself in order to pursue new objectives such as
22 sustainability, underpinned by new trajectories of innovation and development (Foster et al.,
23 2012; Kuokkanen et al., 2017; van Bers et al., 2019). At the same time, there are concerns that
24 incumbent actors in agri-food systems (in particular powerful players in the global food chains
25 such as large food processors, traders and retailers and big input agribusiness) may maintain,
26 defend, and incrementally improve the existing agri-food system, caring little for sustainability

¹ Agri-food systems are defined as the “web of actors, processes, and interactions involved in growing, processing, distributing, consuming, and disposing of foods, from the provision of inputs and farmer training, to product packaging and marketing, to waste recycling” (IPES, 2015) . They also include the web of institutional and regulatory frameworks that influence those systems. Agri-food systems are inherently complex, operate at multiple levels of scale (international/national/regional/local) and time (especially in terms of timing of the outcomes) (Hall and Dijkman, 2019).

1 objectives that might question the established, and highly profitable industrial food and farming
2 model (De Schutter, 2017; Geels et al., 2017; IPES, 2017, 2016).

3 A large body of theory has addressed the question of why domains of economic and social
4 activity tend to proceed along established pathways and directions, and how changes in direction
5 take place (Kemp, 1994; Elzen, Geels and Green, 2004; Geels, 2004; Geels and Kemp, 2007;
6 Magrini *et al.*, 2016). This literature has provided theoretical explanations of (i) the way path
7 dependencies in technology choice and use emerge and reproduce change trajectories (Chhetri et
8 al., 2010; Kemp, 1994; Radulovic, 2005); (ii) the way mutually supporting systems components
9 create “lock-ins” that perpetuate existing directions of innovation (Kuokkanen et al., 2017; M.-B.
10 Magrini et al., 2018b) (iii) and the way inertia in existing systems halts changes towards new
11 directions (Dury et al., 2019a; Leach et al., 2020). These ideas have manifest themselves in the
12 socio-technical transition literature (Geels, 2002 and 2004; Geels and Kemp, 2007), and more
13 recently, in the sustainability transition literature (V. De Herde et al., 2019; M.-B. Magrini et al.,
14 2018a; Mawois et al., 2019).

15 More recently there has been a rapid growth in the application of these “transitions”
16 perspectives to sustainability concerns in agri-food systems (El Bilali, 2019a). This analysis has
17 stressed the need for agri-food systems to undergo fundamental changes to tackle incumbent
18 challenges (El Bilali, 2019b; Melchior and Newig, 2021). However, debates on resistance of the
19 agri-food system to change in new directions has a longer history in agricultural/farming systems
20 and food policy literature that pre-dates the current upswing in interest in sustainability
21 transitions in agri-food systems. In this literature the focus of attention has been on how changes
22 in production and consumption at farm and other scales can be triggered to achieve different
23 aims – improved productivity, environmental sustainability, food security etc. (Cowan and
24 Gunby, 1996; Ruttan, 1996). This literature has a variety of explanations of resistance to change
25 that range from human-ecology interactions through to more socio-political framings. Even in
26 the contemporary sustainable development literature, there are different views on how resistance
27 to change in direction and nature of the change agenda should be framed (De Schutter, 2017;
28 Stirling, 2014). For example, some reject the idea of transition as an appropriate metaphor for
29 change (in agri-food systems and beyond), taking issues with its perceived focus on technological
30 change presided over by incumbent interests and preferring the metaphor of social
31 transformation , based around wider innovations in social practices as well as technologies,
32 involving more diverse, emergent and unruly political re-alignments that challenge incumbent
33 structures pursuing contending (even unknown) ends (Stirling, 2014). This point of view also

1 underpins a more diverse and pluralistic vision of future agri-food systems with multiple change
2 pathways that reflect the values of diverse sets of societal interests (Leach et al., 2010, 2007;
3 Mooney et al., 2021). Building on the tradition of research on the power and politics of food
4 systems (and development more generally), it proposes a critique of the role of dominant voices
5 and expertise in shaping development trajectories that excludes socially and economically
6 disadvantaged members of society (Thompson et al., 2007; Thompson and Scoones, 2009; van
7 Bers et al., 2019).

8 These diverse fields of study have much to say about the nature of resistance to directional
9 change in agri-food systems. However, a clear picture of explanations of resistance to change
10 appears diffuse and even contested. This leaves unanswered questions about how resistance to
11 change in new directions can best be understood and ultimately resolved. To take stock of these
12 debates, old and new, this paper uses a systematic review approach. Its purpose is three-fold.
13 Firstly, to map different domains of research in the agricultural and food research field, to
14 understand how the question of resistance to change is conceptualised. Secondly, to identify
15 different explanations of resistance to change in agri-food systems that emerge across the
16 different bodies of literature. Thirdly, the review is used to identify critical research weakness and
17 gaps that would benefit from further attention.

18 **2 Conceptualising resistance to change in systems terms**

19 The idea of resistance to change as a systemic phenomenon has its origins in the early 1980s, in
20 the attempt to explain how apparently inferior designs (such as the QWERTY keyboard) (David,
21 1985) or unsustainable modes of production (Arthur, 1988) became dominant within a society.
22 Studies shows that, once historic circumstances and preliminary strategic choices lead to the
23 establishment of a certain trajectory, a set of coevolving factors builds around and reinforces
24 these choices (e.g. sunk investments costs in certain technologies, capabilities, infrastructural
25 adjustment, institutional and policy conditions – see example in Box 1) (Arthur, 1988; David,
26 1985; Nelson and Winter, 1982). Thus, the initially set trajectory becomes extremely difficult to
27 dislodge. To describe this phenomenon, researchers employed the concepts of path-dependency
28 and lock-in (David, 1985; Jacquet et al., 2011; Liebowitz and Margolis, 1995; McGuire, 2008).
29 Lock-ins are “blockages” that lead to the exclusion of competing views and practices, making the
30 system “blind” to possible alternatives and keeping it moving on the established trajectory (Della
31 Rossa et al., 2020; Feyereisen et al., 2017; Rudolf Messner et al., 2021). Path- dependency is used
32 to express that “history matters”, describing how initial choices in the past influences present

1 decisions – or “initial moves in one direction elicit further moves in that same direction” (Kay,
2 2003). More recently, the term “inertia” has also surfaced in social sciences (Stål, 2015), to
3 describe a disinclination towards change in agri-food. It is used in a complementary and
4 overlapping manner to the idea of lock-in and path-dependency: at individual level, it is used
5 interchangeably with “lock-in” to describe individuals’ disinclination towards change (Tonkin et
6 al., 2018; Yen, 2018); at system level, it is often used as a synonym of path-dependency, to
7 indicate how routines, social habits, infrastructure, organisational logics etc. slow or sometimes
8 halt a change in direction in agri-food systems (Dury et al., 2019a; Leach et al., 2020). Box 1 uses
9 the example of the dominance of pesticide-related technologies to illustrate how these
10 phenomena work together in causing resistance to changing to new directions in the agri-food
11 systems.

12 Over the years, these three terms became more popular in the literature, to explain systemic
13 resistances in the agriculture and food sector (Baret, 2017; Oliver et al., 2018b; Rønningen et al.,
14 2021). Yet, to date, these phenomena remain ill-defined and under-investigated in the agri-food
15 sectors compared to others (such as energy and transport) (Rønningen et al., 2021). This
16 provides a rationale for conducting this systematic review.

17 **[Box 1 about here]**

18 **3 Methodology**

19 This research adopts a systemic review approach to map old and new debates around resistance
20 to change in agri-food system. We chose 1970 as starting year for our systematic review, for two
21 reasons: i) the literature around the sustainability of agriculture and food production and
22 consumption emerged in the 1970s (and around sustainability more in general) (Yeh, 2019) and ii)
23 the first conceptualisations of path-dependencies, lock-ins and inertia started taking roots in the
24 1980s (David, 1985; Liebowitz and Margolis, 1995; McGuire, 2008). The flowchart below (Figure
25 1) outlines the key choices (keywords, databases, type of publications, language and start year) and
26 steps for our systematic review. Additional information can be found in the Supplementary
27 Material.

28 **[Figure 1 about here]**

1 4 Results

2 4.1 The literature landscape

3 From the systematic screening of the literature, 122 publications were selected. Most of the
4 publications are peer-reviewed journal articles (108), 7 are reports, 3 are books or book chapters,
5 3 are conference papers, and 1 is a working paper. The review reveals that there has been a
6 gradual increase in interest towards the study's topic over the years, with more than 70% of the
7 total papers published after January 2015. The two oldest publication dated to 1996 (Cowan and
8 Gunby, 1996; Ruttan, 1996). If this finding seemingly contradicted our initial assumption
9 implying that the discourse around path-dependencies, lock-ins and inertia started in the 80s
10 (David, 1985; Liebowitz and Margolis, 1995; McGuire, 2008), this was however, explained by the
11 fact that these concepts were initially employed to refer to the industry or energy sector, and only
12 a decade later appeared in the agricultural context (Huyghe and Brummer, 2014). Several sources
13 among the shortlisted publication confirmed this finding (Jacquet et al., 2011; Le Velly et al.,
14 2020; Morel et al., 2020). Besides, of the publications having a specific geographical focus (25
15 have none), almost 75% investigates path-dependencies, lock-ins and inertia in High-Income
16 countries.

17 Another point worthy of notice was the use of the keywords in the selected documents. 'Inertia'
18 was, overall, usually referred mostly to consumers' attitudes and purchasing patterns (Yen, 2018)
19 (Chen et al., 2021). The term was only marginally used to describe resistance to change at the
20 system level (Dury et al., 2019b). In this case, it was mostly referred to policies (e.g. policy
21 inertia) (Henke et al., 2018; S. Ng et al., 2021; Thow et al., 2016). More ambiguous was however
22 the use of 'path-dependencies' and 'lock-ins'. The two terms were used almost interchangeably
23 (Berkhout and Carrillo-Hermosilla, 2002; Chhetri et al., 2010; Kay, 2003). Despite the existence
24 of clear definitions discussed in Section 2, it remained unclear in the literature reviewed whether
25 lock-ins are a result of path dependency, or whether path dependency is a type of lock-in². This

² For instance, (Morel et al., 2020) explains how different elements of food systems have co-evolved historically and reinforce one another, arguing that they result "in the system's perpetuation and stability (lock-in)". In contrast, an IPES report categorizes path-dependency as a particular type of lock-in (IPES, 2016, p. 45). Many similar examples can be found in the literature.

1 finding will be further explored in the discussion. For the analysis of the results, we attempted to
2 keep the terminology used in the original cited document whenever possible.

3 **4.2 Research domains around resistance to change in direction agri-food systems**

4 The review reveals that the debate around resistance to change in agri-food systems resides in
5 three distinct research domains: the agricultural systems (AS), the food system (FS), and the
6 socio-technical systems (STS) research domain. Despite complimentary and sometimes
7 overlapping interests, these domains have distinct differences in terms of i) conceptual
8 underpinnings; ii) scope and focus; iii) methodological approaches and iv) the core objectives of
9 change explored. These distinctions are illustrated in Table 1, together with key references
10 identified for each research domain. The explanations of resistance as mentioned in the different
11 domains are detailed in Table 2.

12 **The agricultural systems research domain.** The focus in this research domain is
13 understanding how agricultural systems can be adapted to achieve different goals. Building on
14 various stands of systems theory, its core conceptual proposition is that changes in agricultural
15 production patterns are determined by a set of interconnected elements, namely: ecological
16 processes and resources, knowledge and technology processes and resources (including,
17 extension services and agricultural research, input suppliers, but also farmer knowledge), market
18 processes and resources (input and outputs markets and patterns of demand) and policies and
19 regulations. Farmers' behaviour and farm-scale processes in relation to technological change are
20 often central to the analysis. Initially, the primary concern of this research domain focused on
21 how to increase agricultural production (mainly through technological improvements). However,
22 the purpose of systems adaptation has expanded to include environmentally sustainable patterns
23 of practice and adapting systems to better cope with unpredictable shocks (e.g. climate-related
24 hazards). Within this research domain, the main explanation of resistance to change focuses on
25 patterns of technology (Table 2) as the cause of lock-ins that, by favouring established
26 production patterns, create path dependencies. Technological change is a core object of interest,
27 but increasingly this is seen as an issue of co-innovation with farmers rather than technology
28 transfer from research.

29 **The food systems research domain.** The focus of this domain is understanding the macro-
30 level factors that shape food-related challenges and the way policy, governance and other
31 institutional reforms can be better aligned to address challenges. Building on political economy
32 and systems theories, its core conceptual proposition is that (i) food security and nutritional

1 outcomes emerge from the (inter)relations between agriculture, industries, economies, ecology
2 and society, and health (Sobal et al., 1998); and (ii) issues of power and politics tend to skew
3 food production and consumption outcome in favour of incumbent interests to the detriment of
4 the most disadvantaged in society. The analysis adopts a systems boundaries approach that
5 encompasses both production and consumption dynamics at national and even global scales.
6 Understanding factors that reinforce the unsustainable direction of agri-food systems
7 development is a core concern as are enquiries that explore how agri-food systems governance
8 and policy can become more inclusive and democratic (Thompson *et al.*, 2007; IPES, 2015, 2016;
9 Oliver *et al.*, 2018). Within this research domain, explanations of resistance to change focus on
10 patterns of power and politics as lock-ins. The main explanation of resistance discussed in this
11 research domain points out how patterns of politics and power engender a lock-in that, by
12 favouring established food production and consumption patterns, creates path dependency in
13 agri-food systems. Technology and innovation are recognised as important, but do not take
14 centre stage (Table 2).

15 **The socio-technical systems research domain.** The focus of this domain revolves around the
16 question of how to enable the profound changes in systems needed to lead societies to transition
17 -or transform- towards different (more sustainable) social and economic objectives. This
18 research domain stems from evolutionary economics and complex systems approach, but finds
19 its deepest roots in science, technology and innovation studies, and in the empirical research on
20 infrastructures and system provisions (Grin et al., 2010) (Frank W Geels, 2002). Its core
21 conceptual proposition is the idea that the embedding and co-evolution of technology with its
22 social, institutional, infrastructural, policy and political context in a “socio-technological regime³”
23 causes path dependencies in technology choice and innovation trajectories. A key framework is
24 the Multi-Level Perspective (Geels, 2002, 2004), that frame changes in innovation direction as a
25 process where niche level innovations (protected spaces where innovation initially emerges) can
26 disrupt incumbent regimes as part of a transition process. This perspective also places great
27 emphasis on the centrality of agency to open the way to alternative paths of development, (see

³ A socio-technical regime has been defined by Geels as “ the deep structure that accounts for the stability of an existing socio-technical system. It refers to the semi-coherent set of rules that orient and coordinate the activities of the social groups that reproduce the various elements of socio-technical systems” (Geels, 2011).

1 for instance (Wiskerke and Roep, 2007; Lamine *et al.*, 2012; De Herde, Maréchal and Baret,
2 2019). Within this research domain, the main explanation of resistance to change focuses on
3 multiple lock-ins that interplay at multiple levels, create innovation path-dependencies misaligned
4 to sustainability and other unmet development aspirations. Technological change is a core object
5 of interest but is understood to be part of a much less bounded social and political change
6 process.

7 **[Table 1 about here]**

8 **4.2 Explanations of resistance to directionality changes in agri-food systems**

9 The analysis of the research domains reveals the existence of different explanations of resistance
10 to a change in direction in agri-food systems. Six thematic explanations of resistance emerge
11 from this analysis: (i) technological persistence; (ii) misaligned institutional settings, policies and
12 incentives; (iii) attitudes and cultures that cause aversion to change; (iv) political economy factors
13 that skew the direction of change; (v) infrastructure rigidities; and (vi) research priorities,
14 practices and dominant innovation narratives misaligned to the transformational change agenda
15 (Table 2). It is acknowledged these 6 themes are presented explanations of resistance, these can
16 also be considered as objects of change that can lead to better system performance: i.e. changes
17 in technology can lead to sustainable innovation, and so on. Understanding how these different
18 factors cause resistance to change is a foundation for addressing these as objectives of change.

19 **[Table 2 about here]**

20 **4.2.1 Dominant technologies persist at the expense of better alternatives because they** 21 **are socially embedded**

22 77 publications discuss the role of technology in explaining resistance to change in agri-food
23 systems. This is a frequent theme within the AS and STS domain, and relatively less in the FS
24 literature. This literature discusses why technologies persist in agri-food systems even when
25 alternatives better aligned with sustainability and other economic and social development
26 outcomes exist (M Farstad et al., 2020; M.-B. Magrini et al., 2018b; Ruttan, 1996; Sutherland et
27 al., 2012; Wilson and Tisdell, 2001). This phenomena is described using the terminology of
28 “technology lock-in”, denoting the way that once established, technology can block alternative
29 technologies and development pathways and induce path dependency (Newton et al., 2020)
30 (Desquilbet et al., 2019; Jacquet et al., 2011; Luna, 2020; Pradhan and Mukherjee, 2018) (Bonke
31 and Musshoff, 2020). The explanation of the causes of this phenomena is that, once a

1 technology is chosen, farmers and other agri-food system players develop new skills and
2 knowledge that allows them to employ the technology, creating a mutually reinforcing
3 mechanism in which cognitive routines, practices, learning patterns and experiences become
4 entrenched with the technology, making it a deeply socially embedded practice (Bonke and
5 Musshoff, 2020; Bruce and Spinardi, 2018; Burton and Farstad, 2020). At the same time, policy
6 and institutional settings adapt to support the use of technology and infrastructure and
7 production modes build around it, thus making patterns of technology use a reinforcing factor
8 for its continuous use (M. Farstad et al., 2020; Huyghe and Brummer, 2014; M. B. Magrini et al.,
9 2018; Morel et al., 2020). For example, chemical control of pests, weeds and diseases has become
10 a well-established and persistent practice enabled by input supply chains, patterns of regulation
11 and trust, and market acceptability. Alternatives such as integrated pest management exist, but
12 barriers to adoption include acquiring new skills, the adaptation of existing farming practices,
13 investment in new equipment and misaligned regulatory and price incentives (Bakker et al., 2020;
14 Bardsley et al., 2018; Barnes et al., 2016; Flor et al., 2019, 2020; M. B. Magrini et al., 2018;
15 Wagner et al., 2016; Wilson and Tisdell, 2001).

16 **4.2.2 Institutions and policies create incentives misaligned to new change directions**

17 65 shortlisted publications explore the role of institutions⁴ as an explanation of resistance to
18 change in the direction in agri-food systems. This explanation, mostly explored within the FS
19 and STS research domain, hinges on the recognition that institutions form a broad array of
20 formal and informal rules, practices and norms that shape individual and organisational
21 behaviour (Alpha and Fouilleux, 2018; Leta et al., 2020; R. Messner et al., 2021; E Zukauskaite
22 and Moodysson, 2016a). Specific institutions, such Intellectual Property rights or food labelling
23 regulations, are examples of institutions as lock-ins, incentivising certain forms of behaviour
24 (Feyereisen et al., 2017; IPES, 2017, 2016; S. Ng et al., 2021; C. Russell et al., 2020) More often
25 the institutional setting comprising of a cluster of policies, regulations and norms that block
26 (lock-in) agri-food systems from pursuing new directions (R. Messner et al., 2021; Turner et al.,

⁴ The term institutions is used here to intend customs and norms as well as formal rules. Formal institutions are rules designed and enforced by the government (such as constitutions, laws, property rights). Informal institutions are traditions or cultural and social norms that influence/constrain individual behaviours (Leta et al., 2020; Williamson, 2009, 2000).

1 2016; van Bers et al., 2019; E Zukauskaite and Moodysson, 2016a). For example, a paper
2 investigating the diversification of cropping systems in France shows how a shift from major
3 crops such as wheat, corn, and soy to more diversified cropping systems -which would enhance
4 ecosystem services - is hampered by institutional settings. These settings do not support
5 diversification as they have i) historically supported wheat prices (instead of, for instance,
6 legumes prices) and ii) established different tariffs barriers for different species (favouring wheat)
7 and iii) provided stable, clear and legible collective rules for major crop species to the detriment
8 of minor ones (M. B. Magrini et al., 2018).

9 Institutional explanations also explore the phenomena of path dependency of broader
10 institutional settings themselves, which in turn causes the persistence of lock-in of the type
11 discussed above and, in so doing, causes the path dependency of agri-food systems. This is
12 discussed in terms of path-dependency and inertia to depict how once certain institutions are in
13 place, they co-evolve with the system – and system actors- to support the initially established
14 trajectory of development (Kimmich, 2016; Klimek and Hansen, 2017; Leta et al., 2020; Oliver et
15 al., 2018; Thow et al., 2016; Van Assche et al., 2014; E Zukauskaite and Moodysson, 2016b). For
16 example, a case study in the Czech Republic offered important insights to understand how path-
17 dependencies in the institutions are at the same time long-lasting and deeply concealed. The
18 study described how the institutional set-up established while the country still belonged to the
19 Soviet bloc, has engendered a deeply concealed path-dependency that remains even now that the
20 country is part of the European Union (Orderud and Polickova-Dobiasova, 2010). The authors
21 showed how environmentally damaging farming practices, previously legitimated by the
22 achievement of production targets set by the state, are now legitimated by profitability targets.
23 Thus, even if the institutional set-up has changed, this change was incremental, as it built on the
24 existing trajectories of development (e.g. based on non-sustainable practices) instead of
25 promoting a directionality shift (e.g. towards sustainable production modes). Path-dependency
26 depicts how the “new” institutions are in truth built on the old ones, which still linger on but are
27 *“wrapped in new clothing”*.

28 Several studies analysed path-dependencies in policies (Baret, 2017; Benoit and Patsias, 2017; de
29 Krom and Muilwijk, 2019; Engström et al., 2008; Kickert and van der Meer, 2011; S Ng et al.,
30 2021; Rutz et al., 2014; Thow et al., 2016). The studies highlighted how “today’s policy issues
31 find their origin in critical historical moments that create their own path-dependent political
32 processes that are resistant to change” (van Bers et al., 2019). It is argued that “ past policy
33 adoption explain future plans as evidence of path dependency” (Chavez and Perz, 2013) with

1 policies that tend to follow the path set at their creation (Lășan, 2012). Ample attention was also
2 given to the European Common Agricultural Policy (CAP), as a policy that suffers from
3 persistent path-dependencies which hampers major policy shifts to different production
4 trajectories (Benoit and Patsias, 2017; Henke et al., 2018; Kay, 2003; Kuhmonen, 2018; Lășan,
5 2012; Rac et al., 2020; Rutz et al., 2014). A recent study from Rac et al. (2020) showed that the
6 decision-making processes within the 2018 CAP reform is “too strongly influenced by
7 agricultural stakeholders who favour the *status quo*” and thus fails to meet the call from the public
8 for an environmentally stronger policy.

9 **4.2.3 Attitudes and cultures that cause aversion to change**

10 59 publications discuss how attitudinal and cultural factors are a key determinant in the
11 propensity of individuals to behave and act differently in relation to technology adoption, food
12 consumption habits, and their willingness to ignore or proactively address negative
13 environmental externalities of agri-food systems. This explanation appears most frequently in
14 publications belonging to the AS and STS research domains, arguing that values, attitudes,
15 cultures create a lock-in that keeps actors stuck in certain production and consumption modes
16 (Barnes et al., 2016; Beilin et al., 2012; Bonke and Musshoff, 2020; V De Herde et al., 2019;
17 Gonçalves et al., 2015; IPES, 2016; Reenberg et al., 2012; Renwick et al., 2019; Stassart and
18 Jamar, 2008; Wilson, 2008). For example, for farmers, this means that after the initial adoption
19 of a certain cropping practice, the practice becomes part of the family tradition, and thus is
20 automatically labelled as the “best” one – even when it endangers negative externalities
21 (Gonçalves et al., 2015). A study in Brazil revealed how field burning practices are still
22 employed in spite of their negative environmental externalities, as they have become part of the
23 family history, and thus farmers do not want to detach from them.

24 Attitudes as a lock-in are also discussed as a cause of path dependency, particularly in relation to
25 risk attitudes of farmers. For example, in the case of resource-poor farmers in developing
26 countries, an initial decision (such as technology adoption) that led to failure can generate path
27 dependency by making the farmer more reluctant to take risks in the future (Yesuf and
28 Bluffstone, 2009). Similarly, when a shock (e.g. a natural hazard) occurs, this can both influence
29 how the farmers will respond to a future shock (Bacon et al., 2017), but also shape later decisions
30 in other matters, as the farmer will be affected by the shock for some time after it happened, and
31 even more so if the farmer is resource poor (Molla et al., 2020).

1 Findings also show how attitudinal and cultural drivers create inertia among consumers (Chen et
2 al., 2021; Jacobsen and Dulrud, 2007; Obih and Baiyegunhi, 2017; Webb and Byrd-Bredbenner,
3 2015; Yen, 2018), keeping them “stuck” along certain patterns of consumption. For example, the
4 decision to purchase and consume food is influenced by “cultural understandings” (Rudolf
5 Messner et al., 2021), values and habits which are part of the individual’s lifestyle – creating
6 patterns of purchase that align and reinforce a particular trajectory (i.e. consumerism) of
7 production and consumption (Jacobsen and Dulrud, 2007). Consumers’ attitudes exert
8 influence across the agri-food system as demands often reinforce the industrial agriculture,
9 production-oriented development, demanding that cheap varied food should be made available
10 all year round (IPES, 2016; Messner, Johnson and Richards, 2021), and often preferring
11 processed, imported foods (e.g. snacks and exotic fruits) to locally available, more sustainable
12 alternatives (Obih and Baiyegunhi, 2017; Yen, 2018).

13 **4.2.4 Political economy factors that skew the direction of change**

14 Explanations of resistance relating to the political economy of agri-food systems are a central
15 theme within the FS research domain. Central to this explanation is the argument that the
16 political economy of food systems creates a lock-in whereby “powerful actors” (Bui *et al.*, 2019),
17 “power imbalances” (Hale et al., 2021) and “concentrate corporate power” (Clapp and Ruder,
18 2020) shape the direction of change in ways that support their interests and values and maintain
19 the *status quo*, and that is often misaligned with the transformation of the agri-food system
20 towards more sustainable and inclusive outcomes (Foster et al., 2012; IPES, 2017, 2016, 2015;
21 Oliver et al., 2018; Swinburn, 2019) At a global scale, it is argued that the historical “ascendancy
22 of a corporate food regime” ingrained power imbalances in global supply chains (De Schutter,
23 2017), and set the global food systems on a path-dependent trajectory where sustainability is far
24 from being the primary concern (O De Schutter, 2017; IPES, 2017, 2016; Murphy et al., 2012;
25 van Bers et al., 2019). Part of this argument suggests that a “concentration of power lock-in”
26 (IPES, 2016) is kept in place through multiple mechanisms. On the one side, the presence of
27 large firms dominating the market increases farmers’ reliance on a narrow range of suppliers and
28 buyers, generating a lock-in that i) constrains their choices in terms of what to grow and how to
29 grow, ii) increases their reliance on a given set of available commercial inputs (such as fertilizers
30 or feedstock) and iii) limits their access only to certain sources of energy and financing that
31 (IPES, 2016). On the other hand, large corporations can undermine political priorities and
32 regulatory interventions (Bui et al., 2019; Foster et al., 2012; C Russell et al., 2020). For example,
33 as almost 90% of the global grain trade is controlled by four agribusiness firms – a change in

1 sourcing policy by a big corporation might entail a change in regulation across the sector (IPES,
2 2015; Murphy et al., 2012). Furthermore, big agribusinesses investments in R&D provide these
3 players with a way to grow their influence in framing global problems (i.e. global productivity
4 challenges) and then provide a solution which in turn raise demand for their products (i.e. input-
5 responsive crops and breeds). At the same time, political actors also have a role in the process of
6 change, as they are rarely willing to propose transformational policies. Gains from such policies
7 might not be observed in the short term (i.e. within the election cycle) or politicians do not want
8 to jeopardize their chances of (re-)election by proposing measures that “row against” the
9 established culture and beliefs (IPES, 2016; Frimpong Boamah and Sumberg, 2019; Radulovic,
10 2005).

11 **4.2.5 Infrastructure rigidities**

12 With food and feed markets develop around specific crops, infrastructures and inherent logistics
13 are set up to accommodate the collection, processing, storage, and marketing of these crops, to
14 the potential detriment of others. Yet, infrastructure was rarely termed as a “lock-in” per se and
15 was rather discussed on the sidelines (34 papers), and almost solely in the STS research domain,
16 which recognises the importance of infrastructural arrangements for switching to different
17 production and consumption pathways. For example, Meynard et al. (2017), argue that even
18 when there is evidence that grain-legumes would contribute to cutting down GHGs emissions,
19 adoption and diffusion of these crops is faced with critical infrastructural barriers at all level of
20 the value chain, from collection to food and feed processing firms, which would face higher
21 transaction costs for minor species than for dominant ones. A similar case is presented by
22 Magrini, Béfort and Nieddu (2018). Several sources mention infrastructural developments (or
23 lack of) as a factor that hampers change within agri-food systems (Clar and Pinilla, 2011; Hale et
24 al., 2020; Pradhan and Mukherjee, 2018; Thompson and Scoones, 2009), without however
25 discussing the wider implications of this. Infrastructural rigidities cross the boundaries of the
26 agri-food sectors, as they also involve transport and energy systems. In this view, it is argued that
27 the use of renewable energy sources in the food value chain is key to meet sustainability targets
28 (see for instance (Beilin et al., 2012; Kimmich, 2016; Radulovic, 2005). However, this issue
29 remains mostly overlooked in the selected publications.

30 **4.2.6 Agricultural research priorities, practices and dominant innovation narratives** 31 **misaligned to the transformational change agenda**

1 Research and innovation priorities have a crucial role in shaping agri-food innovation and policy
2 trajectories (IPES, 2016). This theme appears mainly in the STS and FS domain, even though it
3 still remains marginal compared to other explanations. Central to the explanation of resistance
4 to change in research priorities, practices and innovation narratives, is the argument that the
5 institutional setting of (particularly) public agricultural research create a lock-in that supports
6 (path dependant) research trajectories misaligned to the transformation of agri-food systems
7 (Hall and Dijkman, 2019; Klerkx and Rose, 2020). This institutional setting includes: the way
8 priorities are set and research capabilities built; professional reward systems for scientists; a low-
9 risk attitude by research funders; inappropriate patterns of partnership; a lack of complexity
10 aware evaluation practices; and disciplinary fragmentation poorly aligned with transformational
11 challenges (Glover et al., 2021; A. J. Hall and Dijkman, 2019; Turner et al., 2016). This manifests
12 in: short-cycle projects developing incremental solutions (A. J. Hall and Dijkman, 2019; IPES,
13 2016); legacy plant breeding programmes misaligned to current development priorities (McGuire,
14 2008); the reluctance of researchers to switch to new topics (Vanloqueren and Baret, 2009);
15 public research strategies, driven by funders, adopt private sector market demand principles at
16 the expense of a portfolio approach adapted to the uncertainties of agri-food system
17 transformation (Glover et al., 2021) and a lack of consideration of the directionality of
18 agriculture and food innovation and its relevance to societal grand challenges (Herrero et al.,
19 2021).

20 The existence of more concealed dynamics in the setting of research and innovation trajectories
21 – and how they support the *status quo* – is also offered as an explanation to resistance to change.
22 For example, it is argued that, stemming from the Green Revolution, the “modernisation” of
23 agriculture-thinking has gradually taken over in the research for development discourse, with a
24 steady body of research developing around “production-innovation” and “growth” narratives
25 (Thompson and Scoones, 2009). In these narratives, technology-driven economic growth is
26 presented as the way forward to feed the world and has gradually become systemically
27 embedded, shaping monitoring and evaluation frameworks that measure success in terms of
28 “total yields of specific crops, productivity per worker, and total factor productivity” (IPES,
29 2016), investment and funding allocations, and production-oriented research agendas
30 (Thompson *et al.*, 2007; IPES, 2016). These dominant research and innovation narratives create
31 lock-ins blocking alternative research narratives, labelling them as “micro-project scale” and
32 relegating them to a background shelf (Anderson and Maughan, 2021; Flor et al., 2020). This
33 argument is also supported by Hall and Dijkman (2019) who discuss how productivist and

1 technology-centric approaches keeps the current agri-food system transformation narrative stuck
2 into “linear and component change logics”.

3 The progressive privatization of agricultural research, which aims to secure returns on
4 investment and focuses on a small number of tradable crops and technological innovation
5 (especially the ones for input-responsive agriculture) further secures the production profitability
6 narrative (IPES, 2016) at the expense of sustainability concerns. As governments’ funding to
7 research institutions decreases, these need to rely on the private sector, whose investments
8 oftentimes aim to recover the cost in terms of production volume, rather than to deliver global
9 food security or sustainability (IPES, 2016). Thus, even if alternative discourses (e.g. agroecology,
10 integrated pest management) are gaining increasing attention, current research trajectories are
11 still locked-in the historically established, industrial/modern agriculture model that ranks
12 productivity goals above sustainability ones (Anderson and Maughan, 2021; Baret, 2017; IPES,
13 2016).

14 **5 Discussion: towards an explanation of resistance to change of** 15 **agri-food systems**

16 This systematic review showed how different research domains understand and explain the
17 phenomenon of resistance to change. It also identified different six explanations of resistance
18 emerging from the selected literature. This section identifies i) research gaps within the selected
19 literature; ii) it offers insights into the causes of resistance to change in direction of change of
20 agri-food systems are presented above; iii) it discusses the implication for future research on
21 directionality changes in agri-food systems.

22 **5.1.1 Research gaps in the selected literature**

23 The three research domains, namely the AS, FS and STS discuss different aspects of resistance to
24 change. The AS mostly provides insights on dynamics of change at the farm level of scale,
25 mostly showcasing how technology choices and individual behaviours hamper the switch to
26 more sustainable production patterns (Gonçalves et al., 2015; Wilson and Tisdell, 2001). By
27 contrast, the FS captures the patterns of power and politics that shape food system trajectories at
28 the global level. The STS adopts a more holistic approach, highlighting the interplay of different
29 factors creating resistance at multiple levels of scale and amongst a variety of actors. Yet, this
30 literature could be that it focuses majorly at the regional and country-level, giving relatively less
31 attention to the macro-level forces and players that shape global agri-food systems (which are,

1 however, well discussed in the FS research domain). The argument that the STS literature needs
2 to give more attention to the power and politics dimension is well present in the literature (El
3 Bilali, 2019a; Hinrichs, 2014; Markard et al., 2012).

4 Thus, the analysis showed that each research domain has inherent research gaps (more or less
5 pronounced)— this calls for more transdisciplinary dialogue between different research domains,
6 already well acknowledged in the research community but only partially implemented in practice
7 (Hinrichs, 2014; Markard et al., 2012).

8 Another gap concerned the geographical focus of the publication. A large portion of the studies
9 is set in HIC. Even if this might be caused to the specific keywords used (i.e. a wider search
10 might have found similar concepts expressed through different terminology), this finding aligns
11 with previous studies that highlighted how there is still limited evidence and understanding of
12 how change happens in LMICs (Köhler et al., 2019; Ojha and Hall, 2021), and is mirrored in
13 recent reviews in relations to the topic of transition and transformation in food systems, that
14 seems to be predominantly studied in HIC (El Bilali, 2019a; Melchior and Newig, 2021). Still,
15 needs further study to better evaluate whether this bias is simply an issue due to the keyword
16 choice or rather is a symptom of an existing gap around our understanding of processes of
17 change in LMICs.

18 Besides, it emerged from the literature that certain explanations of resistance remain under-
19 investigated, in particular infrastructure and research and innovation priorities. This needs more
20 attention. Furthermore, even though agri-food systems clearly have interlinkages with the
21 transport and energy sector, which impact their overall sustainability. Despite extensive evidence
22 that path-dependencies and lock-ins are well present in these two sectors energy and (Barter,
23 2004; Klitkou et al., 2015; Seto et al., 2016; Trencher et al., 2020; Unruh, 2000), how these
24 dependencies intertwine with agriculture and food and contribute to deepening resistance to
25 change is a neglected topic.

26 **5.1.2 Insights into the causes of resistance to change in direction of change of agri-food** 27 **systems.**

28 While the has surfaced six thematic explanations of resistance to change, a degree of ambiguity
29 with the terms lock-ins and path dependency means that a clear picture of cause-effect relations
30 in the resistance process is muddled. So, for example, some analysis argues that institutional
31 settings are a lock-in, shaping the behaviour of farmers, consumers or research organisations etc.

1 (Leta et al., 2020; E Zukauskaite and Moodysson, 2016a). However, the analysis also discusses
2 path dependencies in institutional settings, where policies and other incentives persist to, for
3 example, encourage production at the expense of environmental and other considerations
4 (Orderud and Polickova-Dobiasova, 2010). Yet the persistence (path-dependency) of the
5 institutional setting means that institutional setting also act as lock-ins to other areas perpetuating
6 path dependency in the development of the agri-food system in its existing direction. In the
7 same fashion, technology can be viewed as a lock-in, blocking out alternative technologies
8 (Wagner et al., 2016). At the same time the skills, capability and institutions that build up around
9 technology create a path dependency in technology choice and in doing so reinforce the path
10 dependency of the agri-food system as a whole (M. B. Magrini et al., 2018).

11 This is the inability of the concepts of lock-in and path dependency to clarify cause-effect
12 relationships. It part this is due to the ambiguous way these terms are used in much of the
13 analysis of agri-food systems. However, it is also partially a result of the inability of these terms
14 to represent the dynamic interplay and interdependence between lock-ins and path dependencies
15 that take place at different physical and temporal scales and domains of the agri-food system.
16 For example, analyses do not make a clear distinction between the historically remote causes of
17 path dependency (a resistance to change in direction) (for example, establishment of the
18 industrial agriculture model in the period following the Second World War (De Schutter, 2014))
19 from the more immediate proximate causes (lock-ins) which contribute to the perpetuation of
20 the direction of change such the consumers expectations of cheap food round or the
21 concentration of power in agro-industries (Clapp and Ruder, 2020; Foster et al., 2012; IPES,
22 2016, 2017; Swinburn, 2019) that are themselves path-dependent. In other words, the way these
23 concepts are used struggles to distinguish whether factors reinforcing the current direction of
24 change are a cause of resistance or an effect of other historical and proximate factors. This
25 seems unsatisfactory.

26 It would be much more useful to conceptualise the six thematic explanations of resistance to
27 change that this review has identified as sub-domains of path dependency, recognising that they
28 are interdependent and co-evolving and that simultaneously manifest as an effect (a path-
29 dependency) as well as cause (lock-in). This helps to reveal that it is the collective, reinforcing
30 nature of these sub-domains of path-dependency that cause resistance to change in the agri-food
31 system as a whole. Based on our exploration of the explanations of resistance to change in
32 direction of agri-food systems, we believe these sub-domains of path dependency are:

1 technology choices, institutions and policies, attitudes and cultures, infrastructure, power and
2 politics, infrastructure, research and innovation priorities, practices and narratives (Figure 2).

3

4 **[Figure 2 about here]**

5 This whole system reconceptualization of resistance to change shares much in common with the
6 STS concept of a socio-technical regime (V. De Herde et al., 2019; Geels, 2004; Lamine et al.,
7 2012; Morel et al., 2020). It also aligns with calls for the reframing of innovation for
8 transformation as a whole of system endeavour rather than a task of individual stand-alone
9 technical, institutional or other innovations (Schot and Steinmueller, 2018), and with current
10 perspective suggesting the bundling of innovations to progress agri-food system transformation
11 (Barrett et al., 2020).

12 **5.1.3 Implication for research on directionality changes in agri-food systems**

13 Recent literature has highlighted that our understanding of processes of change remains largely
14 theoretical (Oliver et al., 2018), and that our knowledge on how transformative processes can be
15 designed and managed in practice remains a much-contested interrogative (Cohen and Ilieva,
16 2015). It has been argued that to enable a directionality change we need to tackle the feedback
17 mechanisms that keep the system in its current unsustainable state (Oliver et al., 2018), and that
18 we need much more inter- and trans-disciplinary approaches (Francis et al., 2008; Hinrichs, 2016,
19 2014).

20 The systematic review revealed that we need a much more profound and systemic understanding
21 of how directionality changes can be unlocked in agri-food systems. On the one side -as
22 discussed in the previous paragraph – we need deeper analysis to unravel the proxy and remote
23 causes that anchor us to an unsustainable trajectory of development. On the other, it demands
24 the recognition that technology or policy fixes are -if enacted in isolation- insufficient to tackle
25 today’s challenges (Drottberger et al., 2021). The interconnected and self-reinforcing nature of
26 the factors that create resistance to change, highlighted in the review, requires a reframing of
27 innovation as a systemic process, where innovation does not merely refer to innovation in *all*
28 components of the system (technologies, infrastructure, institutions, individual behaviours,
29 research and innovation priorities, patterns of politics and power) at multiple geographical scales
30 (local, national, global). However, the analysis of lock-ins, path-dependencies and inertia
31 highlighted a much more concealed issue in the way we frame change: an issue of the *temporality*

1 of change. The path-dependent nature of agri-food system ensures that until a directionality
2 change is attempted on a single component of the system – the others, self-reinforcing factors,
3 ensure that the impact of this change is limited, and cannot alter the overall system trajectory.
4 For instance, despite increasing advocacy for implementing agroecology, this research narrative
5 is kept at bay by all other factors – not only dominant research priorities that support industrial
6 agriculture, but also behavioural preferences (that also involve technology choices) towards
7 historically established production modes, infrastructure that supports the most profitable crops
8 (such as wheat), institutional settings and policies that still favour industrial agriculture, and
9 power players that ensure the dismissal of agroecology as a micro-scale project (IPES, 2016;
10 Thompson et al., 2007b; Thompson and Scoones, 2009).

11 The issue of temporality is thus crucial when aiming for directionality changes – yet still largely
12 overlooked. The systematic review shed light on the need for multiple changes (i.e. in policies,
13 technologies etc.) to happen on the same temporal scale – or on the need for all the factors
14 reinforcing unsustainability to be re-directed towards a sustainable trajectory *simultaneously*.

15 However, how this new framing of innovation can be implemented in both theory and practice
16 requires further attention, especially in light of the current path-dependency of research priorities
17 to still conceive change as a short-term and linear process.

18

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Supplementary materials – Systematic Review process

1. Background

Originally mostly used in the medical field, systematic reviews are now becoming increasingly popular in the agriculture and food research field (Sargeant *et al.*, 2005; Farrukh *et al.*, 2020). Despite presenting certain disadvantages - for instance, the keyword choice excludes a number of results, or some sources not be included in the search even if relevant, because of vague titles or abstracts that might not contain the search keywords (Mallett *et al.*, 2012)– systematic reviews provide a comprehensive, reproducible and unbiased search strategy (Sargeant *et al.*, 2005; Farrukh *et al.*, 2020). Whereas case studies taken in isolation might provide only a partial picture (Petticrew and Roberts, 2008, p. 11) of resistance, the advantage of a systematic review lies in the comprehensiveness of the results and findings it produces (Grant and Booth, 2009; Kelly, 2015). Synthetizing and appraising findings from a wide variety of study designs and settings will provide a deep understanding of how path-dependencies, lock-ins and inertia work together to create resistance to change, providing insights from a wide variety of publications set in different geographical contexts and using multiple frameworks and methods.

2. Systematic review protocol

The systematic review included the Scopus, ScienceWeb and ScienceDirect databases. The systematic review conducted in this paper follows the PRISMA guidelines (Moher *et al.*, 2009). Prior to carrying out the systematic review, a protocol was implemented to ensure that only relevant sources are selected, while exclusion and inclusion criteria are clear and the methodology is replicable. The procedure followed in the systematic review is detailed below.

i) Identification

The terms searched were as follows:

(inertia OR lock-in* OR lockin* OR path-dependen*) OR (path AND dependent) OR (lock AND in) AND (agri* OR food OR farm*)

1 The multi-character wildcard “*” was used at the end of the words to ensure maximum
2 inclusiveness of the results. The wildcard in fact ensures that different variations of the keywords
3 are captured in the search as it looks for the root word and alternative endings⁵. For instance, path-
4 dependen* will include both path-dependency and path-dependencies. Similarly, agri* will include
5 agriculture, agricultural and so on.

6 The term “AND” was used to capture studies that captured inertia/lock-ins/path dependencies
7 *only* within the context of agricultural and food systems. The term “OR” was used to indicate that
8 at least one of the terms in the brackets should appear, and to search for variants of the same
9 concept.

10 All databases were searched following the same search strategy for keywords in the abstract, paper
11 title, or full text of the publication. The search included peer-reviewed journal articles, books,
12 conferences and reports in English. As the literature around the sustainability of agriculture and
13 food production and consumption emerged in the 1970s (and around sustainability more in
14 general) (Yeh, 2019), whilst the first conceptualisations of path-dependencies, lock-ins and inertia
15 started taking roots in the 1980s (David, 1985; McGuire, 2008), 1970 was chosen as cut-off point
16 for our systematic review. One researcher led the screening of selected documents, and unclear
17 cases were discussed within the team.

18 The search yielded the following results:

- 19 ▪ On Scopus, 3,703 document results;
- 20 ▪ On ScienceDirect, 400 document results;
- 21 ▪ On Web of Science, 4,972 document results.

22

23 *ii) Screening and eligibility check*

24 All documents retrieved in the three different databases were then exported to Mendeley
25 Reference Manager (<https://www.mendeley.com/reference-management/reference-manager>).

⁵ For more details: https://service.elsevier.com/app/answers/detail/a_id/15137/supporthub/scopus/;
https://service.elsevier.com/app/answers/detail/a_id/11213/supporthub/scopus/#tips; <https://clarivate.libguides.com/woscc/searchtips>

1 Duplicates were removed through the “Check for duplicates” tool. This tool checks for similarities
2 in publication type (e.g. journal, book section, working paper, report), title, authors, publication
3 year, journal name/book publisher and so on and in case to merge the document, asking for
4 confirmation in case of conflicting fields. After checking and removing existing duplicates, the
5 total was of 5191 documents. These documents underwent screening.

6 The systematic review then screened the articles through 3 steps.

7 STEP 1: Title and Journal screening

- 8 • Records were screened based on their title.
- 9 • Exclusion criteria: Records where the title (combined with the journal field) clearly
10 informed that the document did not belong to the context of the agriculture and food
11 sector (e.g. rather belonged to chemistry, biology, psychology etc.) were excluded.
- 12 • In case of doubt, the document was kept and passed to the second step.

13 At the end of this step, 4686 were excluded, and 505 were kept for abstract screening.

14 STEP 2: Abstract screening

- 15 • Records were screened based on their abstract.
- 16 • Exclusion criteria: each abstract was thoroughly read by the reviewer. Documents were
17 excluded when:
 - 18 (A) there was no mention of either lock-ins, or path-dependencies, or inertia, or
19 the context of the document was not within the agriculture and food sector;
 - 20 (B) Literature reviews were also excluded from the analysis, to only capture
21 findings from original studies, as done in a recently published systematic review
22 from Farrukh *et al.* (2020)
- 23 • In case of doubt, the document was kept and passed to the third step.

24 At the end of this step, 247 documents were excluded, of which 238 were excluded because not
25 relevant to the topic (A), and 9 were excluded because they were literature reviews (B).

26 258 documents were kept for full-text screening.

27 STEP 3: Full-text screening

- 28 • The third step involved the analysis of the full text of each selected document.

- 1 • Exclusion criteria: each document was thoroughly read by the reviewer. Documents were
2 excluded when:

3 (A) The full text was not accessible;

4 (B) They were literature review (this was sometimes unclear in the abstract);

5 (C) The full text was not in English (even if “English” was chosen as language of the
6 sources, the fact that their abstract was in English might have led to their inclusion
7 in the database);

8 (D) They did not comprehensively explain lock-ins, path-dependencies or inertia in the
9 context of the agriculture and food sector (mentioning these concepts without a
10 clear explanation of their meaning and/or implications was not sufficient to make
11 the source eligible)

12 At the end of this step, 147 documents were excluded: 21 were non accessible (of these 21, 17
13 were books or books chapter, and 4 were journal articles) not accessible (A); 2 were literature
14 reviews (B); 6 were not available in English (C) and 118 were not relevant to the topic (D).

15 At this stage, 11 records were added through snowballing. Snowballing refers to pursuing
16 relevant references cited in the selected documents and adding them to the search results.

17 Snowballing is an alternative approach to discover additional evidence that was not retrieved
18 through conventional search and is considered as a best practice when conducting systematic
19 reviews.(Choong *et al.*, 2014). Records added through snowballing included five reports (Murphy
20 and Burch, 2012; IPES, 2016, 2017; Dury *et al.*, 2019; Hall and Dijkman, 2019), which possibly
21 did not come up in the systematic review process as their breadth of topic did not allow the
22 inclusion of path-dependency, inertia and lock-in keywords in the abstract, title or keyword list.
23 Six were a journal article which was relevant to the topic, but did not emerge from the systematic
24 review (Kay, 2003; Murphy and Burch, 2012; Turner *et al.*, 2016; Klerkx and Rose, 2020;
25 Anderson and Maughan, 2021; Glover *et al.*, 2021, forthcoming; Herrero *et al.*, 2021).

26 **A total of 122 documents were thus selected for the analysis.**

27 *iii) Inclusion*

28 Overall, a total of 122 documents was included in the analysis. To facilitate the analysis of these
29 documents, reviewers created an Excel spreadsheet to the descriptive statistics of the selected
30 publications: author, journal, year, affiliation of first author, continent of affiliation country focus,
31 methodology, level of focus (macro/meso/micro). Then, all documents were attentively analyzed

- 1 to identify patterns around our topic of study, and in particular pinpoint the existence of different
- 2 research domain while enabling the clustering of explanation of resistance.
- 3

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