

# Strategies for achieving healthy, sustainable, and equitable dietary transitions

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## Abstract

The industrialization of global food systems has led to dietary changes that harm both health and the environment. If global food systems are to meet the needs of a growing population for healthy, environmentally sustainable, and affordable diets, substantial changes will be required. In this Review, we synthesize growing empirical evidence on the complexity of factors influencing consumer dietary and farmer production choices, especially the roles of public and private entities that shape food environments. We outline promising interventions to help facilitate beneficial global dietary transitions, including research and development for product innovation, regulation of food environments, and food assistance and food-as-medicine programs. Understanding and aligning the motives and incentives of various food systems actors is essential to achieve improved health, environment and equity outcomes.

1 Rising incomes, urbanization, the industrialization of agriculture and the manufacturing of  
2 thousands of flavorful processed foods are driving global dietary transitions with major health  
3 and environmental consequences (1–3). Current diets are characterized by insufficient  
4 consumption of vegetables, fruits, legumes, nuts and whole grains, and excessive intake of  
5 animal-sourced foods, and foods with added sugars, refined starches, sodium, saturated and  
6 trans fats, and artificial colors and preservatives (2). This dietary transition is happening in rich  
7 and poor countries alike, contributing to adverse health outcomes, such as increased incidences  
8 of type 2 diabetes, coronary heart disease, some cancers, and other non-communicable  
9 diseases (4). These dietary changes also contribute meaningfully to multiple global  
10 environmental issues, including climate change, water pollution, land clearing and associated  
11 species extinction, and novel infectious diseases (5, 6). Livestock production, in particular,  
12 results in water and air pollution from manure management and feed cultivation, methane  
13 emissions from ruminant enteric fermentation, CO<sub>2</sub> emissions and biodiversity loss from lands  
14 cleared to create pastures and croplands, and accelerated zoonotic disease transmission and  
15 antimicrobial resistance (7). These converging health and environmental concerns have led  
16 researchers — over decades and with a growing body of compelling evidence — to identify and  
17 advocate for dietary patterns that benefit both people and the planet (1, 2, 8–11). Despite these  
18 findings and repeated efforts to shift agricultural production systems, food manufacturing and  
19 marketing practices, and consumer behavior, wide-scale shifts toward healthier and more  
20 environmentally sustainable diets have not occurred.

21  
22 To qualify as “sustainable”, dietary transitions must decrease the environmental harms of  
23 agriculture, including irreversible impacts such as species extinction. “Healthy” diets should  
24 include sufficient amounts of vegetables, fruits and nuts, and provide a balance of  
25 macronutrients, micronutrients, and bioactive components (e.g., fibers, nutraceuticals,  
26 antioxidants, and probiotics) that promote human wellbeing rather than increasing the risk of  
27 chronic diseases, while minimizing additives, anti-nutrients and contaminants (12, 13). Because  
28 3.1 billion people have incomes insufficient to afford a healthy diet (14) and 3.8 billion live in  
29 households with a food system worker (15), dietary transitions should also be just or “equitable”  
30 (16) so that everyone can reliably access sustainable, healthy and culturally appropriate diets.  
31 Sustainability, health and equity goals in food systems do not always align perfectly, but growing  
32 evidence shows they are largely compatible (1, 2, 7, 17) and can reinforce one another when  
33 pursued together (18). This will require prioritizing the affordability of healthy and sustainable  
34 foods, many of which can be more expensive than less healthy options, especially in low- or  
35 middle-income countries (LMICs).

36  
37 No country currently enjoys truly sustainable, healthy and equitable diets. Challenges vary in  
38 relative importance across societies, however. In high-income countries (HICs), greenhouse gas  
39 emissions, air and water pollution, and soil degradation are the primary agricultural sustainability  
40 challenges (19), while clinical obesity and non-communicable diseases like diabetes are the  
41 dominant diet-related health problems (20). In contrast, LMICs face all forms of malnutrition  
42 (21), including mineral and vitamin deficiencies (22) and undernourishment (i.e., insufficient  
43 calories), especially in conflict-affected regions (23), as well as rising rates of obesity (24).  
44 Meanwhile, LMICs struggle with rapid deforestation and biodiversity loss, owing partly to

1 agricultural exports to HICs (25). Globally, people with low incomes, limited educational  
2 attainment, and poor social networks disproportionately suffer from food insecurity and diet-  
3 related disease, in both HICs and LMICs (26). The nature of the dietary transitions required, and  
4 the tools to facilitate such changes, thus vary considerably across communities and countries.  
5

6 Because consumer demand drives producer behavior, and producer actions likewise influence  
7 consumer food choices, fundamental changes to the global food system and its health and  
8 environmental impacts require that both consumer and producer behaviors change in  
9 coordinated manners. Food systems' environmental outcomes arise mainly from crop  
10 production (27), livestock and feed production (7, 28, 29), and the associated land, water,  
11 agrochemical, and effluent management choices made by the world's 600–700 million farmers  
12 and fisherfolk (30). Health outcomes arise mainly from >8 billion consumers' daily dietary  
13 choices that are shaped by a complex web of influences (Fig. 1) and broader societal structures,  
14 including knowledge, taste, price, availability, incomes, convenience, social norms and culture  
15 (31–34). Equity outcomes follow from how policies and market systems reward workers and  
16 business owners throughout the economy, and from the costs of healthy diets relative to  
17 incomes and available food assistance. In upper middle- and high-income countries, workers in  
18 the midstream food industries far outnumber those in primary agricultural production (35) (31).  
19

20 In this Review, we synthesize a wide body of evidence to provide a comprehensive  
21 understanding of the drivers of dietary choices and to identify promising areas of intervention for  
22 improved health, sustainability, and equity outcomes. Our evidence base encompasses a broad  
23 spectrum of potential levers, from direct influences on consumer choice like price, availability,  
24 and taxes to subtler, often-overlooked factors, such as research and development (R&D)  
25 investments, supply chain innovations, institutional procurement, and industry strategies that  
26 shape product formulation, taste and presentation (36–40). This systems perspective highlights  
27 how value chain actors that are intermediate between consumers and primary producers —  
28 e.g., manufacturers, processors, wholesalers, retailers, restaurants, food banks and pantries —  
29 offer underexplored but potentially powerful levers to accelerate progress towards  
30 transformative dietary shifts. Although these midstream actors are far fewer in number than  
31 either farmers or consumers (Fig. 1), they wield disproportionate power over both groups and  
32 shape their decisions in ways that often go unnoticed and result in adverse sustainability, health  
33 and equity outcomes (41). Finding ways to leverage and redirect that power is essential to  
34 achieving sustainable, healthy and equitable dietary transitions (42).  
35

## 36 **WHO AND WHAT INFLUENCES DIETARY DECISIONS**

37 Rather than making fully autonomous decisions, farmers and shoppers are constrained by  
38 complex interactions among sensory preferences, price signals, cultural norms, and private and  
39 government standards and practices, cumulatively, the 'food environment'. In particular, profit-  
40 seeking companies today optimize commodity procurement and food production for consumer  
41 sensory and sociocultural appeal, affordability and shelf stability, and often at the expense of  
42 health, equity, and sustainability goals (43). As a result, interventions must target not just  
43 individual consumers' dietary choices or farmers' production practices but especially the  
44 systemic structures that shape dietary and production choices at scale, many of which originate

1 in the midstream of food value chains. This demands a diverse portfolio of policy and  
2 technological innovations, tailored to specific contexts and able to confront pressing issues (44).

3  
4 Consumers' dietary choices are strongly impacted by food industry reformulation, product  
5 innovation, and marketing (36, 45). Studies from multiple countries and cultural contexts  
6 consistently highlight the central role of taste and sensory appeal in individual food choices (46–  
7 48). Most people prefer sugary, salty, fatty, and umami-tasting foods, tastes that midstream  
8 actors enhance and make more affordable through processing. These processed foods displace  
9 healthier options, such as fresh and minimally processed plant-based foods, which tend to lack  
10 the umami taste that comes from the breakdown of adenosine triphosphate in cooked animal  
11 muscular tissues. This may help explain why people also tend to consume more umami-rich  
12 cooked meats as their incomes rise — even though meats are expensive relative to other foods  
13 (19, 49) — but nutritionally insufficient quantities of fresh vegetables, fruits, whole grains and  
14 legumes. A change toward a plant-rich diet requires better-tasting, smelling and looking  
15 alternatives. Indeed, highlighting taste and flavor on food packaging leads to healthier choices  
16 more successfully than does only showing nutritional content (50).

17  
18 Affordability is another cornerstone of consumer food choice. A recent meta-analysis found that  
19 a 20% reduction of fruit and vegetable prices can lead to a 16.6% increase in purchases (51).  
20 Nutrient-dense foods, such as fruits, vegetables, nuts, and animal-sourced foods, cost relatively  
21 more to produce per calorie or per gram of protein than energy-dense starchy or fatty foods, and  
22 foods or drinks with added sugars and flavorings (52). Consumption of nutrient-poor foods is  
23 strongly associated with poor health outcomes, including child stunting and adult obesity.  
24 Addressing food prices is therefore not merely an economic issue but a public health imperative.

25  
26 Convenience matters enormously to dietary choices. As incomes rise, populations urbanize and  
27 more women enter the workforce. These phenomena raise the opportunity cost of time, and  
28 consumers increasingly seek third-party food preparation, which saves time but costs money  
29 (53). Consumption of food away from home (FAFH) — from restaurants, schools, vending  
30 machines, and the like — rises steadily as a share of total food expenditures as incomes grow  
31 (20, 35, 54). In the US, for example, FAFH captured nearly 60% of the \$2.63 trillion spent on  
32 food in 2024 (55). In LMICs, the fastest growing food enterprises are fast-food restaurant chains  
33 (53). Increased FAFH consumption, however, is associated with reduced consumer knowledge  
34 of the ingredients and culinary techniques used in the foods they eat, more impulsive consumer  
35 behavior, and perhaps relatedly, lower diet quality and increased caloric intake (56, 57).

36  
37 In addition to sensory appeal, affordability, and convenience, consumers also consider foods'  
38 healthfulness (58). But healthy diets require emphasizing nutritional quality beyond  
39 macronutrient composition. While ingesting enough protein is often cited as a dietary concern,  
40 for many populations the limiting nutrients provided by animal-based foods are not proteins but  
41 rather iron, vitamin B-12, vitamin D, omega-3 fatty acids, or other micronutrients (59, 60).

42  
43 Consumers make food choices within broader food environments that reflect social norms and  
44 cultural expectations (61–63). The rise of Western-style diets in many LMICs, for example,

1 reflects not only the convenience and sensory appeal of processed foods, as well as increased  
2 incomes and urbanization, but also a cultural association of Western food with status and  
3 success (64). Food marketing and retail design reinforce these cultural cues. For instance,  
4 strategic placement of unhealthy foods in stores and restaurants, price promotions, product  
5 displays, packaging and advertising all contribute to the overconsumption of less healthy, less  
6 sustainable products (37, 65, 66). As such, retail and restaurant food environments are both a  
7 driver and a reflection of consumer preferences. Changing them requires regulatory tools,  
8 incentive structures, and consumer education to adjust food environments and shift the default  
9 dietary options toward healthier and more sustainable choices (34). Changing school food  
10 environments through, e.g., nutrition standards, fruit and vegetable provisions, and improved  
11 presentation has been shown to improve children's selection and consumption of healthier  
12 foods (67, 68). The introduction of School Food Standards in the UK and the Smarter  
13 Lunchrooms movement in the US are successful examples (69, 70).

14  
15 On the primary production side of the food value chain, farmers' decisions follow mainly from  
16 profitability concerns that determine their income. Even in LMICs with many small farmers, the  
17 overwhelming majority of the food that farmers consume comes from market purchases rather  
18 than from their own production (71), hence farmers' focus on profitability. Which producer  
19 practices prove profitable depends upon input and land costs, yields, what midstream actors will  
20 pay for farm outputs, the non-price terms of procurement contracts (e.g., production practices),  
21 and government policies (e.g., price supports). As rising incomes and urbanization drive  
22 increased demand for meat and convenience, midstream actors pass those market signals  
23 upstream to producers. That induces land use changes in farming, as farmers seek bigger,  
24 more remunerative markets for their output. In Brazil, intensive crop area, particularly soybean,  
25 nearly doubled from 2000–2014, driven by market liberalization, favorable international prices,  
26 and advances in production methods (72). In the US, ~90% of agricultural land is tied to  
27 livestock, including both grazing areas and cropland devoted to producing feed crops like corn,  
28 soy, and hay (73). Through a variety of means like green premiums, carbon credits, direct  
29 partnerships, technical assistance, and contracting provisions requiring specific practices,  
30 midstream intermediaries can induce farmers to adopt more sustainable or equitable production  
31 practices when it is profitable (74, 75).

32  
33 These complex paths of causality behind consumer and producer behaviors help explain why  
34 nudges targeting individual consumer or producer behavior often have limited impacts (39, 40).  
35 They are often overshadowed by multiple systemic influences of the broader food environment  
36 within which individual consumers make food acquisition and consumption decisions and  
37 producers make choices about land, water, and agrochemicals use (42). Government policies,  
38 along with civil society pressure from upstream producers and downstream consumers, can  
39 influence midstream actors' choices that in turn influence the upstream and downstream ends of  
40 the value chain where most food systems sustainability and health impacts originate. Some of  
41 these problems could be addressed if government and civil society entities became more  
42 intentional in redirecting midstream actors by making 'doing good' more consistent with 'doing  
43 well financially', using contextually-appropriate bundles of interventions of the sort to which we  
44 now turn.

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**PROMISING AREAS OF INTERVENTION**

Research on drivers of consumer and producer choice points to several key areas of intervention that can support the transition to healthier, more sustainable and equitable diets. These interventions target different nodes within food systems and seek to realign incentives, reshape consumer, farmer and industry behavior, and promote equitable access to nutritious foods produced sustainably. Food systems transformation typically requires contextualized combinations of multiple interventions so as to suit local agroecosystem, sociocultural, and political economy conditions (44).

**R&D for product and process innovation**

Public and philanthropic R&D that promotes product and process innovation has historically been the engine of food systems transformation, reducing real food prices, improving diets among the poor, and sparing conversion of natural lands to agriculture (38, 44, 76–78). Yet public spending on agricultural R&D has fallen sharply in HICs since the 1990s, and by one-third since 2002 in the US, while returns on this R&D have never been higher (79, 80). Private food R&D now far surpasses public and philanthropic investment (81, 82) but naturally focuses much more on profits for investors, than sustainability, health, or equity benefits. Restoring, indeed boosting, public and philanthropic R&D is important to again bring down real food prices, spare conversion of natural lands, and reduce overuse of scarce freshwater and toxic chemicals. The best available causal evidence finds that agricultural R&D that boosts agricultural productivity tends to reduce land use in farming, consistent with the ‘Borlaug hypothesis’ (77, 83, 84).

Agrifood R&D, however, needs reorientation from increasing staple yields to improving the sustainability of agricultural production given its massive global environmental impacts (11). It also needs reorientation to more nutrient-dense specialty crops (85) because today, undernourishment — insufficient energy intake — is far less widespread than micronutrient deficiencies. To address micronutrient deficiencies, R&D investments should focus more on improving the production, affordability, and sensory appeal (taste, texture, aroma) of healthy foods, such as vegetables, fruits, nuts and healthy-oil foods. Increased productivity of these so-called specialty crops can also improve sustainability, especially through reduced land use in agriculture (86). Given the dietary benefits of fish and seafoods and risks to marine ecosystems from overfishing, R&D investments in aquaculture, including on- and off-shore production, should be increased to reduce the prices of many blue foods, especially those such as seaweeds and farmed bivalves and salmon that both are nutritious and have far lower environmental impacts than many livestock meats or wild capture fisheries (87).

Post-harvest processes account for >70% of the value addition in consumer food purchases globally (88). Thus, R&D to reduce the cost and energy-intensity and to improve the healthfulness and shelf-life of processed nutrient-rich foods likewise merits prioritization. Healthy foods like fruits and vegetables are highly perishable and suffer high loss rates, up to 40–50% between production farmer and final consumer in LMICs (89). This can be partly addressed by targeted incentives and public–private partnerships that drive industry investment in enhancing

1 nutrient-rich foods' shelf-life and reducing their spoilage over distribution (90). It is likewise  
2 feasible to induce biocircular practices that capture and repurpose waste streams for use as  
3 energy, fertilizers, or livestock feed (91). Reducing these supply-chain losses is a  
4 complementary path to R&D for improving productivity. All of these investments in innovation  
5 are especially important in LMICs, which have far higher incidences of undernutrition, enjoy  
6 higher rates of return on agricultural R&D than HICs (80), and will account for most of the  
7 growth in future food demand (44).

8  
9 Another important area of food R&D is alternative proteins. The large environmental impacts of  
10 livestock production have spurred worldwide interest in more sustainable alternative proteins  
11 (92), such as next-generation plant-based products designed to resemble meats, seafoods,  
12 eggs, and dairy products; cultured meat grown in bioreactors; mycoproteins grown in  
13 fermentation tanks; and farmed insects. Broad adoption of these alternative protein sources will  
14 require advances in their affordability, accessibility, desirability, convenience, and nutrient  
15 composition (93). They must not only replicate the sensory appeal of meats to entice people to  
16 eat them, but also provide all of the essential micronutrients found in animal-based protein  
17 sources so as to generate similar nutrition and health benefits (94). Achieving nutritional  
18 adequacy through these alternatives requires advances in formulation and fortification, informed  
19 by ongoing scientific research (95), as well as consumer nutrition education throughout the life  
20 course. These foods are complex materials that contain a wide range of additives that contribute  
21 to these attributes, including colors, flavors, thickeners, gelling agents, binders, micronutrients,  
22 and preservatives. Thus, understanding the relationship between their composition, structure,  
23 properties, and nutritional value is extremely complicated, which makes intelligent food design  
24 challenging. Alternative proteins may also be less digestible or bioavailable, and contain fewer  
25 essential amino acids than animal proteins, which may require food reformulation to achieve  
26 appropriate nutritional profiles (96). Many natural foods, for example fish, may offer health  
27 advantages because of one or more essential nutrients they supply, such as omega-3 fatty  
28 acids.

### 30 **Affordability and access to healthy foods**

31 Affordability depends on both food prices and the funds available for food procurement. Given  
32 that 3.1 billion people worldwide cannot afford healthy diets (97), expanding and strengthening  
33 food assistance programs could provide a more effective safety net and support dietary  
34 improvements among low-income populations. Food assistance programs, which supported an  
35 estimated 1.5 billion people worldwide in 2016 (98), are effective at improving nutrition (99,  
36 100). In LMICs, supplementary and therapeutic food assistance offer a cost-effective in-home  
37 treatment for children suffering moderate or severe acute malnutrition, significantly improving  
38 child health, nutrition, even survival (101, 102). In the U.S., the Special Supplemental Nutrition  
39 Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC) has improved infant and child health, with high  
40 benefits per dollar spent, by providing low-income participants with resources to buy selected,  
41 nutritious foods while maintaining individual purchasing autonomy (103, 104). Similarly, the  
42 Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP) improves food security and health among  
43 low-income American households (105). The importance of addressing affordability directly  
44 through means such as food assistance programs is also supported by studies on food deserts,

1 areas with limited access to affordable, healthy foods. For example, equalizing product  
2 availability and prices between low- and high-income households would close only ~10% of the  
3 nutritional gap, with the remaining 90% driven by demand-side factors associated with income  
4 differences (106). Simply making healthy food available does not ensure uptake, underscoring  
5 the need for more direct interventions like food assistance programs.  
6

7 Most food assistance programs provide participants with resources to spend in commercial food  
8 retail outlets. Hence the need to incentivize retailers to stock healthy, sustainable products and  
9 beneficiaries to make healthy food choices, as in the WIC design. These interventions can also  
10 generate spillover benefits, such as product reformulation and shifts in social norms, extending  
11 their influence beyond direct beneficiaries (107). If, by contrast, such programs fail to make  
12 healthy foods more convenient and affordable, they risk inadvertently reinforcing the  
13 consumption of inexpensive, unhealthy options. Continuous program monitoring and adjustment  
14 are essential to prevent these unintended effects. Global food assistance systems could draw  
15 lessons from WIC's targeted, nutrition-focused approach. In LMICs, expanding school meal  
16 programs, food-for-work schemes, and maternal-child nutrition initiatives can simultaneously  
17 improve health outcomes and support local food systems (108, 109). For example, school  
18 feeding programs in Burkina Faso that sourced legumes and fortified vegetable oil locally not  
19 only improved child nutrition but also boosted smallholder farmer profitability and food safety  
20 (110).  
21

22 Because even the poor depend overwhelmingly on private food marketing systems unsupported  
23 by food assistance, reducing the price gap between healthy, nutrient-rich foods and calorie-  
24 dense, nutrient-poor foods is crucial. Policies can support this goal not only by investing in R&D  
25 to boost the productivity and sustainability of horticulture and aquaculture, but also through  
26 targeted input subsidies for (especially small-scale) producers of such products, and rural  
27 infrastructure improvements to reduce post-harvest losses. Public-private partnerships could  
28 fund refrigerated crop logistics and reduce transaction costs that make nutritious foods more  
29 expensive. Another option is drying — especially solar drying — which offers a sustainable way  
30 to extend the shelf life, nutrition and year-round availability of fruits and vegetables (111).  
31

32 Taxes and subsidies can be used to change relative prices and induce consumers to substitute  
33 cheaper, subsidized healthy foods for taxed, and thus more expensive unhealthy foods. Sugar-  
34 sweetened beverages provide the most prominent example. Evidence from middle- and high-  
35 income countries shows that taxes on sugar-sweetened beverages have consistently reduced  
36 their purchase and intake (112, 113). In some high-income countries where meat intake  
37 exceeds health and environmental recommendations, similar fiscal strategies are now being  
38 considered to curb excessive meat consumption. While there is growing policy interest in meat  
39 taxes, especially within the EU (114), these measures face considerable political resistance,  
40 including concerns about disproportionate impacts on lower-income groups that may have  
41 insufficient meat consumption due to unaffordability. The negative distributional effects of food  
42 taxes can be minimized, however, through revenue recycling schemes that reinvest tax  
43 revenues into food assistance programs (115). An alternative, and perhaps less politically

1 sensitive approach, is to adjust value-added taxes on food producers, which can yield similar  
2 health and environmental benefits (116).

#### 3 4 **Food as medicine**

5 About 90% of the \$4.3 trillion annual US healthcare cost is due to chronic diseases for which  
6 diet is a prominent risk factor (117). Integrating dietary interventions into healthcare systems is a  
7 promising strategy. This food-as-medicine movement encompasses multiple models, some of  
8 which involve nutrition incentives. Simulations suggest that a US Medicare and Medicaid 30%  
9 subsidy on fruit and vegetable purchases could prevent 1.93 million cardiovascular disease  
10 events and save \$39.7 billion in formal healthcare costs (118). Even greater savings and  
11 disease prevention occur if whole grains, nuts/seeds, seafood, and plant oils were also  
12 subsidized (118). Other programs that provide healthy food interventions via medically-tailored  
13 meals or groceries have demonstrated similar benefits (117). A medically-tailored meal delivery  
14 program, for example, was associated with a reduction of patient health cost by 16% (119).

15  
16 To date, however, most food-as-medicine initiatives remain at an early stage, and in need of  
17 more rigorous experiments (120) and thorough impact evaluation, especially of their long-term  
18 effects on health (121). Where low-cost methods prove effective, they should be expanded and  
19 integrated with broader public health initiatives and ongoing cost-effectiveness assessments.  
20 Health insurers and medical practitioners could prescribe dietary changes, with reimbursement  
21 models aligned accordingly. Community health workers can also play a role in delivering dietary  
22 guidance and distributing nutrient-rich foods.

#### 23 24 **Regulation of food environments**

25 Because food production and distribution are private sector activities subject to considerable  
26 environmental and health spillovers and imperfect information about production practices and  
27 product composition (122), structural changes to food environments require appropriate  
28 government regulation. The main challenge is political: to ensure regulation that resists interest  
29 group capture so that state interventions meant to advance sustainability, health and equity  
30 objectives are not instead turned into instruments that reinforce the power of regulated,  
31 commercial firms (123).

32  
33 Regulation is essential to contain the rise of corporate concentration within food value chains,  
34 market power that drives up consumer prices, thereby reducing food affordability, and drives  
35 down remuneration for farmers and workers, harming equity goals (41, 124). Increased public  
36 R&D can partly combat rising market concentration in food systems by reducing the role of  
37 private intellectual property that locks in market power and discourages competition, and by  
38 steering innovation towards people and planet over profits (44).

39  
40 Regulation can enforce a level playing field that adds value not only for consumers and primary  
41 producers, but also for midstream actors that must incur costs to improve practices, by resolving  
42 inter-firm coordination problems (125). Otherwise, individual firms willing to incur some cost to  
43 advance sustainability, health or equity goals get undercut by competitors unwilling to follow  
44 suit. In the absence of regulation that compels all actors to adopt more socially desirable, but

1 privately costly, behaviors, responsible firms lose competitiveness, as was grocery chain  
2 Tesco's experience when introducing carbon footprint food labels in the UK (126).

3  
4 Regulation can address problems that arise from consumers' imperfect understanding of the  
5 foods that businesses try to sell them (127, 128). Labels (both mandatory – e.g., Nutrition Facts  
6 Panel – and voluntary – e.g., locally grown), as well as certifications can also provide valuable  
7 information to consumers. Systematic reviews find that food labeling does, in many cases,  
8 nudge consumers to purchase and consume more desirable choices (129). But food standards  
9 and labels have exhibited mixed effectiveness in changing consumer preferences at scale  
10 (130). More assertive interventions might include restricting promotional activities and  
11 advertising of less healthy and less sustainable foods, and preventing their prominent  
12 positioning in stores (131). In addition, such foods could be subject to mandated healthful  
13 fortification or reformulation, as occurs with salt iodization or folic acid fortification of various  
14 processed foods (53). Regulation of food environments is more difficult in informal markets; but  
15 the rapid spread of modern retail, even into poor rural communities, steadily expands the  
16 feasible reach of regulatory standards (53).

17  
18 Particular attention should be given to emerging food environments, such as online delivery  
19 platforms, which have expanded rapidly over the past decade. With an estimated 3 billion users  
20 globally, these digital food environments are reshaping how people access food and must be  
21 integrated into evolving regulatory and public health frameworks (132). They might also offer a  
22 promising avenue to influence a large number of consumers at relatively low cost — potentially  
23 addressing the scalability challenge that limits traditional nudging interventions (133). While a  
24 growing body of research has explored nudges to promote healthier and more sustainable diets  
25 — with mixed but often encouraging results (134) — implementing specific nudges consistently  
26 across millions of independent restaurants, supermarkets, or cafeterias is complex, fragmented,  
27 and costly. Digital food platforms offer centralized, customizable interfaces through which  
28 nudges can be deployed, tested, and refined at scale, allowing for rapid experimentation, real-  
29 time feedback, and broad dissemination. For example, a recent study in China demonstrated  
30 that a simple green nudge embedded in a major delivery app substantially reduced the use of  
31 single-use plastic cutlery (135). Nudges to caution purchasers about unhealthy food and  
32 suggest healthier alternatives likewise show promise (136). Such findings highlight the potential  
33 of online food platforms to enhance the reach, consistency, and efficiency of behavioral  
34 interventions.

### 35 36 **Public procurement policies**

37 Governments spend huge sums buying food. For example, the US government spends nearly  
38 \$150 billion on nutritional assistance, with billions more spent by the military, prison systems,  
39 schools, and individual states. India spends about \$15 billion annually on its public distribution  
40 system for the poor. Public procurement policies can set standards for nutritional quality,  
41 sustainability, and social equity. Currently, environmental, health and social externalities are  
42 rarely accounted for in the price of food nor automatically built into public food procurement  
43 policies, although current prices are estimated to only account for one-third of the true societal  
44 costs of food (122). The remainder are hidden costs to the environment (greenhouse gases,

1 land-use change, water footprints, fertilizers, and pesticides) and to health (PM2.5 air pollution;  
2 increased health risks and mortality due to non-communicable diseases), totaling an estimated  
3 \$20 trillion annually, double the value of the food consumed (\$9 trillion) (122). By incorporating  
4 true cost accounting into procurement decisions, governments can internalize externalities  
5 related to health, environmental degradation, and social justice (137). True cost-based  
6 procurement rules could be leveraged to introduce healthier and more sustainable meals in  
7 schools, hospitals, military bases, and correctional facilities, thereby normalizing sustainable,  
8 healthy eating in institutional settings. Most powerfully, if midstream firms must offer  
9 sustainable, healthy, and equitable practices and products to secure high-value government  
10 contracts, the economies of scale of those contracts generate could change defaults. This in  
11 turn can induce a race-to-the-top among competing vendors, while stimulating private market  
12 demand for healthier, more sustainable products, and providing stable markets for small and  
13 mid-sized producers.

14

#### 15 **Metrics and data systems for accountability**

16 Sound policymaking requires reliable, standardized, public reporting of data by firms.  
17 Standardized metrics – set by government regulation or private industry standards – can  
18 support labeling schemes, procurement decisions, and consumer education. Mandatory  
19 reporting by producers of foods’ health- and environment-related characteristics, coupled with  
20 public investment in monitoring and evaluation systems, allows benchmarking across  
21 companies and/or over time, which can improve transparency for civil society, investors and  
22 policymakers (138–140). Data systems should also capture equity impacts, tracking whether  
23 food systems changes exacerbate or decrease existing disparities. Strengthening publicly  
24 available data to allow independent validation of measures reported by industry is important for  
25 data quality assurance, given concerns that self-reported adherence may be overestimated  
26 (141). Developing real-time data sharing, interoperability standards, and open-access platforms  
27 could promote collaboration and foster innovation across the food system.

28

#### 29 **Education and social norm change**

30 Both formal and informal food education (142) can help individuals better judge what constitutes  
31 a healthy, nutritious, and sustainable diet. Exposure to healthy, sustainable foods and general  
32 food literacy, especially in early childhood, is especially important because food preferences  
33 and habits form early in life (143). Education on foods’ environmental impacts can enhance  
34 popular understanding of science more broadly, as well as of food cultures, laying a foundation  
35 of popular support for innovation and policy changes of the sorts advanced in this paper. School  
36 and community gardens, for example, have been shown to promote awareness of plant-based  
37 foods and taste (144), and increase vegetable consumption among children (145). However,  
38 growing evidence suggests that school-based programs are most effective when they combine  
39 individual-level education like a technology-driven curriculum with system-level changes like  
40 cafeteria modifications, gardening, and family engagement (146, 147).

41

42 Even when individuals understand what they should eat, unfamiliarity with how to prepare plant-  
43 based foods in tasty ways can be a barrier to adoption. While additional R&D to enhance the  
44 sensory appeal of healthy foods will be helpful in the long term, there are already many simple

1 techniques in various traditional food cultures that enhance the umami and sweetness of plant-  
2 derived foods, making them more palatable (148). Controlling chemical (e.g., Maillard reaction,  
3 caramelization) and biochemical (e.g., fermentation) processes during food preparation can  
4 break down proteins, carbohydrates, and nucleic acids into flavorful compounds. Alternatively,  
5 sauces, marinades, and condiments — such as soy sauce, miso, fish sauce, aged cheese,  
6 eggs, seaweed, and dried fungi — can contribute umami and sweetness. Even small amounts  
7 of caramelized meat can boost umami in plant-forward dishes, as reflected in stir fry dishes with  
8 a mix of meat and vegetables. These traditional techniques not only improve flavor but can also  
9 enhance sweetness and saltiness, reduce bitterness, and support appetite regulation, satiety,  
10 and saliva production. As such, they should be broadly promoted.

11  
12 Besides consumers, education and training programs for food scientists, chefs, culinary  
13 professionals, and product developers should be broadened to include training on designing  
14 products for both nutrition and sustainability (149). This includes incorporating sustainable  
15 sourcing, low-waste production, and climate-friendly menu design into formal curricula and  
16 continuing education.

17  
18 More broadly, mass media campaigns, social marketing, and peer-based education can  
19 complement formal programs to help reshape perceptions of what is normal, desirable, and  
20 socially appropriate to eat. Descriptive norm messaging — such as “more people are choosing  
21 delicious plant-based meals” — can encourage behavior change by highlighting growing trends  
22 (150). These cues are especially effective when they reference relatable individuals or  
23 communities. Engaging community leaders and cultural influencers can further promote healthy  
24 eating practices and extend their reach across diverse populations (151). When norms shift  
25 across multiple levels — individual, social, and environmental — they can create a reinforcing  
26 loop of healthier and more sustainable food practices.

## 27 28 **SUMMARY AND OUTLOOK**

29 The transformation of modern food systems to promote healthier, more sustainable, and more  
30 equitable diets will require a coordinated, “all-hands-on-deck” strategy. The areas of intervention  
31 discussed above offer a comprehensive policy agenda that could align consumer and primary  
32 producer incentives with systemic reforms and actively engage actors across the entire food  
33 value chain, particularly the often-overlooked midstream players. These food businesses,  
34 including food processors, retailers, restaurants, delivery platforms, if properly engaged and  
35 incentivized, could help bring about sustainable, healthy, and equitable dietary transformations  
36 (42).

37  
38 Change will often be opposed by vested interests, can be politically costly, and is often slowed  
39 by biases that champion individual decision-making or that underestimate the impact of food  
40 environments on behavior (152, 153). Bundles of government legislative and regulatory policies,  
41 combined with induced technological change and civil society pressure can align primary  
42 producers’ and food and beverage firms’ commercial incentives with health, equity, and  
43 environmental objectives (44, 153). Above all, change requires an actor-centric approach to  
44 addressing the challenges food systems pose, paying close attention to the agency of highly

1 diverse food consumers and producers, as well as myriad organizations that intermediate  
2 between them, the food and beverage companies that exercise disproportionate power within  
3 food systems, and the government agencies that influence those private actors.

4  
5 Looking ahead, rigorous evaluation of existing and emerging interventions is critical. Areas such  
6 as food-as-medicine and school-based nutrition programs show promise but require further,  
7 rigorous trials to understand long-term impacts. As importantly, attention should be paid to  
8 emerging disruptors from outside food systems, such as weight-loss drugs that have potentially  
9 large impacts on consumer dietary behavior (154). Their full implications for food systems  
10 sustainability and equity warrant close attention. Future research should explore how medical  
11 and technological innovations intersect with food environments and policy, and how such  
12 interactions can be leveraged to accelerate sustainable, healthy, and equitable dietary  
13 transitions.

14  
15  
16  
17 **Fig. 1. Food system actors and sustainability, health, and equity impacts.** Sustainability  
18 impacts arise primarily from agricultural production in farms, ranches, etc. (orange), while health  
19 impacts result primarily from consumers' dietary choices (red), but are also affected by  
20 agricultural production and food processing methods. Equity impacts (blue) occur throughout  
21 the food value chain. The midstream actors in the food value chain, represented by dark blue  
22 icons, exert great influence on decisions of the world's primary producers (fisheries and farms)  
23 and consumers despite being 1–2 orders of magnitude smaller in number.

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### 11 **Acknowledgements**

12 We thank the reviewers and the editors for their constructive comments and suggestions.

13 **Funding:** The genesis of this Review was a September 2023 expert workshop supported by  
14 D.T.'s Regents Professor Fund of the University of Minnesota. Y.Y. acknowledges the support  
15 by the Fundamental Research Funds for Central Universities (No. 2024IAIS-ZD010) and the  
16 National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 52370193). O.M. acknowledges funding  
17 from Carlsberg Foundation grant no. CF21-07. **Author contributions:** Y.Y., D.T., C.B.B.  
18 conceptualized the study and led the writing efforts. All authors made substantial contributions  
19 to discussions of the content of the manuscript and the writing. **Competing interests:** D.J.M  
20 serves on the scientific advisory board of a plant-based cheese company (Climax Foods, San  
21 Francisco, CA), a tempeh company (Better Nature, London, UK), and a cannabis edibles  
22 company (Vertosa, San Francisco, CA). As part of his services, he may receive shares in these  
23 companies. He also has some patents on the development of colloidal delivery systems for  
24 bioactive agents. He has received funding from the US Department of Agriculture and the Good  
25 Food Institute to carry out research on plant-based foods, and consulted for plant-based food  
26 companies (Beyond Meat and Califia Farms). He has also written several books on next-  
27 generation foods that include a discussion of alternative proteins, including *Future Foods*  
28 (2019), *Next Generation Plant-based Foods* (2022), and *MeatLess* (2023). He is also an  
29 inventor on patent/patent application (US 12,419,326 B2) held/submitted by University of  
30 Massachusetts that covers the creation of plant-based meat analogs using soft matter physics  
31 approaches. S.A.J. is the Chair of the UK Food Standards Agency. M.H. serves on the Acosta  
32 Board of Trustees of the Global Alliance for Improved Nutrition, the Executive Committee of the  
33 EAT-Lancet Commission on Healthy Diets from Sustainable Food Systems, the Advisory Board  
34 of the Gund Institute for the Environment at the University of Vermont, and the Scientific  
35 Advisory Board of Menus of Change for the Culinary Institute of America. All other authors  
36 declare that they have no competing interests.