

1 **Scaling-up urban agriculture for a healthy, sustainable and**
2 **resilient food system: the postharvest benefits, challenges and key**
3 **research gaps**

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11

12 **ABSTRACT**

13

14 Sustainably ensuring food security and safety for the urban population is a major challenge. In
15 this perspective, we present the concept of ‘rurbanisation’ (the ruralisation of urban areas
16 through increased urban agriculture) as a holistic strategy to provide a resilient food system. In
17 particular, we focus on the postharvest benefits of urban agriculture for environmentally
18 sustainable food supply chains, enhanced nutritional content of fresh produce and access to
19 fresh, local and seasonal food. However, upscaling current urban agricultural systems requires
20 improvement in current technologies and local infrastructure as well as the transfer of
21 knowledge and skills to new urban farmers. This perspective summarises the main challenges
22 that urban agriculture is currently facing from a postharvest quality and safety point of view,
23 and highlights the research gaps and opportunities for improvements in that area.

24

25 **Keywords:** urban agriculture; health; sustainability; food system; resilience; postharvest
26 benefits, rurbanisation.

27

28 INTRODUCTION

29 Urbanisation is a major trend worldwide. The global urban population exceeded that of rural
30 areas for the first time in 2007 (Hoornweg and Pope, 2017; Orsini et al., 2013), and by the end
31 of the century, the percentage of people living in urban environments is projected to reach as
32 much as 92% (Jiang and O'Neill, 2017). Feeding this increasing urban population in a healthy,
33 sustainable, and resilient manner is a growing challenge. Strategic expansion of food growing
34 activities in cities –herein rurbanisation (the ruralisation of urban areas through increased urban
35 agriculture) – can be a holistic opportunity to increase the health, sustainability and resilience
36 of our food system (Figure 1). Within the term rurbanisation we consider vertical farming
37 systems, allotments, community gardens, private gardens, rooftops, etc.

38 For example, rurbanisation offers the possibility of increasing food production without
39 increasing land footprint and the related environmental impacts associated with agriculture to
40 the same extent. Land expansion from urbanisation itself reduces the extent of productive
41 cropland. It is estimated by 2050 that over 50% of future urban expansion will be at the expense
42 of cropland, resulting in an up to 4% decrease in annual food production (Chen et al., 2020).

43 Rurbanisation may help drive healthier diets by a) increasing availability of fresh fruit and
44 vegetables and b) promoting and supporting healthy behaviours within the general population.

45 Urban agriculture is well-suited to horticultural production – small-scale production of high-
46 value crops. Increasing availability of fresh fruit and vegetables is key to meeting our aspiration
47 for healthy sustainable diets: according to the EAT-Lancet report, fresh fruit and vegetable
48 consumption needs to double to deliver human and planetary health (Willett et al. 2019).

49 Additionally, many studies have suggested that the current urban environments promote poor

50 diets, being described as obesogenic environments (Drewnowski et al., 2020; Lagevin et al.,
51 2007; Townshend and Lake, 2009). A recent review highlights that an increase in green-space
52 exposure is associated with a range of improved health outcomes (van de Bosch and Sang,
53 2017), and another suggests that urban agriculture more specifically supports dietary health
54 (Audate et al. 2019).

55 Physical changes to the urban environment presented as scaling-up agriculture in outdoor
56 environments also provide opportunities to enhance a wide range of urban ecosystems and the
57 delivery of ecosystem services (Costanza et al., 1997), such as carbon storage and climate
58 regulation (Edmondson et al., 2014; Kulak et al., 2016; Pouyat et al., 2006), reductions in air
59 pollution and noise (Grote et al., 2016; Van Ryswyk et al., 2019); and increases in biodiversity
60 (Norris, 2008).

61 The sustainability and resilience of the food system from a supply chain perspective can also
62 be enhanced by rurbanisation. The current global food system is shaped by multinational
63 companies with long-distance supply chains that present a number of risks relating to rising
64 temperatures, water scarcity, or changing trade policies (Hendry and Muellbauer, 2018), all of
65 which might lead to food system stress (e.g., rises in food prices) or shocks, such as flooding,
66 terrorism, or public health crises. For example, food insecurity quadrupled during the Covid-
67 19 pandemic in 2020, worsened by economic vulnerability, self-isolation, and food stock
68 shortages in shops, exposing the vulnerability of our current food supply chains (Loopstra,
69 2020; Power et al., 2020). A certain level of local sufficiency in food production can help
70 enhance resilience, and thus increases in urban food growing have been a natural response to
71 food shocks in the past such as Dig for Victory during World War 2 and the increase in garden
72 growing in Cuba following the collapse of the Soviet Union (Altieri et al., 1999; Barthel and
73 Isendahl, 2013). A recent global analysis suggested that broad adoption of urban agriculture
74 could produce up to 180 million tonnes of food per annum, approx. equivalent to ~10% of

75 global fruit and vegetable production (Clinton et al., 2018), whereas a city-scale study in
76 Sheffield (UK) showed that the city was already producing enough to provide fresh fruit and
77 vegetables for 15% of the population (Edmondson et al., 2020). These are meaningful
78 proportions of our consumption that could have a role to play in food security. An additional
79 benefit of rurbanisation is to reduce food miles, while logistics and distribution accounts for
80 18% of carbon emissions in the food system (Poore and Nemecek, 2018).

81 Rurbanisation presents many challenges that need tackling in order to be a sustainable and
82 resilient production system, such as energy consumption and urban pollution. Here, we
83 examine the trends and potential for rurbanisation from a postharvest perspective, asking what
84 are the opportunities, challenges, and key research gaps for the multi-disciplinary postharvest
85 community in supporting the growth of a healthy, sustainable, resilient food system through
86 scaled-up urban agriculture.

87

88 POSTHARVEST BENEFITS OF RURBANISATION

89 It is important to clarify that what we term as rurbanisation, includes both technologically
90 advanced growing solutions, such as vertical farms, as well as more traditional ways of growing
91 fruit and vegetables in urban and peri-urban areas, such as small gardens, allotments and
92 community gardens. From a produce quality and safety perspective, these two extremes of the
93 spectrum pose different challenges, but both offer a significant benefit; they have the potential
94 to reduce the distance between the point of production and the point of consumption (Born and
95 Purcell, 2006). Reducing ‘food miles’ not only contributes to reducing the environmental
96 impact of food production (Coley et al., 2009), but also ensures that fresh produce reaches the
97 consumer at a higher level of quality (freshness and nutritional quality at the point of
98 consumption (Liu, 2018). Physiological quality (i.e. firmness, colour) rapidly decreases after
99 harvest because of the normal behaviour of fresh produce metabolism and decay due to

100 microbial spoilage. Also, health-promoting compounds such as vitamins and phenolics are
101 highly sensitive to environmental changes occurring during food processing and transportation
102 (e.g. temperature, relative humidity, possible mechanical damage and exposure to pathogens).
103 Shortening the time between harvest and consumption helps reduce the physiological and
104 nutritional quality loss of fresh produce, providing the consumer with a final product of better
105 quality (Coelho et al., 2018). In addition, food grown in cities is more likely to be consumed
106 locally (Goldstein et al., 2016), encouraging the consumer to buy seasonal fresh produce.
107 Moreover, by reducing the time required after harvest for the produce to reach the consumer,
108 significant reductions in waste could also be observed. According to Porat et al. (2018), these
109 include waste that occurs both in retail (mainly due to inappropriate storage conditions and
110 handling, and exceeding the ‘sell by’ or ‘best before’ date) as well as at household levels
111 (mostly caused by poor home-storage management and over-purchasing). Moving food
112 production closer to where the highest demand is by up-scaling urban agriculture could
113 therefore play a significant role in reducing food waste in the pre-consumption stage and
114 contributing to the transformation towards a more environmentally sustainable food system.
115 That would be strongly linked to the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), especially
116 SDG 2 (on sustainable agriculture and food and nutrition security); SDG 11 (to support positive
117 economic, social and environmental links between urban, peri-urban and rural areas) and SDG
118 12 (on sustainable production and consumption), especially target SDG12.3 that aims to halve
119 the per capita global food waste at the retail and consumer levels and halve food losses along
120 production and supply chains, including postharvest losses by 2030 (UNHCR, 2017).

121

122 CURRENT CHALLENGES AND RESEARCH GAPS

123 *Rurbanisation through increasing small garden, allotment and community*
124 *growing schemes*

125 Urban agriculture in the form of small-scale gardening and community gardens is often
126 practiced by non-specialists who grow fresh produce mainly for self-consumption. Research
127 has shown that this form of engagement with green spaces and food production could
128 contribute to a healthier lifestyle, including healthier diets, reduced levels of stress and overall
129 well-being (Lin et al., 2017; Sturiale et al., 2020). Therefore, rurbanisation in this form could
130 have an important role to play in improving health and well-being in the increasingly
131 overpopulated urban environments. It is unclear though how feasible it would be to
132 significantly increase urban food production in this way, while maintaining the expected levels
133 of food quality and safety.

134 There are several factors that contribute to not only the levels of yields obtained, but also the
135 quality of fresh fruit and vegetables produced in urban gardens. Amateur growers often lack
136 the level of specialist knowledge required to optimise crop production for a robust postharvest
137 life (Lin et al., 2015). Since in many cases certain agricultural practises have an effect on the
138 postharvest quality of the produce, it is important to understand the effect of pre-harvest
139 practises on shelf and storage life.

140 The impact of weather conditions, pests, soil and water quality can strongly affect the attributes
141 of fresh produce and therefore, their potential shelf-life (Koukounaras et al., 2020; Falagán and
142 Terry, 2018). The urban environment creates micro-climates that add a further challenge to the
143 outdoor urban grower compared to agriculture in rural settings, as does the relative paucity of
144 understanding of urban soil types and conditions. Developing understanding of urban
145 agronomic suitability and providing useful information on the growing environment to urban
146 farmers is a key gap.

147 The choice of crops can have an impact on both yields and quality. What is grown in these
148 settings is more likely to be influenced by the availability of seeds collected from previous
149 seasons, varieties/seeds shared by other gardeners, growing feasibility in urban environments,

150 and seeds bought from non-specialist retailers. There are definite benefits to this approach,
151 including diversification of agri-ecosystems and diets. But from a postharvest perspective,
152 these varieties are not chosen with a robust postharvest life in mind, making spoilage more
153 likely, and potentially leading to food waste.

154 Seasons also plays a role in urban agriculture. The access to high tech indoor farms such as
155 vertical farming facilities can help to provide year-round fresh produce. In these types of
156 facilities temperature, relative humidity and light cycles are controlled and avoid the exposure
157 of urban grown crops to the ‘heating island’ effect of cities, especially in tropical countries
158 (Orsini et al., 2013). However, when grown in community and private gardens, allotments and
159 rooftops the production in warm seasons is much higher and varied than in cold seasons.

160 The extent of air pollution in urban areas is a concern, and fresh produce grown in open-air
161 locations is often exposed to high levels of heavy metals and other atmospheric pollutants. The
162 literature is scarce on the health risks of consuming such crops, but it is clear that the levels of
163 pollutants detected on the fruit and vegetables are tightly linked to the specific locations and
164 the distance from the main source of atmospheric pollution such as motorways, factories, and
165 airports (Agrawal et al., 2003; Dumat et al., 2019). The increased safety risk of urban grown
166 produce is not limited to air pollutants though, as the soil used in certain locations could also
167 pose a risk of heavy metal contamination, especially in urban areas with a long history of
168 industrial use (Nabulo et al., 2012). The safety of soil-based outdoors-grown urban fresh
169 produce, can therefore be of a particular concern, to the extent that it is often likely to deter
170 people from consuming it, resulting in food waste.

171 Food losses and waste in this type of settings often occurs as a result of bad agricultural practise
172 (e.g. inappropriate control of pests and diseases), as well as due to the lack of appropriate
173 postharvest management and specialists in the field (Alamar et al., 2017; Porat et al., 2018).
174 Lack of access to equipment, technology and specialised skills to determine harvest maturity,

175 can lead to overripe fresh produce with limited postharvest life and quality and questionable
176 safety due to microbial loads and agrochemical residues. In addition, limited or non-existent
177 cold-storage facilities do not allow the appropriate temperature management for each crop,
178 leading to rapid deterioration due to fungal and bacterial rots, but also to significant nutritional
179 losses from harvest to consumption.

180 If urban food production was to be upscaled through small gardens, allotments and community
181 growing schemes, further consideration would need to be given to ensure the postharvest
182 quality and safety of the fresh produce. Also, it is key to design optimal business models for
183 an enhanced postharvest value chain in urban agriculture. So far, urban agriculture is praised
184 for its positive impact on society and the environment but little research has been developed at
185 a business level (Liu, 2015). Therefore, appropriate infrastructure and distribution channels for
186 this agricultural system are needed to turn rurbanisation into a fundamental player in food
187 supply chains, avoiding waste and reducing nutritional losses.

188

189 ***Rurbanisation through up-scaling commercial food production in urban and*** 190 ***peri-urban areas***

191 On the opposite end of the spectrum, rurbanisation could also be achieved by increasing indoor
192 commercial food production in urban and peri-urban areas utilising advanced engineering
193 solutions, as some farmers already do in order to diversify their business. In recent years there
194 has been a surge in the establishment of urban vertical farms, using innovative light
195 technologies, internet of things and a range of growing systems, such as hydroponics,
196 aeroponics and aquaponics (Orsini et al., 2013). Although this form of rurbanisation has a great
197 potential at contributing to the self-sufficiency and resilience of local food systems, there are
198 still important limitations and challenges to consider and there are research gaps that need to

199 be addressed in order to be able to use the full potential of these new technologies for producing
200 high quality fresh produce.

201 Light conditions, including specific wavelengths, light intensity and photoperiod, can have a
202 great impact not only on crop yields, but also on the postharvest quality of the produce. Shelf-
203 life, taste and nutritional content of leafy greens and tomatoes have all been shown to be
204 affected by specific light parameters (Gruda, 2005; Nicole et al., 2019; Ntakgas et al., 2019;
205 Pennisi et al., 2019). There is, therefore, a great potential in manipulating indoor growth
206 conditions in order to improve the postharvest quality and nutritional content of urban-grown
207 produce. The limitation is that these effects are not only crop-specific, but often
208 cultivar/variety-specific too (Cocetta, 2017; Shimizu, 2016), so more research is required in
209 order to optimise growth parameters for each crop setting. The same could be argued for the
210 nutrient composition of growth solutions in such systems. Although established 'recipes' exist
211 for key crops, their optimisation for specific settings could have a substantial impact on the
212 postharvest quality of the fresh produce (Ding et al., 2018; Kalantari, 2018).

213 In general, indoor soilless cultivation systems tend to produce high quality crops with low
214 levels of microbial loads and agrochemical residues compared to conventional outdoors soil-
215 based systems (Selma et al., 2012). However, concerns regarding the safety of produce still
216 exist in some cases, especially in systems that have not yet been widely adopted and therefore
217 still under improvement. For example, leafy greens grown in aquaponic systems were shown
218 to accumulate high levels of nitrates (Pérez-Urrestarazu et al., 2019). Leafy vegetables are
219 particularly good nitrate accumulators and research has demonstrated that agricultural practices
220 such as levels and timing of irrigation and fertilization, and environmental factors such as light
221 levels and temperature can have an impact on the quantity of nitrates accumulated (Du et al.,
222 2007). This fact highlights even more the need for optimisation of these new cultivation
223 systems as well as the upskilling of the workforce involved in urban growing. High levels of

224 nitrates in the plant can increase their susceptibility to pathogens, but also have a negative
225 impact on the nutritional quality of the crop (Santamaría, 2006).

226 If we were to upscale urban food production through commercial indoors crop production,
227 utilising unused spaces (e.g. underground stations, warehouses, basements) and growing
228 vertically, the biggest challenge we would have to face is the currently limited range of crops
229 that can be grown in such systems. At present, production in vertical hydroponic or aeroponic
230 systems is limited mainly to salads, leafy greens and herbs (Bemke and Tomkins, 2017). This
231 is mainly due to the short life cycle and high value of these crops that make it economically
232 feasible to produce in those settings. Although these are very nutritious and an essential part of
233 a healthy diet, expanding to a diverse range of more calorie-dense crops would have a bigger
234 impact on the resilience of local food systems. Besides, leafy greens and herbs are also some
235 of the most perishable crops, with a relatively short shelf life and therefore more prone to waste
236 at the retail and household levels. Although at present comparable data for waste generated in
237 these crops in different farming systems does not exist, it would be interesting to evaluate the
238 true potential of urban agriculture in reducing food waste in the years to come.

239

240 CONCLUSIONS

241 Rurbanisation has the potential to transform our food system for health, sustainability and
242 resilience. From a postharvest quality and safety perspective, moving part of the food
243 production system closer to consumers where the demand is high can have a positive impact
244 on the nutritional and overall quality of the fresh produce at the point of consumption, due to
245 the shorter supply chains. Several challenges exist though depending on the type of urban
246 growing and many research questions are still to be answered. We identify the seven following
247 key priorities for the postharvest research community:

- 248 1) **Understanding and avoiding food losses and waste in urban agriculture supply**
249 **chains.** It is crucial to ensure that rurbanisation will not further increase the current
250 levels of food waste, but will instead be able to assist in reducing them, contributing to
251 the global efforts of meeting the SDG challenges.
- 252 2) **Continued optimisation of the indoor growing environment,** tailoring lighting,
253 nutrient inputs and other conditions to the range of crops currently grown to support
254 postharvest outcomes.
- 255 3) **Diversifying indoor and soilless crop production,** in order to increase the availability
256 of fresh fruit and vegetables grown in this urban system and provide more calorie-dense
257 options.
- 258 4) **Facilitating knowledge and skills transfer of outdoor and indoor growers,** alike in
259 order to support the challenges raised above.
- 260 5) **Supporting the production of high yields and quality through development and**
261 **provision of urban agronomic advice.** For example, through the development and
262 provision of better soil mapped products, urban farming forecasts, training and urban
263 specific agricultural extension services, including specific support on postharvest
264 management.
- 265 6) **Address safety concerns of urban food production in both indoor and outdoor**
266 **growing environments,** including air pollution, soil contamination, and microbial
267 loads.
- 268 7) **Establishing postharvest infrastructures and distribution channels specific to**
269 **urban agriculture,** in order to support the development of alternative business models
270 for a resilient and sustainable food supply chain.

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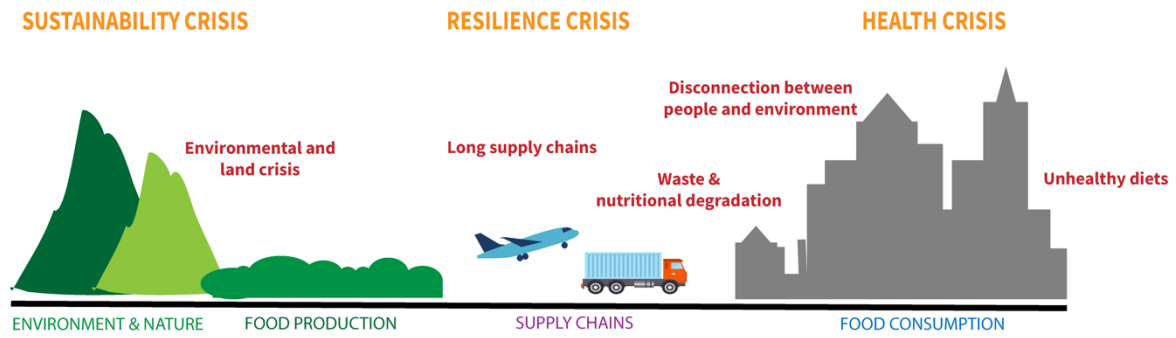
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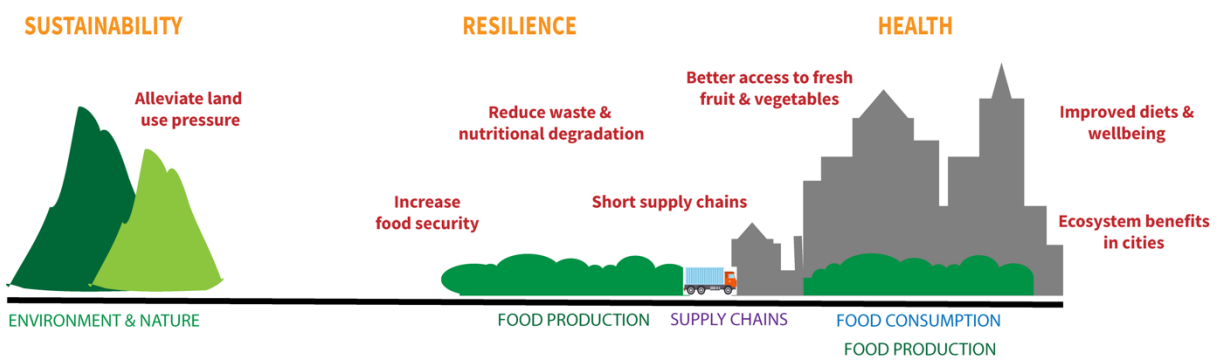
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CURRENT FOOD SYSTEM



RURBANISATION SCENARIO



516

517 Figure 1. The potential of rurbanisation to transform our current food system for sustainability,

518 resilience and health.