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To cite this article before publication: Carmelia Alae-Carew *et al* 2019 *Environ. Res. Lett.* in press <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ab5cc0>

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The impact of environmental changes on the yield and nutritional quality of fruits, nuts and seeds: a systematic review

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Acknowledgements

This study forms part of the Sustainable & Healthy Food Systems (SHEFS) programme supported by the Wellcome Trust's Our Planet, Our Health programme [grant number 205200/Z/16/Z]. The Wellcome Trust had no role in the design, analysis or writing of this article. The authors would like to thank Ms Catherine Letley for her assistance in preparing the manuscript.

Data sharing

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Abstract

Background: Environmental changes are predicted to threaten human health, agricultural production and food security. Whilst their impact has been evaluated for major cereals, legumes and vegetables, no systematic evidence synthesis has been performed to date evaluating impact of environmental change on fruits, nuts and seeds (FN&S) - valuable sources of nutrients and pivotal in reducing risks of non-communicable disease.

Methods: We systematically searched seven databases, identifying available published literature (1970-2018) evaluating impacts of water availability and salinity, temperature, carbon dioxide (CO₂) and ozone (O₃) on yields and nutritional quality of FN&S. Dose-response relationships were assessed and, where possible, mean yield changes relative to baseline conditions were calculated.

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Results: 81 papers on fruits and 24 papers on nuts and seeds were identified, detailing 582 and 167 experiments respectively. A 50% reduction in water availability and a 3-4dS/m increase in water salinity resulted in significant fruit yield reductions (mean yield changes: -20.7% [95%CI -43.1% to -1.7%]; and -28.2% [95%CI -53.0% to -3.4%] respectively). A 75-100% increase in CO₂ concentrations resulted in positive yield impacts (+37.8%; [95%CI 4.1% to 71.5%]; and 10.1%; [95%CI -30.0% to 50.3%] for fruits and nuts respectively). Evidence on yield impacts of increased O₃ concentrations and elevated temperatures (>25°C) was scarce, but consistently negative. The positive effect of elevated CO₂ levels appeared to attenuate with simultaneous exposure to elevated temperatures. Data on impacts of environmental change on nutritional quality of FN&S were sparse, with mixed results.

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Discussion: In the absence of adaptation strategies, predicted environmental changes will reduce yields of FN&S. With global intake already well-below WHO recommendations, declining FN&S yields may adversely affect population health. Adaptation strategies and careful agricultural and food system planning will be essential to optimise crop productivity in the context of future environmental changes, thereby supporting and safeguarding sustainable and resilient food systems.

51 **Keywords**

52 Fruits; Nuts; Seeds; Yields; Environmental change; Environmental exposure

53 **1. Introduction**

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There is now well established evidence that human-driven changes to our planet's environment are accelerating at a pace that threatens human health through altered functioning of global systems (1). Changes, such as rising carbon dioxide (CO₂) levels, changing rainfall patterns, deviations in temperature trends and tropospheric ozone (O₃) depletion, pose a challenge to agricultural yield and nutritional content of foods. If not tackled by adequate adaptations strategies, these changes threaten to impact food security (2). Global research efforts, focussing mainly on staple crops (2-9) and more recently vegetables and legumes (10), have demonstrated reduced crop yield and nutrient quality in response to environmental stressors. However, there has, to-date, been little focus on fruits, nuts and seeds, which are an important source of nutrients and are associated with positive health outcomes.

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Fruits are a major source of nutrients and bioactive compounds important for health and disease prevention. In the Global Burden of Disease 2017 models, inadequate intake of fruit is among the top three leading dietary risk factors for deaths and disability-adjusted life-years (11), and modelled estimates have suggested that climate-induced changes to fruit and vegetable consumption would be one of the largest related drivers of climate-related deaths by 2050 (12). A diet low in nuts and seeds is the fourth leading dietary risk factor for non-communicable diseases (NCDs) according to the 2017 Global Burden of Disease study, and

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3 72 insufficient intake of nuts and seeds accounts for over 2% of deaths globally (11). Previous
4 73 meta-analyses have shown that nut consumption is inversely associated with fatal and non-
5 74 fatal ischaemic heart disease, diabetes (13), cholesterol and triglycerides (14). Meta-analyses
6 75 investigating the effect of consumption of seeds on health outcomes are less abundant,
7 76 although there is some suggestion flaxseed consumption is associated with reduced blood
8 77 pressure (15). Tree nuts (such as almonds, walnuts and pistachios), groundnuts (such as
9 78 peanuts) and seeds are energy and nutrient-dense foods, however their consumption is often
10 79 undervalued by national dietary guidelines (16).

11 80 Global healthy and sustainable reference diets now advise low amounts of animal products,
12 81 based on a growing concern about the impact of animal source food production on
13 82 environmental change, and encourage increased consumption of plant-based foods such as
14 83 fruit and vegetables (17). Nuts and seeds as well as legumes can also play a pivotal role in
15 84 providing a healthier, nutrient-dense and longer shelf-life alternative to animal products as a
16 85 source of protein and other nutrients. Safeguarding an adequate and stable global supply of
17 86 fruits, vegetables, nuts and seeds is therefore essential.

18 87 Fruits, nuts and seeds, like many other crops, are sensitive to changes in environmental
19 88 exposures throughout the year. The number of hot days, the overall growing season climate
20 89 and changes in minimum and maximum daily temperatures all substantially affect fruit
21 90 development (18). For example, higher than usual temperatures during the dormant phase
22 91 and low water availability during fruit forming of perennial fruit trees could cause significant
23 92 damage to fruit yield and nutritional quality (18, 19). Similarly with nuts, winter chill is
24 93 necessary for successful nut tree cultivation, however changes in global temperature trends
25 94 threaten to reduce winter chill and compromise yields, particularly in warm climates such as
26 95 California, China and Australia (20). Prolonged periods of drought have also been
27 96 associated with low production of groundnuts (21), and are projected to become more
28 97 frequent in dry sub-tropical regions (2). In 2015, North America, Asia and the Middle East
29 98 accounted for an estimated 35%, 24% and 15% of the global tree nut production
30 99 respectively (22), however more frequent extreme weather events such as heat waves,
31 100 flooding and drought in these regions (2) may impact their future production capacity.

32 101 To date there has been no systematic review of the impact of environmental changes on the
33 102 availability and nutritional quality of fruits, nuts and seeds. We here report the findings of a
34 103 systematic review of available published studies examining the effect of changes in
35 104 environmental exposures on yield of fruits, nuts and seeds and the nutritional quality of fruits
36 105 in field and greenhouse settings. We focus on studies that were conducted in standardized
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3 106 business-as-usual scenarios with no involvement of new technologies or changes in
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109 2. Methods

110 2.1 Search Strategy

111 This systematic review follows the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and
112 Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines (23). We performed a systematic search of published
113 literature to identify all peer-reviewed field and greenhouse studies that explored the effect of
114 a single or combination of environmental exposures on yields and/or nutritional quality of the
115 20 most commonly consumed fruits¹; and yields of the 15 most commonly consumed nuts²
116 and seeds globally (Appendix). The search for papers on nuts and seeds was performed in
117 July 2018 and covered the papers published between 1 January 1970 and 30 June 2018,
118 whilst the search for papers on fruits was performed in November 2018 and covered papers
119 published between 1 January 1970 and 21 November 2018. Most commonly consumed
120 varieties of each crop group were determined by studying the Food and Agriculture
121 Organisation (FAO) food balance sheets (24). The evaluated environmental exposures were
122 defined as major projected changes over the coming decades identified by the Rockefeller
123 Lancet Commission on Planetary Health (1), namely ambient temperature, water availability,
124 water salinity, elevated tropospheric CO₂ concentration, and elevated tropospheric O₃
125 concentration. Specifically, we considered water salinity either through flooding, saline ground
126 water or saline irrigation water, and did not include papers on soil salinity. The primary
127 outcomes were the percentage change in yield of fruits, nuts or seeds (exposure versus
128 baseline) and nutritional quality of fruit (concentration of nutritionally-relevant substances). All
129 nutritionally-relevant substances reported in included papers were considered, namely:
130 flavonoids, ascorbic acid (vitamin C), carotenoids, phenolic compounds, and antioxidants
131 (including antioxidant activity).

132 A search of seven databases was carried out in conjunction with a second systematic review
133 evaluating the impact of environmental change on vegetables and legumes (10). Databases
134 searched were OvidSP MEDLINE, OvidSP EMBASE, EBSCO GreenFILE, Web of Science
135 Core Collection and OvidSP AGRIS: to identify papers on fruits two additional databases were
136 searched: Scopus and OvidSP CAB Abstracts. The search strategy was first developed and

1 For the purposes of this review, fruit crops such as tomatoes, cucumbers, peppers, avocados, courgettes,
pumpkins and aubergines that are typically consumed as vegetables were excluded.

² Including legumes commonly consumed as nuts

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3 137 refined in Web of Science Core, then adapted as necessary for the remaining databases. In
4 138 addition to database searching, citation lists of included papers were hand-searched for
5 139 relevant studies, and subject experts were contacted (n=4). Where full-texts were unavailable
6 140 (n=7), we contacted all authors and one author provided us with one additional paper.
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10 141 2.2 Selection Criteria and Data Extraction

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12 142 We included experimental studies conducted in field and greenhouse settings, written in
13 143 English, French, Spanish, German or Dutch; modelling studies were excluded. Titles and
14 144 abstracts were screened for relevance by four reviewers for fruits papers (PS, FB, CC, PH)
15 145 and two reviewers for nuts and seeds papers (SN, CC). Full-texts were read by two reviewers
16 146 (FB, PH, CC or SN), and any discrepancies were discussed and settled with a third reviewer
17 147 (PS or HT). A single reviewer performed data extraction (PS, FB, PH, HT or SN), of which a
18 148 random 20% sample was checked by a second reviewer (CC). Extracted data included study
19 149 location, publication year, study design (field or greenhouse study), environmental exposure
20 150 considered (including baseline and experimental levels), crop type and group, yields at
21 151 baseline and under experimental conditions, and nutritional quality parameter concentration
22 152 at baseline and under experimental conditions.
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30 153 2.3 Study Quality and Risk of Bias

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32 154 Papers identified for inclusion were assessed for quality using a modified version of the Critical
33 155 Appraisal Skills Programme (CASP) checklist for randomised controlled trials (25), adapted
34 156 for relevance to this interdisciplinary review (Supplement B). Parameters relating to
35 157 randomisation, blinding and cost-effectiveness were excluded from the checklist. Papers were
36 158 assigned a quality score ranging from 0 to a maximum of 5 relating to the following criteria: 1)
37 159 clear description of the study design, 2) appropriate comparison group, 3) clear description of
38 160 the methods, 4) rigorous and clearly described analysis, including critical examination of
39 161 potential biases, and 5) precision estimate of the measure of effect (confidence intervals
40 162 and/or standard deviations). Papers not reporting precision estimates were included in the
41 163 review, however only papers that reported precision estimates of measured effects were to be
42 164 included in pooled analysis. Papers not meeting a quality score of at least 4 were excluded.
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51 165 2.4 Data Analysis

52 166 The absolute differences in outcome between baseline and exposure were used to derive
53 167 percentage changes in yield or change in concentration of certain nutritional quality
54 168 parameters for each individual experiment reported by the included studies. Results were
55 169 grouped by environmental exposure (single or combination) and crop type (nuts and seeds)
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3 170 or crop group (fruits). Fruits were sub-divided into aggregates of similar dietary function. They
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5 171 were defined as: berries (including grapes and strawberries); pome (including apples and
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7 172 pears); cucurbits (including several types of melon); citrus (including oranges and lemons;
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9 173 drupe (including peaches and apricots); and bromeliads (including pineapple). For the
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11 174 purposes of this analysis, field and greenhouse studies were combined due to the experiments
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13 175 having been conducted under a variety of ambient and soil conditions. Sensitivity analysis
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15 176 showed that the direction and scale of findings in the two study designs were similar.

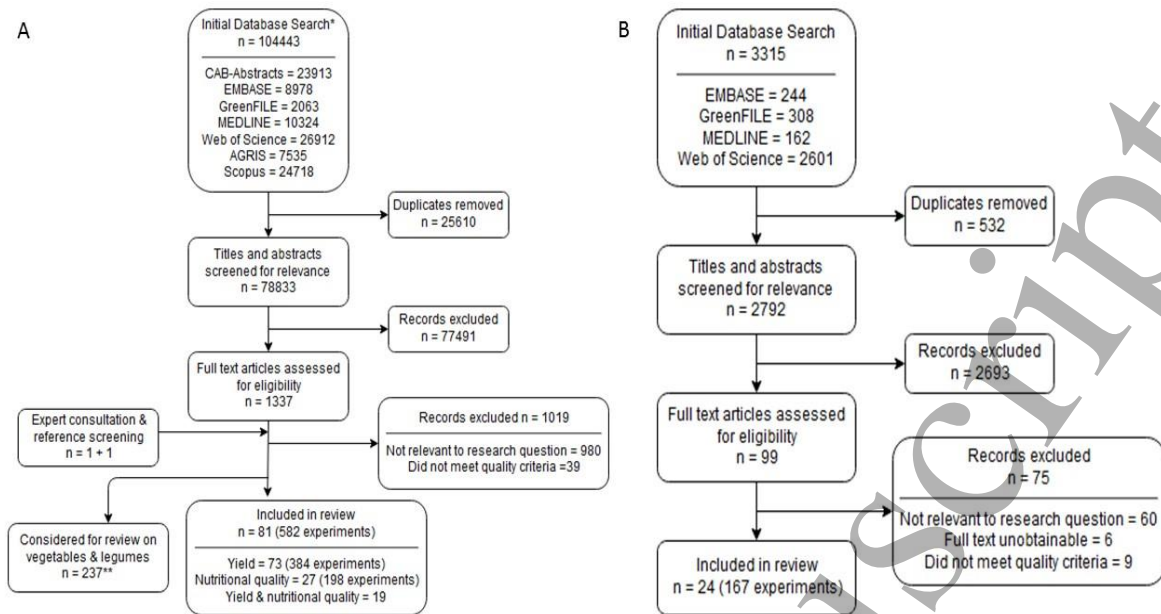
15 177 Scatter plots were used to visually display the relationship between changes in outcome and
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17 178 the evaluated range of the environmental exposures. Where measurement units for the
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19 179 exposures differed amongst the included studies, the percentage change in exposures were
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21 180 used. Crude summary estimates, here named “mean yield change”, along with their
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23 181 corresponding 95% confidence intervals (CIs), were calculated where a minimum of three
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25 182 different studies examining the same range of environmental exposure were identified. Due
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27 183 to the clustered nature of the data (i.e. multiple experiments in a single paper), the Huber
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29 184 (sandwich) estimate of variance (26) was used to estimate means, with each paper
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31 185 representing a cluster unit. The impact on nutritional indicators was analysed separately for
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33 186 each crop group and environmental exposure. Pooled analysis was conducted when a
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35 187 minimum number of three papers reported precision estimates for the effect of the same
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37 188 exposure on crop yield or nutritional quality. All plots and statistical analyses were performed
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39 189 in STATA 15.0 (StataCorp, LLC, College Station, Texas, USA).

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39 191 3. Results

41 192 3.1 Screening

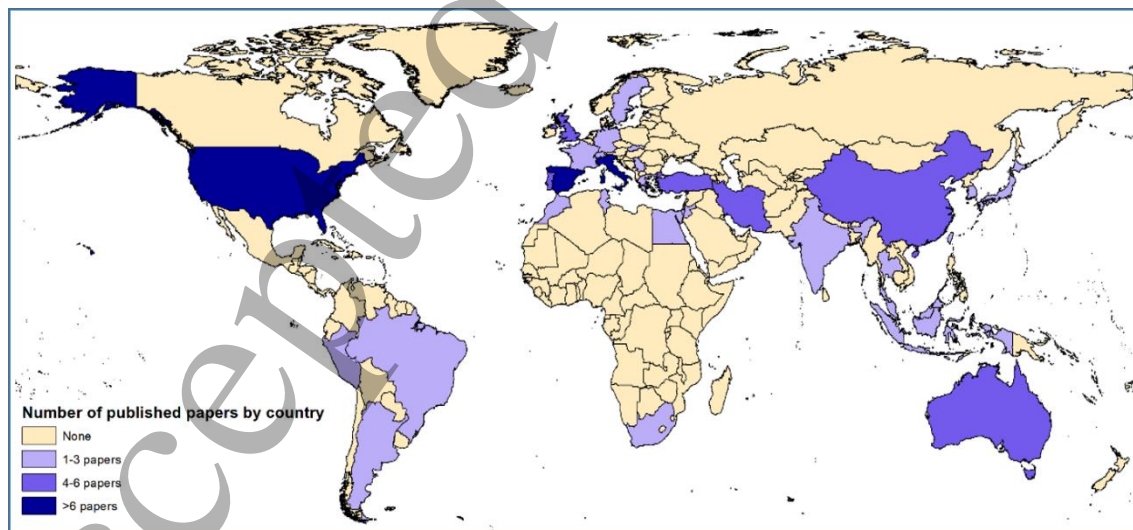
43 193 The initial database search identified 104,443 titles for fruits, and 3,315 titles for nuts and
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45 194 seeds. After removal of duplicates and screening of titles and abstracts, 1,337 potentially
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47 195 relevant papers for fruits (including one paper identified through consulting experts in the field
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49 196 and one paper identified by reference screening), and 99 potentially relevant papers for nuts
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51 197 and seeds remained for assessment of eligibility and quality. Of these, 1,256 papers were
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53 198 excluded during full text screening for fruits, and 75 during nuts and seeds screening. A total
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55 199 of 81 papers (582 experiments) on fruits were included in the final analysis, of which 73
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57 200 reported on yields and 27 reported on nutritional quality (19 reported on both). In the final
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59 201 analysis on yields of nuts and seeds, 24 papers (167 experiments) were included (Figure 1).
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203 *Figure 1: PRISMA chart showing the numbers of papers at each stage of the screening process. A. Fruits; B. Nuts and seeds.*
 204 **Covering the combined search for systematic reviews on 1)vegetables and legumes – published elsewhere (10) and 2)*
 205 *fruits. **Two papers analysed both fruits and vegetables/legumes.*

206 Sixty-five papers on fruits reported on field studies and 16 papers on greenhouse studies
 207 (including one study in a rain shelter - Supplement C). Of the 24 included nuts and seeds
 208 papers, 15 took place in field settings and 9 within greenhouses or related structures such as
 209 growth chambers, glasshouses and rain shelters. Experiments were conducted in 32 different
 210 countries, with the highest concentration in Spain (17 papers) and the United States (17
 211 papers – Figure 2).



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213 *Figure 2: Geographical spread of experiments on fruits, nuts and seeds reported in papers identified for this systematic review*

Berries were the most commonly studied fruit group (34 studies, 204 experiments), and peanuts were the most frequently studied of the nuts and seeds crops (11 papers, 78 experiments) (Table 1). Water availability was the most commonly assessed environmental exposure (348 fruits experiments; 89 nuts and seeds experiments).

Table 1: Number of experiments carried out for each crop, by type of environmental exposure – combining experiments measuring impact on yields and experiments measuring impact on nutritional quality of A) Fruits and B) Nuts and Seeds. (Shading by quintiles)

Exposure	Number of experiments											
	A. Fruits							B. Nuts and Seeds				
	Berries	Cucurbits	Citrus	Drupe	Pome	Bromeliads	Total	Peanuts	Almonds	Other nuts ^a	Seeds ^b	Total
Increased CO ₂ concentration	27	2	0	0	1	0	30	11	0	0	0	11
Increased O ₃ concentration	1	2	0	2	0	0	5	1	0	0	2	3
Increased temperature	52	0	0	0	2	0	54	14	0	0	0	14
Reduced water availability	99	53	60	61	75	0	348	18	30	41	0	89
Increased water salinity	12	24	37	6	41	0	120	6	0	12	4	22
Increased CO ₂ concentration & increased temperature	13	0	0	0	1	0	14	8	0	0	0	8
Reduced water availability & increased salinity	0	9	0	0	0	2	11	18	0	0	0	18
Increased CO ₂ concentration & increased O ₃ concentration	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
Total	204	90	97	69	120	2	582	78	30	53	6	167

a) Bambara groundnut, cashew, hazelnut, pecan, pistachio and walnuts; b) Linseed and rapeseed.

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222 3.2 Impact of single environmental exposures

223 3.2.1 Water Availability

224 We identified 48 papers (44 field studies, three greenhouse studies, and one outdoor rain
 225 shelter study; 348 experiments) that reported on the effect of reduced water availability on fruit
 226 yields (Figure 3A). The evaluated reduction in water availability ranged from 10% to 100%.
 227 Yield changes in berries resulting from a 50% reduction in water availability (five studies; nine
 228 experiments) were negative (range -68.8% to +13.7%; mean yield change -20.7%; 95% CI -
 229 43.1% to -1.7%). Negative yield changes resulting from a 50% reduction in water availability
 230 were also seen in citrus (four studies; 10 experiments; range -53.5% to +10.6%; mean yield
 231 change -19.6%; 95% CI -31.2% to -8.1%), cucurbits (five studies; 18 experiments; range -
 232 43.3% to -12.3%; mean yield change -28.0; 95% CI -31.5% to -24.5%), and pome crops (three

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3 233 studies; seven experiments; range -52.1% to +10.4%; mean yield change -24.3%; 95% CI -
4 234 49.2% to 0.6%). A non-significant positive mean yield change was demonstrated from a 50%
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6 235 reduction in water availability in drupe crops (four studies, eight experiments; range -16.9 to
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8 236 81.0%; mean yield change 13.1%; 95% CI -26.7 to 53.0%).
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10 237 Eighteen studies (17 field studies, one greenhouse study; 131 experiments) reported on the
11 238 effect of reduced water availability on nutritional quality of fruits. The evaluated reduction in
12 239 water availability ranged from 9.5% to 100%. Water stress largely resulted in increased
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14 240 nutrient concentrations in citrus and cucurbit crops, and decreased concentrations in pome
15 241 crops. No consistent dose-response pattern in quality parameters could be observed in
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17 242 response to water stress (Figure 4). Eleven studies (43 experiments) reported the effect of a
18 243 45% to 55% reduction in water availability on fruits (all quality parameters and crop groups
19 244 combined), and mean change in concentration of quality parameter was positive but non-
20 245 significant (range -28.5% to 117.9%; mean concentration change 12.1%; 95% CI -4.6% to
21 246 28.8%). One study reported uncertainty estimates and no pooled analysis was performed.
22
23 247 We identified 13 papers (12 field studies and one outdoor rain shelter study; 89 experiments)
24 248 examining the effect of restricted water availability on nut yields. The evaluated reduction in
25 249 water availability ranged from 7.7% to 100%. The majority of experiments reported negative
26 250 yield change across almonds, peanuts, and walnuts, with yields decreasing as water stress
27 251 increased (Figure 5). Pecan yields were positive at lower levels of water stress; however, as
28 252 water stress increased beyond 40% yields became negative. No studies reported
29 253 uncertainty estimates and no pooled analysis was performed.
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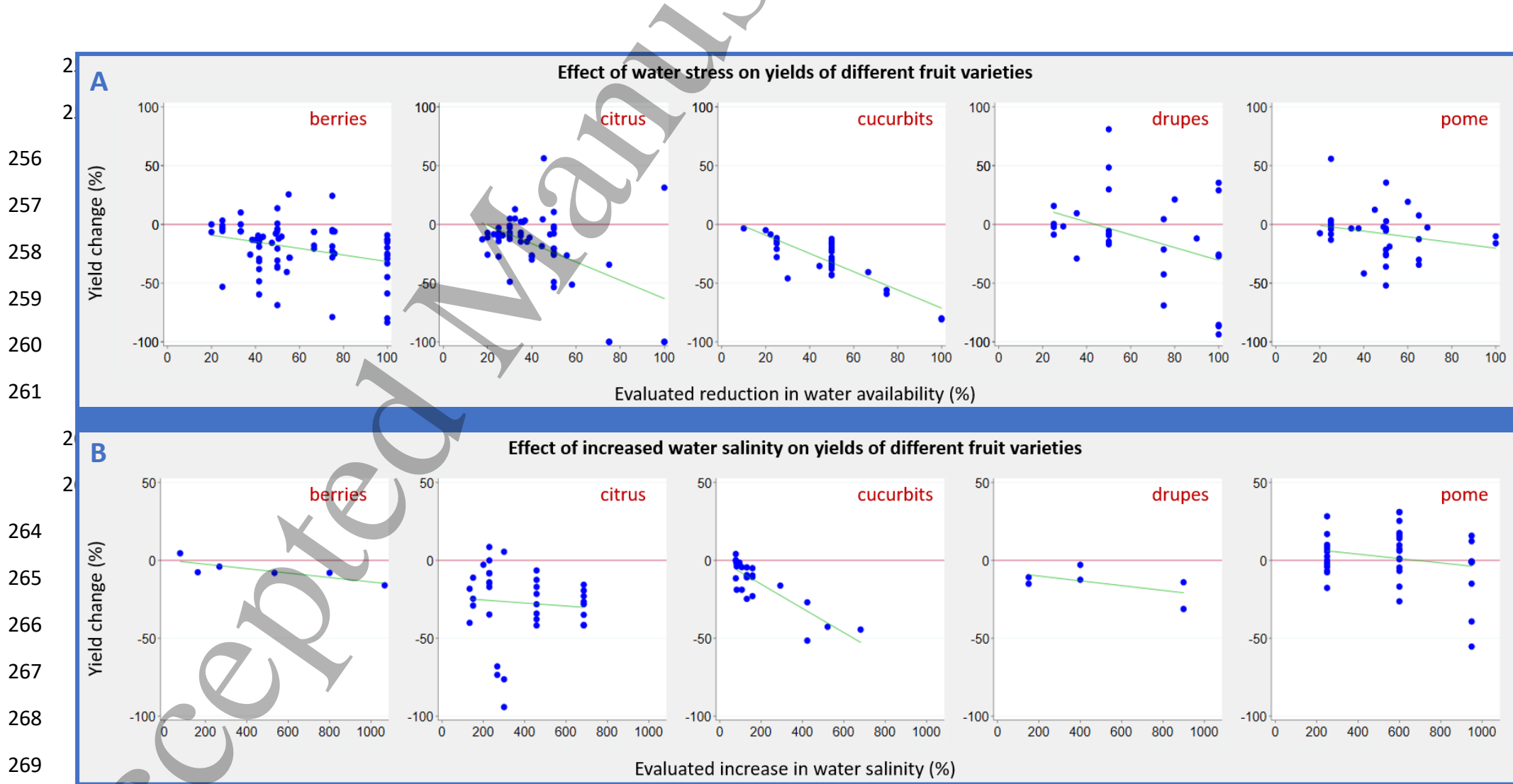


Figure 3: A) Change in fruit yield in response reduced water availability - by crop group & B) Change in fruit yield in response increased water salinity - by crop group

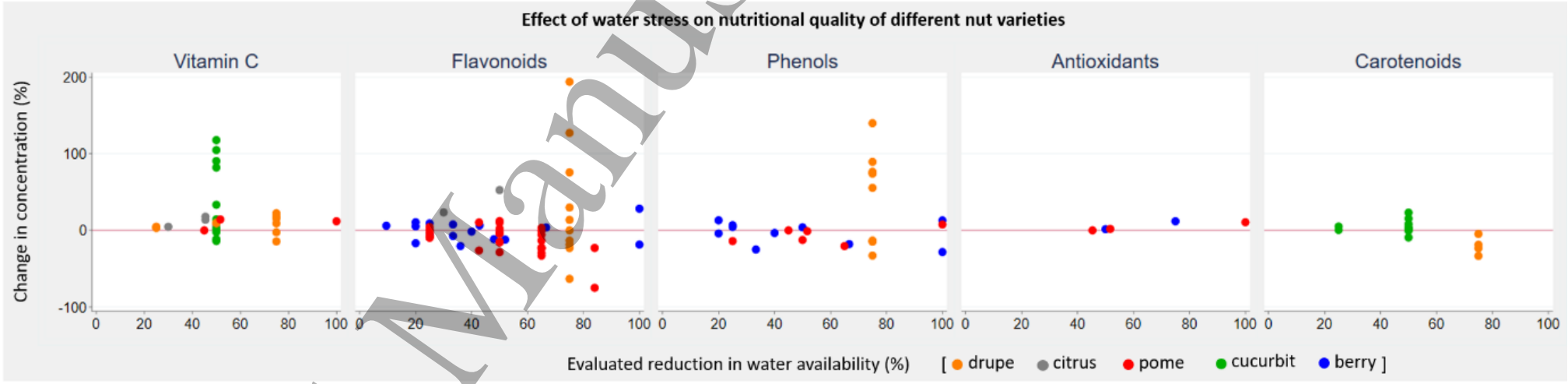


Figure 4: Change in five quality parameters of fruit groups in response to reduced water availability.

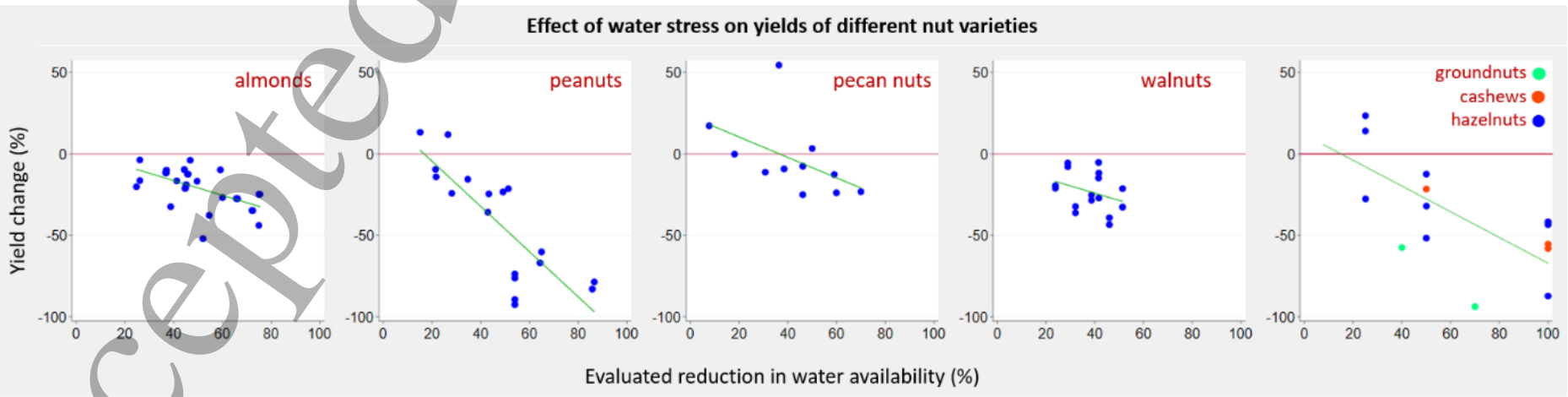


Figure 5: Change in yields of nuts in response to change of water availability - by crop group.

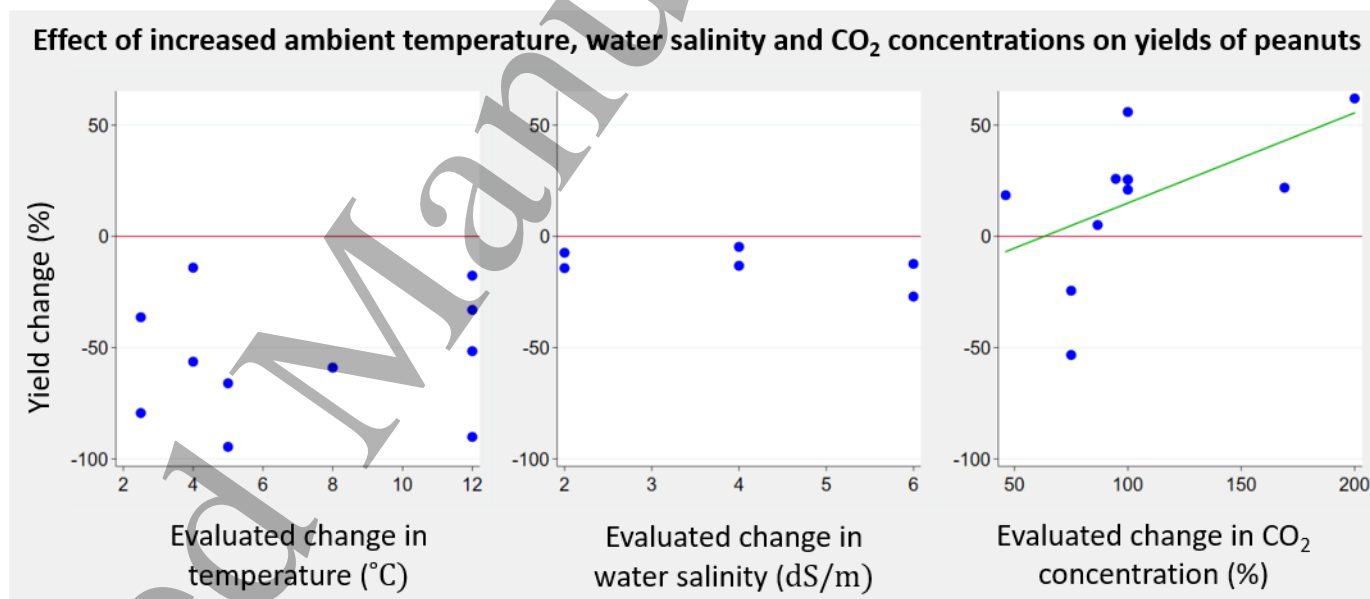


Figure 6: Change in yields of peanuts in response to change of temperature, salinity levels and CO₂ concentrations - by crop group

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285 3.2.2 Water Salinity

286 We identified 12 papers (11 field studies, one greenhouse study; 112 experiments) assessing
287 the effect of water salinity on fruit yields (Figure 3B). All studies measured salinity in dS/m.
288 The evaluated increase in water salinity ranged from 0.15 to 7.3 dS/m, and was converted to
289 a percentage increase from baseline salinity levels. Yield changes in response to increased
290 water salinity were largely negative across berries, citrus, cucurbits and drupe crops, with
291 yields decreasing as water salinity increased. Seven studies (49 experiments, all crop groups
292 combined) evaluated yield changes in response to a 1 to 2 dS/m increase in water salinity.
293 This resulted in a -4.9% non-significant mean yield change (range -55.3% to 31.0%; 95% CI -
294 14.7% to 4.0%), while a 3 to 4 dS/m increase in water salinity resulted in a -28.2% mean yield
295 change (five studies; 22 experiments; range -94.2% to 5.6%; 95% CI -53.0% to -3.4%). Two
296 studies reported uncertainty estimates; therefore, no pooled analysis was performed.

297 Two studies (one field and one greenhouse study, eight experiments) assessed the effect of
298 water salinity on three nutritional quality parameters in strawberries and nectarines. Across all
299 experiments, an increase in salinity (ranging from 0.323 to 1 dS/m) resulted in increases in
300 flavonoid, anti-oxidant and phenol concentrations.

301 Three field studies (22 experiments) assessing the effect of water salinity on peanuts,
302 rapeseed and pistachio yields were identified. The evaluated increase in salinity ranged from
303 2.0 to 10.1 dS/m. Due to the wide range of exposure changes evaluated and paucity of studies,
304 mean yield changes could not be calculated. However, negative yields were seen in peanuts
305 exposed to salinity levels of 3 dS/m and above, whilst yields of rapeseed and pistachio became
306 negative at levels of salinity above 5 dS/m.

307 3.2.3 Carbon Dioxide (CO₂)

308 We included nine papers (four field studies, five greenhouse studies; 21 experiments)
309 reporting on the impact of changing atmospheric CO₂ levels; all but two studies reported on
310 berries. The evaluated change in CO₂ concentrations ranged from +37.0% to +200% and were
311 not all relevant in terms of projected increases in atmospheric CO₂ over coming decades. Yield
312 changes were largely positive in response to exposure to increasing levels of CO₂. A positive
313 mean yield change was demonstrated from a 75% to 100% increase in CO₂ concentration
314 with all crop groups combined (seven studies; 12 experiments; range -23.3% to +133.4%;
315 mean yield change +37.8%; 95% CI +4.1% to +71.5%). Nutritional quality was reported in two
316 papers (one field and one greenhouse study; nine experiments) all reporting on berries. No
317 consistent pattern of change in concentrations of flavonoids and phenols due to increased
318 CO₂ levels was observed.

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3 319 We identified six studies (one field study, five greenhouse studies; 11 experiments)
4 320 investigating the effect of elevated CO₂ levels on production of nuts. All papers focused on
5 321 peanuts. The evaluated increase in CO₂ levels ranged from +46% to +200%. An increase in
6 322 peanut yields in response to increasing changes in CO₂ levels was observed (Figure 6). A
7
8 323 non-significant positive mean yield change was demonstrated from a 75% to 100% increase
9 324 in CO₂ concentration (six studies; eight experiments; range -53.3% to +55.9%; mean yield
10 325 change 10.1%; 95% CI -30.0% to +50.3%). Only two papers reported uncertainty estimates
11 326 and no pooled analysis was performed.

17 327 3.2.4 Temperature

18
19 328 We identified six studies (one field study, five greenhouse studies; 14 experiments) assessing
20 329 the impact of ambient temperature change on fruit yields. The evaluated increase in
21 330 temperature ranged from +1°C to +16°C and a variety of baseline temperatures were
22 331 considered (20°C to 33°C). Considering experiments with a baseline temperature above 25°C,
23 332 a decrease in berry yields in response to increasing temperatures was observed. Three
24 333 studies (one field study, two greenhouse studies; 40 experiments) assessed the impact of an
25 334 increase in temperature on nutritional quality of fruits (berries and pome). Of these, two studies
26 335 (one study on berries, and one study on pomes) reported a decrease in vitamin C
27 336 concentrations, but no clear pattern of change in flavonoid concentrations was demonstrated.

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30 337 We included five studies (all greenhouse studies; 14 experiments) investigating the effect of
31 338 temperature change on nut yields. All papers focussed on peanuts. The evaluated increase in
32 339 temperature compared to baseline conditions ranged from +2.5°C to +12°C. Yield changes in
33 340 response to increasing temperatures were positive in experiments where the baseline
34 341 temperature was 20°C or below and negative in experiments with higher baseline
35 342 temperatures (28-33°C) (Figure 6). No study reported uncertainty estimates and no pooled
36 343 analysis was performed.

46 344 3.2.4 Ozone (O₃)

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48 345 We identified three studies (all field studies; five experiments) that reported on the impact of
49 346 O₃ concentration on fruit yields. Studies evaluated changes in O₃ concentration ranging from
50 347 +88% to +143% above baseline levels; in berries and drupe yield changes were negative,
51 348 while in cucurbits yield changes were positive. None of the identified studies reported on the
52 349 effect of O₃ on nutritional quality of fruits.

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3 350 We included two papers (one field, one open-top chamber; 3 experiments) reporting the
4 351 impact of O₃ concentration on production of peanuts and linseed. All experiments resulted in
5 352 negative yields.

9 353 3.3 Impact of combined environmental exposures

11 354 3.3.1 CO₂ and temperature

13 355 Three greenhouse studies (four experiments) examined the combined impact of a 4°C to 5°C
14 356 increase in temperature and a 300 to 360ppm increase in CO₂ concentration on fruit yield
15 357 (berry and pome). The combined environmental exposures had little impact on yields of fruits
16 358 (range -7% to +12% yield change). The impact of the same combination of environmental
17 359 exposures on nutritional quality of fruit (all berries) was assessed by three greenhouse studies
20 360 (10 experiments), resulting in a non-significant reduction in mean flavonoid concentration,
21 361 excluding the study reporting CO₂ in µmol/mol (range -77.4% to -6.5%; mean flavonoid
22 362 concentration -37.5%; 95% CI -94.4% to +19.5%).

27 363 We identified three studies (two growth chamber and one glasshouse study; eight
28 364 experiments) assessing the combined impact of a 300-350 ppm increase in CO₂ concentration
29 365 and 2.5°C to 12°C temperature increase on peanut yield. Baseline temperatures ranged from
30 366 28°C to 33°C. The combined environmental exposures resulted largely in a decrease in
31 367 peanut yields (range -92% to +3% yield change).

36 368 3.3.2 Water availability and Salinity

38 369 Two field studies (eleven experiments) evaluated the combined effects of reduced water
39 370 availability and increased water salinity on pineapples and cantaloupe melons. The
40 371 experiments assessed a broad range of increases in salinity and reductions in water
41 372 availability (+0.8 to +5.5 dS/m increase in salinity and between 10 and 50% reduction in water
42 373 availability). All experiments reported negative yield changes.

47 374 One field study (18 experiments) investigated the combined effect of salinity and water
48 375 availability on peanut yield. Reductions in water availability ranged from -51.4 to -26.6%, and
49 376 salinity increased from 3 to 7 dS/m. These combined environmental exposures were reported
50 377 to have a negative impact on peanut yield.

54 378 3.3.3 CO₂ and O₃

56 379 One field study (two experiments) assessed the combined impact of elevated CO₂ and O₃ on
57 380 peanut yield. The impacts on yield were inconclusive.

381 4. Discussion

382 This systematic review summaries the current available experimental evidence of the impact
383 of potential future environmental changes on yields of fruits, nuts and seeds, and nutritional
384 quality of fruits, under a business-as-usual scenario. While some experimental conditions
385 were relatively heterogeneous, several consistent findings emerged. Our results suggest that
386 reduced water availability, increased O₃ concentrations, elevated temperatures above 28°C
387 and increased water salinity have negative impacts on fruit, nut and seed yields. Positive
388 effects on berry and peanut yields were seen under increased CO₂ concentrations, however;
389 the positive effect on yields of raised CO₂ was found to be attenuated by elevated
390 temperatures in experiments with combined environmental exposures.

391 4.1 Comparison with other literature

392 Our findings relating to nuts and seeds are in line with a number of modelling studies predicting
393 negative cereal yields in response to environmental change, in crops such as rice, maize and
394 wheat (3, 4, 27). A decrease in availability of these staple crops has worrying implications for
395 future food security. Reduced availability of other nutritionally relevant crops such as fruits,
396 vegetables, nuts and legumes would also threaten food security, especially from a dietary (or
397 nutrient) diversity perspective. A recent systematic review on the effect of environmental
398 changes on vegetable and legume yields and nutritional quality found that under a business-
399 as-usual scenario, environmental changes are likely to have substantial negative impact on
400 yields (10), in keeping with our findings presented here regarding fruit, nuts and seeds.

401 Precipitation is predicted to decrease in many arid sub-tropical areas (2) where many crops
402 such as peanuts, almonds, citrus and drupe fruits are often grown. Furthermore, reduced
403 precipitation could increase water extraction for irrigation, which – in turn – can lead to over-
404 exploitation of aquifers and subsequent freshwater declines. An adequate supply of water is
405 necessary for plant growth and hence crop yield, and water stress can affect normal growth
406 processes such as cell expansion and regulation of photosynthesis (28). However, water
407 stress can affect different crops in different ways, for example the growth phase of hazelnuts
408 (29) and the reproductive phase of peanuts (30) are particularly sensitive to water stress,
409 whereas almonds are relatively drought resistant but do respond to severe water deficits
410 during the stress-sensitive vegetative growth and post-harvest phases (31). Similarly with
411 pecans, the timing of applied water stress influences maximum nut production (32). Whilst our
412 review demonstrated a largely negative impact on reduced water availability on fruit and nuts,
413 these variations in water requirements and periods of water stress sensitivity may help explain
414 the heterogeneity in results between the included papers. While this review focussed on the

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3 415 effect of reduced water availability, a particular issue for dry sub-tropical regions, some
4 416 varieties of fruit, nuts and seeds are grown in wet tropical areas, and others such as walnuts,
5 417 hazelnuts, pomes and berries thrive in more temperate climates. Whilst predictions of reduced
6 418 rainfall are less profound in these regions, changing precipitation patterns may lead to
7 419 flooding, particularly in tropical areas, with likely implications of reduced crop yields (1).

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12 420 The findings of potential negative impacts on fruit, nut and seed yields resulting from increased
13 421 salinity and increased temperature are in line with our current understanding of the impact of
14 422 salinity and temperature on staple crops (33, 34). The salt tolerance of many vegetables is
15 423 also low, with decline in yields shown at salinity levels above 4 dS/m (35). Increased
16 424 salinization is detrimental to plant growth, size and productivity (36). Although outside the
17 425 scope of this review, saline water intrusion often has a substantial impact on soil salinity. One
18 426 study in Bangladesh has estimated that increased saltwater intrusion due to effects of
19 427 environmental change will result in a 39% increase in soil salinity in coastal regions by 2050
20 428 (37). It has been estimated that plants grown in saline soils, characterised by an electrical
21 429 conductivity of 4 ds/m or over (38), undergo osmotic stress and root growth disturbances,
22 430 often accompanied by impaired nutrient uptake as a result of ion imbalances, leading to
23 431 decreased yields (35). However, further salinity studies on a wider variety of fruit, nut and seed
24 432 crops are required in combination with other environmental exposures, in particular water
25 433 availability in arid regions, in order to fully understand the impact of projected environmental
26 434 changes on yields. As demonstrated with peanuts, increasing severity of water restriction
27 435 augmented the effect of salinity, although previous studies on amaranth suggest the effect of
28 436 these two stressors is not additive (39).

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40 437 Our results suggest that the sensitivity of peanuts to increased temperature depends upon the
41 438 baseline temperature. Different stages of peanut growth require different temperatures:
42 439 vegetative growth is optimal between 25°C to 30 °C (40). This may explain why a 4°C rise in
43 440 temperature lead to a decrease in yields in experiments with a baseline temperature of 28°C
44 441 or greater only; a 4°C rise in temperature at a baseline of 20°C would provide near optimal
45 442 growing conditions. Peanuts are typically grown in tropical and subtropical regions (41), where
46 443 seasonal temperature extremes are predicted to exceed any extreme temperatures recorded
47 444 to date as a result of climate change-induced global temperature increases (1). Therefore,
48 445 without adaptation strategies, the predicted increase in mean global temperature poses a
49 446 threat to agricultural production of peanuts.

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57 447 We identified a potentially beneficial effect of CO₂ on berry and peanut yields, in keeping with
58 448 a number of other studies evaluating the effect of CO₂ on yields of rice (42), potatoes (43),
59 449 peppers (44), and lettuce (45), amongst other crops. This effect is thought to be due to

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3 450 stimulation of photosynthesis by CO₂ in C₃ crops (inclusive of peanuts, rice, wheat and many
4 451 fruits and vegetables), which enhances productivity (46). However, in contrast to the positive
5 452 effect of increased CO₂ on yields, a detrimental effect on nutritional quality has previously
6 453 been found: elevated CO₂ reduced concentrations of iron and zinc in C₃ grains and legumes
7 454 (6). Additionally, our review found some evidence that the beneficial effect of CO₂ on yields
8 455 was attenuated by simultaneous exposure to increasing temperature. It has previously been
9 456 suggested that certain climate change exposures, i.e. increased temperature and water
10 457 stress, that have negative impacts on yields, may be attenuated by the positive yield impacts
11 458 of increased atmospheric CO₂ (47). This was supported in a previous Temperature by Free-
12 459 Air CO₂ Enrichment (T-FACE) experiment on soybeans, in which the effect of a combined 200
13 460 ppm increase in CO₂ and 3.5°C elevation in temperature negated the negative effect of
14 461 increased temperature alone; but also the positive effect of elevated CO₂ alone (48). Similarly
15 462 no synergistic effects of temperature and CO₂ were shown with rice (42), and beans, amongst
16 463 other crops. As the continued changes to the planet's environment are likely to encompass
17 464 both elevated CO₂ and temperature, it is arguably of more practical relevance to consider
18 465 environmental exposures in combination.

19 466 A further effect of environmental change on the planet's ecological systems is a global decline
20 467 in pollinator populations that are essential for promoting yields and nutritional quality of many
21 468 crops (49), including nutritionally relevant nuts, seeds, fruits and vegetables (50). Modelling of
22 469 pollinator decline scenarios suggests that complete pollinator loss would result in a 22%
23 470 reduction in global supply of fruits, nuts and seeds, contributing to a significant increase in
24 471 NCDs and micronutrient deficiencies - in particular Vitamin A deficiency (50). We did not
25 472 identify experimental studies investigating the effect of pollinator loss on yields of fruit, nuts
26 473 and seeds using the search terms in this review, highlighting a gap in the literature relating to
27 474 an important threat to the global food supply.

28 475 The health benefits of consuming not only (starchy) staples but also a wide variety of fruits,
29 476 vegetables, legumes, nuts and seeds are now widely recognised, in prevention of both
30 477 micronutrient deficiencies and non-communicable diseases (51). Maintaining adequate
31 478 production, availability and nutritional quality of these crops is thus required to ensure good
32 479 quality and quantity of produce to meet the health needs of the current and growing future
33 480 populations.

34 481 [4.2 Strength and limitations](#)

35 482 To our knowledge, this is the first systematic review assessing the impact of environmental
36 483 changes on yields of nuts and seeds. We performed a thorough and systematic search of
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3 484 published literature to identify all relevant papers, and methodological and reporting quality of
4 485 all eligible papers was assessed to minimise sources of bias in our synthesised summary of
5 486 the evidence.
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9 487 There are however a number of limitations to our review. Firstly, only 17 of the 81 included
10 488 papers (21%) provided uncertainty estimates for the outcome. As these were for different
11 489 environmental exposures, our ability to perform quantitative analyses was limited. Secondly,
12 490 the range of fruit groups assessed was limited for some environmental exposures; the overall
13 491 nuts and seed varieties assessed was limited to eight nut and two seed types, with paucity of
14 492 data for crops other than peanuts, and therefore our review does not provide a complete
15 493 picture of the effect of environmental change on the diverse range of fruits, nuts and seeds.
16 494 Lastly, we did not account for differences in application of the environmental stressors under
17 495 experimental conditions; studies used different strategies to “mimic” drought, ranging from
18 496 substantial but stable reduction in watering during all phenological stages of fruit growth, to
19 497 specific intermittent water cuts. For example, the extent to which peanut yields are affected by
20 498 decreased water availability depends on factors such as duration, intensity, and the timing of
21 499 water stress (52). Although we were able to account for intensity, the differences in timing and
22 500 duration of water stress between studies were not accounted for, but may have influenced
23 501 differences in our comparison of the studies.
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34 502 There are additional limitations to consider arising from the heterogeneity of methodologies
35 503 used by the included papers. Firstly, yield measurements were inconsistent across the papers,
36 504 for example some reported seed yield in tonnes/hectare or grams/nut/meter², whilst others
37 505 reported only yield components such as pod biomass or seed weight in grams. The effects of
38 506 environmental stressors can affect plant growth at different stages, and therefore mediate their
39 507 effect on different yield components such as seed or pod size, weight, branch number, plant
40 508 biomass and total dry weight to differing extents (30, 53). Whilst we were unable to directly
41 509 compare the absolute effect on yields, the change in percentage yields or yield components
42 510 were calculated in order to facilitate some comparison between studies. Secondly, there was
43 511 some variation in the methodology of measuring environmental exposures within the included
44 512 papers. For example, four different nomenclatures were used in reporting water availability.
45 513 Thirdly, many of the included studies were conducted with the primary aim of investigating
46 514 mechanisms to increase yields and/or quality or to explore exposure-resistant varieties,
47 515 therefore the levels of change in environmental exposures were not always a true reflection
48 516 of likely future environmental change scenarios. For example, fruit cultivars under
49 517 investigation may have been more resilient than the “average” cultivar, therefore not
50 518 demonstrating the full picture of the impact of environmental stressors on yield or quality.
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3 519 Lastly, issues in style of reporting resulted in limited possibility for data extraction, which led
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5 520 to exclusion of several papers.

6 7 521 4.3 Implications and Policy Relevance

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9 522 The agricultural sector now faces the challenge of producing enough nutritious food in a
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11 523 changing environment, while minimising the environmental footprint of food production. In
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13 524 addition to food security, livelihoods and health are likely to be affected, should the
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15 525 environment continue to change along current trajectories. Global consumption of fruits was
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17 526 under half the recommended intake level of 250g/day in 2017, and nuts and seeds
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19 527 consumption was well under a quarter of the recommended optimal intake level of 21g per
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21 528 day; the current mean global consumption is estimated at approximately 100g/day for fruits,
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23 529 and 3g/day for nuts and seeds (11). Reduction in fruit, nut and seed yields is likely only to
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25 530 widen that gap, contribute to an increased risk of non-communicable disease and
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27 531 micronutrient deficiencies, while also impeding efforts to shift towards more sustainable food
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29 532 systems due to decreasing availability of healthy and nutritious alternatives to animal-sourced
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31 533 foods.

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33 534 The vast majority of global fruit production is based in tropical and sub-tropical parts of the
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35 535 world (24) that are expected to be disproportionately affected by changing environmental
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37 536 exposure levels (2). Tropical and sub-tropical fruits are consumed both in the country of origin
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39 537 as well as temperate countries; substantial reductions in yields may therefore affect global
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41 538 markets and challenge global availability to a greater extent than other food groups for which
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43 539 local and regional trade and more prominent with a wider range of production zones. Several
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45 540 indirect economic impacts may also arise, especially within the producing nations. For
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47 541 example, raised tropospheric O₃ concentration increases visible bruising of fruits which
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49 542 reduces market value (54), and this can result in agricultural revenue loss. Reduced labour
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51 543 productivity and exhaustion due to heat stress may also compound its direct effect on fruit
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53 544 yields (55). Most susceptible in this case are often those in the lowest income brackets who
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55 545 commonly perform the majority of agricultural production activities manually.

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57 546 What will become increasingly important in efforts to ensure the resilience of fruits, nuts and
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59 547 seeds in our diets is a focus on sustainable production; as certain nut species are highly water
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548 demanding and relatively vulnerable to water stress, dietary shifts may be necessary towards
549 the less water intensive nut types. Although the shift away from animal source foods towards
550 more planted-based sources is estimated to substantially reduce greenhouse gas emissions
551 (17), water use may well be higher if consumption of certain animal products are substituted
552 by water intensive alternatives. For example, almond milk has a substantially higher water use

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3 553 than dairy milk (56). It may therefore be useful to re-think sustainability-based dietary
4 554 recommendations with consideration of within-group food aggregation.

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7 555 In order to respond to changing environmental conditions and maintain the supply of
8 556 nutritionally important crops, adaptation strategies will be required, such as cultivating resilient
9 557 crop varieties, efficient irrigation systems, novel pollination techniques and agricultural
10 558 innovations. It is likely to be the poorest economies and least climate resilient countries who
11 559 will be most affected by environmental change, but as this will indirectly affect supply of crops
12 560 to other regions, a global multi-sector response with development and implementation of
13 561 locally-relevant strategies will be essential.

14 562 4.4 Future Research

15 563 Our study highlights two important gaps in the current evidence-base around the impact of
16 564 environmental change on yields and nutritional quality of food crops, that could be addressed
17 565 in future research. First, development of further standardisation and reporting guidelines for
18 566 agricultural (or wider planetary health) studies, particularly concerning estimate uncertainties,
19 567 would increase the validity and reliability of future evidence synthesis efforts in this area.
20 568 Secondly, parameterization of projection models for yields and nutritional quality of fruits, nuts
21 569 and seeds (as well as vegetables and legumes) under different environmental change
22 570 scenarios will require detailed information on a large amount of different environmental
23 571 exposure and crop impact combinations. In contrast, focussing on an evidence synthesis
24 572 around the physiological drivers and mechanisms through which these environmental
25 573 exposures affect certain fruits, vegetables, legumes, nuts and seeds, might allow construction
26 574 of crop aggregates that could reduce the complexity of such models and enable robust yield
27 575 and nutritional quality projections of nutritionally important crops globally.

28 576 4.5 Conclusion

29 577 Our review identified a number of papers assessing the impact of environmental stressors on
30 578 the yield of a small range of fruits, nuts and seeds. Our findings suggest that under a business
31 579 as usual scenario, yields of fruits, nuts and seeds are likely to decrease in response to
32 580 environmental change. Given the importance of fruits, nuts and seeds to health, and
33 581 contribution to adequate micronutrient and calorie intake, this will likely have negative
34 582 implications for food security, nutrition, and NCD risk – especially in food insecure areas.
35 583 Despite the inherent limitations of performing a systematic review in this field, these novel
36 584 findings are of importance for research and policy in agricultural development, food security,
37 585 and global public health. Our review highlights the need for further research using
38 586 standardised methodologies, including reporting of uncertainty estimates, to assess

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3 587 environmental impacts on a more diverse range of nutritionally relevant crops, in order to fully
4 588 understand the risk to dietary diversity and nutrition. Additionally, our review contributes to a
5 589 growing number of inter-disciplinary systematic reviews bringing together the health,
6 590 environmental and food systems sectors, further demonstrating the benefit of working across
7 591 related fields to provide evidence for the urgent need to find solutions to improve the health of
8 592 people and our planet.
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