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1 **Innovation in the UK fresh produce sector: identifying**
2 **systemic problems and the move towards systemic**
3 **facilitation**

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9 Keywords: Agricultural Innovation Systems, functional-structural analysis, agricultural
10 innovation, fresh produce sector, horticulture, qualitative research

11 Highlights:

- 12 • Vertical and horizontal fragmentation caused by loss of public extension services
- 13 • Power and information asymmetry between retail suppliers and customers
- 14 • Producer organisations increasingly important for innovation processes
- 15 • Globalisation of agricultural knowledge development and diffusion

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16 ABSTRACT

17 Innovation has been promoted to help meet the various challenges faced by the UK
18 fresh produce sector. However, what barriers hinder the development and spread of new
19 ideas in the sector have not been investigated. This article explores the social and
20 economic constraints to innovation by combining the agricultural innovation systems
21 (AIS) conceptual framework with a functional-structural analysis. Semi-structured
22 interviews were undertaken with 32 key informants, including growers, agronomists,
23 researchers and representatives from major retailers. The findings show that, whilst the
24 UK fresh produce sector is highly innovative, a number of systemic problems slow or
25 prevent the acquisition and utilisation of knowledge. The privatisation of public extension
26 services has led to a degree of horizontal and vertical fragmentation, with increasingly
27 'closed' groups and lack of nationwide research coordination or guiding visions for the
28 sector. Variation in business size and crop type make coordination or coherent visions
29 challenging to establish, presenting problems for intermediary organisations in matching
30 the supply and demand of agricultural knowledge. At the same time, a stark power
31 asymmetry exists between suppliers and retail customers, whose policies have led to a
32 "defensive" innovation culture and lack of trust – producer organisations represent a
33 response to this asymmetry, as well as increasingly important factor in the (now
34 globalised) development and diffusion of agricultural innovations. Systemic instruments
35 to facilitate better coordination and communication are proposed, such as innovation
36 platforms to bring together otherwise closed groups around common problems and the
37 use of road-mapping to provide a guiding vision for the future of the sector. Retail-led
38 grower groups also provide a means to improve trust between suppliers and customers
39 in the sector and promote new technological trajectories.

40 **1. INTRODUCTION**

41 In recent years a number of Government strategies have sought to bolster UK
42 agricultural innovation, such as the 'Agri-Tech Strategy' and plant and animal health
43 strategies (UK Government 2013a, 2014a, 2014b). These strategies have primarily
44 promoted (basic) scientific research to boost the competitiveness of the agricultural
45 sector, but have also pointed towards a number of institutional factors that are limiting
46 UK agricultural development: funding for applied and translational research has been
47 lacking, with no adequate substitutes for the publically-funded institutes of the past; the
48 diversity of the industry makes it challenging for institutions to develop new connections;
49 there are no clear measures to recruit and retain new talent in the industry (UK
50 Government 2013a).

51 In the UK, the agricultural innovation support system – the organisations that help
52 entrepreneurs bring new ideas to market – has undergone significant change since the
53 late 1980s, with the consolidation (and liquidation) of many independent agricultural
54 research institutes. In England, only three remain (Hermans, Klerkx, and Roep 2015).
55 The diverse advisory community that has emerged following the privatisation of
56 extension services has complicated the picture for farmers in accessing suitable
57 knowledge (Klerkx and Proctor 2013). In this post-public extension service environment,
58 firms have a strong interest in protecting the commercial value of knowledge
59 (Lamprinopoulou et al. 2012). Knowledge sharing, even between agricultural advisors,
60 has been found to have declined in countries where formerly public extension services
61 have been privatised (Klerkx, de Grip, and Leeuwis 2006); this is sometimes called
62 *horizontal fragmentation*. Farm businesses must now be increasingly pro-active in

63 seeking out knowledge for innovation, even though they may lack the required
64 competencies for doing so (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008b).

65 The competitive tendering system that now characterises agricultural research provision
66 also presents problems for research institutes, universities and other knowledge-based
67 organisations in anticipating and capturing client needs (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008b;
68 Prager et al. 2016). However, vertical fragmentation, which can be described as a lack
69 of coordination of research activity, has been identified as a problem for the English
70 agricultural system in the post-public extension environment (Hermans et al. 2015).

71 Intermediary organisations, brokers of the innovation process between two or more
72 parties, are receiving increased attention as a solution to these types of problems
73 (Howells 2006; Klerkx and Leeuwis 2009; Smedlund 2006). In the Netherlands,
74 intermediaries have proliferated in the wake of privatisation (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008a,
75 2008b; Meulen, Nedeva, and Braun 2005). It has been noted that the UK has followed
76 a rather distinct trajectory (Lamprinopoulou et al. 2012), retaining a statutory levy board
77 (the Agriculture and Horticulture Development Board, AHDB) with substantial
78 responsibility for capturing research needs, commissioning research projects and
79 disseminating results. A number of problems have been characterised for such
80 organisations in mediating the supply and demand of agricultural knowledge (Klerkx and
81 Leeuwis 2008b): invisibility and immeasurability of service value (Klerkx and Leeuwis
82 2008a); unclear images of these organisations (i.e. what their precise functions are) due
83 to operational overlap with other knowledge-based organisations (Howells 2006); their
84 focus on organisations already capable of leveraging agricultural R&D is also
85 problematic (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008b).

86 It has been proposed that, rather than focusing exclusively on the communication and
87 implementation of research results in a linear fashion, knowledge-based organisations
88 should re-orientate their efforts around systemic facilitation. Stimulating the formation of
89 networks, for example, could improve innovation in the agricultural system (van den
90 Driessen Mareeuw et al. 2015; see also Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008b). Managing
91 communication problems between groups is also important, particularly where
92 institutional barriers are slowing the process of innovation – this goes beyond
93 transferring science into practice (Klerkx, Schut, et al. 2012). Supporting the
94 development of innovation platforms (IPs), which are forums to convene relevant
95 innovation stakeholders, can likewise encourage network formation and act as a
96 mechanisms for the identification of institutional barriers to change (Hounkonnou et al.
97 2012; Klerkx et al. 2013). Given the complexity and interdependent nature of agricultural
98 problems today, systems approaches that can provide a holistic understanding of the
99 competing demands on agriculture are required to determine appropriate intervention
100 points to improve the capacity of the agricultural innovation system (AIS) to innovate
101 (Brooks and Loevinsohn 2011).

102 A number of existing papers have assessed the performance of the AIS in specific
103 regions of the UK (Hermans et al. 2015; Lamprinopoulou et al. 2012), with less attention
104 paid to sector-specific issues. There is reason to believe that some problems may be
105 unique to or more significant for the fresh produce sector, such as access to labour (on
106 which it remains highly dependent) or the withdrawal of certain pesticides in the
107 European Union that are commonly used to control pests in fruit and vegetable crops
108 (Villaverde et al. 2014).

109.1 The UK fresh produce sector

110 The fresh produce sector includes the production and processing of fruits, vegetables
111 and ornamental plants. It represents roughly £3.6 billion at farm-gate prices in 2017 (UK
112 Government 2018) and employs around 30,000 permanent and 75,000 non-UK
113 seasonal workers (Office for National Statistics 2018; UK Government 2013b). It can be
114 considered a sub-sector of the wider UK agricultural industry. The potato sector is also
115 included in the scope of this study, though it is not generally considered to be fresh
116 produce. Most fruit and vegetables in the UK (over 80%) is sold through supermarket
117 retailers (Sodano and Hingley 2009). The sector is also marked by rationalisation into
118 fewer but larger businesses due to supermarket prerogatives for smaller supplier
119 portfolios, which has in turn led to increasing emphasis on “category management”, that
120 is, the management by farm businesses or ‘marketing desks’ of particular foodstuffs
121 (Sodano and Hingley 2009). These large agri-businesses now operate on pan-European
122 and even global scales (Hingley, Lindgreen, and Casswell 2005; Sodano and Hingley
123 2009).

124 The structure of the UK retail market has been described as oligopsonic (Camanzi,
125 Malorgio, and Azcárate 2011; Revoredo-Giha et al. 2012) and the fresh produce sector
126 itself as “cutthroat” (Retail Think Tank, KPMG, and Ipsos Retail Performance 2014). In
127 2013 a groceries code adjudicator was established by the UK government to ensure the
128 fair treatment of suppliers by retail customers. Although large, influential firms seek to
129 control the food supply chain (Mylan et al. 2015) and contractors use their market power
130 to depress prices for suppliers or make other contract conditions less favourable for
131 producers (Young and Hobbs 2002), this asymmetry of power indicates a market failure
132 that some authors have linked to fragmentation in the wake of extension service

133 privatisation (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2009; Klerkx and Proctor 2013; Lamprinopoulou et al.
134 2012; Leeuwis 2000). It also explains the growth of agricultural cooperatives and
135 producer organisations (POs) in Europe, which represent a reaction to monopsonistic or
136 oligopsonic agricultural markets (Camanzi et al. 2011; Pascucci, Gardebroek, and Dries
137 2012).

138 POs can vary in terms of purpose, formality and legal form (Bijman and Hanisch 2012)
139 but represent any organisation of fruit and vegetable producers that is established for a
140 specific purpose (Camanzi et al. 2011) – with 33 fruit and vegetable POs registered in
141 the UK. Camanzi et al. (2011) note that POs can facilitate the improvement of on-farm
142 production techniques by providing technical assistance. A weakness of POs is strong
143 network failure, whereby a group remains closed off to new ideas (Hogeland 2015;
144 Weber and Rohrer 2012). It is not entirely clear what role POs play in the innovation
145 system landscape.

146 It has been noted that the sector faces a number of distinct challenges: new pests and
147 diseases, restrictions on labour, the price of agricultural inputs and foreign competition
148 (National Horticultural Forum 2011). The sector relies on the “off-label” use of pest
149 control products (i.e. not following labelled guidelines) that have been developed for the
150 arable market (Villaverde et al. 2014), presenting a challenge for the control of any new,
151 fresh produce-specific pests and diseases. The sector’s high dependence on manual
152 labour means any constraints to labour availability can significantly affect the ability of
153 farm businesses to operate. Domestic producers are also now competing in a global
154 market for certain categories of produce (Legge et al. 2006). As with the wider
155 agricultural industry, innovation has been promoted to overcome these problems
156 (National Horticultural Forum 2011). Innovation in this context is often implicitly

157 technological and focussed on greater efficiency. The Agri-Tech Strategy does not
158 provide a distinct vision for UK fresh produce, nor the *Animal and Plant Health in the UK:*
159 *Building our Science Capability* white paper (UK Government 2013a, 2014a). The
160 primary innovation support mechanisms that support entrepreneurs are the AHDB's
161 horticultural wing, a number of research institutes such as NIAB EMR and Warwick Crop
162 Centre, as well as private agronomic businesses. However, the performance of the fresh
163 produce innovation system, its disaggregated barriers and opportunities for innovation,
164 and how it fits into the wider picture of the UK AIS has not been well-described in the
165 relevant literature.

166 This article seeks to identify fresh produce sector-specific systemic problems and
167 propose targeted systemic instruments to counter such problems. It is organised as
168 follows: the first section describes the theoretical framework guiding the study. The
169 second section outlines the methodology employed in the study. The third section
170 describes the systemic problems identified by the research. The final section places
171 these problems in the context of the wider literature and matches systemic problems
172 with suitable systemic instruments identified in this study and in existing literature.

173 **2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

174 An innovation system is a “network of organisations, enterprises and individuals
175 focussed on bringing new products, new processes and new forms of organisation into
176 use, together with the institutions that affect their behaviour and performance” (The
177 World Bank 2006:vi–vii). The AIS approach is an increasingly applied framework for
178 exploring change in agriculture (Klerkx, Aarts, and Leeuwis 2010) and belongs to a
179 family of systems approaches that emerged in response to perceived inadequacies with

180 the linear model of innovation that had until the late 1980s been dominant in innovation
181 studies (Hall, Mytelka, and Oyeyinka 2006; Spielman, Ekboir, and Davis 2009). Whilst a
182 linear view of innovation sees research as the primary driver of innovation (Hall et al.
183 2006), innovation systems frameworks perceive innovation as a process involving the
184 co-evolution of technological and non-technological elements (Schut et al. 2015). In the
185 agricultural sphere, new machinery, cultivars, agricultural inputs and practices are
186 examples of technological change, whilst social and economic arrangements, such as
187 new institutional environments and social norms, are examples of non-technological
188 change. These changes take place across multiple levels, from field to farm to region
189 (Klerkx et al. 2010; Schut et al. 2015). As such, innovation is as much about institutional
190 change and social processes as the development of new technology (Röling 2009; Schut
191 et al. 2014; Struik, Klerkx, and Hounkonnou 2014). In agriculture, innovation relies on
192 the interaction between a group of heterogeneous actors, such as farmers, researchers,
193 agronomists and advisors, processors, input suppliers and civil society (Brooks and
194 Loevinsohn 2011; Hall 2007; Klerkx et al. 2010; Leeuwis 2004; Röling 2009).

195 Given the recent emphasis on innovation in the UK fresh produce sector, there is a need
196 to understand how the technological, social, economic and institutional conditions of the
197 sub-sector encourage or impede innovation. Factors that negatively influence the speed
198 and direction of innovation processes are known as systemic problems (or systemic
199 failures, barriers or weaknesses). One means to identifying systemic barriers is the
200 functional-structural analysis. Although there are a number of dimensions to innovation
201 system analysis, two previously separate but complementary approaches have been
202 combined to build a comprehensive framework for understanding the dynamics of

203 innovation systems (Hekkert et al. 2007; Kebebe et al. 2015; Klerkx, van Mierlo, et al.
204 2012; Wieczorek and Hekkert 2012).

205 Some authors have previously drawn a distinction between issues that occur at the
206 functional and structural levels of the innovation system (blocking mechanisms and
207 systemic problems, respectively). A functionalist view of innovation systems sees the
208 system provide a variety of functions (outlined in Table 1) that can be performed to better
209 or worse extents (Hekkert et al. 2007). Structures represent the landscape of the
210 innovation system, being actors (individuals and organisations), institutions (rules and
211 norms), interactions (relations between actors) and infrastructure (either physical or
212 knowledge-based). Conveniently, Wieczorek & Hekkert (2012) have developed a
213 typology of systemic problems that links systemic problems to a structural element within
214 one of the seven functions: 1) the presence/absence or capabilities of certain actors, 2)
215 the presence/absence or quality of the institutional environment, 3) the
216 presence/absence or quality of the interactions between actors and 4) the
217 presence/absence or quality of the infrastructure.

218 **Table 1**

219 Functions of an innovation system (adapted from Turner et al. 2016)

<i>Function</i>	<i>Description</i>
Entrepreneurial activities	Entrepreneurs use the potential of new knowledge, networks and markets to create value (Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008b). Such activities can also include lobbying and attempts to 'restructure' institutional environments.

<p>Knowledge development</p>	<p>Knowledge is considered a fundamental prerequisite to innovation (Kebebe et al. 2015) and the ability to create new knowledge is a vital component of an effective innovation system. Creation of new knowledge is not restricted to the formal research establishment; farmers and agro-businesses are also sources of new knowledge.</p>
<p>Knowledge diffusion</p>	<p>Diffusion of knowledge through networks is vital to further develop and adapt innovations, to scale innovations ‘up and out’ and enhance the “co-evolution of social, technological, institutional and market changes” (Hermans et al. 2013; Turner et al. 2016).</p>
<p>Guidance of the search</p>	<p>The creation of a “vision” for the innovation system with which to orientate other system functions is important. Shared meanings, expectations and clear future vision can stimulate innovation by reducing uncertainty and providing a sense of direction to innovation processes (Mylan et al. 2015).</p>
<p>Market formation</p>	<p>New technologies can struggle against existing technologies and resistance from the consumer and/or incumbent players. Creating new, niche markets can stimulate innovation (Kebebe et al. 2015).</p>
<p>Resource mobilisation</p>	<p>The mobilisation of resources refers to the management of the human and financial resources to undertake activities within the innovation system (Hekkert et al. 2007). This includes funding for research and subsidies for certain technologies for example, as well as to attract appropriate expertise in innovation trajectories.</p>
<p>Creation of legitimacy</p>	<p>Legitimacy is necessary to counteract resistance to change inherent in existing systems of production, trade and consumption.</p>

220

221 By exploring the dynamic interactions that bring about innovation, it is possible to assess

222 an innovation system against its supposed functions in a systematic manner to diagnose

223 problems (see Kebebe et al. 2015; Turner et al. 2016). The functional-structural analysis
224 provides the basis for relevant policy development and intervention at the system level,
225 rather than at the level of its individual components (Bergek et al. 2008). These
226 interventions are known as ‘systemic instruments’ and can take on a variety of forms,
227 but are often focussed on stimulating interaction between key system actors through, for
228 example, the joint foresight and ‘vision’ building (Smits and Kuhlmann 2004; Turner et
229 al. 2016; Wieczorek and Hekkert 2012).

230 **3. METHODOLOGY**

231 The study employed an applied qualitative approach (Ritchie and Lewis 2010). As is
232 common in AIS diagnostic work, semi-structured interviews were utilised to generate
233 data (Turner et al. 2016). Semi-structured interviews permit the interviewer to pursue
234 emergent themes during the interview and provide data of sufficient depth to explain
235 social processes (Mason 1996). The sampling frame for participant selection was
236 determined in part by the AIS framework (i.e. farmers, researchers and other system
237 actors) and also by the limits of the fresh produce sub-sector. Sampling criteria were
238 designed to maximise both geographical and professional diversity – this was done to
239 capture as many voices as possible from a sector with a large variety of crop types and
240 farming systems. Both purposive sampling (the selection of participants close to the topic
241 of interest) (Palys 2008) and co-nomination sampling (researcher participants
242 themselves nominate other participants) (Eide 2008) were used.

243 Ethical approval was granted to the project by the University of Warwick Biomedical and
244 Scientific Research Ethics Committee (BSREC) before interviews commenced. A topic
245 guide was developed that included five areas of inquiry: (i) the nature of innovation, (ii)

246 the sources of innovation, (iii) enabling and disabling factors for change, (iv)
247 communication in the sector and (v) challenges for the sector. In total, 32 interviews
248 were carried out between June 2015 and January 2017, involving individuals from farm
249 businesses (14), research (5), agronomy/consultancy (3), producer organisations (3),
250 levy board and policy (3), supermarkets (2) and breeding companies (2). It is worth
251 noting that several interviewees had prior experience in one or more of the categories
252 listed here. The interviews, which lasted between 35-60 minutes, were recorded by
253 *Dictaphone* and subsequently transcribed. *NVivo 10* (for Mac) was used to organize the
254 data for analysis.

255 The data analysis consisted of two stages: the initial reduction of data was carried out in
256 accordance with *Framework Analysis*, an approach developed by Jane Ritchie and Liz
257 Spencer in the late 1980s for large-scale policy work (Ritchie and Lewis 2010). The
258 approach is suited to research that has specific questions, a limited timeframe, a pre-
259 designed sample (in this case, those involved in the UK fresh produce sector) and a
260 *priori* issues – these are themes one can expect to emerge as a result of the
261 characterisation of the problem under study, existing definitions and decisions made with
262 respect to prior theory (Ryan and Bernard 2003; Srivastava and Thomson 2009). An
263 initial coding framework was developed by open coding early interview transcripts, by
264 which subsequent transcripts were indexed. Higher-level analytical themes were
265 discovered through charting (reading across cases and down codes) (Srivastava and
266 Thomson 2009), which are outlined in the section below. A functional-structural analysis
267 was then conducted following a secondary literature review in order to match systemic
268 instruments with identified systemic problems – the results of this process are
269 summarised in Table 2 and expanded upon in the Discussion.

270 **4. FINDINGS**

271 In this section, the main findings of the study are outlined, with specific emphasis on
272 systemic problems. These problems are matched with systemic instruments in the
273 Discussion. Quotations from participants (in italics) are provided to illustrate themes –
274 numbers alongside quotes indicate unique interviewee number.

275 **3.1 Innovation in the fresh produce sector**

276 3.1.1 The importance of entrepreneurialism

277 The study found there was a perception that the fresh produce sector was characterised
278 by a strong entrepreneurial spirit and innovativeness:

279 *“... more in keeping with a typical industrial business, [fresh produce businesses] see*
280 *innovation and intellectual property as an opportunity to differentiate themselves in the*
281 *market place.” – Producer association representative (8)*

282 *“Innovation as I see it is hugely important. It's a mainstay of our own business, and it*
283 *needs to be the mainstay of any horticultural business.” – Field vegetables grower (11)*

284 *“Innovate or die” – Potato grower (27)*

285 The establishment of polytunnels as the primary growing system for several categories
286 of British soft fruit was considered by many to epitomise this entrepreneurial spirit,
287 indicted by the high number of participants who cited this as the most transformative
288 innovation of recent decades. However, innovation across a range of areas – product,
289 process, infrastructure and marketing – were also cited as important to the sector.

290 Something that growers must contend with is what participants described as the
291 prevailing “defensive” innovation culture, where only cost-cutting (rather than more
292 transformative) innovation is rewarded:

293 *“... the supermarkets are always pushing each other forward and the view from elite*
294 *leaders of large consolidated businesses in the industry, they were saying ‘yes that does*
295 *drive innovation, but it’s actually quite a defensive, quite a limited sort of innovation.’” –*
296 *AHDB representative (31)*

297 *“A lot of the innovation on farm that I see in fresh produce is borne about by necessity,*
298 *because the farmer says ‘if I don’t do this, I’m gonna go out of business.’” – Supermarket*
299 *representative (29)*

300 *“... most growers [are] running faster and faster and faster to try and stay in the same*
301 *place...” – Agronomist (9)*

302 The cause of this defensive culture was held to be competition between large multiple
303 retailers (see below). In contrast to the *systemic* nature of the problems for growers
304 observed here, *personal* facilitators of change were emphasised by farm business
305 representatives themselves, such as the willingness to interact with others and seek out
306 information. Growers often rely on personal and professional networks to solve problems
307 and learn about new ideas, maintaining close, trustful relationships with key scientists
308 and institutions, as indicated by several growers:

309 *“I go direct to [nearby agricultural research institute] because we do have these close*
310 *contacts with the scientists there, [and] sort of say ‘what do you know about this? What*
311 *can you do about it?’” – Soft fruit grower (23)*

312 *“The bulk of our innovation will come from a small number of people who we have*
313 *personal trusting relationships with... so we work very closely with them and we value*
314 *what they have to say for themselves and so we actually will follow their lead.” – Field*
315 *vegetable grower (21)*

316 In addition to following the lead of scientists, other champions also influence change in
317 the sector according to a number of participants:

318 *“There are some inspirational people around.” – Field vegetable grower (1)*

319 *“I think people are very, very important in this. You have to have your captains. Your*
320 *champions.” - Researcher (6)*

321 These observations serve to highlight the importance of entrepreneurs for innovation
322 processes in the fresh produce sector, but also indicate that innovation has taken on a
323 “defensive” character. Entrepreneurs also follow the lead of trusted researchers and
324 other champions.

325 3.1.2 Retailer power

326 A contradiction frames debates about innovation in the UK fresh producer sector, which
327 was described by some participants as thriving on newness through product
328 differentiation and by others as suffering from a culture of conservatism driven by
329 supermarket retailers, whose buying policies are primarily focussed on cost reduction
330 and consistency:

331 *“I would have to be honest and say that the retailers can be a barrier. The retailer, all*
332 *they want is consistency and cost reduction.” – Supermarket representative (29)*

333 Negative, sometimes exploitative supplier-customer relationships and diminishing
334 returns to the grower were perceived to have led to some of the most significant barriers
335 to innovation in the sector:

336 *“Supermarkets... we are facing one of the biggest challenges we've ever faced and its*
337 *price wars.” – Agronomist (26)*

338 *“Today's greatest challenge is return to the producer.” Researcher (19)*

339 *“It's this constant battle with the retailers who are constantly pushing down on price,*
340 *constantly looking for more efficiency, scrutinizing the level of profit you are making out*
341 *of them.” – Technologist (9)*

342 One large farm business discussed “hiding” innovation from their customers for fear of
343 further downward pressure on prices. However, other participants had success in
344 partnering with their customers to establish new product lines, whilst others called for
345 collaborative supply chain management. Supermarket representatives themselves
346 acknowledged that their focus on consistency and cost reduction created a barrier to
347 innovation (as indicated above) but also that working with suppliers to develop new
348 products was a valuable exercise:

349 *“... we invest a lot of time working with the very early stages of product development,*
350 *which in produce is the breeders, the nurseries... they are often asking: ‘what do you*
351 *think the market will want in five to ten years time?’ Rather than... expecting everything*
352 *to come to you.” – Supermarket representative (33)*

353 It follows that innovation support could be improved by fostering more supportive and
354 respectful commercial relationships in the sector.

355 3.1.3 The influence of producer organisations

356 It was suggested by many participants that the fresh produce sector has a strong
357 reliance on innovation originating outside the UK, with significant emphasis placed on
358 Dutch and Anglosphere innovation:

359 *“... if you want to see innovation- you probably want to go to Holland to see how all that*
360 *works, to see how they are so successful with their innovation, 'cos that's where a lot of*
361 *it comes from isn't it?” – Potato grower (27)*

362 At the same time, participants noted the importance of trans-boundary partnerships
363 between domestic POs and foreign businesses. These ‘strategic partnerships’ often
364 involve the exchange of novel, proprietary plant lines (“genetics”) and expertise. A
365 number of large UK farm businesses and POs boast overseas production sites in other
366 parts of Europe and sub-Saharan Africa, permitting access to local formal and informal
367 knowledge and year-round experimentation with particular plant lines, as indicated by a
368 grower in Scotland:

369 *“We have an alliance with a Spanish company... the Spanish winters are very similar to*
370 *[British] autumns, so we actually get two years in one.” – Soft fruit and vegetable grower*
371 *(26)*

372 It was also found that POs and other large fresh produce businesses co-fund research
373 projects and support early-career researchers, which enables them to influence research
374 agendas and monitor relevant scientific outputs. These organisations use a variety of
375 mechanisms to keep their grower base in touch with the latest agronomic, technological
376 and market developments; this includes in-house agronomy, annual conferences and
377 study tours (often with their American or European partners):

378 “... I mean [producer organisation] have had [study tours] to Mexico, to Chile, Argentina,
379 the States, Spain and Holland...” Soft fruit grower (23)

380 However, the ability of larger businesses, including POs, to influence (nationwide)
381 research agendas was subject to questions of fairness:

382 “... let’s say [you have] ten growers of lettuce, one of them is hugely dominant, while the
383 innovation is being done for them and the others look and say ‘well we can’t implement
384 that because we don’t have that scale.’” – Researcher (19)

385 A further issue for these organisations is ‘strong network failure’, whereby knowledge is
386 locked ‘out’ as much as ‘in’, an issue described by a grower belonging to a large UK
387 POs:

388 “... people are becoming very focussed into their groups. You lock yourself out of other
389 things. But, you know, it was governmental bodies that were all to do with that in the past
390 – so it was open to everybody. Whereas now, if you have a good idea you keep it to
391 yourself or keep it in the group.” – Soft fruit grower (25)

392 It is evident that POs now play a significant role in the innovation process, particularly
393 as nodes for overseas innovation – they have also contributed to a more ‘closed’
394 innovation system.

395 3.1.4 Policy and market

396 It was found that policy – particularly at the pan-European level – also shapes the
397 trajectory of UK agricultural innovation. The withdrawal of certain crop protection
398 products was a common topic of concern:

399 *“... the government has an underlying strategy of sustainable growth in horticulture. That*
400 *seems to be at odds with the European Commission's- the fervor in which they're putting*
401 *into removing a lot of the active ingredients... I would also like to see the same amount*
402 *of fervor being placed into supporting research and activity around integrated pest*
403 *management.” Supermarket representative (29)*

404 *“We've lost a huge percentage of our active ingredients in the last ten years.” – Field*
405 *vegetables grower (1)*

406 The cost of product registration in Europe was also noted by some participants as
407 deterring investment in new crop protection products. The relative size of the UK fresh
408 produce sector also appears to deter significant investment and relegates it to off-label
409 or “minor use” of crop protection products designed for the arable market, as indicated
410 by an ornamental plant grower:

411 *“If you need to spray something on potatoes, then it's worth the chemical company*
412 *producing the thing. If you need to spray it on hardy Geraniums, they're never ever going*
413 *to make any money out of that.” – Ornamental plant grower (17)*

414 Another described the fresh produce sector as relying on the “crumbs” of arable sector
415 crop protection products. There was also a notable disdain for subsidies across the
416 sector, from retailer representatives to small growers, as it was suggested these diminish
417 innovation in farming:

418 *“I think the greatest thing that holds back innovation in this country... is the subsidies*
419 *that [it] enjoys.” – Supermarket representative (29)*

420 *“It stifles innovation...” – Field vegetable grower (16)*

421 In summary, the structural conditions of the fresh produce sector exacerbate EU policy
422 towards the regulation of active ingredients – agricultural subsidies also prove unpopular
423 across the sector.

424 **3.2 Fragmentation**

425 3.2.1 Lack of research coordination and foresight

426 A discernable lack of unifying research coordination was cited as an example of vertical
427 fragmentation:

428 *“... the research in the UK is too disjointed... everybody’s doing their own thing and*
429 *there’s nothing actually coordinating it.” – Supermarket representative (29)*

430 Fragmentation also occurs along sub-sectoral lines due to the diversity of crops within
431 the sector and their specific research needs:

432 *“We’ve fragmented definitely on sector lines in fresh produce ... because in fresh produce*
433 *the requirements are so different between growing a tomato and growing lettuce.” (19)*

434 *“Not everybody’s been aware of it, quite often we might be developing technology that’s*
435 *applicable to a whole range of crops but one panel will be doing it, but the other panels*
436 *are blind to it, they haven’t shared their costs, and then they don’t share the learnings.”*
437 *(31)*

438 Some participants also suggested that short-term thinking – exhibited in levy board
439 steering panels – prevented steps being taken to address growing problems (such as
440 the withdrawal of certain crop protection products or long-term sustainability):

441 *“The one problem with that is that the growers who sit on those panels they're thinking*
442 *about today's problems: ‘what's my problems this year?’, ‘what am I struggling with this*
443 *year?’ and not thinking about ‘what are my problems gonna be in ten years time?’” –*
444 *Field vegetables grower (1)*

445 The transition from public to private of the formerly-public UK extension service (ADAS)
446 was also cited as having impacted the translation of agricultural research into practice:

447 *“You know, we got rid of ADAS, the big gap is the translation of research into practice...*
448 *the extension. That's still a massive blackhole.” Field vegetables grower (1)*

449 *“... so we haven't got the join-up with the basic science anymore, into the applied*
450 *science, in the applied science you've got all the contractors separated from each other,*
451 *and the pull-through doesn't look terrible brilliant.” AHDB representative (31)*

452 These observations provide evidence for (vertical) fragmentation in the sector. The
453 susceptibility of research agenda-setting mechanisms to reactivity and lack of
454 mechanisms to transfer research into practice also represent systemic problems for the
455 sector.

456 3.2.2 Communication

457 A number of factors were described by participants as constituting barriers to effective
458 communication. The transition from a public extension model, for example, was cited as
459 having limited opportunities for interaction:

460 *“In horticulture, [innovation] is people talking to one another... funding and support from*
461 *research institutes has just been stripped away. I think that's something the funding*
462 *bodies don't understand, we've lost a lot of support and facilities.” – Seed supplier (30)*

463 Intense competition between firms was thought to limit the amount of knowledge shared
464 between businesses and other organisations (i.e. horizontal fragmentation), even when
465 the sharing of such knowledge may be valuable to both parties. The communication of
466 research results was likewise brought into question, it being suggested by a number of
467 participants that researchers themselves were not necessarily best placed to deliver
468 such information or understood on-farm practicalities:

469 *"I think that they talk different languages." – Producer association representative (8)*

470 *"They probably don't understand all the constraints and what they see is what a good*
471 *idea it probably is, but what they don't understand is the knock-on effects or why it's not*
472 *practical." – Field vegetables grower (28)*

473 However, these views should be contrasted with examples of positive relationships
474 between industry and researchers described above. A range of industry-focussed
475 projects and innovation platforms have also been established in recent years (see
476 below), which may serve to counter this trend. It was observed that the AHDB can
477 struggle to demonstrate the value of its research, particularly where sources of
478 knowledge are masked by appropriation at point of delivery, as described by a potato
479 grower:

480 *"... by the time it goes to the grower it's not carrying an AHDB brand it's carrying a*
481 *Scottish Agronomy brand." – Potato grower (22)*

482 The gradual loss of expertise through retirement (without adequate succession planning)
483 was cited as a barrier to the spread of the knowledge that individuals and institutions
484 may hold. A secondary effect associated with the loss of expertise is the duplication of
485 existing research, which several researchers had seen during their careers:

486 *"I see things that are being done again that I thought 'well, we did that twenty years*
487 *ago'... the papers aren't necessarily in the databases when you search them." –*
488 *Researcher (7)*

489 A clear perception that the sector has become more 'closed' is evident. How researchers
490 communicate with industry and the succession of researchers were also cited as
491 systemic problems.

492 3.2.3 Divergent innovation agendas

493 Divergent innovation agendas, borne from differences in business size, crop types and
494 the relative size of each sub-sector, represent a challenge for innovation support
495 services in the fresh produce industry:

496 *"... so one project we've got, [looks] at field mapping and looking at precision farming. If*
497 *you went to one of the smaller businesses, they couldn't use it." – Researcher (19)*

498 *"The other thing with our industry is that the UK is really quite small as a market. So for*
499 *someone to design a baby leaf harvester in the UK, will be really wasting his time. 'cos*
500 *he won't be able to sell any machines." Salad leaf grower (14)*

501 It was also found that not all would-be participants have equal access to the mechanisms
502 for capturing the research needs of industry – differences in material resources, time
503 and staff permit larger companies to influence research agendas to a greater extent than
504 smaller farm businesses. The deployment of dedicated technologists by large
505 businesses and POs is an example of this unevenness:

506 “... so if you take [company], they employ people who are highly qualified
507 technical people... and they go ‘round and they’re really good at foraging, so
508 they look at all the technologies worldwide...” – AHDB representative (31)

509 In summary, a degree of fragmentation can be identified across the sector with respect
510 to: research coordination, communication and divergent innovation agendas between
511 crop types and business or market size. How these (connected) systemic problems
512 might be remedied is dealt with below.

513 **3.3 Positive interfaces**

514 The study found several mechanisms that served to support innovation in the fresh
515 produce sector at a systemic level. A number of past and current innovation platforms,
516 for example, have also brought together actors from across the sector to target specific
517 problems and provide a pathway for research to have impact. The SCEPTRE, HIP
518 (Horticulture Innovation Partnership) and HAPI (Horticulture and Potato Initiative)
519 projects were each cited as valuable initiatives and the HortLINK scheme, in particular,
520 for translation of research into practice:

521 “... what [HortLINK] was doing was giving a vehicle for what had been funded in terms
522 of blue sky [research] to get that carry-through to the market place and that it didn’t get
523 lost.” Producer organisation representative (2)

524 It was found that grower groups, which are often crop-specific (AHDB-led) or customer-
525 specific (retail-led), also provide platforms for agronomists, scientists and growers to
526 discuss research needs and communicate scientific advances. The SCEPTRE and
527 SCEPTREplus projects provide a platform for the identification of ‘gaps’ in the

528 horticultural crop protection portfolio (a response to the loss of certain active ingredients
529 in the EU). These initiatives represent an opportunity to orientate research around
530 integrated pest management techniques, organic farming and other crop protection
531 systems such as robotic mechanical weeding:

532 *“So for instance [one of our] projects which we're doing is looking at novel weed control*
533 *systems... we currently have a massive problem with weed control in our crops where*
534 *the alternative is hand weeding, which is expensive and difficult to do. So there's a big*
535 *opportunity if we can come up with solutions to that there's a significant commercial*
536 *driver within our business to make that happen.” Field vegetable grower (21)*

537 The indication that these platforms are valued by participants also provides a basis for
538 the development of systemic instruments to counter systemic problems (outlined in
539 Table 2).

540 **Table 2**

541 Systemic problems in the UK fresh produce sector: each problem is categorised by innovation system function. Systemic problems belong to
 542 one structural element (actor, interaction, institution and infrastructure) and can be described by their presence/absence and capability/quality.
 543 Suggested systemic instruments are proposed based on primary research and existing literature – example systemic instruments are given
 544 where determined by this research.

<i>System function</i>	<i>Structural element</i>	<i>Problem “type”</i>	<i>Description</i>	<i>Suggested systemic instrument</i>	<i>Selected examples of systemic instruments</i>
Entrepreneurial activities	Interaction	Quality	Power asymmetry between suppliers and customers	New forms of supply-chain governance	Groceries Code Adjudicator
	Actor	Capability	Some actors have insufficient resources to innovate	Venture capital	EU’s fruit and vegetable regime funding (via producer organisation)

Knowledge development	Actor	Presence	Vertical fragmentation, lack of nationwide research oversight	Innovation platforms, establishment of coordinating body	UK Agricultural Technologies Strategy (BIS, 2013)
	Actor	Capability	Short-termism of levy board steering panels	Cross-sector pooled projects and problem identification	SCEPTREplus programme
	Institution	Quality	Lack of formalised mechanisms for translating research between crop types	Improve incentive structure for translational activity	
Knowledge diffusion	Infrastructure	Presence	Loss of funding and facilities, diminished opportunities for interaction	Support for intermediaries, innovation platforms	Horticulture Innovation Partnership
	Interaction	Quality	Cognitive gaps limit the quality of interactions between actors; different incentive structures between professions	Cooperative research programmes, intermediary/broker organisations	Doctoral Training Partnerships with industrial placements HortLINK scheme (see Brian

					Jamieson & Associates, 2008)
	Interaction	Quality	Horizontal fragmentation, strong network failure	Innovation platforms targeting common problems	SCEPTREplus programme
	Infrastructure	Quality	Loss of expertise and specialist knowledge due to inadequate knowledge-handling practices and succession planning	Centralised research databases	
Guidance of the search	Actor	Capability	Lack of a national steering mechanism to guide AIS functions	Consensus development conferences, road-mapping	
	Interaction	Quality	Unequal participation in guidance of the search activities, some voices not heard	Support for intermediary organisations	
Market formation	Interaction	Quality	“Defensive” innovation culture	Incentives for retailer differentiation strategy	

Resource mobilisation	Institution	Quality	Research funding is divided by sub-sector, preventing coherent, industry-wide, cross-cutting research	Cross-sector scoping studies, investment in formalised translation mechanisms between crop types	
	Actor	Capability	Regulation blocks use of certain crop protection products and discourages their registration in Europe	Advocacy coalitions /lobbying, innovation platforms for alternative products/scenario development	SCEPTREplus programme
Creation of legitimacy	Interaction	Quality	Lack of trust between suppliers and retail customers	Retail-led grower groups	
	Interaction	Quality	Researchers not rewarded for engagement with industry, lack of mutual understanding/trust	Cooperative research programs	Doctoral Training Partnerships with industrial placements

546 **5. DISCUSSION**

547 The analysis identified several important themes concerning the structure of the UK AIS,
548 including fragmentation, power asymmetry between retail suppliers and customers and
549 the importance of producer organisations to innovation processes. These findings are
550 discussed in more detail below, with systemic problems and proposed instruments
551 matched to each system function as summarised in Table 2.

552 **5.1 Entrepreneurial activity**

553 Hekkert et al. (2007) state that the presence of a strong entrepreneurial base is a signal
554 of innovation system health. In the fresh produce sector, entrepreneurialism is essential
555 in a competitive market and by most accounts is providing the sector with new products,
556 new growing systems and improved efficiency. However, two primary systemic problems
557 were identified that influence entrepreneurial activity. The first relates to the power
558 asymmetry that exists between suppliers (growers) and customers (predominantly
559 supermarkets).

560 The asymmetry described in this study represents a systemic problem that transcends
561 the network or interaction failures outlined by Weber & Rohracher (2012), such as strong
562 network failure. It can instead be described as a problem of interaction quality between
563 supplier and customer. It has been suggested that power imbalances in retail markets
564 are not necessarily an impediment to successful business arrangements (Hingley 2005).
565 However, participants noted that the 'price wars' between retailers, manifested in their
566 focus on cost and consistency, has led to a "defensive" innovation culture in the sector:
567 Roling (2009:87) calls this the "innovation treadmill" and notes that, because farmers

568 cannot hold onto the rewards of their productivity gains, the treadmill leads to lower
569 prices (as participants described in the form of shrinking returns to growers). Alston et
570 al. (1997) also find that in situations of oligopoly or oligopsony, research benefits accrue
571 to the larger processors – this may be reinforced by the uneven influence of larger firms
572 on setting the sectoral research agenda (see below). New forms of supply chain
573 governance are required to mitigate the adversarial attitude amongst fresh produce
574 suppliers and their customers, of which the establishment of the ‘Groceries Code
575 Adjudicator’ is one example, and improve the distribution of the benefits of innovation
576 (Revoredo-Giha et al. 2012).

577 The second systemic barrier for entrepreneurs specifically affects smaller producers.
578 Whilst there is nothing to say that all system actors should follow the same technological
579 trajectory (Weber and Rohrer 2012), the ability of firms to leverage human and
580 financial resources – and determine sectoral research agendas – is strongly dependent
581 on the size of the business. Companies incapable of leveraging these resources exhibit
582 capabilities failure; smaller firms risk being ‘locked into’ existing technologies (Klein
583 Woolthuis, Lankhuizen, and Gilsing 2005; Klerkx and Leeuwis 2009) and several
584 participants expressed concerns that the gap between larger and smaller firms was
585 growing with respect to innovation. Improving the availability of venture capital may
586 counter capability failures, as proposed by Turner et al. (2016); several participants in
587 this study were able to access funding through the European Union’s *Fruit and*
588 *Vegetable Regime* via POs. The scheme matches fifty percent of pooled PO funding to
589 facilitate innovation across a number of areas. As such, systemic instruments that help
590 producers access existing funding are preferential.

591 **5.2 Knowledge development**

592 A key systemic problem affecting the knowledge development function of the fresh
593 producer sector innovation system is vertical fragmentation. A lack of national
594 coordination has led to a situation in which a number of organisations undertake
595 research programmes with little or no coordinated oversight and in the name of different
596 innovation agendas. In turn, fragmentation can lead to the unnecessary duplication of
597 research by more than one group (also observed by Sutherland et al. 2013 in the UK
598 context). Fragmentation is not unique to the sector, but a characteristic of the AIS in
599 several European countries (Hermans et al. 2015; Turner et al. 2016). An issue of this
600 nature can be cast as either a problem of capability (none of the existing institutions are
601 able to coordinate action at the desired level or have such a mandate) or presence (no
602 organisation with such a mandate exists). The Agri-Tech Strategy provides an example
603 of a plan to better coordinate nationwide research, albeit with a normative focus.
604 However, in an increasingly internationalised landscape, the notion of limited, national
605 visions stands in contrast to the increasingly globalised nature of the sector (and other
606 innovation systems) (Metcalf 2007). Science and Technology Forecasting (STF) is one
607 means of determining longer-term science and innovation policy (Meulen, de Wilt, and
608 Rutten 2003). Turner et al. (2016) suggest 'consensus development conferences' can
609 provide a means of overcoming the horizontal and vertical fragmentation that
610 exacerbates heterogeneous innovation agendas; yet this leaves the question of how to
611 engage those individuals or firms that lack the capability to partake in such events
612 unanswered.

613 AHDB steering panels provide relatively quick, grower-led problem identification at, it
614 was claimed, the expense of more strategic, cross-sector problem identification. Some
615 participants suggested that short-term thinking prevented steps being taken to address
616 growing problems (such as the withdrawal of certain crop protection products), an issue
617 of actor capability (see also Hermans et al. 2015). Cross-sectoral initiatives designed to
618 pool resources for industry-wide problems could be an effective tool to orientate future
619 research, an option recognised by the AHDB in the form of the SCEPTREplus
620 programme that targets this issue.

621 The systemic problems associated with research translation can be classed on the one
622 hand as market failure: the knowledge market created by the privatisation of public
623 advisory services has not led to the development of appropriate mechanisms to carry
624 out this task. On the other, it is a problem of capability: institutions charged with
625 provisioning and delivering research activities have not developed robust mechanisms
626 for systematically capturing the value of new knowledge. Instead, these tasks fall on
627 individuals who are able to match the needs of growers with existing knowledge (in the
628 case of agronomists) or those who perceive the value in translating existing knowledge
629 into new avenues of interest (in the case of scientists). Although relatively little research
630 has been undertaken with respect to research translation in the agri-food sphere,
631 Wamae et al. (2011) find fragmentation to be a compounding issue (see also Pollock
632 2012). Improving academic incentive structures may stimulate and reward translational
633 activity. Certain facilities developed by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) in the
634 United States, such as the National Centre for the Advancement of Translational
635 Science (NCATS, established in 2011), have the express goal of taking basic science

636 discoveries to the 'bedside' and this model could form the basis for an agricultural
637 research equivalent (Menary 2015).

638 Cross-border business partnerships between larger fresh produce businesses and POs
639 in different countries exemplify the increasingly globalised nature of knowledge
640 production and the spread of innovation through formalised networks or communities of
641 practice. The globalisation of knowledge has been the subject of significant academic
642 work, but this is less evident with respect to innovation *within* the organisations
643 themselves and through their cross-border partnerships. As the search for knowledge
644 has taken on a worldwide dimension, the locus of innovation has shifted from individual
645 firms to wider, distributed networks in which they sit (Herstad, Aslesen, and Ebersberger
646 2014) – an observation supported by this study, which suggests that industrial sectors
647 remain vital prisms through which to understand innovation systems.

648 **5.3 Knowledge diffusion**

649 Several systemic problems affect knowledge diffusion in the sector. The UK, and
650 England in particular, has seen a concentration of dedicated research institutes over the
651 last thirty years (Hermans et al. 2015), which was perceived to have diminished
652 opportunities for interaction. Innovation platforms (IPs) provide a means to bring different
653 stakeholders from a particular sector together to create a support network for
654 transformative change (Hounkonnou et al. 2012) – IPs such as HAPI and HIP were
655 recognised as useful platforms for orientating fresh produce sector research activities. A
656 further strength of IPs is providing a platform for 'champions' – who were cited as key
657 drivers of fresh produce innovation – to influence others and promote new ideas (Klerkx
658 et al. 2013).

659 Another problem stems from what Klerkx & Leeuwis (2009:850) call “cognitive gaps”, in
660 which actors from different institutional backgrounds struggle to learn together due to
661 their respective norms, values and incentive structures. It is these differences that some
662 participants claimed prevented researchers and farmers from speaking the same
663 language, suggesting that researchers are not always best-placed to engender
664 knowledge exchange. A problem of this type is one of quality: interaction does occur but
665 is hampered by lack of mutual understanding. However, this should be contrasted with
666 the trustful, productive farmer-scientist relationships many in the sector described as
667 having (see above). Industry-focussed Doctoral Training Partnership (DTP)
668 programmes, which often include industrial placements, represent one mechanism to
669 foster better communication between researchers and the agricultural industry.

670 As Klerkx et al. (2012) note, strong network failure can lead to myopia and blocks new
671 ideas from outside the network and collaboration with others – this issue was raised with
672 respect to POs, which, despite providing numerous benefits to their members, reflecting
673 insularity and horizontal fragmentation. Conversely, weak network failure signals
674 networks that are not connected to cycles of learning and innovation. A balance between
675 openness and closure, trust and contacts is thus a goal for innovation networks (Klerkx,
676 van Mierlo, et al. 2012). Innovation platforms targeting common problems, such as the
677 SCEPTRE programmes, could present an opportunity for POs to share knowledge.

678 A potential solution to the (infrastructural) problem of inadequate succession planning
679 and duplication of research is to establish or improve standardised databases for better
680 storage and retrieval of past research (Klerkx and Proctor 2013).

681 A further phenomenon related to the knowledge diffusion function is how the multiple
682 sites of production that large produce businesses and POs maintain in different regions

683 facilitate learning and experimentation with new plant varieties. Given that the
684 development of new knowledge through practice – ‘know-how’ or ‘experience-based-
685 knowledge’ – is key for producers (Dougherty 2004), the exchange of knowledge
686 between local researchers and highly-mobile growers, agronomists and technologists,
687 illustrates the importance of learning in innovation processes (and how these are
688 influenced by systemic factors) (Kilelu, Klerkx, and Leeuwis 2014). Grower study tours,
689 organised through POs or by the AHDB likewise represent an interesting example of
690 agricultural social learning that has heretofore gone unreported in the relevant academic
691 literature.

692 **5.4 Guidance of the search**

693 Several systemic problems prevent the establishment of a clear vision for the fresh
694 produce sector, which is a key component of the guidance of the search function of
695 innovation systems (Kebebe 2018). The lack of mechanisms to ‘steer’ AIS functions, for
696 example, prevents the orientation of the various functions around achieving common
697 goals; divergent innovation agendas add a further obstacle to developing a coherent
698 vision for the sector, which as observed above is marked by large variations in business
699 sizes, crop types and subsequent research needs (also observed by Turner et al. 2016
700 in New Zealand). Consensus-development conferences can facilitate the development
701 of a coherent vision for the sector (Turner et al. 2016). In the UK dairy sector, road-
702 mapping has been used to successfully orientate the sector around specific goals (like
703 improved water efficiency and reducing on-farm emissions) and providing “socio-
704 cognitive coordination” (Mylan et al. 2015). Such roadmaps could be designed through

705 stakeholder-led dialogue in either specific fresh produce sub-sectors or for sector-wide
706 problems (such as soil health or the use of artificial agricultural inputs) by the AHDB.

707 There is also evidence of “progressive client bias”, in which knowledge-based
708 organisations focus on businesses that already possess the means to innovate; the
709 ability of larger farm businesses and POs to influence research agendas distorts the
710 guidance of the search function by promoting their priorities through the organs meant
711 to capture the needs of the entire sector (Klerkx et al. 2006; Klerkx and Leeuwis 2008b).
712 Here, this is described as a problem of interaction quality: support for intermediary
713 organisations that can capture the needs of smaller producers is one mechanism by
714 which this problem might be countered.

715 **5.5 Market formation**

716 Market formation is not a particularly weak function of the fresh produce industry
717 innovation system, but it does suffer from the same systemic problem described for
718 entrepreneurial activities: a “defensive” culture of innovation. Sodano & Hingley (2009)
719 argue that product differentiation is a key strength of the fresh produce sector, through
720 provenance, standards (organic, fair trade) and de-seasonality, echoing some
721 participants in this study who claimed that the sector employed a more industrial
722 approach to product development. However, retailers can appropriate the advantages
723 of differentiation by maximising their own profit – this limits opportunities for new market
724 formation if retailers do not take a lead in new product development or undervalue it
725 (Esbjerg et al. 2016; Sodano and Hingley 2009). Given that supportive commercial
726 relationships have been found to be more conducive to innovation both in the relevant
727 literature and in this study, there is an opportunity for retailers to develop new markets

728 by better incentivising their differentiation strategies and supporting their suppliers in
729 adopting new technologies (Mylan et al. 2015; Revoredo-Giha et al. 2012).

730 **5.6 Resource mobilisation**

731 Resources, such as human and financial, capital are vital components of an innovation
732 system. Funding for R&D, whether mobilised by industry consortia or through public
733 sources, is one measure of this function (Hekkert et al. 2007). The sub-sectoral division
734 of funds prevents resources being mobilised to target cross-sector issues, however,
735 which can be described as a systemic problem of institutional quality. Scoping studies
736 targeting mutual issues and development of formalised processes for translational
737 research between crop types could represent initial steps to tackle this issue.

738 The relative size of the UK fresh produce sector appears to deter significant investment
739 and relegates it to off-label or “minor use” of crop protection products designed for the
740 arable market. Certain European Union-wide regulation of crop protection products (and
741 the costs of registration and testing these products in Europe) was also perceived to
742 deter investment in agriculture. The threat of withdrawal for the minor use of crop
743 protection products (see Villaverde et al. 2014) corresponds to an institutional problem
744 related to the quality of the regulations that prohibit their use and makes them
745 prohibitively expensive to register for such use. “Brexit” may offer an opportunity for the
746 UK to change the approval mechanisms for these products, pending future trading
747 relationship with the EU and providing an ‘advocacy coalition’ of concerned parties can
748 be convened (Klerkx et al. 2010; Turner et al. 2016).

749 **5.7 Creation of legitimacy**

750 The decline of social capital and trust in European AIS may pose a significant barrier to
751 establishing new technological trajectories. In the fresh produce sector, this decline is
752 most apparent between suppliers and their retail customers. As supply chain leaders,
753 retailers bear significant responsibility for legitimising new technologies and practices.
754 Retailer-led agronomy groups that bring producers and scientists together are one
755 avenue by which supermarkets can create legitimacy for new technological trajectories.

756 It was also noted that researchers are not necessarily rewarded for engagement with
757 industry, nor do all researchers command the respect of the farming community – a
758 problem of interaction quality that undermines the ability of research to establish new
759 technologies. Cooperative research programmes that link scientists and industry can
760 mitigate this problem, such as near-market AHDB research projects and DTPs.

761 **5.8 Recommendations, limitations and further research**

762 It is recommended that those institutions tasked with matching the supply and demand
763 of agricultural knowledge focus on systemic facilitation as a means to improve overall
764 innovation system performance. The evidence presented here points towards the need
765 to better – and more equitable – models of interaction between specific groups, whether
766 commercial relationships or the translation of research into practice. However, it should
767 be noted that one of the limitations of the functional-structural analysis and the approach
768 employed in this study is the ‘problematism’ of the AIS: although the findings
769 demonstrate a range of systemic problems, it is clear that the fresh produce sector
770 remains innovative and competitive even as innovation support services adapt to the

771 post-public extension environment through various initiatives. Whilst the land area given
772 over to horticultural production has declined, its output and value have continued to rise,
773 suggesting a degree of success in the functioning of the sectoral innovation system
774 (Menary 2018). A weakness of the innovation systems approach is a disregard for the
775 *directionality* of innovation, that is, although technology- or sector-specific policy issues
776 might be addressed, less attention is paid to guiding technological innovation in a
777 particular direction (i.e. towards more environmentally sustainable configurations)
778 (Weber and Rohracher 2012). Other frameworks, such as the multi-level perspective,
779 place greater emphasis on such transitions and could prove a useful framework for
780 understanding these processes in the fresh produce sector.

781 This article has shown that sectoral analyses remain important within the wider AIS –
782 power asymmetries, the globalisation of agricultural knowledge and the role of POs
783 being distinct aspects of the UK fresh produce sector but also interesting contributions
784 to the AIS literature. Further research might explore what diverse production sites and
785 study tours mean for the development and spread of agricultural knowledge.

786 **6. CONCLUSION**

787 There are a number of system problems in the UK fresh produce sector, many of which
788 stem from the ongoing transition to a demand-driven, pluralistic advisory service. These
789 problems can be matched with systemic instruments that have been identified in this
790 study and in the relevant literature. Most are related to systemic facilitation –
791 encouraging the formation or better function of networks. Significant responsibility rests
792 with retailers, which command asymmetric supply chain power but have created a
793 “defensive” innovation culture through a constant downward pressure on prices. The

794 decline in social capital around Europe is evident in the relationship between suppliers
795 and customers, yet it is this relationship that can establish new technological trajectories.
796 As such, retail-led grower groups are a means to foster trust and support producers.

797 The use of consensus-development conferences and road-mapping, innovation
798 platforms and cross-sector projects can provide a level of cooperation and coordination
799 for an increasingly closed and fragmented sector; examples of these exist either in other
800 agricultural sectors, or in the fresh produce sector itself. SCEPTREplus, for example,
801 fulfils these aims by targeting common pest control problems.

802 The importance of producer organisations in the innovation process has been
803 demonstrated. In particular, the use of in-house agronomy, study tours and overseas
804 sites of production represent previously unexplored aspect of agricultural innovation
805 processes, which may warrant further research. Likewise, there is a need to understand
806 how the systemic instruments proposed here facilitate or impede wider transitions within
807 the agricultural system.

808 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

809 We thank the AHDB and University of Warwick for funding this project. Likewise, we
810 appreciate the generosity of the participants for their time, reflections and hospitality.

811 Funding: this study was funded by the Agriculture and Horticulture Development Board
812 and University of Warwick (project no: CP-131).

813 Declarations of interest: none.

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