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Drivers of Food Wastage and their Implications for Sustainable Policy Development

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16 Abstract

17 There has been growing interest in establishing food waste prevention and recovery 18 programs throughout the world. The drive to target food waste stems from increasing concerns 19 about resource conservation, food security, food waste's environmental and economic costs, and 20 a general trend in the waste management industry to transition to more sustainable practices.

- Here the drivers of residential, institutional, and commercial food waste generation in developed
- 22 countries, particularly in the U.S., are explored. The impacts of food system modernization on
- 23 food waste generation are examined, particularly impacts related to food system
- 24 industrialization, urbanization, globalization, and economic growth. Socio-demographic,
- 25 cultural, political, and economic drivers of food wastage are described with emphasis on how
- 26 food waste perspectives may vary globally. Specific behaviors and attitudes which result from
- 27 many of these waste drivers are then discussed. The examination of the range of food wastage
- drivers are used to provide insight into the best policy approaches to sustainably manage food
- waste. Food waste prevention policies are placed in context of the waste generating behaviors
- and attitudes that they address. A review of important background information on food waste is
- 31 also provided, including definitions of key terms, food waste history, quantities of food waste
- 32 generated, and the importance of food waste prevention for sustainability, as this information is 33 all aritical for affactive policy development
- all critical for effective policy development.
- 34
- 35 Keywords: food waste, waste management, waste prevention, sustainability, behavior, policy

36 <u>1. Introduction</u>

37 In the U.S., food waste makes up nearly 15 percent of the disposed municipal waste

38 stream and Americans dispose over 0.6 pounds of food waste per person per day. The amount of

- food waste disposed has been increasing over time (Thyberg et al. 2015). Globally, it has been
- 40 estimated that one third of the edible parts of food produced for human consumption is lost or
- 41 wasted (Gustavsson et al. 2011). Wasted food is a considerable component of the world's food
- 42 system challenges. The global population is quickly growing, urbanizing, and becoming
- 43 wealthier, leading to a diversification of dietary patterns and an increase in demand for land,

44 resources, and greenhouse gas intensive foods, such as meat and dairy. It is estimated that

45 continuing population and consumption growth worldwide will lead to an increase in the global

46 demand for food for at least 40 more years, leading to intensified use of natural resources,

47 especially land, water, and energy (Godfray et al. 2010). These difficulties are exacerbated by

48 the world's changing environmental conditions which cause food production to be unpredictable 49 and increasingly difficult globally (Carnett 2014)

49 and increasingly difficult globally (Garnett 2014).

50 It is becoming clear that the many negative environmental effects of food systems must 51 be minimized to ensure enough food is available to feed the world's growing population in a 52 sustainable way (Tilman et al. 2001). Shifting toward more sustainable food systems is both 53 essential and urgent, and actions are needed throughout food systems on moderating demand, 54 producing more food, improving governance, and reducing waste (Godfray and Garnett 2014). 55 By wasting edible food, all of the resources spent growing, producing, processing, and transporting that food are also wasted, resulting in potentially needless environmental impact 56 57 (Gustavsson et al. 2011). Reduced food waste and proper waste management can also save 58 economic resources, contribute to food security, and minimize negative impacts of food waste on 59 waste management systems.

Interest in food waste prevention and recovery has grown rapidly in the U.S. and abroad,
as reflected in federal and state policies (Pearson et al. 2013, Platt et al. 2014). A recent survey
indicated that awareness of food waste has begun to grow among U.S. consumers (Neff et al.
2015). However, currently very little food waste is recovered (USEPA 2014) and prevention

64 initiatives are limited. Prevention programs aim to reduce the amount of food waste generated

and recovery programs typically aim to divert food waste from disposal (landfilling or

66 incineration) and treat it with biological treatment (composting or anaerobic digestion [AD]) to

67 capture nutrients and/or energy. Food waste prevention has the highest economic, social, and

68 environmental benefit relative to other waste management approaches. The environmental

- benefits related to prevention are largely explained by avoided food production (Schott and
 Canovas 2015). Prevention also enables economic and social priorities to be achieved (e.g.,
- Canovas 2015). Prevention also enables economic and social priorities to be achieved (e.g.,
 money saved by not purchasing food that is disposed, reallocated excess food to charity).

Effective policies for food waste prevention should address the behaviors and
 motivations of food waste generation. Some past work has focused on identifying behavioral
 causes of food waste using surveys and interviews (e.g., Graham-Rowe et al. 2015, Jorissen et al.

74 causes of food waste using surveys and interviews (e.g., Granam-Rowe et al. 2015, Jonssen et 75 2015, Neff et al. 2015, Parizeau et al. 2015). Here the drivers of these behaviors are first

replored to provide a broad picture of food waste generation. The impacts of food system

77 modernization on food waste generation are examined, particularly impacts related to food

system industrialization, urbanization, globalization, and economic growth. Socio-demographic,

79 cultural, political, and economic drivers of food wastage are reviewed with emphasis on how

80 food waste perspectives may vary globally. Next, specific behaviors which result from many of

81 these waste drivers are discussed. This knowledge of food wastage drivers and behaviors are 82 then used to provide insight into the best policy approaches to sustainably manage food waste.

82 Food waste prevention policies are placed in context of the waste generating behaviors and

84 attitudes that they address. This research can be used to guide the development and

85 implementation of multi-faceted food waste prevention programs which address the three aspects

86 of sustainability (economic, environmental, and social factors).

87 2. Background: Food Waste Definitions, History, and Quantities Generated 2.1 Food Waste Definitions

89 Definitions of food waste are not universally agreed upon (Lebersorger and Schneider 90 2011), which makes studying and quantifying food waste difficult (Buzby and Hyman 2012). 91 Different categorizations are generated based on what materials are included, means of 92 production, and management approaches (Gjerris and Gaiani 2013). Multiple terms have been used interchangeably, such as food loss, food waste, biowaste, and kitchen waste (Schneider 93 94 2013a). Also, often the same terms are used, but with different meanings (Gjerris and Gaiani 95 2013). This is exacerbated when reports are translated (Schneider 2013a). Table 1 provides an 96 overview of previously used definitions; Table 2 provides a complete definition of both food loss 97 and food waste as used in this paper. Here focus is placed on food waste rather than food loss 98 because in the developed world, food waste is generated in higher quantities than food loss. 99 Therefore, the greatest potential for reduction lies with the generators of food waste (retail and 100 consumer sectors) rather than loss (production and processing sectors) (NRDC 2012, Papargyropoulou et al. 2014, Parfitt et al. 2010).

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Author	Year	Table 1. Food Waste Definitions Definition
Kling	1943	Food waste is the destruction or deterioration of food or the use of crops, livestock and livestock products in ways which return relatively little human food value.
Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)	1981	Food waste is all food products allocated for human consumption that are instead discarded, lost, degraded, or consumed by pests at any stage of the food chain.
FAO	2013	Food waste is food appropriate for human consumption that is discarded (generally at retail and consumption stages).
European Commission	2014	Food waste is food (including inedible parts) lost from the food supply chain, not including food diverted to material uses such as bio-based products, animal feed, or sent for redistribution.
United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA)	2014	Food waste is uneaten food and food preparation wastes from residences, commercial, and institutional establishments. So, food wastes from homes, grocery stores, restaurants, bars, factory lunchrooms, and company cafeterias are included. Pre-consumer food waste generated during food manufacturing and packaging are excluded.
United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) (Buzby et al. 2014)	2014	Food waste is a subset of food loss and occurs when an edible item goes unconsumed. Only food that is still edible at the time of disposal is considered waste.
World Resources Institute (WRI)`	2015	Food loss and waste refers to food, as well as associated inedible parts, removed from the food supply chain.

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Table 2. Food Waste	and Loss Definitions	Used in this Study

Term	Definition	Drivers	Sectors	Examples
			Included	
Food Loss	Decrease in edible food mass	-Infrastructure	Production,	-Edible crops left in the
	throughout the part of the supply	limitations	post-	field
	chain that specifically leads to	-Climate and	harvest,	-Food that spoils due to
	edible food for human	environmental	and	poor transportation
	consumption	factors	processing	infrastructure from factory
		-Quality, aesthetic,		to supermarket
		or safety standards		-Food that is contaminated
				during food processing

Food	Food which was originally	-Decisions made	Retail and	-Plate waste
Waste	produced for human	by consumers and	consumer	-Food that spoils due to
	consumption but then was	businesses		poor storage in home or
	discarded or was not consumed	-Quality, aesthetic,		restaurant
	by humans. Includes food that	or safety standards		-Restaurant food prepared
	spoiled prior to disposal and			but discarded due to lack
	food that was still edible when			of demand
	thrown away			

2.2 Food Waste History

108 A history of food waste issues in the U.S. is given in Table 3. Examining the history of 109 food waste provides a foundation for understanding how perceptions of food waste have evolved 110 over time and why certain food wasting behaviors occur today.

111 112

	Table 3. U.S. Food Waste History Timeline
Period	Food Waste Activity
Pre-	-Food waste accounted for the majority of household solid waste
Industrial	-In the U.S., these wastes were often fed to animals, usually pigs, because pigs are effective at
(1750-1850)	turning food and plant wastes back into food (Ackerman 1997)
1895	-Atwater (1895) conducted a visual survey of residential New York waste bins and noted upper
	class areas showed a large portion of food purchased but thrown away; waste was less in more moderate neighborhoods
1902	-Atwater (1902) found student clubs wasted 10-14% of nutritive value of food; institutions wasted
	up to 25%
Early 1900's	-Organized waste collection became common in the U.S.
World War I (1917-1918)	-U.S. government encouraged pig feeding with food waste as a patriotic means to increase food production
World War	-Wartime food scarcities increased attention to food waste (Kling 1943b)
II	-Rationing helped control food panics and discouraged wasting food
(1941-1945)	-U.S. government helped people cope with limited supplies of certain foods (USDA 1943) and
``´´´	encouraged consumers and handlers of food to save every salvageable bit (Kling 1943b)
	-Williamson and Williamson (1942) noted that considerable food loss and waste was taking
	place; a large portion of food was wasted by the consumer during food preparation and as plate
	waste
	-U.S. Food Distribution Administration (1943) estimated that overall U.S. food wastage was 20- 30% of all food production
	-Kling (1943b) estimated that 24% of produced food was lost or wasted
	-In 1945, the FAO was established and listed food loss reductions as a priority
Post-World	-U.S. consumer culture evolved from one of thrift (widespread during wartime), to one of
War II	abundance and waste because it was no longer patriotic to conserve food and food became less
i i ii	expensive (Bloom 2010)
1950s	-Because pigs fed garbage are particularly susceptible to diseases and food systems were
	becoming industrialized, regulations prohibited use of raw garbage as animal feed (Ackerman
	1997)
	-USDA began to formally study food waste, generating small, non-representative samples
	(Adelson et al. 1961, Adelson et al. 1963); they determined household food waste was 7-10% of
	total calories
1973-1974	-Extensive surveys of household food waste were conducted by the University of Arizona
	Garbage Project (Rathje and Murphy 2001); they determined food was 9.7% of total household
	waste output (by weight) in 1973; in 1974, it was 8.9% (Harrison et al. 1975)
1974	-First World Food Conference (Rome) identified reduction of post-harvest food losses as an
	element of the solution to global hunger; post-harvest losses were estimated at 15% and a
	decision was made to reduce this by 50% by 1985 through the Special Action Programme for the

	Prevention of Food Losses (in 2010, Parfitt et al. noted no progress had been made toward this
	goal)
1977	-U.S. General Accounting Office issued a report to Congress titled 'Food Waste: An Opportunity
	to Improve Resource Use' urging the U.S. to examine food loss and waste
1980-1981	-Food waste was the focal point of Garbage Project research; participant surveys and food waste
	diaries were integrated into research; they found households wasted considerable amounts of
	food, but survey participants greatly underestimated the amount of waste (Rathje and Murphy
	2001)
1992	-Garbage Project researchers concluded food was a significant portion of household waste (10-
	15% of all food bought)
1997	-Kantor et al. (1997) published quantitative estimates of food waste across U.S. food system and
	concluded 25% of food produced in the U.S. was wasted annually (96 billion pounds)
2010's	-Renewed interest in food waste; calls for waste reduction (Lundqvist et al. 2008) and better
	management (Lamb and Fountain 2010)
	-Increased effort to quantify food waste disposal (see Table 4)

2.3 Food Waste Quantification

Quantification of the magnitude of food waste is essential for the development of 115 116 effective, well-planned food waste management policies, and can be used to determine if future 117 food waste recovery and prevention efforts considerably change the residual waste stream 118 (Thyberg et al. 2015). Understanding the extent of food waste may provide an impetus for 119 people to change their attitudes and potentially their behaviors toward food waste. However, 120 definitional issues, the absence of sound quantification methods, and a general lack of imperative or political will have led to considerable data gaps regarding food waste quantities (Parfitt et al. 121 122 2010). A range of diverse methodologies have been used to quantify food waste, all of which 123 have some drawbacks. Some approaches, such as waste characterization sorts and materials flow 124 modeling, attempt to quantify the amount of food waste disposed in municipal solid waste 125 (MSW) (wastes from residential, institutional, and commercial sectors). Other methods (e.g., 126 food diaries, qualitative surveys/interviews, and food supply and nutrition data analyses) focus 127 on overall generated food waste amounts from specific sectors (e.g., households, restaurants) or 128 aim to link disposal amounts with behavioral actions. Some studies focus only on formal wastes 129 and exclude wastes that escape through pathways other than the traditional waste management 130 systems (e.g., waste that goes down the drain, food that is composted at home, food fed to 131 animals). An Australian study estimated that informal food waste disposal represented 20 132 percent of Australian food waste flows (Reynolds et al. 2014), which suggests that informal 133 disposal of food waste in the U.S. may be considerable. 134 Some recent efforts have been made to standardize or improve quantification methods

135 (e.g., WRI 2015, Thyberg et al. 2015), although estimates are still varied and differ in their 136 definitions and methodologies (WRI 2015). Table 4 presents some recent published countrywide 137 and global estimates of food loss and waste and illustrates the diversity in scope, scale, and 138 quantification methodologies.

139 140

Reference	Estimate ^a	Location	Method	Food Loss ^b	Food Waste ^b
Pekcan 2006	816.4 grams/household/day	Turkey	FAO food supply data, household expenditures & survey		√c
Lundqvist et al. 2008	Up to 50% of total production	Global	Food supply and loss data from Smil 2000	V	

T 1 1 4 D

WRAP 2009	8.3 million tonnes/year (22% of purchases)	U.K.	Food diary, composition analysis, and local data		√c
Hall et al. 2009	40% of total food supply (1,400 calories/person/day)	U.S.	FAO food supply data & human energy expenditure model	\checkmark	
DEFRA 2010	15% of edible food & drink purchases (16% of edible calories)	England	Food purchasing data and WRAP 2009 waste estimates		√c
Australian Government 2010	4.06 million tonnes/year (2.67 million tonnes from households and 1.39 million tonnes from commercial/industrial sources)	Australia	State and local waste data		
Buzby et al. 2011	29% of available food supply	U.S.	USDA food supply data & loss factors		\sqrt{d}
Gustavsson et al. 2011	33% of total food production	Global	FAO food supply data & loss factors developed by the authors		\checkmark
Koivupuro et al. 2012	23 kilograms/person/year	Finland	Food diary		
Kummu et al. 2012	25% of total food production (614 kcal/person/day)	Global	FAO food supply data & loss factors from Gustavsson et al. 2011		V
WRAP 2013	4.2 million tonnes/year	U.K.	Food diary, composition analysis, and local data		√c
Beretta 2013	48% of total calories	Switzerland	Mass & energy flow model		
USEPA 2014	34.69 million tons/year	U.S.	Materials flow model		√e
Oelofse and Nahman 2013	9.04 million tonnes/year (177 kg/person/year)	South Africa	FAO food supply data & loss factors from Gustavsson et al. 2011	\checkmark	
Buzby et al. 2014	31% of available food supply (133 billion pounds)	U.S.	USDA food supply data & loss factors		\sqrt{d}
FUSIONS 2015	100 million tonnes/year	European Union	National waste statistics and selected research study findings	\checkmark	
WasteMinz 2015	148 kg/household/year	New Zealand	Waste audits		√e
Reynolds et al. 2015a	7.3 million tonnes/year (4.1 million tonnes from municipal sources and households and 3.2 million tonnes from industry)	Australia	Estimation approach using data from government and industry reports	√f	$\sqrt{\mathrm{f}}$
Thyberg et al. 2015	0.615 pounds/person/day (35.5 million tons/year)	U.S.	Waste characterization studies		\sqrt{g}

 2015
 million tons/year)
 studies

 a Estimates as reported in each study. Exact definitions of food loss and waste used may differ from the definitions

142 used here. Some of these differences are noted.

143 ^b Food loss and waste are defined in Table 2

144 ^c Only residential waste included

- 145 ^d Only retail and consumer waste included
- 146 ^e Only household food waste disposed with refuse collected curbside included
- 147 ^fOnly food waste disposed in formal solid waste routes included
- 148 ^g Only food waste disposed in the MSW stream included

149 3. The Importance of Food Waste Prevention

A sound understanding of the importance of studying food waste provides a foundation for developing sustainable policies to address it. In particular, teaching people about the implications of food waste can alter their perceptions and attitudes toward it, potentially yielding behavior changes that can reduce waste. Therefore, the four primary motivations for studying food waste which address environmental, economic, and social issues are reviewed here.

155

3.1 Environmental Impacts of Food Production, Storage, and Transportation

156 There is growing recognition that there are substantial environmental burdens associated 157 with the food supply system (production, packaging, distribution, and marketing). Producing 158 food affects the environment to the detriment of humans, animals, plants, and ecosystems 159 generally (Gjerris and Gaiani 2013). There has been a decadal shift in demand from local and 160 seasonal foods toward imported, non-seasonal fruits and vegetables, increasing transportation 161 and energy use. More food processing also has led to increased energy and material inputs. The 162 increased demand for resource intensive foods, such as meats, makes the environmental impact 163 greater.

164 Food production and distribution requires large amounts of energy and other resources 165 (Cuellar and Webber 2010). Key environmental risk areas include water, soil, and air. Food 166 production can contribute to water pollution and eutrophication, particularly due to the seepage 167 of nutrients, such as manure and fertilizers, into the broader environment. Agriculture is the 168 largest human use of water so it is a great consumer of a limited resource (Lundqvist et al. 2008). 169 Agriculture may lead to sediment transport and deposition downstream, as well degradation of 170 aquifers (Trautmann et al. 2015). Food supply chains can also have negative emissions to air, 171 including greenhouse gas emissions from agricultural machines and food transport vehicles (Weber and Matthews 2008). Direct effects of food supply systems on the land include soil 172 173 erosion, nutrient depletion (Nellemann et al. 2009), on and off site pollution (Trautmann et al. 174 2015), deforestation, desertification, and biodiversity loss. A large percentage of the world's 175 land area is in agriculture; approximately 51 percent of U.S. land is used for growing food (USDA 2015). Land use changes resulting from agriculture can result in biodiversity loss, 176

177 natural ecosystem loss, and overall ecological degradation (Pretty et al. 2005).

178 By wasting edible food, all of the resources that went into growing, producing, 179 processing, and transporting that food are also wasted, resulting in potentially needless 180 environmental impact (Gustavsson et al. 2011). The production of this lost and wasted food 181 globally has been estimated to account for 24 percent of total freshwater resources used in food production, 23 percent of global cropland, and 23 percent of global fertilizer use (Kummu et al. 182 183 2012). In the U.S., the production of wasted food requires the expenditure of over 25 percent of 184 the total freshwater used in the U.S., about 300 million barrels of oil (Hall et al. 2009), and 185 represents two percent of annual energy consumption (Cuellar and Webber 2010). Venkat (2011) 186 estimated that 112.92 million metric tons of carbon dioxide equivalent per year were emitted 187 from the production, processing, and disposal of avoidable food waste in the U.S.

188 The impact of food waste on the environment is particularly concerning because 189 population growth and changing consumption patterns will continue worldwide, leading to 190 higher global demand for food and amplified environmental pressures. Thus, it is critical that the 191 impact of food systems on the environment be reduced, yet still produce enough food to feed the 192 world (Tilman et al. 2001). One means of reducing the environmental impact of food systems on 193 the environment is to minimize the amount of food that is produced but is discarded (Godfray et 194 al. 2010).

195 **3.2 Economic Losses**

196 The large economic impact of throwing food away affects all the individuals and 197 organizations involved in the food supply chain. Understanding the economic costs of wastage 198 may encourage behavioral changes to prevent waste, as saving money has been documented as a 199 driving factor in food waste prevention behaviors (Graham-Rowe et al. 2014, Quested et al. 200 2013, WasteMinz 2014). Table 5 provides recent estimates of the financial cost of wasted and 201 lost food.

- 202
- 203

		Table 5. Economic Costs	of Food Waste and Loss	
Country	Year	Estimate ^a	Sectors Included	Reference
New	2015	\$589 million/year	Avoidable household waste	WasteMinz 2015
Zealand				
Australia	2015	\$5.8 billion/year	All sectors	Food Wise 2015s
Global	2013	\$750 billion/year	All sectors (seafood excluded)	FAO 2013
U.K.	2012	\$18.3 billion/year,	Household	WRAP 2013
		\$689/household/year		
U.S.	2011	\$197.7 billion/year,	Avoidable distribution, retail	Venkat 2011
		\$643.3/person/year	& consumer waste	
U.S.	2010	\$161.6 billion/year, 1,249	Avoidable retail & consumer	Buzby et al. 2014
		calories/person/day	food waste	
Canada	2010	\$21.1 billion/year	All sectors	Gooch et al. 2010

Avoidable retail & consumer

food waste

Buzby and Hyman

2012

\$390/person/year ^a Estimates given in currencies other than U.S. dollars were converted to U.S. dollars

\$165.6 billion/year,

205 206

204

U.S.

3.3 Food Insecurity

2008

207 Food security, the availability of and access to sufficient and healthy foods and good 208 nutrition, is imperative for the wellbeing of individuals and nations (Soussana 2014). Although 209 there appears to be sufficient food available to feed the world's population, nearly 11 percent of 210 the global population is food insecure (FAO 2015). In the U.S., nearly 15 percent of households 211 were food insecure some time in 2012 (Coleman-Jensen et al. 2013). Due to this high prevalence 212 of food insecurity, food wastage has an important ethical dimension (Gjerris and Gaiani 2013). 213 If food resources were managed better and wastes were minimized, resources could be used to 214 help feed the hungry, such as by diverting excess food through charitable donations. A 215 theoretical estimate by Reynolds et al. (2015b) found that if all avoidable food waste in Australia 216 were rescued by charity, it could feed 921 thousand people for a year.

217 Furthermore, food loss and waste amplify the environmental impact of food production 218 along the entire supply chain by requiring more production than is needed based on market 219 demand. Therefore, reducing food waste, while maintaining current production levels, could 220 help meet global food needs. Essentially, food waste avoidance in one region could lead to a 221 higher availability of food elsewhere (Gentil et al. 2011). If less food were wasted, fewer 222 resources would be required to produce food that is not consumed, and these agricultural lands 223 and resources could be liberated for other uses, such as growing food for the world's hungry 224 (Stuart 2009).

225 Reducing food waste will improve future food availability in the context of global population growth and increasing resource scarcity (Buzby et al. 2014, Godfray et al. 2010, 226 227 Pearson et al. 2013). The United Nations estimate that the world population will reach 9.3 228 billion by 2050 (United Nations 2013) and this growth will require an increase in food

229 production by about 70 percent (FAO 2009). To produce enough food to sustain this high

- population, pressure will be increased on agricultural land and other limited resources. It is
- necessary to develop ways to provide more food with fewer inputs so that the world's food
- 232 system can deliver better nutritional outcomes at a smaller environmental cost (Garnett 2014).
- Reducing food waste across the entire food chain will be a key part of any strategy to sustainably
- and equitably feed the world's growing population (Foresight 2011).
- 235

3.4 Environmental Impacts of Food Waste Disposal

236 Food waste may have negative environmental impacts at the end of its life depending on 237 how it is managed. In landfills, food waste converts to methane, a greenhouse gas with a global 238 warming potential 25 times greater than carbon dioxide on a 100 year time scale (IPCC 2007). 239 Although one quarter of U.S. landfills capture methane to create energy, fugitive emissions and 240 landfills without collection systems cause landfills to be the third largest source of anthropogenic 241 methane in the U.S. (USEPA 2011). Food waste tends to degrade faster than other landfilled 242 organic materials, has a high methane yield, and does not contribute to considerable biogenic 243 sequestration in landfills (Levis and Barlaz 2011); therefore, reducing the amount of food waste 244 landfilled should be a priority. Treatment of food waste with waste-to-energy incineration 245 (WTE) is not considered to be energetically favorable due to the high moisture content of food 246 waste (which results in a lower heating value than other materials). Additionally, WTE is unable 247 to capture valuable nutrients within food waste and various environmental pollution problems 248 may arise from inefficient air pollution control measures. As a result, methods other than WTE 249 for the handling of food waste are preferred (Pham et al. 2015).

Food waste can generate benefits (e.g., energy, compost) if managed through composting or anaerobic digestion (AD) or in landfills with efficient gas collection systems. Management of food waste through informal routes, such as donating it to charity or feeding it to pets, may also provide environmental benefit (Reynolds et al. 2014, Reynolds et al. 2015b). Reducing and diverting food waste from disposal may be a means to increase stagnant recycling rates and

improve the overall environmental performance of waste management systems.

256 <u>4. Drivers of Residential, Institutional and Commercial Food Waste Generation</u>

There are many drivers of food waste generation from residential, institutional, and 257 258 commercial sectors, although detailed information on the exact causes is limited (Lebersorger 259 and Schneider 2011). In the developed world, particularly the U.S., increases in the volume, 260 availability, accessibility (Rozin 2005), affordability, and caloric density of food have led to increased overconsumption and waste (Blair and Sobal 2006). There tends to be little 261 262 understanding regarding what food is, where it comes from, and what its production entails 263 (Stuart 2009). Culture and personal choice affect decisions regarding what is too good to throw 264 away and these perceptions can change over time. Specific socio-demographic characteristics 265 have also been associated with increased food wastage. Striking differences in attitudes toward 266 food and food waste have been documented both within and across nations (Stuart 2009). 267 Therefore, food waste generation is a function of cultural, personal, political, geographic, and 268 economic forces that influence behavior in specific ways (Pearson et al. 2013) and it may differ 269 from person to person, year to year, or from society to society.

270 **4.1** M

4.1 Modernization of Food Systems

Modernization in food supply chains is associated with industrialization, economic growth, urbanization, and globalization. It is manifested through dietary transitions and affects the amount and type of food that is wasted (Table 6). Countries move through nutritional transitions and food supply changes at different rates, often directly related to cultural and

- economic factors (Hawkes 2006, Drewnowski 1999). Those cultures which place emphasis on
- food as a finite, valuable resource that is to be cherished are likely to modernize at slower rates
- and ultimately have differing wastage patterns (Stuart 2009).
- 278

Table 6. Modernization's Effects on Food Systems	
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Factor	Description	Effects on Food Systems
Industrialization	Transition from food production and	- Increases distancing of people from food
	preparation at home to large-scale	production and preparation
	operations and factories	- Increases food preparation outside the
		home
		- May reduce food costs
		- Contributes to abundance and variety of
		food
Economic Growth	Increase in disposable income	- Increases diet diversification, particularly
		a transition away from traditional foods
		- May cause reductions in disposable
		income spent on food
Urbanization	Population shift from rural to urban	- Increases diet diversification
	areas which requires the extension of	- Increases distancing of people from food
	food supply systems to feed urban	production
	populations	
Globalization	Shift from local to global food sources;	- Increases diet diversification away from
	transition of dietary patterns away from	local foods
	traditional ways toward global trends	- Increases distancing of people from food
		production

4.1.1 Industrialization

281 Industrialization of food systems, which results in a transition of food production and 282 preparation from the home to factory and from handcraft to purchasing (Strasser 1999), affects 283 the foods that people consume, the types and quantities of food waste, and contributes to 284 increased physical distancing of people from food production and preparation. In areas with 285 industrialized food systems with large amounts of food processing, people often purchase premade foods, or canned and frozen vegetables. As a result, pea pods and corns husks, for 286 287 example, become industrial wastes, while packaging becomes more common in household waste. 288 In industrialized food systems, consumers often purchase pre-cut meats, such as chicken legs, so 289 there are no other components of the chicken to be disposed as waste at the consumer level; the 290 other parts of the chicken are utilized or disposed by industry during the chicken processing.

291 Increased frequency of eating at restaurants and consumption of takeout food 292 (commercially prepared but consumed at home) (Sobal 1999) have been observed in the 293 developed world. This is partly due to the dramatic rise of two-earner households, leading to 294 little available time for food selection and preparation. As food preparation and consumption is 295 increasingly accomplished in restaurants, some shifts in food waste from homes to the 296 commercial sector may occur. It is estimated that almost half the U.S. food budget is spent 297 eating away from home; USDA estimated that in 2012, \$672 billion was spent for food prepared 298 in the home and \$630 billion was spent on food outside of the home. This is a dramatic change 299 from the early twentieth century where almost all food expenditures were spent on food prepared 300 within the home; in 1929, \$15.3 billion was spent on food in the home and \$3.5 billion was spent 301 on food from outside (USDA 2013). Adults tend to be less likely to waste food that they 302 prepared themselves or that a loved one prepared. In cultures based on handwork, handmade 303 things are valuable as they embody many hours of labor. People who have not created or

304 prepared something themselves, or watched a loved one do so, value labor less than those who 305 have, and therefore, are more likely to throw it away (Strasser 1999). As food preparation and

306 consumption is increasingly done in restaurants, factories, or supermarkets, there is likely to be

307 shifts in the types and quantities of food waste generated by residences, industry, and 308 commercial establishments.

308 commercial esta309 4

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4.1.2 Economic Growth

310 Higher incomes have generally been associated with the consumption of a more varied 311 diet (Drewnowski 1999, Pingali and Khwaja 2004). Growth in household incomes is associated 312 with a decline in starchy food staples and a diversification of diet toward more meats, dairy, fish, 313 and poultry (Fischler 1999, Parfitt et al. 2010), per Bennett's Law (food share of starchy staples decreases as income increases) (Bennett 1941). This worldwide trend with increases in 314 consumption of protein and energy rich foods, and convenience foods, and decreases in rice 315 316 consumption, has been documented. Particularly, Asian diets are shifting toward more Western 317 foods (Pingali and Khwaja 2004). Western diets, with vulnerable, shorter shelf-life foods, are 318 associated with greater food waste and a greater drain on environmental resources (Lundqvist et 319 al. 2008). Rathje and Murphy (2001) point out that diet diversification may lead to more food 320 waste, and the more repetitive the diet, the less food wasted. Thus, census tracts with mostly 321 Mexican-American families had less food waste because the ingredients for Mexican food are 322 consistent, making it easy to incorporate leftovers into new meals and staple ingredients are used 323 in almost every meal. In restaurants, larger menus lead to more waste because there are 324 additional ingredients to manage.

325 As incomes rise, people may be able to waste food because food expenditures are not 326 considerable portions of their income. In wealthy countries, such as the U.S., food is relatively 327 inexpensive compared to other expenses (e.g., housing) and people can afford to waste food 328 (Pearson et al. 2013). The FAO suggest that the careless attitude of consumers who can afford to 329 waste food is a large contributor to household food wastage (Gustavsson et al. 2011). The 330 proportion of U.S. household income spent on food has steadily declined as people have gotten 331 wealthier, food prices have decreased, and the cost of other necessary items have increased. The 332 USDA determined that in 1929, Americans spent 19.3 percent of their disposable personal 333 income on food; the percentage steady declined and in 2012, it was 6.1 percent. In poorer 334 countries, however, expenditures on food are still high. For example, in Pakistan 47.7 percent of 335 disposable income was spent on food in 2012; in Cameroon, it was 45.9 percent (USDA 2013).

4.1.3 Urbanization

337 Urbanization requires extensions of food supply systems (Parfitt et al. 2010). It leads to 338 diet diversification and a disconnection from food sources which ultimately may increase food 339 waste. Urbanization has increased substantially in the U.S.; in 1790, five percent of Americans 340 lived in urban areas, by 1890 it was 35 percent, and in 2010, it was 81 percent (U.S. Census 341 Bureau 2012). Urbanization is expected to continue increasing globally; one estimate was 70 percent of people worldwide will live in urban environments by 2015 (United Nations 2008). 342 343 Concentrated, population dense urban food systems are different from those of dispersed, low 344 density rural systems (Solomons and Gross 1995). There are far fewer farms and farmers in 345 urbanized areas, so fewer people interact directly with agricultural processes or live near places 346 where food is produced, hindering knowledge about food origins. This promotes disconnections 347 from food (Parfitt et al. 2010), so that people have no sense of what their food is made of or how 348 it was produced (Fischler 1999). Since food sources are not local, there are more opportunities 349 to market diverse foods, different from those grown locally. Lebersorger and Schneider (2011)

350 found residual waste from urban Austrian households contained significantly more food waste

351 than rural areas.352 4.

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4.1.4 Globalization

353 Food systems have changed due to the shift from local to regional to global foods in 354 terms of quantity, type, cost, variety, and desirability (Hawkes 2006). Globalization means the 355 linkage and integration of previously local, national and regional phenomena into organizational 356 arrangements at a global scale (Sobal 1999). Food supply globalization was made possible by 357 social and technological changes occurring after food supply industrialization (Robertson 1990). 358 New dietary patterns reflect global patterns and may differ significantly from traditional food 359 practices, particularly because non-local foods are available for consumption and there is an 360 overall increase in the range and quantities of available foods (Pingali and Khwaja 2004). Globalization has been associated with the consumption of fewer locally produced plant foods 361 362 and more imported and processed foods, particularly animal products (Pingali and Khwaja 2004, 363 Sobal 1999). Food now travels long distances (Pretty et al. 2005), and to more supermarkets in 364 place of small, local markets, and so consumers purchase more non-local foods. Changes in 365 diets spurred by globalization affect the type of food that is disposed; people also may be more 366 likely to waste food as they do not have a deep connection and understanding of it.

4.2 Cultural Factors

368 Culture plays a fundamental role in shaping food, eating, and nutrition (Rozin 2005, 369 Sobal 1998), as well as waste generation. The amount of food a society wastes is dependent on cultural habits and attitudes. People from different cultures regard different foods and food parts 370 371 as edible, and throw different parts away (Strasser 1999). Pollan (2007) points out that some 372 cultures, particularly the U.S. and Australia, have weak food traditions of their own, meaning 373 there are few longstanding rules and rituals about what to eat and when to eat it, and there are 374 weak connections between the production and preparation of food and its consumption. Bloom 375 (2010) has argued that the U.S. has an unhealthy relationship with food, and overall, the U.S. 376 food culture places little value on food, leading to waste. Other societies have a strong 377 appreciation for food, including production and preparation. Countries such as France have deep 378 food cultures which are deeply embedded in culture and which have been developed over long 379 periods of time (Gatley et al. 2014). French attitudes toward food tend to emphasize moderation 380 and quality, rather than abundance and quantity as in the U.S. (Rozin 2005). Countries with deep 381 food cultures tend to be more resistant to change (or at least change slower) primarily due to 382 strong values surrounding what foods can be grown during certain seasons and how foods are 383 prepared. Many cuisines depend on the longevity of traditional recipes and cooking techniques 384 (Conveney et al. 2012). Deep food cultures may be less affected by changes brought on by 385 modernization of the food supply system.

386 Furthermore, there are cultural differences in daily food practices which may affect 387 wastage. For instance, there may be cross-national differences in shopping patterns in terms of 388 the amount of food purchased in a single trip, the number of days between shopping trips, and 389 the amount of food stored in the household (Neff et al. 2015). Household shopping practices, 390 particularly the size of the store where groceries are purchased and the frequency of shopping, 391 have been shown to affect wastage (Jorissen et al. 2015). In developing countries, consumers 392 generally buy smaller amounts of food each time they shop (compared to developed countries), 393 often just enough for meals that day (Pearson et al. 2013), which may reduce waste. Extant 394 educational campaigns may also cause differing waste patterns. Mena et al. (2015) found that 395 Spanish retail food managers did not see food wastage as a major problem, but managers in the 396 U.K. placed waste on a higher agenda. This is possibly due to recent campaigns in the U.K.

397 emphasizing food waste as a problem.

398 **4.3 Socio-Demographic Factors**

Surveys of attitudes and behaviors have shown some correlations between food wasting
 behaviors and certain socio-demographic characteristics (Pearson et al. 2013), although there is
 no clear consensus regarding which socio-demographic factors relate to more waste.
 Understanding demographic patterns can lead to a better understanding of how wastage patterns

402 Understanding demographic patterns can lead to a better understanding of how wastage patterns 403 may change as demographics change (e.g., ageing populations). Age has been shown to affect 404 food waste generation, with young people wasting more than older people (Cox and Downing 405 2007, Hamilton et al. 2005, Quested and Johnson 2009, WasteMinz 2014). In Australia, food 406 waste fell sharply as age increased; among 18 to 24 year olds, 38 percent of respondents wasted 407 more than \$30 (Australian) on fresh food over two weeks, compared to seven percent of people 408 aged 70 and up (Hamilton et al. 2005). In the U.K., people over age 65 wasted considerably less 409 food than the rest of the population (approximately 25 percent less when household size was 410 controlled for). These older participants felt that wasting food was wrong, which may be based 411 on the fact that many people of this age group experienced austerity and food rationing during 412 World War II, establishing attitudes against wastefulness (Quested et al. 2013). It is unknown if 413 current young people will waste less as their knowledge, attitudes, and lifestyle change as they

414 age (Pearson et al. 2013).

415 Family composition and household size significantly affect food waste generation. 416 Households with children waste more than households without children (Cox and Downing 417 2007, Hamilton et al. 2005, Parizeau et al. 2015, WasteMinz 2014). One common cause for food 418 waste in Swedish households was that children often did not want to finish their food. Larger 419 households waste less per capita than smaller households (Baker et al. 2009, Parizeau et al. 2015, 420 WasteMinz 2015, Williams et al. 2012), especially those where people live alone (WasteMinz 421 2014). Koivupuro et al. (2012) found no significant difference in waste per capita based on 422 household size, but people that lived alone generated the most waste per capita. In particular, 423 women that lived alone generated the most food waste per capita. Jorissen et al. (2015) also

424 found that single person households wasted the most per capita.

Food is wasted across all levels of income (Pearson et al. 2013). Lower food waste has
been found in low-income compared to high-income households (Cox and Downing 2007,
WasteMinz 2014) and food waste has also been shown to increase with household income
(Baker et al. 2009). However, others found little or no correlation between income and food
wastage (Koivupuro et al. 2012, Van Garde and Woodburn 1987, Wenlock et al. 1980).

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4.4 Policies Driving Food Waste Generation

There are policies which contribute to food waste by mandating food disposal under certain conditions or by preventing its redistribution elsewhere. These policies aim to achieve some overall benefit (food safety or enhanced nutrition), but they may also lead to increased food wastage. Furthermore, litigation concerns may discourage the reuse or redistribution of edible food. As a result, there is tension between the need for food safety and nutrition and the desire to reduce food waste (Watson and Meah 2012).

A policy which may lead to food wastage is the 2010 Healthy, Hunger-Free Kids Act
which required USDA to update nutrition standards of the National School Lunch and Breakfast
Program. The revised standard emphasized nutritional quality improvements for student meals.
This policy has been criticized for leading to substantially more food waste because students
dislike the new meals and are throwing away fruits and vegetables that they are required to take

442 (Jalonick 2014). At one elementary school after the implementation of the policy 45 percent of

- served food and beverages were discarded by students (Byker et al. 2014). However, Cohen et
- 444 al. (2014) evaluated plate waste at several schools before and after the 2012 standards were

implemented, and found substantial amounts of food waste both before and after the 2012 policy.
Schwartz et al. (2015) found that the standard reduced plate waste in middle schools: so, it is

Schwartz et al. (2015) found that the standard reduced plate waste in middle schools; so, it isunclear whether the standard causes increased food wastage. In 2014 a bill was proposed to ease

the requirements of the meal standards, particularly regarding the amount of whole grains

449 required in meals (Jalonick 2014).

450 The U.S. Food and Drug Administration sets federal calls for food safety, which are 451 promulgated at the state and local levels as well. Food safety inspections or food labeling requirements mandate the disposal of food that is not allowed to be sold or consumed, such as 452 food that is improperly labeled or inadequately stored. The USDA and the European Union (EU) 453 454 have recognized that food safety policies contribute to waste, but consider human health 455 protection the primary concern. Still, both have vowed to reduce food waste. The USDA is 456 working to streamline donation procedures for wholesome misbranded or non-standard food that 457 is fit for human consumption to redistribution agencies, and has spearheaded several food waste 458 reduction initiatives, such as through tax incentives for donors and liability protection. These 459 efforts include the Bill Emerson Good Samaritan Food Donation Act, U.S. Federal Food

- 460 Donation Act of 2008, and Internal Revenue Code 170(e)(3).
- 461

462 <u>5. Behaviors and Attitudes Leading to Residential, Institutional, and Commercial Food</u> 463 <u>Wastage</u>

464 Food wastage is not the result of a single behavior, but combinations of multiple behaviors (Quested et al. 2013). Cultural, political, economic, geographic, and socio-465 demographic drivers described in section 4 may cause the behaviors, but so can personal 466 467 preference, values, and attitudes. There is no clear consensus on attitudes toward food waste, 468 although food waste awareness has been shown to reduce waste (Parizeau et al. 2015). Some 469 work has found a lack of concern and awareness regarding food waste (Buzby et al. 2011, 470 Pearson et al. 2013) and a perception that food waste prevention is not a priority (Graham-Rowe 471 et al. 2014). Neff et al. (2015), however, found widespread awareness of food waste among 472 American consumers. Here specific residential, institutional, and commercial food wastage 473 behaviors are described.

474

5.1 Institutional and Commercial Behaviors

475 At the retail and institutional levels, food is generally wasted due to choices regarding 476 quantities of available food and visual qualities of food. Specific causes include (1) un-477 purchased specialty holiday food; (2) damaged packaging; (3) damaged or inadequately prepared 478 items; (4) overstocking or over-preparation of food; (5) routine kitchen preparation waste; and 479 (6) out-grading/quality control (Buzby and Hyman 2012). Appearance quality standards cause 480 retailers, particularly supermarkets, to out grade foods due to rigorous quality standards 481 concerning weight, shape, and appearance (Gustavsson et al. 2011). Many grocers take pride in 482 beautiful food displays with uniform, flawless food, which require the culling of even slightly 483 imperfect items. Overstocking also is an issue because retailers would rather put more stock out 484 than run out of items and restaurants prefer to have a wide array of available menu options 485 (Stuart 2009). Inaccurate forecasting of food needs also is a contributor to wastage (Mena et al. 486 2011). Although these factors may all contribute to food waste, the magnitude of wastage has 487 been shown to vary across commodity types. Buzby et al. (2015) found that in U.S.

supermarkets, the percentage of fresh produce delivered to U.S. supermarkets that was not sold
for any reason ranged from 2.2 (sweet corn) to 62.9 (turnip greens) percent; the range for fruits
was smaller, ranging from 4.1 (bananas) to 43.1 (papaya) percent. These differences may be
attributed to packaging differences, susceptibility to damage, and the public's knowledge and

492 familiarity with certain foods.

493 In food service, plate waste is a significant contributor to food waste (NRDC 2012), and 494 results from large portion sizes and undesired accompaniments. Portion sizes are increasing 495 inside and outside the home in the developed world (Wansink and Payne 2009, Wansink and van 496 Ittersum 2007, Wansink and Wansink 2010). Portion sizes began to rise in the 1970s, and then 497 increased sharply in the 1980s and continued to climb in the 1990s. Portion increases have been 498 seen in supermarkets, where the number of items in larger sizes has increased ten-fold between 499 1970 and 2000. The average sizes of certain foods, such as bagels and muffins, have increased 500 significantly over the past 20 years. These large portions encourage both waste and obesity 501 (Young and Nestle 2002). Kallbekken and Saelen (2013) found that reducing the physical size 502 of plates in hotels reduced food waste by 19.5 percent.

503 **5.2 Residential Behaviors**

504 Consumer behavioral choices cause food wastage at the household level through the 505 interaction of aspects of food's journey into and through the home: planning, shopping, storage, 506 preparation and consumption (Quested et al. 2013). Poor planning at the shopping stage leads to 507 over-provisioning and impulse or bulk purchases (Koivupuro et al. 2012), which are significant 508 contributors to food waste (Pearson et al. 2013). Food is commonly purchased without much 509 thought as to how it will be used (Gustavsson et al. 2011) which can contribute to wastage.

510 In the home, wastes may be generated due to preparing too much food (Koivupuro et al. 511 2012) or preparing food inadequately. People may lack the skills to prepare food well, or to 512 reuse leftovers. In the U.K., 40 percent of household food waste was due to the preparation and 513 serving of more food than could be consumed (Quested and Johnson 2009). Over-provisioning 514 is both intentional and unintentional, as cooks may find it difficult to estimate how much to cook, 515 but they also would rather prepare too much food than not enough (Pearson et al. 2013). Portion 516 sizes in the home, as measured in the sizes of bowls, glasses, and dinner plates, and serving sizes 517 as presented in cookbooks, have been increasing. The serving size of some entrees increased by 518 as much as 42 percent in the 2006 Joy of Cooking cookbook from recipes in the first (1931) 519 edition (Wansink and Payne 2009).

520 Food spoilage due to improper or suboptimal storage, poor visibility in refrigerators, and 521 partially used ingredients, leads to wastage (NRDC 2012). A survey of U.K. households found 522 47 percent more fresh food was wasted compared to frozen foods because fresh food spoils faster 523 (Martindale 2014). Another U.K. study found that more than half of food waste occurs because 524 food was not used in time (Quested and Johnson 2009), possibly due to confusion over "use by", 525 "sell by", "enjoy by", and "best by" date labeling (Quested and Johnson 2009, Van Garde and 526 Woodburn 1987). In the U.S., there are no federal standards on the presentation and meaning of 527 date labels on food. State rules vary in coverage and what the dates mean which leads to 528 consumer confusion (Kosa et al. 2007), and often results in safe, edible food being thrown away. 529 This confusion and general misconceptions about food safety and high sensitivities to food safety 530 are contributors to food waste (Pearson et al. 2013).

531 6. Discussion: Policies for Food Waste Prevention

532 This paper demonstrated that food waste is a complex, interdisciplinary, and international 533 issue which can have profound effects for global sustainability. Table 4 illustrated that large 534 quantities of food is currently wasted, and food waste disposal has been shown to increase with 535 time (Thyberg et al. 2015). Examination of the diverse range of food wastage drivers and 536 behaviors provides insight into the best ways to achieve successful food waste prevention, which 537 possibly can reverse the trend of increased food wastage. Currently in the U.S. there is no 538 widespread or visible political or social momentum to prevent food waste (Buzby et al. 2014). 539 Little research has directly addressed factors that motivate, enable or inhibit food waste 540 prevention behaviors (Graham-Rowe et al. 2014). Here prevention policies are placed in the 541 context of generation behaviors and attitudes; this context is valuable as we move forward with 542 developing policies to sustainably manage food waste in the U.S. and abroad.

6.1 Policies to Prevent Food Waste

Waste prevention requires changes in people's behavior, both collectively (e.g., 544 545 companies) and individually (BioIntelligence Service 2011, Wilson 1996). Sections 4 and 5 546 demonstrated that there are an array of attitudes, preferences, values, and behaviors toward food 547 which contribute to the propensity to waste food at residential, institutional, and commercial 548 sectors; these factors may differ from person to person. National circumstances and cultural 549 norms have also been linked to food wastage (BioIntelligence Service 2011), so wastage patters 550 may differ from region to region and country to country. This indicates that effective approaches to food waste prevention may also differ (Buzby et al. 2011). Table 7 describes prevention 551 552 mechanisms which were developed based on behavioral and attitudinal factors that drive wastage 553 from residential, institutional, and commercial sectors in developed countries.

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Table 7. Mechanisms to Prevent Food Waste Based on Waste Generating Behavior	s and
Attitudes	

Factor	Description	Mechanisms to Prevent Waste
Over Preparation/	Excess food that is prepared but that is	1. Public/employee education regarding proper
Large Portion	not consumed (includes plate waste)	food preparation, portion sizes, and on
Sizes/Undesired Food		importance of ordering flexibility to ensure
		people like the food they are served
		2. Food redistribution policies for edible retail
		and commercial food (e.g., to a food bank)
Inadequate Food	Food that is prepared incorrectly (such	Public/employee education regarding proper
Preparation/Lack of	as by burning) or poorly (such as food	food preparation and reuse
Food Preparation	that does not taste good) which results	
Skill	in wasting; food that is wasted due to	
	an inability to reuse excess food or	
	incorporate left-overs into a new meal	
Defects in Food or	Food that is disposed due to imperfect	1. Logistic improvements (e.g., improved
Food Packaging	qualities of the food (such as bruising)	transportation that reduces food damage;
	or damaged food packaging (includes	improved food packaging)
	out-grading)	2. Food redistribution/donation policies for
		edible retail and commercial food (e.g., to a
		food bank)
Over Stocking	Excess food that is purchased but not	1. Public/employee education regarding food
	consumed /sold (either at consumer or	purchasing and planning
	retail levels)	2. Logistic improvements (e.g., stock
		management improvement for retailers)

Spoilage/Food Not	Food that is allowed to spoil before it	1. Public/employee education regarding food	
Used in	can be consumed/sold or food that is	storage, food safety, and food planning	
Time/Confusion Over	believed to be inadequate for	2. Improved, easily understandable food	
Date Labels/High	consumption based on personal	labeling systems	
Sensitivity to Food	preferences, date labels, or	3. Logistic improvements (e.g., stock	
Safety	conceptions about food safety	management improvement for retailers,	
		improved product packaging)	
Routine Kitchen	Non-edible food components that are	These wastes are hard to reduce completely;	
Preparation Wastes	disposed of as part of routine kitchen	therefore, they are best targeted with policy	
	preparation (e.g., apple cores)	options for MSW systems, such as food waste	
		diversion policies (to AD or composting)	
Lack of Awareness or	Lack of awareness or concern about	Education regarding the issue of food waste,	
Concern About Food	wasting food	quantities generated, and why it is an	
Waste		environmental, economic, and social concern	

558

6.2 A Multi-Faceted Policy Approach

559 Policies for food waste prevention should target the circumstances and actions that lead to food wastage and should be informed by motivations for waste production. Graham-Rowe et 560 al. (2015) found that at the household level, survey participants were more likely to intend to 561 reduce fruit and vegetable food wastage if they felt favorable about waste reduction, that others 562 563 would approve of these behaviors, and confident in their ability to reduce waste. So, policy 564 approaches should be multi-faceted and address attitudes and logistical aspects of waste 565 prevention. There are a range of policy options to support food waste prevention (UNEP 2014) 566 (Table 8). It is necessary to address multiple prevention mechanisms simultaneously because 567 prevention is not created by one, but by many behaviors (Cox et al. 2010). Furthermore, by 568 using multiple policy approaches, different parts of the population will be targeted, thus 569 providing greater opportunities to engage more people (Quested et al. 2013). This is necessary 570 because different populations will respond differently to prevention initiatives. For instance, 571 Rispo et al. (2015) found that economically and socially deprived communities, particularly 572 those in high-rise, high-density housing, will require exceptional efforts and additional resources 573 to drive behavior changes to prevent food waste.

574 It can be concluded that a package of prevention policies are necessary to prevent food 575 waste; they should encompass three key aspects: Values, Skills, and Logistics. The first aspect, 576 Values, involves addressing values and perceptions which drive behavior. These values are 577 grounded in the motivations for food waste prevention described in section 3. Values policy 578 options should address identified concerns regarding food wastage, which include: (1) food 579 waste is a waste of resources (money and edible food); (2) wasting food is wrong (WasteMinz 580 2014) and yields feelings of guilt (Graham-Rowe et al. 2014); and (3) food waste negatively 581 impacts the environment (Doron 2013). An example of a Values policy is an educational 582 campaign which teaches people about the importance of environmental and social altruism, and 583 how preventing food waste can provide benefits (Wilson 1996). Another is one which 584 emphasizes the economic impact of food wastage (Table 5); the concept of saving money has 585 been found to be a powerful motivator to food waste prevention (Graham-Rowe et al. 2014, 586 Quested et al. 2013, WasteMinz 2014). A means to support Value-driven behavior change is to 587 provide the public with knowledge on food waste generation quantities. Miliute-Plepiene and 588 Plepys (2015) found that improved awareness about food waste quantities spurred by the 589 introduction of a food waste sorting program played an important role in food waste prevention 590 in a Swedish municipality.

591 The next policy component, Skills, enables people to change their behaviors, such as by 592 providing training on how to prevent food waste. Stefan et al. (2013) found that providing 593 consumers with practical tools to improve their food planning and shopping routines could 594 reduce waste. Graham-Rowe (2014) also determined that people should be trained in food 595 management skills to empower them to reduce waste. Neff et al. (2015) found that concern for 596 foodborne illness was the most common reason for discarding food by American consumers. 597 Providing education training and skills to help people better understand food safety may be 598 essential for waste prevention. At the retail level, Mena et al. (2011) found that a cause of food 599 wastage was improper employee procedures for stocking, stock rotation, and other tasks. Better 600 employee training could address this skill-deficit.

601 The final aspect of a policy package is Logistics which facilitates food waste prevention 602 and minimizes inconvenience, both of which have been identified as key aspects of successful 603 food waste prevention programs (Graham-Rowe et al. 2014). There are various logistical 604 improvements which may prevent waste. At the retail level, a major cause of food wastage is 605 poor forecasting regarding food needs. Improving forecasting practices and using up-to-date 606 data mining models are examples of logistical improvements which can reduce forecast error and 607 ultimately wastage (Mena et al. 2011). Other logistical based policies include those which 608 provide incentives to businesses to use preferred product packaging or those which support 609 research and development focused on improved packaging. Williams et al. (2012) determined 610 that 20 to 25 percent of household food waste was due to packaging factors. So, improved food 611 packaging can significantly prevent food waste. Packaging may be used to increase product 612 protection, facilitate temperature control, or prevent damage during distribution (Verghese et al. 613 2015). Logistical improvements at the institutional level, particularly schools, which have been 614 identified include enabling the storage of intact food for later use, modification of policies which encourage waste (e.g., mandating students take certain foods), and changes to daily operations 615 616 (e.g., increasing time students have to eat) (Blondin et al. 2015). A final policy option targeting 617 logistics are those that facilitate the redistribution of excess food to the needy. Logistical barriers 618 to donation may be substantial (Schneider 2013b), but they be overcome to some degree with 619 strong coordination efforts.

620 621

Prevention Policy	Description	Category
Education to Promote the Importance of Food Waste Prevention in Terms of Environmental, Social, and Economic Impacts	Education campaigns addressing the issue of food waste, quantities generated, and why it is important to prevent food waste. These programs can focus on moral issues of wasting food and the potential to save money by preventing food waste. The campaigns may be done through various media outlets, including mailings, face-to-face training, email, and social media.	Values
Education to Promote Behavior Changes	Education campaigns focused on behavior changes can target a variety of audiences and focus on various aspects of food waste prevention. These aspects include proper food preparation, portion sizes, food reuse, ordering flexibility in restaurants, food purchasing, food storage, food safety, and meal planning. The campaigns may be done through various media outlets, including mailings, face-to-face training, email, and social media.	Skills
Encourage Food Redistribution/Donation Policies (for edible retail and commercial food)	Policies can encourage the redistribution of edible food for human consumption. Recovery policies may include tax incentives for donors, limited liability regulations for donors, programs to facilitate the	Logistics

	connection between donors and the needy, or may facilitate logistics of	
	collection and transport.	
Promote Food	Policies can facilitate diversion of wasted food from retail and consumer	Logistics
Redistribution to Animal	sectors to animal feed, such as foods that were refused due to packaging	
Feed	errors or blemishes. Programs may facilitate the connection between	
	donors and the needy, provide tax incentives to donors, or may facilitate	
	logistics of collection and transport. Furthermore, at the household level,	
	education can encourage people to feed excess food to pets instead of	
	disposing it.	
Incentivize Food Waste	Policies can be enacted to incentivize prevention, such as rewarding	Logistics
Prevention	companies that are able to significantly prevent food waste. Incentives can	
	be financial, such as tax credits for those that prevent waste, or mandated	
	higher costs for waste disposal (which should encourage reduction).	
Increase Research and	Policies to support research and development can contribute to	Logistics
Development	innovations which may reduce food wastage. These include improved	
	packaging that extends shelf life, improvements in food storage, or better	
	tracking systems for stock management. Policies may include funding for	
	research organizations or tax incentives.	
Improve Food Packaging	Policies can encourage reconfiguration of product packaging to prevent	Logistics
	waste, such as packaging to extend shelf life or protect products. Policies	
	may include financial incentives to businesses using preferred packaging.	
Improve Food Date	Policies to eliminate ambiguous food labeling include well-defined, clear,	Logistics
Labeling	scientifically-sound date labeling systems for food.	
Change Waste Collection	Policies to change the design of municipal waste collection systems can	Logistics
System Design	help prevent food waste. These include volume based systems for trash or	
	reduced number of days that trash is collected.	
Change Treatment of	Policies can reduce food waste by stipulating how it is to be treated. An	Logistics
Collected Wastes	example is legislation to ban landfilling of organics. Fiscal incentives,	
	such as taxes, fees, or subsidies, can also dictate treatment methods.	
Mandate Targets for	Policies to mandate reporting of food waste statistics and achievement of	Logistics
Prevention	specific prevention goals can encourage prevention.	

623

6.3 Selecting the Best Policy Approach

624 There are regulatory, social, and political obstacles to enacting food waste prevention 625 policies. Thyberg and Tonjes (2015) outlined many of these challenges, including poor public 626 participation, lack of efficient indicators to monitor performance, and uncertainty regarding 627 policy outcomes. There is no one-size-fits-all solution to food waste; policy measures to address 628 it should be custom tailored for each individual situation, integrate community needs, and 629 involve a package of several measures addressing Values, Skills and Logistics. Holistic 630 approaches which integrate education, financial aspects, and logistical improvements across food 631 and waste systems are ideal.

632 It is unclear which combination of mechanisms to prevent food waste is most effective 633 because evaluations of food waste prevention policies are scarce. Due to the inherent difficultly 634 in studying and implementing waste prevention, there has been little quantitative work assessing its environmental impacts (Gentil et al. 2011). Moreover, it is difficult to demonstrate a 635 636 consistent, direct link between specific policy mechanisms and measured waste prevention 637 results (Cox et al. 2010). Further complicating food waste prevention is the fact that many food 638 waste prevention initiatives are still in their early stages, so comprehensive data are not yet 639 available (BioIntelligence Service 2011). Rather than struggle with the lack of existing data 640 and concrete conclusions regarding the best policy means to prevent food waste, it is suggested 641 that new, well-planned intervention campaigns be initiated, but with mandates for proper

642 monitoring and evaluation. These data can serve as critical resources for designing future waste 643 prevention programs and improving existing programs (Thyberg and Tonjes 2015). Prevention 644 initiatives targeting food loss (losses at production, post-harvest, and processing stages of the 645 food supply chain) should parallel food waste prevention campaigns to address the issue from 646 multiple angles.

647 Food waste prevention policies can substantially reduce the amount of food waste 648 disposed, making it an effective alternative to collection and treatment of wastes economically, 649 socially, and environmentally. However, even with rigorous prevention programs, food waste 650 from residential, institutional, and commercial sectors will never be eliminated because some 651 food waste is unavoidable (e.g., peels) (Schott et al. 2013), and redistribution of edible food to 652 feed humans may be unfeasible due to food perishability and high transport or distribution costs 653 (Buzby et al. 2014). Food also may not meet safety or quality requirements under food safety 654 regulations (Salhofer et al. 2008). Furthermore, prevention activities may not broadly appeal to 655 consumers and they may be costly (Buzby et al. 2011). Estimates of the proportion of food waste that is avoidable differ considerably across studies; estimates for the proportion of 656 657 avoidable food waste are: 34 percent avoidable in Sweden (Schott et al. 2013); 47 percent 658 avoidable and 18 percent partially avoidable in Germany (Kranert et al. 2012); 60 percent 659 avoidable in the U.K. (WRAP 2013); and 54 percent avoidable and 12 percent partially 660 avoidable in New Zealand (WasteMinz 2015). More studies documenting the proportion of 661 disposed food waste that is avoidable would be beneficial, especially in the U.S. where data are 662 lacking. Nevertheless, once prevention policies are enacted, recovery programs to encourage the 663 capture of energy and nutrients from food waste should be pursued.

664 <u>7. Conclusion</u>

665 Increasingly citizens, scientists, businesses, institutions, and policy makers are realizing 666 that the current food system is unsustainable and changes are required if the world will be able to support a population of over nine billion by 2050. Reducing food waste will become an 667 increasingly important strategy to help feed this growing human population (Godfray et al. 668 669 2010). However, food waste prevention has not vet become mainstream in the U.S. or abroad. 670 Wastage of food is a widespread phenomenon globally and it is likely that food waste generation 671 will continue growing if not curbed by prevention policies. Waste prevention in general has 672 frequently been ignored in waste management, as signaled by states that define waste goals in terms of recycling or diversion, rather than using indicators that capture prevention success. 673 674 Understanding the implications of food waste and adjusting attitudes and behaviors toward food 675 in order to prevent it should be an urgent priority. This paper deepened the understanding of food waste and highlighted that it is a complex issue involving numerous diverse actors across 676 677 the globalized food chain. Policies to prevent food waste should address the range of behaviors 678 and motivations for wastage. They should be multi-faceted so that they target people's values, 679 provide them with skills to prevent waste, and facilitate logistical improvements to encourage 680 prevention. Food wastage is an issue that demands attention, research, and action, particularly 681 regarding ways to prevent food waste generation.

682

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