

Enhancing Global Sustainability
by Reducing Food Waste:
Articulating and Assessing the Economic Challenges*

Danyi Qi (contact author)
Dept. of Agricultural, Environmental & Development Economics
Ohio State University
2120 Fyffe Road, Columbus, OH 43209 USA
qi.163@osu.edu
614-364-3989

Brian E. Roe, Professor
Dept. of Agricultural, Environmental & Development Economics
Ohio State University
2120 Fyffe Road, Columbus, OH 43209 USA
roe.30@osu.edu
614-688-5777

* The authors acknowledge support from the Ohio Agricultural Research and Development Center and from the McCormick Program in Agricultural Marketing and Policy

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15

Enhancing Global Sustainability
by Reducing Food Waste:
Articulating and Assessing the Economic Challenges

Abstract:

Reducing food waste is one potential avenue for helping to sustainably nourish 9 billion people by mid-century. In this paper, we review the literature concerning food waste and assess the economic incentives surrounding food waste faced by different participants within food systems, such as food producers in developing countries, retailers in mature supply chains, and the households who purchase and prepare food provided by these retailers. We also discuss the potential for a rebound effect from exogenous improvements that reduce food waste, which, to our knowledge, has not been addressed before. Finally, we summarize and discuss several possible policies that could be considered to better manage food waste sustainably.

Keywords: food waste, food loss, over-nutrition, rebound effect, sustainability

Enhancing Global Sustainability by Reducing Food Waste:

Articulating and Assessing the Economic Challenges

1. Introduction

One of the greatest challenges in the 21st century is to feed 9.3 billion people by 2050 without exacerbating global environmental degradation (World Bank, 2008; Baulcombe, 2009; Foley et al., 2011). Indeed, food production is a major driver for global environmental changes due to increased competition for resources, release of greenhouse gases, soil degradation and loss of biodiversity (Grizzetti et al., 2013; Godfray et al., 2010; Tilman et al., 2011). However, roughly one-third of all edible food is wasted annually (Gustavsson et al., 2011), suggesting an important frontier for locating food needed to sustainably nourish a growing global population. In the United States alone, the estimated total value of food loss in 2008 is \$165.6 billion, which means 124 kg (273 lb) of food valued at \$290 retail price was wasted from human consumption per capita per year (Buzby & Hyman, 2012).

There is an urgent need to better understand the causes of food waste, possible methods to prevent the waste, and sustainable ways to manage wasted food. Previous reviews comprehensively summarize the food waste in supply chains from a global perspective, estimate food loss and household food waste in different countries, and estimate the types of food being wasted (Parfitt et al., 2010). The present review focuses on the incentives of food waste from different agents with food systems, such as food producers in developing countries, retailers in mature supply chains, and the households who purchase and prepare food provided by these retailers. We also analyze the rebound effect of food waste, which, to our knowledge, has not been addressed before. Finally, we summarize and discuss several possible policies that could be considered to better manage food waste sustainably.

2. Definitions of Food Waste

Food waste could be defined from two perspectives. The first defines food lost in the supply chains, while the other defines it by the purpose of food.

- 1) Food loss in the supply chains includes the following.
 - a. Postharvest loss refers to measurable quantitative and qualitative food loss during the entire postharvest system (Lucia & Assennato, 1994), which includes the times from harvest to processing, transport, resale, food preparation and being eaten or discarded by consumers (Hodge, Buzby & Bennett, 2011).
 - b. Food loss represents the edible amount of food available for human consumption that is not consumed (Bloom, 2010), which usually take place at production, postharvest

51 and processing stages.
52 c. Food waste focuses on the food unconsumed due to the behavior of retailers and
53 consumers, which occurs in the latter part of the supply chains.

54 Food loss relates to systems that require investment in infrastructure and technology,
55 and therefore is a principal problem in developing countries. Food waste, on the other
56 hand, mainly relates to human behavior, and is more associated with developed countries
57 (Parfitt et al., 2010).

58 2) Definitions of food waste by the purpose of the food include the following.

59 a. Food waste is all the material edible for human consumption that is discarded, lost, or
60 degraded by humans or consumed by pests (FAO, 1981).

61 b. Another definition is similar to (a), but includes edible food that could have fed to
62 animals or is a by-product of food processing diverted away from the human food
63 chain (Stuart, 2009).

64 c. A third definition is similar to (a) and (b), but includes over-nutrition, the gap
65 between energy intake and the energy needed to maintain consistent, health body
66 weight (Smil, 2004a).

67 In this paper, we refer food waste as food loss in the production, postharvest, and
68 processing stage, food waste in the retailers and households, and over-nutrition. Food
69 loss and food waste in the supply chain is the food physically wasted, while the food
70 waste in term of over-nutrition is the food wasted by human bodies.

71 **3. Food Waste: externalities and opportunity cost**

72 Food production is a major driver for global environmental changes due to increased
73 competition for resources, release of greenhouse gases, soil degradation and loss of
74 biodiversity (Grizzetti et al., 2013; Tilman et al., 2011). Nearly 70% of global freshwater
75 withdrawals are used for irrigation (Postel et al., 1996). 37% of the earth's land surface is
76 occupied by agricultural lands, and 70% of the grassland, 50% of savanna, 45% of the
77 temperate deciduous forest, and 27% of the tropical forest biome is cleared or converted
78 by agricultural (Pretty, 2008). 52% and 84% of global anthropogenic methane and nitrous
79 oxide (Smith, 2008), which are more damaging than carbon dioxide (Godfray et al.,
80 2010), is emitted during the food production process. If the food is wasted, a great
81 amount of money, resources, and labor are wasted and considerable negative externalities
82 are generated during its lifecycle. Furthermore, much of wasted food will be disposed
83 in landfills instead of being used as animal feed or compost, especially in developed
84 countries. As a consequence, much methane and carbon dioxide will be produced
85 during its decomposition and large areas will be needed for landfilling. According to a
86 study in the UK, 3% of greenhouse gas emission is from the waste sector, where nearly
87 half is associated with food waste (DEFRA, 2011; Papargyropoulou, 2014). The area
88 dedicated to landfills also intensifies global competition for land.

89 **4. Waste Prevention**

90 *4.1 Food waste in developing countries*

91 Food losses mostly take place in developing countries. More than 40% of food
92 post-harvest or during processing is lost because of poor infrastructure and technological
93 conditions (FAO, 2011). Perishable food like fruit, vegetables, meat and fish can easily
94 deteriorate when appropriate storage, cooling, and transportation infrastructures are
95 absent. For example, in India alone, 35-40% of fresh food is lost due to the lack of cold
96 storage. Many simple technologies, however, are available to reduce these kinds of loss.
97 For example, an FAO project in Afghanistan dramatically reduced food losses just by
98 providing sealed storage drums for grain farmers (FAO, 2008).

99 Some farmers might choose to harvest and sell food at inappropriate times, which
100 results in considerable food waste. For example, liquidity constrained farmers without
101 short-term credit options may harvest foods too early to sell for cash despite discounts for
102 poor quality from immaturity and decreased yield from premature harvest. Likewise,
103 liquidity and credit constrained farmers may sell for cash at harvest into a saturated
104 market rather than store product for later delivery at higher prices. In this way improve
105 rural credit may help alleviate food loss in developing country contexts.

106 Furthermore, in developing countries, the integration of producer, suppliers, and
107 processors across the food value chain may be uneven. As a result, food produced by
108 farmers may not reach consumers in an efficient way. Food may be wasted during the
109 long journey from farmers to consumers due to simple logistical barriers that more
110 advanced value chains may avoid. Meanwhile, existing retail markets may be small,
111 overcrowded, unsanitary and lacking cooling equipment, which can promote inefficiency
112 and waste. Tighter system integration across the value chain may decrease food loss
113 (Godfray et al., 2010; Parfitt et al., 2010; Gustavsson et al., 2011).

114 *4.2 Food waste in developed countries*

115 *4.2.1 Retailer management and consumer behavior*

116 Food waste during distribution and retail attracts much attention. It has been
117 estimated that the food and retail industries are responsible for roughly one third of
118 industry and commercial waste in the UK with volume figures between 18 and 22 mt per
119 annum (Hogg, 2007; WRAP, 2008). There are several common reasons for food waste in
120 these value chain segments, including safety and reputation concerns, forecasting failure,
121 poor storage, inappropriate packaging, and poor handling and transportation (Kantor,
122 1997). According to a research in the UK, some food waste is inevitable, like damaged
123 food during transport or unsold food due to sales lags. A great deal of food waste,
124 however, is avoidable. Much of food waste is caused by failure of management and
125 human error, such as inaccurate forecasting, over-ordering, packaging or labeling
126 mistakes, breakages due to retailers' handling, and human error in inventory. Some
127 waste results from the failure of equipment and insufficient shelf space. Demand
128 changes from the unforeseen variation of weather can also contribute to food waste.
129 Improved market information sharing, performance measurement, cold chain
130 management, worker training, and waste management responsibilities could reduce waste

131 (Mena, 2011).

132 Food waste by consumers is more nuanced. Based on the food waste report from
133 Worldwide Responsible Accredited Production (WRAP) 2008, households in the UK
134 threw away 6.7 million tons of food (excluding drink), which means 270 kg per
135 household per year or 5.3 kg per household per week, valued in \$19.25 billion. A fifth, or
136 about 4.1 million tons of waste, however, is avoidable if it were stored or managed better
137 (WRAP, 2008). Usually households with more occupants will waste more total food but
138 less per person than smaller households. Adults waste more food in absolute terms than
139 children, and households with children waste more than households without children. No
140 significant correlation between food waste and household income is found among Finnish
141 households (Koivupuro et al., 2012).

142 Studies about home food waste are limited. Two possible reasons for home food
143 waste include preparing too much food and not preparing food in time (WRAP, 2008;
144 Parfitt et al., 2010). Too much food yield leftovers that can often go uneaten or can lead
145 to food waste via over eating. Other reasons for not consuming purchased food includes
146 confusions about sold-by, use-by and best-before dates on packages. Some consumers
147 refuse to eat the food which is only several days before the best-before date or the sell-by
148 date in fear of possible health risks.

149 *4.2.2. Inexpensive food*

150 According to standard economic models, people will determine food waste by
151 equating the marginal benefit of wasting to its marginal cost. If people over-estimate
152 low-probability risks of foodborne illness, perhaps in line with common probability
153 weighting models, the expected marginal benefit may be higher than that derived by
154 arms-length expert risk analyses. Moreover, without taking the externality of food
155 waste into consideration, the marginal cost of food waste will be underpriced by
156 households. With over-estimated benefit and under-estimated social costs, food waste will
157 exceed socially optimal levels.

158 *4.2.2.1 Food waste at the retailer level due to inexpensive food*

159 In order to avoid costs from foodborne illness, food firms have incentives to waste
160 food. If firms have product that may have an increased risk profile due to improper
161 cooling, storage or handling, they may choose not to sell the food to the next link in the
162 value chain to avoid risks to reputation, recall costs or legal risks (Daughety &
163 Reinganum, 2011). For example, in the Sara Lee listeria outbreak case, the company
164 recalled 15 million pounds of hot dogs and deli meat products, and recorded a pretax
165 charge of \$76 million for the recall, various fines and legal settlements (Roe, 2004). The
166 expected losses for the expenditure above are parts of operating costs, and sometimes it
167 can be much greater than the actual harms caused by problematic food. Executing a recall,
168 for example, can induce large negative consequences for the firms. Not only are
169 millions of dollars lost in the legal settlement, but many units of safe food which should
170 have been part of firms' revenue and part of consumer meals will be wasted and thrown
171 away or directly to lower value uses. Therefore, when estimating the expected loss from

172 the suspicious food, both the potential legal cost and the huge loss from the recalled safe
 173 food will be counted, and the total number might be much higher than the value of
 174 suspicious food itself. Furthermore, sometimes consumers may over-react or exaggerate
 175 the health related risk of suspicious food. Since retailers will either directly or indirectly
 176 compensate consumers for the food they ‘feel’ unsafe, retailers will also over-estimate the
 177 probability of the food being risky and exaggerate the damage that the seemingly unsafe
 178 food could result in, as consumers do. To minimize the expected cost of suspicious food,
 179 whose harm and probability may be over-estimated, retailers may lean toward discarding
 180 problematic food and waste edible but seemingly unsafe food. By providing safer or at
 181 least seemingly safer food, a better reputation might be gained and a higher price could
 182 be charged for the increased quality and demand (Buzby & Frenzen, 1999). The expected
 183 loss avoided by wasting food and the expected gain from the seemingly better food is the
 184 benefit of the food waste for the firms.

185 Compared to the benefit of food waste, however, the cost of food waste is relatively
 186 low. Without taking the externality of food waste into account, the private cost of waste
 187 only contains the expected forgone revenue of the food and disposal fee. Moreover,
 188 during the food life cycle including producing, processing, transport and resale, some
 189 food is wasted inevitably. Given the benefit of wasting, the sum of food waste cost and
 190 the remaining expected legal expenditure will be lower than the social optimum with
 191 private costs below social costs. With this lower private cost, retailers are able to buy
 192 more food and result in extra food waste during the food’s life cycle. The “inevitable
 193 waste” brought about by under-estimated cost should have been avoided if the cost of
 194 food waste valued its externality. Based on the over-estimated benefit and the
 195 under-valued cost, firms will waste more than the social optimal level.

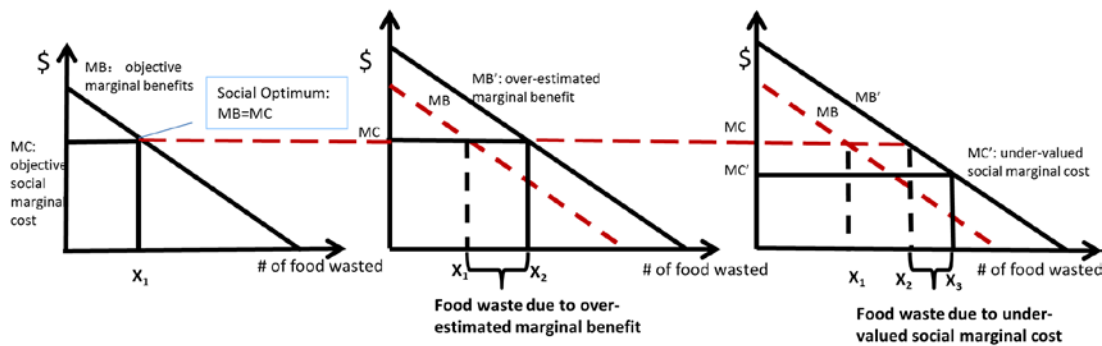


Figure 1.1. Food waste under objective social marginal costs and marginal benefits

Figure 1.2. Food waste when marginal benefits of waste are over-estimated

Figure 1.3. Food waste when marginal benefits are over-estimated and social costs don't internalize the externalities

196 *4.2.2.2 Food waste at the consumer level due to inexpensive food*

197 In some countries and eras, and for some consumers with higher incomes, food

198 available in private retail markets may be so inexpensive that they are able to afford
199 waste and so are less careful about managing potential food waste. Such consumers
200 may prefer to fully insulate themselves from the health risks of home prepared foods that
201 have been mishandled or whose preparation has been delayed by employing the ‘when in
202 doubt, throw it out’ heuristic. Given the low probability of successful legal cases in the
203 event of foodborne illness, the benefits of food waste for consumers are the expected
204 avoided damages, including avoided pain, suffering, time loss and all other health and
205 financial costs. They might over-estimate the health risk due to the lack of accurate
206 health information, misperception of what they may suffer from the potential foodborne
207 illness, or the confusions about ‘sell-by’, ‘use-by’, and ‘best-by’ package dates. The
208 cost of the waste, however, is likely under-valued by consumers on several fronts. In
209 addition to the unaccounted externalities mentioned earlier, consumers may further
210 under-estimate the cost of food waste because they may not remember the amount they
211 spent on food items, or the people who prepare food and dictate waste are not the same
212 people who purchased the food, so that the actual food wasters are unaware of the cost of
213 wasting. With tendencies to over-estimate health risks and forget costs, we can expect
214 consumers to waste much more food than is socially optimal.

215 *4.2.3. Food waste due to over-nutrition*

216 Relatively inexpensive food may also induce consumers to eat more than needed to
217 maintain a healthy body weight. The actual daily food requirement ranges between
218 1,500-2,000 kcal/capita for adult females and 2,000-2,600 kcal/capita for adult males,
219 with a weighted mean for entire population of around 2,000 kcal/capita. To provide an
220 adequate safety margin and take inevitable food losses into consideration, 30% of food
221 should be added to the mean, which means no more than around 2,600 kcal/capita is
222 required to maintain body demand and food security. According to FAO’s food balance
223 sheet, however, all high-income countries have more than 3,000 kcal/capita per day
224 available at retail level. The differences between the current calories supplied and
225 required could supply another 350 million people in the high-income countries, or twice
226 as many people with Asian diet which consists of primarily vegetarian calories. The
227 supply and pricing of food in higher-income countries often result in high rates of obesity
228 and commensurate health costs (Smil, 2004a). In 2001-2002, 65.7% of adults in the US
229 were either overweight or obese (Hedley et al., 2004), and Healthy People 2010 identified
230 over-weight and obesity as one of the ten leading health indicators (Healthy People,
231 2010).

232 Note that food energy content is less related to food cost than to the type of food
233 chosen. Some healthy foods like fresh fruit and vegetables may have low energy
234 (calorie) content but may have relatively higher cost for people to maintain body
235 functions than energy intense food, because they may require more labor during the
236 production and processing and more advanced transportation and preservation technology.
237 A study in European finds that 15% of an EU sample mentioned price as a barrier to
238 healthy eating (Pollard, Kirk & Cade, 2002; Lappalainen et al., 1997). Substantial

239 research has documented that food insecurity could be a significant predictor of obesity
240 and overweight, even after controlling for socioeconomic, demographic, government
241 assistance, environmental and lifestyle variables (Dinour, Bergen & Yeh, 2007; Townsend
242 et al., 2001; Olson, 1999). People in food insecurity group may prefer cheaper
243 energy-intense food to healthier but more expensive low energy food. As a result, for
244 some foods wasted in the form of over-nutrition, the reason why energy intake increases
245 is not because food is so cheap, but rather because food insecure individuals could eat
246 more energy intensive food on a given budget.

247 *4.2.4 Food waste due to large packages*

248 Inappropriate package design could also result in food waste. The following are
249 common reasons mentioned for food waste: “buying too much,” “multi-packs,” “buy one
250 get one,” “food gone past its sell-by date,” and “package too large to empty.” (Cox &
251 Downing, 2007) 30% of consumers believe that large packages are one potential reason
252 for food waste according to a Norwegian study. A survey in Swedish found that 20-25%
253 of food waste in the households is related to packaging issues (Williams et al., 2012).
254 Few households in this survey mentioned the impact of over-consumption due to large
255 packages on “food item gone bad.” If taking the unnoted over-consumption into
256 account, the food waste attributable to packaging will be even greater. Nevertheless,
257 concerns about the environmental impact of discarded packages could prevent the
258 improvement of package design. In UK, almost three-quarters of people agree that
259 ‘discarded food packaging is a greater environmental issue than food thrown away.’
260 (WRAP, 2007a). On the contrary, research has demonstrated that food with appropriate
261 smaller package, which are easy to empty and reseal and provide correct information
262 about content and best-before-use (Löfgren, Witell & Kano, 2005), will almost certainly
263 have less environmental impacts than food sold in larger packages (Williams et al., 2012).

264 *4.2.5 Food waste due to large portion size*

265 Portion size could also exert powerful effects on the amount of people intake
266 (Herman & Polivy, 2005). Studies have demonstrated that larger portion sizes are likely
267 to induce people to intake more food and energy by providing visual illusions and biased
268 perceptions of the amount of food they consumed (Van Ittersum & Wansink, 2011;
269 Diliberti et al., 2004; Rolls, Roe & Meengs, 2007). According to a field experiment,
270 buffets in hotel restaurants are able to reduce around 20% of food waste, simply by
271 reducing plate size and providing social cues that encourage consumers to serve
272 themselves more than once (Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013).

273 **5. Rebound Effects**

274 In this section we explore the potential that reductions in food waste may have
275 general equilibrium effects that offset the initial food savings induced by food waste
276 reduction initiatives. This ‘rebound effect’ has origins in the energy economics
277 literature (van den Bergh, 2011) but is likely relevant for food waste scenarios too. A
278 canonical example was the rapid depletion of England’s coal reserves in response to an

279 exogenous improvement in coal-use efficiency (Jevons, 1865). In the food waste case,
280 rebound effect exists as well.

281 Consider an exogenous technology advance which could decrease supply-side food
282 waste. The first consequence of this efficiency improvement is that a portion of the
283 saved food will be wasted by the consumer so that the food waste at consumer level will
284 increase and the total food saved by the technological advance will be less than we expect.
285 Furthermore, a drop in supply-side waste could decrease input use, which through
286 decreased input prices, could yield more output via general equilibrium adjustments,
287 which may result in even more food output. However, a part of the newly increased
288 output will again give more waste on the demand side. Finally, in the market, the
289 increased food supply will drive down the food price, meaning the marginal cost of food
290 waste in the eyes of the consumer will decrease. Therefore, we could expect more food
291 will be wasted due to the inexpensive food issue discussed earlier. The rebound effect
292 of an exogenous technology reduction in supply side food waste consists of these and
293 other possible general equilibrium adjustments that might offset the initial gain in food
294 supply. Hence, policy interventions or technology advances aimed at reducing food
295 waste may be overstated if the rebound effect is not considered (van den Bergh, 2011).

296 **6. Waste Management**

297 While it may be first best to prevent food waste in the supply chain and avoid both
298 over-consumption and over-eating, the realistic issue remains concerning how to
299 sustainably manage the food that is wasted. According to the food recovery hierarchy
300 from Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), a series of management approaches from
301 the most preferred to the least preferred, are to feed hungry people, feed animals, recover
302 for industrial use, compost, and then landfill or incinerate. We can also simplify it as
303 '3Rs', Re-use, Recycle, and Recovery (Mohanty, 2011), and disposal.

304 There are many ways to reuse surplus or imperfect food. For example, a French
305 supermarket, Intermarché, sells ugly fruit and vegetables in a separate section with 30%
306 discount, instead of discarding the items (Galliot, 2014). In Boston, people are planning
307 to launch stores selling food just past the labeled date or food discarded by supermarket at
308 very low price to feed people suffering from food insecurity (NPR, 2013). Nonprofit
309 organizations, including food bank, food pantries, and neighborhood charity outlets, are
310 established to collect food and offer it to hungry people. Farmers and retailers could
311 donate unharvested, unsold, or other imperfect food to such organizations, and, at the
312 same time, save a large number of waste-removal fees (Kantor et al., 1997). Volunteers in
313 these organizations will review all the donated food and distribute it to food insecure
314 people. In this way, food is re-used by needy people and donors could also benefit from
315 a reduction in disposal costs.

316 For food that is not good enough for humans, it can be recycled into animal feed. If
317 recycling food into animal feed is not feasible, it may be efficient to convert it into
318 biofuel or to convert it into a nutrient-rich soil amendment via composting since at least

319 food decay in compost presented with oxygen will not produce methane, a potent
320 greenhouse gas (Gardiner, 2014). Finally, after all the efforts above are exhausted,
321 disposal in landfill will be the last and the least favorable choice.



Figure 2. Food Recovery Hierarchy

322 7. Conclusion

323 In this review we summarize possible causes of food waste, potential methods to
324 reduce the waste and methods to manage the wasted food sustainably. In developing
325 countries, considerable food can be saved by improvement of infrastructure, integration
326 of markets, and improved rural credit. In developed countries, food waste is related to
327 firms and consumer behaviors that may be based on private costs that do not include
328 social costs such as the externalities associated with food waste and the over-estimation
329 of the benefits of food wasted associated with the avoidance of damages from foodborne
330 illness. Information programs clarifying food related health risks and the interpretation
331 of best-by, use-by, and sell-by label dates may help consumers recognize food that can be
332 harmful to them and estimate the harm of marginal food more rationally. Programs
333 informing consumers about the environmental externality of food waste may help people
334 to better understand the cost of food waste. With greater and more reliable information,
335 consumers and so that firms could make better decisions and at least reduce food waste
336 induced by asymmetric information (Gilligham, Newell & Palmer, 2009). To internalize
337 the externalities of food waste, Pigouvian taxes on food waste such as those recently
338 implemented in Korea might be considered for broader implementation. Taxes on food
339 could also curb waste by incentivizing consumers to waste less food, but such policies

340 can also exacerbate the food insecurity situation of lower income individuals.
341 Nevertheless, estimation of the social benefits and social costs including the externality of
342 food waste are required to set appropriate policy interventions and, to our knowledge, this
343 information has not been robustly estimated. Further research concerning these issues is
344 essential to analyzing food waste behavior, reducing waste, and increase economic
345 efficiency and sustainability

346 **Reference**

- 347 Baulcombe D., et al. 2009. Reaping the benefits: science and the sustainable
348 intensification of global agriculture. London, UK: The Royal Society.
- 349 Bloom, J., 2010. American Wasteland. Da Capo Press, Cambridge, MA
- 350 Buzby, J.C., Hyman, J., 2012. Total and per capita value of food loss in the United States.
351 Food Policy 37, 561–570.
- 352 Buzby, J. C., and P. D. Frenzen. (1999). Food safety and product liability. Food Policy 24,
353 637S651.
- 354 Cox, J., Downing, P., 2007. Food Behaviour Consumer Research: Quantitative
355 Phase. WRAP, Banbury UK. Retrieved March 15 2011 from:
356 [http://www.wrap.org.uk/downloads/Food_behaviour_consumer_research_quantitati](http://www.wrap.org.uk/downloads/Food_behaviour_consumer_research_quantitative_jun_2007.0a80ed7d.6393.pdf)
357 [ve_jun_2007.0a80ed7d.6393.pdf](http://www.wrap.org.uk/downloads/Food_behaviour_consumer_research_quantitative_jun_2007.0a80ed7d.6393.pdf).
- 358 Daughety, A.F., and J.F. Reinganum. 2011. A dynamic model of lawsuit joinder and
359 settlement. RAND Journal of Economics 42: 471-494
- 360 DEFRA, 2011, Government Review of waste policy in England;
- 361 Dinour LM, Bergen D, Yeh MC. 2007. The food insecurity-obesity paradox: a review of
362 the literature and the role of food stamp may play. Journal of the American Dietetic
363 Association.; 107: 1952-1961;
- 364 Diliberti N, Bordi PL, Conklin MT, Roe LS, Rolls BJ. 2004. Increased portion size leads
365 to increased energy intake in a restaurant meal. Obesity Research; 12:562 – 8.
- 366 Foley JA, et al. 2011. Solutions for a cultivated planet. Nature 418: 617-677
- 367 FAO. 1981 Food loss prevention in perishable crops. FAO Agricultural Service Bulletin.
368 No. 43, FAO Statistics Division
- 369 FAO. 2008 Information sheet—household metal silos: key allies in FAO’s fight against
370 hunger. See: www.fao.org/ag/ags/publications/docs/misc/siloSElight.pdf.
- 371 FAO. 2011 Global food losses and food waste: extend, cause, and prevention. See:
372 <http://www.fao.org/docrep/014/mb060e/mb060e.pdf>.
- 373 Gardiner Beth 2014. The economic and environmental costs of wasted food.
374 [http://www.nytimes.com/2014/04/22/business/energy-environment/the-economic-a](http://www.nytimes.com/2014/04/22/business/energy-environment/the-economic-and-environmental-costs-of-wasted-food.html?_r=0)
375 [nd-environmental-costs-of-wasted-food.html?_r=0](http://www.nytimes.com/2014/04/22/business/energy-environment/the-economic-and-environmental-costs-of-wasted-food.html?_r=0)
- 376 Gilligham, K.T., Newell, R.G., Palmer, K. 2009. Energy efficiency economics and policy.
377 Annual Review of Resource Economics 1 597–620.
- 378 Godfray, H. C. J, et al. 2010. Food security: the challenge of feeding 9 billion people.
379 Science 327, 812-818;
- 380 Grizzetti B, Pretato U, Lassaletta L, Billen G, Garnier J. 2013. The contribution of food
381 waste to global and European nitrogen pollution. Environmental Science and Policy
382 33: 186-195.;

383 Gustavsson, J., Cederberg, C., Sonesson, U., Van Otterdijk, R.& Meybeck, A. 2011.
384 Global food losses and food waste section 3.2. FAO
385 Healthy People. 2010. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: US Dept of Health and Human Services
386 Hedley AA, Ogden CL, Johnson CL, Carroll MD, Curtin LR, Flegal KM. Prevalence of
387 overweight and obesity among US children, adolescents, and adults, 1999–2002.
388 Journal of the American Medical Association. 2004; 291: 2847–2850.
389 Herman CP, Polivy J. 2005. Normative influences on food intake. *Physiology & Behavior*.
390 86:762–72
391 and less developed countries: opportunities to improve resource use. *Journal of*
392 *Agricultural Science*. 149:37–45
393 Hogg, D., Barth, J., Schleiss, K., and Favoino, E., (2007). WRAP. Dealing with food
394 wastes in the UK. Eunomia Research & Consulting Ltd, Bristol, UK.
395 Jevons WS (1865) The coal question: an inquiry concerning the progress of the nation,
396 and the probably exhaustion of our coal-mines. Macmillan and Co, London
397 Kallbekken S, Sælen H. ‘Nudging’ hotel guests to reduce food waste as a win–win
398 environmental measure. *Economics Letters* 2013;119(June (3)):325–7.
399 Kantor, L.S., K. Lipton, A. Manchester, and V. Oliveria. 1997. Estimating and addressing
400 America’s food losses. *Food Review* 20 (1): 2–12.
401 Koivupuro, H., Hartikainen, H., Katajajuuri, J.-M., Silvennoinen, K., Heikintalo, N.,
402 Reinikainen, A., Jalkanen, L., 2012. Influence of socio-demographical, behavioural
403 and attitudinal factors on the amount of avoidable food waste generated in Finnish
404 households. *International Journal of Consumer Studies*. 36 (2), 183e191.
405 Lappalainen R, Saba A, Holm L, Mykkanen H, Gibney MJ & Moles A. 1997. Difficulties
406 in trying to eat healthier: descriptive analysis of perceived barriers for healthy
407 eating. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition* 51, Suppl. 2, S36–S40.
408 Lucia, M. D., & Assennato, D. (1994). Agricultural engineering in
409 development—post-harvest operations and management of foodgrains. In FAO
410 Agricultural Services Bulletin. Food and Agricultural Organization of the United
411 Nations.
412 Löfgren M, Witell L. Kano’s theory of attractive quality and packaging. 2005. *Quality*
413 *Management Journal*;12:7-20
414 Lorena Galliot. 2014. The latest French fashion: eating ugly fruits and veggies.
415 <http://grist.org/food/the-latest-french-fashion-eating-ugly-fruits-and-veggies/>
416 Mena C, Adenso-Diaz B, Yurt O. The causes of food waste in the supplier–retailer
417 interface: evidences from the UK and Spain. *Resources, Conservation and*
418 *Recycling* 2011;55(6):648–58.
419 Mohanty. 2011. Reduce, reuse and recycle and resource efficiency as the basis for
420 sustainable waste management. United Nations Center for Regional Development.
421 NPR. 2013. Trader Joe’s ex-president to turn expired food into cheap meals.
422 [http://www.npr.org/blogs/thesalt/2013/09/21/222082247/trader-joes-ex-president-to](http://www.npr.org/blogs/thesalt/2013/09/21/222082247/trader-joes-ex-president-to-turn-expired-food-into-cheap-meals)
423 [-turn-expired-food-into-cheap-meals](http://www.npr.org/blogs/thesalt/2013/09/21/222082247/trader-joes-ex-president-to-turn-expired-food-into-cheap-meals)
424 Olson CM. 1999. Nutrition and health outcomes associated with food insecurity and
425 hunger. *Journal of Nutrition*. 129(suppl):521S-524S.
426 Parfitt, J., Barthel, M. & Macnaughton, S. 2010. Food waste within food supply chains:
427 quantification and potential for change to 2050. *Philosophical Transactions of the*
428 *Royal Society B* 365, 3065–3081

429 Papargyropoulou, E., Lozano, R., Steinberger, J.K., Wright, N., Bin Ujang, Z., 2014. The
430 food waste hierarchy as a framework for the management of food surplus and food
431 waste. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 76, 106–115.

432 Pretty, J. 2008. Agricultural sustainability: concepts, principles and evidence.
433 *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B*. (2008) 363, 447–465.

434 Pollard J, Kirk SFL & Cade JE (2002) Factors affecting food choice in relation to fruit
435 and vegetable intake: a review. *Nutrition Research Reviews* 15, 373 – 387.

436 Postel, S.L., G.C. Daily, and P.R.Ehrlich, 1996. Human appropriation of renewable fresh
437 water. *Science* 271:785-788.

438 Roe, B. 2004. Optimal sharing of foodborne illness prevention between consumers and
439 industry: the effect of regulation and liability. *American Journal of Agricultural
440 Economics* 86 (2), 359–374.

441 Rolls BJ, Roe LS, Meengs JS. The effect of large portion sizes on energy intake is
442 sustained for 11 days. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2007;15: 1535–1543.

443 Smith, P. et al. 2008. Greenhouse gas mitigation in agriculture. *Philosophical
444 Transactions of the Royal Society B* 363, 789-813.

445 Smil, V. 2004a Improving efficiency and reducing waste in our food food system. *Journal
446 of Integrative Environmental Sciences*. 1, 17-26

447 Stuart, T. 2009 *Waste, uncovering the global food scandal*. London, UK: Penguin.

448 Tilman, D., Balzer, C., Hill, J. & Befort, B.L. 2011. Global food demand and the
449 sustainable intensification of agriculture. *Proceedings of the National Academy of
450 Sciences USA* 108, 20260-20264.

451 Townsend MS, Peerson J, Love B, Achterberg C, Murphy SP. 2001. Food insecurity is
452 positively related to overweight in women. *Journal of Nutrition*. 131:1738–45;

453 Van Ittersum K, Wansink B. 2011. Plate size and color suggestibility: the Delboeuf
454 illusion’s bias on serving and eating behavior. *Journal of Consumer Research*.
455 39:215–28

456 van den Bergh, J.C.J.M., 2011. Energy conservation more effective with rebound
457 policy. *Environmental Resource Economics* 48, 43–58

458 Williams, H., Wikström, F., Otterbring, T., Löfgren, M., Gustafsson, A., 2012. Reasons
459 for household food waste with special attention to packaging. *Journal of Cleaner
460 Production* 24, 141e148. doi:10.1016/j.jclepro.2011.11.044.

461 World Bank, *World Envelopment Report 2008: Agriculture for Development*

462 WRAP, 2007a. *We Don’t Waste Food! A Householder Survey*. WRAP, Banbury, UK.
463 Retrieved March 22 2011 from:
464 [http://www.wrap.org.uk/downloads/We_don_t_waste_food_-_A_household_survey
465 mar_07.ab9138e0.6397.pdf](http://www.wrap.org.uk/downloads/We_don_t_waste_food_-_A_household_survey_mar_07.ab9138e0.6397.pdf).

466 WRAP. 2008 *The food we waste*. Banbury, UK. ISBN: 1-84405-383-0