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Call for Testing Interventions to Prevent Consumer Food Waste

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23 Abstract

24 Over the last decade, practitioners have implemented various interventions against consumer
25 food waste. In contrast, academics have only just started to examine how to prevent consumer
26 food waste. This review synthesizes practical and academic evidence on anti-consumer-food-
27 waste interventions. The basis for this synthesis was a systematic framework of antecedent
28 interventions (informational intervention, prompts, modeling (social norms), commitment)
29 and consequence interventions (feedback, rewards, penalties) that we have drawn from
30 general behavioral change and intervention research. This review shows that (1) informational
31 interventions are the most commonly used intervention type even though evidence indicates
32 that this intervention type is relatively ineffective, and (2) there is a lack of evidence of the
33 effectiveness of anti-consumer-food-waste interventions. With reference to general behavioral
34 change and intervention literature, we suggest that (1) intervention types other than
35 informational interventions should be considered, and (2) anti-consumer-food-waste
36 interventions should be evaluated in a systematic manner; that is, by using a framework with
37 standardized definitions and measurement methods that addresses specific behaviors and
38 change processes and that allows accurate identification of short-term and long-term effects.
39 Overall, this review outlines current conceptual and methodological challenges and sets an
40 agenda for implementing effective anti-consumer-food-waste interventions.

41

42 *Keywords:* Consumer Food Waste; Green Consumption; Behavioral Change;

43 Behavioral Intervention; Social Marketing

44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 Food waste is an urgent environmental, social, and economic issue. It causes
47 greenhouse gas production and soil depletion (Knipe, 2005; Quested, Ingle, & Parry, 2012;
48 Ventour, 2008), compromises global food security (Godfray et al., 2010), and adds to food
49 price inflation (FAO, 2015). In developed countries, consumers are the single biggest
50 producer of food waste (Beretta, Stoessel, Baier, & Hellweg, 2013; Priefer, Jörissen, &
51 Bräutigam, 2016). In the US, for instance, a consumer wastes 0.28 kg of food per day
52 (Thyberg, Tonjes, & Gurevitch, 2015; for a review of food waste estimates across various
53 developed countries, see Thyberg & Tonjes, 2016). Considering that 65% of this waste could
54 be avoided with more sustainable consumer behavior (Farr-Wharton, Choi, & Foth, 2014a),
55 the urgent need to change behavior is evident.

56 "Food waste" has become a media buzzword over the last decade¹. There are more
57 organizations (e.g., WRAP, FAO) and campaigns (e.g., Love Food Hate Waste) which aim to
58 make consumers aware of food waste and to foster more sustainable food consumption. In
59 contrast to this practical effort, academics have only recently begun to examine anti-
60 consumer-food-waste interventions. So far, academics concerned with consumer food waste
61 have mainly (1) measured the environmental impact (for a review, see e.g., Bernstad &
62 Cánovas, 2016), (2) identified causes, most notably by applying the *Theory of Planned*
63 *Behavior* (TPB) (e.g., Graham-Rowe, Jessop, & Sparks, 2015; Russel, Young, Unsworth, &
64 Robinson, 2017; Stancu et al., 2016; Stefan et al., 2013; Visschers et al., 2016), and (3)
65 proposed policies as well as prevention by calling for awareness campaigns, informational
66 interventions, and education (for a review, see e.g., Hebrok and Boks, 2017; Priefer, Jörissen,
67 & Bräutigam, 2016; Thyberg & Tonjes, 2016). Moreover, some academics have outlined
68 detailed research agendas to better understand the mechanisms underlying consumer food

¹ See Google Trends: <https://trends.google.com/trends/explore?q=foodwaste>

69 waste (for a review, see e.g., Block et al., 2016; Porpino, 2016). Few studies have evaluated
70 concrete interventions to examine to what extent consumer food waste can be reduced or
71 prevented (for exceptions see, e.g., Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013; Whitehair, Shanklin, &
72 Brannon, 2013).

73 Considering the urgent need to reduce food waste, it is important to understand the
74 current state of knowledge on behavioral interventions against consumer food waste in order
75 to implement effective interventions in the future. This review considers both practical and
76 academic insights in order to provide a systematic assessment of anti-consumer-food-waste
77 interventions with the help of general behavioral change literature (e.g., McKenzie-Mohr,
78 2013; Schultz, 2014; Steg, Buunk, & Rothengatter, 2008). So far, the interdisciplinary
79 behavioral change literature has identified many intervention types (e.g., information,
80 prompts) and contextual factors that effectively lead to behavioral change (Schultz, 2014).
81 Although behavioral change studies and campaigns are mostly separated by issue (e.g.,
82 littering) and focus on specific behaviors, they apply the same or similar theories, concepts,
83 methodologies, and procedures (Mick, Pettigrew, Pechmann, & Ozanne, 2012).

84 Overall, this synthesis of practical and academic evidence on general and food-waste-
85 specific interventions reveals two key challenges: First, informational interventions are
86 predominant and it is necessary to conduct other intervention types. Second, there is a general
87 deficiency in evaluating anti-consumer-food-waste interventions, and therefore a need for
88 more systematic evaluation.

89 The structure of this review is as follows: First, we introduce a systematic framework
90 of established types of behavioral change intervention used to promote sustainable consumer
91 behavior. Second, we review practical and academic evidence on anti-consumer-food-waste
92 interventions and link it to evidence from general behavioral change research. Finally, we
93 discuss key findings and suggest future directions for effective anti-consumer-food-waste
94 interventions for both practitioners and academics.

95 2 A Framework of Behavioral Change Interventions

96 There is substantial interdisciplinary research on behavioral change interventions
97 which are intended to foster sustainable consumption. Reviews of the behavioral change
98 literature often adopt a wide-ranging classification framework to sketch the variety of
99 intervention types and the contextual factors that determine whether an intervention is
100 effective (e.g., Geller et al., 1990; McKenzie-Mohr, 2013; Michie, West, Campbell, Brown, &
101 Gainforth, 2014; Schultz, 2014; Steg et al., 2008). Typically, intervention types are
102 categorized as *antecedent* or *consequence*: antecedent interventions alter (the salience of) the
103 context that precedes the target behavior. The most prominent antecedent intervention types
104 are informational interventions, prompts, modeling, and commitment. Consequence
105 interventions alter (the salience of) the consequences of the target behavior. The most
106 prominent consequence interventions are feedback, rewards, and penalties.

107 Although this general twofold classification is said to be simplistic (e.g., Mosler &
108 Tobias, 2007), it meets our requirement for a simple framework within which to
109 systematically review a broad range of intervention types (against consumer food waste). For
110 an overview of this framework and definitions of its intervention types, see Table 1.
111 Comprehensive reviews of these intervention types, including findings on their effectiveness,
112 underlying mechanisms and the role of contextual factors, can be found elsewhere (e.g.,
113 Abrahamse & Matthies, 2012; Abrahamse, Steg, Vlek, & Rothengatter, 2005; Homburg &
114 Matthies, 1998; Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012; Schultz, 2014).

115

116 Table 1

117 *A Systematic Framework of Behavioral Change Interventions*

Intervention	Description	Example	Effect Size (<i>g</i>)	
Antecedent	Informational	Strategies that aim to increase knowledge and skills	Education, training	.31
	Prompts	Verbal or written messages designed to remind people to perform a target behavior	Signs, stickers	.62
	Modeling	Demonstration of a desired target behavior, often building on the influence of social norms	Video portraying certain practices	.63
	Commitment	Asking people to agree to perform a target behavior	Signing pledges, promise cards	.40
Consequence	Feedback	Providing information about the frequency and/or consequences of a target behavior	Printed sheet with statistics of one's resource consumption	.31
	Rewards	Applying positive consequences for a target behavior	Money, special privileges, praise	.46
	Penalties	Applying negative consequences for a target behavior	Monetary penalties	.46

118 *Note.* Systematic framework of antecedent and consequence interventions with descriptions of
 119 intervention types and effect sizes (Hedges' *g*) from Osbaldiston and Schott's (2012) meta-
 120 analysis. Note that several of the meta-analyzed studies confound multiple intervention types.

121

122 **3 A Systematic Review of Antecedent and Consequence Interventions Against**

123 **Consumer Food Waste**

124 We used the framework of antecedent and consequence interventions (see Table 1) to
 125 collect, group, and analyze practical and academic evidence on anti-consumer-food-waste
 126 interventions. The range and nature of this literature strongly determined our search
 127 methodology.

128 **3.1 Search Methodology**

129 For the literature search of practical evidence of anti-consumer-food-waste
 130 interventions, we adopted a case study research approach. Between October 2016 and
 131 September 2017, we searched for current gray literature — that is, reports and website
 132 information from governments and non-governmental organizations — using the Google
 133 search engine. In view of the vast amount of gray literature, we did not intend to obtain a
 134 complete inventory of practical anti-consumer-food-waste interventions. We used the search

135 criteria that the gray literature should address anti-consumer-food-waste interventions that
136 were carried out in developed countries and that reached a high degree of popularity. Further,
137 we only used grey literature that was available in English, German, and/or French. The first
138 author of this paper conducted a content analysis of the collected online information. Based
139 on this, the campaigns and interventions were assigned to one of the intervention types in the
140 framework in Table 1.

141 To find academic evidence of anti-consumer-food-waste interventions, we conducted
142 a systematic literature search between October 2016 and January 2018 using Google Scholar
143 (<https://scholar.google.ch/>) and Peerus (<https://peer.us/>). We used a predefined set of search
144 terms². For all search terms, we screened the first ten Google Scholar search pages and all
145 search results from Peerus. In that way, we collected all articles published in academic
146 journals that qualitatively or quantitatively examined effects of anti-consumer-food-waste
147 interventions in developed countries. Only articles in English were considered. No further
148 search criteria (e.g., date restriction) were set. The literature search resulted in an academic
149 intervention inventory with articles between 2012 and 2018.

150 Within our literature search we limited our focus to anti-consumer-food-waste
151 interventions in developed countries, using the United Nations classifications of *developed*
152 *countries*, *countries in transition*, and *developing countries*³. The rationale for this
153 geographical focus is that there are only a few studies of consumer food waste in countries in
154 transition or developing countries (e.g., Abdelradi, 2018). Furthermore, the percentage of
155 food waste by households is substantially larger in developed countries than in countries in
156 transition or developing countries (for a detailed overview see Lipinski et al., 2013) and

² The search terms used in Google Scholar were: "consumer food waste", "household food waste", "food waste"+intervention", "food waste"+information+intervention, "food waste"+education+intervention, "food waste"+modeling+intervention, "food waste"+commitment+intervention, "food waste"+feedback+intervention, "food waste"+reward+intervention, "food waste"+penalties+intervention, "food waste"+incentive+intervention. The search terms used for Peerus were: "consumer food waste", "household food waste"

³ See <http://unctadstat.unctad.org/EN/Classifications.html>

157 psychological drivers (e.g., attitudes, habits) seem to differ in developed versus other
 158 countries (e.g., Calvo-Porrall, Medin, & Losada-Lopez, 2017; Alamar, Falagán, Aktas, &
 159 Terry, 2018; Ramukhwatho, du Plessis, & Oelofse, 2017). This suggests that effective anti-
 160 consumer-food-waste interventions would need to address different specific behaviors and
 161 psychological drivers for developed and other countries.

162 Table 2 provides an overview of all analyzed practical and academic anti-consumer-
 163 food-waste interventions. The subsequent general and food-waste-specific descriptions of all
 164 intervention types and their assessments provide a basis for discussing patterns of effective
 165 anti-consumer-food-waste interventions. This, in turn, raises a number of questions that will
 166 help to develop a research agenda to better understand how consumer food waste can be
 167 effectively reduced.

168 Table 2

169 *An Overview of Analyzed Anti-Consumer-Food-Waste Interventions*

Intervention		Number of Practical Interventions	Number of Academic Interventions	Total Number of Interventions
Antecedent	Informational	17 (81%)	3 (30%)	20 (65%)
	Prompts	1 (5%)	2 (20%)	3 (10%)
	Modeling	1 (5%)	1 (10%)	2 (6%)
	Commitment	2 (10%)	1 (10%)	3 (10%)
Consequence	Feedback, Rewards and Penalties	-	3 (30%)	3 (10%)
Total		21 (100%)	10 (100%)	31 (100%)

170 *Note.* Systematic overview of the number of all analyzed practical and academic anti-
 171 consumer-food-waste interventions according to the taxonomy of intervention types in Table
 172 1. The percentages in brackets represent the proportion of the analyzed intervention types
 173 within all (practical and/or academic) interventions. (Percentages do not add up to 100% due
 174 to rounding.)

175

176 **3.2 Informational Intervention**

177 In general, informational interventions are the intervention type most frequently
178 applied to promote sustainable behavior. Informational interventions aim to increase
179 knowledge and skills, and are based on the assumption that providing information about the
180 negative consequences of an undesired behavior (e.g., wasted resources) and the positive
181 consequences of a desired behavior (e.g., saved resources) creates problem awareness and
182 changes behavior. However, information alone seldom changes behavior, but has often been
183 successful in combination with other intervention types (Kollmuss & Agyeman, 2002;
184 McKenzie-Mohr, 2013; Steg et al., 2008). Osbaldiston and Schott (2012) meta-analyzed the
185 effects of common intervention types (see Table 1) and substantiated this by showing that
186 informational interventions are less effective than other intervention types (i.e., relatively low
187 average effect size; $g = .31$).

188 Our review of practical informational interventions in the domain of consumer food
189 waste reveals that there are three noteworthy peculiarities (see Table 3). First, real-world
190 campaigns almost exclusively implement informational interventions rather than other
191 intervention types such as prompts or commitment (see Table 2). General intervention
192 research shows that campaigns are more successful when informational interventions are
193 complemented with other intervention types (e.g., prompts or commitment; Abrahamse &
194 Matthies, 2012; Steg et al., 2008).

195 Second, most practical campaigns employ multiple non-personal and personal
196 communication channels to convey diverse types of information (see Table 3). Frequently
197 used channels include informative videos, websites, social networks (e.g., Facebook),
198 brochures, workshops, and events that inform consumers about the issue of food waste and its
199 link to food sustainability and environmental consequences (i.e., declarative knowledge), as
200 well as tips for household practices (i.e., procedural knowledge). In general, the extensive use
201 of diverse communication channels is beneficial as it increases the likelihood of reaching a

202 wide audience. However, no evaluation or comparison of the effectiveness of these
203 communication channels exists for the field of consumer food waste (see Table 3). The
204 general social marketing literature urges communicators to match communication channels to
205 the target group and to message content (e.g., Lee & Kotler, 2015). The effectiveness of a
206 communication channel depends on whether personal contact is made, on its medium (i.e.,
207 visual, auditory, print, electronic), and on its ability to transmit complex information
208 (Friedman & Sheppard, 2007; Kotler & Zaltman, 1971; Kreuter & Wray, 2003; Myhre &
209 Flora, 2000). Although the diverse communication channels available for interventions
210 against consumer food waste have not yet been evaluated, it seems that practitioners orient
211 themselves toward general intervention research. The “KiNa” campaign (see Table 3), for
212 instance, uses multiple (non-)personal communication channels and adopts evidence on the
213 importance of harmonizing communication channels with the target group and information
214 type. Specifically, this target-group-oriented campaign aims to educate kindergarten children
215 with trained mentors and provides educational material such as films and websites that are
216 suitable for children.

217 Third, our review reveals that, although informational interventions are popular among
218 practitioners, there is a lack of evidence for their effectiveness. As shown in Table 3,
219 practitioners have seldom evaluated their campaigns and have even more seldom used a
220 systematic evaluation scheme. Related to this is the problem that it is not yet known which are
221 the most valid and practicable variables with which to measure consumer food waste. Such
222 variables are required to measure the effect of interventions. Another methodological problem
223 is that it is often impossible to distinguish between the effect of a campaign as a whole and
224 the effects of single (informational) interventions.

225 In sum, it is evident that informational intervention is the most popular intervention
226 amongst practitioners. Evaluation measures are needed in order to overcome numerous

227 methodological challenges and to ensure a systematic, unconfounded comparison of
228 individual informational interventions.

229 Unlike practitioners, academics have not often examined informational interventions
230 against consumer food waste, but repeatedly recommend this intervention type. An empirical
231 test that examined the impact of informational interventions on different communication
232 channels (Facebook page and e-newsletter) from a national retailer over time did find
233 reductions in self-reported food waste behavior (Young, Russel, Robinson, & Barkemeyer,
234 2017). However, the effect was also found for people that did not remember the informational
235 intervention (i.e., the control group) and the reported effect size (0.01) induced a controversy
236 over its behavioral significance (see Grainger & Stewart, 2017; Young, Russel, &
237 Barkemeyer, 2017).

238 It seems that some academics recommend informational interventions (e.g., Garrone,
239 Melacini, & Perego, 2014; Gruber, Holweg, & Teller, 2016; Kantor, Lipton, Manchester, &
240 Oliveira, 1997; Lorek & Spangenberg, 2001; Parfitt et al., 2010) without discussing the
241 evidence that informational interventions are often not sufficient to change behavior. Stancu,
242 Haugaard and Lähteenmäki (2016), for instance, recommended informational interventions to
243 improve household routines and thus reduce food waste. Other studies (e.g., Carlsson-
244 Kanyama, 2004; Jörissen, Priefer, & Bräutigam, 2015; Priefer, Jörissen, & Bräutigam, 2016)
245 discussed the need to educate consumers and recommended or acknowledged addressing food
246 waste issues in school curricula with material such as factsheets and lesson plans.

247 In sum, the few reviewed academic studies on informational interventions against
248 consumer food waste point towards promising implementations of informational campaigns
249 (see Table 3). Yet, the small effect size and possible rebound effects (e.g., when additionally
250 informing consumers about composting effects and opportunities) accentuate the need for
251 further evaluation (see Qi & Roe, 2017; Romani, Grappi, Bagozzi & Barone, 2017; Young,
252 Russel, Robinson, & Barkemeyer, 2017).

253 Overall, informational interventions are the most frequently used intervention type in
254 practice and are commonly recommended within the academic food waste literature. This is
255 troublesome, as there is evidence that informational interventions alone are ineffective in
256 changing consumer behavior. Thus, practitioners as well as academics are urged to redouble
257 their efforts to evaluate the effectiveness of informational interventions.

258 Table 3

259 *Informational Interventions Against Consumer Food Waste*

Practical Interventions			
Campaign (Origin, Start), Initiator	Description	Aim	Evaluation
Love Food Hate Waste (UK, 2007), NGO (WRAP) ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ⁴ , many communication channels: digital/online (e.g., TV, app, website, Facebook, YouTube), print (e.g., brochures), and audio (e.g., radio), personal (e.g., PR, events)	Provision of declarative knowledge (e.g., food waste consequences) and procedural knowledge (e.g., how to avoid impulse buying with shopping lists)	24% food waste decrease in UK households from 2007 to 2012 (from 210 kg to 160 kg per household per year) ⁵ Limitations: Most comprehensively evaluated campaign; no independent evaluation, no evaluation of individual interventions, methodological bias (e.g., social desirability due to self-report)
Stop Spild Af Mad (DNK, 2008), non-profit consumer movement ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ⁶ many communication channels (similar to the previous campaign)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	Food waste decrease and food waste awareness increase in 2005-2014 Limitations: No independent evaluation, no evaluation of individual interventions, methodological bias (e.g., social desirability due to self-report)
Zu gut für die Tonne (DE), national authority ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ⁷ , many communication channels with a focus on educational material (e.g., brochures and flyers) for schools or exhibitions, public cooperation with diverse stakeholders (e.g., branded takeaway boxes for restaurant leftovers)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation

⁴ <http://www.lovefoodhatewaste.com/>⁵ Note that this decrease could be biased by the financial crisis in 2008 and may be (partially) explained by consumers' diminishing financial situation. (We thank an anonymous reviewer for this insight.)⁶ <http://www.stopspildafmad.dk/>⁷ <https://www.zugutfuerdietonne.de/>

Qui jette un oeuf, jette un boeuf (FR), national authority ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ⁸ , many communication channels (similar to the "Love Food Hate Waste" campaign)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation
De menjar, no en llencemni mica (SPAN), national authority/NGO ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ⁹ , many communication channels (similar to the "Love Food Hate Waste" campaign)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation
Foodwise (AU, 2009), NGO ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ¹⁰ , many communication channels with a focus on social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, Pinterest, Instagram, blogs)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation
Reduisons nos dechets (FR, 2009), national authority ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ¹¹ , many communication channels (similar to the "Love Food Hate Waste" campaign)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation
Foodwaste TV (DE, 2010), NGO ^a	Awareness campaign, video-based information (YouTube channel ¹²)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	Various videos with more than 165,000 views; no further evaluation Limitations: No systematic/empirical evidence of the intervention's effect
GreenCook (EU), NGO ^a	Comprehensive awareness campaign ¹³ , many communication channels (similar to the "Love Food Hate Waste" campaign)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation

⁸ <http://agriculture.gouv.fr/anti-gaspi/anti-gaspi>

⁹ <https://nollencemnimica.wordpress.com/>

¹⁰ <http://www.foodwise.com.au/>

¹¹ <http://www.casuffitlegachis.fr/>

¹² <https://www.youtube.com/user/foodwastetv>

¹³ <http://www.green-cook.org/-The-project-.html>

Food Cycle (UK, 2009), NGO ^a	Awareness campaign ¹⁴ , many communication channels (similar to the "Love Food Hate Waste" campaign), distribution of meals to needy people to use up surplus food	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge, use of surplus food	No evaluation	
Taste the Waste (DE, 2011), NGO ^a	Film about food waste ¹⁵ that raises awareness of food waste and its global consequences	Provision of declarative knowledge	No evaluation	
Feeding the 5000 (UK, 2009), NGO ^a	Event to raise awareness of global food waste by serving up a feast for 5,000 people made from surplus food	Provision of declarative knowledge	No evaluation	
Appetite for Action (IRL/UK, 2009), NGO ^a	Website for schools ¹⁶ that offers free educational material (e.g., lesson plans, fact sheets, and films)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation	
This is Rubbish (UK, 2009), NGO ^{a, b}	Awareness campaign ¹⁷ , many communication channels	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation	
Stop Food Waste (IRL, 2009), national authority ^{a, b}	Comprehensive awareness campaign ¹⁸ , many communication channels (similar to the "Love Food Hate Waste" campaign)	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation	
KiNa (DE, 2009), local authority ^c	Educational project for kindergartens ¹⁹ that provides educational material, trains mentors, and offers workshops	Provision of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge	No evaluation	
Academic Interventions				
Reference	Description	Theoretical Basis	Effect Measurement	Limitations

¹⁴ <http://foodcycle.org.uk/>

¹⁵ <http://tastethewaste.com/>

¹⁶ <http://appetiteforaction.org.uk/> [no longer active]

¹⁷ <http://www.thisisrubbish.org.uk/projects/>

¹⁸ <http://www.stopfoodwaste.ie/>

¹⁹ <http://www.nachhaltigkeit-im-kindergarten.de/kina.aspx>

Young, Russel, Robinson, & Barkemeyer (2017)	Examination of retailer magazine/e-newsletter/Facebook pages as sources for messages to encourage food waste reduction. National survey measured self-reported food waste behavior prior and post intervention (two weeks after and five months after intervention)	Social influence theory was used to develop and implement intervention	Reduction of self-reported food waste over time for treatment group (retailer e-newsletter/Facebook pages) and the control group	Small effect size of 0.01 questions its behavioral significance (see Grainger & Stewart, 2017)
Romani, Grappi, Bagozzi, & Barone (2018)	Field experiment testing educational intervention in the form of an educational article on how to organize menus (aiming to increase food preparation skills)	TPB and its extensions was used to develop and implement intervention	Reduction of self-reported food waste, effect mediated by improvement of perceived skills	Mediation is marginally significant, methodological bias (e.g., social desirability due to self-report)
Qi & Roe (2017)	Examination of informational intervention in a laboratory-dining situation with a 2x2 factorial design (<i>information about food waste consequences and mitigating composting effects [yes vs. no] vs. information about handling with unconsumed food of tasting study [waste vs. compost]</i>)	-	Food waste reduction due to food waste/composting information; additional information about composting the unconsumed study food increased food waste	Artificial dining situation

260 *Note.* Overview of practical and academic informational interventions against consumer food waste.

261 Categories for practical interventions: Campaign = name of the campaign; Origin = geographical location; Start = year of launch; Initiator =
 262 organization or type of organization running the campaign; Description = design and communication of the campaign; Aim = intended effect on the
 263 target population and details of the procedure; Evaluation = effect of the campaign (if available) and limitations of available evaluation results.

264 Categories for academic interventions: Reference = source; Description = details of the examined intervention; Theoretical Basis = theory/concept
 265 explicitly used to develop, implement and/or evaluate intervention; Effect Measurement = analysis conducted on the intervention effect; Limitations
 266 = methodological shortcomings of conducted research.

267 Target (population addressed by the campaign): ^aBroad consumer population; ^bBusinesses (e.g., restaurants) and policy makers; ^cChildren.

268 3.3 Prompts

269 In general, prompts are visual or auditory messages that are intended to remind people
270 to perform a desired behavior. Prompts are most effective when they address a clearly defined
271 behavior that is easy to perform (e.g., repetitive rather than one-time), when they are placed
272 where the target behavior occurs, and when they are worded politely (vs. in a demanding
273 manner) (Steg et al., 2008). Prompts are a relatively effective intervention type ($g = .62$;
274 Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012) and can substantially change behavior on a large scale (Schultz,
275 2014; Steg et al., 2008).

276 Our analysis shows that there are only a few practical implementations of prompts
277 against consumer food waste (see Table 4). These implementations were exclusively written
278 messages reminding consumers about food waste and/or requesting a specific behavior such
279 as taking second helpings or not serving too much. As is most suitable for prompts,
280 practitioners placed them near the point where the target behavior occurs (e.g., on the buffet).
281 As shown in Table 4, the application of prompts has been limited to public places. Though
282 consumer food waste largely occurs in private spheres (e.g., consumers' kitchens), we do not
283 know of any practical intervention that asks consumers to place prompts in private places.
284 Further, practitioners did not systematically evaluate the effect of prompts on consumer food
285 waste.

286 From an academic perspective, prompts were repeatedly shown to reduce food waste
287 (Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013; Whitehair et al., 2013). There is experimental evidence for the
288 behavioral effect of prompts in public places, but there is no insight into the underlying
289 mechanisms (see Table 4). One study (Whitehair et al., 2013) looked at the influence of
290 prompts on beliefs concerning food waste, and found no effect. Future research needs to
291 address the underlying mechanisms of prompts and examine which psychological constructs
292 explain the effect. As with practical implementations, academic examination of prompts

293 against consumer food waste has been limited to those in public spaces. Thus, the question of
294 whether prompts work in private spaces such as consumers' kitchens remains unanswered.

295 Table 4

296 *Prompts Against Consumer Food Waste*

Practical Interventions				
Campaign (Origin, Start), Initiator		Description	Aim	Evaluation
Love Food Hate Waste (UK), NGO (WRAP)/restaurants/hotels ^a		Messages/signs at buffets or on napkins (e.g., asking people to only take what is needed)	Providing information at the point of behavior	No evaluation
Academic Interventions				
Reference	Description	Theoretical Basis	Effect Measurement	Limitations
Whitehair, Shanklin, & Brannon (2013)	Field experiment testing simple print message ('All Taste No Waste - Eat What You Take, Don't Waste Food') addressing students in an university dining facility	Elaboration Likelihood Model of Persuasion was used to develop and implement intervention	15% food waste reduction, no significant influence on beliefs concerning food waste	Insufficient evidence of the underlying processes of the intervention, no direct examination of theoretical basis
Kallbekken & Sælen (2013)	Field experiment testing a social norm sign at the buffet encouraging restaurant guests to help themselves more than once ('Welcome back! Again! And again! Visit our buffet many times. That's better than taking a lot once.')	Nudging Literature	20% food waste reduction	Insufficient evidence of the underlying processes of the intervention

297 *Note.* Overview of practical and academic prompts against consumer food waste.298 Categories for practical interventions: Campaign = name of the campaign; Origin = geographical location; Start = year of launch; Initiator =
299 organization or type of organization running the campaign; Description = design and communication of the campaign; Aim = intended effect on the
300 target population and details of the procedure; Evaluation = effect of the campaign (if available) and limitations of available evaluation results.301 Categories for academic interventions: Reference = source; Description = details of the examined intervention; Theoretical Basis = theory/concept
302 explicitly used to develop, implement and/or evaluate intervention; Effect Measurement = analysis conducted on the intervention effect; Limitations
303 = methodological shortcomings of conducted research.304 Target (population addressed by the campaign): ^aRestaurant/hotel guests.

305 **3.4 Modeling**

306 In general, *modeling* is the demonstration of desired behavior (e.g., in a video or in
307 vivo). Such demonstrations are particularly applicable when the target behavior is complex,
308 and work best when the positive consequences of the desired behavior are highlighted. Yet
309 modeling goes further than the mere demonstration of a behavior. It includes the idea that
310 behavior that conforms to social norms is more likely to be adopted (Osbaldiston & Schott,
311 2012). Indeed, there is considerable evidence to substantiate the power of perceived social
312 influence to direct behavior towards pro-environmental choices (e.g., Griskevicius, Cialdini,
313 & Goldstein, 2008; Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2008; Schultz,
314 Nolan, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2007). Modeling is a relatively effective
315 intervention type ($g = .63$; Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012).

316 Our review (see Table 5) shows that there are few practical applications of modeling
317 against consumer food waste. The "Love Food Hate Waste" campaign by WRAP (UK)
318 provides a video archive with demonstrations of everyday food practices which reduce food
319 waste. Behaviors demonstrated include, for example, how to store, portion, or freeze certain
320 foods. These videos are intended to build household skills related to planning, shopping, and
321 leftover reuse, and thus address important antecedents of consumer food waste (see Stancu et
322 al., 2016). However, practitioners have not yet evaluated the effect of modeling on consumer
323 food waste behavior.

324 From an academic perspective, there seems to be some evidence that there are social
325 norms in terms of food waste (e.g., leftover taking) and that these norms exert social
326 pressure that, in turn, determines food waste behavior (see Table 5; Hamerman, Rudell &
327 Martins, 2018). Future research needs to confirm the influence of social norms on food waste
328 behavior and gain a deeper insight into underlying mechanisms.

329 *Table 5*330 *Modeling (Social Norms) Against Consumer Food Waste*

Practical Interventions				
Campaign (Origin, Start), Initiator		Description	Aim	Evaluation
Love Food Hate Waste (UK, 2007), NGO (WRAP) ^a		Video archive ²⁰ with demonstrations of everyday food practices (e.g., how to store, portion, or freeze certain foods)	Build up household skills related to planning, shopping, and leftover reuse	No evaluation
Academic Interventions				
Reference	Description	Theoretical Basis	Effect Measurement	Limitations
Hamerma n, Rudell & Martins (2018)	Study 1: Survey-based envisioned dining experiment with a 2x2 factorial design (<i>social norm</i> [server establishes taking leftovers as norm vs. no comment of server about taking home leftovers] vs. <i>social situation</i> [known dining companion vs. unknown dining companion]). It was hypothesized that when companions were known there was no need to impress, whereas there was a need to impress when the companion was unknown. Study 2 (follow-up study): Similar to study 1, with additionally testing of whether social desirability of taking leftovers could explain the effect	Literature on impression management, conformity/social norms (partly TPB) was used to develop, implement and evaluate intervention	Greater likelihood of taking leftovers when dining with unknown (vs. known) companion when server sets taking leftovers as norm. Leftover taking was considered as greater norm violation when the customer (vs. server) initiated the leftover taking for dining situation with unknown (vs. known) companion	Artificial dining situation

331 *Note.* Overview of practical and academic modeling (social norm) interventions against consumer food waste.332 Categories for practical interventions: Campaign = name of the campaign; Origin = geographical location; Start = year of launch; Initiator =
333 organization or type of organization running the campaign; Description = design and communication of the campaign; Aim = intended effect on the
334 target population and details of the procedure; Evaluation = effect of the campaign (if available) and limitations of available evaluation results.335 Categories for academic interventions: Reference = source; Description = details of the examined intervention; Theoretical Basis = theory/concept
336 explicitly used to develop, implement and/or evaluate intervention; Effect Measurement = analysis conducted on the intervention effect; Limitations
337 = methodological shortcomings of conducted research.338 Target (population addressed by the campaign): ^aBroad consumer population.²⁰ <https://www.youtube.com/user/LoveFoodHateWasteUK>

339 3.5 Commitment

340 In general, *commitment* is asking people to formally agree (e.g., in writing or verbally)
341 to perform a target behavior. Signing pledges or promise cards increases the likelihood of a
342 person performing the behavior they have committed to (Geller, Kalsher, Rudd, & Lehman,
343 1989; Lokhorst, Werner, Staats, van Dijk, & Gale, 2013; Wang & Katzev, 1990). This is
344 attributed to people's desire to behave, and appear to behave, coherently (Cialdini, 2001).
345 Such behavioral commitment works best when the commitment is public (e.g., pledges posted
346 online), lasting (vs. temporary), specific (vs. general), and when people are already motivated
347 to perform the target behavior (Klöckner & Matthies, 2004; McKenzie-Mohr, 2013).
348 Commitment is an intervention type with moderate effectiveness ($g = .40$; Osbaldiston &
349 Schott, 2012).

350 Our review shows that there are only a few practical applications of classical
351 commitment strategies, such as pledges or promises, within the field of consumer food waste
352 (see Table 6). Most of these are online declarations whereby consumers can sign up to an
353 anti-food-waste community. Most food waste campaigners (e.g., WRAP) use social media
354 platforms (e.g., Facebook) where consumers can publicly commit to the community by liking
355 it. Based on the commitment and self-signaling literature, it is likely that such (public)
356 signaling of one's care about food waste can promote sustainable food practices (see Baca-
357 Motes, Brown, Gneezy, Keenan, & Nelson, 2013).

358 In contrast to these practical examples of commitment, there is only one academic
359 study that we are aware of that examines a commitment intervention in the field of consumer
360 food waste (see Table 6). In fact, the intervention consists of the provision of knowledge (i.e.,
361 recommendations such as only buying as much food as is needed) in combination with a
362 public commitment and a goal-setting strategy. Results suggest that this is effective in
363 improving food waste prevention and the perceived ability to prevent household food waste
364 (Schmidt, 2016a, 2016b). It is noteworthy that this effect was maintained for several weeks.

365 However, since the intervention combined commitment with an informational intervention, it
366 is not possible to single out the particular role of commitment. Future research is needed to
367 better understand the effect of commitment alone on consumers' sustainable food practices,
368 and to learn how it can be used most effectively. It would be of interest to test whether
369 commitment interventions against consumer food waste can activate psychological processes
370 that, for instance, alter attitudes, as has been proposed within the general behavioral change
371 literature (see Cialdini, 1971; Pauling & Land, 1969).

372 *Table 6*373 *Commitment Against Consumer Food Waste*

Practical Interventions				
Campaign (Origin, Start), Initiator		Description	Aim	Evaluation
Global Feedback (UK), NGO ^a		Online pledge to reduce one's food waste ²¹	Encouraging people to commit to avoiding food waste	No evaluation
FoodWise (AU), NGO ^a		Online sign up to the FoodWise community ²²	Encouraging people to commit to avoiding food waste	No evaluation
Academic Interventions				
Reference	Description	Theoretical Basis	Effect Measurement	Limitations
Schmidt (2016a)	Field experiment testing recommendations in combination with a strategy to commit to food waste prevention goals (e.g., after reading a recommendation to avoid impulse purchases, participants were asked to indicate their motivation to follow this)	Integrative influence model of pro-environmental behavior, commitment and goal-setting technique	Pre and post measurement of experimental and control group (survey), improvement in self-reported food waste prevention and perceived ability to do so	Post-test with only a subsample; self-reported food waste prevention (e.g., susceptible to social desirability), no evaluation of single interventions due to confounding of combined interventions (providing information and asking for commitment)

374 *Note.* Overview of practical and academic commitments against consumer food waste.375 Categories for practical interventions: Campaign = name of the campaign; Origin = geographical location; Start = year of launch; Initiator =
376 organization or type of organization running the campaign; Description = design and communication of the campaign; Aim = intended effect on the
377 target population and details of the procedure; Evaluation = effect of the campaign (if available) and limitations of available evaluation results.378 Categories for academic interventions: Reference = source; Description = details of the examined intervention; Theoretical Basis = theory/concept
379 explicitly used to develop, implement and/or evaluate intervention; Effect Measurement = analysis conducted on the intervention effect; Limitations
380 = methodological shortcomings of conducted research.381 Target (population addressed by the campaign): ^aBroad online consumer population consumer population.²¹ <http://feedbackglobal.org/join-movement/>²² <http://www.foodwise.com.au/about-foodwise/sign-up-to-be-foodwise/>

382 **3.6 Consequence Interventions**

383 Unlike antecedent intervention types, the different types of consequence interventions
384 conceptually overlap. Feedback, rewards, and penalties are often not strictly distinguished but
385 rather used in combination. For this reason, in this review we discuss the findings for
386 consequence intervention types within consumer food waste jointly. Nevertheless, we will
387 briefly define all of them individually.

388 *Feedback* is providing people with information about the frequency and/or
389 consequences of a target behavior. This makes the consequences of the desired behavior (e.g.,
390 resources saved) more salient and increases the likelihood of behavior change. Feedback
391 strategies work best when people are already motivated to show the target behavior (Schultz,
392 2010) and when combined with other motivators such as competition (Bittle, Valesano, &
393 Thaler, 1979; Katzev, Cooper, & Fisher, 1981; Katzev & Mishima, 1992). Feedback belongs
394 to the intervention types with the weakest effectiveness ($g = .31$) as meta-analyzed by
395 Osbaldiston and Schott (2012).

396 *Rewards* are positive consequences for people who perform a target behavior, and are
397 intended to increase the frequency of this behavior. Rewards can be delivered in various
398 financial or non-financial forms (e.g., money or praise; Diamond & Loewy, 1991; Jacobs,
399 Fairbanks, Poche, & Bailey, 1982; Slavin, Wodarski, & Blackburn, 1981). But effects are
400 often short-lived and people stop showing the desired behavior as soon as the reward ends.
401 The major reason for this is that rewards motivate behavior change extrinsically but not
402 intrinsically (Steg et al., 2008).

403 Analogously, *penalties* are negative consequences for people who perform an
404 undesired target behavior. Again, the effects are often short-lived. In fact, penalties are often
405 associated with negative emotions and attitudes, and primarily motivate people to avoid the
406 negative consequences rather than perform the desired behavior (Steg et al., 2008).

407 Often, rewards and penalties are preceded by an announcement. An announcement of
408 a reward is usually referred to as an *incentive*, whereas an announcement of a penalty is
409 termed a *disincentive*. Practitioners and academics seldom distinguish between rewards and
410 penalties *with* versus *without* announcement, but instead combine positive and negative
411 consequences for a target behavior. In their meta-analysis, Osbaldiston and Schott (2012)
412 recognize this "inaccuracy," noting that their "reward" intervention also includes strategies
413 that we term penalty, incentive, or disincentive. Based on the effect size that Osbaldiston and
414 Schott (2012) found for rewards ($g = .46$), we conclude that reward and penalty are
415 intervention types of average effectiveness.

416 Within this review, we could only identify a few applications of consequence
417 interventions against consumer food waste. Given that we found these applications (see Table
418 7) in the course of our 'academic literature search', we refer to them as 'academic
419 interventions'. However, all the technology-based interventions we reviewed (Table 7; see
420 also Table 8) were developed and evaluated for real-world application. The examples of the
421 Grumpy Bin and BinCam apps show that apps allow the integration of various consequence
422 strategies. The BinCam, for instance, takes pictures of items thrown away and makes them
423 visible to the BinCam community on Facebook, and provides scores to visualize consumers'
424 food waste behavior. This provides feedback not only to consumers themselves but also to the
425 BinCam Facebook community. Further, the gamification element of increasing (or
426 decreasing) gold bars (depending on one's behavior) constitutes rewards (or penalties) for
427 performing desired (or undesired) food waste behavior (Farr-Wharton et al., 2014a).
428 Evaluation results of the BinCam are mixed and show that technology can have individual,
429 social, and motivational effects that foster more sustainable consumer behavior, but that these
430 effects do not necessarily persist over time (Comber & Thieme, 2013; Thieme et al., 2012).

431 Note that, to date, several practitioners have created apps with the aim of reducing
432 consumer food waste (e.g., WRAP's Love Food Hate Waste app). However, these apps do not

433 implement consequence strategies, but mainly provide household food management tools
434 (e.g., recipes to use up leftovers, a shopping list, a food stock tracker, and a meal and portion
435 planner) and have not yet been sufficiently evaluated.

436 *Table 7*437 *Consequence Interventions Against Anti-Consumer-Food-Waste Interventions*

Reference	Description	Academic Interventions		
		Theoretical Basis	Effect Measurement	Limitations
Altarriba, Lanzani, Torralba, & Funk (2017)	Development of Grumpy Bin, a smart food waste bin designed for student housing which gives feedback on users' waste behavior and empowers users to collectively judge waste actions (food waste pictures are taken and sent to Instagram with sarcastic messages and the opportunity for commenting on others' waste). The Grumpy Bin also expresses moods depending on the waste.	Idea of 'social means' and feedback (behavioral change literature) was considered to develop and implement the intervention	No evaluation	-
Comber & Thieme (2013); Thieme et al. (2012)	Development of BinCam, an app that aims to raise awareness of food waste and support intentions for behavior change. BinCam is coupled with a waste bin that captures and shares food waste images (with a Facebook community). The effect of BinCam is examined with interviews and surveys (pre and post; two weeks)	Literature on behavioral change and TPB was used to develop and implement the intervention	Increase in self-reflection, feelings of shame, awareness of recycling behavior, perceived behavioral control, social influence/pressure (feedback about others' behavior), no effect on attitudes toward recycling; app was perceived as reminder; effects decrease over time (people lost interest)	Methodological bias (e.g., social desirability due to self-report), not representative sample (already good recyclers)

438 *Note.* Overview of feedback, rewards and penalties (or combinations thereof) against consumer food waste.

439 Categories: Reference = source; Description = details of the examined intervention; Theoretical Basis = theory/concept explicitly used to develop,
 440 implement and/or evaluate intervention; Effect Measurement = analysis conducted on the intervention effect; Limitations = methodological
 441 shortcomings of conducted research.

442 **3.7 Extended Analysis of Academic Evidence**

443 Some of the academic articles that the literature search suggested could not be
444 assigned to one of the intervention types in the framework (see Table 1) because they
445 combined several intervention types and/or only discussed an intervention with food waste
446 reduction as a side effect. Although these articles were excluded in the course of the literature
447 search, they are still worth mentioning.

448 As Table 8 reveals, academics have occasionally addressed quite specific interventions
449 that reduce food waste behaviors, such as documentary films (Tadajewski & Hamilton, 2014),
450 cooking classes (Dyen & Sirieix, 2016), or plate size (Wansink & Van Ittersum, 2013). Most
451 of the additional academic articles listed in Table 8 address some form of technology, mostly
452 apps. Although these technologies seem promising and are able to combine numerous
453 effective intervention types, future research is needed to systematically measure their effects.

454 **3.8 Summary**

455 Practitioners have implemented numerous anti-consumer-food-waste interventions
456 across all intervention types in the last decade. According to our review, these are often large-
457 scale campaigns that combine diverse intervention types, with informational interventions
458 being most common. In contrast to practitioners, academics have rarely addressed anti-
459 consumer-food-waste interventions. Overall, our review shows that practitioners and
460 academics have not yet systematically evaluated interventions within the field of consumer
461 food waste.

462 *Table 8*463 *Extended Academic Effort to Examine Anti-Consumer-Food-Waste Interventions*

Academic Interventions				
Reference	Description	Theoretical Basis	Effect Measurement	Limitations
Tadajewski & Hamilton (2014)	Discussion of films/documentaries (<i>Trashed</i> by Brady, 2012; <i>Waste Land</i> by Walker, 2010) as pedagogic tools to demonstrate the complex topic of (food) waste and to raise awareness of the consequences and the need for social change	-	Discussion of effect	No evidence of discussed effect
Dyen & Sirieix (2016)	Examination (observation and interviews) of cooking classes for people living with social instability that aim to provide advice about sustainable consumption and establish food management skills	-	Cooking classes encourage sustainable food practices, increased interest in household skills	Non-representative consumer sample, no evaluation of long-term effects, no quantitative evidence
Wansink & Van Ittersum (2013)	Experimental research on the effect of visual consumption norms (plate size) on food self-serving (quantity) and the underlying mechanism (i.e., the <i>Delboeuf Illusion</i> ; how much food we serve on different sized plates)	Literature on anchors for food consumption and the <i>Delboeuf Illusion</i>	Dinnerware as visual anchor of fill-level, one serves and wastes more food with large versus small plates	Further insight on underlying mechanisms is needed
Sharp, Giorgi, & Wilson (2010)	Discussion of systematic review of practical policy-relevant evidence on interventions against general household waste behavior (e.g., home composting, food waste, smart shopping); what has been learned, and recommendations	-	Range of interventions is more effective than isolated interventions, determining influences of isolated interventions is often not possible in the real world, waste prevention interventions are often not evaluated; recommendation that evaluation of anti-waste interventions are needed in order to optimize their effect	No evidence of discussed effect

Ganglbauer, Fitzpatrick, & Gldenpfennig (2015)	Case study on a mobile food waste diary app that helps to capture food waste and its reasons, aiming to understand and prevent food waste. Qualitative analysis of the free comment entries (reasons and experiences) was conducted	-	App helps to reflect on food waste	Non-representative consumer sample (already motivated people), no quantitative evidence
Yalva, Lim, Hu, Funk, & Rauterberg (2014), Lim et al. (2017)	Development and evaluation (interviews) of a social recipe recommender (app) aiming to reduce food waste by recommending recipes to a group of connected people based on their food and waste logins	-	Increase of awareness of in-home food availability, initiation of food related conversations among users, no perceived food waste reduction	Methodological bias (e.g., social desirability due to self-report)
Foth, Choi, Lyle, & Farr-Wharton (2011)	Exploration and discussion of developing technologies (apps) that motivate healthy and environmentally friendly food practices (e.g., in regard to use of leftovers)	-	Description of technology prototypes that foster desirable food practices (e.g., share food)	No evidence of discussed effect
Farr-Wharton, Foth, & Choi (2012); Farr-Wharton, Choi, & Foth (2014)	Discussion of two interventions: The <i>Colour Code Project</i> (paper-based color scheme for fridges assigning colors to particular foods with the aim to increase the awareness of available food) and the FridgeCam (app to improve supply and location knowledge by means of taking photos from the fridge interior and making them electronically available to household members)	-	Both interventions raised awareness of available food in the fridge, resulting in reduction in expiration of food	No quantitative evidence, methodological bias (e.g., social desirability due to self-report, small sample size)
Farr-Wharton, Foth, & Choi (2013)	Description and discussion of EatChaFood, a prototype app designed to increase food availability and location knowledge of household members with the aim to reduce expired food waste	-	Questionable usability, manual data entry as main barrier, recommendation of automatic scanning of food (barcodes or photos) to prevent manual data entry	No evidence of discussed effect
Farr-Wharton, Choi, & Foth (2014)	Discussion of mobile technology to support behavior change in the field of food waste. Three mobile apps (Fridge Pal, LeftoverSwap and EatChaFood) are discussed by evaluating how each app can influence consumers	-	Apps assist with behavior change due to an increase in food availability and location knowledge, apps can foster social food sharing	No evidence of discussed effect

464 *Note.* Overview of additional academic interventions against consumer food waste.

465 Categories: Reference = source; Description = details of the examined intervention; Theoretical Basis = theory/concept explicitly used to develop,
 466 implement and/or evaluate intervention; Effect Measurement = analysis conducted on the intervention effect; Limitations = methodological
 467 shortcomings of conducted research.

468 **4 Conceptual and Methodological Challenges for Future Research on Anti-**
469 **Consumer-Food-Waste Interventions**

470 Based on the above review of practical and academic anti-consumer-food-waste
471 interventions, we challenge future researchers to (1) address a wider repertoire of intervention
472 types and (2) more systematically evaluate interventions. This section expands on the call for
473 future research by discussing conceptual and methodological challenges, specifically by
474 stressing (1) the potential of learning from general behavioral change literature, (2) the need
475 to systematically implement and test interventions, and (3) the potential of more cooperation
476 between practitioners and academics.

477 **4.1 Learning From Research on Behavioral Change (Interventions)**

478 Research on behavioral change (interventions) is interdisciplinary and vast. Evidence
479 from many social science fields (e.g., consumer and environmental psychology) has
480 contributed to a profound understanding of behavioral change, interventions, and their
481 boundary conditions. (For an overview of behavioral change and intervention research see,
482 e.g., McKenzie-Mohr, 2013; Michie et al., 2014; Steg et al., 2008.) To date, behavioral
483 change (and intervention) researchers have not fully exploited synergies. Research projects
484 are often separated from one another according to the issue that they address. For instance,
485 researchers examining road safety or littering among adults would not necessarily consult
486 researchers examining the perception of environmental pollution or promoting physical
487 activity among children. Yet, these researchers all examine behavioral change and
488 interventions, and are confronted with similar conceptual and methodological challenges
489 (Mick et al., 2012). Although some researchers do not explicitly refer to the general
490 behavioral change literature, several researchers do explicitly apply the broad and
491 interdisciplinary evidence on behavioral change and interventions to the issue of consumer
492 food waste (see e.g., Schmidt, 2016a, 2016b).

493 In the following sections, we react to this criticism and apply lessons from the general
494 behavioral change literature on intervention types to the field of consumer food waste. When
495 surveying general behavioral change research, three learnings stand out as relevant to the field
496 of consumer food waste: first, the limited effectiveness of informational interventions;
497 second, the potential of intervention types other than informational interventions; and third,
498 the limitations of the TPB as a conceptual model for behavioral change.

499 **4.1.1 Questioning the dominance of informational interventions**

500 The wisdom of the predominant use of informational interventions in practical anti-
501 consumer-food waste campaigning is questionable when comparing the relative effectiveness
502 of different intervention types. As shown in Osbaldiston and Schott's (2012) meta-analysis,
503 informational interventions are one of the least effective intervention types. Informational
504 interventions to reduce food waste, which assume that providing knowledge is sufficient to
505 induce behavioral change, are built on an assumption that often doesn't hold (Abrahamse &
506 Matthies, 2012; Abrahamse et al., 2005; Homburg & Matthies, 1998; Osbaldiston & Schott,
507 2012; Schultz, 2002).

508 A further, often-overlooked weakness of providing information on specific food-
509 waste-preventing behaviors is that some consumers do not perceive the information to be
510 relevant because they already perform the behavior. One way to optimize the influence of
511 recommendations is by tailoring information to the consumer so they receive information that
512 addresses behaviors that they do not yet (sufficiently) perform (Schmidt, 2016a, 2016b).
513 Though this is thought to increase the effect of information intervention, it has not yet been
514 evaluated.

515 Having said all this, we challenge those who carry out future anti-consumer-food-
516 waste interventions to consider two points: First, to make sure that informational interventions
517 are specific to the target consumer and behavior, and second, to implement intervention types

518 that have proven to be relatively effective — that is, more effective than informational
519 interventions.

520 **4.1.2 Exploring promising non-informational intervention types**

521 In order to implement relatively effective intervention types, it seems worthwhile to
522 refer to Osbaldiston and Schott's (2012) meta-analysis that identified modeling (social norms)
523 and prompts as the most effective intervention types, followed by rewards and punishment
524 (see Table 1). Considering that, as we have shown here, the use of intervention types other
525 than information is rare, we urge researchers and practitioners to be creative in designing new
526 applications of these other, relatively more effective intervention types. To illustrate this, we
527 provide a number of ideas for such anti-consumer-food-waste interventions (see Table 9).

528 One could argue that correlational research questions the importance of social norms
529 as antecedent of food waste behavior (e.g., Visschers et al., 2016). However, various
530 (experimental) demonstrations in behavioral change research show social norm interventions
531 to be effective at inducing pro-environmental behavior (e.g., Griskevicius, Cialdini, &
532 Goldstein, 2008; Nolan, Schultz, Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2008; Schultz, Nolan,
533 Cialdini, Goldstein, & Griskevicius, 2007). We argue that this motivates further testing of
534 social norm interventions against consumer food waste. A potential application could be
535 normative appeals in restaurants to take home leftovers: First evidence shows that restaurants
536 can increase the likelihood of patrons taking home leftovers by establishing this behavior as
537 norm (Hamermann, Rudell, & Martins, 2018). For further ideas for the application of social
538 norms, see Table 9.

539 Practitioners (i.e., WRAP) as well as academics (i.e., Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013;
540 Whitehair, Shanklin, & Brannon, 2013) have applied prompts in the consumer food waste
541 domain, for example, by prompting consumers to refrain from piling up large portions at
542 buffets (Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013) or eating up at the cafeteria (Whitehair, Shanklin, &
543 Brannon, 2013). As previously mentioned (see section 3.3), prompts have not yet been tested

544 in private settings. Given that first evidence confirms the promising effect of prompts against
545 consumer food waste, we call for the application and further testing of this intervention type.
546 Potential applications could be personalized labels on cupboards and/or fridges reminding
547 consumers to use up stocks, eat leftovers, or make a shopping list before shopping. Icons on
548 packaging could remind consumers where to store this product best (e.g., in the fridge). For
549 further ideas for the application of prompts, see Table 9.

550 Interventions which apply rewards and penalties to the problem of consumer food
551 waste are rare. Despite the moderate effectiveness of consequence interventions due to their
552 short-livedness and extrinsic motivation (Steg et al. 2008), these intervention types have been
553 more effective across various pro-environmental behaviors than informational interventions
554 (Osbaldiston & Schott, 2012). We call for further testing of consequence interventions.
555 Potential rewards and penalties in restaurants could be giving monetary (e.g., discounts) or
556 non-monetary (e.g., free coffees) incentives to customers who do not waste food, and
557 penalizing those who do (e.g., extra charge). For further ideas for the application of
558 consequence interventions, see Table 9.

559

560 Table 9
561 *Ideas for Future Behavioral Change Interventions Against Consumer Food Waste*

Intervention	Potential Food Waste Applications
Antecedent	Modeling (Social Norms) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establishing the norm of taking home leftover in restaurants; e.g., by waiters • Establishing the norm of ordering small portions in restaurants; e.g., by setting the small portion as default • Establishing the norm of bringing leftovers to lunch at work; e.g., by employers • Establishing the norm of not over-serving guests at dinner parties; e.g., by instructing waiters
	Prompts <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Labels on cupboards and/or fridges reminding subjects to use up stocks • Labels on fridges reminding subjects to eat up leftovers • Reminder on shopping list memo and/or on the kitchen cupboards to make a list before shopping • Icons on packaging to remind people where to store the item best (e.g., in or outside the fridge)
Consequence	Rewards <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rewards for having no leftovers in restaurants, e.g., free coffee or discounts • Rewards (e.g., raffle entry) for donating overstocked products to soup kitchens, homeless shelters or other non-profit associations
	Penalties <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Penalties for having leftovers in restaurants (e.g., extra charge) • Penalties for generating food waste in public places, e.g., in buses, trains, airports

562 *Note.* Potential applications of the four most effective intervention types according to
563 Osbaldiston and Schott's (2012) meta-analysis (see Table 1).

564
565 Clearly, we do not provide a definitive list of potential interventions and possible
566 intervention types. There are further intervention types worth applying to consumer food
567 waste, particularly those using unconscious influences (Dijksterhuis, Smith, Van Baaren, &
568 Wigboldus, 2005; Sheeran, Gollwitzer, & Bargh, 2013) such as changing the context and
569 thereby facilitating the desired behavior outside of consumers' awareness (Block et al., 2016;
570 Marteau, Ogilvie, Roland, Suhrcke, & Kelly, 2011). Within the domain of consumer food
571 waste the application of such unconscious *nudges* (see Thaler & Sunnstein, 2008) has just
572 started. Nudges such as downsizing plates or altering plate quality (i.e., reusable vs.
573 disposable plates), for example, have led to reduced food waste (Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013;
574 Wansink & Van Ittersum, 2013; Williamson, Block, & Keller, 2016). Although the effect of
575 such nudges for single consumers might appear moderate, they are attractive for their

576 simplicity and low cost. Furthermore, they highlight the potential of interventions that include
577 perceptual and other unconscious motivational and behavioral components.

578 There is also an increasing attempt to combine multiple non-informational
579 intervention types within the consumer food waste domain. Technology such as the BinCam
580 app (see Table 7), for instance, integrates feedback, reward, and punishment components by
581 means of a playful visualization. Numerous other online tools assist consumers with everyday
582 food waste prevention; these include websites and apps that connect consumers who want to
583 share food (e.g., foodsharing.com, LeftoverSwap) or that help to manage groceries, create
584 shopping and inventory lists, and alert the consumer when food is expiring (e.g., Fridge Pal,
585 EatChaFood). In fact, these applications combine various intervention strategies and
586 perceptual, motivational, and behavioral components. Although there is first evidence on the
587 effectiveness of this technology, there are also potential drawbacks (see Table 7; Farr-
588 Wharton et al., 2014a, 2014b; Lueg, 2002). Tests of unconscious influences are promising,
589 but still at the early stages within the field of anti-consumer-food-waste interventions. Further
590 testing is needed in order to exploit the potential of the various promising (non-informational)
591 intervention types.

592 **4.1.3 Moving beyond the TPB perspective**

593 To date, most academic effort to understand why consumers waste food has used the
594 TPB and its extensions as a conceptual model (e.g., Graham-Rowe, Jessop, & Sparks, 2015;
595 Russel, Young, Unsworth, & Robinson, 2017; Stancu et al., 2016; Stefan et al., 2013;
596 Visschers et al., 2016). The TPB is well-established among researchers and familiar to many
597 practitioners such as policy makers (Sniehotta, Pesseau, & Araújo-Soares, 2014). However,
598 there is significant question as to whether the TPB is a suitable conceptual model for
599 behavioral change in general, and specifically change related to consumer food waste. First, it
600 is questionable whether intention is a good predictor for behavior (Wong & Sheth, 1985).
601 Evidence from meta-analyses showed that behavioral intention only explains about 30% of

602 variance of actual behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Bamberg & Möser, 2007) and
603 interventions targeting intention have negligible effects on behavior (Michie, Whittington,
604 Abraham, & McAteer, 2009). Also within the field of consumer food waste, there is support
605 for the so called "intention-behavior gap". Consumers' household routines are a better
606 predictor of food waste behavior than their behavioral intentions (Stancu et al., 2016; Stefan
607 et al., 2013).

608 Second, the idea that all external influences on behavior are mediated through TPB
609 constructs has been criticized (Sniehotta et al., 2014). In many fields where the TPB is
610 adopted, it is evident that age, socioeconomic status, and contextual factors predict behavior
611 considerably, even when controlling for TPB determinants. This is also evident for food waste
612 behavior where *age* and *sex* predict food waste behavior even when controlling for TPB
613 constructs (Visschers et al., 2016).

614 Given that the TPB has been repeatedly criticized as an inappropriate conceptual
615 model of behavioral change (Sniehotta et al., 2014), it is necessary to consider other
616 theoretical bases that model how consumers change their behavior and guide those who
617 implement interventions to help consumers to do so (see Chatzisarantis & Hagger, 2005;
618 Hardeman et al., 2002; Sniehotta et al., 2014). Possible alternative theories could be action
619 theories that are less focused on cognition, such as self-regulation theories (Hagger, Wood,
620 Stiff, & Chatzisarantis, 2010), or theories that incorporate multiple goals (Presseau, Tait,
621 Johnston, Francis, & Sniehotta, 2013), or unconscious influences, as well as the impact of
622 emotions (Block et al., 2016; Sheeran et al., 2013).

623 Two further promising theoretical bases for anti-consumer-food-waste interventions
624 are the *stage model of self-regulated behavioral change* (SMSBC) and the *integrative*
625 *influence model of pro-environmental behavior* (IMPB).

626 The SMSBC (Bamberg, 2013) advances the constructs of the TPB (Ajzen, 1991) into
627 a phase model of behavioral change (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987; Prochaska &

628 DiClemente, 1982). By integrating the idea that behavioral change includes a volitional and
629 an action phase, it deals with the major criticism of the TPB (Bamberg, 2003). An application
630 of the SMSBC to the domain of energy conservation offers a comprehensive overview of
631 which intervention type is most suited for each behavioral change phase, in order to impact
632 which TPB construct (Ohnmacht, Schaffner, Weibel, & Schad, 2017). For example,
633 consumers at the pre-decision phase can be targeted by social role models, which should
634 impact consumers' social norm. Although this framework has not yet been applied to
635 consumer food waste (for an application to energy conservation in housing, see Schaffner,
636 Ohnmacht, Weibel, & Mahrer, 2017), it lends itself to building on the existing TPB-oriented
637 consumer food waste research (e.g., Graham-Rowe, Jessop, & Sparks, 2015; Russel, Young,
638 Unsworth, & Robinson, 2017; Stancu et al., 2016; Stefan et al., 2013; Visschers et al., 2016).
639 This, in turn, would allow researchers to determine efficient anti-consumer-food-waste
640 interventions.

641 The IMPB (Matthies, 2005) has already been applied to the domain of consumer food
642 waste. (For a food waste specific description of the four phases of the IMPB, see Schmidt
643 2016a, 2016b.) The IMPB has the advantage of addressing almost all antecedents of
644 consumer food waste behavior identified so far (Matthies & Blöbaum, 2007) and providing
645 information on how to design effective anti-food-waste interventions (see Schmidt 2016a).

646 One aspect of the critique of the TPB as an appropriate theoretical basis for anti-
647 consumer-food-waste interventions is raised in the behavioral change literature (see
648 Osbaldiston, 2013): the coexistence of theoretical (and primarily correlational) research and
649 intervention (and primarily experimental) research. Theoretical research typically uses self-
650 reports to understand how various psychological constructs (e.g., attitudes, norms) are related
651 to a certain behavior, with the aim of testing the validity of a theoretical model (e.g., TPB,
652 *Value Belief Norm Theory*) for predicting behavior. Experimental intervention research
653 directly tests interventions by measuring behavior. Theoretical models often predict only a

654 moderate amount of variance in the effect sizes of the experimental intervention studies. This
655 is also true for TPB studies, where the situation and context is often a stronger predictor for
656 behavior than the classic TPB predictors (i.e., attitude, perceived behavioral control, norms)
657 (Osbaldiston, 2013). Situation and context include social factors (e.g., culture, economic
658 status), physical factors (e.g., natural/build environment), and personal factors (i.e., age, sex,
659 education). This discrepancy between theory and experiment is also evident for the consumer
660 food waste field. On one side, there is correlational cause research that identifies TPB-based
661 consumer food waste predictors (e.g., Stancu et al., 2016; Stefan et al., 2013; Visschers et al.,
662 2016) and on the other side, there is intervention research which experimentally tests specific
663 anti-consumer-food-waste interventions (e.g., Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013; Whitehair,
664 Shanklin, & Brannon, 2013). Although speculative, this discrepancy could be reflected in the
665 findings of the experimental study that found that message prompts reduce food waste, but do
666 not influence (the theory-driven construct of) beliefs concerning food waste (see Table 4;
667 Whitehair, Shanklin, & Brannon, 2013). This specific example, as well as the more general
668 critique in the behavioral change literature, implies that academics and practitioners should
669 not settle for correlational evidence but also strive for causal evidence when developing,
670 implementing, and evaluating anti-consumer-food-waste interventions.

671 Overall, research on consumer food waste has done well to apply the TPB and its
672 extensions to examine the antecedents of consumer food waste. When it comes to the question
673 of how to change consumer food waste behavior, however, it becomes apparent that this
674 theoretical basis has its limitations. Alternative theoretical bases seem more promising.
675 Irrespective of the theoretical framework, however, it is a key challenge for future researchers
676 to systematically evaluate interventions and apply their findings to the development and
677 implementation of future anti-food-waste interventions.

678 **4.2 Systematically Evaluating Anti-Consumer-Food-Waste Interventions**

679 A successful anti-food-waste campaign requires interventions that are not only
680 effective, but cost-efficient; interventions must be evaluated for both factors (Schultz, 2014).
681 The evaluations enable meta-analyses to be conducted in the long run, to test the aggregated
682 effectiveness of interventions (e.g., Maki, Burns, Ha, & Rothman, 2016) and to directly
683 compare the effectiveness of various interventions against each other (e.g., Osbaldiston &
684 Schott, 2012). The current effort to make raw empirical research data available (Open Science
685 Collaboration, 2015) allows aggregated analyses to be continuously updated. By means of a
686 Bayesian evidence synthesis, tests on the effectiveness of interventions can be updated as new
687 evidence becomes available (e.g., Scheibehenne, Jamil, & Wagenmakers, 2016). We
688 challenge practitioners and academics in the field of consumer food waste to increase their
689 efforts to systematically evaluate anti-food-waste interventions.

690 Next we outline six methodological propositions to systematically evaluate anti-food-
691 waste interventions: First, define food waste, primary food waste behaviors, and prevalent
692 quantification methods. Second, identify key target groups. Third, gain insights into specific
693 behavioral change processes. Fourth, differentiate between combined interventions (i.e., a
694 campaign as a whole) and isolated interventions. Fifth, shift the perspective from short-term
695 evaluation to long-term evaluation. Sixth, establish a systematic evaluation framework.

696 **4.2.1 Defining food waste, measuring food waste, and identifying target behaviors**

697 A key challenge in the evaluation of anti-food-waste interventions is that food waste
698 research to date varies in definitions, targeted behavior, and measuring methods. The fact that
699 there is no generally accepted definition of *food waste* is striking, particularly as most studies
700 that focus on food waste at a particular stage of the food supply chain applied a holistic
701 definition of food waste rather than a definition specific to that particular stage (Beretta et al.,
702 2013; Ganglbauer et al., 2014; Lebersorger & Schneider, 2011; Porpino, Parente, & Wansink,
703 2015).

704 The variety of food waste behaviors that consumers can engage in is wide.
 705 Consequently, behavioral change researchers and practitioners can target multiple behaviors.
 706 The most commonly cited consumer food waste behaviors can be categorized into four sets of
 707 behaviors: purchase, storage, preparation, and serving (Porpino et al., 2015). For a detailed
 708 categorization of consumer food waste behaviors, see Table 10.

709 Table 10

710 *Overview of Consumers' Main Food Waste Behaviors*

Purchase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of planning of food purchases (e.g., daily vs. monthly shopping) • Purchase of food in excessive amounts (e.g., due to special offers) • Impulse purchases (i.e., buying items that are not currently needed) • Purchasing of new products that then are disliked
Storage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor food storage management (e.g., failing to refrigerate perishable items) • Lack of knowledge of food storage (e.g., confusion about date labels) • Lack of planning of food storage • Being too sensitive to date labels (e.g., discarding food that has passed labeled date but is still edible) • Preference for freshness • Preference for variety
Preparation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor meal planning • Cooking too much • Poor application of strategies to handle overproduction (e.g., failing to freeze leftovers promptly) • Not using leftovers
Serving at home/buffet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Serving too much (at home: overestimating the needed portion; in restaurants: not ordering half portions and second helpings) • Using overlarge dishes

711 *Note.* Categorization and overview of relevant consumer food waste behaviors.

712

713 Specifying such behavior(s) is not only essential for measuring consumer food waste,
 714 but also for designing interventions against consumer food waste (see McKenzie-Mohr,
 715 2013). Table 10 summarizes consumer behaviors that cause food waste and therefore implies
 716 interventions which aim to reduce them. However, when designing interventions, reducing
 717 undesired behaviors is only one side of the coin. It is important to simultaneously specify the
 718 desired anti-food-waste behavior. For instance, it is important to prevent impulse purchases
 719 while simultaneously promoting the use of shopping lists. Independent of whether one is
 720 concerned with food waste behavior or anti-food-waste behavior, the inclusion of various

721 behaviours into a theoretical behavioral change framework requires the identification of their
722 specific costs and the situational factors that explain and determine them (see Schmidt, 2016a,
723 2016b; Schultz, 2014).

724 Researchers have used various methods to quantify consumer food waste such as self-
725 reported questionnaires (Abeliotis, Lasaridi, & Chroni, 2014; Parizeau, von Massow, &
726 Martin, 2015), diaries (Richter & Bokelmann, 2017; Silvennoinen, Katajajuuri, Hartikainen,
727 Heikkilä, & Reinikainen, 2014; Williamson et al., 2016), leftover analysis (Kallbekken &
728 Sælen, 2013), waste composition analysis (Bernstad, Jansen & Aspegren, 2013; Hanssen,
729 Syversen & Sto, 2016; Lebersorger & Schneider, 2011), and food waste statistics from public
730 authorities (Beretta et al., 2013; Bräutigam, Jörissen, & Priefer, 2014; Monier et al., 2010). A
731 comprehensive description and comparison of known measurement methods can be found in
732 van Herpen et al. (2016). However, the reliability and accuracy of these measurement
733 methods suffer from four fundamental problems that lie in the nature of consumer food waste.
734 First, directly asking consumers (e.g., with questionnaires) about their food waste makes them
735 more conscious of it and thus more likely to reduce and/or underestimate it in order to
736 conform to social ideals (Parizeau et al., 2015). Second, asking consumers about their food
737 waste disregards the fact that people's memory is limited and error-prone (Hallström &
738 Börjesson, 2013). Third, waste composition analyses are time- and labor-intensive and are
739 difficult to carry out for certain types of waste (e.g., composted foods; Parizeau et al., 2015).
740 Fourth, statistics from public authorities vary substantially in their definitions and
741 measurement (Bräutigam et al., 2014). One can only speculate whether these methodological
742 challenges might have contributed to the great variety in food waste quantification methods.
743 Today, this variety of methods challenges the evaluation of intervention research. We urge
744 practitioners and researchers to cooperate in agreeing upon common definitions, target
745 behaviors, and methods (e.g., the exact classification of individual food items).

746 Recently, promising dialogues on food waste definitions and quantification methods
747 have been initiated by international authorities, resulting in manuals that offer standards and
748 guidance for measuring food waste. These are the *Food Loss and Waste Accounting and*
749 *Reporting Standard (FLW Standard)* and the *EU-FUSIONS Quantification Manual*. Both
750 manuals define food waste in a holistic manner and specify definitions for food waste at
751 different stages of the supply chain (i.e., primary production, processing/manufacturing,
752 wholesale/retail/markets, food services, households). Based on these definitions,
753 comprehensive quantification methods are now documented (e.g., direct weighing, counting,
754 assessing volume, waste composition analysis, records, diaries, surveys). Although the *FLW*
755 *Standard* and the *EU-FUSIONS Quantification Manual* primarily address authorities, we urge
756 researchers to consider using these methodological guidelines.

757 Consumer food waste is not a single behavior but a multiplicity of behaviors.
758 Correspondingly, there are multiple definitions, target behaviors, and methods which aim to
759 capture consumer food waste (prevention) behavior. In order to address the complexity of this
760 problem, we call for researchers to formulate common definitions, identify key target
761 behaviors, and find methods that allow unobtrusive measurement²³, to effectively tackle
762 consumer food waste.

763 **4.2.2 Identifying key target groups that correspond to the target behavior**

764 Knowing who is most prone to waste food, to not engage in food waste prevention for
765 what reasons, or to be susceptible to what kinds of incentives is fundamental to designing
766 effective interventions. The identification of the target group(s) and barriers and benefits of
767 the target behavior (e.g., Lee & Kotler, 2015; McKenzie & Mohr, 2013; Schultz, 2014) is

²³ For experimental/field studies and practical evaluations in monitored settings (e.g., school, restaurant), it might be useful to review the broad literature on food consumption research and analyze the various developed and applied unobtrusive approaches to measuring food intake, e.g., by weighing food before and after consumption, direct observation (live human rating), or indirect observation (photograph analysis) (see e.g., Kenney et al., 2015; Stämpfli, Stöckli & Brunner, 2017; Wansink & Van Ittersum, 2013).

768 closely related to defining target behaviors. The finding that sociodemographics (e.g., age,
769 sex, number of children/adults in the household) predict food waste behavior irrespective of
770 TPB constructs (Visschers et al., 2016) illustrates the importance of sociodemographic and
771 situational and/or contextual factors in understanding consumer food waste behavior
772 (Filipová, Mokrejšová, Šulc, & Zeman, 2017). Just recently, academic food waste research
773 started to segment consumers into key target groups and discuss specific leverage points for
774 these segments (e.g., Delley & Brunner, 2017; Gaiani, Caldeira, Adorno, Segrè, & Vittuari,
775 2017). For instance, Delley and Brunner (2017) highlight two segments, the ‘conservative’
776 and the ‘eco-responsible’, as the most willing to reduce consumer food waste and as key role
777 models to introduce new food waste norms to members of other, less willing segments. This
778 type of consumer-food-waste-specific target-group analysis is of great value for designing
779 effective anti-consumer-food-waste interventions, in particular, when linked to general
780 knowledge from the behavioral change literature; for example, that social norms are one of
781 the most effective intervention types.

782 **4.2.3 Gaining insights into specific behavioral change processes**

783 In order to gain valid inferences about an intervention’s effect and underlying
784 mechanisms, it is vital to measure psychological constructs. Most interventions are designed
785 to trigger a specific behavioral change process. The current efforts to identify antecedents of
786 consumer food waste (see e.g., Hebrok and Boks, 2017; Priefer, Jörissen, & Bräutigam, 2016;
787 Thyberg & Tonjes, 2016) offer valuable insight into the core predictors of food waste
788 behavior. For instance, if an anti-food-waste intervention (e.g., a shopping app) is designed to
789 change behavior (e.g., overstocking) by modifying consumers’ perceived behavioral control,
790 then it is crucial to measure whether perceived behavioral control increases in response to the
791 intervention. Evidence of changes to the targeted psychological constructs are vital regardless
792 of the behavioral effect of the intervention, because it allows researchers to determine whether
793 an intervention's effect is due to successfully modifying the targeted psychological construct.

794 This, in turn, reveals whether an intervention was adequately theorized or, in other words,
795 whether the selected intervention type suited the targeted psychological construct (see
796 Abraham, Johnson, de Bruin, & Luszczynska, 2014; Steg & Vlek, 2009). In sum, we
797 encourage the measurement of psychological processes in order to gain insight into how
798 effective intervention types function.

799 **4.2.4 Disentangling individual effects within combined interventions**

800 This review stresses the difficulty of evaluating individual (vs. combined) anti-
801 consumer-food-waste interventions. A large proportion of the here-reviewed campaigns apply
802 multiple interventions, so an evaluation of the effectiveness of single real-world campaigns is
803 problematic and confounded. Understanding the comparative effectiveness of multiple
804 interventions is essential for the effective implementation of anti-food-waste campaigns. A
805 major task for future research is teasing apart the relative individual effects of interventions
806 within campaigns; for example, by testing single interventions in an experimental setting.

807 **4.2.5 Shifting the focus to long-term evaluations**

808 Another finding complicates efforts to evaluate anti-consumer-food-waste
809 interventions: Almost all the interventions that we evaluated were tested for effectiveness at
810 one time only, and within a short time interval. An exception is a study that used a time point
811 of five months after the intervention in addition to two weeks after the intervention (Young,
812 Russel, Robinson, & Barkemeyer, 2017; also see Schmidt, 2016a). Consequently, for most
813 work we cannot conclude that these interventions lead to long-term behavioral change. To
814 tackle consumer food waste it is necessary to identify interventions that produce lasting
815 behavioral change. General intervention research suggests that many interventions lead to
816 behavioral change in the short term, but are unable to establish change in the long term (see
817 Abrahamse et al., 2005). Thus, we challenge practitioners and academics to collect follow-up
818 data in order to shift the focus to long-term evaluation of interventions against consumer food
819 waste.

820 **4.2.6 Using a systematic framework for intervention evaluation**

821 A more general problem in the field of consumer food waste is that intervention
822 research contributes the most when it is comprehensive, including detailed and standardized
823 descriptions of the intervention and measuring behavioral outcomes as well as psychological
824 constructs and processes (Abraham et al., 2014; McKenzie-Mohr, 2013; Michie et al., 2011).

825 In order to establish standardized evaluations, practitioners and academics could adapt
826 and apply reporting standards like the Consolidated Standards of Reporting Trials
827 (CONSORT; Moher, Schulz, & Altman, 2001) or the Transparent Reporting of Evaluations
828 with Nonrandomized Designs (TREND; Des Jarlais, Lyles, & Crepaz, 2004). The core idea of
829 these guidelines is that evaluation reports provide a systematic description of characteristics
830 such as the content of the intervention (e.g., knowledge transfer), who is delivering the
831 intervention (e.g., NGO), the target group (e.g., restaurant guests), the setting (e.g., at school),
832 the mode of delivery (e.g., personal contact), the intensity (e.g., contact time), and the
833 duration (e.g., frequency of contact over a given period). These details are all indispensable
834 for accumulating evidence about effective interventions and for translating research into
835 practice (Davidson et al., 2003).

836 Thus, we encourage practitioners and researchers to develop and apply standardized
837 descriptions, evaluation criteria, and reporting. At best, this leads to the formation of a
838 systematic framework that allows a valid comparison of the effectiveness of any interventions
839 against consumer food waste (see Geller et al., 1990; Schultz, 2002).

840 **4.3 Endorsing Cooperation Between Practical and Academic Contributors**

841 This review finds that there are disproportionately more real-world interventions than
842 academic studies on consumer food waste prevention. In addition to the different amount of
843 attention paid to preventing consumer food waste by practitioners and academics, there are
844 differences in what is considered a valuable approach to reducing consumer food waste. We
845 acknowledge that these differences correspond to differences in the roles and scope of both

846 groups. While practitioners, like authorities and policy makers (as well as some policy-
847 oriented researchers; e.g., Betz, Buchli, Göbel, & Müller, 2015) have proposed informational
848 interventions against consumer food waste, academics have so far been reluctant to evaluate
849 such interventions. Clearly, it seems legitimate to propose that informational interventions
850 raise public awareness of food waste (see Kantor et al., 1997) and that intensifying public
851 discourse on the issue of food waste is beneficial (see Garrone et al., 2014). However, there is
852 also much evidence (from general behavioral change research) that such propositions are
853 myopic and that purely informational interventions are often insufficient (e.g., McKenzie-
854 Mohr, 2013). These differences in approach between practice and theory illustrate how much
855 the field of consumer food waste could benefit from practical and academic cooperation. The
856 literature on behavioral change offers frameworks for aligning different perspectives and
857 approaches of academics and practitioners to generate the necessary synergies. Particularly,
858 the stages of social marketing (e.g., McKenzie-Mohr, 2013; Lee & Kotler, 2015) illustrate
859 well how the identification of target behaviors and target groups, the analysis of specific
860 behavioral antecedents, the implementation of an intervention campaign, and the evaluation
861 of the effectiveness of an intervention campaign should ideally merge into a linear process.

862 **5 Conclusion**

863 **In conclusion, this review's analysis of antecedent and consequence interventions in**
864 **the area of consumer food waste reveals that, while practitioners have implemented and**
865 **combined diverse intervention types, academics have rarely examined anti-consumer-food-**
866 **waste interventions. With reference to general behavioral change and intervention literature,**
867 **two key challenges become apparent: First, informational interventions are the predominant**
868 **intervention type even though conceptual and empirical evidence indicates that this**
869 **intervention type is relatively ineffective. Second, anti-consumer-food-waste interventions**
870 **have not been sufficiently evaluated and thus, there is a lack of clarity on their effectiveness.**
871 **Driven by the consequential need to consider a broader scope of intervention types and the**

872 need for more comprehensive intervention evaluation, this review discusses specific
873 conceptual and methodological challenges. Here, two key implications become apparent:
874 First, non-informational intervention types, namely modeling (social norms), prompts, and
875 rewards, should be considered. Second, anti-consumer-food-waste interventions should be
876 evaluated in a systematic manner; that is, by using a framework that implements standardized
877 definitions and measurement methods, addresses specific behaviors and behavioral change
878 processes, differentiates between combined interventions (i.e., a campaign as a whole) and
879 isolated interventions, and ensures evaluations of long-term effectiveness. Overall, this review
880 sets an agenda for implementing effective anti-consumer-food-waste interventions.

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