



City Research Online

City St George's, University of London

Citation: Anastasiou, K., Baker, P., Hendrie, G. A., Hadjikakou, M., Boylan, S., Chaudhary, A., Clark, M., DeClerck, F., Fanzo, J., Fardet, A., et al (2023). Conceptualising the drivers of ultra-processed food production and consumption and their environmental impacts: A group model-building exercise. *Global Food Security*, 37, 100688. doi: 10.1016/j.gfs.2023.100688

This is the accepted version of the paper.

This version of the publication may differ from the final published version. To cite this item please consult the publisher's version.

Permanent repository link: <https://openaccess.city.ac.uk/id/eprint/30966/>

Link to published version: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2023.100688>

Copyright and Reuse: Copyright and Moral Rights remain with the author(s) and/or copyright holders. Copies of full items can be used for personal research or study, educational, or not-for-profit purposes without prior permission or charge, unless otherwise indicated, provided that the authors, title and full bibliographic details are credited, a hyperlink and/or URL is given for the original metadata page and the content is not changed in any way. For full details of reuse please refer to [City Research Online policy](#).

Conceptualising the drivers of ultra-processed food production and consumption and their environmental impacts: a group model-building exercise

Abstract

Using group model building we developed a series of causal loop diagrams identifying the environmental impacts of ultra-processed food (UPF) systems, and underlying system drivers, which was subsequently validated against the peer-reviewed literature. The final conceptual model displays the commercial, biological and social drivers of the UPF system, and the impacts on environmental sub-systems including climate, land, water and waste. It displays complex interactions between various environmental impacts, demonstrating how changes to one component of the system could have flow-on effects on other components. Trade-offs and uncertainties are discussed. The model has a wide range of applications including informing the design of quantitative analyses, identifying research gaps and potential policy trade-offs resulting from a reduction of ultra-processed food production and consumption.

Keywords

- Ultra-processed foods
- Sustainable diets
- Group model building
- Food system transformation
- Environmental impact assessment

Conceptualising the drivers of ultra-processed food production and consumption and their environmental impacts: a group model-building exercise

Aim ... to develop and validate a conceptual systems model of the environmental impacts of ultra-processed foods.

Model creation



Review of existing literature

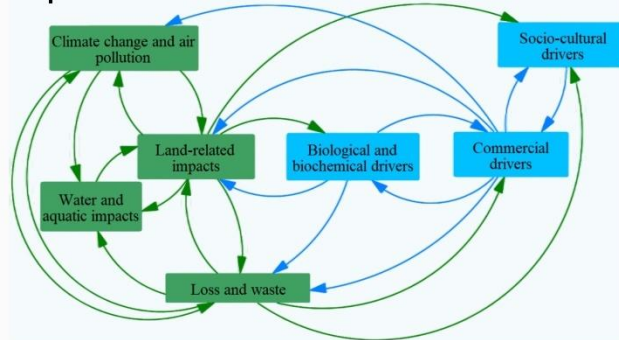


Model testing and expansion through group model building



Validation of new variables through scoping review

Results: Model of the drivers & environmental impacts of UPFs



1. Introduction

The global food system is a leading driver of environmental degradation (Tilman and Clark, 2014; Willett et al., 2019). It is responsible for one-third of global greenhouse gas emissions (Crippa et al., 2021), approximately 70% of freshwater use (Earthscan, 2007), is the largest driver of land and marine ecosystem biodiversity loss (Benton et al., 2021), and threatens freshwater and marine ecosystems through the excessive use of nitrogen and phosphorus-based production inputs (Diaz and Rosenberg, 2008). Transitioning to a healthy and sustainable food system is essential to meet global environmental targets, including the Paris Climate Agreement and the Sustainable Development Goals (Chen et al., 2022; Rockström et al., 2020).

One approach to improve the sustainability of diets is to reduce the production and consumption of ultra-processed foods (UPFs) (Fardet and Rock, 2020; Seferidi et al., 2020). UPFs form the fourth group of the NOVA (a name, not an acronym) food classification system, which defines UPFs as *'formulations of ingredients, mostly of exclusive industrial use, that result from a series of industrial processes'* (Monteiro et al., 2019). Examples of UPFs include sugar-sweetened beverages, confectionary, packaged snacks, ready-made infant foods, breakfast cereals and reconstituted meats (Monteiro et al., 2019). The other three groups are unprocessed/ minimally processed foods (Group 1), processed culinary ingredients (Group 2) and processed foods (Group 3) (Monteiro et al., 2019). NOVA groups 1-3 are collectively referred to as non-UPFs throughout the text. UPFs are associated with multiple adverse health outcomes, such as cancer, type-2 diabetes and cardiovascular diseases (Chen et al., 2020; Elizabeth et al., 2020; Lane et al., 2021; Pagliai et al., 2021). UPFs are predominantly discretionary in nature, and easily overconsumed (Forde et al., 2020). UPFs comprise a large proportion (10-60%) of total dietary energy intake in high-income countries (Marino et al., 2021), with consumption rapidly rising in middle-income countries (Baker et al., 2020; Monteiro et al., 2013). While reformulating these products to improve their nutrient composition may reduce some adverse health impacts associated with their consumption, it does not necessarily transform

47 them into 'healthful' foods (Scrinis and Monteiro, 2018), and will not materially reduce their
48 environmental impacts. Therefore, a reduction in UPF production and consumption could reduce
49 environmental impacts from foods which are often superfluous to human needs (Hadjikakou, 2017).

50 Quantitative evidence on the environmental impact of UPFs is limited to two published studies from
51 Brazil (da Silva et al., 2021; Garzillo et al., 2022) and one from France (Kesse-Guyot et al., 2022).

52 These studies indicate that UPFs can significantly contribute to diet-related greenhouse gas
53 emissions, land-use, energy and water-footprints (Kesse-Guyot et al., 2022), driven primarily by
54 overconsumption (da Silva et al., 2021; Garzillo et al., 2022). Reviews of the literature suggest that
55 the production of UPFs may be associated with large-scale monoculture farming, high energy-inputs
56 for processing, lengthy transportation chains and excessive packaging (Anastasiou et al., 2022;
57 Fardet and Rock, 2020; Seferidi et al., 2020). As a result, relationships between UPF production and
58 biodiversity loss, greenhouse gas emissions, waste, land degradation and impacts on water quality
59 and scarcity have been proposed (Anastasiou et al., 2022; Fardet and Rock, 2020; Leite et al., 2022).

60 Understanding the environmental impacts of UPFs comes with challenges. First, all supply chain
61 stages must be included (Seferidi et al., 2020), and differentiated. Existing research has not
62 differentiated between the environmental impacts of primary processing (essential processes that
63 increase shelf-life or digestibility while preserving the original ingredients, such as milling or
64 fermentation) and ultra-processing, which is unessential. This is important because identifying
65 environmental impacts at key supply chain stages may enable more informed and effective
66 interventions.

67 Second, impacts are often measured in isolation, with limited consideration of the environmental
68 processes that link impacts across the system (Aldaya et al., 2021). Even empirical analyses that
69 consider more than one metric (e.g. greenhouse gas emissions, water-scarcity and biodiversity loss)
70 rarely consider how such environmental impacts may interact. This is important because ecosystems

and food systems are highly dynamic; changes in one part of the system can have significant flow-on impacts and trade-offs with other system components (Campbell et al., 2018). The need for a more cross-disciplinary food systems approach was emphasised in the 2021 UN Food Systems Summit and recent reports (Rockström et al., 2020), which highlight the urgent need to achieve a food systems transition and minimise systems trade-offs to meet global targets including the Paris Climate Agreement (Zurek et al., 2022) and the Sustainable Development Goals (von Braun et al., 2021).

This study aims to develop and validate a conceptual model of the known and potential environmental impacts across ultra-processed food systems. This study a) identifies key variables that drive UPF systems; b) conceptualises the relationships between environmental impacts and each stage of UPF systems and; c) differentiates the environmental, economic, social and biological impacts of ultra-processed food systems relative to those producing non-UPFs.

2. Methods

Systems dynamics is a field of science used to understand complex behaviours of systems (Haji Gholam Saryazdi et al., 2021), and can be used to address the limitations described in the introduction. Group model building (GMB) is a soft systems method whereby a qualitative systems model is developed and then tested via modelling workshops with experts and key stakeholders (Vennix, 1996). Previous studies have identified that GMB enables diverse discussions of complex social, economic and environmental phenomena (Valencia Coteria et al., 2022), while generating new knowledge and sensitising stakeholders to a given issue (Rouwette et al., 2002).

Causal loop diagrams (CLDs) are ideal for displaying dynamic relationships between key variables in complex systems (Purwanto et al., 2019). CLDs comprise of variables that can increase or decrease; arrows containing a polarity indicator (+/-) that indicate the direction of the association, e.g. where a positive polarity indicates that the variables are moving in the same direction; reinforcing loops (shown as 'R' with a circular arrow), that indicate a positive feedback loop whereby both variables A

and B increase; and balancing loops (shown as 'B' with a circular arrow), that indicate a feedback loop whereby one variable increases and the other decreases. This study used group model building (GMB) to test and validate a CLD.

2.1 Developing the initial causal loop diagram

Following standard GMB practice (Haji Gholam Saryazdi et al., 2021), a preliminary CLD was developed as follows. Initial variables were sourced from scientific papers and reports identified in a recently published review (Anastasiou et al., 2022) on the characteristics of UPFs and relationships with the natural environment. Key UPF supply chain stages were adapted from the published review (see Appendix). After these resources were exhausted, searches of the peer-reviewed literature were conducted in EbscoHost to ascertain if there were known relationships between each of the initially identified variables. Studies were included if they described the relationships between two variables (see Appendix). Reviews and reports which provided consensus statements from authoritative organisations, such as the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations and the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, were prioritised. Where necessary, additional variables were added to explain the pathways between variables previously identified.

2.2 Group model building process

For the GMB workshops, 19 experts on sustainable food systems were identified through published literature, according to purposive sampling methods (Tongco, 2007). Of these, 11 participants from Australasia, Asia, Europe, North America and South America consented and attended one of three two-hour online workshops facilitated by the lead author. Three participants were from low or middle-income countries. Reasons for not participating were unavailability (n=2) or no response to the email (n= 6).

The workshops followed pre-established and tested GMB scripts (see Appendix). Each workshop began with a presentation on the research aims, existing research, GMB process and model. The preliminary CLD was edited in real-time using Vensim software (Ventana Inc.), based on group discussion. Participants suggested variables, relationships and modifications to the CLD, and discussed the impacts of UPF systems compared with an idealised healthy and sustainable food system.

While participants usually agreed with each other regarding modelling decisions, occasionally disagreements occurred. In these instances, discussion was encouraged to better understand the rationale behind such differences in opinion which revealed differences in regional contexts or assumptions. This led to additional variables, clarification of assumptions, or additional trade-offs (see section 3.9).

After the workshops, the preliminary CLD was refined to reflect participant inputs and to ensure consistent granularity of variables. Rigorous criteria, such as degree of removal from the supply chain, and specificity to only one region, were applied to determine the exclusion of the variables and relationships (see Appendix). Reinforcing and balancing loops overlooked during the workshops were added at this stage.

2.3 Validation of new variables and pathways, and evaluating the strength of the evidence

Following the workshops, the model was consolidated, in accordance with standard practice (Haji Gholam Saryazdi et al., 2021). We then cross-checked the new variables and pathways by conducting an additional search for published literature and reports, and including literature suggested by participants. Lines in the model were formatted to reflect the strength of the evidence by distinguishing them according to three groups: (i) proposed, (ii) emerging, or (iii) established (definitions in the Appendix).

After the variables were finalised, the model was divided thematically into seven subsystems: three subsystems represent the drivers of UPF production (blue variables, subsystems 1-3) and another four subsystems represent the environmental impacts of the system (green variables, subsystems 4-7). Some variables and relationships appear in multiple subsystems, as subsystems do not exist in isolation.

Participants were offered the opportunity to provide feedback on the final CLDs via the draft manuscript, as a final consensus (Rouwette et al., 2002) and internal validity check. Ten participants provided feedback and elected to become co-authors which acknowledged their contribution to the model and manuscript. One participant opted out of the feedback and manuscript writing process due to time constraints.

3. Results

The seven CLDs developed in this study illustrate the widescale drivers of UPF systems and associated environmental impacts. Three CLDs display the drivers of UPF systems (Figures 1-3); four CLDs display the environmental impacts (Figures 4-7). A full model displaying all impacts is available in the Appendix. CLD variables include drivers and outcomes of the system, with changes to one part of the system resulting in flow-on impacts throughout the system. The results present key variables and interactions described by the CLD. Variables are differentiated in the manuscript text using italics. Details on each relationship, supporting evidence, and grading methods are available (see Appendix).

3.1 Summary model

The summary model displays the relationships between each subsystem, illustrating that the subsystems do not exist in isolation. Instead, there are dynamic interactions among the variables

and pathways of the different CLDs; i.e. the full system is more than the sum of the individual variables or subsystems.

The summary model also highlights key system drivers. For example, commercial drivers are core to many of the other subsystems, largely because profit gains appear to drive commercial, biological and socio-cultural systems (see R1, 2 & B1-4, Figure 1).

The summary model also demonstrates that the environmental subsystems are deeply connected; each environmental subsystem is linked (Figure 1). This likely reflects the interconnected nature of ecosystems. Also of note are the many reinforcing loops between land-related impacts and other subsystems (R3-9). Thus, the land-related impacts, often initially stemming from agricultural production of UPFs, are likely key drivers of UPF environmental degradation, reinforced by other systems.

A full list and description of reinforcing and balancing loops, and a detailed integrated model displaying all variables are available in the Appendix.

[Insert Figure 1 here]

Figure 1: Causal loop diagram displaying an overview of the relationships between each subsystem in the model

Variables in blue are subsystems containing drivers of UPF production (subsystems 1-3), variables in green are environmental impact subsystems (subsystems 4-7). 'R' denotes reinforcing loops, 'B' denotes balancing loops. Polarity of relationships are not shown as there are both positive and negative polarities contained within the subsystems and reinforcing loops, see subsystem models for more details.

3.2 Subsystem 1: Commercial drivers of UPF systems

This subsystem focuses on commercial drivers. Four reinforcing loops were identified, all of which include the variable '*profitability*', indicating that it is a primary driver of this subsystem. *Profitability*

reflects the primacy of shareholders and the cost minimising and sales maximising tendencies of free market capitalism (Wood et al., 2021a; Wood et al., 2021b). With a sustainable financial model, *profitability* generates financial gains for shareholders and supports investments for ongoing growth (Figure 2). Depending on market conditions, this can enable the accumulation of *greater material resources and economic power* within food systems (Wood et al., 2021a). For example, corporations producing UPFs can use these accumulating resources to support *foreign direct investment* and the development of their global sourcing and distribution networks, and to grow through *mergers and acquisitions* of competitors (Hawkes, 2005; Wood et al., 2021b) (Figure 2). These strategies can result in *market concentration*, whereby fewer large companies own or influence a greater proportion of UPF product markets, thereby reducing *market competition* and maximising profit (Wood et al., 2021b). These are displayed in the reinforcing loops whereby increased economic power enables further economic gains (R2, R12 & R13, Figure 2).

Accumulating *material resources and economic power*, can further support *corporate political activities* intended to foster policy, regulatory and knowledge environments conducive to continuing market growth. These activities include lobbying policy-makers, funding scientific research for corporate benefit, and preferencing *public-private partnerships and self-regulation* over state-led food systems governance and command-and-control regulation (Clapp and Scrinis, 2017; Moodie et al., 2021). These are further described in the Appendix.

Reinforcing loop 13 displays that *corporate political activities* may also support *subsidies of agricultural inputs and commodities* used as UPF ingredients (Orden and Zulauf, 2015), which is enabled and reinforced via *profitability*, and the *economic power of the UPF industry* (Figure 2).

Reinforcing loop 1, which overlaps with subsystem 3, represents the intensive and sophisticated *marketing* techniques, including product design, branding and packaging, and advertising in mass-

208 media and digital channels, which increase the *desirability of UPFs* and encourage *purchasing and*
209 *consumption* (Bailey, 2016; Moran et al., 2019).

210 In addition to the system drivers describe above, other factors act to further encourage UPF
211 purchasing and consumption. This includes *market competition* between food corporations, fast
212 food chains and supermarkets which may increase pressure to maintain low *costs of final products*
213 (Richards and Hamilton, 2006), and reinforce the reliance on low-cost commodity ingredients. A
214 small variety of these commodity ingredients can be used to create an apparent diversity of UPF
215 products, targeting different market segments.

216 ***Differentiating UPF system impacts from general food system impacts***

217 We hypothesise that the above factors are more prominent in UPF systems compared with non-UPF
218 systems. UPFs are often (but not exclusively) produced and sold by transnational organisations and
219 therefore are associated with transnational corporate power consolidation and growth, as described
220 above. However, more empirical evidence is needed to understand to what extent the political
221 economy driving UPF production differs from non-UPFs.

222 **[Insert Figure 2 here]**

223 Figure 2: Causal loop diagram of Subsystem 1: Commercial drivers relevant to UPF systems

224 Figure 2 Legend: Black boxes and arrows indicate the supply chain, blue boxes and arrows are system drivers and grey
225 arrows are used to denote links to other subsystems. 'R' denotes reinforcing loops, polarity of relationships are denoted by
226 +/- next to the arrow head. Dotted lines indicate that the relationship was proposed (no existing empirical evidence), and
227 solid lines denote that the evidence was established (supported by empirical evidence or reviews of empirical evidence).
228 Reinforcing loops, balancing loops and connections (arrows) in grey are described in subsequent subsystems. Other figures
229 display socio-cultural and biological drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption (Figure 3 & 4), climate change and air
230 pollution impacts (Figure 5), land-related impacts (Figure 6), water use and aquatic impacts (Figure 7), loss and waste
231 (Figure 8).

3.3 Subsystem 2: Socio-cultural drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption

Subsystem 2 displays the socio-cultural drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption (see Figure 3). Variables were grouped under five of the six pillars of food security (access, availability, stability, utilisation and agency) (HLPE, 2020). The sixth pillar, sustainability, is the focus of subsystems 4-7.

All reinforcing loops in this subsystem act by influencing consumers' *desirability for UPFs*. *Profitability*, *successful marketing* and *access to UPFs* were proposed to work together to increase *desirability of UPFs, purchasing and consumption*, creating reinforcing loops (R1, R14, Figure 3). Food policies and regulation could act to reduce these effects (Macari et al., 2019), potentially decreasing the profits and therefore economic power of the UPF industry (B1, Figure 3).

The *desirability of UPFs* may also be driven by their convenience, especially for individuals who lack food literacy skills needed to *utilise non-UPFs* (Chak Leung Lam and Adams, 2017). The *ability to utilise non-UPFs* may be further enabled or hindered through *agency* including self-efficacy, employment status, *time pressures*, family commitments and financial constraints (Chang et al., 2019; Contento et al., 2007; Davison et al., 2015; Jalambadani et al., 2017). This could be reinforced by ongoing *purchasing and consumption of UPFs*, which eliminates the need to learn to prepare meals and cuisines made from non-UPFs (R15, Figure 3).

Differentiating UPF system impacts from general food system impacts

While the relationships described above are not necessarily exclusive to UPFs, impacts may be more significant for these food products as they are often more accessible, available, easy to utilise and require little agency to consume them compared with non-UPFs (Chak Leung Lam and Adams, 2017; Chang et al., 2019; Contento et al., 2007; Davison et al., 2015; Jalambadani et al., 2017).

[Insert Figure 3 here]

Figure 3: Causal loop diagram of subsystem 2: Socio-cultural drivers relevant to UPF systems

Figure 3 Legend: Black boxes and arrows indicate the supply chain, blue boxes and arrows are system drivers and grey arrows are used to denote links to other subsystems. 'R' denotes reinforcing loops, polarity of relationships are denoted by +/- next to the arrow head. Dotted lines indicate that the relationship was proposed (no existing empirical evidence), and solid lines denote that the evidence was established (supported by empirical evidence or reviews of empirical evidence). Reinforcing loops, balancing loops and connections (arrows) in grey are described in subsequent subsystems. Other figures display the commercial drivers of UPF systems (Figure 2), biological drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption (Figure 3 & 4), climate change and air pollution impacts (Figure 5), land-related impacts (Figure 6), water use and aquatic impacts (Figure 7), loss and waste (Figure 8).

3.4 Subsystem 3: Biological drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption

This system displays changes in the composition of foods as they become ultra-processed, biological drivers of consumption and human health impacts (Figure 4).

While no new reinforcing loops were identified, *purchasing and consumption* of UPFs (which drives *profitability* and therefore encourages increased production of UPFs, see Subsystem 1), is likely promoted via biological drivers.

Differentiating UPF system impacts from general food system impacts

The majority of this subsystem is specific to UPFs. *Ultra-processing* enables changes in *nutrient composition* and *degradation of the food matrix*, which act to increase *palatability* and decrease *satiety* (Fardet et al., 2018). As a result, *palatability* (Almeida et al., 2018) and decreased *satiety* can promote *purchasing* and *overconsumption* (Hall et al., 2019). Beginning during early childhood, consumption of ultra-processed infant foods of homogenous flavours and textures may inhibit development of taste preferences associated with healthy eating habits throughout life (Foterek et al., 2015; García et al., 2013). The potentially *addictive* nature of UPFs, hypothesised to be driven by product design characteristics such as *palatability* (Schulte et al., 2015), may also play a role in

278 encouraging excessive consumption of UPFs notably in adults and children who experience food
279 addiction (Filgueiras et al., 2019; Pursey et al., 2015).

280 Also encompassed in this subsystem are the *adverse health outcomes* associated with UPF
281 consumption and discussed extensively elsewhere (Elizabeth et al., 2020; Lane et al., 2021). Health
282 impacts may occur directly due to over-consumption of UPFs (Matos et al., 2021) or indirectly
283 through *dietary displacement of non-UPFs* (Martini et al., 2021).

284 **[Insert Figure 4 here]**

285 Figure 4: Causal loop diagram of Subsystem 3: Biological and biochemical drivers relevant to UPF
286 systems

287 Figure 4 Legend: Black boxes and arrows indicate the supply chain, blue boxes and arrows are system drivers and grey
288 arrows are used to denote links to other subsystems. 'R' denotes reinforcing loops, polarity of relationships are denoted by
289 +/- next to the arrow head. Dashed lines denote that evidence for the relationship was emerging (inconclusive empirical
290 evidence), and solid lines denote that the evidence was established (supported by empirical evidence or reviews of
291 empirical evidence). Reinforcing loops, balancing loops and connections (arrows) in grey are described in subsequent
292 subsystems. Other figures display the commercial drivers of UPF systems (Figure 2), socio-cultural drivers of UPF
293 purchasing and consumption (Figure 3 & 4), climate change and air pollution impacts (Figure 5), land-related impacts
294 (Figure 6), water use and aquatic impacts (Figure 7), loss and waste (Figure 8).

295 **3.5 Subsystem 4: Climate change and air pollution impacts from ultra-processed food systems**

296 Subsystem 4 examines the impact of UPF production on climate change and air pollution (Figure 5).
297 This subsystem is not closed but rather provides an overview of the flow-on impacts related to
298 climate change, because climate change affects a wide range of environmental systems (Figures 6-8).
299 Therefore, we focus here on an overview of how climate change and air pollution interact with the
300 subsequent environmental subsystems.

It was assumed by the lead authors and agreed by the participants that the energy used across the supply chain is predominantly produced by burning fossil fuels, because fossil fuels remain the dominant global energy source (Ritchie, 2020). *Energy created by burning fossil fuels* drives *air pollution* (Balasubramanian et al., 2021; Domingo et al., 2021) and *greenhouse gas emissions*, the major driver of *climate change* (IPCC, 2021) (Figure 5). *Fertiliser* and *pesticide use* also contribute to *climate change* as they are produced using fossil fuels, and fertiliser application is associated with nitrogen volatilisation (Shi et al., 2020).

Climate change has significant flow-on effects for elements in subsequent subsystems, including *land and soil degradation*, *changes in types and locations of pests* (IPCC, 2022), *biodiversity loss* (IPCC, 2021), *agrobiodiversity loss* (Fatima et al., 2020), changes in *water scarcity* (IPCC, 2021) and *food loss and waste* (IPCC, 2022). For example, *climate change* may lead to *changes in types and locations of pests*, which may increase *pesticide use* in certain regions (see Subsystem 5). As a result, more *greenhouse gas* emissions may be released, which, if this occurs to a great enough extent, could worsen *climate change* (R5, Figure 5).

Finally, inputs used in agricultural production such as fertilisers and pesticides, as well as agricultural production processes such as field burning and livestock waste, contribute to *air pollution* (Balasubramanian et al., 2021; Domingo et al., 2021), which in turn have impacts on *human health* (Benka-Coker et al., 2020; Su et al., 2022).

Differentiating UPF system impacts from general food system impacts

Core to the difference between UPFs and non-UPFs within this subsystem is the assumption that UPFs are derived from large-scale industrial agricultural practices. Because wide use of fossil fuels throughout the food system can enable the production of cheap agricultural commodities (Fuje, 2019; Kaur et al., 2015), it follows that ultra-processing may be used to convert these commodities into profitable, palatable and marketable products (see subsystems 1-3). While it was generally

assumed that UPFs are inherently reliant on industrial production systems, evidence to support this is needed and not all participants agreed on this assumption.

[Insert Figure 5 here]

Figure 5: Causal loop diagram of Subsystem 4: Climate change and air pollution relevant to UPF systems

Figure 5 Legend: Black boxes and arrows indicate the supply chain, blue boxes and arrows are system drivers, green boxes and arrows denote environmental drivers and outcomes, grey boxes indicate other system outcomes deemed relevant by participants and grey arrows denote links to other subsystems. 'R' denotes reinforcing loops, polarity of relationships are denoted by +/- next to the arrow head. All relationships in this subsystem were supported by empirical evidence, as denoted by the solid lines connecting variables. Relationships where polarity was dependent on the region are denoted with a question mark. Reinforcing loops, balancing loops and connections (arrows) in grey are described in subsequent subsystems. Other figures display commercial drivers of UPF systems (Figure 2), socio-cultural and biological drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption (Figure 3 & 4), land-related impacts (Figure 6), water use and aquatic impacts (Figure 7), loss and waste (Figure 8).

3.6 Subsystem 5: Land-related impacts from ultra-processed food systems

Subsystem 5 describes the land-related impacts resulting from UPF production (see Figure 6). While all stages of food production require land, participant discussions and existing studies have focused on agricultural production as the predominant driver of land-related impacts (Hadjikakou, 2017; Ridoutt et al., 2020; Willett et al., 2019).

Reinforcing loops were identified between *land and soil degradation* and *pesticide use, fertiliser use, agrobiodiversity loss* and *land scarcity* (R16-19, R21 Figure 6). Pesticide-related impacts on *agrobiodiversity loss* may be reinforced by changes in *types or locations of pests* and *pesticide use* (Isaac et al., 2021) (R20, Figure 6). Furthermore, as mentioned in subsystem 4, fertilisers release greenhouse gas emissions, driving climate change, which further degrades land and increases land scarcity, potentially leading to a vicious cycle of higher fertiliser demands (R4, Figure 6).

Also included in the model is the role of *land conversion* and *land and soil degradation* in increasing *land scarcity* (Jayasuriya, 2003). In theory, increased *fertiliser* and *pesticide use* could result in ‘land-sparing’, as less farmland is required to produce the same yield (IFA and UNEP, 2000; Popp et al., 2013). This is important as land sparing scenarios, where yields are increased through *fertiliser* and *pesticide use*, produce less *greenhouse gas emissions* than those released from *land conversion* in land sharing scenarios (Folberth et al., 2020). However, participants and previous literature have noted that high-yielding farms often expand, which may incentivise deforestation and subsequently increase *land scarcity* (Hertel et al., 2014). Thus, the question mark in the model highlights that, without the addition of more detailed causal pathways or quantitative data, the impacts described here are uncertain.

Differentiating UPF system impacts from general food system impacts

The relationships between agricultural-production practices and land-related impacts are not exclusive to UPFs. However, participants discussed that *ultra-processing* may exacerbate existing issues in the food system. Many UPFs rely on *agricultural production* of high-yield, low-cost ingredients, thus they may increase reliance on practices such as monoculture farming or intensive livestock production (Fardet and Rock, 2020), which could contribute to additional *land and soil degradation* (Olsson et al., 2019) (Figure 6). However, some features of this subsystem, e.g. *agrobiodiversity loss*, have been ongoing, independent, trends in agriculture (FAO, 2007), thus any impacts that may be caused by UPF production are additional to existing issues.

There are two reinforcing loops in this subsystem which relate specifically to UPFs. Participants proposed a reinforcing loop between *ultra-processing* and *agrobiodiversity loss*, as decreased variety of species may encourage creative processing methods to develop ‘exciting’ ‘new’ foods and UPFs may encourage reliance on fewer, cheap ingredients (Fardet and Rock, 2020) (R21, Figure 6). *Agrobiodiversity loss* also has flow-on impacts on *biodiversity loss* within neighbouring ecosystems

(FAO, 2019; Kremen and Miles, 2012). Changes in food supply diversity may also impact *food supply stability* (Thrupp, 2000) and *diet diversity* (Oduor et al., 2019). It is also plausible that ongoing production and consumption of UPFs could reduce diversity in the food system (R3, Figure 6).

[Insert Figure 6 here]

Figure 6: Causal loop diagram of Subsystem 5: Land-related impacts relevant to UPF systems

Figure 6 Legend: Black boxes and arrows indicate the supply chain, blue boxes and arrows are system drivers, green boxes and arrows denote environmental drivers and outcomes, grey boxes indicate other system outcomes deemed relevant by participants and grey arrows denote links to other subsystems. Dotted lines indicate that the relationship was proposed (no existing empirical evidence), and solid lines denote that the evidence was established (supported by empirical evidence or reviews of empirical evidence). ‘R’ denotes reinforcing loops, polarity of relationships are denoted by +/- next to the arrow head. Impacts which may increase or decrease are denoted with a question mark instead of a +/- . Reinforcing loops, balancing loops and connections (arrows) in grey are described in subsequent subsystems. Other figures display commercial drivers of UPF systems (Figure 2), socio-cultural and biological drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption (Figure 3 & 4), climate change and air pollution impacts (Figure 5), water use and aquatic impacts (Figure 7), loss and waste (Figure 8).

3.7 Subsystem 6: Water use and aquatic impacts from ultra-processed food systems

This subsystem investigates the impact of water used during UPF production and impacts of UPF systems on aquatic ecosystems (see Figure 7).

The reinforcing loops identified in this subsystem act together to impact *water scarcity*, *water quality* and *biodiversity loss*. In this model, water is used at most stages of production, which may lead to reduced availability of water in natural ecosystems, increasing *water scarcity* (Falkenmark, 2013). This is further impacted by *water quality*, as water resources that are polluted become less valuable, increasing *water scarcity* (Dabrowski et al., 2009). Conversely, *water scarcity* can impact *water quality*. For example, droughts are generally associated with poorer *water quality* due to a build-up of pollutants (Hrdinka et al., 2012). However, whether *water quality* increases when *water*

scarcity decreases is uncertain and dependent on the region as higher rainfall can flush contaminants and beneficial substances, as well as introduce new contaminants into waterways (Hrdinka et al., 2012). This uncertainty is indicated by question marks in the model. Polarity could be specified if the model is adapted to contain detailed, context-specific causal pathways.

Increased *water scarcity* and decreased *water quality* can lead to *land and soil degradation*, *biodiversity loss* in aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems (Olsson et al., 2019) and *poor human health* due to contamination (Li, 2018). *Biodiversity loss* can impact *water scarcity* and *water quality* because native aquatic species often play a role in maintaining *water quality* (Worm et al., 2006) (see Appendix). These relationships can reinforce each other, driving increasing damage to ecosystems (see R6-8, Figure 7). Specifically, reinforcing loop (R8) shows how *water scarcity*, *land degradation*, *eutrophication* and *poor water quality* can act together to worsen environmental degradation (see figure 6).

Other components of this subsystem may worsen damage described above. For example, *fertilisers* and *pesticides* can have further impacts on *water quality* and *biodiversity loss* via *eutrophication* (Olsson et al., 2019) or *ecotoxicity* (Aktar et al., 2009; FAO, 2019).

Differentiating UPF system impacts from general food system impacts

While much of the above description is applicable to all foods, processing and ultra-processing can require substantial water inputs, depending on the product. A study analysing water used to produce ultra-processed meat alternatives found that processing accounted for 63% of product lifecycle water use (Fresán et al., 2019).

Additionally, impacts from fertilisers may be particularly relevant to UPFs as previous evidence suggests that ‘sweets, snacks and drinks’ (which are often UPFs) accounted for 42% of diet-related phosphorus use and 12% of diet-related nitrogen use in Sweden (Moberg et al., 2020). Overall

further research is needed to determine if there are different mechanisms or larger impacts relating to water used for UPF production.

[Insert Figure 6 here]

Figure 7: Causal loop diagram of Subsystem 6: Water use and aquatic impacts relevant to UPF systems

Figure 7 Legend: Black boxes and arrows indicate the supply chain, green boxes and arrows denote environmental drivers and outcomes, grey boxes indicate other system outcomes deemed relevant by participants and grey arrows denote links to other subsystems. Solid lines denote that the evidence was established (supported by empirical evidence or reviews of empirical evidence). 'R' denotes reinforcing loops, polarity of relationships are denoted by +/- next to the arrow head. Impacts which may increase or decrease are denoted with a question mark, rather than a polarity such as +/- . Reinforcing loops, balancing loops and connections (arrows) in grey are described in subsequent subsystems. Other figures display commercial drivers of UPF systems (Figure 2), socio-cultural and biological drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption (Figure 3 & 4), climate change and air pollution impacts (Figure 5), land-related impacts (Figure 6), and loss and waste (Figure 8).

3.8 Subsystem 7: Loss and waste impacts from ultra-processed food systems

This subsystem describes the relationship between the production of UPFs and loss or waste of resources (see Figure 8).

One key driver of this subsystem is the assumption that *lost or wasted food* (which occurs at each supply chain stage (Bajželj et al., 2020)) may drive *agricultural production* to compensate for the *lost or wasted food* (de Gorter et al., 2021) (proposed link and R22, Figure 8). This results in *wasted food system resources*.

Linked with this concept are the bi-directional relationships whereby *time pressures* to reduce *food loss and waste* can be abated by *processing, ultra-processing* (Augustin et al., 2016) and *packaging* (Marsh and Bugusu, 2007) (B2-4, Figure 8). Balancing loop B5 indicates how *processing, ultra-*

processing and packaging lead to increased food durability, thereby decreasing food loss and waste.

However, some level of *food loss and waste* still occurs as a result of these processes, as indicated by the reinforcing loops (R22-24, Figure 8). Additionally, valorisation (where by-products are processed or ultra-processed into food ingredients or products) may drive UPF production, as a UPF vessel may be required to carry the valorised ingredients (Capozzi et al., 2021) (see R19, R20, Figure 7).

Impacts from poorly handled waste may amplify impacts seen in previous subsystems, such as *biodiversity loss* (Azevedo-Santos et al., 2021), *poor water quality, land and soil degradation* (Chae and An, 2018), and *greenhouse gas emissions* (Scialabba et al., 2013; Tabata, 2013). These feed into reinforcing loops whereby more food is lost or wasted due to environmental events such as climate change (IPCC, 2022) or changes in pests (Delgado et al., 2021) (R9-11).

Differentiating UPF system impacts from general food system impacts

Impacts discussed above highlight that UPFs both cause and alleviate waste in the food system. One UPF-specific impact relates to UPFs driving *overconsumption* (Hall et al., 2019). *Overconsumption* may theoretically drive an oversupply of calories to some markets within the food system and represent a *waste of food system resources* which could otherwise be spared or re-routed to produce non-UPFs (Seferidi et al., 2020) (proposed relationship, Figure 8).

Also, *packaging* is inherent in UPF systems as UPFs are typically packaged, often in plastic. This contributes to UPFs waste-related impacts (Andrades et al., 2016), and may distinguish them from some non-UPFs, such as fresh foods. However, durable foods, such as UPFs, tend to be less wasted in households than perishable non-UPFs (Reynolds et al., 2016; Reynolds et al., 2015). Quantitative comparisons of the impact of UPF production and consumption on overconsumption, food loss and waste and packaging waste would help clarify whether UPFs are associated with more or less waste than non-UPFs.

[Insert Figure 8 here]

Figure 8: Causal loop diagram of Subsystem 7: Loss and waste impacts relevant to UPF systems

Figure 8 Legend: Dotted lines indicate that the relationship was proposed (no existing empirical evidence), and solid lines denote that the evidence was established (supported by empirical evidence or reviews of empirical evidence). Black boxes and arrows indicate the supply chain, blue boxes and arrows are system drivers, green boxes and arrows denote environmental drivers and outcomes, grey boxes indicate other system outcomes deemed relevant by participants and grey arrows denote links to other subsystems. 'R' denotes reinforcing loops, polarity of relationships are denoted by +/- next to the arrow head. Reinforcing loops, balancing loops and connections (arrows) in grey are described in subsequent subsystems. Other figures display commercial drivers of UPF systems (Figure 2), socio-cultural and biological drivers of UPF purchasing and consumption (Figure 3 & 4), climate change and air pollution impacts (Figure 5), land-related impacts (Figure 6), and water use and aquatic impacts (Figure 7).

3.9 Transitioning to a healthy and sustainable food system

Throughout the workshops, participants were prompted to discuss how the current UPF food system may differ from an idealised food system producing non-UPFs. Participants acknowledged that the production of non-UPFs can also cause environmental harm but re-iterated the importance of comparing the UPF-based system to a vision of a healthy and sustainable future food system. Therefore, the counterfactual was an idealised system producing non-UPFs, using environmentally sustainable production methods, adapted to the local environment. In this system, a variety of crops and livestock species would be farmed and bred for durability, flavour, nutrition and yield.

Determining the differences between the drivers and impacts within a UPF system compared with a healthy and sustainable food system was challenging in the absence of quantitative data. Variables that may be more prominent in a UPF system compared with an idealised food system are displayed in the Appendix. When asked to compare the impacts of UPF versus an idealised food system, participants often discussed potential trade-offs that could result from this transition. Some trade-offs are described in Table 1.

Table 1: Examples of trade-offs identified by participants which may occur when transitioning to an idealised food system

Trade-offs	Description
Energy use versus food system efficiency	UPFs can rely on high-energy inputs, but these energy inputs may enable efficiency, which may result in lowered energy demands at subsequent supply chain stages. For example, high energy demands for ultra-processing increase food durability, meaning energy-intense refrigerated transportation may not be required. It also could reduce the weight of the product through dehydration, or reducing bulk by converting grain to powder, which would further minimise transportation costs. Participants noted that in an idealised food system, energy inputs would need to be prioritised for foods that are essential for a healthy diet but that food system efficiency would need to be weighed against other environmental impacts from intense production processes, described previously in subsystems 4, 5 & 6.
Land sparing versus land sharing	Changing to less-intense production systems (e.g. pasture-raised livestock) may come at the cost of requiring more land to produce the same amount of foods. This may benefit agrobiodiversity but result in a loss of natural habitat for species living in the wider ecosystems (biodiversity loss), known broadly as the 'land-sharing versus land-sparing debate'.
Diversity versus efficiency	More diverse agricultural systems may encourage a variety of non-UPFs (and thus discourage industrially produced and homogenous UPFs) but may result in efficiency losses due to time and cost pressures for farmers, relating to increased physical labour and management. For example, due to the need to manage a wider variety of pests and harvesting systems or to determine additional buyers for each new crop or livestock product.

Trade-offs	Description
Wasted food system resources versus food loss and waste	UPFs can be perceived to waste resources because the scarce resources used to produce them are being used to produce foods which are superfluous to human nutritional requirements, and often encourage overconsumption. However, the production and consumption of UPFs instead of non-UPFs (which may be more perishable) may contribute to reduced food loss and waste in the system due to their durability and ability to utilise waste-reduction processes such as valorisation (see Subsystem 7). Thus, any food system transitions which decrease UPF production should consider unintended increases in food loss and waste.
Food supply stability versus healthfulness	Improving the healthfulness of the food supply by decreasing access and availability of UPFs may result in negative impacts on food supply stability. For example, in emergencies where access to fresh food is limited. UPFs are easy to consume (no preparation or ‘tools’ are required) and safe (due to their long shelf lives). However, because these foods are not “...of appropriate quality...” (as per the definition of food security (FAO, 2006)), they may have a negative influence on food and nutrition security.
Prioritising sustainability and healthy outcomes versus cost	Utilising a range of sustainable practices, including nutrient cycling, regenerative agriculture and more localised supply chains (where beneficial), as well as farming and breeding a wide variety of crops and livestock species for durability, flavour, nutrition and yield would likely lead to substantial cost increases. Changes would need to be complemented with the development of a range of new technologies, practices, and regulations, to avoid negative impacts on livelihoods and food security.

Trade-offs	Description
Convenience versus healthfulness	Transitioning to healthy and sustainable food systems without accounting for convenient food products, may mean that those who are already time-poor and have limited cooking skills may be further disadvantaged. To account for this, food system transitions would need to consider accessibility to convenient non-UPF foods.

4. Discussion

Using group model building (GMB) and complemented with information from the peer-reviewed literature we developed a series of causal loop diagrams (CLDs) identifying drivers of the ultra-processed food (UPF) system and dynamic interactions with the environment.

Our approach to modelling impacts according to supply chain stages is supported by existing quantitative evidence showing significant variability between environmental impacts at each stage of food production (Crippa et al., 2021; Tubiello et al., 2021a; Tubiello et al., 2021b). The resulting model may be applied to guide the identification of system trade-offs, research activities and provide further insights for policy makers.

4.1 Identification of system trade-offs

This model highlights potential trade-offs associated with a reduction of ultra-processed foods (see examples in Table 1). While these trade-offs have been previously discussed in the peer-reviewed literature, the model can be used as a tool to enable further discussion of these trade-offs among researchers and policy-makers. For example, policies that reduce UPF accessibility should consider mitigating potential impacts on overall food access, particularly for those already experiencing food

insecurity. Potential impacts for those with limited cooking skills or who are time-poor, or resource-poor would also need to be considered, due to the association between these factors and reliance on convenient UPFs, particularly among disadvantaged populations (Moran et al., 2019). Energy trade-offs should also be considered as industrial pre-cooking may be less energy intensive than individual home cooking (Scott et al., 2021), but these benefits are possible without ultra-processing (Davidou et al., 2022). Mitigating these risks is particularly important in the current climate of rising costs of living, which are disproportionately affecting already disadvantaged populations in the wake of the COVID pandemic and political unrest in key food-producing regions (Hawkes et al., 2022).

Food waste trade-offs may exist when transitioning from UPFs to a healthy and sustainable food system (see Table 1). Mitigation strategies could include campaigns to reduce household food waste (Aschemann-Witzel et al., 2017), and re-routing supply chain waste into animal feed (Truong et al., 2019) or biofuels (Pour and Makkawi, 2021), instead of UPF production. Time pressures in the food system would remain, however primary and secondary processing may alleviate some pressures relating to shelf-life (Augustin et al., 2016). For example, processing could be prioritised to extend shelf-life of nutrient dense and environmentally demanding, perishable products such as milk powders and small fish.

4.2 Potential policy implications

While further research is needed to understand local contexts and more detailed interactions, causal loop diagrams may be useful for policy design. Using policy to interrupt the reinforcing loops or affect variables with many flow-on effects may impact the quantity of UPFs produced by the food system and their subsequent environmental impacts. In this model, this includes variables such as the corporate political activity of the UPF industry and their economic power, low costs of the final product, access to UPFs, greenhouse gas emissions and climate change, land and soil degradation, fertiliser and pesticide use, food loss and waste, and packaging waste. Reducing the load on these

systems through regulation may improve subsequent impacts such as overall production and consumption, air pollution, water quality issues, biodiversity and waste impacts. Economic impacts, such as price increases, could be added to the model and used to avoid unintended consequences of systems change. Further analyses of trade-offs and uncertainties, adapting the model to local contexts or specific food and beverage products, and adding delays to the model may help to anticipate policy resistance and pre-emptively propose solutions, and ensure recommendations are context specific.

4.3 Informing future research activities

This study could inform future quantitative analyses and qualitative models. While it was not the explicit purpose of this study, the GMB process is well-suited to identifying the key parameters and metrics to develop more comprehensive quantitative analyses of the food system (Laurenti et al., 2014; Werner, 2005). Using our model to identify relevant supply chain stages and variables for quantitative analyses may help overcome some of the challenges in quantifying the environmental impacts of UPFs discussed in the introduction. The model could also be used to interpret quantitative findings in the context of the broader food system.

The model could also be used to identify evidence gaps and research opportunities. The relationships denoted with dashed or dotted lines in Figures 1-7 (such as market competition and ultra-processing in Figure 1) have been proposed but, to the authors' knowledge, remain untested, or evidence is inconclusive. Many of these highlighted relationships are key to understanding complexities in the food system and inform solutions, including policies.

Finally, the model and accompanying description presented in this paper could be used as a basis for modelling studies. To adapt this model to a healthy and sustainable food system, supply chain stages, variables and relationships could be removed or added using the editable modelling file provided in the Appendix. For example, variables could be added to enable a comparison with

alternative production systems, to understand impacts on workers' or animal rights, or to further unpack complex interactions summarised in our model. A quantitative model could also better differentiate between UPF and non-UPF impacts.

4.4 Limitations

The model developed in this study aimed to capture the key relationships between the UPF system and the natural environment, including all system drivers. While we aimed to retain as much detail as possible, the system does not capture every known or possible impact, which is an unavoidable disadvantage of mapping complex food systems (von Braun et al., 2021). Many issues discussed in the text are relevant to the food system generally, not just UPFs. While this made it difficult to differentiate impacts from UPFs, it also makes the model more applicable to future studies on other types of food. Included variables, relationships and how they were framed was ultimately subjective, and dependent on the diversity of knowledge of modellers. To reduce the risk of bias, we grounded the model in existing evidence, ensured that the participant size was appropriate for the method (Rouwette and Vennix, 2020), and validated all participant suggestions using existing peer-reviewed evidence. However, some evidence may have been missed in the searching process, as only the first 100 results were searched. In addition, we did not review the strength of the evidence according to pre-established methods such as GRADE (Guyatt et al., 2008), but instead used a simplified ranking method to distinguish between peer-reviewed empirical evidence, and proposed associations between variables. We also recruited participants from a wide range of countries, however, not all world regions were captured.

While there are many uses of the CLD described in this paper, there are limitations in its application. Because it is a qualitative model, the strength of the relationships between variables, magnitude of impacts, and correlation between environmental metrics were not tested. The model does not account for region-specific impacts. The model is also not product or location specific. To analyse a

particular product, especially those with complex or unusual supply chains, such as cellular meat, additional components and considerations may be required.

5. Conclusion

Our findings indicate multiple avenues through which UPFs impact the environment, driven by commercial, biological and social influences on production and consumption, with multiple interactions between and within subsystems. While some impacts are likely to be more prominent in a UPF-based food system, there was some difficulty differentiating impacts from UPFs compared with non-UPFs. Quantitative research is needed to better differentiate the impacts of UPFs compared with non-UPFs. This work also identifies policy-relevant trade-offs which would need to be mitigated if UPF production or consumption is reduced. Future improvements to the model could include adding delays, including more disciplines, categorising evidence using pre-established grading criteria, adapting it to local contexts or adapting the model to non-UPFs.

The model highlights research gaps and could be used to guide choices on supply chain stages, and environmental impacts relevant to UPFs for quantitative studies, as well as to provide a guide for interpreting quantitative findings in the context of complex and dynamic food systems.

6. Acknowledgements

The authors wish to acknowledge Carolina Venegas Hargous, Grace Tulysewski, Laura Marchese, Patricia Ribeiro De Melo and Tanita Northcott who acted as mock participants in several practice group model building sessions. Thank you also to Dr. Rebecca Lindberg for her insights on food security, which guided the framing of these concepts in the manuscript. This work was supported by the Australian Research Council (grant number DP190101323), 'Reforming evidence synthesis and translation for food and nutrition policy'.

7. References

605 Aktar, M.W., Sengupta, D., Chowdhury, A., 2009. Impact of pesticides use in agriculture: their
606 benefits and hazards. *Interdiscip Toxicol* 2(1), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.2478/v10102-009-0001-7>.

607 Aldaya, M.M., Ibañez, F.C., Domínguez-Lacueva, P., Murillo-Arbizu, M.T., Rubio-Varas, M., Soret, B.,
608 Beriain, M.J., 2021. Indicators and Recommendations for Assessing Sustainable Healthy Diets. *Foods*
609 10(5), 999. <https://doi.org/10.3390/foods10050999>.

610 Almeida, L.B., Scagliusi, F.B., Duran, A.C., Jaime, P.C., 2018. Barriers to and facilitators of ultra-
611 processed food consumption: perceptions of Brazilian adults. *Public Health Nutrition* 21(1), 68-76.
612 <https://doi.org/10.1017/s1368980017001665>.

613 Anastasiou, K., Baker, P., Hadjikakou, M., Hendrie, G.A., Lawrence, M., 2022. A conceptual
614 framework for understanding the environmental impacts of ultra-processed foods and implications
615 for sustainable food systems. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 368, 133155.
616 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2022.133155>.

617 Andrades, R., Martins, A.S., Fardim, L.M., Ferreira, J.S., Santos, R.G., 2016. Origin of marine debris is
618 related to disposable packs of ultra-processed food. *Marine Pollution Bulletin* 109(1), 192-195.
619 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.marpolbul.2016.05.083>.

620 Aschemann-Witzel, J., de Hooge, I.E., Rohm, H., Normann, A., Bossle, M.B., Grønhøj, A., Oostindjer,
621 M., 2017. Key characteristics and success factors of supply chain initiatives tackling consumer-
622 related food waste – A multiple case study. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 155, 33-45.
623 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.11.173>.

624 Augustin, M.A., Riley, M., Stockmann, R., Bennett, L., Kahl, A., Lockett, T., Osmond-McLeod, M.,
625 Sanguansri, P., Zajac, I., Phd, L., 2016. Role of food processing in food and nutrition security. *Trends*
626 *in Food Science & Technology* 56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tifs.2016.08.005>.

627 Azevedo-Santos, V.M., Brito, M.F.G., Manoel, P.S., Perroca, J.F., Rodrigues-Filho, J.L., Paschoal, L.R.P.,
628 Gonçalves, G.R.L., Wolf, M.R., Blettler, M.C.M., Andrade, M.C., Nobile, A.B., Lima, F.P., Ruocco,
629 A.M.C., Silva, C.V., Perbiche-Neves, G., Portinho, J.L., Giarrizzo, T., Arcifa, M.S., Pelicice, F.M., 2021.
630 Plastic pollution: A focus on freshwater biodiversity. *AMBIO - A Journal of the Human Environment*
631 50(7), 1313-1324. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-020-01496-5>.

632 Bailey, R.L., 2016. Modern foraging: Presence of food and energy density influence motivational
633 processing of food advertisements. *Appetite* 107, 568-574.
634 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2016.09.001>.

635 Bajželj, B., Quested, T.E., Rös, E., Swannell, R.P.J., 2020. The role of reducing food waste for resilient
636 food systems. *Ecosystem Services* 45, 101140.
637 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoser.2020.101140>.

638 Baker, P., Machado, P., Santos, T., Sievert, K., Backholer, K., Hadjikakou, M., Russell, C., Huse, O.,
639 Bell, C., Scrinis, G., Worsley, A., Friel, S., Lawrence, M., 2020. Ultra-processed foods and the nutrition
640 transition: Global, regional and national trends, food systems transformations and political economy
641 drivers. 21(12), e13126. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/obr.13126>.

642 Balasubramanian, S., Domingo, N.G.G., Hunt, N.D., Gittlin, M., Colgan, K.K., Marshall, J.D., Robinson,
643 A.L., Azevedo, I.M.L., Thakrar, S.K., Clark, M.A., Tessum, C.W., Adams, P.J., Pandis, S.N., Hill, J.D.,
644 2021. The food we eat, the air we breathe: a review of the fine particulate matter-induced air quality
645 health impacts of the global food system. *Environmental Research Letters* 16(10), 103004.
646 <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ac065f>.

647 Benka-Coker, W., Hoskovec, L., Severson, R., Balmes, J., Wilson, A., Magzamen, S., 2020. The joint
648 effect of ambient air pollution and agricultural pesticide exposures on lung function among children
649 with asthma. *Environmental research* 190, 109903. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.109903>.

650 Benton, T.G., Bieg, C., Harwatt, H., Pudasaini, R., Wellesley, L., 2021. Food system impacts on
651 biodiversity loss. Three levels for food system transformation in support of nature. Chatham House,
652 London.

653 Campbell, B.M., Hansen, J., Rioux, J., Stirling, C.M., Twomlow, S., Wollenberg, E., 2018. Urgent action
654 to combat climate change and its impacts (SDG 13): transforming agriculture and food systems.
655 *Current Opinion in Environmental Sustainability* 34, 13-20.
656 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosust.2018.06.005>.

657 Capozzi, F., Magkos, F., Fava, F., Milani, G.P., Agostoni, C., Astrup, A., Saguy, I.S., 2021. A
658 Multidisciplinary Perspective of Ultra-Processed Foods and Associated Food Processing
659 Technologies: A View of the Sustainable Road Ahead. *Nutrients* 13(11), 3948.
660 <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13113948>.

661 Chae, Y., An, Y.-J., 2018. Current research trends on plastic pollution and ecological impacts on the
662 soil ecosystem: A review. *Environmental Pollution* 240, 387-395.
663 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2018.05.008>.

664 Chak Leung Lam, M., Adams, J., 2017. Association between home food preparation skills and
665 behaviour, and consumption of ultra-processed foods: Cross-sectional analysis of the UK National
666 Diet and nutrition survey (2008-2009). *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition & Physical*
667 *Activity* 14, 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12966-017-0524-9>.

668 Chang, M.-W., Schaffir, J., Brown, R., Wegener, D.T., 2019. Mediation by self-efficacy in the relation
669 between social support and dietary intake in low-income postpartum women who were overweight
670 or obese. *Appetite* 140, 248-254. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2019.05.031>.

671 Chen, C., Chaudhary, A., Mathys, A., 2022. Dietary Change and Global Sustainable Development
672 Goals. 6. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2022.771041>.

673 Chen, X., Zhang, Z., Yang, H., Qiu, P., Wang, H., Wang, F., Zhao, Q., Fang, J., Nie, J., 2020.
674 Consumption of ultra-processed foods and health outcomes: a systematic review of epidemiological
675 studies. *Nutrition Journal* 19(1), 86. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12937-020-00604-1>.

676 Clapp, J., Scrinis, G., 2017. Big Food, Nutritionism, and Corporate Power. *Globalizations* 14(4), 578-
677 595. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14747731.2016.1239806>.

678 Contento, I.R., Koch, P.A., Lee, H., Sauberli, W., Calabrese-Barton, A., 2007. Enhancing Personal
679 Agency and Competence in Eating and Moving: Formative Evaluation of a Middle School Curriculum-
680 Choice, Control, and Change. *Journal of Nutrition Education & Behavior* 39, S179-S186,
681 [https://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&Aut](https://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&AuthType=ip,sso&db=eue&AN=507999882&site=ehost-live&scope=site)
682 [hType=ip,sso&db=eue&AN=507999882&site=ehost-live&scope=site](https://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&AuthType=ip,sso&db=eue&AN=507999882&site=ehost-live&scope=site).

683 Crippa, M., Solazzo, E., Guizzardi, D., Monforti-Ferrario, F., Tubiello, F.N., Leip, A., 2021. Food
684 systems are responsible for a third of global anthropogenic GHG emissions. *Nature Food* 2(3), 198-
685 209. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00225-9>.

686 da Silva, J.T., Garzillo, J.M.F., Rauber, F., Kluczkowski, A., Rivera, X.S., da Cruz, G.L., Frankowska, A.,
687 Martins, C.A., da Costa Louzada, M.L., Monteiro, C.A., Reynolds, C., Bridle, S., Levy, R.B., 2021.
688 Greenhouse gas emissions, water footprint, and ecological footprint of food purchases according to
689 their degree of processing in Brazilian metropolitan areas: a time-series study from 1987 to 2018.
690 *The Lancet Planetary Health* 5(11), e775-e785. [https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(21)00254-0)
691 [5196\(21\)00254-0](https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(21)00254-0).

692 Dabrowski, J.M., Murray, K., Ashton, P.J., Leaner, J.J., 2009. Agricultural impacts on water quality and
693 implications for virtual water trading decisions. *Ecological Economics* 68(4), 1074-1082.
694 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2008.07.016>.

Davidou, S., Frank, K., Christodoulou, A., Fardet, A., 2022. Organic food retailing: to what extent are foods processed and do they contain markers of ultra-processing? *International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition* 73(2), 172-183. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09637486.2021.1966395>.

Davison, J., Share, M., Hennessy, M., Bunting, B., Markovina, J., Stewart-Knox, B., 2015. Correlates of food choice in unemployed young people: The role of demographic factors, self-efficacy, food involvement, food poverty and physical activity. *Food Quality & Preference* 46, 40-47. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodqual.2015.06.014>.

de Gorter, H., Drabik, D., Just, D.R., Reynolds, C., Sethi, G., 2021. Analyzing the economics of food loss and waste reductions in a food supply chain. *Food Policy* 98, 101953. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodpol.2020.101953>.

Delgado, L., Schuster, M., Torero, M., 2021. On the origins of food loss. *Applied Economic Perspectives & Policy* 43(2), 750-780. <https://doi.org/10.1002/aepp.13156>.

Diaz, R., Rosenberg, R., 2008. Spreading Dead Zones and Consequences for Marine Ecosystems. *Science (New York, N.Y.)* 321, 926-929. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1156401>.

Domingo, N.G.G., Balasubramanian, S., Thakrar, S.K., Clark, M.A., Adams, P.J., Marshall, J.D., Muller, N.Z., Pandis, S.N., Polasky, S., Robinson, A.L., Tessum, C.W., Tilman, D., Tschofen, P., Hill, J.D., 2021. Air quality-related health damages of food. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America* 118(20), e2013637118. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.2013637118>.

Earthscan, 2007. *Water for Food, Water for Life: A Comprehensive Assessment of Water Management in Agriculture*. International Water Management Institute, London, UK.

Elizabeth, L., Machado, P., Zinöcker, M., Baker, P., Lawrence, M., 2020. Ultra-Processed Foods and Health Outcomes: A Narrative Review. *Nutrients* 12(7), 1955, <https://www.mdpi.com/2072-6643/12/7/1955>.

Falkenmark, M., 2013. Growing water scarcity in agriculture: future challenge to global water security. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences* 371(2002), 20120410. <https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.2012.0410>.

FAO, 2006. *Policy Brief: Food Security*, 2 ed. FAO, Rome.

FAO, 2007. *The state of the world's animal genetic resources for food and agriculture- in brief*. FAO, Rome.

FAO, 2019. *The state of the world's biodiversity for food and agriculture*, in: Pilling, J.B.D. (Ed.). Rome.

Fardet, A., Lakhssassi, S., Briffaz, A., 2018. Beyond nutrient-based food indices: a data mining approach to search for a quantitative holistic index reflecting the degree of food processing and including physicochemical properties. *Food & function* 9(1), 561-572. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c7fo01423f>.

Fardet, A., Rock, E., 2020. Ultra-Processed Foods and Food System Sustainability: What Are the Links? *Sustainability* 12(15). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12156280>.

Fatima, A., Farid, M., Safdar, K., Fayyaz, A., Ali, S.M., Adnan, S., Nawaz, M., Munir, H., Raza, N., Zubair, M., 2020. Loss of Agro-Biodiversity and Productivity Due to Climate Change in Continent Asia: A Review, in: Hasanuzzaman, M. (Ed.) *Plant Ecophysiology and Adaptation under Climate Change: Mechanisms and Perspectives I: General Consequences and Plant Responses*. Springer Singapore, Singapore, pp. 51-71. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-2156-0_2.

Filgueiras, A.R., Pires de Almeida, V.B., Koch Nogueira, P.C., Alvares Domene, S.M., Eduardo da Silva, C., Sesso, R., Sawaya, A.L., 2019. Exploring the consumption of ultra-processed foods and its

739 association with food addiction in overweight children. *Appetite* 135, 137-145.
740 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2018.11.005>.

741 Folberth, C., Khabarov, N., Balkovič, J., Skalský, R., Visconti, P., Ciais, P., Janssens, I.A., Peñuelas, J.,
742 Obersteiner, M., 2020. The global cropland-sparing potential of high-yield farming. *Nature*
743 *Sustainability* 3(4), 281-289. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-020-0505-x>.

744 Forde, C.G., Mars, M., de Graaf, K., 2020. Ultra-Processing or Oral Processing? A Role for Energy
745 Density and Eating Rate in Moderating Energy Intake from Processed Foods. *Curr Dev Nutr* 4(3),
746 nzaa019. <https://doi.org/10.1093/cdn/nzaa019>.

747 Foterek, K., Hilbig, A., Alexy, U., 2015. Associations between commercial complementary food
748 consumption and fruit and vegetable intake in children. Results of the DONALD study. *Appetite* 85,
749 84-90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2014.11.015>.

750 Fresán, U., Marrin, D.L., Mejia, M.A., Sabaté, J., 2019. Water Footprint of Meat Analogs: Selected
751 Indicators According to Life Cycle Assessment, Water.

752 Fuge, H., 2019. Fossil Fuel Subsidy Reforms, Spatial Market Integration, and Welfare: Evidence from a
753 Natural Experiment in Ethiopia. *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 101(1), 270-290.
754 <https://doi.org/10.1093/ajae/aay026>.

755 García, A.L., Raza, S., Parrett, A., Wright, C.M., 2013. Nutritional content of infant commercial
756 weaning foods in the UK. *Archives of Disease in Childhood* 98(10), 793.
757 <https://doi.org/10.1136/archdischild-2012-303386>.

758 Garzillo, J.M.F., Poli, V.F.S., Leite, F.H.M., Steele, E.M., Machado, P.P., Louzada, M., Levy, R.B.,
759 Monteiro, C.A., 2022. Ultra-processed food intake and diet carbon and water footprints: a national
760 study in Brazil. *Rev Saude Publica* 56, 6. <https://doi.org/10.11606/s1518-8787.2022056004551>.

761 Guyatt, G.H., Oxman, A.D., Vist, G.E., Kunz, R., Falck-Ytter, Y., Alonso-Coello, P., Schünemann, H.J.,
762 2008. GRADE: an emerging consensus on rating quality of evidence and strength of
763 recommendations. *BMJ* 336(7650), 924. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.39489.470347.AD>.

764 Hadjikakou, M., 2017. Trimming the excess: environmental impacts of discretionary food
765 consumption in Australia. *Ecological Economics* 131, 119-128.
766 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2016.08.006>.

767 Haji Gholam Saryazdi, A., Ghatari, A., Mashayekhi, A.N., Hasanzadeh, A., 2021. Group Model
768 Building: A Systematic Review of the Literature. 3, 98-136.
769 <https://doi.org/10.26677/TR1010.2020.631>.

770 Hall, K.D., Ayuketah, A., Brychta, R., Cai, H., Cassimatis, T., Chen, K.Y., Chung, S.T., Costa, E., Courville,
771 A., Darcey, V., Fletcher, L.A., Forde, C.G., Gharib, A.M., Guo, J., Howard, R., Joseph, P.V., McGehee,
772 S., Ouwerkerk, R., Raisinger, K., Rozga, I., Stagliano, M., Walter, M., Walter, P.J., Yang, S., Zhou, M.,
773 2019. Ultra-Processed Diets Cause Excess Calorie Intake and Weight Gain: An Inpatient Randomized
774 Controlled Trial of Ad Libitum Food Intake. *Cell Metab* 30(1), 67-77.e63.
775 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmet.2019.05.008>.

776 Hawkes, C., 2005. The role of foreign direct investment in the nutrition transition. *Public Health Nutr*
777 8(4), 357-365. <https://doi.org/10.1079/phn2004706>.

778 Hawkes, C., Ambikapathi, R., Anastasiou, K., Brock, J., Castronuovo, L., Fallon, N., Malapit, H., Ndumi,
779 A., Samuel, F., Umugwaneza, M., Wanjohi, M.N., Zorbas, C., 2022. From food price crisis to an
780 equitable food system. *The Lancet*. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(22\)01348-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(22)01348-4).

781 Hertel, T.W., Ramankutty, N., Baldos, U.L.C., 2014. Global market integration increases likelihood
782 that a future African Green Revolution could increase crop land use and CO₂ emissions.
783 *PNAS* 111(38), 13799-13804. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1073/pnas.1403543111>.

784 HLPE, 2020. Food security and nutrition: building a global narrative towards 2030. A report by the
 785 High Level Panel of Experts on Food Security and Nutrition of the Committee on World Food
 786 Security. Committee on World Food Security.

787 Hrdinka, T., Novický, O., Hanslík, E., Rieder, M., 2012. Possible impacts of floods and droughts on
 788 water quality. *Journal of Hydro-environment Research* 6(2), 145-150.
 789 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jher.2012.01.008>.

790 IFA, UNEP, 2000. Mineral Fertilizer Use and the Environment. IFA; UNEP, Paris, France.

791 IPCC, 2021. Climate Change 2021: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the
 792 Sixth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

793 IPCC, 2022. Climate Change 2022: Impacts, Adaptation, and Vulnerability, in: H.-O. Pörtner, D.C.R.,
 794 E.S. Poloczanska, K. Mintenbeck, M. Tignor, A. Alegría, M. Craig, S. Langsdorf, S. Löschke, V. Möller,
 795 A. Okem (Ed.). Cambridge University Press.

796 Isaac, M.E., Nyantakyi-Frimpong, H., Matouš, P., Dawoe, E., Anglaaere, L.C.N., 2021. Farmer
 797 networks and agrobiodiversity interventions: the unintended outcomes of intended change. *Ecology*
 798 & Society 26(4), 614-624. <https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-12734-260412>.

799 Jalambadani, Z., Garmaroudi, G., Yaseri, M., Tavousi, M., Jafarian, K., 2017. Factors related to
 800 reduction in the consumption of fast food: application of the theory-based approaches. *Journal of*
 801 *Public Health Research* 6(2), 113-119. <https://doi.org/10.4081/jphr.2017.832>.

802 Jayasuriya, R.T., 2003. Measurement of the scarcity of soil in agriculture. *Resources Policy* 29(3), 119-
 803 129. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resourpol.2004.07.001>.

804 Kaur, A., Grover, D.K., Kaur, P.J., 2015. Study of Electricity Subsidy in Punjab Agriculture. *Indian*
 805 *Journal of Economics and Development* 11(1), 285-293,
 806 <https://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&AuthType=ip,sso&db=ecn&AN=1519905&site=ehost-live&scope=site>.

808 Kesse-Guyot, E., Allès, B., Brunin, J., Fouillet, H., Dussiot, A., Berthy, F., Perraud, E., Hercberg, S.,
 809 Julia, C., Mariotti, F., Deschasaux-Tanguy, M., Srouf, B., Lairon, D., Pointereau, P., Baudry, J., Touvier,
 810 M., 2022. Environmental impacts along the value chain from the consumption of ultra-processed
 811 foods. *Nature Sustainability*. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41893-022-01013-4>.

812 Kremen, C., Miles, A., 2012. Ecosystem Services in Biologically Diversified versus Conventional
 813 Farming Systems: Benefits, Externalities, and Trade-Offs. *Ecology and Society* 17(4).
 814 <https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-05035-170440>.

815 Lane, M.M., Davis, J.A., Beattie, S., Gómez-Donoso, C., Loughman, A., O'Neil, A., Jacka, F., Berk, M.,
 816 Page, R., Marx, W., Rocks, T., 2021. Ultraprocessed food and chronic noncommunicable diseases: A
 817 systematic review and meta-analysis of 43 observational studies. *Obesity Reviews* 22(3), e13146.
 818 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/obr.13146>.

819 Laurenti, R., Lazarevic, D., Poulikidou, S., Montrucchio, V., Bistagnino, L., Frostell, B., 2014. Group
 820 Model-Building to identify potential sources of environmental impacts outside the scope of LCA
 821 studies. *Journal of Cleaner Production* 72, 96-109.
 822 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.03.001>.

823 Leite, F.H.M., Khandpur, N., Andrade, G.C., Anastasiou, K., Baker, P., Lawrence, M., Monteiro, C.A.,
 824 2022. Ultra-processed foods should be central to global food systems dialogue and action on
 825 biodiversity. *BMJ Global Health* 7(3), e008269. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmjgh-2021-008269>.

826 Li, Z., 2018. The use of a disability-adjusted life-year (DALY) metric to measure human health damage
 827 resulting from pesticide maximum legal exposures. *Sci Total Environ* 639, 438-456.
 828 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.05.148>.

829 Macari, M., Bahena, L., Torres, F., Berner, R., Calvillo, A., 2019. Improving the school food
830 environment through policy: a case study of challenges and recommendations from Mexico. *UNSCN*
831 *News*(No.44), 107-114. [https://doi.org/https://www.unscn.org/uploads/web/news/UNSCN-](https://doi.org/https://www.unscn.org/uploads/web/news/UNSCN-Nutrition44-WEB-21aug.pdf)
832 [Nutrition44-WEB-21aug.pdf](https://doi.org/https://www.unscn.org/uploads/web/news/UNSCN-Nutrition44-WEB-21aug.pdf).

833 Marino, M., Puppo, F., Del Bo, C., Vinelli, V., Riso, P., Porrini, M., Martini, D., 2021. A Systematic
834 Review of Worldwide Consumption of Ultra-Processed Foods: Findings and Criticisms. *Nutrients*
835 13(8), 2778. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13082778>.

836 Marsh, K., Bugusu, B., 2007. Food Packaging—Roles, Materials, and Environmental Issues. *Journal of*
837 *Food Science* 72(3), R39-R55. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1750-3841.2007.00301.x>.

838 Martini, D., Godoś, J., Bonaccio, M., Vitaglione, P., Grosso, G., 2021. Ultra-Processed Foods and
839 Nutritional Dietary Profile: A Meta-Analysis of Nationally Representative Samples. *Nutrients* 13,
840 3390. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13103390>.

841 Matos, R.A., Adams, M., Sabaté, J., 2021. Review: The Consumption of Ultra-Processed Foods and
842 Non-communicable Diseases in Latin America. 8. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fnut.2021.622714>.

843 Moberg, E., Karlsson Potter, H., Wood, A., Hansson, P.-A., Rööf, E., 2020. Benchmarking the Swedish
844 Diet Relative to Global and National Environmental Targets—Identification of Indicator Limitations
845 and Data Gaps. *Sustainability* 12(4). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su12041407>.

846 Monteiro, C., Cannon, G., Levy, R.B., Moubarac, J.C., Louzada, M.L., Rauber, F., Khandpur, N., Cediel,
847 G., Neri, D., Martinez-Steele, E., Baraldi, L.G., Jaime, P.C., 2019. Ultra-processed foods: what they are
848 and how to identify them. *Public Health Nutr* 22(5), 936-941.
849 <https://doi.org/10.1017/s1368980018003762>.

850 Monteiro, C.A., Moubarac, J.C., Cannon, G., Ng, S.W., Popkin, B., 2013. Ultra-processed products are
851 becoming dominant in the global food system. *Obesity Reviews*(S2), 21,
852 [https://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=](https://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsgao&AN=edsgcl.349975262&authtype=sso&custid=deakin&site=eds-live&scope=site)
853 [edsgao&AN=edsgcl.349975262&authtype=sso&custid=deakin&site=eds-live&scope=site](https://ezproxy.deakin.edu.au/login?url=https://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=edsgao&AN=edsgcl.349975262&authtype=sso&custid=deakin&site=eds-live&scope=site).

854 Moodie, R., Bennett, E., Kwong, E.J.L., Santos, T.M., Pratiwi, L., Williams, J., Baker, P., 2021. Ultra-
855 Processed Profits: The Political Economy of Countering the Global Spread of Ultra-Processed Foods –
856 A Synthesis Review on the Market and Political Practices of Transnational Food Corporations and
857 Strategic Public Health Responses. *International Journal of Health Policy and Management*.
858 <https://doi.org/10.34172/ijhpm.2021.45>.

859 Moran, A.J., Khandpur, N., Polacsek, M., Rimm, E.B., 2019. What factors influence ultra-processed
860 food purchases and consumption in households with children? A comparison between participants
861 and non-participants in the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program (SNAP). *Appetite* 134, 1-8.
862 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.appet.2018.12.009>.

863 Oduor, F.O., Boedecker, J., Kennedy, G., Termote, C., 2019. Exploring agrobiodiversity for nutrition:
864 household on-farm agrobiodiversity is associated with improved quality of diet of young children in
865 Vihiga, Kenya. *PLoS ONE* 14(8), e0219680.
866 <https://doi.org/https://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0219680>.

867 Olsson, L., Barbosa, H., Bhadwal, S., Cowie, A., Delusca, K., Flores-Rentería, D., Hermans, K., Jobbágy,
868 E., Kurz, W., Li, D., Sonwa, D., Stringer, L., Crews, T.E., Dallimer, M., Eekhout, J., Erb, K.-H., Haughey,
869 E., Houghton, R., Iqbal, M., Barau, A.S., 2019. IPCC SRCCL Chapter 4: Land Degradation.

870 Orden, D., Zulauf, C., 2015. Political Economy of the 2014 Farm Bill. *American Journal of Agricultural*
871 *Economics* 97(5), 1298-1311. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1093/ajae/aav028>.

872 Pagliai, G., Dinu, M., Madarena, M.P., Bonaccio, M., Iacoviello, L., Sofi, F., 2021. Consumption of
873 ultra-processed foods and health status: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *British Journal of*
874 *Nutrition* 125(3), 308-318. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114520002688>.

875 Popp, J., Pető, K., Nagy, J., 2013. Pesticide productivity and food security. A review. *Agronomy for*
876 *Sustainable Development* 33(1), 243-255. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-012-0105-x>.

877 Pour, F.H., Makkawi, Y.T., 2021. A review of post-consumption food waste management and its
878 potentials for biofuel production. *Energy Reports* 7, 7759-7784.
879 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.egy.2021.10.119>.

880 Pursey, K.M., Collins, C.E., Stanwell, P., Burrows, T.L., 2015. Foods and dietary profiles associated
881 with 'food addiction' in young adults. *Addictive Behaviors Reports* 2, 41-48.
882 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.abrep.2015.05.007>.

883 Purwanto, A., Sušnik, J., Suryadi, F.X., de Fraiture, C., 2019. Using group model building to develop a
884 causal loop mapping of the water-energy-food security nexus in Karawang Regency, Indonesia.
885 *Journal of Cleaner Production* 240, 118170.
886 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2019.118170>.

887 Reynolds, C.J., Miroso, M., Clothier, B., 2016. New Zealand's Food Waste: Estimating the Tonnes,
888 Value, Calories and Resources Wasted. *Agriculture* 6(1).
889 <https://doi.org/10.3390/agriculture6010009>.

890 Reynolds, C.J., Piantadosi, J., Buckley, J.D., Weinstein, P., Boland, J., 2015. Evaluation of the
891 environmental impact of weekly food consumption in different socio-economic households in
892 Australia using environmentally extended input–output analysis. *Ecological Economics* 111, 58-64.
893 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecolecon.2015.01.007>.

894 Richards, T.J., Hamilton, S.F., 2006. Rivalry in Price and Variety among Supermarket Retailers.
895 *American Journal of Agricultural Economics* 88(3), 710-726.
896 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8276.2006.00890.x>.

897 Ridoutt, B.G., Anastasiou, K., Baird, D., Hendrie, G.A., 2020. Cropland footprints of Australian dietary
898 choices. *Nutrients* 12(5), 1212. <https://doi.org/doi:10.3390/nu12051212>.

899 Ritchie, H., 2020. Energy Mix. www.ourworldindata.org/energy-mix. (Accessed March 18 2021).

900 Rockström, J., Edenhofer, O., Gaertner, J., DeClerck, F., 2020. Planet-proofing the global food system.
901 *Nature Food* 1(1), 3-5. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-019-0010-4>.

902 Rouwette, E.A.J.A., Vennix, J.A.M., 2020. Group Model Building, in: Dangerfield, B. (Ed.) *System*
903 *Dynamics: Theory and Applications*. Springer US, New York, NY, pp. 91-107.
904 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4939-8790-0_264.

905 Rouwette, E.A.J.A., Vennix, J.A.M., Mullekom, T.v., 2002. Group model building effectiveness: a
906 review of assessment studies. *System Dynamics Review* 18(1), 5-45.
907 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/sdr.229>.

908 Schulte, E.M., Avena, N.M., Gearhardt, A.N., 2015. Which Foods May Be Addictive? The Roles of
909 Processing, Fat Content, and Glycemic Load. *PLOS ONE* 10(2), e0117959.
910 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0117959>.

911 Scialabba, N., Jan, O., Tostivint, C., Turbé, A., O'Connor, C., Lavelle, P., Flammini, A., Hoogeveen, J.,
912 Iweins, M., Tubiello, F., Peiser, L., Batello, C., 2013. Food Wastage Footprint: Impacts on Natural
913 Resources. Summary Report. FAO, Rome.

914 Scott, N., Barnard-Tallier, M., Batchelor, S., 2021. Losing the Energy to Cook: An Exploration of
915 Modern Food Systems and Energy Consumption in Domestic Kitchens, *Energies*.

916 Scrinis, G., Monteiro, C.A., 2018. Ultra-processed foods and the limits of product reformulation.
917 *Public Health Nutrition* 21(1), 247-252. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1368980017001392>.

Seferidi, P., Scrinis, G., Huybrechts, I., Woods, J., Vineis, P., Millett, C., 2020. The neglected environmental impacts of ultra-processed foods. *The Lancet Planetary Health* 4(10), e437-e438. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196\(20\)30177-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(20)30177-7).

Shi, L., Guo, Y., Ning, J., Lou, S., Hou, F., 2020. Herbicide applications increase greenhouse gas emissions of alfalfa pasture in the inland arid region of northwest China. *PeerJ* 8, e9231-e9231. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.9231>.

Su, L.J., Young, S.G., Collins, J., Matich, E., Hsu, P.-C., Chiang, T.-C., 2022. Geospatial Assessment of Pesticide Concentration in Ambient Air and Colorectal Cancer Incidence in Arkansas, 2013-2017. *International journal of environmental research and public health* 19(6). <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19063258>.

Tabata, T., 2013. Waste-to-energy incineration plants as greenhouse gas reducers: a case study of seven Japanese metropolises. *Waste management & research : the journal of the International Solid Wastes and Public Cleansing Association, ISWA* 31(11), 1110-1117. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242x13502385>.

Thrupp, L.A., 2000. Linking agricultural biodiversity and food security: the valuable role of agrobiodiversity for sustainable agriculture. *International Affairs* 76(2), 265. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2346.00133>.

Tilman, D., Clark, M., 2014. Global diets link environmental sustainability and human health. *Nature* 515(7528), 518-522. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13959>.

Tongco, M.D.C., 2007. Purposive Sampling as a Tool for Informant Selection. *Ethnobotany Research and Applications* 5(0), 147-158, <https://ethnobotanyjournal.org/index.php/era/article/view/126>.

Truong, L., Morash, D., Liu, Y., King, A., 2019. Food waste in animal feed with a focus on use for broilers. *International Journal of Recycling of Organic Waste in Agriculture* 8(4), 417-429. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40093-019-0276-4>.

Tubiello, F., Karl, K., Flammini, A., Gütschow, J., Obli-Layrea, G., Conchedda, G., Pan, X., Qi, S.Y., Halldórudóttir Heiðarsdóttir, H., Wanner, N., Quadrelli, R., Rocha Souza, L., Benoit, P., Hayek, M., Sandalow, D., Mencos-Contreras, E., Rosenzweig, C., Rosero Moncayo, J., Conforti, P., Torero, M., 2021a. Pre- and post-production processes along supply chains increasingly dominate GHG emissions from agri-food systems globally and in most countries. *Earth Syst. Sci. Data Discuss.*, 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.5194/essd-2021-389>.

Tubiello, F., Rosenzweig, C., Conchedda, G., Karl, K., Gütschow, J., Obli-Layrea, G., Wanner, N., Qiu, S., Barros, J., Flammini, A., Mencos-Contreras, E., Souza, L., Quadrelli, R., Heiðarsdóttir, H., Benoit, P., Hayek, M., Sandalow, D., 2021b. Greenhouse gas emissions from food systems: Building the evidence base. *Environmental Research Letters* 16, 65007. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/ac018e>.

Valencia Cotera, R., Egerer, S., Máñez Costa, M., 2022. Identifying Strengths and Obstacles to Climate Change Adaptation in the German Agricultural Sector: A Group Model Building Approach. *Sustainability* 14(4). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su14042370>.

Vennix, J.A.M., 1996. Group Model Building: Facilitating Team Learning Using System Dynamics.

von Braun, J., Afsana, K., Fresco, L.O., Hassan, M., Torero, M., 2021. Food system concepts and definitions for science and political action. *Nature Food* 2(10), 748-750. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00361-2>.

Werner, F., 2005. Toward a Group-Model Building Process in LCA, in: Werner, F. (Ed.) *Ambiguities in Decision-oriented Life Cycle Inventories: The Role of Mental Models and Values*. Springer Netherlands, Dordrecht, pp. 347-363. https://doi.org/10.1007/1-4020-3254-4_23.

963 Willett, W., Rockström, J., Loken, B., Springmann, M., Lang, T., Vermeulen, S., Garnett, T., Tilman, D.,
 964 DeClerck, F., Wood, A., Jonell, M., Clark, M., Gordon, L.J., Fanzo, J., Hawkes, C., Zurayk, R., Rivera,
 965 J.A., De Vries, W., Majele Sibanda, L., Afshin, A., Chaudhary, A., Herrero, M., Agustina, R., Branca, F.,
 966 Lartey, A., Fan, S., Crona, B., Fox, E., Bignet, V., Troell, M., Lindahl, T., Singh, S., Cornell, S.E., Srinath
 967 Reddy, K., Narain, S., Nishtar, S., Murray, C.J.L., 2019. Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT-Lancet
 968 Commission on healthy diets from sustainable food systems. *The Lancet* 393(10170), 447-492.
 969 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)31788-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)31788-4).

970 Wood, B., Baker, P., Scrinis, G., McCoy, D., Williams, O., Sacks, G., 2021a. Maximising the wealth of
 971 few at the expense of the health of many: a public health analysis of market power and corporate
 972 wealth and income distribution in the global soft drink market. *Global Health* 17(1), 138.
 973 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12992-021-00781-6>.

974 Wood, B., Williams, O., Nagarajan, V., Sacks, G., 2021b. Market strategies used by processed food
 975 manufacturers to increase and consolidate their power: a systematic review and document analysis.
 976 *Global. Health* 17(1), 17. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12992-021-00667-7>.

977 Worm, B., Barbier, E.B., Beaumont, N., Duffy, J.E., Folke, C., Halpern, B.S., Jackson, J.B.C., Lotze, H.K.,
 978 Micheli, F., Palumbi, S.R., Sala, E., Selkoe, K.A., Stachowicz, J.J., Watson, R., 2006. Impacts of
 979 Biodiversity Loss on Ocean Ecosystem Services. 314(5800), 787-790.
 980 <https://doi.org/doi:10.1126/science.1132294>.

981 Zurek, M., Hebinck, A., Selomane, O., 2022. Climate change and the urgency to transform food
 982 systems. 376(6600), 1416-1421. <https://doi.org/doi:10.1126/science.abo2364>.