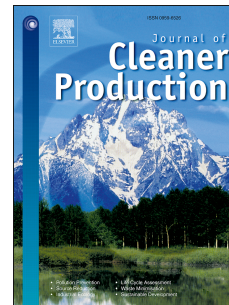


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The sleeping giant? Food waste in the foodservice sector of Russia

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**Viachaslau Filimonau** Conceptualization, Data analysis, Data curation, Writing – initial draft

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**Declaration of conflict**

The authors hereby declare no conflict of interest

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## **The sleeping giant? Food waste in the foodservice sector of Russia**

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1

**The sleeping giant? Food waste in the foodservice sector of Russia**

2

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### 3 **Abstract**

4 Despite being a major global economy, the challenge of food waste in Russia remains  
5 unexplored. In particular, nothing is known about the dynamics of food waste generated  
6 within its foodservice sector. The lack of empirical knowledge hampers the design of policy  
7 and management interventions for food waste reduction in Russian foodservices. The study  
8 adopts a qualitative and descriptive case study approach to provide the first benchmark of  
9 food wastage in commercial foodservices of Russia. The study shows that an average  
10 restaurant produces circa 14 t of food waste per year and the annual sectoral wastage amounts  
11 to at least 1.23 Mt, or 7% of the country's total. Most food waste occurs due to the over-  
12 production of meals and customer plate leftovers. Albeit the patterns of food waste  
13 management in Russian foodservices resemble those adopted by foodservice operators in  
14 other markets of food consumption, the study identifies a few approaches that can be classed  
15 as 'best practices' in Russia and beyond. These 'best practices' include incentives given to  
16 customers for clean plates and partnerships for food waste reduction formed with local  
17 farmers. A framework for more effective management of food waste in Russian foodservices  
18 is proposed underpinned by the principles of multi-stakeholder collaboration. This framework  
19 advocates the need to build 'collaborative bubbles' of foodservice providers, farmers and  
20 charities supported by targeted policies. Such bubbles will not only reduce food waste, but  
21 can also enhance the social and network capital of all stakeholders involved.

22



23	<b>Keywords</b>
24	Food waste
25	Catering
26	Prevention
27	Mitigation
28	Sustainability
29	

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30 **Highlights**

- 31 • First benchmark of food waste in different categories of Russian commercial foodservices
- 32 • An average restaurant in Russia wastes up to 14 t of food per year
- 33 • Fine dining and quick service waste the most and least food per business, respectively
- 34 • Over-production of food and plate leftovers are the key drivers
- 35 • Innovations in food waste management include on-site composting, clean plate incentives
- 36 and collaboration with local farmers

37

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## 38 1. Introduction

39 Food waste (FW) is a major societal challenge and the need to prevent and mitigate its  
40 occurrence has been recognised at the top level of global governance (UNSDG 2020).  
41 Prevention and mitigation of FW is necessary from the viewpoint of more rational use of  
42 natural resources and pollution abatement (Scherhauer *et al.* 2018). It is also required from  
43 the perspective of business longevity as FW undermines profitability of food manufacturers,  
44 processors, retailers and foodservice providers (Martin-Rios *et al.* 2018). Prevention and  
45 mitigation of FW is critical from the moral standpoint given that a large share of global  
46 population suffers from food poverty and malnutrition (Thompson and Haigh 2017).

47 Effective management of FW requires knowledge of its occurrence across different  
48 sectors of the global food supply chain (Eriksson *et al.* 2019). Effective management also  
49 necessitates an understanding of the FW prevention and mitigation measures already adopted  
50 within these sectors (Papargyropoulou *et al.* 2016). This is to establish examples of ‘best  
51 practices’ and evaluate the scope for their cross-sectoral adoption (Hennchen 2019).  
52 Important is that these sector-specific ‘best practices’ should be assessed through the prism of  
53 the socio-economic, cultural and political conditions of the food production and consumption  
54 markets (Filimonau and de Coteau 2019). The drivers of FW occurrence and the determinants  
55 of their elimination are often market-dependent and connected to the local context  
56 (Aschemann-Witzel *et al.* 2018). For example, national culture plays a role in how and why  
57 FW occurs and is managed in China (Filimonau *et al.* 2020c) and the regional political  
58 agenda restricts FW management options in the EU-28 countries (Teigiserova *et al.* 2020).

59 Despite the importance of obtaining sector- and market-specific FW figures and then  
60 linking these figures to the prevention and mitigation practices, the related research agenda  
61 remains under-developed (Amicarelli and Bux 2020). Some sectors of the global food supply  
62 chain have been under-studied (Xue and Liu 2019). This is the case for foodservices whereby

63 the challenge of FW and its management has only recently drawn scholarly attention. A  
64 systematic literature review undertaken by Dhir *et al.* (2020) identifies only 63 peer-reviewed  
65 papers on FW in the foodservice sector. The majority (42 or 67% of the total) are published  
66 after 2018, thus showcasing FW in foodservices as an emerging object of scholarly scrutiny.

67 The geographical focus of research on FW in the foodservice sector has been skewed  
68 towards a handful of markets. The review by Dhir *et al.* (2020) finds that six countries (USA,  
69 China, Finland, UK, Germany and Italy) account for over 50% of all research outputs or 33  
70 studies in total. Alarming is that the challenge of FW in foodservices of some major global  
71 economies has not been examined. This is the case for the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India,  
72 China and South Africa) countries where food production and consumption evolves rapidly  
73 (Nassani *et al.* 2017). The FW phenomenon in the national foodservice sectors of Brazil,  
74 India and China has been increasingly scrutinised, see, for instance, Bharucha (2018),  
75 Matzembacher *et al.* (2020) and Filimonau *et al.* (2020c). No academic research has however  
76 attempted to explore the FW challenge in foodservices of Russia and South Africa. This is a  
77 critical knowledge gap as the steady growth of these major global economies accelerates food  
78 consumption out of home which, in turn, generates FW (Li *et al.* 2020). The call to enhance  
79 knowledge on FW occurring in various sectors of the national food supply chains in the  
80 BRICS countries was first made in the seminal work by Parfitt *et al.* (2010). After almost a  
81 decade this call remains valid.

82 This paper responds to the call to investigate the FW challenge in various sectors of the  
83 food supply chains in the BRICS countries by reporting on a case study of FW and its  
84 management in foodservices of Russia. For the first time, the paper (1) provides a benchmark  
85 of FW in this large market of global foodservices; (2) examines the key drivers of FW  
86 occurrence; and (3) reveals approaches to FW prevention and mitigation. By comparing the  
87 findings of this study against those reported for other markets of out-of-home food

88 consumption, the paper, for the first time, positions the phenomenon of FW in Russian  
89 foodservices in the context of the global sector of foodservice provision.

90 The paper also aims at developing a framework for more effective management of FW  
91 in the foodservice sector of Russia. This framework will be derived from the results of the  
92 empirical investigation undertaken in this study and supplemented with past evidence  
93 reported in the literature. The framework will strive to outline the scope for multi-stakeholder  
94 collaboration between the key actors of the food supply chain as a means of FW prevention  
95 and mitigation.

96 The rest of the paper is organised as follows. Section 2 takes stock of research on the  
97 phenomenon of FW in global foodservices, discussing its magnitude, main drivers and prime  
98 approaches to prevention and mitigation. It also introduces the study context, showcasing the  
99 lack of research on FW in Russia and categorizing its foodservice sector. Section 3 explains  
100 the research design. Section 4 presents the results of empirical investigation and reports on  
101 the key findings. Section 5 concludes by elaborating on the contribution of this study to  
102 knowledge and practice, highlighting its limitation and outlining directions for future  
103 research.

104

## 105 **2. Literature review**

### 106 ***2.1. FW in global foodservices***

#### 107 ***2.1.1. Magnitude***

108 Although the challenge of FW in global foodservices is acknowledged as substantial, there  
109 are no accurate figures to quantify its occurrence. The literature reports no aggregate, global  
110 estimates but employs regional assessments to showcase the large magnitude of FW at the  
111 worldwide scale (Filimonau 2021). For example, the figures from WRAP (2020) and  
112 FUSIONS (2016) are often cited when elaborating on the proportion of food wasted in the

113 global foodservice sector. These figures suggest that foodservices in the UK and EU-28  
114 countries produce circa 1.1 and 11 Mt of FW per year, respectively. This equates to 12% of  
115 the country/region's total FW generated across its food supply chain. If this figure is  
116 extrapolated on the basis of global FW of 1.3 billion tonnes (FAO 2019), then the global  
117 foodservice sector may annually waste over 150 Mt of food.

118 This extrapolated figure is likely to be an under-estimate (Filimonau and de Coteau  
119 2019). Growing evidence from developed but, particularly, developing countries pinpoints  
120 much larger amounts of food wasted in their national foodservices. For example, ReFED  
121 (2018) cites a figure of 16 million as representative of FW in the US foodservice sector,  
122 which equates to over 40% of the nation's total wastage. In China, FW in foodservices can be  
123 as high as 40 Mt per year, or 50% of the nation's total FW (Wen *et al.* 2015). There is a need  
124 to generate more accurate assessments of FW in the national foodservice sectors of different  
125 countries in order to derive a (more) reliable global estimate and establish a benchmark for  
126 prevention and mitigation (Filimonau *et al.* 2019a).

127 There are manifold reasons for why the figures on FW generated in foodservices lack  
128 accuracy. The sector is too diverse which hampers cross-sectoral generalisations and hinders  
129 estimates that can be categorised as sector-representative (Filimonau *et al.* 2020b). Most  
130 foodservice businesses are small-to-medium sized enterprises (SMEs) possessing limited  
131 resources to monitor and measure FW in-situ (Michalec *et al.* 2018). Employees of such  
132 businesses resist the task of FW measurement as it is time-consuming and aesthetically-  
133 unpleasing (Goh and Jie 2019).

134 There are no established methods for FW measurement in foodservices. WRAP (2015)  
135 has developed a dedicated tracking sheet for measuring FW in foodservice enterprises but the  
136 industry uptake of this sheet is limited and does not extend beyond the UK. The measurement  
137 methods proposed by Eriksson *et al.* (2018) and Filimonau *et al.* (2021) are promising but

138 require empirical validation. Although technological solutions have been designed to aid  
139 foodservices in monitoring and measuring their wastage (Cane and Parra 2020), these  
140 solutions can be expensive for foodservice SMEs to adopt. For example, the Prognolite  
141 solution enabling foodservice managers to better forecast demand for food, thus reducing  
142 wastage, costs at least EURO 249 per month on a 12-month contract (Prognolite 2020).

143 The FW data can be considered confidential as its disclosure can damage business  
144 reputation (Filimonau *et al.* 2019a). This impedes collaboration of foodservice businesses  
145 with academics on FW quantification and management. FW is not considered an operational  
146 priority by foodservice managers/owners (Filimonau and Sulyok 2021). The challenge of FW  
147 is viewed as inevitable implying it can be sacrificed in pursuit of other business goals, most  
148 notably customer satisfaction build-up (Vizzoto *et al.* 2020).

149 The situation is however changing and foodservice providers are gradually recognizing  
150 the criticality of FW and the need for its management (Lang *et al.* 2020). This recognition is  
151 attributed to growing public concern of FW as a major societal challenge with customers and  
152 shareholders expecting foodservice businesses to measure and consequently reduce its  
153 occurrence (Filimonau *et al.* 2020a). The industry also recognises the need to tackle FW due  
154 to policy (dis)incentives. For instance, in China, the issue of FW in foodservices has been  
155 acknowledged at the highest level of national decision-making and businesses are expected to  
156 prioritise FW measurement and management (Gao *et al.* 2021).

157 The problem is that the positive change in business attitudes towards FW and the need  
158 for its management is primarily observed among the chain-affiliates (Filimonau *et al.* 2020b).  
159 For example, an overview of successful case studies on FW prevention and mitigation in  
160 foodservices made by a FW management start-up Winnow (2020) predominantly features  
161 large, chain-affiliated enterprises. Smaller, independent businesses that occupy a dominant  
162 share of many national markets of out-of-home food consumption still demonstrate

163 insufficient appreciation of FW as an important operational issue and a major societal  
164 challenge (Filimonau *et al.* 2021). This has to change should the global sector of foodservices  
165 progress towards its sustainability goal.

166 In summary, although the challenge of FW in the foodservice sector has been  
167 repeatedly recognised as significant, its exact magnitude remains unknown. There are no  
168 accurate estimates of FW generated in the foodservice sectors of many developed, but  
169 particularly developing, economies. Urgent research is required to benchmark FW in  
170 foodservices of different countries and examine the main reasons for cross-sectoral and cross-  
171 country differences.

172

### 173 2.1.2. Drivers

174 The drivers of FW in foodservices can be categorised in line with the operational areas within  
175 which wastage occurs. Food is wasted in the pre-kitchen, kitchen and post-kitchen stages of  
176 foodservice provision (Papargyropoulou *et al.* 2019). The pre-kitchen stage accounts for circa  
177 21% of FW (WRAP 2017). This wastage is attributed to such issues as food damage in  
178 delivery as well as food spoilage on-site. Spoilage is a major contributor to FW in this stage  
179 and it is driven by human and non-human factors (Christ and Burritt 2017). The human factor  
180 is exemplified by a limited employee understanding of how food should be stored. For  
181 example, this includes poor staff familiarisation with the First-In-First-Out (FIFO) approach  
182 to food utilisation (Charlebois *et al.* 2015). The non-human factor is attributed to equipment  
183 failures, such as the breakdown of a chilling unit (Filimonau and Sulyok 2021).

184 The kitchen stage generates 45% of FW and the human factor plays an explicit role in  
185 its occurrence (WRAP 2017). Large amounts of food are wasted because of inadequate  
186 demand forecasting driven by seasonality (Hennchen 2019). Although certain patterns of  
187 demand can be established across a business cycle, their prediction remains difficult



188 (Filimonau *et al.* 2020b). Mistakes in demand forecasting lead to the over-production of food  
189 or under-utilised ingredients. The human factor is also associated with the capabilities of the  
190 kitchen staff. Poor cooking and plating skills result in food orders rejected by customers  
191 while insufficient trimming skills damage food and prompt its wastage (Heikkilä *et al.* 2016).

192 The post-kitchen stage accounts for 34% of FW whereby wastage is driven by the  
193 human factor (WRAP 2017). Customers do not finish meals because of personal taste or  
194 when the portions are deemed excessive (Li *et al.* 2020). The social nature of consuming food  
195 out-of-home can also drive FW in this stage. For example, the need to socialise with guests  
196 and look after their well-being can lead to unfinished plates (Filimonau *et al.* 2020c).

197 The drivers of FW in foodservices can further be divided into societal/cultural,  
198 institutional and organisational. National culture dictates the habits of eating out. For  
199 example, in many Asian countries it is considered a norm to order more food than required as  
200 a means of demonstrating hospitality and generosity (Li and Wang 2020). The national  
201 institutions of power can drive FW in the kitchen and in the post-kitchen stages of  
202 foodservices. For instance, stringent food hygiene and safety standards in the EU-28  
203 countries require food to be considered unsafe for consumption after spending a pro-longed  
204 period of time outside the cold chain (Filimonau and Sulyok 2021). The organisational factor  
205 is exemplified by the corporate decisions made on how to prepare and cook food, but also on  
206 how to deliver this food to customers. For instance, fine dining restaurants waste substantial  
207 amounts of food in the kitchen as they apply strict quality standards to assess the suitability of  
208 foodstuffs for service (McAdams *et al.* 2019). A corporate decision to provide food in the  
209 form of open-buffets rather than a la carte service drives FW in the post-kitchen stage  
210 (Okumus *et al.* 2020). Although open-buffet customers waste a lot of food on their plates,  
211 they hold joint responsibility for this wastage with foodservice managers/owners who  
212 provided this service to them in the first place.

213 In summary, the drivers of FW in foodservices are diverse and attributed to various  
214 operational and non-operational factors. The drivers are characterised by substantial cross-  
215 sectoral and cross-market differences and there is a clear association between FW and  
216 political and socio-economic factors. The drivers of FW in foodservices need to be better  
217 understood and appropriate measures should be adopted to prevent and mitigate their  
218 occurrence.

219

### 220 2.1.3. Management

221 Approaches to FW prevention and mitigation in foodservices are underpinned by the FW  
222 management hierarchies (see, for instance, Papargyropoulou *et al.* 2014). These target the  
223 drivers of FW occurring in different stages of foodservice provision. For the kitchen stage,  
224 staff training and preventative equipment maintenance can minimize wastage of food due to  
225 spoilage (Goh and Jie 2019). By establishing trusting relationships with suppliers,  
226 foodservice providers can reduce the amounts of food damaged in transit (Filimonau 2021).

227 For the kitchen stage, FW management should be concerned with more accurate  
228 prediction of consumer demand. Models can be developed to facilitate this (see, for instance,  
229 Prognolite 2020). Investing in sophisticated modelling may however prove unfeasible for  
230 foodservice SMEs due to its high cost. Therefore, simplistic, intuitive models can be applied  
231 instead (Filimonau and de Coteau 2019). Any model should however be based on reliable  
232 historical records of consumer demand held by a specific foodservice business. The  
233 'richness' of this historical data will determine the quality of predictions. This highlights the  
234 importance of collecting and analysing the 'big data' for FW prevention and mitigation in  
235 foodservices (Sakoda *et al.* 2019).

236 In the absence of accurate forecasts, FW management in foodservices should focus on  
237 the redistribution of surplus food. This food can be given to staff or donated to charitable

238 organisations (Filimonau *et al.* 2019b). The raw ingredients should be re-used and re-  
239 purposed in other meals (Filimonau *et al.* 2020b). Dynamic discount pricing can be applied to  
240 redistribute surplus food and specialist digital services of food delivery, such as UberEats, or  
241 surplus food redistribution, such as Too Good To Go, can be employed for this purpose  
242 (Sakaguchi *et al.* 2018). To avoid FW occurrence in cooking, kitchen staff should be (re-  
243 )trained. This can be challenging, especially in the case of experienced chefs who often do  
244 not appreciate the need to reduce wastage (Batat 2020). These chefs should be re-  
245 programmed to ensure they understand the business, but also wider societal, implications of  
246 FW and the need for its reduction.

247 In the post-kitchen stage, consumer engagement is paramount to secure for effective  
248 FW management (Kallbekken and Saelen 2013). Customers should be made aware of the  
249 detrimental effect of wasted food on the business which they patronise, but particularly on the  
250 wider society (Stockli *et al.* 2018). However, raising awareness is insufficient and more pro-  
251 active means of customer engagement should be considered. These can take the form of, for  
252 example, behavioural interventions whereby clean plates are incentivised through the re-  
253 design of the dining environment or its particular elements, such as plates (Reisch *et al.*  
254 2021). Wasteless behaviour can be rewarded with loyalty points or free gifts (Filimonau and  
255 de Coteau 2019). The principles of gamification can be adopted to make the process of not  
256 wasting food fun, especially for families (Mu *et al.* 2019). If behavioural interventions do not  
257 work, then plate leftovers can be offered to customers for take-away (Sirieix *et al.* 2017).  
258 Disincentives, such as charges for plate waste, can be applied but caution is required in their  
259 application given the potentially negative effect of financial penalties on customer  
260 satisfaction (Filimonau *et al.* 2020c).

261 In summary, foodservice providers have developed a range of approaches to FW  
262 management. These have tackled the challenges of demand forecasting, surplus food

263 redistribution, staff training and customer behaviour, among others. Research is required to  
264 test the effectiveness of various approaches to FW management in the foodservice sector  
265 when applied in various political and socio-economic contexts. Such research can aid in  
266 identifying good business practices in FW prevention and mitigation and examine the  
267 potential for their broader cross-sectoral and cross-market intake.

268

## 269 ***2.2. The Russian context***

270 The size of the Russian foodservice sector has evolved significantly in the last few years. In  
271 2017, there were approximately 70000 foodservice providers and in the fall of 2019 this  
272 number was circa 88000 (Federal State Statistic Service 2020). This figure is however an  
273 under-estimate as it excludes contract catering and state-subsidised foodservice providers  
274 operating in schools, hospitals and work canteens. It also disregards for-profit foodservices  
275 operating in some regional markets of Russia. Lastly, it excludes micro enterprises or so-  
276 called *индивидуальный предприниматель* (*individual entrepreneur* in English) preparing  
277 and serving food for out-of-home consumption. Interestingly, the size of Russian  
278 foodservices is comparable to the size of the commercial foodservice market in the UK  
279 which, in 2019, was represented by about 110000 enterprises (Statista 2020). Large size of  
280 Russian foodservices underlines the need to understand the patterns of FW generated within.

281 The foodservice sector of Russia incorporates four major categories of businesses  
282 (Rosinter Restaurants 2010; USDA Foreign Agricultural Service 2014). Fast casual  
283 restaurants (including coffee shops) are affordable catering outlets specializing in  
284 multiple/fusion cuisines. This category accounts for about 50% of the national foodservice  
285 market. Casual dining restaurants with a market share of circa 40% are the second largest  
286 segment providing affordable, often narrowly specialised, foodservice options. Quick service  
287 restaurants (QSRs) and fine dining catering outlets represent the remaining two segments.

288 Although their cumulative market share is low, i.e. about 10%, the number of these  
289 foodservice businesses is growing. Increasing popularity of fine dining is attributed to  
290 steadily increasing incomes of local residents in Russia, but also to tourism. The number of  
291 QSRs grows due to their appeal to younger consumers.

292 There are no estimates of FW generated in Russian foodservices. The assessment of  
293 FW produced across all sectors of the national food supply chain was first undertaken in 2019  
294 (RBC 2019). In line with this assessment, 17 Mt of food is wasted in Russia per year. It is  
295 unclear how this figure was obtained as no detail on the assessment methodology was  
296 provided. The lack of reliable figures on FW in Russia in general, but also within various  
297 sectors of its national food supply chain, underlines the importance of future, targeted  
298 research which should tackle this critical knowledge gap.

299 94% of food wasted in Russia ends up in landfill, thus contributing to carbon footprint  
300 build-up and environmental pollution (RBC 2019). This is significantly larger than the  
301 amount of FW landfilled in Europe, i.e. 37% (Scherhauser *et al.* 2018), which outlines the  
302 scope for intervention. Saving this food from landfilling can feed up to 30 million people,  
303 which is more than the population of those living in food poverty in Russia (RBC 2019).

304 Alarming is that, despite the significant amounts of wasted food, Russia has no national  
305 strategy on FW prevention and mitigation (Galaktionova 2017). No measures have been  
306 developed to date to manage FW occurrence across different sectors of its national food  
307 supply chain as a result (TIARCenter 2019). Unlike other countries whereby the challenge of  
308 FW has been tackled by voluntary industry agreements (see, for example, WRAP 2020 for  
309 details on the Courtauld commitment), the representatives of Russian enterprises in food  
310 manufacturing, processing, distribution and service have set no targets or guidelines on how  
311 to minimize FW in their operations.

312 There are no measures to minimize FW in Russian foodservices. A number of online  
313 food sharing platforms are operated by volunteers and business start-ups but these  
314 predominantly target surplus food in households (TIARCenter 2019). A smartphone app was  
315 developed in 2018 to aid foodservice providers in redistributing surplus meals (EatMe 2020).  
316 Although it has been downloaded by over 10000 times, the app only covers nine metropolitan  
317 areas of Russia, thus excluding a large chunk of the national foodservice market. Criticism  
318 has been raised about the business ethics of such surplus food distribution apps as some  
319 foodservice providers use them as an opportunity to boost profits, rather than reduce FW (De  
320 Almeida Oroski 2020). The impact of such apps on FW prevention and mitigation in  
321 foodservices remains unexplored. This showcases the urgent need to develop (more effective)  
322 measures for FW management in Russian foodservices.

323 In summary, the challenge of FW in Russia is under-examined and the contribution of  
324 different sectors to FW generation within this rapidly developing economy remains unknown.  
325 The sector of foodservices has never been studied from the perspective of FW prevention and  
326 mitigation. This outlines an important knowledge gap which this study has set to, at least  
327 partially, address.

328

### 329 **2.3. Summary**

330 Although the research agenda on FW and its management in the global sector of foodservices  
331 is rapidly progressing, there remain important knowledge gaps. One of such gaps is attributed  
332 to the limited geographical coverage of extant studies. Although many developed and  
333 increasingly large number of developing economies has been examined from the viewpoint of  
334 FW generated in their national foodservice sectors, such rapidly emerging, global market of  
335 food production and consumption as Russia has been excluded from analysis. This paper  
336 aims to, for the first time, provide a benchmark of the FW challenge in Russian foodservices,

337 identify the main drivers and establish approaches to management. By comparing the results  
338 of empirical investigation with other empirical studies conducted in other markets of food  
339 production and consumption, the paper strives to outline the similarities and differences. The  
340 paper also attempts to reveal examples of good business practices in FW management and  
341 discuss how these could be up-taken for more effective FW prevention and mitigation in  
342 Russian foodservices. The next section explains this study's research design.

343

### 344 **3. Materials and methods**

#### 345 **3.1. Method**

346 The under-studied nature of the FW phenomenon in Russian foodservices justifies the  
347 adoption of exploratory research in this project. In contrast to confirmatory research which  
348 re-establishes or provides additional evidence in support of existing knowledge, exploratory  
349 research offers an initial insight into the previously unexamined topic (Jaeger and Halliday  
350 1998). Exploratory research does not therefore have a goal of being representative; instead, it  
351 seeks to generate some preliminary findings for validation in subsequent confirmatory  
352 projects (Stebbins 2001). Exploratory research has been effectively used in past studies on the  
353 FW challenge in foodservices (see, for example, Filimonau *et al.* 2019b).

354 The methods of qualitative research and case studies (sometimes combined and referred  
355 to as qualitative case studies) are popular in exploratory investigations, especially in the  
356 context of SMEs (Ponelis 2015). Qualitative research enables an in-depth understanding of  
357 the phenomenon under review by offering scope for better participant engagement (Ghauri  
358 and Gronhaug 2005). As a method of qualitative research, interviews facilitate interaction by  
359 providing study participants with the freedom of expression (Silverman 2013). Interviews  
360 give researchers an option to follow up and examine expressed opinions in more detail (Veal

361 2011). Qualitative research is a popular method of primary data collection and analysis in  
362 studies on FW and its management in foodservices (see, for example, Vizzoto *et al.* 2020).

363 Case studies are often supplementary to, or an integral element of, qualitative research  
364 as they represent an in-depth investigation of a particular phenomenon within a single entity,  
365 such as a foodservice enterprise (Hyett *et al.* 2014). The investigation is facilitated by  
366 applying qualitative research methods, such as interviews and in-situ observations (Baškarada  
367 2014). Case studies have been used in FW research on foodservices (see, for instance,  
368 Charlebois *et al.* 2015), which demonstrates their analytical merit and proves their suitability  
369 for this current project.

370 An interview protocol was derived from preliminary themes extracted from the  
371 literature. The protocol included questions on: (1) the operational and societal criticality of  
372 FW in comparison to other environmental externalities of foodservice business operations;  
373 (2) the main drivers of FW generation; and (3) approaches to FW management. The protocol  
374 was developed in English but back translated in Russian. It was pre-tested with five managers  
375 of Russian foodservices prior to deployment. A copy can be found in Appendix 1.

376

### 377 **3.2. Study administration**

378 Primary data were collected from foodservice providers in Kemerovo, a middle-sized city in  
379 the southwest of Russia. Kemerovo was preferred to the two ‘capital’ areas, i.e. Moscow and  
380 St Petersburg, because it is more representative of the national foodservice market. Being  
381 popular tourist destinations, the foodservice sectors of Moscow and St Petersburg are made  
382 up by a bigger number of fine dining restaurants catering for large(r) numbers of international  
383 tourists (Rosinter Restaurants 2010). The FW dynamics in these markets may therefore not  
384 accurately represent the FW dynamics in foodservices of other Russian cities and towns.  
385 When choosing Kemerovo for primary data collection, the study considered similarity of its



386 foodservice market to other, non-capital regions of Russia. Foodservices in regional cities and  
387 towns cater primarily for local residents and the segmentation/categorisation of the main  
388 foodservice providers better resembles that of the Russian market as a whole (Rosinter  
389 Restaurants 2010; USDA Foreign Agricultural Service 2014).

390 Study participants were recruited from among commercial foodservice providers  
391 registered on Tripadvisor. Non-for-profit foodservices (i.e. school/work/University canteens)  
392 were excluded due to the substantially different business models adopted in their operations.  
393 As of August 2020, there were 371 for-profit foodservice operators in Kemerovo and these  
394 were contacted with a request to partake in this study. An introductory email was first sent to  
395 all businesses explaining the nature of this research. The email was followed up with a  
396 personalised phone call seeking to provide extra information about the project, offer  
397 additional reassurance in its anonymous nature, answer any study related queries and,  
398 ultimately, secure participation consent. When recruiting study participants, consideration  
399 was given to the segmentation of the Russian foodservice market in terms of the share held  
400 within by the representatives of different restaurant categories (see section 2.2).

401 In total, 21 foodservice operators agreed to participate in this study. Although sample  
402 size is of less relevance to qualitative research (Silverman 2013), 10-30 participants are  
403 usually required to make meaningful conclusions and record saturation (Thomson 2010 cited  
404 Marshall *et al.* 2013), and this study conforms to this requirement. The participants were  
405 represented by fast casual dining (9 or 43% of the sample), casual dining (6 or 29%), fine  
406 dining (3 or 14%) and quick service (3 or 14%) restaurants (Table 1). This sample  
407 distribution is in line with the segmentation of the Russian foodservice sector (Rosinter  
408 Restaurants 2010; USDA Foreign Agricultural Service 2014).

409 [Insert Table 1 here]

410 Semi-structured interviews were conducted with top administrations of these  
411 restaurants. Executives at the level of General Manager/Owner and/or Head Chef were  
412 interviewed to ensure they could provide first-hand, detailed information about the challenge  
413 of FW in their enterprises. Interviews were conducted in-situ across various dates in  
414 September-October 2020. They were held in Russian and lasted, on average, between 33 and  
415 56 minutes. Interviews were recorded for subsequent transcribing. No incentives were  
416 offered.

417 In addition to interviews, to set a benchmark for FW generated in different categories of  
418 Russian foodservices, a quantitative assessment of the FW challenge was undertaken. In  
419 Russia, commercial FW is disposed of by the method of collection, either by municipal  
420 (public) or private solid waste management companies. The collection charge is calculated by  
421 weighing FW provided for disposal. For example, a fixed charge is applied for each 250 kg of  
422 FW collected. The study participants were requested to provide the research team with access  
423 to their financial records on FW collection. These records enabled estimates of FW to be  
424 made. Although such a method of FW assessment is less accurate than the method of direct,  
425 on-site FW measurement, it has been effectively applied in previous studies on FW and its  
426 management in foodservices (see, for example, Li *et al.* 2020). The method of direct FW  
427 measurement is too laborious, time-consuming and expensive to implement (Wang *et al.*  
428 2018); hence, it was considered but not applied in this project.

429 In addition to benchmark assessments of FW, in-situ observations were made in line  
430 with the guidelines outlined in Papargyropoulou *et al.* (2019). Observations involved the  
431 research team being present on business premises of this study's participants during the time  
432 of foodservice preparation and provision. Observations enabled witnessing how FW was  
433 generated in various operational stages of foodservice (pre-kitchen, kitchen and post-kitchen)  
434 and evaluating the measures adopted in-house for FW prevention and mitigation.

435 Observations were carried out prior to interviewing study participants at least three times  
436 during a ‘typical’ foodservice week, i.e. on Tuesday, Friday and Saturday. This was to  
437 account for the weekly variations in the FW dynamics (Filimonau and de Coteau 2019).  
438 Notes were taken during these in-situ observations; these were used in interviews to seek  
439 clarity on what has been observed (Papargyropoulou *et al.* 2019).

440

### 441 **3.3. Data analysis**

442 Interviews were transcribed verbatim, translated in English by a professional interpreter, and  
443 the data was analysed thematically. In line with the guidelines provided by Braun and Clarke  
444 (2006), the interviews transcripts were first carefully read by the research team’s members.  
445 The data were interpreted and then coded to draft a list of themes and sub-themes. An intra-  
446 team discussion was subsequently held to ensure the (sub-)themes were meaningful and to  
447 reach an agreement on any discrepancies in interpretation (Schutz 1973). Table 2 reports on  
448 the final coding structure. Representative quotes were extracted from the interview transcripts  
449 to demonstrate the validity of data interpretation. Figure 1 presents the research design  
450 adopted in this project.

451 [Insert Table 2 here]

452 [Insert Figure 1 here]

453

## 454 **4. Results and discussion**

### 455 **4.1. FW magnitude**

456 The study provided the first benchmark of food wasted in various categories of commercial  
457 Russian foodservices (Table 1). On average, the sample of studied restaurants produced 14 t  
458 of FW per year. Fine dining restaurants wasted, on average, the largest amounts of food (17.5  
459 t per year) while the smallest annual wastage was recorded for QSRs (9 t). This is in line with

460 findings of McAdams *et al.* (2019) who have established similar patterns of FW generation  
461 across various foodservice sub-sectors in Canada. There was clear correlation between FW  
462 and restaurant size with larger foodservice operators wasting twice as much food as smaller  
463 foodservice providers (Table 1). This is in agreement with Papargyropoulou *et al.* (2019) who  
464 have revealed the relationship between the size of for-profit foodservice operators and the  
465 amounts of food wasted on their premises in the context of Malaysia.

466 When compared against the figures of FW generated by commercial foodservice  
467 providers in other countries, wastage in Russian foodservices is excessive. WRAP (2020)  
468 posits that a ‘typical’ for-profit foodservice operator in the UK wastes circa 4.8 t of food per  
469 year, or three times less than the benchmark established in the current study. Concurrently,  
470 the amounts of FW in Russian foodservices are closer to those recorded in the USA. A  
471 ‘typical’ US restaurant generates between 11.3 and 34 t of FW per year (FWRA 2014). This  
472 showcases the need for urgent interventions to prevent and mitigate FW in the foodservice  
473 sector of Russia.

474 The benchmark of food wasted by restaurants established in this study can be used to  
475 obtain a cross-sectoral estimate of FW in Russian foodservices. Given that an ‘average’  
476 restaurant in the studied sample produced 14 t of FW per year, when multiplied by 88000 (the  
477 number of for-profit foodservice operators in Russia), this provides the figure of 1.23 Mt.  
478 This suggests that the foodservice sector of Russia contributes with circa 7% to the country’s  
479 total FW of 17 Mt. Although this relative contribution is lower than in the UK and EU-28  
480 countries, i.e. 12% (FUSIONS 2016), the absolute value of this wastage is excessive. The UK  
481 foodservice sector generates about 1.1 Mt of FW per year but this includes for-profit and non-  
482 for-profit enterprises (WRAP 2020). The figure obtained in this study is only representative  
483 of the commercial segment of Russian foodservices. If non-for-profit operators are  
484 considered, the resultant FW figure is likely to become significantly higher.

485 As for the composition of FW generated in the for-profit foodservice sector of Russia, it  
486 is dominated by meat, fruits and vegetables, and bakery items (Table 1). The unique feature  
487 of Russian foodservices is the excessive wastage of meat across all restaurant categories.  
488 Research conducted in other markets of out-of-home food consumption generally confirms  
489 this finding albeit fruits and vegetables alongside bakery items represent the most wasted  
490 types of foodstuffs in other study contexts (see, for example, Filimonau and Sulyok 2021).

491 The kitchen and post-kitchen stages of foodservice operations generate the largest  
492 amounts of FW in Russia (Table 1) which is in line with the literature (Okumus *et al.* 2020).  
493 Kitchen is a primary contributor of FW in fine dining restaurants and the role of post-kitchen  
494 in FW is particularly pronounced in QSRs. This finds confirmation in the studies by  
495 Charlebois *et al.* (2015) and Heikkilä *et al.* (2016) conducted in the Canadian and Finnish  
496 contexts, respectively.

497

#### 498 ***4.2. Criticality of FW as an operational and societal challenge***

499 The study participants demonstrated solid awareness of the detrimental environmental effects  
500 of foodservice operations (Table 2). Energy consumption, food waste and water use were  
501 frequently cited, especially from the viewpoint of their financial implications for business  
502 profitability. This is in agreement with previous studies whereby foodservice operators have  
503 acknowledged various environmental externalities of their enterprises but linked them to the  
504 financial performance (Martin-Rios *et al.* 2018). Similarly, despite solid awareness, the study  
505 participants saw the environmental impacts of their operations as the ‘necessary evil’ required  
506 to fulfil the main purpose of foodservice provision, i.e. to satisfy customers and build  
507 consumer loyalty:

508

509 *'Look, what do you think is the most important thing in my [foodservice]*  
510 *business? People! Customers, I mean. Food waste, yes, I have it, but who does*  
511 *not? OK, I have a piece of meat which doesn't look appetising and I give it to my*  
512 *client. They'll eat it and they won't like it. What will they do? Next time they'll go*  
513 *to my neighbour [restaurant]. I'll lose my customer, I'll lose my money. I need to*  
514 *ensure my customer is happy, food waste is secondary...'* (R15, fast casual  
515 restaurant)

516

517 This is in line with Vizzoto *et al.* (2020) who recorded similar attitudes being prevalent in  
518 Italian foodservices. Interestingly, plastic waste as an environmental externality of  
519 foodservice operations was mentioned by a quarter of the study participants (Table 2). This  
520 pinpoints growing industry awareness of plastic pollution and the role the foodservice sector  
521 plays within. It is important to support this growth in awareness with targeted policy  
522 interventions aimed at plastic waste reduction. Such targeted interventions can be seen  
523 positively by the industry, especially if market-based incentives are provided to eliminate  
524 plastic waste occurrence in foodservice operations (Filimonau 2021).

525

#### 526 **4.3.FW drivers**

527 Two main drivers of FW were repeatedly cited, i.e. the over-production of meals (kitchen  
528 stage) and plate leftovers (post-kitchen stage), see Table 2. Surplus meals occurred due to  
529 poor demand forecasting attributed to the factor of seasonality. This is a major driver of FW  
530 in for-profit foodservices of Bulgaria (Filimonau *et al.* 2019a), India (Bharucha 2018) and  
531 USA (Sakaguchi *et al.* 2018). Plate leftovers were assigned to irresponsible consumer  
532 behaviour whereby restaurant guests were blamed for over-ordering or rejecting meals due to  
533 taste incompatibility. The important role of plate waste as a driver of FW has long been

534 established in the context of for-profit foodservices in Canada (von Massow and McAdams  
535 2015), Slovenia (Juvan *et al.* 2018) and Switzerland (Betz *et al.* 2015). This study shows that  
536 Russia is no exception, thus underlining the need to design effective interventions to reduce  
537 surplus meals and eliminate plate leftovers.

538 In the pre-kitchen stage of foodservice operations, long menus were recognised as a  
539 FW driver by a quarter of the study participants (Table 2). Long menus were seen favourably  
540 as a marketing tool and a means of attracting customers by broader food choice. This required  
541 large varieties of foodstuffs to be stocked and regularly replenished on restaurant premises. In  
542 the absence of consistent demand, the ingredients for less popular menu items would be  
543 spoiled unless timely re-purposed. The role of bulky menus in wastage has long been  
544 highlighted (Fang *et al.* 2013) and finds further confirmation in the Russian context:

545  
546 *‘Our menus are long and we’re actually very proud of this. We see long menus as*  
547 *a market differentiator. It’s part of the Russian culture, if you wish, the Russians*  
548 *are known for their generosity and hospitality, there’s even a saying ‘у широкой*  
549 *русской души’ [the broad Russian soul]. Our customers come to us to have a*  
550 *good time. So, we don’t want to tell them ‘oh, we don’t have this, we don’t have*  
551 *that’. Or, we cannot give them a miniscule portion, all our portions are proper*  
552 *big’ (R7, fine dining restaurant)*

553  
554 Although this was not explicitly mentioned by the study participants, the above quote  
555 underlined the role of national culture as a FW driver. The need to provide the ‘true Russian  
556 hospitality’ would suppress business concerns over wastage. Interesting is that national culture  
557 has been acknowledged as a FW driver in other studies (see, for example, Liao *et al.* 2018)  
558 but mostly from the customer perspective. Restaurant guests in China during social functions,

559 for instance, over-order food to demonstrate hospitability (Filimonau *et al.* 2020c). This  
560 current study adds to this evidence but pinpoints how national culture can drive FW on the  
561 foodservice provider side.

562 The need to serve perfect dishes in terms of their look, size and taste was outlined by a  
563 quarter of the study participants as a FW driver in the kitchen stage (Table 2). To produce a  
564 good-looking cut of meat and present it to customers in a visually appealing manner  
565 necessitated excessive trimming and garnishing. The aesthetics of meals was therefore  
566 prioritised over reducing wastage, which is in agreement with the literature (Calvo-Porrall *et*  
567 *al.* 2017).

568 An interesting finding was in that imperfect cooking skills of chefs and other kitchen  
569 staff were cited as a FW driver in the kitchen stage by only a small number of the study  
570 participants (Table 2). This contradicts the literature as seen, for instance, in Goh and Jie  
571 (2019). The lack of skills may be hidden in excessive trimming required to make food  
572 visually appealing. It can also be justified by the corporate pursuit of high aesthetics  
573 standards, as discussed above.

574

#### 575 ***4.4. Approaches to FW prevention and mitigation***

576 The study participants managed FW in line with the instances of its occurrence (Table 2). To  
577 avoid surplus meals, it was attempted to optimise demand forecasting. To this end,  
578 predictions were made using historical data and these data were collected and routinely  
579 stored, especially by larger foodservice operators. Smaller businesses relied on intuitive  
580 forecasting which lacked precision as argued by Hennchen (2019).

581 Portion control was applied to reduce FW on customer plates. This approach to FW  
582 management should be used with caution as it may deter some consumers and even direct  
583 them to competitors as consumers tend to assign poor value to smaller portions (Filimonau



584 and De Coteau 2019). In the case of the studied sample, restaurant guests were given  
585 flexibility in choosing portion size and the price was adjusted accordingly. This was seen  
586 favourably by many customers especially those with limited budgets and diet followers:

587

588 *'I have no problem if my customer wants to order a smaller portion. For example,*  
589 *our standard steak weighs 250g, but we give the client an opportunity to order*  
590 *half of it if they want to. Important is that they pay only half the price too. It's*  
591 *good for the client as they may not have got enough money. It's also good for us*  
592 *as the main meal has been ordered and this is what we aim for. In addition, we*  
593 *reduce plate leftovers, which is great...'* (R3, casual dining restaurant)

594

595 Portion control has been found unpopular in foodservices of East-Central Europe  
596 (Filimonau and Sulyok 2021) partially because customers are not communicated the option of  
597 ordering less food for a lower price. As this current study shows, portion control may  
598 represent a meaningful approach to reduce plate waste. This is subject to properly explaining  
599 why it is applied and showcasing its (financial) benefits for consumers.

600 Some approaches to FW management that had proven to be effective in foodservices of  
601 other countries were unpopular in the Russian context. For instance, selling meals at a  
602 discounted price is widely used around the world (Cane and Parra 2020), but not in Russia.  
603 This was attributed to the lack of digital foodservice delivery platforms that would enable  
604 surplus food redistribution. This was also associated with the timings of applying discounts:  
605 due to unpredicted demand and unwillingness to lose profits, foodservices tended to wait  
606 until the very last minute prior to discounting surplus food. As a result, only particular  
607 categories of customers could take advantage of this offer:

608

609        *'We sell surplus food at a discounted price but only when the restaurant is*  
610        *closing. As we close at 23.00, there aren't so many potential customers around.*  
611        *Mostly, they're taxi drivers because they're mobile and work night shifts. I think,*  
612        *for them, it's a great deal as we offer high quality meals discounted by 30-50%'*  
613        (R5, casual dining restaurant)

614

615        Menu redesign represents a popular approach to FW management as it provides scope  
616        for identifying the most wasteful menu items (Filimonau *et al.* 2020c). In Russia, its  
617        application is hampered by the fear of lost customer loyalty, as discussed earlier. Those few  
618        foodservice providers who took advantage of this approach (Table 2) claimed to have done so  
619        in pursuit of establishing the least popular dishes and replacing them with other meals. The  
620        rationale behind menu redesign was purely profit, rather than FW reduction, driven.

621        Donation of surplus meals to charitable organisations is broadly used as a FW  
622        management approach in foodservices (Sakaguchi *et al.* 2018). None of the study participants  
623        however mentioned food donation in the context of Russia. When prompted, the lack of local  
624        charities willing to collect surplus food for subsequent redistribution to people in need was  
625        referred to as a key barrier. This outlines the scope for policy-making intervention which  
626        should aim at supporting the food rescue work of non-governmental organisations in Russia.

627        The study revealed a few notable approaches to FW management that could be classed  
628        as 'best practices'. To reduce plate waste, two restaurateurs provided incentives for clean  
629        plates (Table 2). This is a powerful, but rather unconventional, measure to engage consumers  
630        in FW prevention and mitigation (Dolnicar *et al.* 2020). Foodservice operators are often  
631        apprehensive of its adoption as incentivisation implies an additional business expense. The  
632        example of studied foodservices in Russia demonstrates that incentives, if properly designed,  
633        do not only reduce wastage, but can also increase customer loyalty:

634

635 *'We try to stimulate clean plates. In fact, we provide either a free bar of chocolate*  
636 *or a soft drink if customers consume all food. Children love that! They even*  
637 *encourage their parents to eat it all! Every day we give away about 50-80*  
638 *chocolate bars. Yes, it's an extra cost, but it's worth it as children pull their*  
639 *parents to our restaurant next time when the family goes out...'* (R2, casual dining  
640 restaurant)

641

642 One restaurant contracted a local farmer for FW collection and its subsequent disposal  
643 as the animal feed. In return, the farmer provided the restaurant with agricultural produce.  
644 Filimonau (2021) has highlighted the scope for industry collaboration with the purpose of  
645 FW reduction and this current study offers empirical evidence that such collaboration already  
646 exists. This collaborative experience should be promoted not only across the foodservice  
647 sector of Russia, but also beyond. When taking it outside Russian foodservices, appropriate  
648 legislative changes are however necessary. For example, Eriksson *et al.* (2020) argue that  
649 overly stringent food health and safety regulations in the EU-28 countries prevent foodservice  
650 operators from using FW as the animal feed. This hampers collaborative work of farmers and  
651 restaurants:

652

653 *'We work with a local farmer. We've made a deal with him: he collects our food*  
654 *waste and gives us some of his produce. For 20kg of food waste we receive 1kg of*  
655 *potato or 0.5kg of carrots. This is very convenient for us because, first, we don't*  
656 *need to pay for municipal waste collection. Second, we receive fresh products*  
657 *from the farmer. We can thereby promote organic vegetables to our customers,*  
658 *and they like it'* (R10, fast casual restaurant)

659

660 The amount of FW generated by a single restaurant can make it financially unviable for  
661 the farmer to collect it due to high transportation costs. Therefore, ‘collaborative bubbles’ can  
662 be formed by foodservice operators whereby a number of restaurants form a network and the  
663 farmer collects FW from all members of this network. Such collaboration is also valuable for  
664 the farmer as, by exchanging agricultural produce for FW, they can establish new supply  
665 markets. This will eliminate the need for the ‘middle man’, thus reducing supply costs and  
666 saving delivery time (Filimonau 2021). This should enable foodservice operators to offer  
667 more competitive prices, thus attracting customers. This ‘best practice’ provides all actors  
668 involved with multiple benefits and should therefore be promoted.

669 One restaurant composted FW on-site (Table 2) which is promising but hampered by  
670 space constraints. Although this approach to FW management can be facilitated by the design  
671 of portable composters and anaerobic digesters, it is yet unpopular with foodservice operators  
672 due to high initial investment costs (Papargyropoulou *et al.* 2016). Targeted policy support is  
673 necessary to incentivise on-site composting. This support can take the form of interest-free  
674 loans or ‘green’ subsidies (Filimonau 2021). Composting can be organised as part of the  
675 ‘collaborative bubbles’ discussed earlier. A composter or anaerobic digester can be installed  
676 on premises of the most spacious member of the bubble. The profits made can subsequently  
677 be shared by all members.

678

#### 679 ***4.5. Managerial insights***

680 The study outlined a number of approaches to FW management adopted in Russian  
681 foodservices. Most of these approaches are conventional but some stand out as ‘best  
682 practices’. The promotion of ‘best practices’ in FW management requires business innovation  
683 and multi-stakeholder engagement. Foodservice operators should aim to collaborate with one

684 another, rather than compete. Their collaboration should be extended towards farmers and  
685 other relevant parties, such as commercial operators of composters and anaerobic digesters.  
686 The collaboration should further be supported by policy-makers. Besides providing targeted  
687 financial support to foodservice operators and charitable organisations working in the field of  
688 food donations/rescue, policy-makers should strive to build capacity for multi-stakeholder  
689 collaboration by linking all actors and agents together. Figure 2 outlines a collaborative  
690 framework which can aid in more effective FW management in the Russian foodservice  
691 sector.

692 [Insert Figure 2 here]

693

## 694 **5. Conclusions**

695 The study provided the first benchmark of FW in Russian commercial foodservices, thus  
696 showcasing the important role played by this sector in the challenge of FW in Russia, as well  
697 as globally. The annual wastage of 14 t per foodservice operator is significant and urgent  
698 measures are required to reduce its occurrence. These measures should prioritise such  
699 categories of commercial foodservices as fine-dining and (fast) casual dining restaurants as  
700 their FW patterns are higher. By examining approaches to FW prevention and mitigation  
701 adopted in Russian foodservices, as well as globally, the study designed a management  
702 framework which can aid in reducing the challenge of FW, thus enabling progress of the  
703 sector towards the goal of environmental sustainability.

704 This study made a three-fold contribution. First, it contributed to knowledge with  
705 empirical evidence showcasing the magnitude of the FW challenge in Russian foodservices.  
706 For the first time, the study benchmarked the patterns of FW generation in various categories  
707 of commercial foodservice operators in Russia, outlined the main drivers and established the  
708 key approaches to FW prevention and mitigation. Second, the study informed the design of

709 industry interventions for more effective management of FW in Russian foodservices. This  
710 was the result of highlighting some ‘best practices’ in FW management that the sector should  
711 strive to adopt more broadly. Lastly, the study outlined the scope for the design of policy-  
712 making interventions that are necessary to prevent and mitigate FW occurrence in Russian  
713 foodservices. These interventions should aim to (1) facilitate the work of charitable  
714 organisations on surplus food redistribution; (2) enable the network capital of foodservice  
715 providers and farmers; and (3) encourage the adoption of more pro-active approaches to FW  
716 management by foodservice operators, such as consumer incentives and on-site composting.

717 The study had limitations that, concurrently, represented promising research  
718 opportunities. First, it explored a small sample of Russian foodservices, thus providing an  
719 initial perspective on FW generated within. Future research should strive to generalise this  
720 study’s findings by extending the sample of examined businesses in order to enhance the  
721 robustness of results. Second, the study focused on commercial Russian foodservices. Future  
722 research should look at another significant chunk of the market represented by contract  
723 caterers and non-for-profit/subsidised foodservice operators. Third, the study was conducted  
724 in a major, yet single, metropolitan area of Russia, Kemerovo. Future research should extend  
725 the geographical scope of analysis by covering other regional markets of out-of-home  
726 consumption, especially those in the capital areas of Moscow and St Petersburg. The latter  
727 two markets are particularly interesting from the viewpoint of future investigation given they  
728 cater equally for local residents and international tourists. Lastly, this study involved  
729 interviewing restaurateurs. The perspective of other actors and agents of effective FW  
730 management in Russian foodservices should also be examined. This particularly concerns  
731 such stakeholders as consumers, local farmers, food rescue charities and regional/local  
732 authorities. Consumers should be studied to better understand why they leave food uneaten  
733 and how plate waste can be discouraged. Farmers should be investigated from the perspective

734 of their collaboration with foodservices on FW collection and provision of agricultural  
735 produce. Food rescue charities should be explored from the viewpoint of the institutional and  
736 organisational support required to facilitate their work. Lastly, policy-makers should be  
737 engaged in future research to outline potential support mechanisms they could put in place to  
738 promote FW prevention and mitigation in foodservices via multi-stakeholder involvement.  
739

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### Section 1: Knowledge of the magnitude and key drivers of food waste.

- Tell me about the main environmental challenges (if any) in the sector of foodservice provision in Russia
  - *Energy use*
  - *Water consumption*
  - *Solid (food) waste generation*
- Tell me about the main environmental challenges (if any) that exist specifically for your business
- Now tell me about how big the problem of food waste is for your hospitality business
  - If exact figures on the magnitude of food waste are available, then ask for them. If no exact figures are available, then ask for a qualitative estimate of the magnitude i.e. Small / Medium / Large
- How do you measure the quantities of food waste produced (if at all)?
  - *If no accurate measurements are made – what stops you from taking accurate measures of food waste in your business?*
- What food is wasted the most in your business?
  - *Fruit & Vegetables*
  - *Bread and bakery products*
  - *Fresh meat and fish*
  - *Other items*
- What are the main causes of food waste in your business?
  - *Difficult to forecast consumer demand for food / Significant demand fluctuations across time*
  - *Problems with on-site storage / Faulty electric equipment*
  - *Suppliers deliver too much food / deliver large quantities of damaged / imperfect foodstuffs*
  - *Business model in place (e.g. all-you-can-eat or buffet instead of a la carte)*
  - *Specific nature of the cooking process on our business (e.g. large quantities of food waste are generated when cutting / trimming or preparing meals)*
  - *Complex / Extensive menus that result in the over-production of meals*
  - *Imperfect cooking and plating skills of kitchen staff / chefs*
  - *Customer plate waste / Irresponsible consumer behaviour*
  - *Anything else?*
- Tell me what you think the key benefits of reducing food waste in your hospitality business are (if any)
  - *Financial savings*
  - *Improved image / Enhanced corporate reputation / Corporate Social Responsibility commitments*
  - *Pressure from shareholders*
  - *Pressure from consumers*
  - *Pressure from the government*

- *Better for the environment*
- *'It is just the right thing to do' / Personal values and beliefs*

## **Section 2: Approaches to food waste management**

- Tell me about what you currently do to reduce food waste in your operations
  - *Try to forecast demand right*
  - *Work with suppliers to ensure frequent deliveries of the 'right' food quantities*
  - *Adoption of less wasteful business models (e.g. a la carte rather than buffet)*
  - *Avoid using extensive menus*
  - *Portion control*
  - *Repurpose of excess ingredients (e.g. cooking new meals from excess ingredients at short notice --> Chef's special or Dish of the day)*
  - *Sell surplus meals at discounted prices*
  - *Take surplus food home*
  - *Give surplus food to staff*
  - *Donate surplus food (to charities or directly to the poor in local communities)*
    - *Then check in more detail if this is taking place and how this is organised*
    - *If they are not doing this --> check why*
  - *TO REDUCE CUSTOMER PLATE WASTE*
    - *Charge per weight of food*
    - *Charge back for any waste generated*
    - *Encourage smaller portions / Allow ordering restricted food quantities at once*
    - *Reduce size of plates*
    - *Incentives for 'clean' plates (e.g. a bar of chocolate OR a free drink OR loyalty points OR charitable donation)*
  - *On-site recycling / Composting / Anaerobic digestion*
  - *Dumping into the garbage bin*
  - *Anything else?*

Table 1. Study participants (n=21).

Legend: white colour indicates fine dining restaurants; light grey colour – casual dining restaurants; medium grey – fast casual restaurants; dark grey – quick service restaurants

Participant ID	Foodservice category	Business size <i>Small (&lt;100 seats)</i> <i>Medium (100-300 seats)</i> <i>Large (&gt;300 seats)</i>	Annual food waste, tonnes (rounded to the nearest tonne)	Main foodstuffs wasted and their proportion in total food waste	Operational area where most food is wasted		
					Pre-kitchen	Kitchen	Post-kitchen
R1	Casual dining	Large	Circa 30	40% fruits and vegetables; 30% meat; 10% bakery items	-	X	X
R2	Casual dining	Medium	Circa 10	40% fruits and vegetables; 30% meat; 30% bakery items	-	X	-
R3	Casual dining	Large	Circa 20	30% fruits and vegetables; 30% meat; 20% bakery items	-	X	-
R4	Casual dining (hotel)	Medium	Circa 5	40% meat; 20% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items	-	X	X
R5	Casual dining (hotel)	Large	Circa 12	30% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items	-	X	X
R6	Casual dining (hotel)	Medium	Circa 10	40% meat; 20% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items	-	X	X
<b>RESTAURANT CATEGORY AVERAGE</b>			<b>Circa 14.5</b>	<b>30% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items</b>	<b>Equally kitchen and post-kitchen</b>		
R7	Fine dining	Large	Circa 20	40% meat; 20% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items	-	X	-
R8	Fine dining	Medium	Circa 12	30% fruits and vegetables; 30% bakery items; 20% meat	-	X	X
R9	Fine dining	Medium	Circa 20	40% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items	-	X	-
<b>RESTAURANT CATEGORY AVERAGE</b>			<b>Circa 17.5</b>	<b>30% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items</b>	<b>Mostly kitchen</b>		
R10	Fast casual	Large	Circa 15	40% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items	-	X	-
R11	Fast casual	Large	Circa 15	50% meat; 40% fruits and vegetables; 10% bakery items	-	X	-
R12	Fast casual	Medium	Circa 12	60% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 10% bakery items	-	X	-
R13	Fast casual	Large	Circa 30	40% meat; 30% bakery items; 10% fruits and vegetables	-	-	X
R14	Fast casual	Medium	Circa 10	40% meat; 40% bakery items; 20% fruits and vegetables	-	X	-
R15	Fast casual	Large	Circa 15	40% meat; 20% bakery items; 20% fruits and vegetables	-	X	-
R16	Fast casual	Small	Circa 15	30% bakery items; 30% meat; 20% fruits and vegetables	-	X	X
R17	Fast casual	Medium	Circa 12	40% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items	-	-	X
R18	Fast casual	Medium	Circa 10	40% bakery items; 30% fruits and vegetables; 30% meat	-	X	-
<b>RESTAURANT CATEGORY AVERAGE</b>			<b>Circa 15</b>	<b>40% meat; 30% fruits and vegetables; 20% bakery items</b>	<b>Mostly kitchen</b>		
R19	Quick service	Small	Circa 7	40% meat; 30% bakery items; 20% fruits and vegetables	-	-	X
R20	Quick service	Small	Circa 10	30% bakery items; 30% meat; 20% fruits and vegetables	-	X	X

R21	Quick service	Medium	Circa 10	40% meat; 30% bakery items; 20% fruits and vegetables	-	-	X
<b>RESTAURANT CATEGORY AVERAGE</b>			<b>Circa 9</b>	<b>40% meat; 30% bakery items; 20% fruits and vegetables</b>	<b>Mostly post-kitchen</b>		
<b>FW SAMPLE AVERAGE</b>			<b>Circa 14</b>				
<b>FW range, per foodservice size</b>		<b>Small</b>	<b>7-15</b>				
		<b>Medium</b>	<b>5-20</b>				
		<b>Large</b>	<b>12-30</b>				

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Table 2. Thematic analysis of interviews. Figures highlight the frequency of each sub-theme mentioned by study participants. Percentage outlines the proportion of study participants mentioning a particular sub-theme. Red colour indicates the most popular sub-themes.

Theme	Sub-theme	Number of mentions	% of mentions
<b>Key environmental externalities of foodservice operations</b>	Energy consumption with related carbon footprint	11	52
	Food waste	11	52
	Water consumption	9	42
	Plastic waste	5	24
<b>Key drivers of food waste</b>	Post-kitchen – Plate waste	12	57
	Kitchen – Over-production of meals	11	52
	Kitchen – cooking needs (for example, wastage in trimming)	5	24
	Pre-kitchen - Long menus leading to spoilage in storage	5	24
	Kitchen – imperfect cooking skills of chefs/kitchen staff	2	10
	Pre-kitchen - Spoilage due to technical failures	1	5
<b>Approaches to food waste management</b>	Kitchen - Investing in demand forecasting	12	57
	Post-kitchen - portion control (to reduce plate leftovers)	9	42
	Kitchen - discounted pricing for surplus meals	5	24
	Pre-kitchen - Menu redesign (to avoid spoilage in storage)	3	14
	Pre-kitchen – collaboration with suppliers to optimise food delivery frequency, thus avoiding wastage in storage	2	10
	Kitchen – surplus meals given to staff	2	10
	Post-kitchen - incentives for clean plates	2	10
	Kitchen – repurposing of surplus cooking ingredients	2	10
	Kitchen – use of technology to avoid wastage in cooking (for example, electric peelers)	2	10
	Post-kitchen – proactive offer of takeaway boxes	1	5
	ALL operational stages – on-site composting	1	5
	ALL operational stages – collaboration with a local farmer to provide food waste for collection and subsequent use as the animal feed + organic produce in return	1	5

Figure 1. Research design.

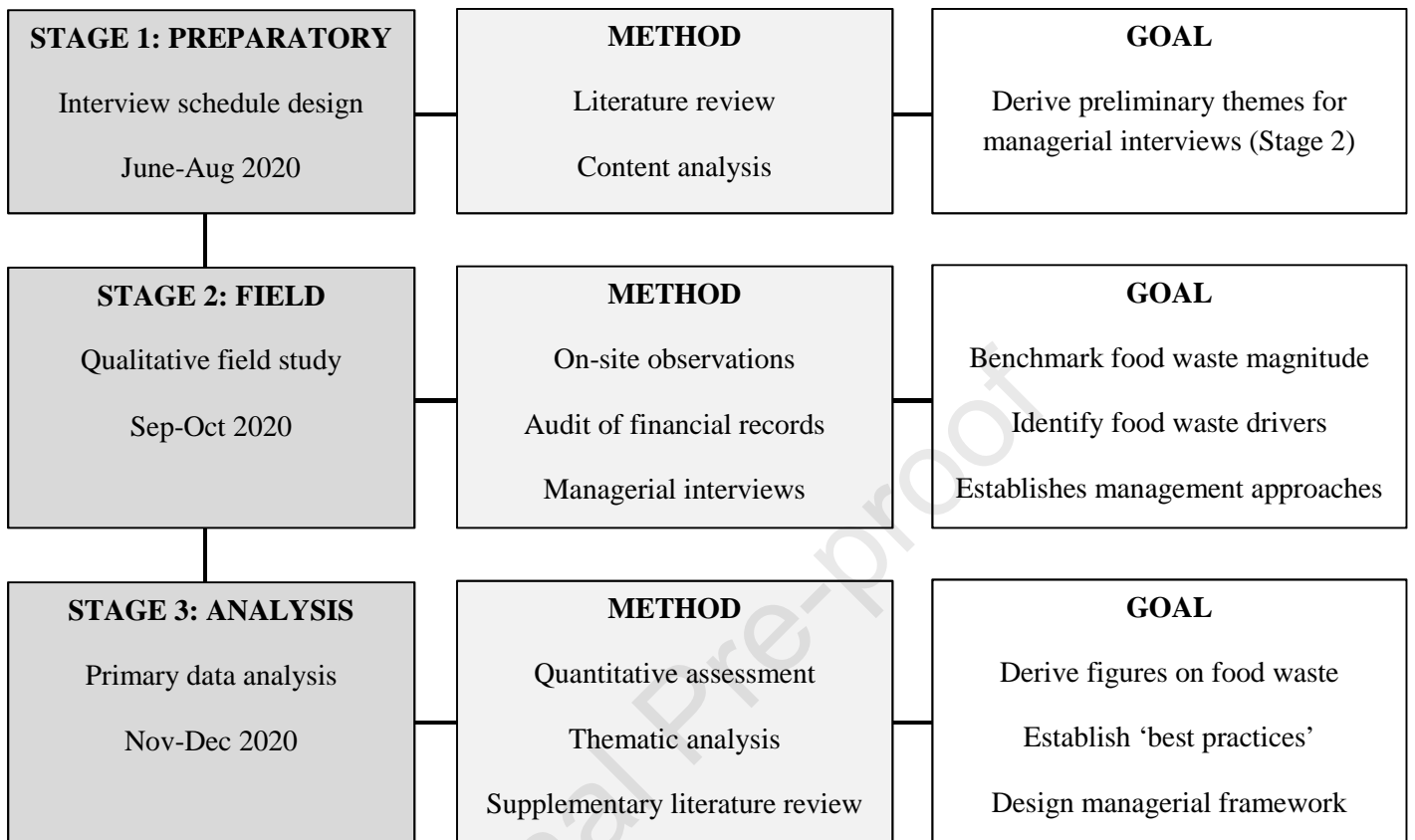
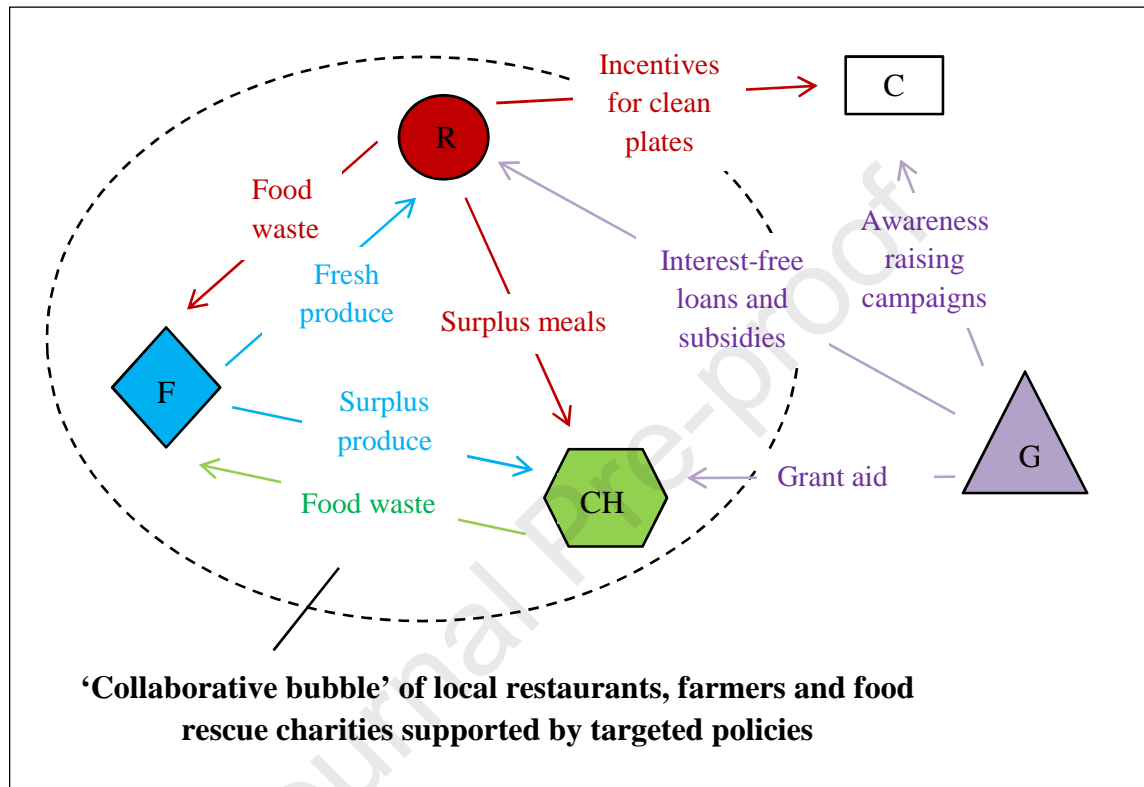


Figure 2. Multi-stakeholder collaborative framework to aid in more effective management of FW in the foodservice sector of Russia. Schematic and not to scale.

*Legend: R stands for Restaurants; F stands for Farmers; CH stands for Charities; C stands for Customers; G stands for Government (local/regional/national authorities).*





The authors hereby declare no conflict of interest

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