

Untapped power of food system by-products to increase global food supply

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Article

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1 Untapped power of food system by-products to increase global food supply

2 **Abstract**

3 Many animal feeds compete for resources with human food production. The current use of
4 food system by-products and residues as feed could potentially be increased to reduce the
5 competition. We gathered a harmonised global food system material flow database for crop,
6 livestock and aquaculture production including the availability of food system by-products.
7 This allowed us to analyse the potential to replace the food-competing feedstuff, here cereals,
8 whole fish, vegetable oils and pulses, that currently account for 11% of total feed used
9 globally, with available food system by-products. While considering the nutritional
10 requirements in animal production, we found that the replacement could free food-grade
11 feeds for human consumption and increase the current food supply in kcal by 11-17% (6-11%
12 if the use of crop residues is not accounted for) and in terms of protein 11-15% (9-14%). Our
13 results thus indicate that the increased feed use of by-products has considerable potential,
14 particularly when used in combination with other measures, in the much needed transition
15 towards more sustainable and circular food systems.

16 **Keywords:** circularity, sustainable food systems, livestock feed, aquaculture feed, by-
17 products

18 **1. Introduction**

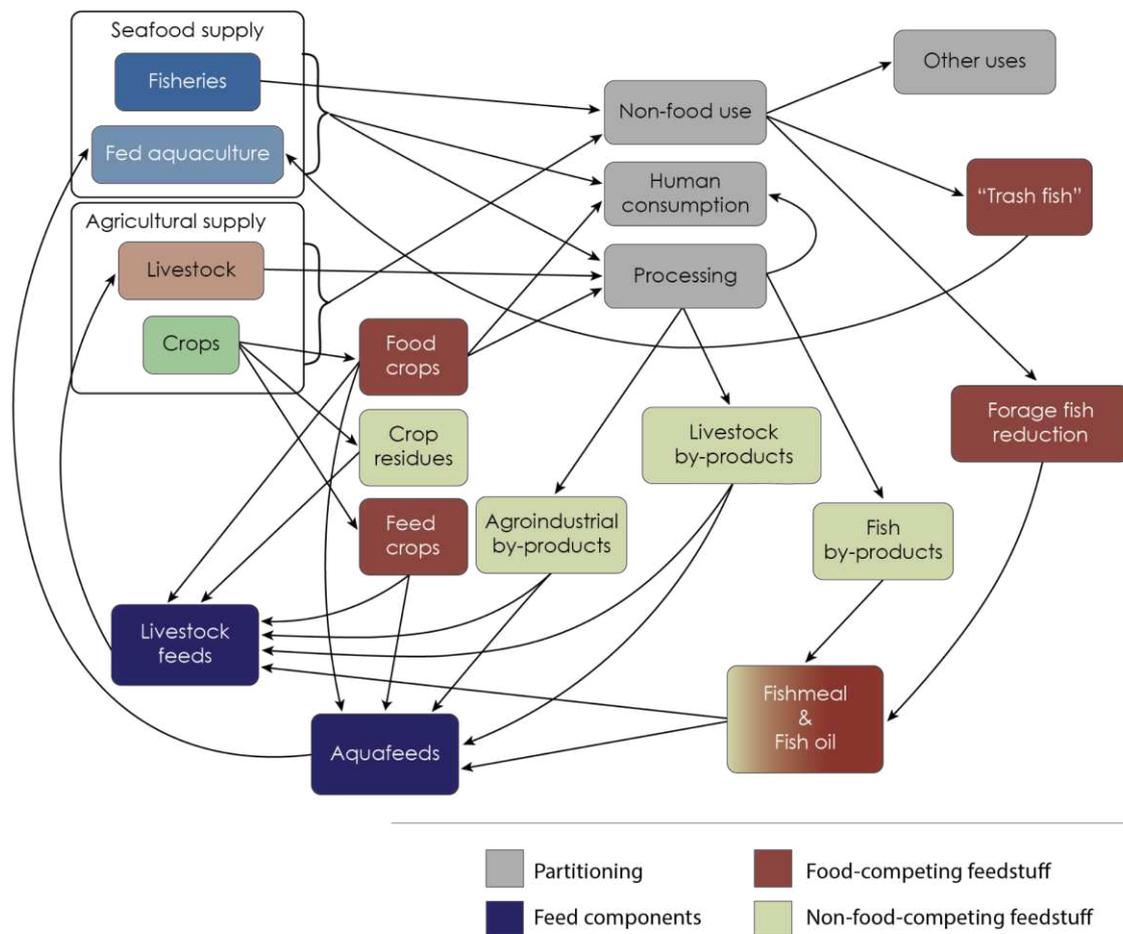
19 The current food system's structure results in suboptimal food availability as a large
20 proportion of the resources used to feed livestock and aquaculture production, could be
21 directly consumed by humans. Up to 40% of all arable land and more than 30% of cereal
22 crops produced are used for animal feeds (Mottet et al., 2017; FAO, 2021) and approximately
23 23% of all captured fish are destined to non-food uses, mainly for fish and livestock feeds
24 (FAO, 2020). This food-feed competition reduces the efficiency in food systems as the
25 environmental and resource costs are higher when arable land is used as a feed producing
26 resource in animal production instead of directly contributing to human consumption (Bowles
27 et al., 2019; Foley et al., 2011; Godfray et al., 2010). While animal products are generally
28 more protein dense and of different protein quality, total protein supply is reduced when
29 animals convert human edible feedstuff into human edible animal products (Goodland, 1997).

30 Increasing the use of food system by-products such as crop residues, food processing by-
31 products, and food waste, has been proposed as a solution to increase the efficient use of
32 resources (van Kernebeek et al., 2016; Schader et al., 2015; Rööös et al., 2017; van Hal et al.,
33 2020), to reduce the food-feed competition (van Zanten et al., 2018) and to increase the
34 circularity within food systems (Billen et al., 2021; van Zanten et al., 2019; van Hal et al.,
35 2019). In addition, the use of food system by-products as feed can reduce the agricultural
36 environmental pressure by minimizing environmental impacts such as climate change
37 emissions and the need to occupy inputs such as arable land, fertilizers or water for feed
38 production (van Kernebeek et al. 2018; van Zanten et al., 2019; Schader et al., 2015; van
39 Selm et al., 2021; van Hal et al., 2019). Increasing the use of by-products and crop residues as
40 feed can also be cost-effective since they are widely available and low-cost materials
41 (Devendra & Sevilla, 2002). These non-competing feedstuffs, however, can have a relatively
42 low quality and nutritional content (Van Hal et al., 2019), which should be considered when

43 increasing their share in livestock and aquaculture diets as it may either limit their inclusion
44 rate or reduce productivity. However, many feed experiment studies show the potential to
45 reduce food-grade feed use by replacing part of their use with non-food-competing feedstuff
46 without negatively impacting productivity (Ertl et al., 2015; Karlsson et al., 2018; Tables S6
47 and S7).

48 Since the different food production sectors, i.e. crops and both terrestrial and aquatic animals,
49 are tightly interlinked via feed use, a systemic view of the food system is needed to achieve
50 the goals of circularity (Korhonen et al., 2018; Van Hal, 2020). However, studying the
51 potential use of by-products for animal feeds at global scale is challenged by the lack of
52 harmonized datasets of both feed material flows as well as the availability of the by-products.
53 While different models and reports provide data on livestock (FAO, 2017; Wirsenius, 2000;
54 Herrero et al., 2013) or aquaculture feed use (Tacon et al., 2009; Tacon & Metian., 2015)
55 these are not harmonized throughout the global food system. Only few studies have assessed
56 the feed use in both systems, but they don't account for country-level differences in feed use
57 (Froehlich et al., 2018) or have only regional focus (Karlsson & Rööös, 2019). Estimates of
58 the material flows related to food system by-products, in turn, have only been reported
59 sporadically in different studies (e.g. Scarlat et al., 2010; van Hal et al. 2019; Devendra &
60 Sevilla, 2002, Wirsenius, 2000) and thus, no comprehensive understanding of those flows
61 exists. Previous studies have assessed the feed use potential of individual by-products at
62 specific production systems (Tables S6 and S7) as well as analysed scenarios of the livestock
63 production that could be sustained restricting the feed use to only non-food-competing
64 feedstuff (Schader et al., 2015; Karlsson et al., 2017; Rööös et al., 2017; Van Zanten et al.,
65 2018; Van Hal et al., 2019). However, an analysis of the potential to increase the feed use of
66 the by-products within the current food system, including both livestock and aquaculture
67 sectors, has not been presented at the global level.

68 In this study, we assessed the potential of improving the food system's circularity through
69 increased use of by-products and residues in animal feeds. Combining data from various
70 sources, we analysed both current feed flows in the entire global food system as well as
71 availability and feed use of most common by-products (i.e., crop residues, crop processing
72 by-products, livestock by-products and fisheries and aquaculture processing by-products,
73 hereafter referred to as fish by-products; see full description in Methods) (Fig 1). We then
74 estimated the potential of these by-products in replacing food-competing feedstuff including
75 both the livestock and aquaculture sectors, in the current food system. The focus was on the
76 feed use of food-competing feedstuff including cereals, oilseed oils, pulses and the whole fish
77 used in fishmeal and fish oil production. Here, only selected food system by-products and
78 residues were considered based on their current feed use and the potential to increase it (see
79 Methods). The replacement potential considered the animal nutritional requirements,
80 regulation of the animal by-products feed use and the regional availability of the by-products
81 assuming that all by-products, currently not used as feed, are available (see Methods and
82 Discussion). The replacement constraints were set to allow no reduction in animal
83 productivity, with the only exception for cereal replacement with crop residues where
84 reduced productivity was unavoidable (see Methods). We further estimated the increase of
85 human food supply when applying the potential to replace the selected food-competing
86 feedstuff with food system by-products.



87

88 **Figure 1.** Material flows in the global food system considered in this study. See methods for
 89 our quantitative interpretation of the flows.

90

91 2. Results

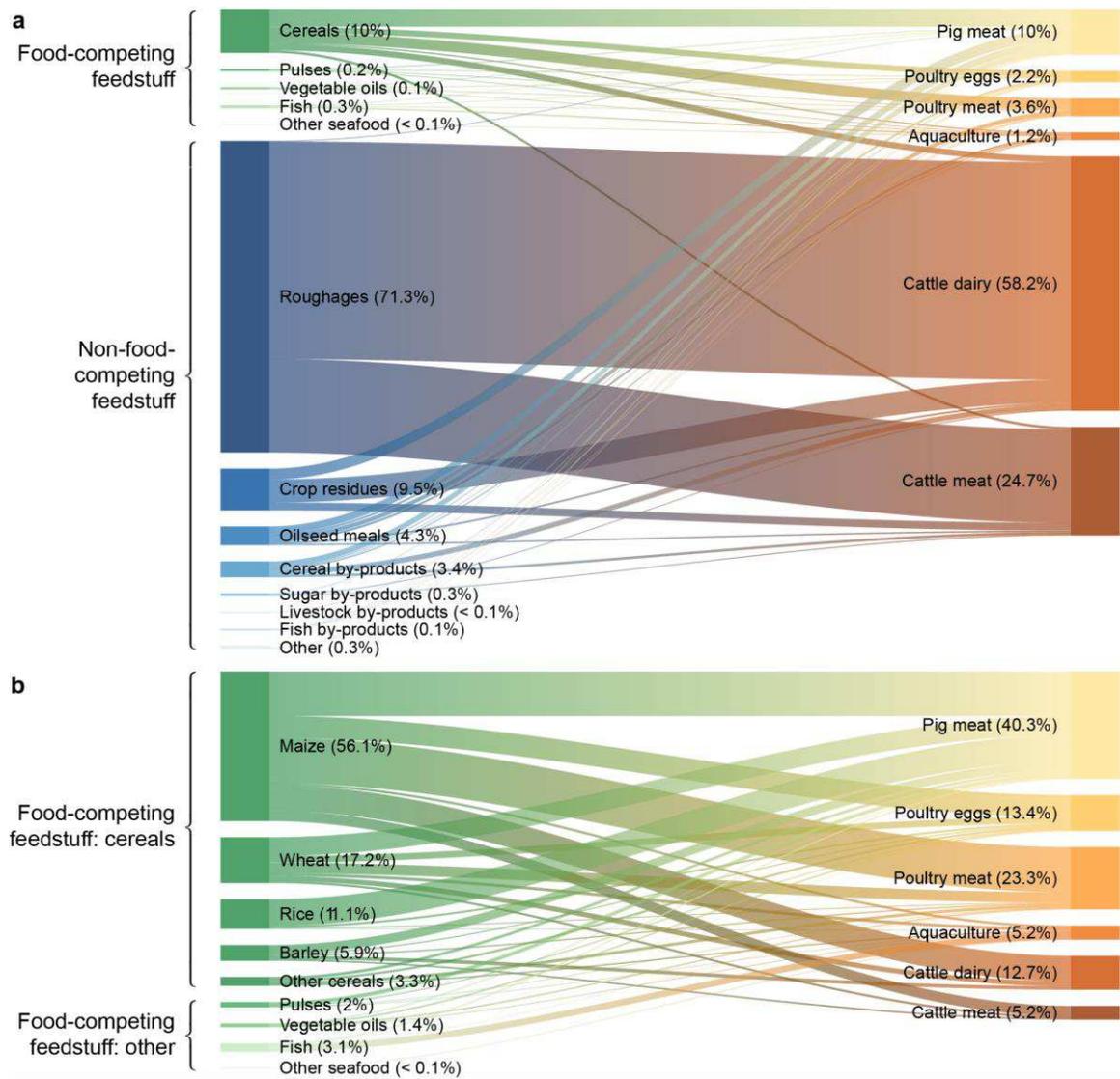
92 2.1. Food-competing feedstuff use

93 Based on our harmonised global food system database, in 2016-2018 approximately 11% (in
 94 fresh weight) of feedstuffs used in livestock and aquaculture production consisted of the
 95 considered food-competing feedstuff that can potentially be directly used as human food (Fig
 96 2). Here we assumed that cereals, oilseed oils, pulses, sugar crops and the whole fish used as
 97 feed in aquaculture or in producing fish oil and fishmeal were included in the food-competing
 98 feedstuff category (Table S2; see Methods for assumptions).

99 Animal production systems differ in their food-competing feedstuff use: at the global level,
100 up to 42% of the feedstuff in aquaculture, 70% in poultry and 43% in pork meat production
101 consisted of food-competing feedstuff while for cattle meat and dairy the ratio was only 3%
102 (in quantities of feed in fresh matter). The low inclusion rate in cattle feed is mainly due to
103 extensive grazing systems. These systems have high feed conversion ratios (kg feed/kg
104 output) and hence consume high amounts of feed, which consists mainly of roughages such
105 as grass and hay. The more industrialized cattle systems consume high amounts of food-
106 competing feedstuff (e.g. in Northern America and Europe in the industrialized beef cattle
107 systems the use of food-competing feedstuff is more than 70%) but on the other hand, these
108 systems are highly optimized and efficient, having lower feed conversion ratios (Mekonnen
109 & Hoekstra, 2012) and consequently lower total consumption of feed. There are also notable
110 differences in regional variation in food-competing feedstuff use ranging from less than 3%
111 in Africa and 6% in both Latin America and Oceania, 10% in Europe, 13% in Asia and
112 almost 17% in Northern America. These differences reflect both the variation in animal
113 production as well as the differences in the feed use.

114 At the global level, most of the feed use however, consists of materials not suitable for human
115 consumption, mainly roughages such as grass foraged by cattle (Fig 2). From the food-
116 competing feedstuff use, cereals form by far the largest group. Maize is the most important
117 feed cereal followed by wheat, rice and barley (Fig 3a and 3d). Notably, fish has a
118 considerable role when analysing the material flows in protein content (Fig 3b) and they can
119 be particularly important for the supply of healthy fatty acids (i.e. EPA and DHA), while the
120 importance of oilseed oils increases when looking at these from a fat content perspective (Fig
121 3c).

122



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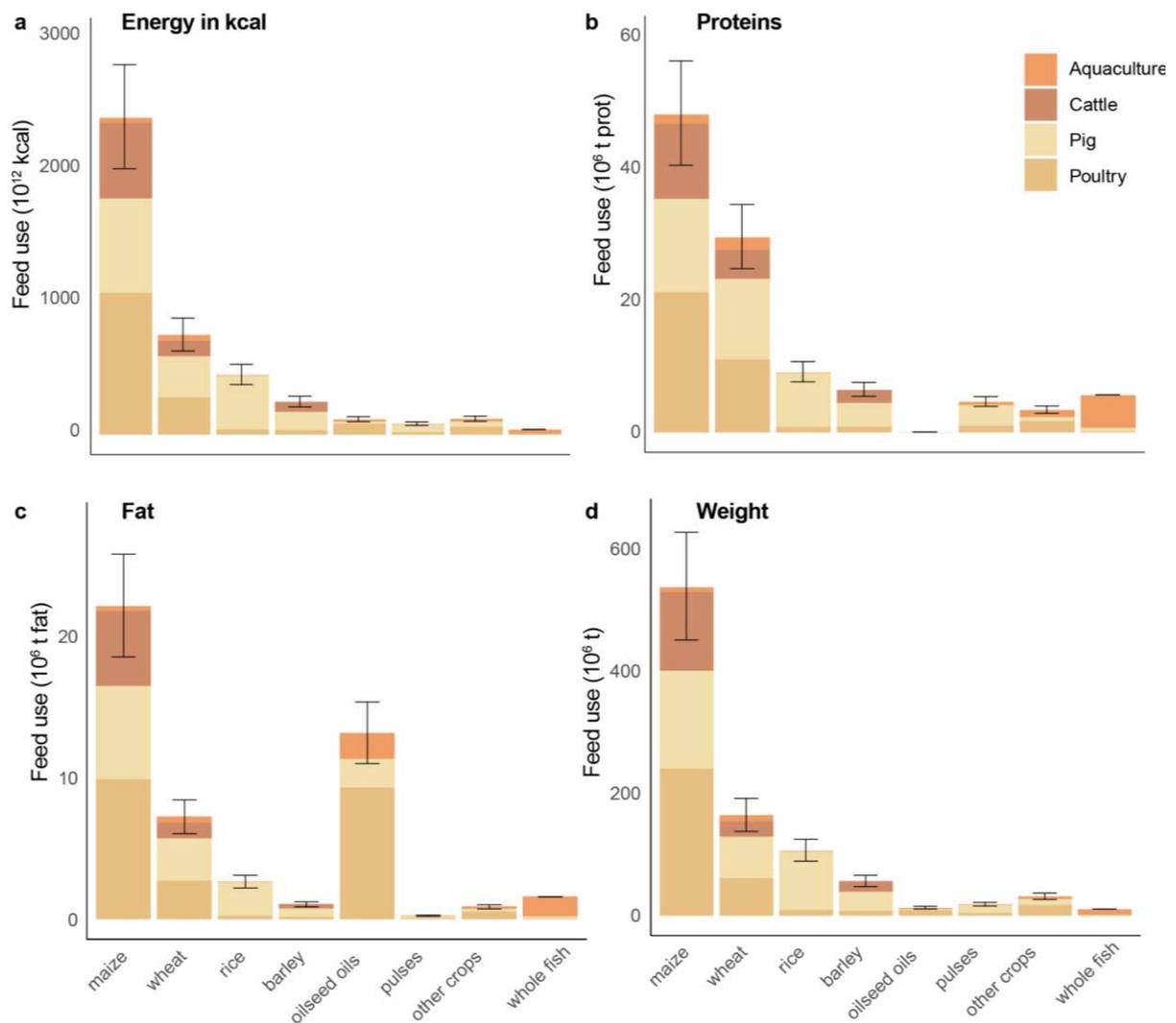
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Figure 2. Feed use material flows in the global food system (feed use in fresh weight). a) entire feed flows; b) only flows for food-competing feedstuff. The percentages refer to the share of the feed group (on the left) and the animal production group (on the right) of total feed use. See data sources used for combined feed database in Methods.



129

130 **Figure 3.** Global feed use of food-competing feedstuff presented in a) energy content (kcal),
 131 b) protein content, c) fat content, and d) quantities (fresh weight). Error bars represent the
 132 total uncertainty range for different feedstuffs (see methods). The use of the feed is color-
 133 coded to each feed group.

134

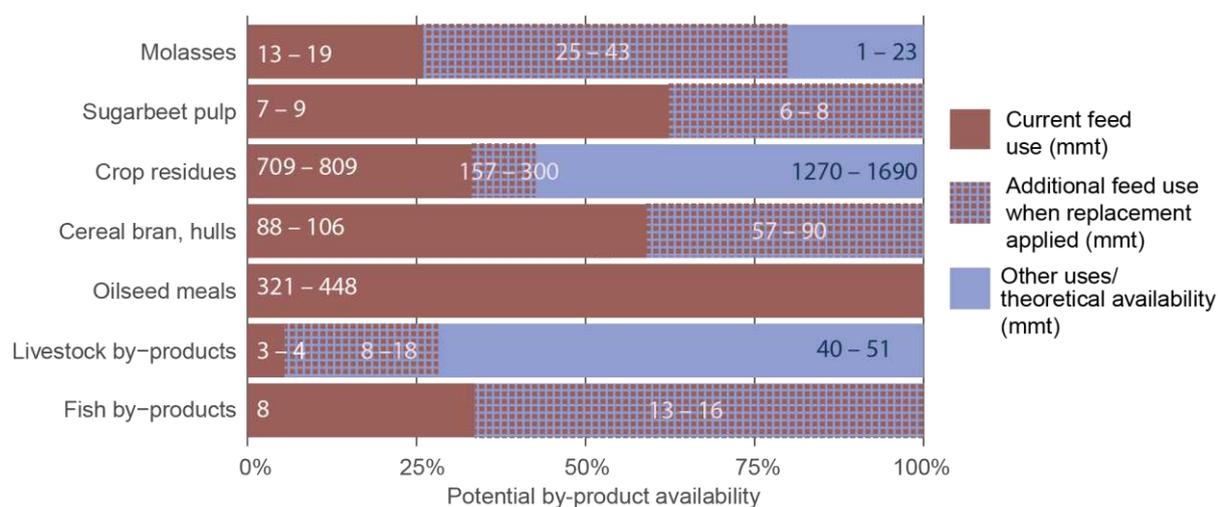
135 2.2. Availability of food system by-products

136 The total availability of food system by-products, including crop residues, selected crop
 137 processing by-products and livestock and fish by-products, was estimated by multiplying the
 138 production quantities from FAO (2021) and FishStatJ (2020) with the conversion factors for
 139 different by-products and residues (see Methods). The feed use of these by-products and

140 residues was then reduced from their production to estimate the potential availability of
 141 materials not used as feed.

142 Only relatively small shares of crop residues and livestock by-products are used as feed
 143 currently while nearly all oilseed meals (i.e. oilseed meals and cakes, here grouped together
 144 under meals) and more than half of the total potential of crop processing by-products such as
 145 sugarbeet pulp and cereal bran are already in use (Fig 4). It should be noted that while only
 146 small shares of, for example crop residues, are used for feed, these resources also have other
 147 uses such as biofuels or bedding material for livestock. The use of crop residues in
 148 maintenance of soil quality was taken into account in sustainable harvest ratios (see
 149 methods), but other uses were excluded, assuming that all by-products not already used for
 150 feed would be available to replace the human-edible parts of feed. Despite the multiple uses,
 151 the largest absolute theoretical potential in utilizing by-products as feed still lies in crop
 152 residues and livestock by-products as their theoretical availability exceeds the availability of
 153 other by-products (Fig 5).

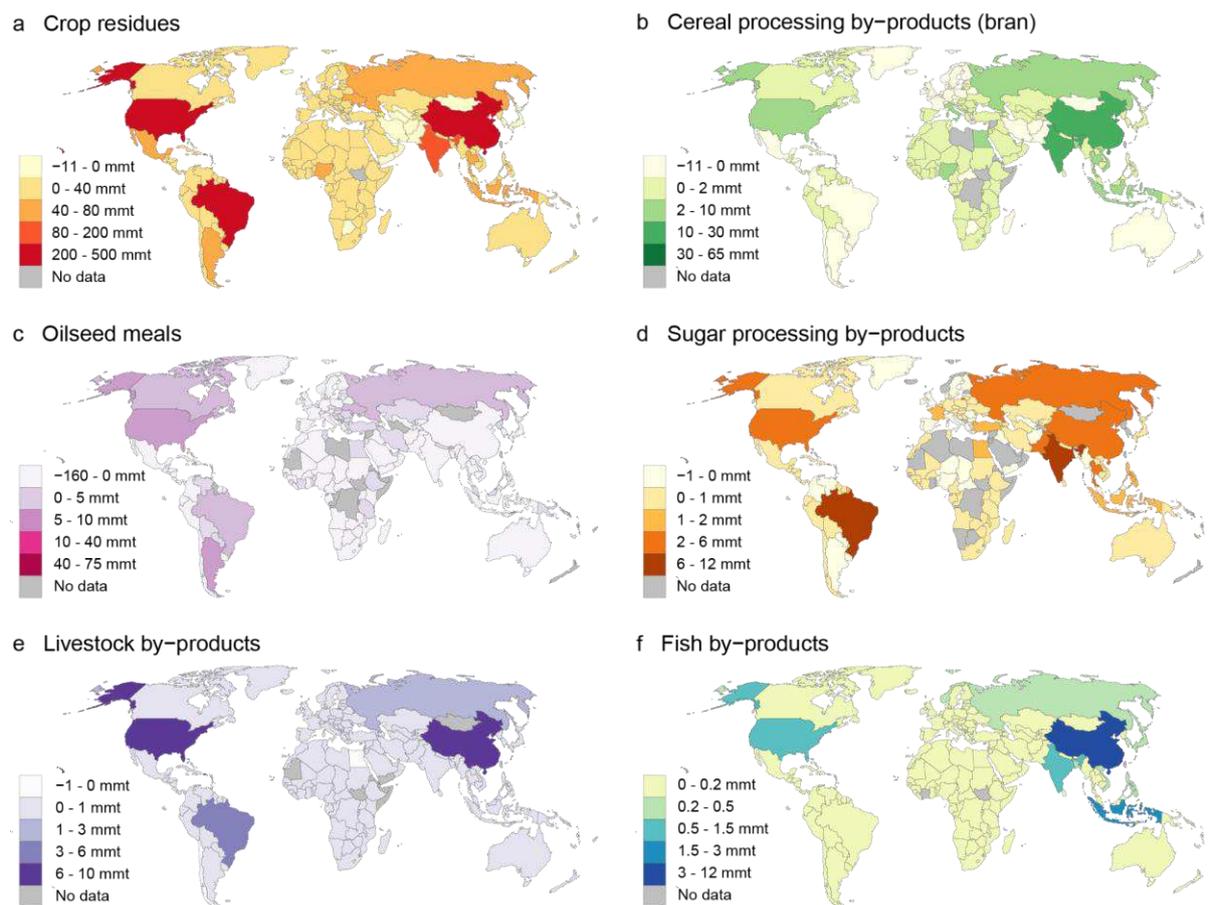
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155

156 **Figure 4.** Feed use and theoretical availability of food system by-products. In addition, the
 157 increased feed use of by-products is shown when applying the replacement analyzed in this
 158 study (see Methods).

159 The availability of crop residues and livestock by-products, with both high global production
160 and relatively low feed use, is directly related to the crop and livestock production in a
161 country, and hence larger countries with higher agricultural production show the highest
162 potential availability (Figs 5a and 5e). For crop processing by-products such as cereal bran,
163 with higher variation in their production and higher feed use, South Asia, Russia and North
164 America show high availability while for sugar processing by-products especially Brazil and
165 India show potential for increased feed use (Figs 5b and 5d). Oilseed meals are highly traded
166 commodities in the global feed market and many of the countries actually present negative
167 availability numbers, referring to a situation where the feed use exceeds the country-level
168 production, indicating dependence on imports (Fig 5c). For fish by-products, the largest
169 captured fish and aquaculture production countries, such as China and Indonesia, show the
170 highest availability and the largest potential to increase the production of fishmeal and fish oil
171 from by-products that can be used for local needs or exported to other countries (Fig 5f).



172

173 **Figure 5.** Theoretical availability of by-products and residues (computed by subtracting the
 174 feed use from potential production in a country) without considering trade. Here a) crop
 175 residues include residues from rice, cereals, sugar cane and pulses; b) cereal processing by-
 176 products include cereal bran and hulls; c) oilseed meals include rapeseed, soybean,
 177 sunflower seed, palm kernel, sesame seed and other oilseed meals; d) sugar processing by-
 178 products include molasses from sugar beet and sugar cane and sugar beet pulp; e) livestock
 179 by-products include only by-products from non-ruminant origin, including blood meal,
 180 hydrolyzed feather meal, meat meal from hogs and ovines and poultry by-product meal, f)
 181 fish by-products include by-products from processing of both aquaculture and capture fish.

182

183 2.3. The potential for replacing food-competing feedstuff with non-food competing
 184 by-products and residues

185 To estimate the replacement potential of the food-competing feedstuffs with by-products and
 186 residues, we focused on five cases with high replacement potential owned to the similar
 187 nutritional profiles: 1) the replacement of cereals including maize, wheat, barley, cassava,
 188 sorghum, millet and rice with cereal processing by-products such as brans or hulls and sugar

189 processing by-products such as molasses and sugar beet pulp and crop residues, 2) the
190 replacement of oilseed oils with poultry oil and fish oil made from fish by-products, 3) the
191 replacement of pulses with oilseed meals, livestock by-products and fishmeal made from fish
192 by-products, 4) the replacement of fishmeal made from whole fish with processed animal
193 proteins from livestock by-products, oilseed meals and fishmeal made from fish by-products,
194 5) and the replacement of fish oil made from whole fish with poultry oil and fish oil made
195 from fish by-products.

196 Although the potential availability of some of the by-products or residues is much higher
197 compared to the feed use (Fig 4), animals' nutritional requirements constrain their use in
198 livestock and aquaculture feeds (Table S5). For example, although there is abundance of crop
199 residues, their fibrousness, lack of protein and readily utilisable carbohydrates limit their
200 inclusion potential while meeting the nutritional requirements to maintain animal productivity
201 (Table S7). The same applies for other animal feeds. For example, there is a great abundance
202 of livestock by-products to replace all fish use but due to the need to maintain the essential
203 fatty acid profile required in aquaculture production (Monteiro et al., 2018), not all fish oil in
204 aquafeeds can be substituted with processed animal fats from livestock (Tables S5 and S6).
205 Here, the replacement potential was estimated based on literature on feed experiments,
206 applying the maximum replacement ratios with no impact on productivity (Methods). The
207 only exception was considered for the replacement of cereal feed use with crop residues in
208 cattle production as the negative impacts on productivity are likely unavoidable even with
209 low substitution rates (Tables S5 and S7).

210 When taking into account these replacement constraints (Table S5) and the total availability
211 of the selected by-products, 14–17% of the selected food-competing feedstuff could be
212 replaced with the by-products assessed in this study, without negatively impacting
213 productivity, and even up to 30-35% when considering also crop residues and allowing some

214 decrease in animal productivity (Table 1). The highest replacement potential lies in cereals,
215 due to their major use as feedstuff in all animal production systems (Fig 2). However, the
216 share of potential replacement is highest for fishmeal and fish oil made from whole fish
217 indicating that nearly all whole fish used to produce fishmeal and fish oil could be replaced
218 with by-products.

219 Applying the maximum potential of replacing the food-competing feedstuff with by-products
220 would potentially free up altogether $530-890 * 10^{12}$ kcal and 22-33 mmt of protein for
221 humans, corresponding to 14-17% and 6-11%, respectively, of current global food supply.
222 More specifically, up to 146 mmt of cereals (~16% of their feed use), up to 5.0 mmt of
223 vegetable oils from oilseeds (~39% of their feed use), 4.7 mmt of pulses (~25% of their feed
224 use), and more than 4.2 mmt of fishmeal made from whole fish, corresponding to more than
225 21 million tons of whole fish (~13% of current seafood supply) could be directed to human
226 food use. The current global food supply refers to the food supply for the global population
227 on average in 2016-2018 (FAO, 2021) taking into account food losses and waste from the
228 supply chain excluding the production and consumption stage (Kummu et al., 2011). When
229 applying world average yields for the replaced feed crop groups, the replacement would free
230 up to 48-90 million ha of cropland corresponding to 4-7% of the world total arable land use
231 in 2018 (FAO, 2021).

232 The maximum replacement potential scenario would use most of the cereal processing and
233 fish by-products available, in contrast to livestock by-products and crop residues for which
234 the potential availability is much higher and even if applying the maximum replacement
235 potential, still the majority would remain available for other uses (Fig 4).

236 **Table 1.** Feed use, replacement potential and increased food supply when applying the
 237 replacement potential with selected food system by-products and residues, given replacement
 238 constraints and regional availability of by-products and residues (see Methods).

Feedstuff	Feed use Million t	Replacement material	Replacement potential %	Increased food supply					
				10 ¹² kcal	% of current supply	10 ¹² g of protein	% of current supply	10 ⁹ g of fat	% of current supply
Cereals	898 (753 - 1050)	Cereal bran and hulls; Sugarbeet pulp; Molasses	13 – 16%	420 – 728	4.9 – 8.6%	11 – 19	4.4 – 7.7%	2920 – 5060	1.2 – 2.0%
Cereals including replacement with crop residues *		Cereal bran and hulls; Sugarbeet pulp; Molasses; Crop residues	29 – 35%	825 – 1280	9.7 – 15%	16 – 21	6.7 – 8.8%	-1570 – -4410	-0.5 – -1.7%
Oilseed oils	13.1 (11.0 - 15.3)	Poultry oil; Fish oil from fish by-products	30 – 39%	31 – 57	0.3 – 0.6%	0	0	3270 – 6060	1.2 – 2.3%
Pulses	18.7 (15.7 - 21.8)	Oilseed meals; Livestock by-products; Fishmeal from fish by-products	17 – 25%	11.6 – 23.7	0.1 – 0.3%	0.62 – 1.3	0.3 – 0.5%	37.1 – 76.0	0.01 – 0.03%
Fishmeal from whole fish	4.86 (4.10 - 5.66)	Livestock by-products; Fishmeal from fish by-products	87 – 98%	71.7 – 87.6 **	0.8 – 1.0%	10.5 – 12.8**	4.4 – 5.3%	3010 – 3672 **	1.2 – 1.5%
Fish oil from whole fish	0.57 (0.48 - 0.66)	Poultry oil; Fish oil from fish by-products	90–99%	38.8 – 58.8 **	0.4 – 0.6%	5.7 – 8.6	2.4 – 3.6%	1630 – 2470 **	0.6 – 1.0%
Total ***	934 (783 – 1091)		13.8 – 17.2%	532 – 893	6.3 – 10.5%	21.9 – 32.8	9.1 – 13.6%	8920 – 14600	3.6 – 5.9%
Total (incl. replacement with crop residues) ****			29.7 – 35.2	935 – 1450	11.0 – 17.0%	27.3 – 35.4	11.4 – 14.7%	4420 – 5130	1.8 – 2.1%

239 *Estimates include the reduced productivity (40-80%) when replacing cattle meat and dairy production feed use of cereals
 240 with crop residues.

241 **Fishmeal and fish oil converted to whole fish to estimate the increased food supply using conversion factors 0.2 for
 242 fishmeal and 0.04 for fish oil (see Methods).

243 *** Since fishmeal and fish oil can be produced simultaneously from the same fish, the increased food supply from
 244 replacing fishmeal and fish oil alternatives is calculated by considering only the one with the higher replacement potential to
 245 avoid double-accounting, in this case fishmeal.

246 ****The sum of the potential considering also the cereals replacement with crop residues taking into account the reduced
 247 impact on productivity.

248 **3. Discussion**

249 Earlier scenario-based assessments have found that it is possible to keep the global supply
250 adequate, restricting livestock feed use to only non-food-competing feed combined with
251 changes in livestock production levels (Schader et al., 2015; Karlsson et al., 2017; Van
252 Zanten et al., 2018; Van Hal et al., 2019; Rööös et al., 2017). Our findings complement those
253 assessments by showing that there is considerable potential to increase the feed use of food
254 system by-products already in the current food system, without assuming reductions in
255 animal production. This would reduce the feed use of food-competing feedstuffs and
256 consequently contribute to increased food supply without consuming additional natural
257 resources. However, the access to the improved food supply is unequally distributed around
258 the world since a large part of the replacement potential, and the food-grade feed use, lies in
259 the developed countries while less unused potential and more need remains in certain parts of
260 the global South (Fig 5).

261 We found that cereals present the highest potential for increased food supply, but the
262 increased supply of whole fish, pulses and oils from oilseeds can also have an important
263 contribution to human nutrition (Fig 3; Table 1). Many of the crop processing by-products,
264 such as cereal bran, sugar molasses or oilseed meals, have high nutritional quality and are
265 well suited as animal feeds (Table S7). However, their use as feed in the current food system
266 is already high, and increasing the feed use could imply more production pressure for the
267 primary product. Other by-products, such as fish and livestock by-products, that also present
268 valuable nutritional qualities, show more potential to increase their feed use. The replacement
269 potential could be increased even further by also considering other food system by-products,
270 apart from those focused in this study, and implementing more feed experiments focusing
271 specifically on replacing food-competing feedstuffs with by-products and residues.

272 3.1. Challenges with using by-products as feed

273 The prospects of replacing part of the feedstuff with by-products are faced by various
274 challenges. For example, not only the production of alternative feed is limited by the
275 availability of by-products and residues and by existing regulations, such as banning the
276 intra-species feed recycling in farmed animal production, but the potential can also be limited
277 by nutritional aspects. Some by-products are of lower nutritional quality and can contain
278 antinutritive compounds or higher amounts of fibre limiting growth (Bindelle et al., 2008;
279 Colovic et al., 2019). This is true particularly with crop residues, that shows the highest
280 theoretical replacement potential. Replacing the higher quality feeds with these compounds
281 can result in lower livestock and aquaculture productivity or reduced nutritional (e.g. fatty
282 acids composition) content of the commodities produced (Fry et al. 2016; Cottrel et al. 2020).
283 Processing by-products through e.g. fermentation or other chemical treatments or additives
284 can, however, improve their nutritional value (Shi et al. 2017; Dawood & Koshio 2019; Pires
285 et al., 2010). Yet, as shown in the different feed experiment studies reviewed here (Tables S6
286 and S7), particularly food processing and animal by-products, have valuable nutritional
287 quality and they can replace food-grade feed use without an impact in productivity.
288 Especially in cattle nutrition, it is possible to construct the diets entirely based on non-food-
289 competing feedstuffs even on very high animal production levels, as was demonstrated by
290 Karlsson et al. (2018). Thus, this shift in animal diets may favor ruminant based production
291 over monogastric animal based production (van Selm et al., 2021). However, increasing
292 ruminant production will result in increased greenhouse gas emissions, which together with
293 other environmental impacts, should be comprehensively assessed and balanced with other
294 measures, such as changes in diets, when trying to minimize environmental impacts from
295 food production. Additionally, if some reduction in animal productivity is acceptable, the
296 avoidance of food-competing feedstuff use can be further implemented by raising livestock

297 breeds or herbivorous and omnivorous fish species that can consume lower quality feeds,
298 such as crop residues, and enable the more efficient use of these low-quality resources
299 (Zijlstra & Beltranena, 2013; van Hal et al., 2019).

300 Furthermore, many by-products, especially those generated in livestock and fish processing,
301 have high water content, are highly perishable or their production is seasonal (as is the case
302 with crop residues) and hence, they require proper infrastructure and know-how for
303 collecting, transportation, storage and processing (Colovic et al., 2019). The optimization of
304 by-product based diets for maintaining high animal performance requires also knowledge of
305 composition of feed resources and understanding of animal nutrient requirements. Thus, the
306 realization of this dietary shift will likely require the education of animal producers and
307 support of rural advisory services. Mixed farming systems (farms with both crop and animal
308 production) would be logistically better suited for circulating material flows, e.g. when
309 feeding crop residues to cattle produced in the same farm, but the ongoing trend towards
310 more specialized farms will increase the need for transportation, storage and cooperation
311 between farms when considering the feed use of by-products and residues. However, the
312 large-scale infrastructure for logistics and storage is currently lacking in many parts of the
313 world constraining their use (Rustad et al. 2011). The transporting and processing costs might
314 thus be higher compared to the cost of conventional feeds especially in areas where
315 investment in infrastructure would be needed. Further, social and cultural issues, related to
316 the public acceptance of using by-products and residues in feed, especially related to
317 livestock and aquaculture by-products, have to be considered (Hua et al., 2019; Rustad et al.,
318 2011, Scarlat et al., 2010). In addition, when increasing the feed use of the food system by-
319 products and residues, it is important to consider the impact of reduced raw materials
320 available for other competitive uses, such as bioenergy, pharmaceuticals or fertilizer
321 production. Yet, even when applying the maximum replacement potential shown in this

322 study, much of crop residues and livestock by-products would remain available for other uses
323 (Fig 3), therefore the issue of competitive uses is most critical for the other by-product
324 groups. It can be, however, argued that food production should be prioritized over other uses
325 of these biomass flows, as the other uses can typically utilize multiple alternative materials,
326 while food can only be produced within food systems (Van Zanten et al., 2019; Muscat et al.,
327 2020). All these aspects would require a broad systems perspective (Herrero et al., 2020) and
328 further research, to fully understand the replacement potential, practical challenges and trade-
329 offs related to realising it.

330 3.2. Challenges in directing current feed to human food

331 Increasing the consumption of the food-grade feedstuff also presents challenges. First, not all
332 feed cereals meet the quality standards set by manufacturers or government agencies to be
333 used as food, and changing from production of feed crops to food crops might require
334 additional inputs such as increased fertilization. Second, the cultural, taste and consumer
335 preferences need to be considered. For example, the whole fish used in the fishmeal and fish
336 oil industries (i.e. from forage fish) consists mainly of bony and small pelagic fish species, or
337 other low value by-catch fish or juvenile individuals, that are often not preferred for direct
338 human consumption and they might require processing and preserving e.g. in canned, cured
339 or dried form, for wider acceptance and uses in human diets (Tacon & Metian, 2009).

340 However, these small fish are often low-cost and highly nutritious and they can serve as
341 valuable dietary additions, especially in regions where more expensive fish products are not
342 accessible for many people (Cashion et al. 2017).

343 In addition, the impacts of our current economic system on the food system structures should
344 be considered; often it might be more beneficial to produce feed than food, as is the case with
345 producing soybean meal or fishmeal for feed vs. using the raw materials directly as human
346 food (Goldsmith, 2008; Cashion et al. 2017), an aspect that might restrict the transition. Also,

347 the increasing use of by-products in feeds might result in added value in animal production
348 that can result in rebound effect implying an increase in livestock production.

349 3.3. Limitations of the approach

350 The data in this study was gathered using various sources, databases, reports and models,
351 each of which contain limitations of their own. An uncertainty analysis was performed for the
352 estimation of livestock and aquaculture feed use as well as the potential availability of
353 different by-products (see methods). Despite the uncertainties involved, our estimates for
354 livestock and aquaculture feed use as well as the availability of by-products were compared
355 to previous studies and they were found to be in line and in accordance with them (see
356 comparison in SI). An important limitation of the study is that only selected food system by-
357 products and residues were considered in our analysis. The by-products of cereal processing
358 from alcohol and bioethanol industries are also used as major feedstuffs at the global level
359 (Schingoethe et al, 2009; Klopfenstein et al., 2008), but our focus was on the by-products
360 from food production and therefore these industries were omitted. Moreover, our database
361 could not cover by-products from e.g. bakery or dairy industries as the feed use of those is
362 not reported in our data sources. Therefore, while our study provides preliminary
363 quantifications, a wider range of by-products and their replacement potential should be
364 assessed in future studies. Also, some of the food-competing feedstuff categories excluded in
365 this study, such as roots and tubers, might present additional replacement opportunities and
366 deserve consideration. Another limitation is the spatial resolution applied in this study. The
367 feed use and by-product availability was assessed at country-level and the replacement
368 potential at regional level. However, to quantify the practical potential and assess in more
369 detail the costs of transportation etc., a higher resolution spatial analysis would be needed.

370 Furthermore, estimating the replacement potential constraints from an animal nutritional
371 perspective is challenging, since animal nutritional needs differ in different growing stages
372 and production levels. The estimates used in this study were mostly based on feed experiment
373 studies considering each replacement material individually (see Methods). In practice, the
374 animal diets would likely be designed to include several different replacement materials
375 simultaneously (e.g. brans, sugarbeet pulp and an oilseed meal). Their combined effect
376 would, however, need more careful consideration as it could have effects on the nutritional
377 value of the final product or impact animal health. Based on these limitations, the results of
378 this study should be considered as theoretical potential of a biophysical change and the
379 application of the results should be combined with more local level studies on the practical
380 replacement potential taking into account also the social and economic considerations.

381 3.4 Concluding remarks

382 This study shows the considerable potential for more efficient use of food system by-products
383 and residues for increasing the global food supply. In addition to the challenges related to the
384 practical application of the replacement potential, harnessing the untapped potential of the
385 by-products and residues would require a paradigm shift, from not only primarily pursuing
386 higher productivity in food production but to also value more the efficient use of materials
387 and the capacity of livestock and aquaculture sectors to circulate non-food-grade biomass
388 back to food systems through feed use. Policy interventions and regulation would be needed
389 in managing the feed resources and to provide incentives for feed industries to develop and
390 innovate solutions for increased use of the materials most unused as feed, highlighted by this
391 study. The more efficient use of food system by-products and residues can reduce the food-
392 feed competition and improve food security without increasing the use of valuable natural
393 resources. This, in combination with other measures, are urgently needed actions in the

394 transition towards more circular and sustainable food systems for feeding the growing global
395 population.

396

397 **Methods**

398

399 Material flows including the potential by-products and residues in the global food system
400 were first mapped to understand the links and dependencies between the three subsectors of
401 crop, livestock and aquaculture production (Fig 1). The total production of these sub-sectors
402 was combined with the feed use data. The replacement potential was then analysed
403 combining both the regional availability of the by-products and residues, and the replacement
404 constraints (Table S5). Finally, the potential increase in global food supply was calculated
405 assuming that all feedstuffs freed by this replacement were redirected to human consumption.
406 The analysis was performed for a three-year average of 2016-2018 to avoid yearly
407 fluctuations in the data.

408 Here, the focus was on replacing the human edible feed use, including cereals, oilseed oils,
409 pulses, sugar crops and the whole fish used in producing fish oil and fishmeal, with by-
410 products and residues. Although some of the terrestrial feedstuffs are produced with varieties
411 classified as not suitable for human food, e.g. fodder maize, and not all of them meet the
412 quality criteria for food use, we allocated them all in the food-competing feedstuff category
413 since they are produced on arable land that instead can be used for production of varieties
414 suitable for human consumption. While some unprocessed oilseeds, (e.g. soybeans) are
415 consumed by humans, here all oilseeds were converted into meals/cakes and oils, of which
416 only the oil was considered human edible. Roughages, crop residues and food processing by-
417 products, such as oilseed meals or cereal bran, were not considered food-competing (Table

418 S3). Although some of them (e.g. brans) can also be used as food, they are considered as co-
419 products of primary food commodities (e.g. flour), therefore they were not considered to be
420 in direct competition with food use. Also some of the non-food-competing feedstuff, such as
421 grass and other roughages may compete indirectly with food production when produced on
422 arable land. This indirect competition was not, however, assessed in this study.

423 Feed use

424 For the total feed use in livestock production, we first multiplied the national yearly cattle
425 (meat and dairy), poultry (meat and eggs) and pork (meat) production from the Food and
426 Agriculture Organization of the United Nations statistics (FAO, 2021) with the regional feed
427 conversion ratios (FCR) (kg dry matter feed/kg output) from Mekonnen and Hoekstra (2012).
428 While over the last decade, FCRs have improved as the production systems have become
429 more efficient, the FCRs from Mekonnen and Hoekstra (2012) for 2000 were applied here, as
430 more up-to-date regional data on the FCRs was not available. The development of the FCRs
431 since 2000 can be assumed marginal (e.g. for example in the EU the FCRs for finishing pigs
432 improved 1% between 2013-2019 (ADHB 2015; ADHB 2019), and therefore the impact to
433 our results would be marginal. The country-level feed use was then multiplied with the ratio
434 of different feedstuff from Global Livestock Environmental Assessment Model FAO
435 GLEAM 2.0 (FAO, 2017). These feed use data are presented for different production systems
436 for ten world regions. This procedure resulted in overestimation of fishmeal use in poultry
437 and pig production compared to Jackson (2009) which was corrected with applying the
438 fishmeal inclusion rates for pig and poultry from Froehlich et al. (2018). In addition, the
439 aggregated feed use categories in ruminant feed were divided into individual commodities
440 (oilseed meals to rapeseed, soybean and cottonseed meals; grains to maize, wheat and barley)
441 based on global feed use ratios of these materials. Also, the use of whole oilseeds (soybeans
442 and rapeseed) was divided into oilseed oils and oilseed meals. However, since the

443 replacement potential was estimated for aggregated categories (e.g. cereals) this division into
444 individual commodities did not affect our results.

445 For the total feed use in aquaculture, both for commercial and farm-made feeds, we
446 multiplied the feed production for each fed aquaculture production group (carps, tilapias,
447 catfishes, other freshwater fishes, salmons, trouts, milkfish, eels, other marine fishes,
448 shrimps, other freshwater crustaceans) with their respective FCRs. FCRs for commercial
449 feeds were derived from Tacon & Metian (2015) and FCRs for farm-made feeds were
450 assumed to be 50% higher than commercial ones based on Hasan et al. (2013). For highly
451 carnivorous high value fed aquaculture groups (other marine fishes and shrimps), the
452 percentage of global production not fed on commercial feeds, was assumed to feed on whole
453 raw fish (“trash” fish) and their FCRs were estimated according to reported conversion ratios
454 for these groups (Funge-Smith et al. 2005; De Silva & Turchini 2009; Hasan 2012; Cashion
455 et al. 2017). Diet composition for the major fed aquaculture groups were taken from country-
456 specific survey data from Tacon et al. (2011) and extrapolated to country level diet according
457 to Troell et al. (2014). Diet composition data were provided in ranges of inclusion for each
458 ingredient (min, max, average) and to estimate a diet composition that sums up to 100%, the
459 proportion of each ingredient for the average diet composition was used to scale the diet to it,
460 as explained in more detail in SI. This procedure resulted in an overestimation of the use of
461 fishmeal and fish oil, as a) the survey data represented countries with notably higher
462 inclusion rate of these ingredients than the global averages reported in Tacon et al. (2015) and
463 b) the data represented diet composition for year 2010, while inclusion of fishmeal and fish
464 oil has decreased since then. To adjust for this, we assumed the actual use of fish oil and
465 fishmeal in each aquaculture group in 2015 and rescaled the rest of the diet to match this.
466 (See SI methods for details). The amounts of fishmeal and fish oil produced from fish by-

467 products were estimated to be 25-35% of the total fishmeal and fish oil produced (FAO,
468 2020).

469 The dry matter feed use was converted to fresh weight using the dry matter contents of the
470 different feedstuff (FAO, 2017; Feedipedia, 2021; Feedtables, 2021). The combined feed use
471 from livestock and aquaculture production was compared and harmonized with the estimates
472 of global feed use from FAO Supply and Utilization Accounts (SUA) (FAO, 2021) for the
473 years 2016-2018 for the feed groups for which the data was available (cereals, pulses,
474 vegetable oils, molasses). Comparisons between our feed use estimates and published data is
475 available in the SI.

476

477 Availability of by-products and residues

478 To estimate the availability of food system by-products and residues, we first estimated their
479 potential production quantities and then reduced their current feed use from the totals. In this
480 study we considered four different categories of food system by-products: 1) crop residues, 2)
481 cereal and sugar processing by-products, 3) livestock by-products and 4) fish by-products
482 processed into fishmeal and fish oil. The focus was on the by-products of primary crop and
483 animal production and crop processing by-products already used as feed in important
484 quantities at global scale and therefore, e.g. food waste from retail or consumption was not
485 considered here.

486 To estimate the potential availability of crop residues, the yearly crop production (FAO,
487 2021) was multiplied with crop-specific residues-to-production ratios from Ronzon et al.
488 (2015) originally from Wirsenius (2000). Here we considered only crop residues from
489 cereals, rice, sugar cane and pulses that are most used as feedstuff (Davendra & Sevilla,
490 2002; Gertenbach & Dugmore, 2004). Crop residues left on fields have an important impact

491 on soil fertilization and moisture retention (Scarlat et al., 2010). Therefore, we accounted for
492 the crop residues that will be left on field by multiplying the crop production with the ratios
493 of maximum sustainable harvest ranging from 0-50% (Ronzon et al. 2015; Scarlat et al.,
494 2010).

495 Crop processing by-products refer to the co-products that result from a multifunctional
496 process that is driven by the demand of the main product. The by-products considered in this
497 study included cereal bran, molasses from sugar cane and beet processing, sugar beet pulp
498 and oilseed meals. The quantities of cereal bran and molasses produced on average between
499 2016-2018 were taken from FAO Supply and Utilization Accounts (FAO, 2021). The
500 amounts of sugarbeet pulp and oilseed meals were calculated from the amounts of sugarbeet
501 and oilseed meals processed on average between 2016-2018 and multiplied with the
502 conversion factors (FAO, 1996) reducing the amounts of waste created in the processing
503 stage (FAO, 2011).

504 To estimate the potential availability of livestock by-products we first converted the
505 production quantities of end products (cattle, pig and poultry meat) from FAO (2021) to live
506 weight using dressing percentages from FAO (2017) and then multiplied those with the ratios
507 of the processed by-products (poultry by-product meal, poultry oil, blood meal, hydrolyzed
508 feather meal, meat meal from pork meat production, poultry oil) from van Hal et al. (2020).
509 To estimate the poultry by-products from egg production first the amounts of slaughtered hen
510 were calculated. This was estimated by dividing the numbers of laying hens from FAO
511 (2021) with the average age at slaughtering and multiplied with their average weight at the
512 end of the laying period (FAO, 2017). Here, the meat from laying hens was not assumed to be
513 consumed by humans.

514 To estimate the availability of by-products from fish production we first gathered the
515 aquaculture production and capture fisheries data from FishStatJ (2020). The fisheries
516 production was multiplied with the average ratios of human consumption and non-food use
517 from FAO Fisheries Yearbooks (FAO, 2010; FAO 2019) that presented the average ratios for
518 developed and developing countries separately. The data was corrected for certain captured
519 fish species for which literature indicates higher ratio going to non-food use (Shepherd and
520 Jackson, 2013; Cao et al., 2015). The amounts of fish destined to non-food uses were then
521 multiplied with the ratios going to reduction, i.e. fishmeal and fish oil production, and the
522 ratios of fish fed directly to aquaculture (FAO 2010; FAO 2019). The amounts of potential
523 fish by-products were estimated by multiplying the amounts of fish for human consumption
524 from capture fisheries and aquaculture with the ratios processed (FAO 2010; FAO 2019) and
525 multiplying the processed quantities with the average ratio of 41.5% of fish consisting of by-
526 products (trimmings etc.) (Stevens et al., 2018), reducing 2% blood that is not used in
527 reduction, and finally assuming 2% losses at primary fish processing stage (Cao et al., 2015).
528 The share of by-products in fish varies among different fish species and even among the same
529 species. The value applied in this study (41.5%) was estimated for salmon (Stevens et al.,
530 2018) which most likely is a conservative estimate for most other fish species. However, it
531 was applied here as a proxy, to avoid overestimating the fish by-products availability. To
532 account for the uncertainty inherent in applying these conversion factors, we performed a
533 sensitivity analysis (see below). The amounts of fishmeal and fish oil that could be produced
534 from these by-products were then estimated by using the conversion ratios of 0.2 for fishmeal
535 and 0.04 for fish oil, values a bit lower than the conversion ratios for fishmeal and fish oil
536 from whole fish (Shepherd & Jackson 2013). Comparisons between our estimates and
537 assessments from previous studies for food system by-product availability is available in the
538 SI.

539

540 Replacement potential

541 The replacement potential of cereals, fishmeal and fish oil with food system by-products and
542 residues was estimated by taking into account 1) the potential availability of the replacement
543 materials within the 19 world regions (see Table S4 about the division of the countries to
544 subregions) and 2) the replacement constraints including the nutritional requirements of
545 livestock and aquaculture as well as regulation of the use of different animal derived by-
546 products and residues in livestock and aquafeeds (Tables S5-S7). The replacement constraints
547 were derived from reviewing literature on feed experiments assuming no reductions on
548 productivity. The only exception for this was the replacement of cereals with crop residues in
549 cattle feeds which reduced productivity by 40-80%. This reduced productivity was taken into
550 account later when estimating the increased food supply.

551 Since the selected by-products are typically low value commodities, inter-regional trade of
552 by-products and residues was excluded, but materials were assumed to be freely traded within
553 each region. Oilseed meals and fishmeal are an exception being highly traded and valued
554 products in the global feed markets. Here, as we did not account for inter-regional trade, the
555 feed use of these highly traded commodities exceeds the potential production for some
556 regions. In those regions the replacement potential is assumed to be zero for the by-products
557 with negative availability.

558 Legislation and regulation constrain the use of livestock by-products as feed. A
559 comprehensive review of animal by-product regulations in all countries was out of scope for
560 this study, and in order to follow a precautionary approach and avoid overestimating the by-
561 products availability, we applied the EU regulations globally, since they can be considered
562 among the most strict ones. Feeding farmed animals on materials originating from the same

563 species is forbidden (EC, 2009; EC, 2011; EC, 2021) and in addition, processed by-products
564 from bovine animals are banned to use in livestock or aquaculture feed to avoid the spread of
565 transmittable diseases (EC, 2009; EC, 2011). The safety issues regarding the feed use of by-
566 products from ruminant origin are also acknowledged in US regulations (US FDA, 2020) as
567 well as the more broad feed use recommendations by FAO (FAO & IFIF, 2020). Therefore
568 livestock by-products from bovine origin were not considered as feed replacements in this
569 study. However, animal-derived protein from non-ruminant origin is allowed for pig and
570 poultry diets, considering the intra-species recycling ban (EC, 2021).

571 Fishmeal and fish oil are included in livestock feeds and aquafeeds because of their protein
572 content, favourable amino acid and fatty acid profile, effect on growth and immune system
573 and high digestibility (Cho & Kim, 2011). However, they are not essential to pig and poultry
574 and here we assumed that 75-100% of the fishmeal in pig and poultry feeds are replaceable
575 with oilseed meals, fishmeal made from fish by-products or livestock by-products from non-
576 ruminant origin (blood meal and hydrolyzed feather meal) without impacting negatively their
577 productivity (Frempong et al., 2019; Zier et al., 2004) (Table S5).

578 Based on previous alternative feed experiments for various fish species, 27 – 79 % of the
579 fishmeal (dry matter) and 51 – 79% of the fish oil in aquafeeds can be replaced with
580 processed by-products from livestock production (see Table S6). Fishmeal and fish oil made
581 from fish by-products differ from the ones produced from whole fish as they on average
582 contain less protein and have higher ash content (Hua et al., 2019). Despite this, they provide
583 essential fatty acids and they have been successfully applied in aquafeeds (Hua et al., 2019).
584 Here we assume that they are viable alternatives and can replace 75-100% of the fishmeal
585 and fish oil made from whole fish in aquafeeds.

586 Crop processing by-products, such as cereal by-products (bran, hulls) and sugar by-products
587 such as sugarbeet pulp or molasses were considered here as potential replacements for cereal
588 use and oilseed meals as potential replacements for pulse use in livestock feed. Cereal by-
589 products, such as bran have been applied in pig feeding (Table S7). They typically contain
590 less starch and more fibre, compared to whole cereals, due to endosperm removal during
591 processing (Woyengo et al., 2014). Although the high fibre content of these feedstuffs can
592 produce satiety and have beneficial impacts on gut health in pig production, their inclusion is
593 sometimes limited because of a reduction in the digestibility of dietary energy and protein,
594 which can reduce the overall production performance (Jarret and Ashworth, 2018). Sugarbeet
595 pulp contains readily digestible fibre such as pectin, has low lignin concentration and thus has
596 high energy value for ruminant nutrition (Fadel et al., 2000), making it a well suited
597 substitute of cereals (Karlsson et al., 2018). The nutritive value of sugarbeet pulp can be
598 further improved with added molasses (Fadel et al., 2000). Crop residues (straws and leaves)
599 are high in fibre and applicable as potential replacement materials for cereals in ruminant
600 feeding taking into account their negative impact on productivity (Tables S5 and S7).
601 However, the potential use of crop residues for monogastric animals such as pigs or poultry is
602 much lower due to limited ability of monogastrics to digest feedstuffs with high fibre
603 concentration and low digestibility (Yang et al., 2021) (Table S5). Oilseed meals and cakes
604 derived from e.g. soy and rapeseed are high-quality protein feeds with balanced amino acid
605 composition and high nutrient digestibility for livestock (Feedipedia, 2021). The animal
606 production responses of oilseed meals and cakes are typically superior or less often equal to
607 pulses (e.g. faba bean, pea, lupin and lentils) in diets of lactating dairy cows (Puhakka et al.,
608 2016; Ramin et al., 2017; Lamminen et al., 2019), pigs (Zijlstra et al., 2008; Degola and
609 Jonkus, 2018) and poultry (Koivunen et al., 2014; Koivunen et al., 2016). The use of oilseed
610 meals and cakes as protein feed in livestock diets is currently the prevailing practice, whereas

611 pulses are considered as the alternative. For ruminants, only the mixed and feedlot production
612 systems (FAO, 2017) that contained cereals in their feed were considered in the replacement,
613 since the ruminant diets in grazing systems are mainly based on forages and typically contain
614 no or only low amounts of cereal-based concentrates.

615 The maximum and minimum total replacement potential was calculated considering both the
616 availability of replacement materials as well as the replacement constraints (Table S5). First,
617 the feed use of each of the food-competing feedstuffs selected was multiplied with the
618 replacement constraints to estimate the maximum and minimum replacement potential for
619 each animal production group and replacement material individually. Second, the maximum
620 and minimum replacement potentials were corrected with the availability of the selected
621 replacement material in the region. Third, the combined replacement potential of the different
622 replacement materials for one animal production group was estimated by summing the
623 individual replacement potentials and normalizing them so that the total could not exceed the
624 feed use of the animal production group in a region. Finally, the combined potential of the
625 different replacement materials and animal production groups were summed to derive the
626 total replacement potential (see SI for more detailed description of the method).

627 The increased food supply was estimated by multiplying the replaced food-competing
628 feedstuff amounts with their energy (kcal), protein and fat contents (FAO, 2001; Feedipedia,
629 2021; Feedtables, 2021). It is important to note that since fishmeal and fish oil can be
630 produced simultaneously from the same fish, the increased food supply from replacing
631 fishmeal and fish oil alternatives was not summed to avoid double-accounting, but only the
632 one with the higher replacement potential was considered.

633 For the replacement of cereals in feed use two cases were estimated. One applying only the
634 replacement materials (cereal bran, sugarbeet pulp and molasses) and constraints with no

635 estimated impact on productivity (Table S5) and a second case adding crop residues as
636 potential replacement material in addition to the first case. With the latter case, the
637 replacement with crop residues implies a 40-80% decrease in cattle meat and dairy
638 production (Table S7), which was then calculated proportional to the share of feed replaced
639 and reduced from the estimated increase in the food supply.

640

641 Sensitivity analysis

642 To assess the associated uncertainty with the input variables, we performed Monte Carlo
643 simulations for the input data for both the feed use and the availability of by-products and
644 crop residues. Livestock and aquaculture feed use were first calculated by taking 500
645 randomly sampled values from uniform distributions of feed-conversion ratios with mean
646 value the reported FCRs (described in the feed use section) and a coefficient of variation
647 (CV) of 0.1. Next, a similar approach was followed to derive the uncertainty intervals for the
648 availability of by-products and residues. Five hundred randomly sampled values were taken
649 from uniform distributions of different conversion factors with the CV of 0.1. This CV was
650 chosen because it represented the variation in the FAO technical conversion factors (1996)
651 for many of the crop processing by-products and for lack of more detailed data, the same
652 distribution was assumed to represent the uncertainty also in the availability of crop residues
653 and livestock by-products.

654 **Data availability**

655 All the data used in this study are publicly available, see methods about a description of the
656 source data. Supplementary data produced in this study provided with the submission.

657

658 **Code availability**

659 The analysis was performed using R studio (R version 4.0.5) (R Core Team, 2021). The code
660 is available upon request from the first author.

661 **Competing Interests**

662 The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

663

664 **References**

665

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