

Giving legs to handprint thinking: foundations for evaluating the good we do

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Abstract

In environmental management and sustainability there is an increasing interest in measurement and accounting of beneficial impact - as an incentive to action, as a communication tool, and to move towards a positive, constructive approach focused on opportunities rather than problems. One approach uses the metaphor of a “handprint”, complementing the notion of environmental footprints, which have been widely adopted for impact measurement and accounting. We analyse this idea by establishing core principles of handprint thinking: handprint encourages actions with positive impacts, connects to analyses of footprint reductions, but adds value to them, and addresses the issue of what action should be taken. We also identify five key decisions that need to be made in performing a (potentially quantitative) handprint assessment, related to scoping of the improvement to be made, how it is achieved, and how credit is assigned, taking into account constraints on action. A case study of the potential water footprint reduction of an average Finn demonstrates how handprint thinking can be a natural extension of footprint reduction analyses. We find that there is a diversity of possible handprint assessments that have the potential to encourage doing good. Their common foundation is “handprint thinking”.

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Key Points:

- “Handprints” encourage positive impact and are inherently value-laden
- Handprint thinking provides the foundation for a variety of possible handprint assessments, centred around five key questions
- Case study discusses the potential handprint of an average Finnish consumer aiming to reduce her food water footprint

34 **Abstract**

35 In environmental management and sustainability there is an increasing interest in measurement
36 and accounting of beneficial impact – as an incentive to action, as a communication tool, and to
37 move towards a positive, constructive approach focused on opportunities rather than problems.
38 One approach uses the metaphor of a “handprint”, complementing the notion of environmental
39 footprints, which have been widely adopted for impact measurement and accounting. We analyse
40 this idea by establishing core principles of handprint thinking: handprint encourages actions with
41 positive impacts, connects to analyses of footprint reductions, but adds value to them, and
42 addresses the issue of what action should be taken. We also identify five key decisions that need
43 to be made in performing a (potentially quantitative) handprint assessment, related to scoping of
44 the improvement to be made, how it is achieved, and how credit is assigned, taking into account
45 constraints on action. A case study of the potential water footprint reduction of an average Finn
46 demonstrates how handprint thinking can be a natural extension of footprint reduction analyses.
47 We find that there is a diversity of possible handprint assessments that have the potential to
48 encourage doing good. Their common foundation is “handprint thinking”.

49 **Plain language summary**

50 The "handprint" has been suggested as a way of looking at the good we do, to complement the
51 negative impacts captured by environmental "footprints". There are many ways we could try to
52 assess a handprint, which capture different perspectives on the world, and the potential role of
53 the handprint assessment in moving towards sustainability. This paper cuts down the definition
54 of a handprint to three core principles, and then discusses five questions that need to be
55 considered in designing or evaluating a handprint assessment. A case study looks at how an
56 average Finnish consumer can reduce the water footprint of the food they eat.

57

58 **1 Introduction**

59 While the concept of an environmental footprint is already widely known and applied
60 (Čuček et al., 2012; Hoekstra & Wiedmann, 2014; Ridoutt, Fantke, et al., 2015; Wackernagel et
61 al., 1999), the complementary concept of a “handprint”, which aims to promote action to reduce
62 environmental footprints, is still emerging (Grönman et al., 2019; Hayward, 2010, 2012;
63 Kühnen, Hahn, et al., 2019; Norris, 2011; Vatanen et al., 2018). The handprint emphasises an
64 entity’s positive impacts, in contrast to the negative impacts connoted by the footprint concept
65 (Biemer et al., 2013; Goleman, 2012).

66 The idea of evaluating positive impacts is crucial to achieving sustainability. It is not
67 enough to know that a negative impact is occurring - we also need to know what actions would
68 improve the situation. While there are multiple ways of tackling this issue, this paper aims to
69 show that the handprint provides a new angle and potential new insights.

70 While we discuss the handprint as a general concept, most of the application examples
71 we refer to are drawn from water resources management. This field is the research focus of most
72 of this paper’s authors and an issue that is increasingly prominent on governmental, corporate,
73 and individual agendas but which has not yet been examined from a handprint perspective.
74 Focussing on this context, we note that despite remaining gaps and uncertainties, water use and
75 water footprints are increasingly well quantified (Hoekstra & Wiedmann, 2014). Water use,

76 however, has such diverse impacts that the need for “integrated” water resources management
77 across sectors - not only within the water sector - is well established. In this complex setting, it is
78 difficult to rigorously define what constitutes a positive impact, and what actions should be
79 encouraged. At the same time, there is a sense of urgency in the face of growing population,
80 water needs and demand, and the realisation that humanity is not able to increase its total use of
81 water resources sustainably for much longer, if at all (Foley et al., 2011; Gerten et al., 2013;
82 Rockström et al., 2009; W. Steffen et al., 2015; Wada & Bierkens, 2014). The handprint concept
83 contributes to the suite of solutions to use less freshwater or use it more sustainably (e.g. Foley et
84 al., 2011; Molden, 2007), as it tackles head-on the issue of giving credit for positive impact. Its
85 positive framing shifts the focus to opportunities rather than blame, and emphasises what is
86 possible rather than what is going wrong. These characteristics make the handprint concept
87 sufficiently attractive to warrant consideration.

88 As they stand, the current, diverse applications of the handprint concept do not yet
89 provide sufficient guidance for evaluating positive impacts. There are definitions and research on
90 the topic (Biemer, 2009; CEE, 2008; Norris, 2011; Rohwedder, 2014), including attempts to
91 calculate handprints (Grönman et al., 2019; Kühnen, Hahn, et al., 2019; Norris, 2015). However,
92 definitions are not always compatible with each other; and there is still confusion, e.g. about the
93 added value of a “handprint” over a “footprint reduction”. Assessing a handprint is non-trivial,
94 e.g. quantifying the positive impact attributable to a particular action. A handprint also carries
95 ethical implications related to whether and what action should be taken, by whom, and why.
96 These issues need to be addressed both to ensure handprint assessments are scientifically and
97 socially justifiable, and to reduce barriers to adoption of the concept.

98 We argue that to achieve sound handprint analyses, they need to be based on sound
99 underlying principles regarding their purpose – and that the above mentioned confusion arises, at
100 least partly, because of the need for discussion of those principles. In this paper, therefore, we
101 aim to frame the principles for handprint *thinking*, to provide a more solid and consistent base for
102 handprint assessments – analogously to the examination of life cycle thinking after life cycle
103 assessments emerged in the 1990s. We identify the defining characteristics of handprint thinking,
104 as well as the key questions to be addressed and decisions to be made in a handprint assessment.
105 These questions and decisions highlight the variety of “handprints”, each of which may be
106 legitimate when used for different purposes.

107 The paper first provides a brief review of existing work on footprint reductions,
108 handprints, and related concepts (Section 2). This forms the basis for our principles and
109 definition of handprint thinking (Section 3.1) and identification of the key questions and
110 decisions (Section 3.2). A simple case study (Section 4) illustrates one possible handprint
111 configuration, highlighting some of the more subtle features of handprint thinking. In the case
112 study we focus on the water handprint of food consumption of a Finnish consumer, though the
113 underlying insights have broader applicability. Section 5 summarizes key conclusions and draws
114 out implications for further research and practice.

115 **2 Review: From footprint reductions to handprint concept**

116 2.1 Footprint reductions

117 The footprint concept is well accepted in various fields (Hoekstra & Wiedmann, 2014;
118 Ridoutt, Fantke, et al., 2015; Wackernagel et al., 1999) and widely adopted by companies,

119 organisations and individual citizens to measure their pressure on environment through energy,
120 water, material or other environmental footprints. There is a variety of definitions of footprints
121 and procedures for their calculation (Čuček et al., 2012; Hoekstra et al., 2011; ISO, 2014, 2018).
122 For example, a water ‘footprint’ can either measure the amount of water used, or the impacts
123 derived from it, as detailed in section 3.2.1 below. A specific characteristic of the footprint
124 concept is that it can be estimated for different entities, such as a product, consumer or producer
125 (Hoekstra & Wiedmann, 2014).

126 While the footprint concept and footprint assessments have been extremely useful in
127 estimating the impact of human actions on various environmental measures, neither the concept
128 nor indicator identifies whether a footprint is reasonable or if it can be reduced (Amarasinghe &
129 Smakhtin, 2014). This is left to interpretation, sustainability assessment and response
130 formulation (Hoekstra et al., 2011; ISO, 2014) and attempts to define maximum sustainable
131 water footprints, benchmarks and caps (Hoekstra & Wiedmann, 2014). There are indeed
132 numerous studies that estimate how a certain action or measure would reduce the given footprint
133 or footprints (e.g. Chaudhary et al., 2018; Jägermeyr et al., 2015; Jalava et al., 2016; Shaikh et
134 al., 2017), and those have helped and inspired societies, companies, as well as individual
135 citizens, to find ways to reduce their footprint.

136 Thus, in practice, the idea of a metaphorical footprint is already used to guide actions,
137 particularly focusing on footprint reduction: all else being equal, a higher resource use results in
138 greater impact on the environment. To assess whether a footprint is large in relative terms, it can
139 be compared with footprints of similar or alternative products/organisations/people. An example
140 is the Resource Efficiency Potential Assessment (REPA) (Rohn et al., 2014), focussing on
141 lifestyle material footprint. However, alternative definitions can lead to different conclusions
142 about impact, and therefore about actions to be taken. Finally, reducing one footprint may cause
143 an increase in others (Mekonnen et al., 2016; Pfister et al., 2011), raising questions about
144 measurement and definition of the systems to be assessed.

145 2.2 Handprint concept – existing definitions and applications

146 Handprint thinking emerged in the early 2000s, apparently as a response to the concept of
147 the footprint as well as an extension of the concept of the hand as a symbol for action (Hayward,
148 2010). According to Hayward (2010) and Biemer *et al.* (2013), the term *handprint* was first used
149 more or less independently by a variety of people and groups (Biemer, 2009; CEE, 2008;
150 Lownds, 2009; Norris, 2011; Rohwedder, 2014; A. Steffen, 2006).

151 As the handprint is intended to be complementary to the footprint, they share similar
152 properties. They both measure impacts (or changes in impacts) for which an actor is responsible
153 by a chain of cause and effect (Norris, 2011). Responsibility is shared and can therefore result in
154 double counting that assessments must take into account (Hoekstra & Wiedmann, 2014). Impacts
155 are measured relative to a stated resource, such that trade-offs may occur between different types
156 of footprints. Actions and their impacts change over time, such that footprints and handprints are
157 considered to be dynamic indicators rather than immutable or static. A key motivation for
158 calculating these indicators is to assess how they can be improved in the future.

159 The handprint, however, differs from a footprint in key methodological ways, namely
160 that the impacts it includes are subjective, social and basically unlimited. In measuring the ‘good
161 that has been done’, handprints are built on normative statements on desired direction of change.

162 They require assessment of a counterfactual baseline, i.e. what would have happened, or would
163 happen, without the action in question (Norris, 2011). While footprints usually focus on physical
164 inputs to an activity, handprints also consider other causal influences, most importantly social
165 links (Hayward, 2010; Norris, 2011). This means that influencing someone to perform an action
166 can in principle be valued as much as actually performing the action oneself, as the action would
167 not have been performed otherwise. In practice, this raises important questions about whose
168 actions are included in a handprint and hence “*who should act under what conditions, and why?*”
169 (Hayward, 2010). In other words, the handprint is directly related to the question of agency in
170 environmental resource management and governance, i.e. the capacity and position of an actor to
171 change the course of events or outcome of processes, with authority (Biermann et al., 2010;
172 Pattberg & Stripple, 2008).

173 The inclusion of social causal influences means that handprints are not limited to
174 reducing the footprint of an actor’s activities. They also include actions that provide new
175 benefits, or help reduce others’ footprints, some commentators even seeing the latter as their
176 primary definition (Grönman et al., 2019; Vatanen et al., 2018). Handprints may prompt actions
177 that sustain themselves and may possibly continue to have impacts in the future. As Biemer et al.
178 (2013) put it, “*there is no limit to the good you can do.*” In principle this could even include
179 companies putting pressure on competitors by demonstrating their sustainability (e.g. Guziana &
180 Dobers, 2013). These methodological differences of the handprint compared to the footprint
181 present significant challenges for its application, but also come with corresponding benefits, in
182 further encouraging debate about what *should* be done, emphasizing agency of an actor, the
183 effects of connections between actors and working ‘hand-in-hand’ (Hayward, 2010), and
184 promoting thinking about positive flow-on effects in the long term.

185 The handprint concept has previously been implemented in a variety of ways. The Centre
186 for Environmental Education (CEE) in India developed a quiz and suggested further actions that
187 can be taken influencing the environment, society and the economy (CEE, 2008). The Carbon
188 Handprint website provided the means for anyone to “*record their achievements or promises for
189 the environment*” (Lownds, 2009). The Ecological Handprints website has similarly collected
190 stories about actions (Rohwedder, 2014). Norris (2011) outlines principles for calculation of a
191 handprint based on “linked event modelling”, which describes how events are causally related.
192 These ideas are partially implemented in the *handprinter.org* website, which allows calculation
193 of a carbon footprint, pledging of handprint actions and includes indirect handprints by referring
194 friends.

195 Most recently, at least two projects have focussed on developing handprint assessments
196 for use by businesses. The Collaborating Centre for Sustainable Consumption and Production
197 (CSCP), a spin-off of the Wuppertal Institute, is developing a handprint as a “complementary
198 measurement of positive sustainability impacts of products” (Kühnen, Hahn, et al., 2019;
199 Kühnen, Silva, et al., 2019), using sustainability indicators and life-cycle assessment (LCA)
200 concepts. The VTT Technical Research Centre of Finland is coordinating development of carbon
201 and water handprints to be used in marketing and branding. The carbon handprint is defined as
202 the reduction of the carbon footprint of another actor, calculated according to principles of ISO
203 14067 Carbon Footprint (Grönman et al., 2019; Vatanen et al., 2018), while work on the water
204 handprint is still ongoing.

205 2.3 Other related concepts

206 The handprint is not the only recent concept aiming to capture actions contributing to
207 positive change. Examples of broader approaches include e.g. net positivity and environmental
208 stewardship. Net positivity originates from corporate social responsibility development and
209 emphasises designing corporate and public sector strategies, processes and products in a way that
210 benefits more than they constrain the environment and society (NETPositive Futures &
211 Stockholm Environment Institute, 2019). Stewardship approaches range from prioritising
212 ecosystem health and intrinsic value (Davis et al., 2010; Lange & Shephard, 2014; Miller & Le
213 Breton-Miller, 2006) to developing environmentally, socially and economically sustainable
214 resource use and governance in public interest with a focus on private sector actions (Alliance
215 for Water Stewardship, 2019; Schulte et al., 2014).

216 Different applications of compensating for impacts are exemplary of more quantitative
217 takes. Offsetting of carbon emissions by increasing carbon sinks, for example, has become a
218 mainstream, though contested approach in mitigating climate change (Cavanagh & Benjaminsen,
219 2014; Gössling et al., 2009). There have also been discussions of water offsetting, but the
220 context- and time-specific nature of water resources and water uses limits the applicability of the
221 concept (Sojamo, 2015). Like carbon neutrality, organisational claims and targets of water
222 neutrality have also become popular during the past decade. Water footprints of products or
223 processes are generally impossible to bring down to zero, however, even though their negative
224 impacts can be minimised (Hoekstra, 2008). Lately, replenishment (Rozza et al., 2013) has
225 become a popular concept describing corporate attempts to compensate for their water use.

226 At a global level, the UN Sustainable Development Goals (United Nations, 2015) set an
227 overall normative framework steering desired action whereas the planetary boundaries define the
228 environmental limits within which humanity can safely operate (Dearing et al., 2014; Gerten et
229 al., 2013; Rockström et al., 2009; W. Steffen et al., 2015). Defining the best practices, indicators
230 and the contributions needed from different actors to reach the targets and stay within a safe and
231 just operating space is a field of ongoing research and development where both the
232 comprehensive and quantitative approaches described above meet (see e.g. the “doughnut”
233 approach (Raworth, 2012, 2017), science based targets for climate action (CDP et al., 2019) and
234 science and context based targets for water (CDP et al., 2017). Handprint thinking as we see it
235 should be situated in that intersection, combining actor specific targets and systemic
236 understanding of issue setting with comparable metrics when possible.

237 **3 What is handprint thinking?**

238 3.1 Key principles and definition

239 Based on the preceding discussion, we propose three defining principles of handprint
240 thinking, summarised in Figure 1 and described below.

241 First, the primary focus of handprint thinking is to *encourage actions with positive*
242 *impacts (HPI)*. There are many ways that encouragement can be provided. A handprint might be
243 an indicator used for tracking and incentivising progress, or a qualitative description that helps to
244 understand what action can be taken. There are also many existing techniques that can be used to
245 encourage positive action, such as impact evaluation tools or decision support tools. These
246 techniques can be used to support handprint assessments, but handprint thinking is distinguished
247 by its specific focus on encouragement.

248 The second principle is that handprint thinking *connects to analyses of footprint*
249 *reductions, but adds value to them (HP2)* (or other similar analyses of negative impacts). In most
250 cases, we expect the connection will involve use of impact indicators, and possibly notions of
251 indirect impacts. The connection may, however, also be at a more abstract level, for example,
252 using the two metaphors of footprint and handprint side by side. A handprint may add value
253 compared to a footprint analysis either because it specifically considers *doing good*, or because it
254 gives greater attention to the action itself rather than its outcome, e.g. focuses on the process of
255 *doing less harm*. We identify four key examples:

- 256 • A handprint may include positive impact indicators, which are by definition outside
257 the scope of footprint analyses, e.g. helping stakeholders meet their needs (Kühnen,
258 Silva, et al., 2019)
- 259 • A handprint may quantify the improvement to negative impacts caused by other
260 agents, e.g. reducing the carbon footprint of another actor (Grönman et al., 2019)
- 261 • A handprint may specifically describe the actual pathways by which an improvement
262 occurs. This necessarily extends beyond supply or value chains typically considered
263 in footprint calculations, to the broader value network consisting of a variety of actors
264 (Bair, 2009; Gereffi et al., 2005; Gibbon et al., 2008) influencing chain dynamics,
265 product and resource use and impacts
- 266 • A handprint may perform attribution of improvements in indicators, that is, assigning
267 responsibility or credit. This is out of scope of footprint calculations, but not
268 unfamiliar, given they often consider allocation of impacts across multiple uses of a
269 product.

270 The third defining principle is that handprint thinking *addresses the issue of what action*
271 *should be taken (HP3)*. Encouraging particular actions has an unavoidable normative aspect,
272 such that, unlike footprints, handprints cannot be used in a purely descriptive way. Design of a
273 handprint assessment will typically need to consider its ethical implications (Hayward, 2010),
274 which is why it is important to consider the alternative decisions that could be made, leading
275 down different paths in an analysis, with different consequences as well as results (Lahtinen et
276 al., 2017).

277 As an important side-note, a handprint assessment should consider all of these aspects in
278 its design, but might operationalise only some, depending on the application context. The
279 decisions made will still affect the suitability of the assessment for a given purpose – the analyst
280 is not completely free to pick and choose, but our definition of handprint thinking means that
281 handprint assessment may take many forms (also see Norris, 2015), depending on the
282 configuration of decisions made.

283

Principles of handprint thinking

- 
-  Encourages actions with positive impacts
-  Connects to analysis of footprint reductions, but adds value to it
- Key examples how value is added:*
- Include positive impact indicators
 - Decrease negative impacts caused by others
 - Describe the actual pathways by which an improvement occurs
 - Assign responsibility or credit for improvements in indicators

-  Addresses the issue of what action should be taken

Note: handprint assessment considers all these aspects but might operationalise only some, depending on the application context

Questions in handprint assessment

- directs which decisions needs to be made

-  What is being improved?
What changes will be included, from what baseline? 
-  Whose actions does the handprint capture, by what pathway of influence?
-  What credit does the actor receive for the improvements?
-  What constraints should be placed on action? 

284

285 **Figure 1** Defining principles of handprint thinking (HP1-3, Section 3.1), and decisions in
286 handprint assessment, expressed as questions (discussed in Section 3.2).

287 3.2 Questions to be addressed in handprint assessment

288 This section highlights and discusses questions to be addressed and resulting decisions to
289 be made in the assessment of a handprint (Figure 1). The questions are raised by the handprint
290 principles. Given that there are a wide range of ways in which a handprint could be implemented,
291 this analysis lays the groundwork for development of specific methods.

292 3.2.1 Question 1: What is being improved?

293 A handprint assessment needs to determine the scope of impact for which improvements
294 will be investigated. This potentially includes both mitigating negative impacts and making a
295 positive impact (Norris, 2015).

296 Footprints are an important class of *negative (impact) indicator* given their close
297 relationship to handprints. Fang et al. (2016) describe a classification of footprint indicators
298 according to “theme” and “object”, while Ridoutt et al. (2015; 2015) combine both theme and
299 object into the “area of concern” the public is interested in. We illustrate some of the issues
300 involved using water footprints as an example. In terms of “theme”, the water footprint can be
301 considered an environmental resource footprint, as opposed to a socio-economic or emission
302 footprint, while the concern of the public is to preserve water resources. The water footprint can
303 be either an inventory or impact measure (Fang et al., 2016), depending on whether it only
304 measures water consumption/use (e.g. the Hoekstra et al. (2011) method without the step of
305 sustainability assessment), or whether it specifically captures scarcity, quality or ecological
306 impacts on water resources, ecosystems or humans (e.g. ISO 14046 Standard).

307 In terms of footprint “object”, the water footprint can either be calculated from a
308 consumption or production perspective, and for any scale, ranging from product to global
309 footprints. Therefore, the scale of the footprint to be reduced raises issues about distributional
310 justice and trade-offs between different water uses. What is optimal at one scale and for one
311 actor or object may not be optimal for another. There is a particular need to account for the
312 spatial and temporal characteristics of water footprints (Guzmán et al., 2017) and accordingly,

313 handprints, compared to e.g. carbon footprints, which can be straightforwardly added up to
314 global scale.

315 In the context of water, *positive impact indicators* may, for example, be tied to making
316 progress on Sustainable Development Goals, providing water supply, or maintaining ecosystem
317 health and services.

318 A comprehensive analysis of all indicators is generally not possible, so it is important to
319 critically select the indicators that are relevant to the specific purpose of the handprint
320 assessment. Analogously, in LCA, comparing impacts of products is considered a specialised
321 task, with its own recommendations (ISO, 2006). In some cases, impacts on multiple indicators
322 could indeed be addressed. In others, one might focus on a spatial and temporal scale where a
323 resource is considered unsustainably exploited, or where the scarce resource is inequitably
324 distributed. Where externalities of optimising a single indicator are known, they might be able to
325 be addressed by constraining what changes to the indicator are permitted. Constraints are further
326 discussed in Question 5.

327 3.2.2 Question 2: What changes will be included, from what baseline?

328 The second important decision for handprint analysis to tackle is the issue of what
329 changes to include (Norris, 2015). What changes are counted determines what is rewarded by the
330 handprint, such that this decision is value-laden and may be controversial.

331 A change in an indicator is by definition relative to a baseline scenario. The baseline
332 scenario can be used quantitatively – calculating the difference in impact indicators, or it can be
333 used qualitatively to single out improvements that should be measured and rewarded. Table 1
334 gives examples of baselines that yield handprints with various emphases. The handprints may
335 reward different actions. Improvements over time include new innovations as well as personal
336 improvements. Compliance with minimum standards and adoption of best practice might involve
337 stopping violation of regulations or ceasing unsustainable practices. Noteworthy inaction
338 includes refraining from preventing adoption of new technology. Whether these actions should
339 be rewarded by a handprint is likely to be controversial – and is influenced by the choice of
340 baseline.

341 Beyond the baseline, the scope of impact improvements considered can also change the
342 focus of the handprint. For example, handprint assessment of past actions describes an “actual”
343 handprint. When calculating for a future or hypothetical scenario, one could consider a handprint
344 “potential”, which can help in thinking about future improvements.

345 A particular point of concern when talking about reductions is the potential that they be
346 offset by flow-on increases elsewhere, e.g. to other groups, other places, or other times. Impact
347 improvements from one perspective may yield worsening impacts from another perspective, and,
348 for example, a net zero improvement when combined. Analogously, reducing one group’s
349 footprint may fail to reduce or may even increase the footprint of a different group; and
350 improvements in efficiency can enable increased consumption in a “rebound effect”. These are
351 major concerns of the argument for demand-side as well as supply-side measures to improve
352 resource use (e.g. Butler & Memon, 2005; Hoekstra & Mekonnen, 2012).

353 Approaches for including flow-on effects include calculating net improvements, being
354 careful of which improvements are included, and revisiting the selected scope of impacts to
355 ensure the flow-on effects are appropriately accounted for. Calculating net improvements

356 decreases the resulting handprint, providing a penalty because of the flow-on effects. Whether or
 357 not this is appropriate depends on whether or not the actor in question is considered responsible
 358 for ensuring negative flow-on effects do not occur (also see Section 3.2.4).

359 **Table 1.** Examples of baselines from which changes in indicators could be calculated, identified
 360 by the authors, prompted by ideas from a variety of disciplines. Baselines are differentiated
 361 according to the resulting focus of the handprint, potential criticisms, and the actions rewarded.

Focus of handprint	Baseline	Potential criticisms	What actions are rewarded?			
			Improvement over time?	Compliance with agreed minimum standards	Adopting best practice?	Inaction?
Measure and encourage improvement over time (Norris, 2011)	Status quo, or past footprint	Past actions not rewarded May reward unacceptable outcomes	Yes	Yes, if not previously compliant	Yes, if not previously adopted	Yes, if previously opposing action
Benchmarking, encourage over-achievement	Agreed norms - Best practice - average performance - Minimum acceptable practices	Requires agreement on minimum standards	Yes, if improvement goes beyond agreed norm	No (unless average performance is non-compliant)	Depends on the norm: - No - Yes, unless best practice is average - Yes	Yes, unless inaction is explicitly condemned
Measure positive impact of actor	Scenario without actor's support - Business as usual - Actor opposing outcome	May not sufficiently encourage desired outcomes Requires credible understanding of actor's role in the system	No, until impact is net positive	Yes, if impact is net positive	Yes, if impact is net positive	Depends on scenario - No - Yes
Encourage altruism	Scenario under self-interest, e.g. Profit-maximising	Even selfish action should be rewarded	No, unless improvement was altruistic	Yes, if compliance is costly	Yes, if best practice is costly	Yes, if opposing action is profitable
Measure and encourage effort	Outcome with minimum effort	Easy actions should be encouraged	Yes, if avoiding change is easier	No, unless minimum standards are difficult	Yes, unless best practice is easy	No

362

363 3.2.3 Question 3: Whose actions does the handprint capture, by what pathway of
 364 influence?

365 As noted when introducing the second principle (HP2, see Fig 1), one of the ways in
 366 which the handprint concept can add value compared to a footprint reduction is by explicitly

367 considering agency of an actor and pathways by which an actor's actions lead to reductions in a
368 given footprint or to other positive changes. These may cover material, information and
369 interaction flows.

370 The actor in focus should be selected based on the purpose and audience of the handprint.
371 As for footprint-based calculations, handprints could be calculated for a broad range of actors
372 such as individuals, companies, non-governmental organisations, countries or even humanity as a
373 whole.

374 The scope of a handprint is not restricted to the footprint of the actor selected, however,
375 but their influence may extend much further. For example, an individual may potentially have a
376 (small) indirect impact on the global footprint through the action of their country and
377 democratically-elected representative or by being a role model for her peers. A company may
378 provide solutions helping to reduce footprints of others or tackle e.g. a pollution problem whose
379 original responsibility bearers are difficult to identify.

380 The handprint reflects differences in the agency of actors, i.e. their capacity, position and
381 authority to act within their broader environment (Biermann et al., 2010). Compared to
382 footprints, the handprint can also add value by encouraging individual agency and potentially
383 increasing sense of empowerment. The handprint can also be appealing to companies wanting to
384 showcase their advances in sustainability.

385 From the actor, there are a range of pathways of influence, for example resulting in water
386 footprint reductions or other changes improving sustainability of water use and services. Bandura
387 (2000) distinguishes between three different forms of agency: personal, proxy and collective.

388 An actor can act **directly** through a personal action, in which case the pathway is
389 (seemingly) obvious.

390 An actor can act via a **proxy**, meaning that another entity acts on their behalf. In this
391 case, we can work backwards from a direct change and track down the chain of influence.

392 An actor can also act **collectively** with others. In determining pathways, this means that
393 influence is exerted by multiple actors in an interdependent way, each of which might in turn be
394 influenced separately.

395 This distinction is however not always clear-cut, as an actor's action may be influenced
396 by other factors. For example, the actor's scope for action may be constrained by other actors, or
397 possible changes may be limited by infrastructure constraints or lack of availability of alternative
398 consumption choices. Identification of pathways therefore needs to follow-up such factors,
399 seeking to identify other actions by which the actor can further influence them. Furthermore,
400 between actors influence usually goes both ways, making it cyclical.

401 Useful approaches for identifying actors and their interaction may include stakeholder
402 analysis (see e.g. Reed et al., 2009), institutional mapping and analysis (e.g. Aligica, 2006) and
403 value chain and network analysis, with the network extending to actors beyond producers,
404 processors, retailers and consumers in the value chain, to technology providers, social groups,
405 NGOs/civil society organisations, political parties, media, regulatory agencies and research
406 institutes influencing its dynamics (e.g. Kahler, 2009; Kaplinsky & Morris, 2002). Essentially,
407 concentration and consolidation of power in value chains and networks highlights the actors
408 whose actions need to be changed if different outcomes are to emerge (Sturgeon, 2009).

409 It is not always clear what action should be taken and by whom, however. As discussed
410 by Hayward (2010), dialogue and inaction may sometimes be more appropriate than action – and
411 action should ideally be informed by consent of those affected. In complex global value chains
412 and networks, well intended action may lead to adverse unintended consequences. Therefore
413 normative constraints, as listed in the third principle (HP3) and discussed in more detail in
414 section 3.2.5 below, should always inform the choice of handprint action to be taken.

415 3.2.4 Question 4: What credit does the actor receive for the improvement?

416 A handprint actor would not typically be considered responsible for the full improvement
417 in impact connected with their action. In the case of *direct action*, the action may vary in
418 effectiveness over time, there may be an element of chance involved, or the action may have
419 been influenced by other actors. In the case of *proxy actions*, they might share credit, such that
420 the footprint reduction could be attributed between actors. Where *action is collective*, it may be
421 difficult to untangle the precise role of any single actor.

422 When not formally assigned, allocating responsibility is a difficult problem and can
423 change the meaning of a handprint assessment. From a quantitative perspective, the problem is to
424 identify the portion of the footprint reduction attributed to the actor, addressing interactions
425 between actions which may cause synergies, trade-offs and risk double-counting. From a
426 qualitative perspective, the issue is to determine who should be rewarded, and hence influence
427 which actions an actor is encouraged to take. How these problems are dealt with therefore
428 reflects different perspectives on influence and power relations.

429 In Table 2 we propose six alternative approaches, prompted by work in a broad range of
430 disciplines. In a footprint context, every actor is responsible for their own activity and the
431 associated value chain. Focus is on objective measurement of the role of an actor. However,
432 optimism may be preferable over realism when faced with obstacles, and a handprint might be
433 used for other purposes, e.g. to specifically encourage collective action or personal reflection, to
434 provide targeted incentives, to establish benchmarking standards, or to encourage innovation.

435 3.2.5 Question 5: What constraints should be placed on action?

436 The fifth question to be addressed deals with limitations that should be placed on action –
437 for example, what should *not* be done in the pursuit of efficiency. The constraints should capture
438 what outcomes or processes are considered unacceptable for different handprint actions and for
439 different actors involved across the value network. Constraints can be either quantitative or
440 qualitative. The first are primarily associated with outcomes and achieving a particular function
441 while the latter are primarily associated with issues of equity, justice and sustainability.

442 A key aspect of quantitative constraints involves verifying that after applying handprint
443 actions, essential objectives are still achieved. In LCA, the new scenario would have to provide
444 the same *function* as the baseline in order to provide a fair comparison. A “*functional unit*” (ISO,
445 2006; Weidema et al., 2004) quantitatively defines the outcomes that need to be achieved,
446 ensuring that the new product or service provides at least the same benefits as the original. The
447 focus on function allows a broad range of freedom regarding how that function should be
448 achieved. The constraints can therefore be potentially very broad, e.g. providing a certain level of
449 nutrition, or an absence of under-nourishment. At the global level, actions could be constrained
450 within planetary boundaries and a safe and just operating space for humanity (Dearing et al.,
451 2014; Raworth, 2017). At a local level, constraints might more specifically relate to water for

452 environmental flows, basic needs and livelihoods. In any specific handprint application, the
 453 primary focus of a functional unit is likely to be on the delivery of a particular product or service
 454 through a clear value chain, as is usually the case in LCA (ISO 14040/14044).

455 **Table 2.** Examples of criteria for allocating responsibility and reward, differentiated according to
 456 intended focus of handprint, identified by the authors, prompted by ideas from a variety of
 457 disciplines

Focus of handprint	Criteria for allocating responsibility and reward	Potential criticisms
Measure role of actor	Causal attribution – identify causal links, what would happen without actor, Linked Event Modelling (Norris, 2011)	Causal links in social context are highly uncertain, and potentially ambiguous, e.g. who is responsible for outcome of a vote? May lead to a sense of disempowerment Individualistic perspective
Encourage solidarity, cooperation (collective action, Hayward, 2010)	Group identity attribution - Actor receives credit for action of groups they belong to	Objectively assessing belonging may be controversial Potential for manipulation or overestimation of handprint Collectivist perspective
Social learning about roles of actors (reflection)	Perceived agency attribution – actors assign credit based on role they think they had	Only useful in limited contexts
Encourage action, sense of self-effectiveness (targeted incentives)	Agency promotion attribution – assign credit to encourage specific actions, e.g. consistent with a well-functioning, equitable democracy	For management purposes, it is the effect that should count, not the effort made (Hoekstra, 2008)
Benchmarking (establish standards)	Any consistent allocation rule, as used in LCA, e.g. based on physical quantities involved, or economic value added - who pays most should get most credit	Potentially perceived as arbitrary or biased if justification is not accepted
Encourage innovation	Problem solver attribution – credit to actors contributing an innovation that reduces others' impacts (Grönman et al., 2019)	Plays down difficulty of adoption of new solutions Does not encourage taking ownership of problems one causes

458 Focussing only on quantitative constraints easily limits considerations to outcomes and
 459 resource use efficiency, however, when considerations of the process of achieving outcomes as
 460 well as distributive aspects of the outcomes are of equal importance for achieving sustainable
 461 and just impact. Besides quantitative water use aspects within a value chain, water handprint
 462 action should take into account broader aspects of sustainability and good governance in the
 463 associated network that should be enhanced or, at minimum, not be violated. Sustainability
 464 covers meeting environmental, social and economic needs, including preserving livelihoods. For
 465 water handprint action to be legitimate, i.e. justified and exercised with authority (Bodansky,
 466 1999), it must fit with the dominant discourses of the society and institutional traditions, but be
 467 sensitive to issues of power, equity and justice within them (Fuchs et al., 2015; Karlsson-
 468 Vinkhuyzen & Vihma, 2009; Sojamo, 2015).

469 The choice of constraints interacts with all the other implementation considerations raised
 470 in the preceding sub-sections. They determine whether it is acceptable to focus on reducing a

471 selected footprint and whether the given action can be considered as an improvement (Question 1
472 & 2). If focussing on the footprint might cause externalities, constraints can be used to mitigate
473 them. The changes achieved (Question 1), baseline (Question 2) and actions taken (Question 3)
474 should be permitted and feasible according to the constraints selected. The attribution of credit to
475 the actor (Question 4) should be consistent with the values espoused by the constraints. The need
476 for all elements to be consistent with baselines prompts a need for an iterative approach to the
477 development of a handprint. Fixing inconsistencies with one element may cause ripple effects
478 that require changes to the answers selected to any other question.

479 **4 Case study**

480 The way handprint thinking is operationalised may be quite obvious, or subtle. Our main
481 case study, below, emphasises some of the more subtle aspects. To put it in context, we contrast
482 it with a previous publication that illustrates some of the more obvious and intuitive benefits of
483 handprints. Grönman et al. (2019) calculate the handprint of a renewable diesel producer,
484 measured in terms of the reduction in the carbon footprint of their customers. The focus is
485 therefore on reducing the harm done by others, and hence achieving a net positive outcome. The
486 handprint is presented as a single indicator of positive impact for use in communication with
487 specific customers or customer segments. Given the aim is to provide a simple and effective
488 marketing tool, the other aspects of handprint thinking are only touched upon: the producer is
489 given 100% of the credit for the customer's footprint reduction as a result of the customer
490 purchasing their product instead of an alternative of equivalent function. While the calculation
491 includes multiple carbon footprint reduction mechanisms, the handprint does not consider other
492 more complex pathways or constraints on action. The approach of Grönman et al. (2019) is
493 summarised in the second column of Table 3.

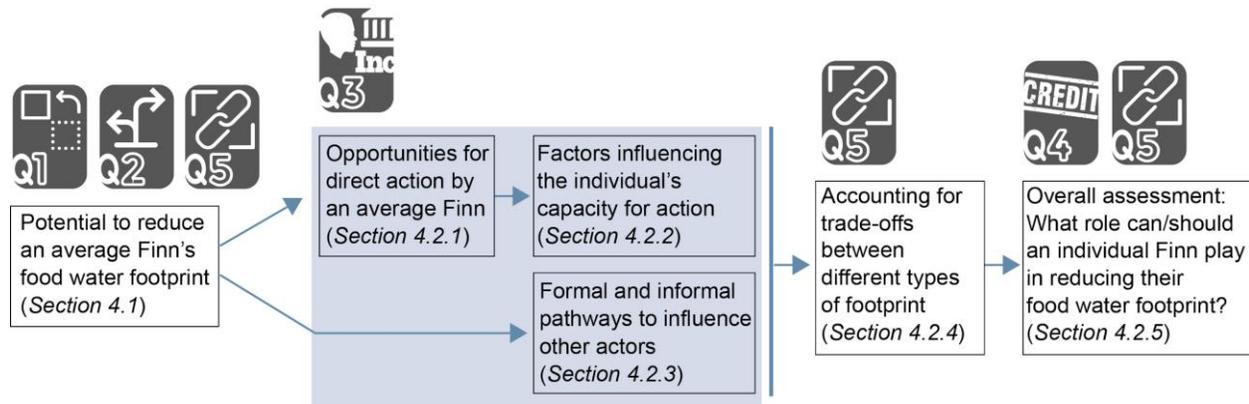
494 In contrast, our case study focuses on handprint thinking as it relates to reducing a final
495 consumer's own footprint, and combines a quantitative analysis and qualitative discussion. We
496 therefore demonstrate how a footprint reduction analysis can be extended into a handprint
497 analysis, adding value by connecting to qualitative understanding of how action actually occurs,
498 and assigning responsibility and credit. Specifically, we provide a discussion of the pathways an
499 individual could take to achieve footprint reductions.

500 The case study is divided into two parts, respectively answering the questions:

- 501 • *Quantitative footprint reduction analysis*: What is the potential to reduce the
502 global food water footprint of an average individual in Finland?
- 503 • *Qualitative analysis*: What role can and should an individual Finn play in
504 reducing that footprint?

505 Figure 2 summarises the structure of the qualitative analysis. We first identify the direct
506 actions that influence the footprint, and then put them in context by considering the constraints
507 on individual action and the formal and informal pathways to achieve indirect action. In order to
508 address issues relating to boundary of the analysis, we then explicitly discuss the trade-offs
509 involved when the individual Finn is trying to decide what action to take.

510 In order to avoid interrupting the flow of the case study section, the questions and
511 decisions in the design of the handprint analysis are only implicitly discussed in the text, but are
512 explicitly summarised in Table 3.



513

514 **Figure 2.** Summary of case study structure, discussing the pathways an individual could take to
 515 achieve footprint reductions

516

517 **Table 3.** Summary of decisions used to assess handprint in illustrative examples

Principle / Question	Decision in Grönman et al. (2019)	Decision in our case study
HP1: Encourages actions with positive impacts	Supports marketing for organizations “providing products that reduce the footprints of customers”	Encourages reflection on what an individual can do, combining quantitative analysis of footprint reductions with qualitative analysis of the role of an individual. Specifically: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What is the potential to reduce the global food water footprint of an average individual in Finland? • What role can and should an individual Finn play in reducing that footprint?
HP2: Connects to analysis of footprint reduction, but adds value to it	Calculates reduction in footprint of other actors rather than their own	Describe the pathways by which reduction in an individual's footprint could occur, and the role an individual can play, including potential trade-offs with other impacts
HP3: Address the issue of what action should be taken	Assumes that reducing (carbon) footprint is inherently beneficial	Limit footprint reductions based on ethical considerations (Section 4.1), and discuss constraints on individual's actions (Section 4.2.2)
Question 1: What is being improved?	Transportation carbon footprint, calculated using LCA methods, for the annual kilometres driven by a logistics operator in Finland	Individual's food water footprint, for an average person in Finland
Question 2: What changes will be included ...	Switching transportation energy source - to a specific renewable diesel product	Changes throughout food value chain: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Reduction of total consumption, i.e. shift to recommended diet Change in distribution of consumption to less water-intensive products, i.e. a maximum of 25% of protein from meat products, and a maximum of 8.3% of protein from meat Reduction in the footprint per unit of the product itself, i.e. improvement of water productivity Halving of waste and loss occurring in the production, distribution and consumption of the product
... from what baseline?	Status quo: average diesel fuel sold and used in Finland in 2016, including 12% bio-based diesel	Status quo: current diet in Finland We verify that it already meets dietary energy demand, and that no additional footprint is needed to meet health requirements.
Question 3: Whose actions does the handprint capture, by what	Energy producer: the renewable diesel producer's impact by selling	An individual acting directly, and indirectly, through formalised and informal pathways, focussing specifically on conditions in

Principle / Question	Decision in Grönman et al. (2019)	Decision in our case study
pathway of influence?	the renewable diesel product	Finland
Question 4: What credit does the actor receive for the improvements?	100%, and the consumer explicitly does not receive a handprint for reducing their own footprint. (Other actors involved are not considered, e.g. the producers of used cooking oil, the fuel distribution system, regulatory authorities.)	Discussed qualitatively, drawing on analysis of pathways of influence (Section 4.2.5), as a contribution to advancing handprint understanding
Question 5: What constraints should be placed on action?	The new fuel provides the same function and purpose (annual kilometres driven), and accounts for the whole life cycle "from well-to-wheel". (Other impacts of switching products are not considered.)	When calculating total footprint reduction, we impose the requirement of absence of undernourishment (overeating is tolerated), involving meeting dietary energy demand, and meeting minimum FAO and WHO nutritional guidelines (Jalava <i>et al.</i> , 2014) Other constraints are discussed qualitatively

518

519

4.1 Potential to reduce an average Finn's food water footprint

520 We focus on reducing the average annual food water footprint of an average individual in
521 Finland. The water footprint of food production is selected as a prominent sustainability issue.
522 There is significant pressure on water resources globally (Kummu *et al.*, 2016; Liu *et al.*, 2017;
523 Mekonnen & Hoekstra, 2016; Wada & Bierkens, 2014), and food production is identified to have
524 the largest share of our consumptive water use, varying between 75% and 95% of the entire
525 global water consumption by humans (Kummu *et al.*, 2016; Wada *et al.*, 2011). The necessary
526 data is readily available at country scale, including average consumption of foodstuffs collected
527 by FAO (2013a), water footprint data for the corresponding products (Hoekstra & Mekonnen,
528 2012; Mekonnen & Hoekstra, 2011), and existing analyses of water reduction strategies (e.g.
529 Jägermeyr *et al.*, 2017; Jalava *et al.*, 2016; Mueller *et al.*, 2012; Wada *et al.*, 2014).

530 Our choice of case study provides an easily relatable and replicable example. Rather than
531 selecting an average global individual, focussing on a specific country allows the case study to
532 start examining the effects of global links, including the values and norms involved, issues
533 related to distribution of resources and food worldwide, value chain management and
534 governance, and concerns about proper process in international diplomatic and trade relations.
535 Indirect impacts on water resources due to imported food are of particular interest in Finland,
536 which is otherwise water rich and its water resources arguably underused (Lehikoinen *et al.*,
537 2019). Means of influencing those impacts are therefore also important to consider. We are only
538 considering one narrow indicator, so it will be important to qualitatively evaluate potential side-
539 effects of actions.

540 We focus on four changes in the food supply chain that affect the water footprint, with
541 both a moderate and a high-intensity scenario, as listed in Table 4. Our baseline is the water
542 footprint of the current diet in Finland, with the aim of quantifying potential future improvement.
543 The calculation is based on Kummu *et al.* (2017).

544 We ensure that both the baseline and the scenario with changes fulfil the same function,
545 namely absence of undernourishment. The diet must meet minimum dietary energy requirements
546 as well as macronutrient limits defined by FAO and World Health Organisation (WHO)
547 nutritional guidelines, as used in Jalava *et al.* (2014). Overeating is allowed, as it occurs in the

548 baseline. The average Finnish diet has a marginally too high energy intake (2578 kcal/cap/day;
549 compared to the limit of 2550 kcal/cap/day), and a too high fat intake (40% relative to a limit of
550 30% of energy intake), notably due to high consumption of dairy products. We checked that the
551 water footprint of the baseline is higher than with the recommended diet, ensuring that the
552 handprint will reward reduction of overeating, and will not penalise eating healthily.

553 The actions selected cover large parts of the food value chain and network, facilitating
554 discussion of the role of an individual Finn. However, there are a number of changes that have
555 been deliberately avoided. We do not consider actions that would clearly shift the burden of
556 resource use onto others, e.g. reserving the most resource efficient land (and products) in the
557 world for the average Finn at the expense of others. We only consider changes that preserve
558 diversity and freedom of choice, hence ruling out a completely meat-free diet for the entire
559 population, for example. We avoid radical changes to the functioning of society, e.g. to reduce
560 food losses to zero or completely close yield gaps. Other constraints that affect *how* the changes
561 are achieved are discussed in Section 4.2.

562 The total footprint reduction (Table 4) is 51% in a moderate scenario and 69% in a high
563 scenario. Our choice of an individual's footprint as an indicator does not allow for any offsets to
564 be included in this calculation, and we ignore potential rebound effects by which the reductions
565 would at least partially disappear over time. This is important to account for in future studies of
566 handprint assessments. An average Finn cannot single-handedly reach this outcome. Handprint
567 thinking is needed to help understand how this footprint reduction can be achieved, and what role
568 the average Finn can play.

569 **Table 4.** Reduction in an average Finn's food water footprint (expressed as percentage changes).
570 N.B. footprint reductions are not additive. Results are adapted from Kummu et al. (2017).

Action	Moderate scenario	High scenario	References
Baseline - Original diet (OD)	0%	0%	(FAO, 2013a)
Recommended diet , avoiding overeating (RD)	-19%	-19%	(Jalava et al., 2014, 2016)
Diet change – reduction in overeating and animal protein (i.e. includes RD)	-33% (reduction of animal protein intake to 25% of total intake)	-37% (reduction of animal protein intake to 12.5%)	(Jalava et al., 2014, 2016)
Food waste and loss reduction	-5% (25% loss reduction)	-10% (50% loss reduction)	(Kummu et al., 2012), (Jalava et al., 2016)
Yield gap closure Nutrient supply and management Integrated farm water management: Enhanced irrigation efficiency & rainwater management	-24%	-44%	<i>Moderate:</i> a) & b): (Mueller et al., 2012) <i>High:</i> a) (Fader et al., 2013) b) (Jägermeyr et al., 2016)
Change in footprint from baseline	-51%	-69%	

571 4.2 What role can/should an individual Finn play in reducing their food water footprint?

572 After identifying the potential to reduce the global food water footprint of an average
573 individual in Finland, we now focus on what an average Finn can do to reach the reduction, and
574 what they should do to contribute to positive change. According to Statistics Finland (2019), an
575 average Finn is female, 42 years old, is in a relationship and has at least one child, lives in a
576 small detached house in an urban area, has at least a lower-degree level tertiary degree, earns
577 3500 €/month, votes in elections, eats more meat and animal products than the national
578 recommendations, often has lunch at a workplace cafeteria, and is responsible for food purchases
579 and cooking. For the purpose of the case study, we consider her role in the value chain to be
580 primarily a consumer. Farmers, corporate executives, researchers and policy makers would have
581 a different agency.

582 In order to add value to the footprint, consistent with Principle 2 (Figure 1), we next
583 discuss the different opportunities for action and pathways of influence she can take.

584 4.2.1 Opportunities for direct action by an average Finn

585 The individual's opportunities for reducing her food water footprint are generally
586 determined by her role as a consumer in the value chain. For instance, the individual's actions
587 can rarely contribute to reduction in the footprint of the product itself (improvement of water
588 productivity), except by choosing an equivalent but more efficiently produced product. However,
589 this action might shift the environmental burden of the original product onto other consumers
590 and is therefore not considered in our footprint reduction calculations. As the average individual
591 in Finland is responsible for the household food purchases and cooking, her direct pathways of
592 influence include a shift to the recommended, healthy diet (i.e. in the Finnish context, limiting
593 overall dietary energy and fat intake; see Section 4.1), shift to a less water-intensive diet (i.e.
594 limiting the consumption of animal-based foods) and reducing food waste at home and when
595 eating out. Concrete ways to reduce food waste include, for instance, buying only what is
596 necessary, planning meals in more detail, shopping more frequently, storing food properly and
597 considering expiration dates as suggestions rather than strict rules (FAO, 2013b). To some
598 extent, the individual can also influence food waste reduction at the retailer, e.g. by selecting less
599 desirable products that are likely to end up as waste, such as soon-to-be expired products. Our
600 focus here is on action affecting the footprint of consumption - we assume that if consumption
601 decreases, production will decrease too, and along with it, water use and stress.

602 4.2.2 Factors influencing the individual's capacity for action

603 Even with actions that seem very personal, such as diet change, the individual's capacity
604 for action can be limited by a number of factors. Allergies and other health issues may exclude
605 certain foods. Consumer choices are constrained by distributors' selection of products, which are
606 further regulated by national and international policies and trade. Finland is part of the EU,
607 which has common agricultural policy and markets and aims to ensure free competition in
608 consumer goods market for the benefit of the consumer. Even when assuming an unlimited
609 selection of products, the individual may be limited by availability of and access to reliable
610 knowledge on diet recommendations and water footprints of different foods. Awareness of water
611 footprints is growing, but Finland still lacks a reliable labelling system for them.

612 Economic incentives and decision-making biases, such as moral licensing (Tiefenbeck et
613 al., 2013), are among the subtler constraints. For instance, buying groceries is often cheaper in

614 bulk and lunch restaurants tend to offer all-you-can eat buffets, creating economic incentives to
 615 buy larger quantities of food and potentially leading to higher consumption or more food waste.
 616 Similarly, pricing of food rarely reflects the water or other environmental footprints of products.
 617 In some cases prices simply reflect production costs, but often the perverse incentives (from the
 618 viewpoint of water footprint reduction) can also be due to agricultural subsidies. In Finland, meat
 619 and dairy production are heavily subsidised by EU and national agricultural support (Niemi et
 620 al., 2014). Cognitive biases play a role in e.g. self-service eating settings, where larger plate sizes
 621 have been shown to increase food waste (Kallbekken & Sælen, 2013).

622 4.2.3 Formal and informal pathways to influence other actors

623 Other actors in the value chain and broader network that are easily accessible by an
 624 individual in Finland include governmental and municipal actors, Finnish companies including
 625 farms, non-governmental-organisations and other Finnish individuals. Actors abroad may also be
 626 accessible but in many cases indirectly. An individual may influence them in formal and
 627 informal ways.

628 When it comes to formal pathways of influence, an individual may influence legislation
 629 by voting at parliamentary, EU or municipal levels. Finnish government and the EU support
 630 domestic agricultural primary production by different means, such as agricultural subsidies,
 631 taxation and advisory services (Niemi et al., 2014). In addition, the Government and State
 632 Treasury provides information and instructions for the municipalities about setting the criteria for
 633 sustainability in public procurement competitive bidding process. Finland has a public health and
 634 educational system, where daily meals are provided from kindergarten to upper secondary
 635 school, from public offices to hospitals. If the public procurements are directed towards local and
 636 plant-based raw-materials, the individual's water footprint is reduced and remains in Finland.

637 Informal pathways of influence include civil society and consumer activism demanding
 638 and supporting (e.g. by financial means) more sustainable water use and stewardship practices
 639 along food value chains, from farms to processors, retailers and restaurants. Information
 640 dissemination in general is another option for advancing more sustainable water footprints and
 641 diets and may take place publicly or privately.

642 • **Public discussion:** An average Finn may take a stand on the water footprint
 643 issues in public, i.e. in social media or organize or attend public demonstrations to
 644 influence actors in charge. She may also share information provided by reliable
 645 actors, e.g. public and private research institutes that provide information about
 646 proper nutrition values and the possibilities to eat more sustainably.

647 • **Private discussion:** The individual normally has an influence on her family and
 648 friends. By her own behaviour, an average Finn may support the similar
 649 behaviour of those close to her, and in that way support the general opinion in
 650 public.

651 By supporting the positive attitude towards water handprint thinking and reducing water
 652 footprint, an individual informally supports the actors actually responsible for direct actions
 653 towards reducing the water footprint of her own diet.

654 4.2.4 Accounting for trade-offs between different types of footprints

655 The calculation of potential water footprint reduction carefully ruled out certain extreme
656 trade-offs, e.g. eating healthily increasing the water footprint, and reserving resource efficient
657 land at the expense of others (Section 4.1). Specific footprints, however, inevitably address a
658 specific area of concern (such as protecting water resources in the water footprint) and do not
659 cover the full set of environmental concerns (Ridoutt, Pfister, et al., 2015). The individual
660 therefore still faces trade-offs in their pursuit of a higher handprint.

661 When improving water productivity (24% reduction in water footprint for moderate
662 scenario, Table 4), the risk of burden shifting is high: global assessment shows that in general,
663 water and land footprints are at a tradeoff (Pfister et al., 2011). Two principles can help
664 understand this: (1) if we irrigate, we can increase yields and thus land use efficiency (reducing
665 land footprint) and vice-versa. (2) On the extreme side, one can irrigate the drylands with little
666 land use impacts or cut-down rainforests and cultivate crops without irrigation but high
667 ecosystem damage. Similarly, trade-offs with carbon and water footprint occur (Berger et al.,
668 2015), e.g. regarding whether to encourage energy-intensive greenhouse production of tomatoes
669 in Northern Europe vs. irrigation in water-scarce Spain (Page et al., 2012).

670 An individual could make her own mind up about how to maximise the impact of her
671 efforts. Unless she is well informed (including about the needs and desires of other stakeholders),
672 it may, however, be better to provide support to other institutions to make the decision on her
673 behalf. Weighing competing consequences is, after all, one of the purposes of a democratic
674 government and active civil society.

675 4.2.5 Overall assessment

676 In summary, there are a broad range of actions that an average Finn can take in reducing
677 her food water footprint. Given the importance of diet change in particular (33% reduction in
678 footprint in the moderate scenario, Table 4), an individual can take charge of a large portion of
679 the potential reduction (Section 4.2.1). Individuals that do so should be given full credit for this
680 improvement, to reward and encourage this behaviour. At the same time, the individual cannot
681 be held individually responsible for achieving the change, given the constraints on her (Section
682 4.2.2). The potential handprint described here provides an aspirational rather than critical or
683 judgemental benchmark.

684 There is also a substantial portion of the food water footprint reduction that the individual
685 Finn cannot achieve directly (including 24% reduction through yield gap closure in the moderate
686 scenario, but also food waste reductions along the supply chain). However, as our handprint is
687 measured in actual change in water footprint, it is not enough for the individual to promote
688 interest in the topic, but her actions need to translate into tangible outcomes for them to be
689 counted. The footprint will only change if production practices actually change too. This is an
690 all-or-nothing situation - if change is successful, the individual Finn should be given credit
691 commensurate with her effort, but effort alone is not sufficient. This provides a powerful
692 incentive to work collectively (Section 4.2.3). This part of the Finn's handprint is not about
693 individual action, but effective collaboration with other actors at different stages and levels of
694 food value chains and governance.

695 Importantly, not all actions are permitted. Placing illegitimate pressure on producers is
696 not a permissible solution (e.g. destruction of property). Trade-offs mean that some actions will

697 come at the cost of increased footprints (or reduced handprints) in other areas (Section 4.2.4),
698 and in Section 4.1 we noted that not all direct actions the average Finn can take to reduce her
699 footprint are credited either. Measuring and achieving a handprint is not just about doing more,
700 but about doing more of the right things, from both an ethical and system-wide perspective.

701 We conclude that it is within the capacity of the individual Finn to achieve the entire 51%
702 or 69% footprint reduction of the moderate and high scenario (although a substantial portion of
703 the reduction will require collective action and influencing other actors) and she should be
704 encouraged (and credited) in seeking to achieve this potential handprint. The path to achieving it
705 is nuanced and accountability is asymmetric: success is attributable to (every) individual, but the
706 burden of "failure" (at any particular moment) is shared by society. In short, as long as the
707 individual stays within permissible actions and has weighed the trade-offs involved, according to
708 this handprint there is no downside for the average Finn to try to achieve change.

709 **5 Discussion and Conclusions**

710 Handprints are emerging as a promising tool in the search for promoting improvements in
711 sustainability. Drawing attention to the positive may be a more powerful way of achieving
712 impacts than focusing on the negative alone. Instead of paralyzing, a positive approach provides
713 encouragement by making improvement opportunities visible and reachable in the face of global
714 grand challenges, such as climate change, water crisis and biodiversity loss. This is a critical
715 consideration as achieving true impacts has become more and more urgent with regard to many
716 environmental problems. Recognizing this potential of handprints – but also the lack of clarity
717 surrounding them – we set out to examine and clarify the foundations upon which handprints
718 rest, with the objective to advance the development and application of handprints.

719 Accordingly, we provide a structured and systematic examination of the broad
720 phenomenon of handprints, going beyond its visible manifestations to the underlying dimensions
721 and choices. We put forward and discuss a number of important distinctions that serve to clarify
722 handprints: we separate handprint thinking from the actual handprint assessment, outline
723 principles for handprint thinking, and identify questions that need to be addressed in handprint
724 assessments. Throughout, we illustrate our analysis with examples from freshwater use as related
725 to food production, a centrally important context for environmental protection and an issue that
726 is increasingly prominent on governmental, corporate, and individual agendas but which has not
727 yet been examined from a handprint perspective.

728 *Key findings.* We find that lack of clarity about handprints results partly from *confusion*
729 and partly from *contestation* regarding the concept (a distinction raised by Miles, 2012). The
730 fundamental idea of handprint thinking is confused with details of individual handprint
731 assessments. Handprint thinking is intended to be the uncontroversial, joint foundation upon
732 which everything else rests. The three principles of handprint thinking that we lay out (see Figure
733 1) emphasize points that are shared by all handprints, notably that (i) handprints are intrinsically
734 normative – they address the issue of what should be done, not just what has been done; (ii)
735 handprints deal with and encourage positive impacts against some baseline, rather than focusing
736 on negatives; (iii) as a result, they go beyond current footprint accounting practice, whether it is
737 by measuring different things (positive impacts, impacts of others), or digging deeper into how
738 action will actually be taken in practice, by who, when, and where. The perspective provided by
739 handprint thinking is important and useful even if one never proceeds to a formal handprint
740 assessment.

741 Part of the lack of clarity surrounding handprints, however, can be attributed to
742 contestation. There are different choices that can be made within handprint assessments, and
743 while these choices cause variability in the resulting outcomes, they can nevertheless all be
744 justified in appropriate circumstances. Thus the carrying out and use of actual handprint
745 assessments is contested as there can be a range of different handprints depending on the way the
746 handprint is conceived. As we have outlined, there are different views, for example, as to (i)
747 whether reducing your own footprint is counted in the handprint; (ii) what is the baseline for
748 handprint assessments; (iii) whether the handprint is assessed for an individual, an organization,
749 or a product/service, which in turn influences the relative importance of direct vs indirect
750 pathways of influence; (iv) how credit is allocated between actors; (v) whether all improvements
751 in indicators are permitted, or some are left out of bounds. These choices lead to a variety of
752 different configurations for handprint assessments.

753 *Theoretical contribution.* We contribute to the debate on handprints as well as to the
754 broader debate on capturing and communicating environmental impacts and improvements in
755 three ways. First, as discussed above, we separate handprint thinking and the actual handprint
756 assessment, which helps to clarify where areas of confusion and contestation lie. Second, it
757 becomes apparent that handprint thinking is sufficiently general that it underpins a broad range
758 of approaches to examining positive impacts, which helps to both situate handprints within
759 existing work and highlight opportunities for future experimentation. Third, we identify different
760 configurations in handprint assessments and discuss their pros, cons, and implications. All this
761 helps improve theoretical understanding of handprints but has been lacking in previous literature.

762 In addition, we contribute specifically to water handprints, providing the first account of
763 how a water handprint relates to existing water footprints in a case study of a food consumption
764 of a Finnish consumer, as well as a range of examples for how water handprint assessments
765 might be designed in the future. We highlight that the five questions we propose (see Figure 1)
766 are likely to be highly contested in the water sector – perhaps more so than for reduction in
767 greenhouse gas emissions. Water use impacts are inherently local and require an integrated
768 perspective that embraces trade-offs and constraints linked to other sectors. This does not prevent
769 the use of handprints, but does mean that handprint assessments for water are likely to be context
770 and purpose-specific.

771 *Practical implications.* Our analysis is also relevant for future practice about handprints.
772 Through solidifying the foundations of handprints it can reduce barriers to adoption of handprint
773 thinking and handprint assessments. Our general message to practitioners is a recommendation to
774 be clear about what kind of handprint configuration one is utilizing, and to communicate this also
775 to others. Our specific elaborations about options with handprint assessments provide guidance
776 for users who can, using the framework of our paper, make more informed choices that are best
777 suited for their purposes.

778 *Limitations and suggestions for future work.* We have outlined the choices and options
779 with handprints, but we have not attempted to pinpoint one ‘correct’ choice among the
780 possibilities. While with contested concepts there may not be strictly ‘correct’ answers as such,
781 some methodological harmonization might nevertheless be desirable to facilitate comparisons
782 and communications in the domain of handprints, as advocated by Grönman et al. (2019), for
783 instance. This is an area for future research to explore. Furthermore, we have not exhausted the
784 list of alternative approaches to performing a handprint assessment, including alternative
785 methods, tools, and data sources, as well as means by which social science understanding of

786 pathways and agency might be incorporated into an assessment. There is thus a lot of potential
787 for future research to address these issues.

788 *Conclusion.* By bringing to light the positive actions of individuals, corporations and
789 other organisations alike, handprints can play an important part in promoting and encouraging
790 contributions to sustainability. During these early stages of development, different interpretations
791 of the handprint concept abound, causing confusion and slowing down its effective application.
792 In this paper we have presented an analysis of the considerations and options within handprints.
793 With the help of this analysis, both scholars and practitioners can now proceed more
794 productively with this promising concept.

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