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A La La Land Case Study of Public School Governance:

A Companion to the ELI/NRDC Model State Law on Reducing Food Waste in K–12 Public Schools

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A briefing on the governance landscape for food waste reduction in the Los Angeles Unified School District

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This document was co-authored by Linda Breggin and Taalin RaoShah of the Environmental Law Institute (ELI), based on the ELI/NRDC Model State Law on Reducing Food Waste in K–12 Public Schools.

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Introduction

In April 2026, the Environmental Law Institute (ELI) and NRDC released a *Model State Law on Reducing Food Waste in K–12 Public Schools*,¹ a template law that can be adapted and enacted by states to advance food waste reduction measures in kindergarten through 12th grade (K–12) public schools. The Background Memorandum² that accompanies the Model explains the respective roles and authorities of federal, state, and local governmental entities in public school governance generally, in order to provide the legal context for the adoption and implementation of the food waste reduction measures included in the Model.

To elucidate this complex public school governance landscape, this case study details the respective authorities of the State of California, Los Angeles County, and the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD). This case study is intended to provide a sample governance landscape briefing for states, counties, cities, and school districts around the country that are interested in adopting some or all of the school food waste reduction measures in the Model.

I. Public Education and School Nutrition Governance in the United States

Overview of Public Education Governance

Public education governance in the United States is complex, featuring a latticework of laws, institutions, and norms at the local, state, and federal levels of government.³ Primary control over public education is exercised by state and local institutions,⁴ which means that “rules, policies, and standards can vary from state to state, from district to district, and since the advent of charter schools, from one building ... to the next.”⁵ As a result, the governance structures for public education tend to be opaque and not well understood outside of expert circles.⁶

Primacy over public education law and policy lies with state government. The key governmental players in public education governance at the state level—in addition to the governor and state legislature—are the state board of education, the chief state school officer, and the state department of education. Every state has the same or similar policymaking roles, but these roles operate differently in the context of each state’s governance model.⁷

But day-to-day implementation and administration of schools occurs locally, at the level of school districts and, even more granularly, individual schools. Key local institutional players in public education governance are each school district’s school board and superintendent of schools, as well as each individual school’s principal, teachers, and support staff.

In addition, the federal government plays an important role where federal funds are involved.

Federal Child Nutrition Programs

The United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) administers a range of child nutrition programs, or CNPs.⁸ The largest of these are the school meals programs: the National School Lunch Program (NSLP) and the School Breakfast Program (SBP).⁹

Administration of the CNPs involves federal, state, and local actors. At the federal level, the CNPs are administered by the USDA Food and Nutrition Service (FNS).¹⁰ At the state level, the most common arrangement is for a state child nutrition office—usually located within the state department of education or the state board of education—to administer these programs through agreements entered into with local school food authorities (SFAs),¹¹ which is “typically synonymous with the district’s school nutrition department.”¹²

Key CNP implementing roles are spread across the three levels of government. USDA, through FNS, distributes CNP funds to the states and promulgates detailed federal regulations governing the CNPs. FNS oversees state-level agencies, including through management evaluations.¹³

For their part, state-level agencies “are responsible for distributing federal reimbursements to [SFAs] and overseeing school districts’ administration of the school meal programs, including by conducting administrative reviews of school districts.”¹⁴

Finally, at the local level, SFAs usually “handle food service operations and accounting responsibilities, such as food procurement, preparation, and service and tracking meals for reimbursement,” while other divisions of the local school district “handle administrative duties, such as processing applications and certifying children for free and reduced-price school meals.”¹⁵

School Meal Procurement

SFAs are typically responsible for operating the CNPs in schools under their jurisdiction pursuant to an agreement with a state agency, including in most cases procuring school meals.¹⁶ But SFAs must comply with local, state, and federal procurement requirements,¹⁷ which can be extensive,¹⁸ and may require the SFA “to coordinate with multiple stakeholders including schools, state and local agencies, and third-party entities (e.g., food service management companies).”¹⁹

How, where, and by whom school meals are prepared can vary, which in turn can lead to a variety of procurement scenarios. Generally speaking, SFAs source products and services for school food programs through multiple entities, including food service management companies (FSMCs), group purchasing entities, and third-party group purchasing entities.²⁰

The SFA monitors the terms of FSMC contracts, and the state agency ensures that the SFA complies with state and federal procurement requirements.²¹ States may exceed federal standards, and state and local procurement requirements may apply in addition to federal standards.²²

Beyond the use of FSMCs, group purchasing is a key component of the school food procurement landscape. The parties to and shape of these purchasing agreements can vary widely.²³

With respect to any procurement under federal awards (as is the case with the various federal CNPs), a state must follow the same policies and procedures it uses for procurements with non-federal funds.²⁴ Where such policies and procedures are lacking, federal regulations provide procurement standards to follow.²⁵ Even where such policies and procedures do exist, federal regulations provide certain additional procurement standards.²⁶

Federal law establishes a simplified acquisition threshold of \$350,000: formal procurement processes must be used for this level of purchase. Below this level, informal “small purchase” standards may be used for purchases of more than \$15,000. And purchases of \$15,000 and below implicate informal micro-purchase standards.²⁷ When state or local procurement rules set stricter thresholds, the stricter requirements apply.²⁸

It is important to note that governments routinely employ their procurement authority to achieve public policy objectives in the environmental and health arenas.²⁹ In fact, a 2025 USDA FNS memo confirms that schools participating in a CNP can implement procurement strategies to buy local foods.³⁰

II. Public Education and School Nutrition Governance in the State of California

Overview of Public Education Governance

The State of California distributes authority over public education in transitional kindergarten through 12th grade (TK–12) schools across state, regional, and local levels. From the 1970s until 2013, public education governance in the state remained highly centralized. However, in 2013, the Local Control Funding Formula “overhauled the state’s system of governance to provide greater authority and flexibility to local districts.”³¹

Public education governance in California is complex and consists of “overlapping responsibilities.” A 2025 report by Policy Analysis for California Education maps the intricate structure of public education governance in the state.³²

At the top, the *governor* sets budgetary priorities, appoints key officials, and influences the policy agenda, while the *state legislature* allocates funding and conducts oversight, among other responsibilities. The Constitution of California, as amended by Proposition 98, guarantees a minimum level of annual state funding for public K–12 schools and community colleges, although specific allocations within this category are left flexible.³³ Currently, roughly 38% of the state’s general fund is directed to K–12 education.³⁴

The *California State Board of Education* (SBE) consists of 11 members who are appointed by the governor and is the primary governing and policymaking body of the state’s TK–12 education system. The SBE plays a limited role, however, in implementation and enforcement.³⁵

The *Superintendent of Public Instruction* (SPI) is an elected official who serves as the state’s chief school officer. The SPI leads the *California Department of Education* (CDE), which is tasked with implementing directives of the SBE, ensuring compliance with state and federal

regulations, measuring and analyzing educational outcomes, and providing technical support to local educational entities. CDE does not have independent policymaking authority.³⁶

Connecting state and local educational entities are 58 *county offices of education* (COEs), which are led by *county superintendents* (most of whom are elected) and overseen by *county boards of education* (elected). In addition to running county-wide educational programs, the primary roles of COEs are providing local school districts with fiscal oversight and technical assistance; assessing local plans to meet state educational goals using state funds (local control and accountability plans, or LCAPs); and monitoring districts' performance.³⁷

Finally, *local school district boards* help manage California's 937 local school districts, including by appointing and overseeing *local school district superintendents*, who lead *local district central offices*, which implement local school district board directives.³⁸ California's school districts are "independent of county governments and local municipalities."³⁹ In general, California school districts "receive the large majority of their funding from the state, primarily from income and sales tax revenues, but also from local property taxes that are collected at the local level and distributed by the state."⁴⁰

Both local school district boards and COEs can request waivers to parts of the state's educational code, which are reviewed and may be approved by the SBE.⁴¹

State of California Child Nutrition Programs

The *Nutrition Services Division* (NSD) sits within CDE and is responsible for: administering the federal CNPs as described above,⁴² including ensuring compliance with nutrition standards; overseeing school districts' nutrition operations; and providing technical assistance. NSD helps to provide over 900 million school meals and snacks at nearly 11,000 sites to roughly 5.8 million public school children.⁴³

NSD also administers California's Universal Meals Program (UMP), which began in 2022. Under UMP, public school districts, COEs, and charter schools are required to offer free breakfast and lunch every school day to all TK–12 students.⁴⁴ CDE clarifies that the intent of UMP is "to supplement, not supplant, the federal meal reimbursement," and that the "state meal reimbursement [is] the difference between the federal and state free and reduced-price meal reimbursement amount and the paid rate."⁴⁵ Accordingly, "to receive the state meal reimbursement for these meals, [local education agencies] must also participate in the NSLP and SBP."⁴⁶ In addition, "high poverty schools" are required to adopt a federal universal meal service provision, such as the Community Eligibility Provision (CEP) or Provision 2.⁴⁷

Developments at the federal level, including cuts to the Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program or plans to cut funding and raise eligibility requirements for the CEP, could affect UMP.⁴⁸

III. Public Education and School Nutrition Governance in Los Angeles County

Overview of Public Education Governance

The *Los Angeles County Board of Supervisors* serves as “the executive and legislative head of the largest and most complex county government in the entire United States.”⁴⁹ The County Board is supported by an Executive Office, which manages “technology, staffing, procurement and facilities resources, as well as the publication of information.”⁵⁰ The Executive Office plays a role in administering County Board directives, including by overseeing a Chief Sustainability Office and an Office of Food Systems, which has published several resources mapping out food systems networks and stakeholders in Los Angeles County.⁵¹

The County Board of Supervisors appoints the seven members of the *Los Angeles County Board of Education* to two- and four-year terms. The County Board of Education governs two specialized schools but has limited direct authority over the county’s school districts, which set their own policies. Specifically, it has direct authority over “matters of interdistrict attendance appeals; school district boundary changes and expulsion appeals.”⁵²

Among the Board of Education’s responsibilities is to appoint the *Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools* and establish the policies of the *Los Angeles County Office of Education* (LACOE). The County Superintendent of Schools leads LACOE—the nation’s largest regional education agency—serving 80 local school districts, the largest of which is the Los Angeles Unified School District (LAUSD). LACOE provides both direct instruction and a range of support services, functioning as a strategic bridge between the CDE and local school districts (see Section II).⁵³ One of LACOE’s strategic objectives is to build partnerships “to strengthen public education as a common good,” which includes coordinating “community data resources and services to address barriers” such as food insecurity.⁵⁴

The Role of Los Angeles County in School Nutrition

Because individual school districts typically handle food procurement on their own—including through assigning procurement duties to a division⁵⁵ or employee⁵⁶—or by working with an FSMC⁵⁷ (see Section I), the role of LACOE in procurement is limited. Some school districts in Los Angeles County, however, work with a purchasing cooperative, such as PINCO.⁵⁸

However, the County Board does occasionally adopt school nutrition–related measures. Examples of these measures include:

- **Food procurement:** In 2011, the County Board adopted a motion to integrate “healthy nutrition standards and practices” into the food procurement process,⁵⁹ which led to the establishment of a committee to advise on issues such as standards for vending machine snacks and healthier cafeteria meals.⁶⁰ In 2025, the County Board approved a motion directing the Los Angeles County Department of Public Health and Chief Sustainability Office to reduce food-related greenhouse gas emissions by revising food purchasing protocols and creating food-related emissions reduction targets.⁶¹

- Plant-based options: Recently, the County Board adopted the 2025 OurCounty Plan, which includes Strategy 10B, Action 147 to “promote plant-based menu options through nutrition and procurement policies in food service settings, such as ... school districts.”⁶²

IV. Public Education and School Nutrition Governance in the Los Angeles Unified School District

Overview of Public Education Governance

LAUSD is the second-largest school district in the country, consisting of 437 elementary schools, 78 middle schools, 87 senior high schools, 26 multi-level schools, 66 magnet schools, and 213 independent charter schools. There are over 375,000 enrolled TK–12 public school students, and over 105,000 enrolled independent charter school students.⁶³

The *LAUSD Board of Education*—which consists of seven elected members serving four-year terms—appoints the *LAUSD Superintendent*. The Board of Education makes financial and policy decisions for the school system, and the Superintendent is tasked with overseeing implementation by staff in hundreds of LAUSD offices and divisions.⁶⁴ This includes managing LAUSD’s \$18.8B budget, which is divided into nine categories: a general unrestricted fund (\$7.2B), a general restricted fund (\$5.7B), and seven specific funds, including a dedicated “cafeteria fund” for the District’s food service program (\$470M).⁶⁵ Pursuant to California Assembly Bill 1200 (Chapter 1213/1991) and Assembly Bill 2756 (Chapter 52/2004), LAUSD is required to submit to LACOE an annual “Multi-Year Projection” of the general fund along with its adopted budget.⁶⁶

LAUSD and the City of Los Angeles

LAUSD covers most of the City of Los Angeles, as well as portions of other cities in Los Angeles County. Although LAUSD and the City of Los Angeles share similar boundaries, the two are distinct units of local government. As LAist points out, “Although it’s enshrined in the L.A. City Charter, LAUSD operates independently of City Hall ... [making] L.A. the largest city in the country in which the mayor has no direct control over the school board.”⁶⁷ In fact, in 2006, a judge ruled that state legislation granting the Mayor of Los Angeles a degree of control over the school district violated the Constitution of California.⁶⁸

The financial relationship between LAUSD and the City of Los Angeles is similarly limited. Roughly 86% of revenue for LAUSD’s general funds comes from state sources, and an additional 9% and 2% come from federal sources and community fundraising, respectively (see Section II for more information on how California school districts are funded).⁶⁹

Although the City of Los Angeles has no general authority to set or override LAUSD policy, the City’s charter does govern certain limited aspects of LAUSD, including the election process for the Board of Education.⁷⁰ Beyond that, there are several forms of interaction between the City and LAUSD. For example, in August 2025, LAUSD approved a joint powers agreement establishing a ten-year partnership with the City Department of Recreation and Parks (RAP) to

transform “schoolyards into vibrant public parks during non-school hours” through the Community School Parks Initiative.⁷¹ RAP also has contracted with the LAUSD Food Services Division since 2014 to procure meals for the USDA-funded Summer Lunch Program.⁷² In addition, the City of Los Angeles helps fund LA’s BEST Expanded Learning Program, which operates in LAUSD schools and serves “more than 17,000 elementary students ... before school, after school, and during the summer.”⁷³

The Role of LAUSD in School Nutrition

Authority over lunch procurement in LAUSD schools is held by the *LAUSD Procurement Services Division*.⁷⁴ The *LAUSD Food Services Division* serves as the District’s SFA (see Section I for a discussion of how SFAs coordinate with state and federal agencies, operate CNPs, and procure food). As the SFA, the Food Services Division handles the operations of the District’s food-related programs, serving over 100 million meals a year. Because LAUSD is a CEP district, all students receive free breakfast and lunch. Many LAUSD schools now also offer a third free meal, hot supper, served on campus after dismissal. Vegan and vegetarian options are offered daily at all schools.⁷⁵ Additionally, the Food Services Division runs a “Farm to School” program, which “connects [students] with fresh, locally sourced produce and educational opportunities about agriculture.”⁷⁶

Examples of school nutrition–related measures and plans adopted by LAUSD include:

- **Food procurement**: In 2012, LAUSD adopted the Good Food Purchasing Program.⁷⁷ Relatedly, in 2019, the City of Los Angeles joined the C40 Good Food Cities Accelerator,⁷⁸ which included commitments to align food procurement policies with the Planetary Health Diet,⁷⁹ including for food served in schools.
- **Food waste reduction**: LAUSD efforts include a program to allow students to save food for later,⁸⁰ implementation of share tables at some schools,⁸¹ food scraps collection and food waste training services,⁸² and a food donation program.⁸³
- **Food quality**: One of the “pillars” of the LAUSD 2022–2026 Strategic Plan is “Joy and Wellness,” which includes “Whole-Child Well-Being” as one of several “priorities.” A key strategy for realizing this priority is to “elevate school nutrition with fresher, healthier, and more appealing options informed by family and student feedback.”⁸⁴

For more information, contact Linda K. Breggin (breggin@eli.org).

¹ Linda Breggin et al., *Model State Law on Reducing Food Waste in K–12 Public Schools*, Environmental Law Institute and NRDC, April 2026, <https://www.eli.org/research-report/model-state-law-reducing-food-waste-k-12-public-schools>.

² Linda Breggin et al., *Model State Law on Reducing Food Waste in K–12 Public Schools: Background Memorandum and Commentaries*, Environmental Law Institute and NRDC, April 2026, <https://www.eli.org/research-report/model-state-law-reducing-food-waste-k-12-public-schools-background-memorandum-and-commentaries>.

³ See John Martinez, 2 Local Government Law § 20:1, last updated October 2024.

⁴ Chief Justice Earl Warren observed that “education is perhaps the most important function of state and local governments.” *Brown v. Bd. of Educ.*, 347 U.S. 483, 493 (1954).

⁵ J.C. Blockhuis et al., *Education Law*, 6th ed., 2021.

⁶ For a brief, if dated, history of K–12 public education governance, see, e.g., Report of the National Commission on Governing America’s Schools, *Governing America’s Schools: Changing the Rules*, November 1999, 21–28.

⁷ Alyssa Evans et al., *50-State Comparison: K–12 Governance*, Education Commission of the States (ECS), November 10, 2020, <https://www.ecs.org/50-state-comparison-k-12-governance/>.

⁸ See Kara Clifford Billings, *School Meals and Other Child Nutrition Programs: Background and Funding*, Congressional Research Service (CRS), report no. R46234, last updated December 18, 2023, 3, <https://www.congress.gov/crs-product/R46234>.

⁹ 42 USC ch. 13 (§§ 1751–1769j) (School Lunch Programs); 7 CFR pt. 210 (National School Lunch Program). See United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) Food and Nutrition Service (FNS), “NSLP Factsheet,” November 2017, <https://www.fns.usda.gov/nslp/factsheet>; 42 USC § 1773, 42 USC ch. 13A (§§ 1771–1793) (Child Nutrition); 7 CFR pt. 220 (School Breakfast Program). See FNS, “School Breakfast Program Factsheet,” November 2017, <https://www.fns.usda.gov/sbp/factsheet>. Other programs in the CNP constellation include the Child and Adult Care Food Program, the Summer Food Service Program and the Seamless Summer Option, the Summer Electronic Benefit Transfer for Children, the Fresh Fruit and Vegetable Program, and the Special Milk Program.

¹⁰ The FNS regulations governing all CNPs are found at 7 CFR subtit. B ch. II subch. A.

¹¹ FNS maintains a detailed list of state-specific programmatic contacts at <https://www.fns.usda.gov/fns-contacts>.

¹² No Kid Hungry Center for Best Practices, “School Meal Policy,” 2023, <https://bestpractices.nokidhungry.org/policy-and-advocacy/school-meals>; Billings, *School Meals and Other Child Nutrition Programs*, 13; Analisa Sorrells Archer, “Behind the Lunch Tray: A Look at How School Meals Are Funded,” EducationNC, April 18, 2022, <https://www.ednc.org/school-meals-finance/>.

¹³ Billings, *School Meals and Other Child Nutrition Programs*, 14–15.

¹⁴ *Id.*

¹⁵ *Id.*, 14.

¹⁶ Billings, *School Meals and Other Child Nutrition Programs*, 28.

¹⁷ Billings, *School Meals and Other Child Nutrition Programs*, 28–29; 7 CFR § 210.21 (Procurement). See also FNS, *USDA Child Nutrition Programs Procurement Regulations*, <https://www.fns.usda.gov/f2s/usda-procurement-regulations>.

¹⁸ See, e.g., Arkansas Division of Elementary and Secondary Education, “Procurement Policy and Procedures,” accessed April 16, 2026, https://dese.ade.arkansas.gov/Files/20201103164218_J_Procurement_Policy_Attestation.pdf.

¹⁹ Kim Williams et al., *Study of School Food Authority (SFA) Procurement Practices*, 2M Research, September 22, 2021, 10, <https://fns-prod.azureedge.us/sites/default/files/resource-files/SFA-Procurement.pdf>.

²⁰ Kim Williams et al., *Study of School Food Authority (SFA) Procurement Practices*, 35.

²¹ FNS, “Contracting with Food Service Management Companies—Guidance for State Agencies,” May 2016, <https://www.fns.usda.gov/cn/updated-guidance-contracting-food-service-management>.

²² *Id.*

²³ Group purchasing agreements have been categorized as “CN [child nutrition] Program operator-only and/or CN State Agency agreements, agent, and third-party entities, such as State procurement agency agreements, group purchasing organizations, group buying organizations, and third-party vendors. In this situation, public, private, and nonprofit entities form agreements with the goal of increasing their purchasing power. Additionally, Federal

procurement standards in 2 CFR 200.318(e) encourage State and local intergovernmental agreements or inter-entity agreements where appropriate for procurement or use of common or shared goods and services.” Kim Williams et al., *Study of School Food Authority (SFA) Procurement Practices*, 35.

²⁴ 2 CFR § 200.317.

²⁵ *Id.*

²⁶ *Id.* See generally FNS, *USDA Child Nutrition Programs Procurement Regulations*, last updated November 9, 2023, <https://www.fns.usda.gov/f2s/usda-procurement-regulations>.

²⁷ *Federal Acquisition Regulation: Inflation Adjustment of Acquisition-Related Thresholds*, 90 Fed. Reg. 41872, August 27, 2025, <https://www.federalregister.gov/documents/2025/08/27/2025-16412/federal-acquisition-regulation-inflation-adjustment-of-acquisition-related-thresholds>.

²⁸ *Id.*

²⁹ These other policy aims are known in this context as “collateral policies.” See, e.g., Danielle M. Conway, “Ch. 3—Sustainable Procurement Policies and Practices at the State and Local Government Level” in K. Hirokawa & P. Salkin, eds., *Greening local government: legal strategies for promoting sustainability, efficiency, and fiscal savings* (2012), at 44–45. Collateral policies may also be referred to as secondary or complementary policies, horizontal policies, or dual-use policies. In the food purchasing arena, specifically, this has recently been referred to as values-aligned or values-based food purchasing.

³⁰ USDA FNS, “Using Federal Funds to Purchase Local Foods,” May 6, 2025, <https://www.cacfp.org/assets/pdf/CACFP-09-SFSP-05-2025/>.

³¹ Jeannie Myung et al., *TK–12 Education Governance in California: Past, Present, and Future*, Policy Analysis for California Education, December 2025, 14, https://edpolicyinca.org/sites/default/files/2026-01/r_myung_dec2025_1.pdf.

³² *Id.*, 18.

³³ Jonathan Kaplan and Erik Saucedo, “What is Proposition 98 and How Does the State Budget Shortfall Affect It?” *California Budget & Policy Center*, February 2024, <https://calbudgetcenter.org/resources/what-is-proposition-98-and-how-does-the-state-budget-shortfall-affect-it/>.

³⁴ State of California, “Schedule 9 at 2026–27 Governor’s Budget Comparative Statement of Expenditures,” accessed March 20, 2026, https://ebudget.ca.gov/2026-27/pdf/BudgetSummary/BS_SCH9.pdf.

³⁵ Jeannie Myung et al., *TK–12 Education Governance in California*, 20.

³⁶ *Id.*

³⁷ *Id.*, 21–22.

³⁸ *Id.*, 23.

³⁹ Chris Neklason, “How California K–12 Public Education Works,” *California Local*, January 26, 2025, <https://californialocal.com/localnews/statewide/ca/article/show/306017-how-california-k-12-public-education-works/>.

⁴⁰ LAUSD, “How California Schools Are Funded,” <https://budgettransparency.lausd.net/how-schools-are-funded>.

⁴¹ California Department of Education (CDE), “Waivers,” accessed March 20, 2026, <https://www.cde.ca.gov/re/lr/wr/>.

⁴² For information on implementation of FNS programs in California, including key state-level contacts and offices, see USDA FNS, “California Department of Education,” accessed March 20, 2026, <https://www.fns.usda.gov/fns-contact/california-department-education>.

⁴³ CDE, “Nutrition,” accessed March 20, 2026, <https://www.cde.ca.gov/ls/nu/>.

⁴⁴ CDE, “California Universal Meals,” accessed March 20, 2026, <https://www.cde.ca.gov/ls/nu/sn/cauniversalmeals.asp>.

⁴⁵ CDE, “Universal Meals Frequently Asked Questions,” accessed June 3, 2026, <https://www.cde.ca.gov/ls/nu/univmealsfaq.asp>.

⁴⁶ *Id.*

⁴⁷ CDE, “California Universal Meals.”

⁴⁸ Lindsey Reed et al., “From Policy to Plate: Implications of 2025 U.S. Federal Policy Changes on School Meals,” *Nutrients* 17, November 2025, <https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC12694541/>; Anna Merod, “House

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- ⁴⁹ Board of Supervisors County of Los Angeles, “Home,” accessed April 16, 2026, <https://bos.lacounty.gov/>.
- ⁵⁰ Board of Supervisors County of Los Angeles, “Executive Office,” accessed April 21, 2026, <https://bos.lacounty.gov/executive-office/>.
- ⁵¹ Los Angeles County Office of Food Systems, “Research and Reports,” accessed April 16, 2026, <https://lacountyfoodsystems.org/research-and-reports>; see also Los Angeles County Chief Sustainability Office, “Home,” accessed April 16, 2026, <https://cso.lacounty.gov/>.
- ⁵² Los Angeles County Office of Education (LACOE), “Board of Education,” accessed March 23, 2026, <https://www.lacoe.edu/about/board>.
- ⁵³ Los Angeles County Office of Education (LACOE), “Home,” accessed March 23, 2026, <https://www.lacoe.edu/>.
- ⁵⁴ LACOE, *2025–28 Strategic Plan Framework*, accessed April 20, 2026, <https://www.lacoe.edu/content/dam/lacoeedu/documents/communications/about-lacoe/StratPlan2025-28.pdf>.
- ⁵⁵ See, e.g., Long Beach Unified School District, “Vendors,” accessed April 21, 2026, <https://www.lbschools.net/departments/nutrition-services/resources/vendors>.
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- ⁵⁷ See California Department of Education, “2025–26 SFAs with FSMC Contracts,” accessed April 21, 2026, <https://www.cde.ca.gov/ls/nu/sn/fsmcrebidlist.asp>.
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