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1. Abstract

Circular economy (CE) strategies are central in solving the waste management challenges of today, yet the global nature of the waste trade results in emissions and the export of negative environmental externalities to low-income countries. Here, we target a systemic challenge in the current indicators developed to measure more sustainable consumption and production progress. We argue that sustainable, circular solutions to recycling need to account for the negative externalities caused by the physical distance of the waste trade. We define the new concept “Small Circles” (SC) and suggest a new circularity indicator that can better ensure sustainability in implementing closed-loop strategies and thereby provide critical criteria to consider in pursuing CE. The SC approach advocates the need to manage the waste within a smaller geographical area of its origin to reduce the environmental burdens originating from the transboundary export of waste. Further, it ensures that the waste-producing regions take responsibility for their waste generation and management. If implemented appropriately, we argue that the SC approach could improve the transparency of the fate of waste and boost local opportunities through job creation and allow for the development of symbiotic relations among regional industries. The SC concept demands commitment from all stakeholders across the product value chain to extract value from the waste without jeopardizing sustainability goals. The application of the SC concept is explained by describing the sustainability challenges and opportunities related to plastic waste management in Europe. To concretize the SC approach and the circularity indicator further, the management of the plastic waste sourcing from the Norwegian fishing sector and plastic waste management in the US are used as case examples.

Keywords: Circular Economy Indicator, Industrial Symbiosis, Transparency, Waste Management, Waste Trade, Recycling

27

28 **2. Introduction and Background**

29 Marine plastic pollution, one of our time's most significant environmental threats, is a
30 symptom of a malfunctioning plastics economy where only 9% of all plastics ever produced
31 have been recycled, while up to 79% have been landfilled or dumped into the environment
32 (Forrest et al. 2019). In addition, this marginal plastics recycling relies heavily on global value
33 chains that lack transparency and are poorly regulated. Approximately 25% of all marine
34 plastic litter is estimated to leak from within waste management systems, and plastic sent for
35 recycling can leak from the value chain at any point (Marrs et al. 2019). Over half of the
36 plastic waste earmarked for recycling is exported overseas, often from high-income countries
37 to lower-income countries (Brooks et al. 2018), where there are no guarantees that plastic
38 waste is efficiently recycled without adverse environmental consequences (Barnes 2019). A
39 study by Law et al. (2020) estimates that approximately 0.15-0.99 MMT of plastic exported
40 from the US alone for recycling are mismanaged in the importing countries annually (Law et
41 al. 2020). The informal waste sector in the importing countries is forced to dump or burn
42 worthless plastic materials due to a lack of proper waste management facilities. This not only
43 contributes to the marine litter problem globally, with adverse effects on ecosystems and
44 human health, but also causes severe degradation of the land, air and water locally
45 compromising human well-being as documented in numerous studies (e.g. da Costa et al.
46 (2016) and Wang et al. (2021) on effects of nano-plastics, Guo et al. (2020) and Kumar et al.
47 (2020) on microplastic and associated chemical's impacts on soils, Beaumont et al. (2019)
48 on marine plastic impact on ecosystem services, Abate et al. (2020) on plastic litter impacts
49 on wildlife and aesthetics affecting human wellbeing, Waring et al., 2018 and UNEP 2016 on
50 the human health impact of plastics via the food chain).

51 In effect, the global waste trade contributes to increasing negative environmental
52 externalities as high-income countries export plastic waste to countries with insufficient waste
53 management infrastructure and less stringent environmental and health policies. These trade

54 patterns cause environmental degradation in the importing countries and thus an uneven
55 divide of the negative externalities related to plastic waste management (Mah 2021). This
56 uneven divide has potential environmental justice consequences for vulnerable and
57 marginalized populations in the global south (Mah 2021). The adverse health-related
58 externalities caused by mismanaged waste in countries with insufficient waste management
59 systems include, e.g., flooding leading to spreading of diseases and risk of drowning due to
60 waste blocking waterways, diarrhea diseases, the release of lethal pollutants to water and
61 soil, and landslides at large dumpsites. As a result, up to one million lives are lost in
62 developing countries yearly (Marrs et al. 2019).

63 The dependence on plastic waste export by high-income countries became particularly
64 visible when China, the world's largest plastic scrap importer for the last three decades,
65 implemented the National Sword policy (NSP) in 2018, banning all imports of scrap plastics.
66 The NSP was implemented due to a series of environmental problems caused by the fact
67 that up to 70.6% of the annual plastic waste exports, reaching 8.88 mT, were buried or
68 mismanaged in the country (Wen et al. 2021). In the wake of the NSP, the cost of plastic
69 recycling increased globally, more plastics ended up in landfills, incineration of plastics
70 increased, and recyclables were stockpiled in countries traditionally exporting plastic waste
71 to China (Brooks et al., 2018). The export of waste fractions from high-income countries to
72 middle or low-income regions with insufficient waste management capacity (Barnes 2019)
73 resulted in a ripple effect of import bans and taxes in these plastic waste destinations
74 (Indonesia, Thailand, Malaysia, Vietnam and Taiwan) (INTERPOL 2020). In addition to
75 transferring negative externalities from high to lower-income countries, the policy of
76 distancing plastic waste by exporting creates artificially cleaner environments in the exporting
77 countries, encouraging high plastic consumption as the actual costs of plastic consumption is
78 not visible in these countries (Barnes 2019). There is an urgency to improve the recycling
79 capacity in the waste exporting countries to reduce the negative externalities caused by the

80 leakage of waste along the value chain and the transfer of negative externalities to lower-
81 income countries (Barnes 2019).

82 To guide and incentivize countries towards plastic recycling practices that are more
83 sustainable both locally and globally, we argue that the role of physical distance needs acute
84 attention. The authors conceptualize this argument under the title "Small Circles" (SC), i.e., to
85 improve the net global sustainability of the plastics economy, plastics recycling should rely on
86 local or regional solutions rather than contributing to the global waste trade. We define the
87 SC concept as: "*Reshaping the circularity strategies through containment of the geographical*
88 *boundaries of end-of-life products to avoid financial, material and energy losses, and to*
89 *ensure transparency and resilience in implementing strategies for the circular economy.*"

90 Here, the SC approach is elaborated by addressing the need for high-income countries to
91 take responsibility for their own plastic waste by improving plastic recycling systems within
92 the region. The need for local improvements in waste management facilities is identified as
93 the most efficient, long-term solution to mismanaged plastic waste in several previous
94 studies (e.g., Brooks et al. 2018; Wen et al. 2021; Barnes 2019; Deshpande et al., 2020).

95 The SC approach is further explained by developing a new indicator on the recycling rate
96 that accounts for the holistic aspects of sustainability in realizing the circular economy
97 principles. We present the comparative analysis of the traditional CE indicator "Recycling
98 rate" with the modified indicator on recycling that incorporates the environmental cost of
99 waste transport and the risk of exporting negative externalities. We further point out how
100 incentives introduced by the SC concept would improve the net global sustainability of plastic
101 waste management.

102 While the SC approach is relevant for all types of waste and at many regional scales, we use
103 plastic waste and the trade flow between Europe and lower-income countries in Asia to
104 illustrate the barriers and opportunities related to the sustainable development of circular
105 processes. In the following sections, descriptions of initiatives to move towards more

106 sustainable plastics economies will be discussed, considering the SC approach, pointing to
107 how physical distance challenges some of the solutions proposed by global institutions and
108 frameworks.

109 **3. Current frameworks for Circular Plastics Economy and plastic trade**

110 Currently, the challenges related to mismanaged plastics are acknowledged in both global
111 and European sustainability and circularity strategies and frameworks. Goals, targets, and
112 indicators have been developed to monitor and measure the sustainability of waste
113 management. The United Nations' Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provide the
114 overarching guidelines for developing socially, ecologically, and economically sustainable
115 societies in the 21st century at a global level. Within the SDGs, the need for more sustainable
116 consumption and production is highlighted in Goal 12: Ensure sustainable consumption and
117 production patterns. Target 12.4 aims to by 2030, *achieve the environmentally sound*
118 *management of chemicals and all wastes throughout their life cycle (...), significantly reduce*
119 *their release to air, water, and soil to minimize their adverse impacts on human health and*
120 *the environment*. The indicator for this target is the percentage of countries that meet the
121 goals set in international multilateral agreements on hazardous waste and other chemicals,
122 including the Montreal Protocol, Basel Convention, Rotterdam Convention and Stockholm
123 Convention¹. These regulatory frameworks are examples of efforts to gain control over the
124 recycling value chains.

125 Plastic waste was included in the *Basel Convention on the Control of Transboundary*
126 *Movements of Hazardous Wastes and Their Disposal* (Basel Convention) in 2019 to stop the
127 transport of non-recyclable plastic waste from OECD to non-OECD regions. However,
128 controlling all plastic waste trade at the point of export is impossible due to the complexity of
129 the global shipping infrastructure and high container traffic volume (Ahmad Khan 2020).
130 According to the European Trade Data, after a slight reduction in plastic waste exports

¹ <https://sdg-tracker.org/sustainable-consumption-production>

131 outside OECD countries in the first month of implementing the plastic scrap trade restrictions,
132 the exports increased again in the months to follow². In addition, there is no clear definition of
133 hazardous plastic waste in the Basel Convention, providing room for interpretation of the
134 rules (Wen et al. 2021). This illustrates the difficulty of gaining control over the global plastic
135 waste trade through regulatory frameworks.

136 SDG 12 target 12.5 points to the importance of implementing measures throughout the waste
137 pyramid and aims to by 2030 “*Substantially reduce waste generation through prevention,*
138 *reduction, recycling, and reuse*”. The indicators for these targets being the national recycling
139 rate / t of material recycled (indicator 12.5.1) (UN Statistical Commission, 2016). However,
140 the recycling rate can be interpreted differently based on who is the interpreter; a waste
141 management company, a policymaker, or a recycling company (Horta Arduin et al., 2019).
142 Such ambiguity may result in misinterpretation of recycling rates in countries where waste
143 fractions are segregated, collected, and exported for recycling rather than recycled locally.
144 The main reason for this is that the traceability of exported waste is often not reflected in the
145 reported recycling rate (Lazarevic et al., 2010). Net exporting regions, such as Europe, are
146 therefore likely to report artificially higher recycling rates, as several of the global top
147 destination countries for the plastic waste report of high mismanagement rates, e.g., India
148 (87%), Indonesia (83%), Vietnam (88%) and Malaysia (57%) (Jambeck et al. 2015). The lack
149 of knowledge regarding the actual recycling rates arises due to the lack of transparency of
150 the plastic waste trade and destiny (Bishop et al., 2020), again highlighting the urgency to
151 improve the plastics recycling capacity in exporting countries.

152 The current goals, targets, and indicators are limited with respect to creating globally
153 sustainable, circular solutions to plastic waste. We argue that a major failure is that they do
154 not account for the negative environmental externalities caused by the physical distance of
155 the waste trade. In the following sections, we argue how the inclusion of physical distance

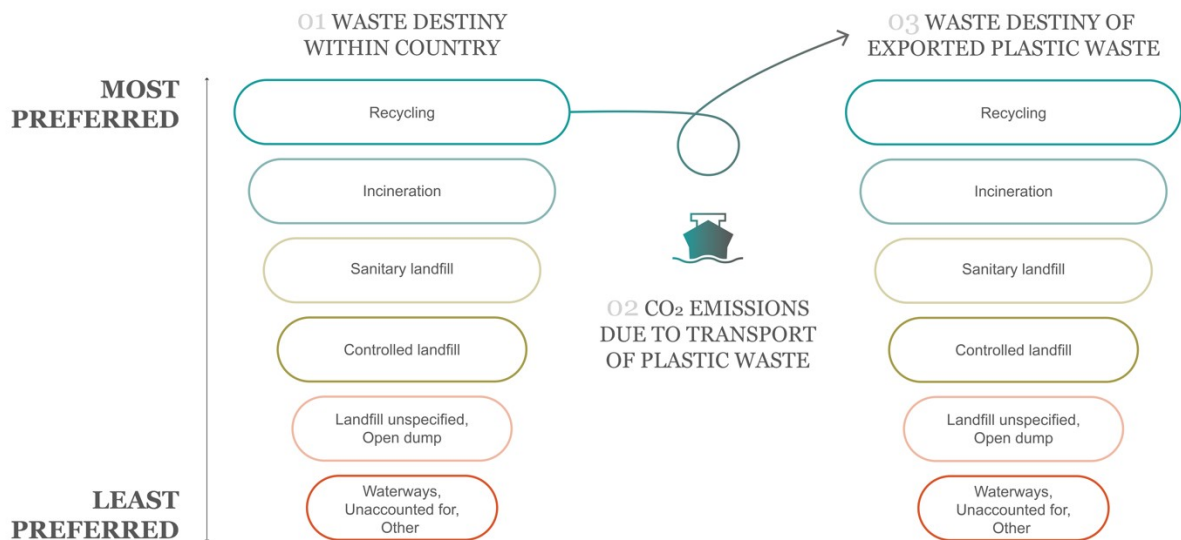
² <https://www.ban.org/plastic-waste-project-hub/trade-data/eu-export-data>

156 can improve the current circularity and sustainability indicators using the case examples from
 157 Norway and the USA. Finally, we discuss the limitations of the proposed indicator, possible
 158 barriers and opportunities in operationalizing SC.

159

160 **4. Small Circles Approach**

161 We argue that in developing a circular plastics economy that contributes to net global
 162 sustainability, the negative externalities caused by the export of plastic waste should be
 163 considered in circularity and sustainability targets. The current targets and indicators should
 164 include not only the destiny of the waste in the country it is generated but also the negative
 165 externalities caused by CO₂ emissions due to transport of the waste and the destiny of the
 166 plastic waste in the importing countries (**Figure 1, point 2 and point 3**).



167

168 **Figure 1:** The Three stages of evaluation that the Small Circles indicator includes: 1 the End-
 169 of-Life (EoL)management of plastic waste inland, 2 emissions from waste transport, and 3
 170 the EoL Management of plastic waste in the destination country.

171 As argued in section 2, the traditional indicator for circularity, the rate of recycling, inherits
 172 some shortcomings:

173 a) The environmental footprint of the transport of plastic waste is not included in the
174 traditional recycling rate calculations.

175 b) The recycling rate indicator does not provide a clear picture of the total material
176 recovered from the plastic waste generated.

177 Most of the transboundary export of plastic waste involves transport using trucks and sea
178 freight, increasing the environmental footprint (e.g., through increased CO₂ emissions) of the
179 plastic recycling systems. The export of waste between Europe and Asia generates
180 additional environmental and economic burdens if the Global Warming Potential (GWP) is
181 included due to additional CO₂ emissions and transport costs (Point 2, Figure 1). The
182 following equations represent the burden of GWP impacts and cost implications from the
183 traditional export (X_{TE}) and SC (X_{SC}) approach:

$$184 \quad X_{TE} = X_{recycling} + X_{transboundary\ export} + X_{inland\ transport}$$

$$185 \quad X_{SC} = X_{recycling} + X_{inland\ transport}$$

186 Here X in the environmental context represents CO₂ emissions and, in the economic context,
187 represents transport costs for each scenario. The mathematical representation shows the
188 additional effects of transboundary export arising in a traditional approach. These effects can
189 only be minimized when exporting regions reduce, reuse, and recycle plastic waste within the
190 region, making transboundary export distances to near zero (as seen from the X_{SC} equation).

191 Recycling rates vary according to which stakeholders in the plastics end-of-life (EoL) value
192 chain calculate them. For example, for waste management companies, the recycling rate is
193 understood as the ratio of waste segregated for recycling to the total waste generated. In
194 contrast, a recycling company considers the recycling rate as a ratio of total material recycled
195 to the total waste fed to the recycling plant (personal communication with recyclers within the
196 study by Deshpande et al., 2020). SC is in line with the latter and argues that the actual
197 recycling rate should be calculated as the overall ratio between all the waste generated and
198 the total material recycled at the recycling point.

199 The inability of including these aspects in estimating the recycling rate provides an
 200 incomplete picture of the circularity of the plastics value chains. Therefore, to realize the CE
 201 and sustainability goals, the SC approach advocates a new adjustment to the indicator on
 202 recycling rate that encompasses the total distance covered for transporting the segregated
 203 waste for recycling and the actual recycling rate based on reported or estimated data on
 204 secondary plastic raw material production. The proposed adjustments in the indicator are
 205 elaborated mathematically through the following equation, whereas the application of the
 206 equation is illustrated using three different case studies ranging from Norway and the USA.

207 *Circularity Indicator*

$$208 = \frac{\frac{\text{Material recovered from Recycling (t)}}{\text{Total waste collected (t)}}}{\frac{\text{Transport inland distance (km)} + \text{Transport export distance (km)}}{\text{Per unit distance transported (km)}}}$$

$$209 \text{Circularity Indicator} = \frac{M_R / M_{TW}}{T_{total}}$$

$$210 T_{total} = T_{inland} + T_{export}$$

211 Where, $T_{in} \geq 1$ km

212

213 **Table 1:** Calculating the circularity indicators for various waste management scenarios

<p>When $M_R=M_{TW}$ The SC indicator rewards the reuse of waste material as per the waste hierarchy. Accordingly, M_R and M_{TW} are approximately equal when all the generated waste material is reused (original purpose or different from the initial use). In equation 1, if we replace $M_R=M_{TW}$, the numerator equals 1, whereas the denominator remains the total distance transported for reusing, repurposing or recycling the waste. Therefore, the Circularity indicator can be calculated as:</p> $\text{Circularity indicator} = \frac{1}{T_{total}}$
<p>When $T_T=1$</p>

This circularity indicator promotes finding localized solutions for closing the material loops and thereby reducing waste recycling and treatment distances. The total distance includes the distance transported inland, and the distance travelled in transboundary export of the waste. When waste is treated and recycled at the point of origin, the total transport distance is less than 1 km, thereby making the denominator 1. Therefore, the circularity indicator can be estimated as:

$$\text{Circularity Indicator} = \frac{M_R / M_{Tw}}{1}$$

When $M_R=M_W$ and $T_t=1$

In the scenario where all the collected waste material is recycled, reused or repurposed at the point of collection without landfill and incineration worthy fractions, the circularity indicator shows unit values in both numerator and denominator. Such a case presents the complete circularity in the system with a maximum value of 1.

214

215 **4.1 Application of the circularity indicator**

216 This section presents the application of the circularity indicator on various regional case
217 studies for managing plastic waste. The case examples are used to illustrate the concept
218 presented in the SC approach.

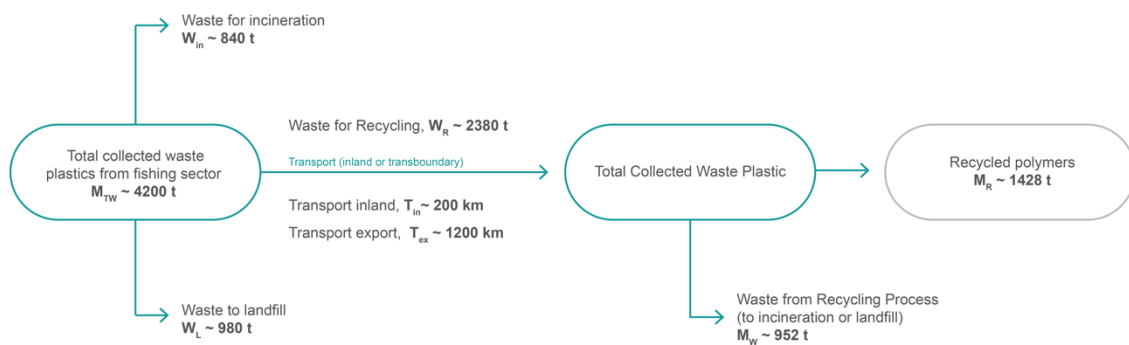
219 **Case-1: Plastic waste management from the fishing sector of Norway**

220 The study by Deshpande (2020) presents the case of plastic waste management from the
221 commercial fishing sector of Norway. The study found that the commercial fishing sector of
222 Norway generates around 4200 t (M_{Tw}) of waste plastic (PP, PE and PA), which is collected
223 at waste management companies (WMCs) in Norway. At the WMCs, the collected waste is
224 segregated based on its quality. About 51% of the collected waste fishing gears have
225 sufficient quality to be transported for further recycling. Interviews with waste managers and
226 site visits were used to collect information on the transport inland and export distances,
227 transportation mode, and the recycling efficiency of the recycling plant, including the typical
228 fate of the waste generated through the recycling process. **Figure 2** represents the typical
229 process flow diagram for end-of-life plastic, and associated values for internal and external
230 transport distances (T_{in} and T_{ex}), and material recovered from recycling (M_R) (adapted from

231 Deshpande et al. (2020)). Accordingly, the circularity indicator for the fishing sector of
 232 Norway can be calculated using the equation defined above as:

$$233 \quad \text{Circularity indicator}_{\text{fishing sector of Norway}} = \frac{1428/4200}{(200 + 1200)} = 2.4e - 4$$

234 The indicator value of 2.4e-4 highlights the need for systemic improvement in the handling
 235 and management of EoL plastic waste to ensure circularity. The circularity (indicator value ~
 236 1) can be attained through improved waste collection and separation of reusable worthy
 237 fractions, increase the amount of fishing nets that are segregated out for recycling and the
 238 development of localized recycling infrastructure to avoid transporting waste fractions.



239
 240 **Figure 2:** Case 1 illustrating the application of the SC indicator on recycling of fishing nets in
 241 Norway from collection, through transport, and recycling (modified from Deshpande, 2020).

242 **Case-2: Circularity of the proposed eco-industrial cluster for plastic in Norway**

243 Until 2017, industrial-scale recycling of plastic waste was unavailable in Norway.
 244 Consequently, the recyclable plastic material from fishing and aquaculture was sent out of
 245 Norway for mechanical recycling (Deshpande and Haskins, 2021). Industrial-scale recycling
 246 of plastic waste from the fishing and aquaculture sector began in Norway in the latter half of
 247 2017. Although recycling of plastic fractions from these industries began in Norway, a
 248 significant fraction of plastic waste was still sent abroad for further processing and recycling.

249 A semi-structured interview of a regional recycler in Norway concluded that the recycling
 250 efficiency is 60% and the capacity of handling waste is around 35% of total waste generated
 251 from the fishing sector of Norway. Therefore, it is assumed that 65% of total plastic waste
 252 from the Norwegian fishing is shipped to the other eastern European countries for further
 253 processing (Deshpande et al. 2020).

254 In this case, where the fraction of waste from a similar sector is collected and treated on-site,
 255 whereas the other fraction is exported for recycling, the circularity indicator is calculated
 256 using the weighted aggregate method.

257 *a) Collection and recycling of waste plastic in Norway*

258 Recycling capacity ~ 35% and Recycling efficiency ~ 60%

259 Total Waste = 4200 t and treated in Norway ~ 1500 t

260 Recycled material = $0.6 * 1500 = 900$ t

261 $T_T = T_{in} = 150$ km (as export distance is 0)

262
$$Circularity\ indicator_1 = \frac{900/1500}{150} = 4e - 3$$

263

264 *b) Fraction of waste sent for recycling*

265 $T_T = T_{in} + T_{ex} = 1400$ km adapted from Deshpande et al. (2020)

266 Total material sent = $4200 - 1500 = 2700$ t

267 Assuming the same recycling efficiency, recycled material = $0.6 * 2700 = 1620$ t

268
$$Circularity\ indicator_2 = \frac{1620/2700}{1400} = 4.28e - 4$$

269 Therefore, the total circularity of the system can be estimated using a weighted average as

270
$$Circularity\ indicator_{total} = 0.35 * CI_1 + 0.65 * CI_2 = 1.66e - 3$$

271 Comparing the indicator value with Case-1 shows that improving local capacity to handle
272 waste improves the circularity significantly. However, due to the relatively low capacity to
273 manage waste inland, there is still room for improvement.

274

275 **Case-3: Plastic waste management in the United States**

276 After China banned all plastic scrap imports, other countries in South-East Asia experienced
277 a massive spike in importing plastic waste. Malaysia alone experiences a tripling of imported
278 waste PE from the US in 2017. According to the report presented by Greenpeace Malaysia
279 (2018), Malaysia imported 195,445 mT of plastic waste from the US from January to July
280 2018 alone, compared to 97,544 mT for January to November 2017. Furthermore, the recent
281 reports suggest that only 9% of the plastic segregated and sent from high-income countries
282 was recycled, while the faith of most of the plastic waste is unknown. Therefore, to estimate
283 the circularity indicator of plastic waste export from the US to Malaysia, the following values
284 are obtained from Law et al. (2020) and Greenpeace Malaysia (2018).

$$285 \quad M_{TW} = 195445 \text{ mT}$$

$$286 \quad MR = 0.09 * 195445 = 17590 \text{ mT}$$

$$287 \quad TT = T_{in} + T_{ex} = 250 + 13,750 = 14000 \text{ km (distances are assumed in km)}$$

288

$$289 \quad \textit{Circularity indicator} = \frac{17590 / 195445}{14000} = 6.42e - 6$$

290 Therefore, the current circularity of the plastic waste management system between the US
291 and Malaysia or any other South-Asian country is estimated to be far below the true
292 circularity. Such low indicator values indicate of an urgent need for improved material
293 recycling, preferably in the country of origin.

294

295 **4.2 Realizing Circularity through SC approach**

296 Apart from the circularity indicator, the SC approach highlights the need to estimate the GWP
297 potential arising from the extensive transport of waste fractions. These transport-related CO₂
298 emissions can be estimated based on distance travelled using waste trade data (Kaza et al.
299 2018), type of transportation used, and the cargo's size, given assumptions regarding various
300 factors such as fuel efficiency. The lack of transparency in waste trade makes it more
301 challenging to calculate the actual recycling rate in importing countries. However, some
302 simple assumptions can be made based on the existing data. Data on the destiny of waste
303 for different countries are available through the World Bank's database (Kaza et al. 2018),
304 where waste treatment data is reported according to 11 categories: open dump, landfill
305 unspecified, controlled landfill, sanitary landfill, recycling, composting, anaerobic digestion,
306 incineration, waterways, other and unaccounted for (Kaza et al. 2018). This data has been
307 used to create global statistics on the destination of waste in terms of how much waste ends
308 up in different quality landfills versus recycling, composting, and incineration (Kaza et al.
309 2018). Given a lack of transparency with respect to waste destiny in different countries, it can
310 be assumed that the imported waste follows the same destiny as reported in the waste
311 statistics of the World Bank. For example, if a large proportion of the plastic waste produced
312 domestically ends up in landfills, the same destiny can be assumed for imported plastic
313 waste. The waste treatment data can be organized according to the principles of the waste
314 pyramid to rate the destiny of the plastic waste from "*most preferred*" to "*least preferred*"
315 (Figure 1). If waste is exported for recycling to a country with a high proportion of its waste
316 ending up in the "least preferred" categories, this will be considered when estimating the
317 plastics recycling rate in the country of origin.

318

319 **4.3 Limitations of the SC approach**

320 We acknowledge the limitations caused by the lack of data on trade patterns and the final
321 destinations of plastic waste³, as many of the countries importing waste are also waste
322 exporters. Germany, for example, imports waste for recycling but is also one of the leading
323 waste exporters globally (Hsu et al., 2021). Furthermore, the calculations by Law et al (2020)
324 illustrate the complexity of assumptions to be made. They make assumptions linking the level
325 of income to the destiny of waste reported as "landfill unspecified" and the likely destiny of
326 different plastic types. Further insight into how the SC indicator should be calculated will be
327 gained by testing and challenging these assumptions.

328 The proposed SC indicator provides a new approach to calculate the circularity of a selected
329 waste type. However, the indicator requires robust data that are currently not widely available
330 due to lack of data collection in waste management. Additionally, the means of transport vary
331 between waste exports (mainly sea freight) and inland transport (mainly transport by road
332 and railroad). The heterogeneity in travel modes makes it challenging to estimate the actual
333 value of transport distance. Another limitation of the indicator is that it only accounts for the
334 physical distance waste is transported before its final treatment, failing to include the
335 technical feasibility and sustainability of the waste treatment process. Although there are
336 shortcomings in the proposed SC indicator, we believe that the approach can contribute to
337 improving sustainability indicators and focus on the need for systems thinking when
338 developing circular economy strategies and solutions. We hope the SC indicator will pave the
339 way to coordinated science and technology efforts in achieving improved circularity and
340 waste management.

341

342 **5. Discussion**

343 Regardless of the potential shortcomings in data availability and capturing the complexity of
344 the waste trade, the adjusted indicator includes significant environmental burdens from the

³ <https://comtrade.un.org/>

345 transboundary export of waste plastic. However, there are potential challenges to SC
346 implementation. At the same time, some significant opportunities may be lost if SC is not
347 operationalized in the regions generating significant volumes of waste.

348

349 **5.1 Challenges to realizing the Small Circles approach**

350 The relatively high cost of domestic recycling has been a significant driver behind the export
351 of plastic waste to lower-income countries (Xu et al. 2020). The global plastic waste trade
352 has provided jobs in importing countries, but in some cases at high environmental costs, as
353 reflected by import bans (Xu et al. 2020; Zhao et al. 2021). Most high-income countries have
354 high recycling targets and high labour costs, resulting in economic incentives to send plastic
355 to lower-income countries for recycling (INTERPOL 2020). Even the countries lacking
356 ambitious recycling targets export a significant share of their plastic waste due to the market
357 value of waste plastics as raw material (INTERPOL 2020). In addition, the high volume of
358 traded goods between OECD countries and Asia incentivizes waste trade further. Keeping
359 prices low for European companies to export to Asia is in the interest of shipping lines, as the
360 alternative is to return containerships to Asia without cargo (INTERPOL 2020). Over the last
361 decades, these dynamics have created robust trade patterns, including plastic waste trade
362 between OECD countries and Asia. Currently, exporting waste plastics to Asia from Europe
363 may be cheaper than recycling the materials within the region. Thus, there is no adequate
364 financial or regulatory pressure forcing the niche of capacity building for localized handling
365 and management of generated waste.

366 SC advocates the need for localized infrastructure to handle and manage generated waste
367 volumes within the region. However, due to established supply chains exporting waste to low
368 or middle-income countries, the recycling sector remains underdeveloped and immature in
369 the EU and OECD regions (Xu et al., 2020). An analysis of plastic waste management from
370 the Norwegian fishing sector illustrates some of the challenges of implementing more local

371 recycling (Deshpande et al., 2020). The realization of SC needs good knowledge on material
372 flows, amounts of waste types generated within the region, facilities dedicated to the
373 collection, segregation, cleaning, and sorting of the waste types, supply chains transporting
374 the waste from origin to the waste management companies, and finally dedicated facilities to
375 recycle the waste fractions through best available technology. An analysis of these factors for
376 the case of Norway concludes that currently, Norway cannot treat and manage the 4000 t of
377 plastic waste generated from commercial fishing in the region annually (Deshpande et al.,
378 2020). As seen with the implementation of China's NSP, policies hindering waste export risk
379 diverting plastic waste from recycling to landfills and incineration, as there is a lack of
380 facilities in Europe to treat this waste locally (Xu et al 2020). After the Chinese ban, however,
381 some European countries started investing in new technologies to allow efficient sorting and
382 washing of plastics (Barnes 2019). Thus, local recycling or other circular economy solutions
383 must be developed to contribute to the SC philosophy after an initial time lag.

384 The current plastics recycling systems have developed over several decades. Challenging
385 them requires detachment from path dependency and technological lock-ins (Korhonen et al.
386 2018). Although localized efforts to recycle and manage plastic waste seem the preferred
387 alternative within a CE strategy, this shift demands creative decision making across the value
388 chain actors. However, most businesses tend to be risk-averse and avoid venturing into
389 unknown futures (Korhonen et al., 2018). A systems approach focusing on reducing the
390 production of plastics, the increase of plastics recycling, and the demand for secondary
391 plastics as the primary raw material for new products is needed to develop sustainable
392 circular economies (Korhonen et al 2018). Wen et al. (2021) voiced the need for coherent
393 policy incentives and monetary investments for managing waste locally. The barriers of initial
394 higher investments for capacity building in realizing SC could be resolved through coherent
395 partnerships with regulatory, societal, and industrial actors.

396 Although realizing SC may demand immediate pressure on the economy, we argue that in
397 the long term, investing in SC approach may provide several benefits to the regions and

398 operationalizing SC should be considered as a “Disruptive technology” (Bower and
399 Christensen, 1995).

400

401 **5.2 Opportunities of the Small Circles Concept**

402 While data availability and the complexity of the waste trade is a limitation to correctly
403 calculating an SC waste management indicator, implementation of such an indicator would
404 make the actual cost of plastic waste export more apparent. Implementing the SC indicator
405 could incentivize the industry and regulators to improve the transparency of plastic waste
406 exports. Transparency of the fate of exported waste could be considered an essential
407 responsibility of the exporting nation. Realizing the SC approach could also reduce the
408 negative externalities of exported waste on importing countries.

409 SC is in line with the European Strategy for Plastics in a Circular Economy of increasing
410 plastic recycling rates (European commission 2018b). Currently, less than 30% of plastic
411 waste generated in the EU is collected for recycling, a significant share of which is exported
412 to lower-income countries with varying environmental standards. The European Strategy
413 signals high ambitions for recycling plastic waste within the EU boundaries, supported by the
414 goal; “*the export of poorly sorted plastics waste has been phased out*”, in addition to “*By*
415 *2030, all plastics packaging placed on the European market is either reusable or can be*
416 *recycled in a cost-effective manner*”, and “*By 2030, more than half of all plastics are to be*
417 *recycled, and the recycling capacity is to be increased and modernized*”. Furthermore, in
418 2019, a single-use plastics (SUPs) and fishing gear directive was introduced to eliminate the
419 10 most found SUPs from the European market and extend the producer responsibility
420 (EPR) for fishing gear to reduce the leakage of abandoned, lost, or otherwise discarded
421 fishing gear into the environment.

422 The EU’s aim for more cost-efficient recycling and modernizing recycling facilities could
423 make recycling more economically viable at a regional level. The benefits of increased

424 recycling capacity are also underlined by the 200 000 new jobs that can be created in the
425 recycling industry in Europe by 2030 (EC, 2018). More ambitious and coordinated EPR
426 policies, including the whole lifecycle of plastic products, from cradle to cradle, could
427 contribute to a more circular plastics economy in Europe (Leal Filho et al. 2019). An efficient
428 EPR scheme that includes regulations regarding transboundary waste trade could assist in
429 developing, promoting, and regulating coherent strategies that minimize waste generation
430 and further ensure total disclosure of environmental burdens of exporting waste.

431 Local solutions may also include opportunities for eco-industrial networks, creating new
432 industrial sectors to utilize recycled material through innovative circular business models.
433 The transboundary export of waste, on the other hand, hinders local attempts to develop
434 sophisticated EoL value chains for material recovery and recycling (Deshpande and Haskins,
435 2021). Eco-industrial networks, also known as industrial symbiosis, provide a systemic
436 theoretical foundation, where waste from one sector could be processed and used as a raw
437 material in other industrial sectors (Chertow, 2007). Realizing SC within the region provides
438 several opportunities to establish new industrial symbiotic relations, improving the resource
439 efficiency and self-reliance of the collaborating sectors. An example of such value capture is
440 the mechanical recycling of plastic polymers PP, PE and PA generated from EoL fishing
441 gears and ropes in Norway, which results in the production of HDPE and LDPE polymers
442 upon recycling. These recycled polymers are then successfully used in injection moulding
443 technologies by various plastic industries in the Nordic region (Deshpande and Haskins,
444 2021). Another example is the attempt to use EoL products from the Norwegian fishing
445 sector as raw material in brackets and walkways used by the aquaculture sector in the
446 region. The interviews with the plastic industry managers conducted by Vildåsen (2018)
447 revealed that cost-cutting and reduced environmental impacts, together with localized value
448 creation, are motivating the Norwegian plastic industries to aim for localized strategies for CE
449 that are in line with the SC approach.

450 Realizing such symbiotic relationships within a region needs systemic transformation of
451 'doing business' and building partnerships among the various stakeholders within the region.
452 The opportunities of capturing value from waste through local circular solutions are not new.
453 Lowe and Evans (1995) illustrate how industrial parks or regions can benefit from each other
454 through a web of interaction among companies, where energy and materials flow between
455 different industries. The concept is defined explicitly for cities by Van Berkel et al. (2009) and
456 elaborated by several authors (Prendeville et al., 2018, Williams, 2019, Zeller et al., 2019) by
457 exemplifying localized solutions to metabolize waste generated in the cities. If waste plastic
458 is exported out of the region, the region misses the opportunity to earn and retain economic
459 benefits from material and energy recovery (Deshpande et al., 2020). Currently, only 11% of
460 the recycled plastic materials return to the European market as secondary materials (Hsu et
461 al. 2021). SC may promote localized closed-loop systems, thereby increasing the retainment
462 and reuse of the recycled material. The current export of waste diminishes the need and
463 incentive to capture the value of waste through recycling technologies.

464 The availability and improvement in local recycling capacity in high-income countries could
465 also reduce the region's dependency on the global waste trade. This self-reliance on waste
466 management would detach the region from complex socio-political changes driving the waste
467 trade. The Chinese NSP proved how dependency on a single importer makes the exporters
468 vulnerable to market changes in the importing country (Brooks et al. 2018). The importance
469 of the flexibility of value chains and self-reliance was also highlighted during the Covid-19
470 pandemic when the accessibility of plastic raw materials was weakened between Asian and
471 Norwegian actors (Deshpande and Haskins 2021).

472 The export of plastic waste from the significant plastic waste-producing regions motivates the
473 increase in plastic consumption by creating artificially cleaner environments (Barnes 2019).
474 The call for greater control over plastics' EoL solutions in the SC approach places the
475 responsibility of the plastic waste on those creating it (e.g. polluter pays principle), potentially
476 affecting the way plastics are consumed in these regions. Simon et al. (2021) highlight the

477 need to shift the focus from downstream solutions for plastics to upstream solutions, to
478 reduce the negative impacts caused by mismanaged plastics. However, recycling methods
479 need to be assessed for their sustainability to create sustainable, circular plastic economies
480 where recycled materials replace virgin plastic materials. Therefore, the SC approach
481 complements the much-needed efforts higher up in the waste pyramid, which is where we
482 need to move to secure a more sustainable plastics consumption (Barnes 2019).

483

484 **6. Conclusions and future prospects**

485 To incentivize long-term, sustainable solutions to mismanaged plastic waste, we argue that
486 physical distance should be included as an indicator in plastics recycling targets.

487 Implementation of a Small Circle (SC) indicator accounting for physical distance transported
488 by waste material before being recycled or recovered provides the holistic coverage of the
489 circular economy and sustainability targets, which again secures more sustainable
490 management of waste, both environmentally, socially, and economically. We argue that the
491 SC approach has the potential to improve the net global sustainability of waste management
492 through a reduction of negative externalities, such as emission from transports, leakage of
493 waste into the environment, and adverse health and environmental consequences of waste
494 trade in the importing regions. The implementation of the SC approach may demand high
495 initial investment costs due to the restructuring of value chains and establishment of
496 improved coordination of stakeholder actions throughout the product life cycle.

497 To prove the principles and conceptual setting of the SC approach, case studies of plastic
498 waste management was presented. As for all case study research, some of the findings are
499 general and applicable elsewhere, whereas others are more specific and need contextual
500 interventions before adopting them. Still, we believe that the indicator can be widely applied
501 to account for the environmental costs of the current waste trade, incentivise local CE
502 solutions and improved transparency of the recycling value chain. However, to develop

503 strategies for circularity within the limits of sustainability, sector-specific research is needed
504 to generate evidence on mass flows of wastes from the specific regions. The feasibility of
505 recycling and recovery strategies should be studied to ensure agreement with the laws of
506 thermodynamics. The strategies for handling and managing waste must then be designed in
507 collaboration with local stakeholders to ensure optimal implementation of the SC concept.
508 Finally, we argue that the SC approach must be treated as a destructive technology to
509 approach the circular economy. When implemented appropriately, the SC concept can bring
510 several societal benefits, sourcing from e.g., eco-industrial partnerships, job creation,
511 resource conservation and waste minimization, reduced dependence on imported and virgin
512 raw materials, as well as increased innovation in design within smaller geographical areas.

513

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519

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