

Tracking the global generation and exports of e-waste. Do existing estimates add up?

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Abstract

The transport of discarded electronic and electrical appliances (e-waste) to developing regions has received considerable attention, but it is difficult to assess the significance of this issue without a quantitative understanding of the amounts involved. The main objective of this study is to track the global transport of e-wastes by compiling and constraining existing estimates of the amount of e-waste generated domestically in each country M_{GEN} , exported from countries belonging to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) M_{EXP} , and imported in countries outside of the OECD M_{IMP} . Reference year is 2005 and all estimates are given with an uncertainty range. Estimates of M_{GEN} obtained by apportioning a global total of ~35,000 kt (range 20,000-50,000 kt) based on a nation's gross domestic product agree well with independent estimates of M_{GEN} for individual countries. Import estimates M_{IMP} to the countries believed to be the major recipients of e-waste exports from the OECD globally (China, India and five West African countries) suggests that ~5,000 kt (3,600 kt - 7,300 kt) may have been imported annually to these non-OECD countries alone, which represents ~23% (17% - 34%) of the amounts of e-waste generated domestically within the OECD. M_{EXP} for each OECD country is then estimated by applying this fraction of 23% to its M_{GEN} . By allocating each country's M_{GEN} , M_{IMP} , M_{EXP} and $M_{\text{NET}} = M_{\text{GEN}} + M_{\text{IMP}} - M_{\text{EXP}}$, we can map the global generation and flows of e-waste from OECD to non-OECD countries. While significant uncertainties remain, we note that estimated import into seven non-OECD countries alone are often at the higher end of estimates of exports from OECD countries.

33 1. Introduction

34

35 Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment (WEEE) and e-waste are the two more frequently used terms
36 for discarded devices and appliances that use electricity. According to Robinson,¹ e-waste refers to
37 discarded electronic goods (e.g., computers, mobile telephones), whereas WEEE additionally includes
38 non-electronic appliances (e.g., refrigerators, air conditioning units, washing machines). A clear-cut
39 distinction between e-waste and WEEE is difficult, if nothing else because of the increasing use of
40 electronics (e.g., microprocessors) in electrical equipment.¹ By 2005, the United Nations Environmental
41 Program (UNEP) estimated that the volume of e-waste was anticipated to increase by a minimum of 3-
42 5% per year, which is nearly three times faster than the growth of municipal waste.²

43 The trade and transport of used electrical and electronic equipment (UEEE) and/or e-waste from
44 developed to developing regions has received considerable attention.e.g. ^{3, 4, 5} The debate is often
45 fuelled by the duality of the potential economic and environmental benefits versus the potential risks to
46 environmental and human health posed by discarded and exported EEE. Viewed in a positive light, it has
47 been argued that the international trade and donations of used electronic equipment facilitates an
48 opportunity to bridge the so-called “digital divide”, i.e. the disparity between the adoption of
49 information and communications technology (ICT) in developed and developing regions.⁶ Secondly,
50 export of UEEE and e-waste to less affluent regions also represents a reallocation of resources as
51 repairable equipment, spare parts, raw materials and valuable metals (e.g. Copper), which generate
52 substantial post-consumption economic activity.^{7,8, 9} Retrieval of metals from e-waste in developing
53 regions may also be environmentally beneficial as it reduces the need for primary extraction of metals
54 from mining ores¹⁰, while reuse of second-hand and refurbished EEE in developing countries has the
55 potential to extend the life-time of products by reducing the rate of turnover in comparison to
56 developed countries.⁴

57 E-waste is among the most complex and persistent of any wastes generated, which makes
58 environmentally sound management labour intensive and therefore expensive in countries with high
59 labour costs. Environmental regulation and enforcement in developing countries with lower labour costs
60 is often too weak to assure environmentally sound management of e-waste.¹¹ Informal dismantling and
61 recycling activities, however, increase the propensity for environmental releases of many hazardous
62 substances from EEE^{1, 12, 13} (e.g., metals¹⁴⁻¹⁶, halogenated flame retardants¹⁷⁻¹⁹, polychlorinated biphenyls
63 ^{20, 21}), relative to when the product is intact⁴ or disposed in well managed waste streams.¹⁰ The
64 transboundary movement of e-waste may even represent a significant vector for the (long-range)
65 transport of toxic contaminants embedded in these products, which thus far appears to have been
66 largely ignored in studies of global emissions, fate and transport of contaminants.²¹ For example, it has
67 been estimated that the import of PBDEs via e-wastes into China exceeds domestic production of
68 brominated flame retardants by a factor of 3.5.²² Finally, informal dismantling and recycling activities,
69 such as open combustion, may lead to *de novo* synthesis of toxic compounds, such as various
70 halogenated dioxins^{23, 24} and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs)²⁵, adding to the toxic burden.²⁶
71 Overall, discarded EEE represent both potential value and toxic waste^{27, 28} which, according to NGOs, has
72 left poor informal recycling communities with “an untenable choice between poverty and poison”.³

73 Numerous studies and reviews on e-waste are largely restricted to reporting scattered data on e-waste
74 generation, exports and/or imports, with very few attempts to critically assess whether export and
75 import estimates are reasonable and consistent. As a result, our quantitative understanding of
76 transboundary movements of e-waste remains limited.²⁹ A notable exception is the study by Lepawsky
77 and McNabb²⁸ who explored data from the COMTRADE database on licit trade of waste batteries and
78 accumulators between 2001 and 2006. A key finding was that the global trade is not merely about
79 exports of wastes from developed to developing regions, but that a significant part of the trade occurs
80 intra-regionally. However, the authors recognized that their study merely addressed a single licit trade
81 data category, which is neither representative of illicit transports nor other categories of e-waste. More
82 recently, Zoeteman et al.³⁰ developed a tentative global inventory, including export-import matrices (or
83 “source-receptor relationships”) for four out of ten e-waste categories as defined by the European WEEE
84 Directive.³¹ While this represents a valuable step forward, their budget was restricted to defined regions
85 rather than individual countries and contained limited attempts to evaluate the uncertainty of the
86 resulting estimates.

87 The main objective of this study is to present a consistent mass balance of the global generation and
88 movement of e-waste from OECD to non-OECD countries based on the compilation and analysis of
89 existing data. We will restrict our analysis to data reflecting the middle of the last decade (reference
90 year 2005) because of the enhanced availability of data in recent years, and focus on the uncertainties in
91 the resulting mass balance. We believe that this quantitative approach will facilitate identification of
92 some of the more critical knowledge gaps and offer a more nuanced perspective on the transboundary
93 flows of e-waste to developing regions.

94

95 **2 Methods**

96 **2.1 E-waste and WEEE**

97 Due to the lack of a universal definition of e-waste and WEEE, we will consider (total) e-waste or WEEE
98 as the sum of the ten categories reflected in the European WEEE Directive unless specified otherwise.
99 Table S1 in the Supporting Information lists these ten categories and examples of equipment and
100 products within each. These data may also serve as a reference to get an approximate idea about total
101 tonnage of e-waste that could be anticipated whenever the scope of studies referred to is restricted to
102 one or a few categories of e-waste alone.

103 **2.2 Mass balance**

104 The main objective was three-fold: (i) to estimate the amount of e-waste generated by countries for the
105 reference year 2005 (2.2.1), (ii) to estimate the amount exported from OECD to non-OECD countries
106 (2.2.2), and (iii) to map the global generation and movement of e-waste (2.2.3). The chosen static mass
107 balance (or mass flow) approach was deliberately simple to facilitate transparency and comparability
108 with available independent data.

109 The net amount (M_{NET} in kt) of e-waste (with imports and exports as gain and loss terms, respectively)
110 processed annually in any given country is calculated as

111 $M_{NET} = M_{GEN} + M_{IMP} - M_{EXP}$ [Equation 1]

112 where M_{GEN} is the amount of e-waste generated domestically by its own population, M_{IMP} and M_{EXP} are
113 the amounts of e-waste imported to and exported from the country. As we are interested in quantifying
114 the amounts of e-waste exported to developing regions, we only quantify transports between OECD and
115 non-OECD countries while transboundary movement of e-waste within a given region is ignored. To the
116 best of our knowledge, there is no significant export of e-waste from non-OECD to OECD. In other
117 words, M_{IMP} is considered to be zero for OECD countries and M_{EXP} to be zero for non-OECD countries.
118 Accordingly, Equation 1 simplifies to $M_{NET} = M_{GEN} - M_{EXP}$ for OECD countries while $M_{NET} = M_{GEN} + M_{IMP}$ for
119 those non-OECD countries which are implicated as recipients of e-wastes from OECD. Furthermore, we
120 do not aim to distinguish between licit and illicit flows of e-waste, but focus on the quantities alone.

121 *2.2.1 Domestic generation*

122 It is difficult to rationalize export and import estimates if not considered within the wider context of the
123 amounts of e-waste generated both domestically and globally. The first task was to estimate the annual
124 generation of e-waste by country in 2005. One way to do this would be to compile historical data
125 compiled by individual countries and jurisdictions through a bottom-up approach. However, compiling a
126 global inventory of the annually generated amounts of e-waste from national data is difficult because,
127 typically, data from different countries and jurisdictions are not coherently defined. For example, most
128 studies carried out in North America tend to restrict the scope of e-waste to electronics alone while, in
129 Europe, e-waste comprises both electrical and electronic equipment as reflected in the EU WEEE
130 Directive.^{31, 32} In many countries estimates of the historical generation of e-waste are also often not
131 available or incomplete.³³

132 Instead, we have chosen a top-down approach, whereby an estimate for the global generation of e-
133 waste is distributed among countries using surrogate data, to ensure a comparable and consistent
134 scenario. Our point of departure is the frequently cited estimate by UNEP from 2005 which states that
135 *every year, 20 to 50 million tonnes of electrical and electronic equipment waste (“e-waste”) are*
136 *generated world-wide.*² We explore the average of this estimate (35,000 kt per year) as our default for
137 the globally generated amount of e-waste, with 20,000 and 50,000 kt per year as our lower and upper
138 bound estimates, respectively. We note that this estimate is not universally accepted as Robinson¹
139 suggested that the global e-waste production is at the lower end of this range.

140 In order to distribute the global estimate to individual nations, we took advantage of the often tight
141 relationship observed between the generation of e-waste and key economic indicators, such as gross
142 domestic product (GDP)^{1, 34} which has given rise to the notion that e-waste is the *“effluent by the*
143 *affluent”*.³ The tight relationship is exemplified in Figure S1, which plots the total number of cell phone
144 subscriptions as a function of Gross Domestic Product (GDP), weighted for Purchasing Power Parity
145 (PPP), based on statistical data for the year 2005.³⁵ GDP (PPP) as of 2005 was used as a proxy for
146 distributing the UNEP estimate by country.

147 **2.2.2 Imports and exports**

148 A lack of reliable and relevant activity data, rooted in the often illicit nature of transboundary waste
149 flows, makes it virtually impossible to accurately quantify the amount of e-waste exported from the
150 OECD.¹ Such lack of knowledge may lead to significant underestimates of actual e-waste exports, and of
151 illegal exports in particular, if one chooses a forward approach. An inverse approach was therefore
152 selected, where data on national imports of e-waste to non-OECD countries (M_{IMP}) are collected and
153 analyzed first. In the specific case of China for which more detailed data are available, the national
154 estimate is derived from constraining data on amounts treated in major e-waste areas along with data
155 on the number of workers involved in these regions and for China as a whole. The national import data
156 are in turn compared with data or estimates on e-waste exports for OECD countries. In the latter case,
157 export estimates (M_{EXP}) are typically derived as

158
$$M_{EXP} = M_{GEN} * f_{COL} * f_{EXP} \quad \text{[Equation 2]}$$

159 where f_{COL} is the fraction of the annual amount of e-waste generated which is collected for recycling,
160 while f_{EXP} refers to the fraction collected for recycling which is exported to non-OECD countries rather
161 than handled domestically. Data on f_{COL} and f_{EXP} were compiled from the literature. The fraction f_{COL} is a
162 key consideration and can vary substantially among different categories of e-waste, as initiatives to
163 promote collection and recycling are implemented over time.

164 **2.2.3 Uncertainties and limitations**

165 While our mass balance approach is deliberately simplistic, reflecting the lack of more accurate and
166 reliable data, it has the advantage of generating estimates for M_{GEN} , M_{IMP} and M_{EXP} that can be
167 compared with independent estimates from the literature. Our overall approach was designed to
168 facilitate an evaluation of the consistency of estimates for M_{GEN} , M_{EXP} and M_{IMP} . Uncertainties in our top-
169 down estimates of M_{GEN} can be evaluated through comparison with independently derived estimates of
170 M_{GEN} , while independently derived estimates of M_{IMP} and M_{EXP} can be compared against each other.
171 Whenever feasible, we present our own estimates as numerical ranges with default, maximum and
172 minimum values, rather than as discrete and definitive numbers. The resulting estimates are all included
173 in the SI to facilitate transparency and additional scrutiny.

174 As this study merely attempts to develop and discuss a static budget for the generation and
175 transboundary movements of e-waste for the reference year 2005, it implies that certain dynamic
176 features of the system we are assessing are ignored, i.e. potential delays between the generation of e-
177 waste and actual disposal and recycling.e.g. ^{34, 36} An example is the temporary storage of e-waste by
178 households, such as discarded cell phones and PCs in attics and basements.³⁷ Given the scattered data
179 available on imports and exports of e-wastes in particular, data used for construction of the mass
180 balance or comparisons herein are not necessarily reflecting our chosen reference year, but may refer to
181 any year of the last decade.

182 3 Results and discussion

183 3.1 Generation of e-waste

184 M_{GEN} estimates for 182 countries based on a total global M_{GEN} of 35,000 kt per year, including upper and
185 lower bound estimates, are presented in Table S2. In order to evaluate whether our top-down estimates
186 for domestic generation of e-waste are reasonable, we compare our estimates with independently
187 derived data for selected countries in Figure S2. We conclude that while it is often difficult to compare
188 our top-down estimates with independent data as the latter may include a limited number of e-waste
189 categories and/or different years, the evaluation indicates that (i) the average UNEP estimate of 35,000
190 kt/yr for global annual production of e-wastes in 2005 is generally supported by a comparison with
191 independent data (Fig. 1), and (ii) GDP (PPP) can serve as a suitable proxy for distributing this number to
192 individual countries. While there might be more accurate data available for individual countries and
193 years than those considered herein, we are fairly confident that the “big picture” is captured in these
194 top-down estimates, both in terms of overall amounts and their spatial distribution. As the empirical
195 basis used for comparison in Figure S2 is limited, further refinement or optimization of our top-down
196 estimate does not seem justified. In the following, the analysis and comparison of imports and exports
197 with generated amounts will therefore reflect the average UNEP estimate (35,000 kt per year) as the
198 basis for further evaluations.

199 3.2 Imports to non-OECD countries

200 While the analysis above indicates that our overall quantitative understanding of the generation of
201 WEEE and its global distribution is reasonable, data on transboundary movements of WEEE across the
202 globe are much more scarce and fragmented. Previous estimates of transboundary flows are also
203 difficult to compare as data refer to different years, sub-categories of e-wastes etc. Nevertheless, as
204 there are both independent estimates of imports and exports available, it is possible to assess whether
205 our estimates and these existing estimates are consistent. We therefore start by summarizing available
206 data on imports (to non-OECD countries), followed by derivation of our own estimates of exports,
207 before trying to constrain and map the budget for transboundary movements of e-waste.

208 3.3.1 China

209 China is generally considered the largest importer and recycler of e-waste not only within Asia,³⁸ but
210 globallye.g. ^{11,39} and several focussed studies or reviews on e-waste in China have been published.^{10,39-42}
211 E-waste imported to China is reported to arrive from US, Europe and other parts of the world⁴³ and
212 Guiyu (GY), Qingyuan (QY), and Taizhou (TZ) are implicated as major e-waste recycling areas within
213 China.⁴⁴

214 **Guiyu** (23.3 N, 116.3 E) in the Chaoyang district, Shantou prefecture, Guangdong Province, South-
215 Eastern China⁴⁵ has been claimed to be the major e-waste recycling site in China.⁴⁶ A large number of
216 studies have been carried out in GY,¹³ which has been receiving and recycling e-wastes since 1995,⁴⁷
217 purportedly from countries such as US and Japan.²⁵ It was reported that 550 kt of e-waste was
218 processed in GY in 2004,⁴⁸ while other studies report that more than 1,000 kt of e-waste⁴⁹ or even
219 discarded computers alone⁴⁵ is handled each year. Higher numbers have also been reported, ranging
220 from 1,700 kt in 2007⁵⁰ and up to thousands of kilotons of domestically generated and imported e-

221 wastes each year.^{51,52} The estimated number of workers involved in dismantling or processing e-wastes
222 in GY varies from 30,000 – 40,000⁵³ to ~100,000¹³ and even up to 160,000.⁵⁰ For the mass balance, we
223 have adopted the median value of 1,350 kt/yr as our default M_{IMP} estimate for GY with ranges as
224 presented in Table 1.

225 **Qingyuan** (23.4 N, 113.1 E), located approximately 50 km north of Guangzhou, is considered the second
226 largest recycling area for e-waste in Guangdong Province, Southern China.^{44,54} According to Hu et al.,⁵⁵
227 e-waste recycling has a history of more than three decades, involving approximately 1,000 recycling
228 sites and more than 50,000 workers, while Luo et al.⁵⁶ suggest that 80,000 workers are involved in
229 dismantling and recycling within the two administrative towns, Longtang (TOC art) and Shijao. Estimated
230 amounts of e-waste handled in QY varies from approximately 700 kt/yr¹⁹ to 1,000 kt/yr⁵⁵ and up to
231 1,700 kt/yr,⁵⁶ and includes computers, printers, cables, TVs, transformers and other electrical equipment
232 with most e-waste originating from overseas.¹⁹

233 **Taizhou** is located in the Zhejiang Province, East China (~28.5°N, ~121.5°E²⁰), with Luqiao and Fengjiang
234 among the major hubs. About 40,000 workers are said to be involved with 90% of the wastes originating
235 mainly from Japan, the US, Western Europe and Russia.^{57,58} Other studies claim that as many as 50,000
236 workers are involved in dismantling activities in TZ.⁵⁹ The total amount of e-waste handled was 1,690 kt
237 in 2005 and increased to 2,630 kt in 2009, according to Fu et al.,⁶⁰ while a study published in 2007 states
238 that more than 2,200 kt of e-waste was being dismantled.⁵⁷ Recycling of transformers, capacitors and
239 printed circuit boards has been conducted since the late 1970s / early 1980s in TZ^{20, 60, 61} while
240 computers, cables, cell phones, TVs, refrigerators and other domestic appliances have been imported
241 since the 1990s.^{60,61} For this study, we have selected 1,690 kt/yr as both our default and lower bound
242 M_{IMP} estimate, with 2,200 kt/yr as the upper bound (Table 1).

243 **Total Import** Based on literature data, the default estimate for the amount of e-wastes treated in GY, QY
244 and TZ alone during the reference year 2005 is ~4,040 kt (2,940 kt – 5,900 kt) (Table 1), corresponding to
245 11.5% of the total amounts generated world-wide. Yet, it is clear that the recycling activities in China
246 extend beyond these well-known localities in the Pearl and Yangtze river deltas.^{39, 41, 62-65} According to
247 Deng et al.⁴³ and references therein, more than 1,000 kt of e-wastes are imported into China annually,
248 while Greenpeace in China has indicated that it could be as much as 35,000 kt.⁶⁶ As the data on imports
249 or handling of e-wastes for China as a whole vary wildly (Table 1), they are less useful for deriving an
250 estimate for the entire country. There are also convincing arguments suggesting that the higher end
251 estimates e.g. ^{42, 66} for China are significantly overestimated.⁶⁷

252 In GY, QY and TZ, between 120,000 and 290,000 workers are involved with an average estimate of
253 205,000 (Table 1). As many as 700,000 workers were employed in the Chinese e-waste recycling industry
254 in 2007 with 98% in the informal recycling sector.⁶⁶ The total figure agrees well with numbers by Wang
255 et al.⁶⁸ who recently report that 440,000 people are working in informal e-waste collection while the
256 informal recycling industries additionally engages 250,000 people. Assuming 205,000 workers were
257 engaged at GY, QY and TZ, the total amount of e-waste processed by the informal recycling industries in
258 China (250,000 workers total) is scaled upwards to ~4,900 kt (~3,600 kt -~7,200 kt) for the reference
259 year 2005. In comparison, our default estimate of M_{GEN} for China is ~3,300 kt (1,900 to 4,750 kt). If it is

260 assumed that 40% of the e-waste generated domestically within China is dismantled by these informal
261 recycling industries⁵³ (i.e., ~1,300 kt), the import of e-waste to China (M_{IMP}) is reduced to ~3,600 kt
262 (~2,800 to ~5,300 kt) (Table 1). These numbers are at the higher end of recent estimates for the illegal
263 import of e-waste into China, which was estimated to be between 1,500 kt/yr and 3,300 kt/yr⁴² while
264 the domestic generation of e-waste (PCs, printers, mobile phones, TVs and refrigerators only) was
265 estimated at 2,200 kt in 2007.⁶⁹

266 Our import estimate to China is almost an order of magnitude lower than an estimate of 28,000 kt/yr for
267 2010.^{10, 42} According to Zhang et al.¹⁰ this estimate is based on an annual global generation of e-waste of
268 40,000 kt³⁴, with 70% of all e-waste presently being processed in China, citing Robinson.¹ The fraction of
269 global e-waste processed in China (70%) was attributed to a paper from 2006 by Liu et al.,⁷⁰ which is a
270 case study on e-waste mass flows in Beijing reporting that 70% of obsolete appliances in the city could
271 be collected for possible recycling (if convenient services existed). While the origin of this estimate
272 (28,000 kt) is difficult to trace, it has been cited repeatedly in the literature^{63, 71-73}.

273 **3.3.2 India**

274 Geographically, most informal recycling activities in India take place within major urban centres (e.g.
275 Delhi, Mumbai, Chennai, Kolkata and Bangalore), with some dispersal into smaller towns outside these
276 major cities.⁷⁴ Considerable uncertainty remains regarding amounts of e-waste both generated and
277 imported in India.⁷⁴ Yet, India has been suggested to be second to China in processing e-waste with 70%
278 believed imported from abroad.⁷⁵ An early report from the organisation Toxics Link claimed that in 2003
279 most of the country's computer waste was imported, rather than generated domestically,⁷⁶ whereas a
280 later report suggests that these two quantities are almost equal.⁷⁷ A frequently cited estimate of the
281 import of e-waste into India by 2007 is 50 kt/yr^{74, 78}, but previous assessments in India appear to have a
282 limited scope on e-waste from IT products and consumer electronics (PC, mobiles and TVs)⁷⁴ whereby
283 data on heavier items and domestic goods may have been largely ignored in available inventories.⁷⁴ In
284 contrast, Zoeteman et al.³⁰ suggest that the import of e-waste into India was much higher in 2005 (850
285 kt), but the empirical basis for this estimate appears limited. Data on the number of workers involved in
286 e-waste recycling also differ between studies. Toxics Link initially proposed that more than 1 million
287 workers are involved in manual recycling operations,⁷⁶ but the total number of people working
288 exclusively on e-waste in the informal sector was more recently estimated at ~25,000.⁷⁴ Recognizing that
289 major uncertainties remain and official data are lacking,⁷⁹ we have used the average of the two available
290 estimates (450 kt/yr) as our default M_{IMP} estimate with 50 kt and 850 kt as the lower and upper bounds
291 for India, respectively.

292 **3.3.3 West Africa**

293 Data for five West African countries (Nigeria, Ghana, Cote d'Ivoire, Benin and Liberia) are summarized in
294 a report prepared by the Secretariat of the Basel Convention.⁸⁰

295 **Nigeria** The import of used electrical and electronic products (UEEE) into Nigeria was estimated at 600 kt
296 in 2010 in the national e-waste assessment report. Of this amount, ~30% was not functional.⁸¹ However,
297 imported UEEE will most likely end up as e-waste in Nigeria, albeit with a time-lag. In other words, any
298 UEEE is also counted as e-waste in this study. The same report suggested that the import of UEEE may

299 have been higher by up to 70% in the recent past.⁸¹ For this study, we therefore assume that the import
300 of e-wastes into Nigeria during the reference year 2005 was higher by about 35% ($M_{IMP} = 810$ kt/yr) with
301 600 kt/yr and 1020 kt/yr as upper and lower bounds, respectively (Table 1). These data appear
302 consistent with an earlier study, which estimated the import of used PCs and monitors alone to be ~77
303 kt/yr during the 2nd half of the last decade.⁸² Informal recycling activities are believed to occur all over
304 Nigeria, with 72,000 – 108,000 workers engaged.⁸¹

305 **Ghana, Cote d'Ivoire, Benin and Liberia** The report on West Africa states that 150 kt of used EEE was
306 imported to Ghana in 2009.⁸⁰ However, a report on e-waste in Ghana considered an accurate
307 determination of the imported amounts impossible.⁸³ On the basis of the West African report, the
308 amount of UEEE imported to Cote d'Ivoire, Benin and Liberia are estimated to be 12 kt, 4.8 kt and 0.35 kt
309 in 2009. These data do not allow for providing uncertainty estimates in Table 1.

310 **3.3.4 Total imports**

311 Quantitative information on imports of e-waste or UEEE to other non-OECD countries was not available
312 for this study. However, several studies, including the two reviews by Li et al.⁸⁴ and Ongondo et al.,³³
313 have implicated additional non-OECD countries as importers. According to the former study, Kenya,
314 Liberia, Senegal, South Africa and Uganda are additional destinations in Africa, while Cambodia,
315 Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, and Vietnam are implicated as importers in Asia.⁸⁴ There are also
316 individual reports discussing imports of e-waste to Thailand⁸⁵ and Bangladesh.⁷ It is therefore likely that
317 the actual imports to non-OECD countries as summarized in Table 1 are underestimated. Our final
318 quantitative budget for total import to non-OECD is 5,023 kt (3,642 kt - 7,331 kt), which is 14.4 % (10.4%
319 - 20.9%) of the default estimate for the global generation of e-waste or 23% (16.7% - 33.5%) of the e-
320 waste generated within the OECD alone. The latter estimates form the baseline for comparison with
321 export estimates.

322 **3.4 Exports from OECD**

323 Available estimates of transboundary exports of e-waste out of the OECD are highly variable and some
324 of these figures have a way of taking on a life of their own.⁴ For example, two studies independently
325 claim that nearly 80% of all e-waste generated in developed countries is currently exported to
326 developing nations,^{10, 86} both citing Hicks et al.⁸⁷ Hicks et al., in turn, quoted an extensively cited report,
327 published in 2002 by the Basel Action Network (BAN), in which it was claimed that 50 to 80% of the e-
328 waste collected for recycling in the western USA is exported to Asia, of which 90% is destined for China.³
329 Yet, the authors of the BAN report admit that nobody really knows the exact amounts of e-waste
330 exported and that these figures are based on informed industry sources.³ It is also important to stress
331 that there is a significant difference between amounts generated and amounts collected for recycling. A
332 study on the management and fate of major fractions of consumer electronics and IT/communications
333 equipment in the US for the years 2003-2005⁸⁸ indicates that most of this e-waste was destined for
334 domestic landfills, while approximately 20% was collected for recycling (f_{COL} , see Equation 2).⁸⁹ If
335 combined with the BAN estimates for fraction exported (f_{EXP}) above, these data suggest that 10% to 16%
336 of the e-waste generated annually in the US was exported with 5% - 12.8% destined for Asia. This
337 estimate is in better agreement with a more rigorous material flow analysis of used computers alone in
338 USA for 2010 for which it was estimated that between 6% and 29% are exported abroad for reuse and

339 recycling.⁹⁰ The BAN estimate has also been questioned by the US International Trade Commission⁹¹ and
340 is contradicted by a recent study which suggests that the amount of used electronics (TVs, computers,
341 mobile phones and monitors) exported abroad from the US to *any other* country by 2010 was 27 kt.⁹²
342 This represents 1.7% out of 1,600 kt of used electronics generated in 2010 - or only 3.1% of the amounts
343 collected.⁹² Still, the same research group found that 78-81% of used laptops exported from the US in
344 2010 were sent to non-OECD countries with Asia as the main destination.⁹³ However, the authors admit
345 that approaches relying on trade data methodologies inevitably will tend to underestimate total
346 exports.⁹³

347 According to the European Environment Agency (EEA), between 8,000 and 10,000 kt of e-waste was
348 generated in the EU in 2008. By extrapolating German data, the EEA estimated that between 550 and
349 1,300 kt of UEEE / e-waste was exported out of the European Union the same year which corresponds to
350 between 5.5% and 16.3%.⁹⁴ A study from the UK in 2003 indicate a similar magnitude with an estimated
351 160 kt of e-waste exported in 2003⁹⁵, which corresponds to 12 % of the estimated amounts produced
352 domestically in 2005 (1,385 kt).³⁴ Destinations included Eastern Europe, Africa (Nigeria, Uganda, Ghana
353 and Kenya), the Indian sub-continent and other countries in Asia.⁹⁵ While less data is available for
354 exports from OECD countries in the Asian region^{5,33}, it has been claimed that more than a third of the
355 Japanese e-waste is not accounted for.⁴

356 While controversy and uncertainty are likely to remain significant on the issue of exports from OECD to
357 developing regions, these examples illustrate the notorious difficulties in assigning reliable export
358 estimates to non-OECD countries using “forward” approaches. Although the scope of our analysis is
359 restricted to the export from OECD to non-OECD countries, we reiterate that the assumption of uni-
360 directional flows has been questioned by Lepawsky and co-workers^{7, 28} as well as others²⁷ which
361 highlights that the “trade and traffic” is not merely about transport from “rich” to “poor” countries, but
362 that there are significant intra-regional movements.^{28,94} Adding to the difficulty of tracking flows is that
363 many destinations are merely transshipment points.e.g. ^{92,93} For example, some of the e-waste imported
364 into China may arrive through Hong Kong, yet as much as 80% of selected household e-wastes (TVs,
365 washing machines, air conditioners, refrigerators and PCs) generated in Hong Kong may be exported.⁹⁶

366 Inferences about exports are sometimes made from analysis of formal trade data alone, while illicit
367 flows are unaccounted e.g. ²⁸ and it may be questioned whether formal trade data are representative
368 for any flow of e-wastes. However, many of the import data for China and West Africa which are
369 compiled and discussed herein (3.2) provide strong support for the notion that most of these imports
370 originate from OECD countries, rather than being a result of intraregional flows within non-OECD
371 regions. As there are additional non-OECD countries implicated as importers of e-waste not accounted
372 for, the true exports from OECD to non-OECD regions could still be underestimated.

373 **3.5 Global mass balance**

374 Because of the large uncertainties in existing OECD export estimates, we assume that all OECD countries
375 export the same fraction of domestically generated e-waste amounts (i.e., default $M_{EXP} = 0.23M_{GEN}$,
376 range $0.17-0.34M_{GEN}$) (Section 3.3.4). A graphical representation of the final budget (default scenario) is
377 presented in Figure 1. While it is estimated that OECD and non-OECD regions account for 62.4% and

378 37.6% of the total global generation of e-waste, respectively, our default estimate suggest that the net
379 amount (M_{NET}) processed in the non-OECD region (51.9%) exceeds that within OECD (48.1%) because of
380 exports from the latter to the former region. The results in Fig 1 furthermore suggests that the amounts
381 generated in North America (24.3%) or EU countries members of the OECD (22.8%), are comparable
382 with the amounts generated in other non-OECD countries (23%). However, the amounts imported (or
383 exported) from other non-OECD countries remain unknown (Fig 1). The largest export from OECD in
384 percentage of the total amounts generated worldwide is attributed to North America (5.6%), followed
385 by the European Union (5.2%), Asia (2.0%) and other OECD countries (1.5%), while the largest import is
386 estimated for China (10.3%), West Africa (2.8%) and India (1.3%).

387 As the import/export estimates are subject to uncertainties (Table 1), the outcome depends on the
388 scenario selected. Under the minimum import scenario, OECD remains the dominant region for M_{NET}
389 (52%), while both the default and maximum import scenarios indicate that M_{NET} is higher within the
390 non-OECD region (Table S4). Furthermore, the net amount of e-waste processed in the non-OECD region
391 (M_{NET}) is dominated by domestic generation (M_{GEN}) within that region, rather than by imports from
392 OECD countries, irrespective of scenario (see also Tables 1 and S4).

393 In order to further visualize our results for the default scenario, we have prepared global maps for M_{GEN} ,
394 M_{IMP} , M_{EXP} and M_{NET} in Figure S3. In this study, the export estimates were derived using a simple inverse
395 approach based on import estimates alone in order to fulfil the mass balance. Our mass balance for
396 2005 therefore relies on the critical assumption that all imports (Fig S3b) are caused by exports from the
397 OECD-region alone (Fig S3c), which implies that the export estimates from OECD are biased high in this
398 study in spite of e-waste imports to non-OECD possibly being underestimated.

399 **3.6 Research needs**

400 The merit and limitations of various qualitative and quantitative approaches to characterize
401 transboundary flows of used electronics have recently been presented by Miller et al.²⁹ who point out
402 that a mass balance approach is not the only potential methodology. Many of the assumptions made in
403 order to construct the mass balance should also be considered with a healthy scepticism. Uncertainties
404 in our understanding of global flows are likely to persist beyond this study because of the lack of data on
405 illicit exports, which indicates that estimates of e-waste flows relying on official trade data alone is at
406 risk of being biased low due to ignorance. Future studies seeking to quantify the export of e-wastes to
407 developing regions should therefore aim to include all possible flows of e-wastes (both licit and illicit).
408 The often illicit nature of such exports calls for complementary approaches to track the sources, flows
409 and destinations of e-wastes,²⁹ such as by use of GPS-based monitoring e.g. ^{68,97} as well as contaminant
410 forensics and chemical fingerprinting techniques. Alternative quantitative approaches which could
411 provide further insights into transboundary flows of e-waste include recycler and collector surveys and
412 enforcement / seizure data from customs reports.²⁹

413 There is an obvious need to develop scenarios for the current situation and into the future as the
414 amounts of e-waste generated is still on the rise due to increased consumption, often combined with
415 shortened lifespan of EEE.¹⁰ While our analysis indicate that it is plausible that the global generation of
416 e-wastes was 35,000 kt in 2005, new estimates indicate an increase up to 48,900 kt in 2012, which is

417 predicted to increase to 65,400 kt by 2017.⁹⁸ A disturbing feature of the increase in e-waste generation,
418 when seen in combination with the control measures being implemented in destinations like China, e.g.
419 ⁶⁰ is that future flows of e-waste may be diverted to less affluent countries or jurisdictions where costs
420 related to environmental regulation are minimized^{7, 28} unless exports are more efficiently controlled and
421 curbed. It is therefore a need to monitor the possible extent, dynamics and magnitude of possible shifts
422 in flows and destinations of e-waste. Clearly, rational control strategies will require a better
423 understanding of how much e-waste, containing both valuable constituents as well as toxics, are
424 circulating around the globe.

425

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429

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690 Table 1: Quantitative data on treated amounts (China), import of e-waste (India) or used EEE in either working or non-working condition (African
 691 countries) as adopted from the literature, along with import estimates derived for this study.

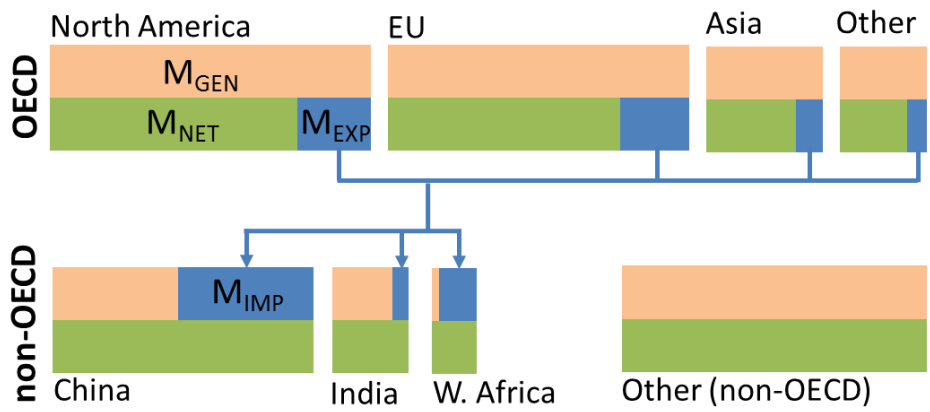
Country	Literature		This study (kt/yr)	
	Amount (kt/yr) (min-max)	Number of workers	Treated Default (min-max)	Imported
China (GY)	550 ⁴⁸ - >2,000 ⁵¹	30,000 ³⁰ - 160,000 ⁵⁰	1,350 (550 - 2,000)	
China (QY)	700 ¹⁹ - 1,700 ⁵⁶	50,000 ⁵⁵ - 80,000 ⁵⁶	1,000 (700 - 1,700)	
China (TZ)	1,690 ⁶⁰ - 2,200 ⁶¹	40,000 ⁵⁸ - 50,000 ⁵⁹	1,690 (1,690 - 2,200)	
China (GY,QY,TZ)	2,940 - >5,900	205,000 (120,000 - 290,000)	4,040 (2,940 - 5,900)	
China (Total)	1,000 ⁴³ - 35,000 ⁶⁶	250,000 ⁶⁸	4,900 (3,600 - 7,200)	3,600 (2,800 - 5,300)
India	50 ⁷⁸ - 850 ³⁰	25,000 ⁷⁴ - >1,000,000 ⁷⁶		450 (50 - 850)
Nigeria	600 ^{1 81}	72,000 - 100,800 ⁸¹		810 (600 - 1,020)
Ghana	150 ⁸⁰			150
Cote d'Ivoire	12 ⁸⁰			12
Benin	4.8 ⁸⁰			4.8
Liberia	0.35 ⁸⁰			0.35
Total for selected non-OECD countries				5,000 (3,600 - 7,300)

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695 Figure 1: Graphical representation of the e-waste mass balance. The width of each box scales according
 696 to amount.



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