

Quantifying material and carbon reduction in circular consumption: solving selected methodological and data challenges while accounting for rebound effects Amatuni. L.T.

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Curriculum Vitae

Levon Amatuni was born on November 27, 1990, in Moscow, USSR. He studied at Gymnasium No. 1567 and then at the mathematics class at High School No. 91. Levon obtained a Specialist Diploma (equivalent to a Master's Degree) in Computer Science from Lomonosov Moscow State University in 2014, specializing in Numerical Methods. Later, after moving his life to Canada, Levon earned another Master's Degree from the University of Toronto in 2019, focusing on Sustainability Informatics at the Department of Computer Science, supervised by Prof. Dr. Steve Easterbrook.

For his PhD, Levon moved to the Netherlands, where he worked on a global supply chain database for critical metals and researched the impacts of sustainable consumption practices, under the supervision of Dr. José Mogollón and Prof. Dr. Arnold Tukker. Since the end of 2023, Levon has held a postdoctoral position working on an ESED project at TU Delft and also, for 1day per week, Levon conducts research for the CE-RISE project at CML at Leiden University.

Publications

- Amatuni, L., Steubing, B., Heijungs, R., Yamamoto, T., & Mogollón, J. M. (2024). Deriving material composition of products using life cycle inventory databases. *Journal of Industrial Ecology*. https://doi.org/10.1111/jiec.13538
- Amatuni, L., Yamamoto, T., Baldé, C. P., Clemm, C., & Mogollón, J. M. (2023). Quantifying total lifetimes of consumer products: Stochastic modelling accounting for second-hand use and establishing an open-collaborative database. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 197, 107103. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2023.107103
- Amatuni, L., Ottelin, J., Steubing, B., & Mogollón, J. M. (2020). Does car sharing reduce greenhouse gas emissions? Assessing the modal shift and lifetime shift rebound effects from a life cycle perspective. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 266, 121869. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.121869

Supplementary materials

Related to Chapter 2

Appendix A: Life cycle inventory

Emissions factors for car (including CS), bus, and rail used in this study are obtained using those from the study by Chester (2008). Out all of the life cycle stages considered in the original study, only the major ones, which would contribute to at least 90% of the total emissions factor have been selected for various modes (see Tables A.1 – A.3).

Table A.1 LCI (life-cycle inventory) for regular sedan gasoline car (Toyota Camry)used in our study given emissions factors from the original study: (Chester, 2008); VKT = vehicle km travelled

LCAI	Emissions factor (kg CO₂e /VKT)	Life-cycle component		
Infrastructure	14000 / LTM _{car}	Roadway		
construction	14000 / L1 M _{car}	Construction		
Vehicle manufacturing	8500 / <i>LTM_{car}</i>	Manufacturing		
Fuel production	0.038	Refining &		
Fuel production	0.038	Distribution		
Vehicle operation	0.230	Operation (Running)		

Table A.2 LCI (life-cycle inventory) for a gasoline 40-foot bus (US)used in our study given emissions factors from the original study: (Chester, 2008); VKT = vehicle km travelled

LCAI	Emissions factor (kg CO₂e /VKT)	Life-cycle component		
Infrastructure	0.042	Roadway		
construction	0.042	Construction		
Vehicle manufacturing	0.199	Manufacturing		
Fuel production	0.226	Refining &		
Fuel production	0.236	Distribution		
Vehicle operation	1.491	Operation (Running)		

Table A.3 LCI (life-cycle inventory) for urban rail used in our study given emissions factors of the Green Line Vehicle (Boston, US) from the original study: (Chester, 2008). MJ = megajoule, VKT = vehicle km travelled

LCAI	Emissions factor per VKT	Life-cycle component			
Infrastructure construction	1.081 kg CO₂e	Station Construction; Track/Power Construction			
Infrastructure operation	8.9 MJ	Station Lighting; Station Escalators; Station Train Control; Station Parking Lighting; Station Miscellaneous			
Vehicle manufacturing	0.038 kg CO₂e	Manufacture			
Vehicle operation	30 MJ	Operation (Active); Operation (Idling); Operation (HVAC)			

Later, for our study, these have been adjusted given occupancy rates and automobiles' LTMs in our study to obtain total per-PKT emissions factors instead.

Emissions factor for cycling has been taken from the study by Blondel et al. (2011), and that covers all of the four stages considered for the previous modes except the infrastructure-related emissions which were considered as zero in this study.

Appendix B: Energy life cycle emissions factors

The emissions behind infrastructure and vehicle operations are dependent on a particular energy source profile in the region of operation. For the Canadian provinces of Alberta (AL) this is reported by the National Energy Board of Canada (2016), for the Netherlands (NL) by the Energie Beheer Nederland (2018). See Table B.1.

Table B.1 Energy sources profiles. Sources: NEB Canada, EBN Nederland

Province	Uranium	Coal	Hydro	Natural	Wind	Solar	Biomass	Petroleum
				Gas				
AL	-	47%	3%	40%	7%	-	3%	-
NL	1%	14%	-	40%	1%	1%	4%	39%

Given the energy sources profile for a particular region, the following full lifecycle emissions factors for energy production and distribution by different energy sources are used to calculate the average emissions factor for each region (Schlomer et al., 2014). Petroleum's emissions were not found and were taken as for the biomass (Table B.2).

Table B.2 Full-fuel-cycle electricity emissions factors. Source: Schlomer et al., 2014

	Nuclear	Coal	Hydro	Natural Gas	Wind	Solar	Biomass	Petroleum
gCO2eq /kWh	12	820	24	490	11	44	230	230

As a result of multiplying these two data sets, the average emissions factor for Alberta weighted by its energy profile is 590 gCO2 eq. per a kWh of energy used. For the Netherlands this comes to 410 gCO2 eq per kWh of energy.

For the US states, energy life-cycle emissions are taken from the previous report (Leslie, 2014): 538 gCO2 eq for a kWh of energy produced in Massachusetts, 327 gCO2 eq in California, 39 gCO2 eq in Vermont, 1397 gCO2 eq in Washington D.C., and 157 gCO2 eq in Washington state.

Appendix C: Region-specific calculations

Netherlands

First, the total annual transportation distance of 11,000 km was assumed as it has been reported for an average Dutch citizen (Statistics Netherlands, 2016). Next, the modal preference profile reported by CS participants (Table C.1) has been used to estimate not only distances travelled by an average member before participation (instead of CS driving) but to estimate distances travelled by alternative modes as total driving decreases after participation as well. This was done, first, redistributing the non-driving 'before' distances between other modes proportionally to the preference profile and, secondly, redistributing the annual distance gap between the 'after' alternative modes ('before' and 'after' distances in Table 2.2). As a result, total annual distances are not equal because of the effect of the 'would not be travelled' option in the surveyed preference profile. Next, differences in the total distances

travelled by each mode were calculated and multiplied by the corresponding per-PKT emission factors to estimate the total annual reduction in emissions caused by CS participation (Table 2.2).

Table C.1 Car-sharing substitution in the absence of the CS service in the Netherlands. Here, we assumed 'bus' distances as 4% and 'rail' distances as 41% from the original study. Source: (Nijland & van Meerkerk, 2017)

Mode of transport	Kilometres (in %)
Car	34
Train	41
Bus, tram, rapid transit	4
Bicycle	3
Car passenger	1
Other	2
Not travelled	15

Here, rail per-PKT emissions were recalculated using the appropriate electricity emissions factor for the Netherlands. Car passenger (ride-sharing or carpooling) per-PKT emissions were taken as regular car emissions adjusted for occupancy of 2.5 rather than 1.58. Per-PKT emissions for 'other' were averaged across other modes and halved to account for walking (zero emissions). Car-sharing per-PKT emissions were set as a range based on the three CS lifetime mileage scenarios.

Even though the Dutch study considers both B2C and peer-to-peer (P2P) participation and covers the country rather than the city level, the authors report that the difference between B2C and P2C in terms of the 'before-and-after' change in driving is not significant. Moreover, in practice, B2C platforms are placed in the urban areas.

San Francisco

Data (several distances and the percentage changes) reported by the original study allows to estimate the total annual 'after' and, consequentially, 'after' rail distances. The rest of the 'after' modes are estimated redistributing the rest of the total distance between other modes using reported preference profile (Table C.2 of this supplementary). Afterward, the 'before' car-VKT could be estimated using the reported decrease rate. Finally, the before-and-after annual distance gap would be redistributed to the 'before' distances of the rest of the modes according to the same preference profile. These were

used to estimate before-and-after distances for all the modes using the surveyed modal preference profile to redistribute annual distance gap between unknown distances by alternative modes. Resulting changes in annual distances are in turn multiplied by the per-PKT emission factors of the corresponding modes to obtain total emissions change for each transport mode. Per-PKT emissions for 'other' were averaged across other modes.

Table C.2 Car-sharing substitution in the absence of the City CarShare service in San Francisco. Here, 'car' mode aggregates originally reported on-road modes, and the reported public transportation distance has been split equally into 'train' and 'bus' modes as they have not been distinguished. Source: (Cervero et al., 2007)

Mode of transport	Kilometres (in %)
Car	27.3
Train	14.3
Bus, tram, rapid transit	14.3
Bicycle	3.9
Walking	6.9
Other	3.2
Not travelled	30.1

Calgary

Given driving distances for the 'before' period, distances for the rest of the 'before' modes are estimated proportionally to the existing official figures on a complete modal breakdown in Calgary (Behan & Lea, 2014), see Table C.3. Next, the resulting before-and-after total distance gap was redistributed between the alternative modes in the 'after' period according to the same profile. This allowed accounting for a change in modal distances caused by CS participation ('before' and 'after' distances in Table 2.4). Per-PKT emissions for 'other' mode were averaged across other modes. Life-cycle electricity-related emissions factor for the province of Alberta in Canada was used (see Appendix D).

Table C.3 Modal breakdown for Calgary. Numbers are rounded based on the original source. The reported public transportation ration has been split equally into 'train' and 'bus' modes as they have not been distinguished. 'Walk and bicycle' mode has been equally split into two separate modes as well. Source: (Behan & Lea, 2014)

Mode of transport	Kilometres (in %)
Car	76
Train	8
Bus	8
Bicycle	4
Walking	4

Appendix D: Lifetime mileage analysis

A correlation between end of life vehicle (ELV) state of a vehicle and the total mileage or the life time parameters would suggest that these parameters could predict the ELV state, hence allowing to estimate the LTM of shared vehicles given the intensity of their use.

For this purpose, the UK's periodic technical inspection (MOT) vehicle database has been analysed. This database allows to track the same vehicle using their unique vehicle IDs from 2013 to 2015. As soon as a vehicle appeared at the test for 2013, failed it for that year, and never appeared back for the test within next two years in the database, the vehicle was considered to be discarded. It was shown in a similar study that such an approach mitigates distortions because of the crashed or exported vehicles (Dun et al., 2015).

In total, 156,838 ELVs were extracted from the 2013 dataset with an average age of 14.7 years and average mileage of 173,000 km. These data were balanced with non-ELVs from the same year to prepare for a logistic regression analysis. In particular, two models with one independent parameter each were assessed - the age and the mileage of the vehicle, to predict the vehicle's end-of-life status.

As a result (Table D.1), even though both parameters had a statistically significant positive relationship with the ELV status (positive regressions coefficients and P-values lower than 0.05), none of them explained the variance of the dependent variable well enough (very low pseudo R-squared values).

Table D.1 Logistic regression analysis results. ELV binary status – as a dependent variable. The age or the total mileage are the independent variables for two models.

Model	Coef.	Std. err.	Z	Р	Pseudo R2
age	0.0329	0.0029	11.5040	0.0000	0.03
mileage (1000	0.0022	0.0002	9.5918	0.0000	0.02
km)					

Such results do not allow to prove any hypothesis about explanatory power of the age and mileage for the end-of-life of the automobile.

Appendix E: Car2Go fleet lifetime mileage

Table E.1 depicts the fleet sizes (Car2Go: Pioneer And Market Leader In Free-Floating Carsharing, 2017) and the total annual Car2Go mileage for each city (Martin & Shaheen, 2016).

Table E.1 Estimating car-sharing fleet's lifetime mileage-based Car2Go data for four cities. VKT = Vehicle kilometres travelled. Distance units have been made converted to km.

	Calgary	Seattle	Vancouver	Washington D.C	Average
Total VKT (annual, km)	8 400 000	9 900 000	9 108 000	14 700 000	
Fleet size	630	750	1275	600	
Mileage (annual, km)	13 300	13 100	11 500	9 700	11 900

A recent Car2Go press release reported 90 million kilometres driven by 14,000 Car2Go vehicles in 6 months (Car2Go: Press Release, 2018). This translates to the 12900 km in annual mileage for car-sharing vehicles. Thus, combining this with the average result from the Table E.1, it could be assumed for this scenario that relatively lower annual distances (12200 km) are driven by the shared automobiles during the same lifetime (15 years).

Appendix F: Existing misalignments

Interestingly, the Dutch study assumed a constant 15 years lifetime for shared and private vehicles and the LTM of 250,000 km (Nijland & van Meerkerk, 2017) for the manufacturing emissions calculations; however, it

quantifies vehicle's manufacturing emissions indirectly based on a study with a very different automobile LTM assumed, namely 150,000 km (Nijland & van Meerkerk, 2017). If calculated given the corresponding LTM, the reduction in manufacturing emissions in their study would drop from the proposed 125-281 to 142-186 kg CO_2 -eq per year. This exemplifies how sensitive the total results are to the LTM assumptions, and suggests another explanation for the lower emission savings from CS in this study.

Nijland and van Meerkerk (2017) mistakenly multiply the average amount of the reduced vehicles per average CS member (-0.4) caused by participation by the shared car 'ownership' (1/15 portion of the shared vehicle from the platform) instead of adding these numbers. Technically, the overall vehicle ownership change after selling the vehicle and 'owning' a portion of the CS fleet has to be: -0.4 + 1/15 = -0.3(3). Moreover, their study quantifies vehicle's manufacturing emissions indirectly through their proposed LTM (250 000 km) based on another study (Gbeghaje-Das, E., 2013) with a very different LTM assumed (150 000 km). Accounting for only these two last misconceptions, the reductions in manufacturing emissions drop from the proposed 125-281 to 142-186 kg CO2e per year which is an enormous difference relative to their final results of 236–392 kg CO2e per year reduction for the average car-sharing member.

Appendix G: Private vehicle's lifetime mileage estimation

Table G.1 Lifetime and lifetime mileage for an average private automobile in the USA. Reported by different studies and their average. Distance units have been made converted to km.

Source	Age (years)	Annual mileage	LTM _{car} (km)
		(km)	
(Mitropoulos &			
Prevedouros,			
2014)	10.6	18 100	192000
(Martin et al.,			
2010)	17.3	12 300	213 000
(Chester, 2008)	16.9	17 600	298 000
Average	15.0	16 000	234 000

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Related to Chapter 3

Appendix A: Assumptions

For ownership types 2 and 3, which happen after the first second-hand reuse of the phone, the number of reports collected was noticeably lower than for ownership types 0 and 1. This could suggest that most of the users buy new devices, regardless of if they later discard or pass them over. To make our results more reliable, to estimate the shares between S -> S and S -> E choices we have obtained a single ratio across all eleven devices reported instead of assessing such probabilities for each device on its own. As a result, it has been estimated that consumers discard (used) electronics once again in 46% of the cases (25 out of 54 reports) instead of reusing them once again. This number was used in the TPL calculation for the corresponding transition probabilities and is different from the 42% mentioned in the manuscript (and the final Figure 3.4) as the latter is based on averages for five presented electronics categories only. All the data underlying such calculation is presented below.

Appendix B: Underlying data spreadsheets

Complete survey-related results for all eleven product categories are in the spreadsheets below along with the results of the corresponding analysis presented in the manuscript:

Results:

UNU code	Product	Reports collected				Possession spans				
ONO code	NO code Product		Type 0 (N -> EoL)	Type 1 (N -> S)	Type 2 (S -> S)	Type 3 (S -> EoL)	Type 0 (N -> EoL)	Type 1 (N -> S)	Type 2 (S -> S)	Type 3 (S -> EoL)
204	Vacuum cleaner	4	1	1	1	0				
302	Desktop PC	141	77	50	9	5	7.6	6.0	4.8	6.2
303	Laptop computer	132	72	44	8	8	6.1	4.6	2.8	2.6
304	Printers (incl. scanners, multifunctionals)	94	55	34	0	5	5.4	4.0	0.0	5.9
306	Mobile phones (incl. smartphones)	102	64	33	1	4	3.7	2.9	1.0	2.5
308	Monitor (Cathode Ray Tube)	1	1	0	0	0				
309	Monitor (Flat Panel)	2	3	0	0	0				
404	Video recorders (DVD, Blue Ray, etc)	11	3	8	0	0				
405	Speakers	8	4	2	1	1				
406	Digital cameras	17	7	8	2	0				
407	TV (CRT)	6	4	2	0	0				
408	TV (Flat Panel Display)	78	40	29	7	2	7.0	6.1	3.4	2.6

Analysis:

	Product lifetimes						
UNU code	Product	TPL	Total lifespan (UNU)	Extension	Share of New -> SH	Share of SH -> EoL	Owners
302	Desktop PC	11.6	9.2	53%	39%	36%	1.9
303	Laptop computer	7.7	7.8	26%	38%	50%	1.8
304	Printers (incl. scanners, et	7.1	7.6	31%	38%	100%	1.4
306	Mobile phones (smartpho	4.7	5.1	27%	34%	80%	1.7
408	TV (Flat Panel Display)	9.4	9.7	34%	42%	22%	1.9
	Averages:			34%	38%	58%	1.7

Prod	uct durability and EoL					
UNU code	Product	TUFF (adjusted)	Failed	Major failure	User caused	Not recycled
302	Desktop PC	6.5	70%	61%	7%	34%
303	Laptop computer	4.9	88%	81%	13%	28%
304	Printers (incl. scanners, et	4.9	69%	71%	5%	51%
306	Mobile phones (smartpho	3.1	72%	65%	36%	50%
408	TV (Flat Panel Display)	6.5	82%	76%	9%	30%
	Averages:		76%	71%	14%	39%

Product hibernation									
UNU code	Product	Hibernation time	Based on reports	Hibernating share	Condition: New			Condition: Used, major malfunction	Major failure
302	Desktop PC	1.4	129	70%	1	8	21	14	32%
303	Laptop computer	1	124	68%	0	2	57	41	41%
304	Printers (incl. scanners, etc)	1.2	93	73%	0	1	13	14	50%
306	Mobile phones (smartphones)	0.9	114	65%	0	4	14	14	44%
408	TV (Flat Panel Display)	0.4	72	51%	0	0	2	1	33%

Reports analyzed					
Report type	Amount				
New -> EoL (Type 0)	330				
New -> SH (Type 1)	214				
SH -> SH (Type 2)	29				
SH - EoL (Type 3)	25				
Not in use	392				
New -> Other	28				
New -> Return	16				
Used -> Other	2				
Used -> Return	1				
Total reports analyzed	1037				

Related to Chapter 4

Step 1: Market-level stock and flow modeling

The basis of our proposed model is the Markov chain described in the existing study (Amatuni et al., 2023). We depict its adaptation for our purposes in Figure S1.

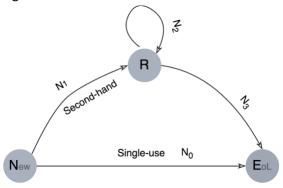


Figure S1 Markov chain describing the stochastic model of product service life cycle, adapted from Amatuni et al. (2023)

Four user types were identified depending on their consumption pattern and interaction with the second-hand market. They are labeled as N0 through N3 in this work as described in Table S1.

User type	Description of consumption pattern		
N ₀	Linear use: Acquire new, use, dispose		
N ₁	First use: Acquire new, use, resell		
N ₂	Interim use: Acquire used, use, resell		
N ₃	Last use: Acquire used, use, dispose		

Table S1 Categorization and description of four identified user types

Within each user group, an average product possession lifespan has been estimated in the original study (LT_i) along with an average hibernation time H for users from various countries. In this study, around 80% of respondents were from USA. Only user types N0 and N1 consume new products. With N_i we simultaneously denote group sizes of the corresponding user types. Based on this framework, we consider the smartphone market from a stock and flow perspective. Stocks are four user groups of the corresponding sizes and use and ownership time spans. The yearly material outflows from the stocks adhere to the mass balance assumption and are equal to $f_i = \frac{N_i}{LT_i}$. Products' transition probabilities between three states (see Figure S1) were

recalculated based on such flows f_i rather than the corresponding user group sizes N_i as it was in the original study.

The manufacturing rate M within a given time period T in a market with population P (sum of N0 through N3) can therefore be expressed as:

$$M = \frac{T * N_0}{LT_0} + \frac{T * N_1}{LT_1}$$

The resulting yearly average per-capita material (unit) requirement of smartphone consumption can be expressed as: M/P/T.

Step 2: Product lifetimes and user group sizes (collecting existing data)

The expected time between the very first purchase and the end-of-life (EoL) treatment or the expected total product lifetime (TPL) of each manufactured phone has been estimated in accordance with the stochastic framework from the original study.

The average product use time that, in contrast to ownership-based TPL, does not include the average hibernation period H can be expressed as:

$$TPU = TPL - H$$

To estimate the effect of the reuse market on the output variables M, TPL, and TPU, the stock and flow model was run using different input values (see Step 5) for the two scenarios, as described in Table S2.

Scenario	Description
Scenario A	Scenario based on consumer surveys data to approximate the current market situation
Scenario B	Alternative benchmark scenario in which no second-hand market exists

Table S2 Description of two scenarios for comparison of impact on manufacturing rate, total product lifetime and environmental impact

Scenario A is based on user-reported data collected via the existing open consumer survey (Amatuni et al., 2023). Average product possession times for each user segment and the ratios between consumer group sizes $(\frac{N_0}{N_1})$ and $(\frac{N_2}{N_3})$ were first based on the number of corresponding reports in the original survey (102 respondents).

Step 3: User group sizes and storage time (collecting new data)

Given limited data availability on the previous step for consumers who are reusing existing devices, an additional 108 consumer reports through the paid Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) service were collected. In particular, we have collected more detailed data for second-hand product lifetimes and hibernation times (user groups N_2 and N_3). We additionally surveyed and accounted for devices that have been refurbished by the end of their reuse (assuming a 50% refurbishment rate by operators) and obtained a more accurate ratio between the corresponding groups sizes $\frac{N_2}{N_3}$. We also surveyed the direct rebound effect (shorted use time factor) for the group N_2 in case if they would need to purchase new devices instead.

Step 4: Direct rebound effect (integrating existing product use time change data)

As has been shown by previous studies, assuming no behavioural change and rebound effects caused by the possibility of participating in the second-hand market can be misleading. Hence, it would not be correct to assume that in scenario B, all users would use devices for the same length. Yet, no primary data can be collected for the fictitious scenario B in which no second-hand market exists. To estimate user behaviour in this scenario, insights on the effects of a hypothetical absence of a second-hand market reported in existing reports (Matsumoto et al., 2023) were utilized to 'convert' user types N1, N2, and N3 into N0. Accordingly, user type N1 would use their phones longer by 33 % if re-selling was not possible. User type N3 would use a new phone longer by 62 % if buying a used phone was not possible. To estimate such rebound effect for the user group N2 (both, buying and re-selling is not possible), we used new data from our additional survey (see Step 3), resulting in 114% longer use. These factors were applied to LT_1 , LT_2 and LT_3 to estimate $L{T_i}^\prime$ in the absence of a second-hand market. Values $L{T_1}^\prime$, $L{T_2}^\prime$, and LT_3 were combined with the original LT_0 to estimate the modified LT_0 in the market where everyone practices single-use behaviour.

Step 5: Estimating the required manufacturing rates for two scenarios

Given these data inputs and the mass balance equations from the stock and flow model, the resulting user group sizes, the magnitudes of flows between them, and the required rate of new product manufacturing were obtained for each scenario separately.

First, we defined the existing market setting using a stock and flow model (Scenario A). Table S3 reports the originally estimated smartphone use times by each user type (see Step 3) and the relative consumer group sizes resulting from model balancing.

User types	Relative user	Lifetime types	Average use time		
	type occurrence		[years]		
	(P=1)				
N ₀	0.38	LT ₀	2.5		
N ₁	0.20	LT ₁	2.0		
N ₂	0.23	LT ₂	1.6		
N ₃	0.19	LT ₃	1.9		
М	25 units/year per 100 users				

Table S3 Input parameters for scenario A (actual scenario with second-hand market)

Similarly, Table S4 reports the resulting values for the user group sizes, average use times (considering reported behavioural change, see Step 4) and the required manufacturing rate in case of the absence of reuse (Scenario B).

User types	Relative user	Lifetime types	Average	use	time
	type occurrence		[years]		
N ₀	1	LT ₀ '			2.9
N ₁	0	LT ₁ '			2.7
N ₂	0	LT ₂ '			3.4
N ₃	0	LT ₃ '			3.1
М	34 units/year per 100 users				

Table S4 Input parameters for scenario B (benchmark scenario where the second-hand market would not exist)

Step 6: Estimating the environmental impact of reuse

Here, the environmental impact related to the consumption of smartphones is calculated by multiplication of the resulting total manufacturing rate (see Step 5) of new smartphones M with the global warming potential (GWP) factor G related to the non-operational life cycle stages of a single smartphone: E = M * G (3)

Operational impacts arising from smartphone use, i.e. emissions from provisioning of electricity for battery charging, are not included, assuming that

the total population-wide use time is identical in both scenarios and that increases in power efficiency with newer smartphones are negligible.

The value for G is derived from existing research (Pamminger et al., 2021) that estimated the non-operational life cycle GWP of a smartphone to be 34.6 kg CO2e and the environmental expenditures of refurbishing a smartphone to be 3.41 kg CO2e.

No data on the share of smartphones that undergo treatment (repair, refurbishment) in between possession spans by users was identified in the literature. Instead, this data was estimated from a user survey. Of user type N2 responding to our survey, 22% stated to have purchased their phone in refurbished condition (78% in used condition), and 17% stated to have their device traded in or sold off to a business, such as a refurbishment operator, manufacturer, or retailer after their possession span ended (83% given away, sold to another person, donated). Therefore, from 24 annual second-hand phone transactions between per 100 users, 4.6 involve a refurbishment, and the remaining 19.4 are transactions without refurbishment. Transactions with refurbishment account for the above-cited environmental impact of refurbishment. Transactions without refurbishment only account for shipping expenditures (0.1 kg CO2e for a 2 kg parcel shipped on land for a 1000 km distance). Transaction impacts of phones that are not refurbished are considered negligible.

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Related to Chapter 5

SI1: Example matrices

Here, we present what the proposed model delivers while estimating the MC of copper and plastic for the simplified laptop manufacturing supply chain from the manuscript (see Figure 5.2 of the manuscript).

Calculating the regular supply array and the inventory vectors and comparing them to the incorporated supply and inventory vectors (see sub-section below for details) results in Table S1.

Elementary flow	$MC\left(\widetilde{oldsymbol{g}} ight)$	NIMF (Δ)	$MF\left(\boldsymbol{g}\right)$
Copper (extracted)	0.295	0.365	0.660
Crude oil	0.5	1	1.5
Copper (emitted)	0.030	0.030	0.060
Oil (emitted)	0.125	0.175	0.300
Intermediate output	$MC\left(\widetilde{m{t}} ight)$	NIMF (Δ)	MF (t)
Copper (raw)	0.295	0.365	0.660
Copper (refined)	0.295	0.305	0.600
Circuit board	1	0	1
Laptop	1	0	1
Oil	0.5	0.7	1.2
Electricity	0	1	1
Factory	0	0.001	0.001
Petrochemicals	1	1	2
Plastic	1	1	2

Table S1 Material Composition (MC), Material Footprint (MF), and their difference as Non-Incorporated Material Footprint (NIMF) estimates for the elementary and intermediate flows from the simplified laptop example in kg. Based on the (original and modified) inventory (g) and supply (t) vectors obtained through the application of the proposed method. Notice, that a) the MC reported under \tilde{t} is prone to double counting and is not supposed to be summed up without accounting for it; b) not all of the materials enter the final product in their original form (0.5 bbl/barrel of oil versus 1 kg of plastic)

It can be seen that both the supply and the inventory vectors suggest $660 \, \mathrm{g}$ of raw (extracted) copper as the MF while the modified vectors properly reduce this value to 295 g for the MC of the copper in the laptop. The inventory vector g additionally shows that $60 \, \mathrm{g}$ of copper was emitted back into the environment. The total MF of crude oil extraction for laptop manufacturing is 1.5 bbl while 0.3 bbl dissipated (emitted). Notice, that the total MF of the oil is better estimated using the inventory vector g as it

accounts for the corresponding dissipation into the environment. While the modified inventory and supply vectors could suggest that 0.5 bbl of that oil was incorporated in the laptop, it could be more meaningful to consider the plastic content in the laptop instead: 1 kg of the incorporated plastic as the MC (see \tilde{t}) versus 2 kg of the total plastic footprint (see t). See Section SI8-D below which elaborates on these aspects.

Detailed calculations

The calculation starts with defining matrices and vectors: A, P_A , P_B , B, f_k based on the observed supply chain (see Sheet 5 in the end of this chapter's supplementary), where the columns of all the matrices and vectors relate correspondingly to the mono-functional processes, the rows of the matrices A and A0 relate to the corresponding reference products of these processes, and the rows of the matrices A0 and A1 relate to the corresponding elementary flows.

There are four parameters in the matrix P_A that are lower than zero: the non-incorporated fabric into the laptop, electricity into the fabric, and two partially incorporated inputs. For each 1.1 kg of the raw copper used only around 90% is embodied into the refined 1 kg of copper (the rest is emitted as dissipative losses, see matrix B), and additionally, 2.5% of the refined copper becomes scrap during laptop manufacturing.

Matrix P_B describes the one fifth non-incorporated flow of extracted crude oil that is dissipated back to the environment (see matrix B as well). The rest of the environmental flows along the supply chain are incorporated.

It is important to notice that some of the values in the filtering matrices (P_A and P_B) can be derived and even have to be in line with the corresponding losses described in the technosphere or the biosphere matrix. For example, the incorporation parameter for the raw copper entering the refining process is set to around 0.91 as the technosphere reports 0.1 kg out of 1.1 kg being dissipated in the process.

The resulting modified technosphere and biosphere matrices are presented under Sheet 5 in in the end of this chapter's supplementary.

The same calculation could be derived using Activity Browser as it can be used to replicate a trial LCI database based on Figure 5.2 of the main manuscript. Indeed, such observation of the trial supply chain in the Activity

Browser, using both objects (inventory vector and supply arrays), resulted in 660 g of copper MF for the production of a single laptop.

SI2: Double-counting example

In the following example (all flows are incorporated and zero losses are

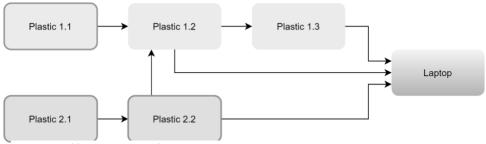


Figure S2 Double-counting example

assumed), two distinct types of plastic (Plastic 1 and 2) are used to manufacture a Laptop (see Figure S1).

Two finished forms (Plastic 1.3 and 2.2) are used to produce the Laptop along with a more raw Plastic 1.1 input. The supply array will contain positive values for all five plastic types. It could be seen that to obtain the total content of the material Plastic 1 in the laptop, only one of its three consecutive forms has to be selected from the supply array to avoid double counting. For Plastic 1, there is an additional mass of the earlier form Plastic 1.2 which is used directly in the Laptop and will be missed if we would select Plastic 1.3. Hence, Plastic 1.1 or Plastic 1.2 has to be selected from the supply array as the *source activity* for Plastic 1 content estimation. The same logic applies when estimating the Plastic 2 material content. Only one activity has to be selected out of two forms, and it does not matter which one, Plastic 2.1 or Plastic 2.2. The MSF μ_m that sums up only such appropriate values has been introduced in the Mathematical model section of the manuscript.

Moreover, if one is interested in the estimation of the total plastic content in the Laptop rather than the specific plastic materials, the masses of the two plastics have to be summed up. However, if the final forms are selected (1.2 and 2.2), the Plastic 1.2 material flow will contain some of the required Plastic 2.2 already. Hence, we should step back to the previous form of Plastic 1 and consider the mass of Plastic 1.1 instead. Hence, selecting Plastic 1.1 activity as a source activity for the first plastic type and Plastic 2.2 as a source activity for the second plastic type in the material selection factions will allow adding their inputs from the supply array without double counting

both when estimating the individual material contents as well as the aggregated sums.

We call such a resulting bill of the source activities from the LCI database as the *material dictionary*. In practice, it lists the set of synthetic materials of interest and the corresponding material forms (activities in the LCI database), therefore, defining the MSFs. These could be grouped together when desired to estimate more aggregate material content (see Mathematical model section of the manuscript).

It could appear as if selecting the earliest forms for each synthetic material would allow us to avoid any of the above-mentioned challenges.

Nevertheless, that will quickly move the practitioner far from the initial material of interest and will strongly complicate the comprehensibility of the resulting MC of products (imagine sand, soda ash, and limestone contents reported instead of glass content).

Hence, manual work of selecting the source activities would be needed for each synthetic material. The general approach suggested here is as follows: for each synthetic material of interest, select the latest possible form (activity in the LCI database), so that 1) the selected activity does not have a link (possibly indirect) with any of the other source activities 2) none of the earlier forms for that material have parallel links (possibly indirect) to the final product.

It has to be noted that double-counting becomes an issue only when one is willing to sum the material flows from different inputs, for example, for the total plastic content in the Laptop (see Figure S1 above). The incorporated masses of Plastic 1.3 or Plastic 2.2 on their own will be still accurate.

Additionally, here, we assumed that the considered materials appear rather later in the economy's supply chain and do not involve any chemical transformations anymore. That is similar to natural materials (i.e. metals) that are stable along the supply chain allowing to reasonably estimate their content in the reference products at the end of the chain. Otherwise, Plastic 1.1 material in the final product could be of a completely different nature than Plastic 1.1 material from its original supplying activity, and its content would not make much sense to measure (think of the limestone example above).

SI3: Material dictionary for plastics in Ecoinvent 3.6

To be able to estimate the total plastic content in the products of interest, first, a comprehensive list of plastics has been obtained (see Table S2).

Name	Symbol
polyamide	PA
polycarbonate	PC
polyester	PES
polyethylene	PE
polyethylene terephthalate	PET
polypropylene	PP
polystyrene	PS
polyurethane	PUR
polyol	PU:polyol
phenyl isocyanate	PU:phenyl isocyanate
polyvinylchloride	PVC
poly vinyl chloride	PVC
polyvinylidenchloride	PVDC
acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene	ABS
ероху	EPOXY
polymethyl methacrylate	PMMA
phenolic resin	PF
polyvinylfluoride	PVF
melamine formaldehyde	MF
urea formaldehyde	UF
polylactide	PLA
polysulfone	PSU
styrene-acrylonitrile	SAN
acrylic	ACRYLIC
bisphenol A epoxy based vinyl ester resin	VER
ethylene-vinyl acetate	EVA
ethylvinylacetate	EVA
polymer foaming	FOAM
polyphenylene sulfide	PPS

Table S2 List of plastics considered in the study

For each plastic name, all the activities in ecoinvent 3.6 have been scanned for the matching names (see /dict_gen/mat_dict_gen.py under the GitHub page). That allowed to link each plastic type with the corresponding producing activities in ecoinvent. Additionally, PE and PET plastics have the same keyword under their names, hence, a separate correction was required for such.

It was assumed that all of the ecoinvent activities linked to the same plastic type do not have a duplicate mass between them (see SI2).

The resulting list of activities has been imported into the main script for the different (and the total) plastics content in the products of interest. See Sheet 3 in the end of this chapter's supplementary for detailed results of plastic content in a laptop.

This approach of automatic scanning of ecoinvent activities' names for the matching keywords with the material names, in theory, could be applied to any type of material while saving such in the input files (see GitHub page).

SI4: Calculations for the case study

See Sheet 1 in the end of this chapter's supplementary for the calculations related to the case study. In particular, for each of the three products and materials resulting material content values are presented against the average of two theoretical values from the existing sources (the sources are cited in the same document). Tantalum content in a conventional passenger vehicle has been found in only one existing source.

Such values are calculated for two possible vectors (elementary and intermediate flows) and for three existing ecoinvent system models. All the values describe the relative (to the product's total weight) material content, hence the total weights of the explored products were needed. For the experimental values, these were taken from the corresponding ecoinvent production activities' descriptions. For the theoretical values, alternative sources were used for weight estimates.

Next, relative and absolute errors are calculated between our experimental and the existing theoretical values. Finally, the results were averaged across products and materials. This allowed observing how two different approaches performed 'on average' using different databases and to point out the most accurate combinations of such.

SI5: Results for plastics in the case study

To exemplify, here, we present the detailed plastics content for the laptop obtained by applying the supply array approach on the consequential model of ecoinvent (see Sheet 4 in the end of this chapter's supplementary).

SI6: Defining the avoid list

It is important to acknowledge 1) the sensitivity of the keywords-based scanning to a specific product and materials of interest and 2) the need for its manual adjustment each time new materials are explored.

We argue that, given the types of products explored in our case study (consumer products that appear rather later in the material supply chains), the size of the avoid list appeared to be comprehensive enough for an accurate MC estimation. Even though the keywords from the avoid list we used did not focus on distinguishing non-incorporated chemical compounds earlier in the material supply chains, since in the end they often become embodied in much bigger non-incorporated materials and components (covered by the keywords like 'infrastructure', 'packaging', etc.), such earlier forms of materials still end up being filtered out by our algorithm through avoidance of their later bulkier forms.

It is undoubtful that extending the avoid list with a more detailed list of keywords is supposed to deliver more accurate results, yet, for the specific type of consumer products we have selected, our results appear to converge with more keywords. To define the list itself, we would repeatedly revisit ecoinvent activities searching for reappearing keywords closer to the final consumer products of interest and adding them to the list. We have noticed that further from the final product we search for non-incorporated keywords to avoid, less impact such keywords have on the resulting MC estimate. Yet, if the algorithm is applied to estimate the MC of other products, especially closer to the primary products in the material supply chains, the avoid list will need to be redefined, making it a time-consuming task in itself.

SI7: Defining material selection, conversion, and aggregation

When the supply array is used for MC estimation, the practitioner needs to pay attention to the selection of materials from the supply array to avoid potential double-counting of mass (see Section SI2). Further, values in \tilde{g} and \tilde{t} are typically expressed in a range of units (e.g. mass, volume, energy). Thus, if the practitioner is interested in MC expressed in weight, an additional conversion step is necessary.

Hence, to obtain the content (total weight) of the material m in the product k (w_{k_m}), it is required to select, or sometimes to sum up, and convert the material flows from either \tilde{g} or \tilde{t} that are related to the same material of interest (e.g. copper extraction from different types of ores resulting in several copper-containing flows in the inventory vector):

$$W_{k_m} = \mu_m(\tilde{t})$$

where we call μ_m the material selection function. The MC of the material m in the product k can be defined, then, as w_{k_m} . In the Results section of the main manuscript, we considered the relative MC as a ratio $\frac{w_{k_m}}{w_k} * 100\%$ where w_k is the total weight of the product.

Sometimes, estimates for more aggregate materials are of the practitioner's interest (e.g. plastics instead of PET and PVC). In this case, the material selection functions of the detailed materials have to be grouped (summed up) forming the *material aggregation function*.

SI8-A: Software and LCI database preparation

There are various products in the market, and for this study, we have used the Activity Browser (Steubing et al., 2020), a graphical user interface to the brightway LCA framework (Mutel, 2017). The Activity Browser allows to either organize new LCI databases (supply chains) or to work with the existing ones such as ecoinvent. Given a specific final demand vector (*reference flows* in Activity Browser), its functionality allows exploring the inventory vector and the supply array (*biosphere and technosphere flows* in Activity Browser). Simultaneously, Brightway enables the execution of diverse LCI computations and allows the exploration of identical objects through a more flexible, coding-oriented approach.

Apart from the filtering matrices P and the material selection function μ_m , all the vectors, matrices, and functions involved in the proposed model will be available to a practitioner given access to one of the existing LCI databases and the related computation framework.

SI8-B: Manual determination of the material incorporation

For simplicity, in this study, it will be assumed that any material extracted from the biosphere is completely incorporated in the output of the corresponding extracting activities, in other words, we assume no losses during raw material extraction. This allows us to restrict our application to the P_A matrix only (denoted simply as P from now on) as the P_B matrix (material filtering for the elementary flows) becomes matrix of ones and does not impact the calculations

To allow manual filtering and distinguishing of the incorporated versus non-incorporated material flows (determining filtering matrix P), a modified version of the open-source LCA software Activity Browser has been developed allowing the user to assign an additional 'Incorporated' parameter (values between 0 and 1) to any of the intermediate exchanges within the LCI dataset of application.

Next, in brightway, all values in the technosphere matrix related to the LCI database are multiplied by the corresponding 'Incorporated' parameter sourced from the Activity Browser interface so that the modified matrix \tilde{A} is obtained.

SI8-C: Algorithmic determination of the material incorporation

Manual application of the 'Incorporated' parameter for the exchanges in the Activity Browser seems to be manageable for relatively short supply chains and small LCI databases such as the exemplifying laptop toy model. For practical purposes, as LCI databases are typically more comprehensive, we propose an automatic filtering algorithm for a general LCI database. It is later applied to the ecoinvent database for our case study.

The filtering algorithm scans the whole LCI database for all the activities and all the exchanges and it automatically assigns the value of zero (0) to the corresponding 'Incorporated' parameter if the exchange's name (process input or output) contains any keyword from the previously prepared *avoid list*. Such avoid list of keywords describes common auxiliary or any other non-incorporated flows within the LCI database and is highly dependent on a specific database of the application. However, several common categories of non-incorporated inputs can be identified: packaging, transportation, energy, buildings, machinery, infrastructure, and water (unless interested in water content). Additionally, some of the LCI databases like ecoinvent list outputs

as negative inputs (including the waste and used product treatment) which then have to be automatically filtered.

Yet, in its currently implemented form, the algorithmic parameter assignment is not capable of separating incorporated material inputs from their respective losses and is rather binary (0 or 1). This, however, could be improved allowing the algorithm to assign losses-related incorporation parameters between 0 and 1 to the material flows on a per-material or peractivity basis. This will require separate quantitative research on various types of losses (process or dissipative) and will result in a rather manual character of the resulting algorithm. Since such losses are expected to be relatively minor, we leave this improvement for future work.

SI8-D: Implementing material selection and aggregation

A manual definition of the material selection functions will be required if the supply array is used for MC estimation. Sometimes, existing *material depletion assessment methods*, for instance, EDIP (Klinglmair et al., 2014), can be used for a limited number of materials (especially metals) as for the material selection function in our method to sum up the related flows in the inventory vector. This can be handy if, for instance, the metal is extracted from various sources and appears under several values in the resulting inventory.

At the step of material selection and aggregation, two different challenges are tackled.

The approach using the supply array is prone to double counting. This is caused by the fact that the technosphere-originating materials have intertwined and interdependent supply chains upstream where the same material mass could be present in several consecutive forms, products, and activities. For instance, when calculating the total iron content in a vehicle, either the iron flow or the steel flow (which inputs iron) has to be included, even though both flows carry iron and both will be present in the supply array of the vehicle. Hence, the material selection process has to account for such possibilities. This does not happen with the estimation using the inventory vector, however, since the elementary flows are the very first in the whole supply chain and do not have any predecessors with a redundant mass. See SI2 for a detailed discussion of this challenge.

Additionally, if several materials (e.g. PET and PVC) relate to the same material group (plastic), material aggregation can be performed to sum their masses up (see Section SI7).

To approach both points above, a *material dictionary* has been used in the code that for each material of practitioner's interest lists the keys of the corresponding activities in the LCI database that represent that material and that are intended to be summed up during later calculations. In practice, the material dictionary defines the analytical material selection and aggregation functions for estimating the MC (see Section SI7). A certain understanding of the supply chains and the flow names is required to make meaningful choices at this step.

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Sheet 1 (data analysis):

DESCRIPTION			Passenger car (1 kg)								
			Bioflows			Technoflov	WS	Prev. studies			
		cutoff36	apos36	conseq36	cutoff36	apos36	conseq36	MC 1	MC 2	Average	
Copper	composition	1.18%	0.73%	1.00%	0.94%	0.47%	0.96%	1.80%	1.80%	1.80%	
	intensity			1.69%			1.52%				
Aluminium	composition	5.18%	2.71%	18.20%	16.63%	13%	14.83%	9%	10%	9.50%	
	intensity			20.77%			16.90%				
Tantalum	composition	0.008%	0.008%	0.008%	0.005%	0.005%	0.005%	0.004%		0.004%	
	intensity			0.00821%			0.005%				
Plastic	composition				15.00%	14.60%	15.01%	18.5%	13.50%	16.00%	
	intensity						20.00%				
Other						71.63%	69.20%			72.70%	
		34%	59%	44%	48%	74%	47%				
		45%	71%	92%	75%	40%	56%				
	Relative error										
		105%	101%	105%	17%	14%	17%				
		10070	20270	20070	21.10	2.77	2.77				
					6%	9%	6%				
			-		070	370	070				
	Averaged per method/prod/db (metals)	62%	77%	80%	46%	43%	40%				
	Averaged per method/prod/db	0270	7770	0070	36%	34%	31%				
	Privilege a per medical product				30%	34/0	3170				
	Averaged per method/db (metals)	50.50%	49,67%	64.14%	40.69%	35.87%	32.85%				
	Averaged per method/db (plastic)	30.30%	49.07%	04.1470	5.71%	6.57%	5.73%				
	Averaged per method/db				32%	29%	26%	_			
	Averaged per medica/ db				3270	2570	20%				
		0.62%	1.07%	0.80%	0.86%	1.33%	0.84%				
		0.62%	1.07%	0.80%	0.80%	1.55%	0.84%				
		4.32%	6.79%	8.70%	7.13%	3.80%	5.33%				
	Absolute error	4.52%	0.79%	8.70%	7.13%	3.80%	5.33%				
	Absolute error	0.000	0.00%	0.00%	0.000/	0.00%	0.000/				
		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%				
		-	-	-	1.00%	1.40%	0.99%				
	Averaged per method/prod/db (metals)	1.65%	2.62%	3.17%	2.66%	1.71%	2.06%				
	Averaged per method/db (metals)	1.62%	1.81%	2.21%	1.47%	1.27%	0.97%				
	Averaged per method/db (plastic)				1.56%	1.70%	1.57%				
	Averaged per method/prod/db				2%	2%	2%				
	Averaged per method/db				1.5%	1.4%	1.1%				

DESCRIPTION	•	Laptop (3.15 kg)								
			Bioflows Technoflows Prev.					Prev. studies		
		cutoff36	apos36	conseq36	cutoff36	apos36	conseq36	IMC 1	MC 2	Average
Copper	composition	8.56%	7.71%	10.03%	9.09%	8.34%	5.19%	6.85%	4.33%	5.59%
	intensity			18.73%			11.87%			
Aluminium	composition	8.04%	7.34%	14.99%	12.54%	9.62%	12.01%	8.44%	16.43%	12.44%
	intensity			19.73%			15.50%			
Tantalum	composition	0.009%	0.008%	0.009%	0.005%	0.005%	0.005%	0.079%	0.048%	0.06%
	intensity			0.00881%			0.00501%			
Plastic	composition				30.49%	30.36%	30.46%	40.58%	25.800%	33.19%
	intensity						61.62809%			
Other						51.68%	52.34%			48.72%
		53%	38%	79%	63%	49%	7%			
		35%	41%	21%	1%	23%	3%			
	Relative error									
		86%	87%	86%	92%	92%	92%			
		-	-	-	8%	9%	8%			
	Averaged per method/prod/db (metals)	58%	55%	62%	52%	55%	34%			
	Averaged per method/prod/db				41%	43%	28%			
	Averaged per method/db (metals)									
	Averaged per method/db (plastic)									
	Averaged per method/db									
		2.97%	2.12%	4.44%	3.50%	2.75%	0.40%			
		4.40%	5.10%	2.56%	0.11%	2.82%	0.43%			
	Absolute error									
		0.05%	0.06%	0.05%	0.06%	0.06%	0.06%			
		-	-	-	2.70%	2.83%	2.73%			
	Averaged per method/prod/db (metals)	2.47%	2.42%	2.35%	1.22%	1.87%	0.30%			
	Averaged per method/db (metals)									
	Averaged per method/db (plastic)									
	Averaged per method/prod/db				2%	2%	1%			
	Averaged per method/db				- 11					

DESCRIPTION			Refrigerator (60 kg)							
			Bioflows			Technoflo	ws			
		cutoff	apos	conseq	cutoff	apos	conseq	MC 1	MC 2	Average
Copper	composition	2.23%	2.02%	2.94%	2.23%	2.04%	2.24%	1.78%	1.70%	1.74%
	intensity			3.11%			2.38%			
Aluminium	composition	4.32%	3.43%	4.69%	3.70%	2.94%	3.75%	4.27%	0.90%	2.59%
	intensity			4.90%			3.92%			
Tantalum	composition	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%
	intensity			0.00002%			0.00001%			
Plastic	composition				36.83%	36.72%	36.84%	31.99%	39.70%	35.85%
	intensity						58.87%			
Ot her						58.30%	57.17%			59.83%
		28%	16%	69%	28%	17%	28%			
		67%	33%	81%	43%	14%	45%			
	Relative error									
		0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%			
		-	-	-	3%	2%	3%			
	Averaged per method/prod/db (metals)	32%	16%	50%	24%	10%	25%			
	Averaged per method/prod/db				19%	8%	19%			
	Averaged per method/db (metals)									
	Averaged per method/db (plastic)									
	Averaged per method/db									
		0.49%	0.28%	1.20%	0.49%	0.30%	0.50%			
		1.74%	0.85%	2.11%	1.12%	0.36%	1.17%			
	Absolute error									
		0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%			
		-	-	-	0.98%	0.87%	0.99%			
	Averaged per method/prod/db (metals)	0.74%	0.38%	1.10%	0.54%	0.22%	0.55%			
	Averaged per method/db (metals)									
	Averaged per method/db (plastic)									
	Averaged per method/prod/db				1%	0%	1%			
	Averaged per method/db				170	0,0	1,0	1	+	

	Average error pe	er material
	Relative error	Absolute error
Copper	43.51%	1.39%
Aluminium	43.71%	3.27%
Tantalum	49.64%	0.02%
Plastic	6.00%	1.61%

Sheet 2 (references for the theoretical product composition sources):

	neet 2 (references for the theoretical product composition sources):
#	Source
	Transport relies on copper, from trains to planes to electric vehicles [WWW
1	Document], 2018. [WWW Document]. European Copper Institute. URL
	https://copperalliance.org.uk/about-copper/applications/transportation/
	(accessed 11.4.21).
	Mock, P. (Ed.), 2016. European Vehicle Market Statistics [WWW Document]. URL
2	https://theicct.org/sites/default/files/publications/ICCT_Pocketbook_2016.pdf
	(accessed 11.4.21).
	Brahmst, E., 2006. Copper in end-of-life vehicle recycling [WWW Document].
3	URL https://www.cargroup.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/02/Copper-in-
	End_of_Life-Vehicle-Recycling.pdf (accessed 11.4.21).
	Improving Sustainability in the Transport Sector Through Weight Reduction and
	the Application of Aluminium [WWW Document], n.d. [WWW Document]. URL
4	https://transport.world-
	aluminium.org/fileadmin/_migrated/content_uploads/1274789871IAI_EAA_AA_
	TranspoSustainability_final.pdf (accessed 11.4.21).
5	European Aluminium Association. (2013). Aluminium in Cars–Unlocking the light-
	weighting potential. European Aluminium Association, Brussels.
	Field III, F. R., Wallington, T. J., Everson, M., & Kirchain, R. E. (2017). Strategic
6	materials in the automobile: a comprehensive assessment of strategic and minor
	metals use in passenger cars and light trucks. Environmental science &
	technology, 51(24), 14436-14444.
7	Emilsson, E., & Dahllöf, L. (2019). Plastics in passenger cars-A comparison over
	types and time.
8	Szostak, M. A. R. E. K. (2011). Recycling of pp/epdm/talc car bumpers. <i>Chemicke</i>
	Listy, 105(15), s307-s309.
	Van Eygen, E., De Meester, S., Tran, H. P., & Dewulf, J. (2016). Resource savings
9	by urban mining: The case of desktop and laptop computers in
	Belgium. Resources, conservation and recycling, 107, 53-64.
	Park, S., Jung, M., Kim, S., Han, S., Jung, I., Park, J., & Park, J. (2018). Evaluation of
1	Recycling Resources in Discarded Information and Communication Technology
0	Devices (Smartphones, Laptop computers). Journal of the Korean Institute of
	Resources Recycling, 27(3), 16-29.
1	Oguchi, M., Murakami, S., Sakanakura, H., Kida, A., & Kameya, T. (2011). A
1	preliminary categorization of end-of-life electrical and electronic equipment as
	secondary metal resources. Waste management, 31(9-10), 2150-2160.

1 2	Ueberschaar, M., Dariusch Jalalpoor, D., Korf, N., & Rotter, V. S. (2017). Potentials and barriers for tantalum recovery from waste electric and electronic equipment. <i>Journal of Industrial Ecology</i> , <i>21</i> (3), 700-714.
1 3	Report on Life Cycle Inventory (LCI) Analyses of Refrigerators [WWW Document], 2014. [WWW Document]. The Japan Electrical Manufacturers' Association. URL https://www.jemanet.or.jp/English/businessfields/environment/data/report_lci.pdf (accessed 11.4.21).
1 4	Kim, K., Cho, H., Jeong, J., & Kim, S. (2014). Size, shape, composition and separation analysis of products from waste refrigerator recycling plants in South Korea. <i>Materials Transactions</i> , M2013306.

Sheet 3 (laptop plastics):

Plastic type	MC (kg/unit)	MC (%)
ABS	0.016	0.50
ACRYLIC	0.016	0.50
EPOXY	0.048	1.52
EVA	0.000	0.00
FOAM	0.000	0.00
MF	0.000	0.00
PA	0.015	0.48
PC	0.063	1.98
PE	0.071	2.26
PES	0.166	5.27
PET	0.010	0.31
PF	0.013	0.42
PLA	0.000	0.00
PMMA	0.106	3.36
PP	0.001	0.02
PPS	0.000	0.01
PS	0.426	13.54
PSU	0.000	0.00
PU: phenyl isocyanate	0.000	0.00
PU: polyol	0.000	0.00
PUR	0.000	0.00
PVC	0.007	0.22
PVDC	0.000	0.00
PVF	0.002	0.07

Total	0.96	30.46
UF	0.000	0.00
SAN	0.000	0.00

Sheet 4 (material composition over material footprint ratio):

Product / material	Cu	Al	Та	Plastics
Passenger car	1.58	1.14	1.00	1.33
Laptop	2.29	1.29	1.00	2.02
Refrigerator	1.07	1.04		1.60

Sheet 5 (matrices for the simple example):

Α	Cu extr	Cu ref	PCB	Laptop	Oil	Electr	Factory	Petrochei	Plastic
Cu extr	1	-1.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cu ref	0	1	-0.1	-0.2	0	0	-300	0	0
PCB	0	0	1	-1	0	0	0	0	0
Laptop	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Oil	0	0	0	0	1.2	-0.2	0	-1	0
Electr	0	0	0	0	0	1	-1000	0	0
Factory	0	0	0	-0.001	0	0	1	0	0
Petrochem	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	-1
Plastic	0	0	0	-1	0	0	-1000	0	1

В	Cu extr	Cu ref	PCB	Laptop	Oil	Electr	Factory	Petrochem	Plastic
Cu raw	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Crude oil	0	0	0	0	1.5	0	0	0	0
Cu emis.	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Oil emis.	0	0	0	0	0.3	0	0	0	0

P^A									
Cu extr	1	0.9	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Cu ref	1	1	1	0.975	1	1	1	1	1
PCB	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Laptop	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Oil	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Electr	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
Factory	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1
Petrochem	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Plastic	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

P^B	Cu extr	Cu ref	PCB	Laptop	Oil	Electr	Factory	Petrochem	Plastic
Cu raw	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Crude oil	1	1	1	1	0.80	1	1	1	1
Cu emis.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Oil emis.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

A~									
Cu extr	1	-1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cu ref	0	1	-0.1	-0.195	0	0	-300	0	0
PCB	0	0	1	-1	0	0	0	0	0
Laptop	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
Oil	0	0	0	0	1.2	-0.2	0	-1	0
Electr	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Factory	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Petrochem	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	-1
Plastic	0	0	0	-1	0	0	-1000	0	1

A~-1	Cu extr	Cu ref	PCB	Laptop	Oil	Electr	Factory	Petrocher	Plastic
	1	1	0.1	0.295	0	0	300	0	0
	0	1	0.1	0.295	0	0	300	0	0
	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0.416667	0.833333	0.166667	416.6667	0.416667	0.416667
	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
	0	0	0	0.5	0	0	500	0.5	0.5
	0	0	0	1	0	0	1000	0	1

B~	Cu extr	Cu ref	PCB	Laptop	Oil	Electr	Factory	Petrochei	Plastic
Cu raw	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Crude oil	0	0	0	0	1.2	0	0	0	0
Cu emis.	0	0.1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Oil emis.	0	0	0	0	0.3	0	0	0	0
g~			g						
Cu raw	0.295		Cu raw	0.660					
Crude oil	0.500		Crude oil	1.500					
Cu emis.	0.030		Cu emis.	0.060					
Oil emis.	0.125		Oil emis.	0.300					

A-1	Cu extr	Cu ref	PCB	Laptop	Oil	Electr	Factory	Petrocher	Plastic	fk
	1	1.1	0.11	0.66	0	0	330	0	0	0
	0	1	0.1	0.6	0	0	300	0	0	0
	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
	0	0	0	1	0.833333	0.166667	583.3333	0.416667	0.416667	0
	0	0	0	1	0	1	1000	0	0	0
	0	0	0	0.001	0	0	1	0	0	0
	0	0	0	1	0	0	500	0.5	0.5	0
	0	0	0	2	0	0	1000	0	1	0

	s~	ref(A~)	t~		s	ref(A)	1	t
Cu extr	0.295	1	0.295	Cu extr	0.660		1	0.660
Cu ref	0.295	1	0.295	Cu ref	0.600		1	0.600
PCB	1.000	1	1.000	PCB	1.000		1	1.000
Laptop	1.000	1	1.000	Laptop	1.000		1	1.000
Oil	0.417	1.2	0.500	Oil	1.000	1	.2	1.200
Electr	0.000	1	0.000	Electr	1.000		1	1.000
Factory	0.000	1	0.000	Factory	0.001		1	0.001
Petrochem	0.500	2	1.000	Petroche	1.000		2	2.000
Plastic	1.000	1	1.000	Plastic	2.000		1	2.000