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**A global review of consumer behavior towards e-waste and implications for the circular economy**

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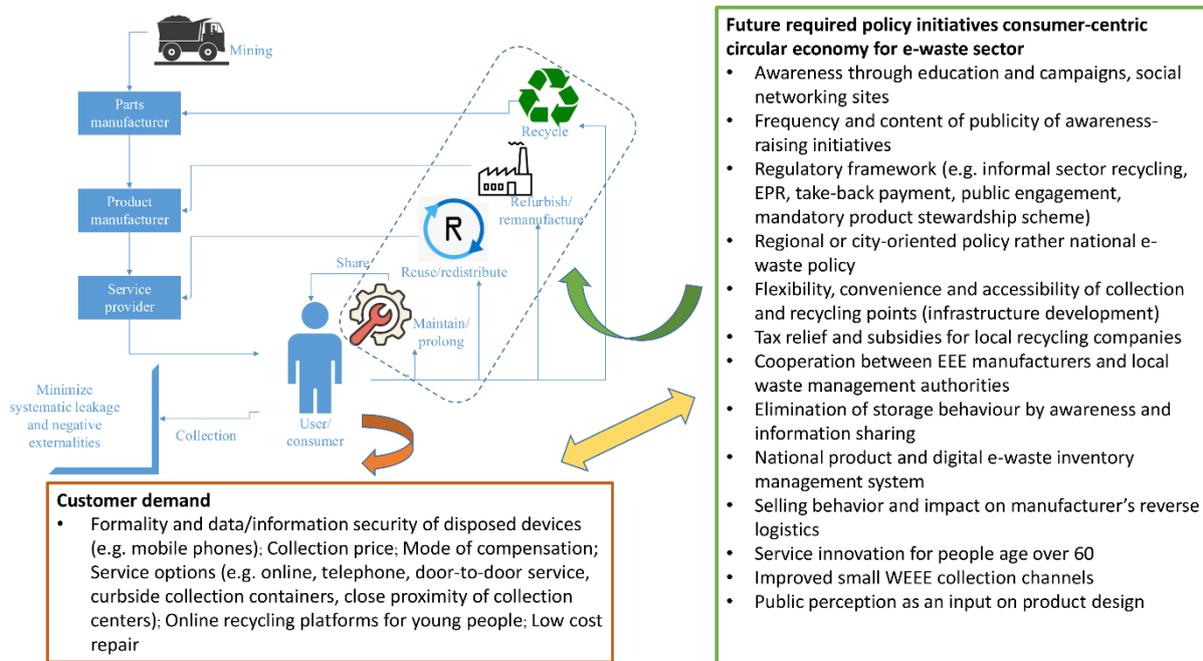
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**Highlights**

- Reviewed 109 scientific articles on consumers' behavior focusing on e-waste.
- Content analysis is implemented to ensure scientific rigor of this review.
- Policy initiatives and potential innovations in business model are discussed
- Research gaps are identified showing future research directions.
- A consumer-centric circular economy framework is illustrated.

**Graphical abstract**



**Abstract**

To tackle the alarming increase in e-waste or end-of-life (EoL) electronic products, consumer behavior towards the end of their useful life needs to be thoroughly studied. End users or consumers are the starting point where e-waste starts its journey into several paths within the circular economy (CE), such as repair, reuse, remanufacturing, and recycling. However, e-waste often ends up in landfill due to improper disposal of e-waste with household waste by consumers. Studying consumer behavior allows for the identification of appropriate approaches to achieve CE. Numerous academic journal papers have been published concerning consumers' e-waste-related knowledge and awareness, and behavior on consumption, disposal, storage, recycling, and repair. However, a substantial knowledge gap exists around how understandings of consumer behavior around e-waste may be integrated into the CE model. This article aims to reduce this gap by reviewing 109 research papers published in international peer-reviewed journals identified in the Web of Science (WoS) core collection database, using content analysis methodology to analyze and review the articles. The study aims to provide invaluable input for developing a more consumer-centric CE framework for both policymakers and researchers seeking to advance knowledge and implementation strategies around e-waste. This is the first systematic review of studies on consumer behavior around e-waste, to the best of the authors' knowledge. The study results show that consumers' disposal and recycling behaviors are the two main areas of research interest in the studies reviewed. In contrast, reuse and repair behavior were investigated to a lesser extent. In this study, several research gaps and areas for future research are identified, along with suggestions for a CE framework focusing on the e-waste sector that, encompasses policy initiatives and business model innovations. The identified studies presented here offer a valuable starting point for researchers who are starting to work on consumer behavior-related e-waste research.

**Keywords:** Consumer behavior, Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment (WEEE), Sustainable production and consumption, disposal, recycling, literature review

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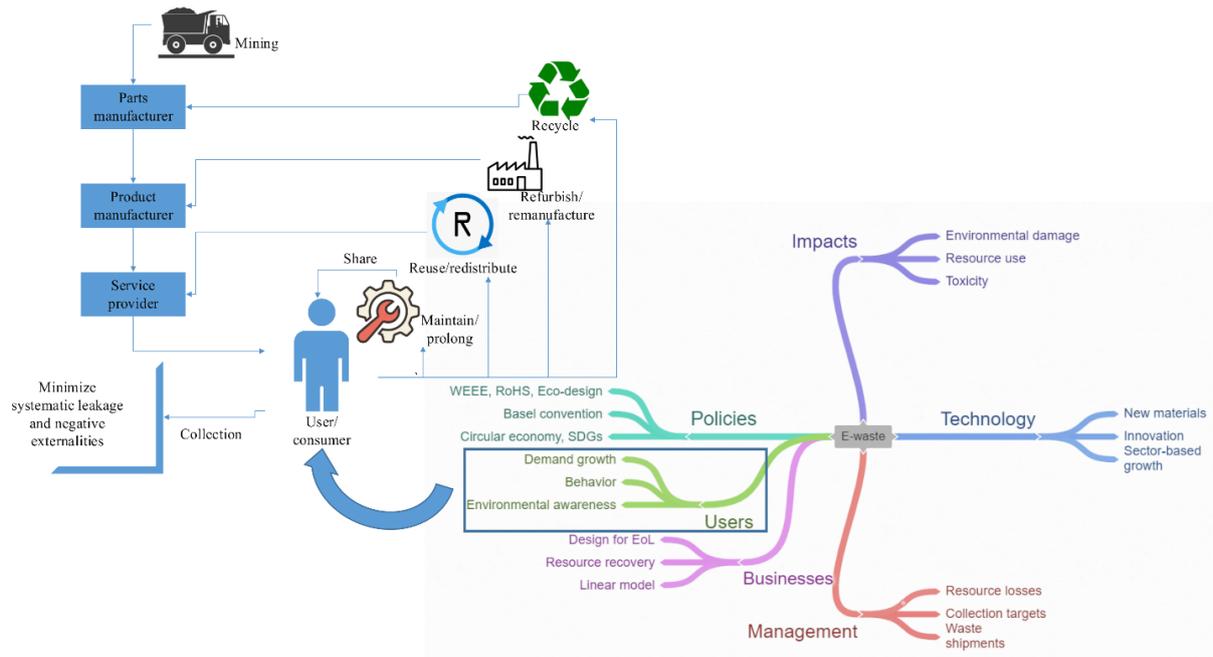
## 1. Introduction

### 1.1 E-waste and circular economy (CE)

The rapid technological revolution, coupled with increasing demand among consumers for high-tech products, has triggered unprecedented levels of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) consumption. At this moment, there are approximately 900 different types of EEE found in the international market (Forti et al., 2018). However, the electronic waste (e-waste) or Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment (WEEE) that EEE becomes at the end of its useful life poses a severe challenge to the environment as well as to human health due to the presence of highly toxic substances (Balde et al., 2017). E-waste management (EM) is one of the most pressing problems for today's modern society (Islam and Huda, 2019a), with around 53.6 million tons of e-waste generated worldwide in 2019 and levels escalating rapidly (Forti et al., 2020).

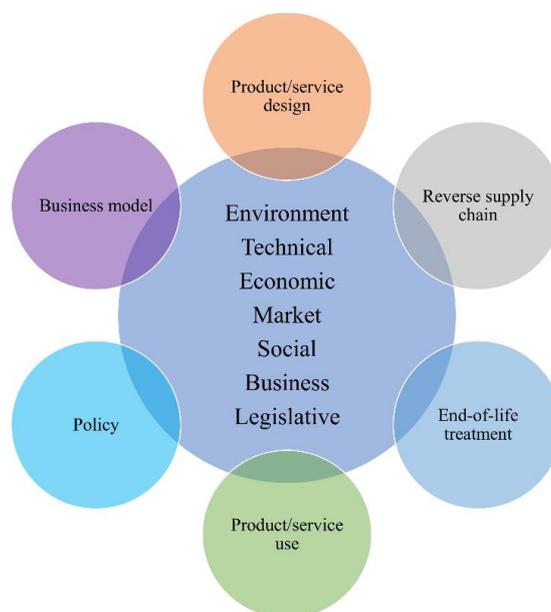
Aside from reducing negative impacts, improved management of e-waste streams represents a lucrative opportunity due to the various precious and rare earth elements it contains (Shumon et al., 2014). The starting point for e-waste is consumers, who determine its destination. As such, for e-waste management to improve, understanding consumers' behavior is central (Saphores et al., 2012).

Parajuly et al. (2019) identified that the consumer is one of the critical elements of the e-waste problem, with demand growth for EEE, consumers' environmental awareness, and behavior being key factors. From the CE perspective, four different paths are associated with consumers, which are (1) maintained/prolonged use, including sharing and repair; (2) reuse and distribution; (3) remanufacture/refurbishment; and (4) recycling (Fig. 1).



**Fig. 1.** E-waste, consumers and CE model, adapted from MacArthur (2013) and Parajuly et al. (2019)

CE is “an industrial economy that is restorative or regenerative by intention and design” (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2013). Reverse supply chain (RSC), product/service design, business models, EoL recovery, product/service use, and policy are the CE's building blocks (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2015). According to Lieder and Rashid (2016), "the definition is more comprehensive as it considers both the environmental and economic advantages simultaneously under the notion of regenerative performance” requiring novel business models that enable the high-quality circulation of technical material or nutrients and safe entry of bio-nutrients or regenerated materials into the biological sphere. Consumers, government, policymakers, charities, private sector investors, digital disruptors (at a multinational or entrepreneurial level), product manufacturers, parts manufacturers, service providers, and stakeholders of recycling industries are the main actors in CE (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2015, Infineo, 2020). Fig. 2 shows related factors (central inner circle) of a complex socio-economic system, and the building blocks of a CE. According to Alamerew and Brissaud (2020), the blocks and factors interact in a relatively complicated manner, requiring an interdisciplinary approach to solve problems. In this case, information on legal, economic, social, business, and environmental aspects are particularly critical (Brissaud and Zwolinski, 2017).



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**Fig. 2.** Building blocks of CE (Alamerew and Brissaud, 2020)

In 1990, e-waste was first considered as a priority waste stream in Europe, and in 2002, the European Union (EU) WEEE Directive was published (Directive, EC 2012). Parajuly and Wenzel (2017) argued that the e-waste stream possesses a high possibility for reuse and valuable material recovery. The Directive imposes strict obligations on producers regarding waste management under the Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) system (Horta Arduin et al., 2019). More recently, the EU CE action plan works towards "closing the loop" of product lifecycles through sustainable production and consumption and sound waste management (EU, 2019). Due to the diverse range of EEE products, the EU categorized e-waste items into six different segments. Table 1 shows the categories, sample products, and legislative provisions of recovery, reuse, and recycling for the member states.

**Table 1.** WEEE product categories with targets of EU WEEE Directive 2012/19/EU, adapted from Pérez-Belis, Victoria et al. (2015b), Islam and Huda (2018b) and (StEP, 2019)

Sl. No.	E-waste category	Sample e-waste product	Target	
			Recovered (%)	Prepared for re-use or recycled (%)
1	Temperature exchange equipment	Temperature exchange equipment, more commonly referred to as cooling and freezing equipment: refrigerators, freezers, air conditioners (ACs), heat pumps	85	80
2	Screens, monitors, equip. with surface screens >100 cm <sup>2</sup>	Televisions, monitors, laptops, notebooks, and tablets	80	70
3	Lamps	Fluorescent lamps, high intensity discharge lamps, and light emitting diode (LED) lamps	-	80
4	Large equipment (LE)	Washing machines (WM), clothes dryers, dish-washing machines, electric stoves, large printing machines, copying equipment, and photovoltaic panels	85	80
5	Small equipment (SE)	Vacuum cleaners, microwaves, ventilation equipment, toasters, electric kettles, electric shavers, scales, calculators, radio sets, video cameras, electrical and electronic (EE) toys, small electrical and electronic (SEE) tools, small medical devices, small monitoring, and control instruments	75	55
6	Small IT and telecommunication equipment	Mobile phones (MPs), Global Positioning Systems (GPS), pocket calculators, routers, personal computers (PCs)/desktop computers (DCs), printers, telephones	75	55

### 1.2 Research motivation and research questions

In recent times, research related to consumers' awareness of e-waste, consumption, storage, disposal, and recycling behavior has been gaining attention among researchers worldwide. Broadly, consumer behavior

focusing on e-waste can be categorized into several areas: consumption, storage, repair and reuse (R&R), disposal, and recycling (Bovea, M.D. et al., 2018). Knowledge and awareness about the formal collection system among consumers are also critical aspects that determine the sustainability of the system in the socio-economic sphere. Several studies, such as the study by Islam et al. (2020a), Ramzan et al. (2019), Saphores et al. (2007) and others, emphasized the issue. Previously, Borthakur and Govind (2017) published a review article that focused only on consumers' disposal behavior and awareness regarding e-waste, in which other behaviors were not highlighted and reviewed. Thus, a significant knowledge gap exists in understanding a holistic picture of consumers' behavior around e-waste. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this is the first attempt at reviewing consumer awareness and behavior focused on e-waste, considering all the behavioral aspects.

The main research questions (RQs) of the article are:

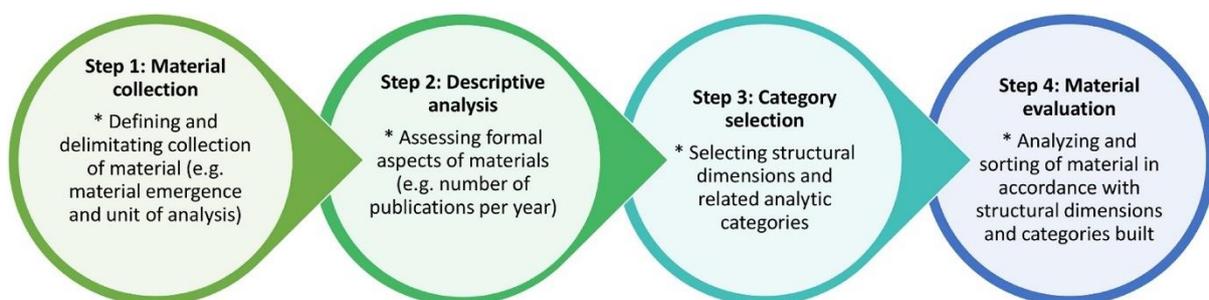
**RQ 1:** How do the issues related to consumer awareness and behavior with a particular focus on the e-waste sector contribute to the essential operational framework in achieving a CE?

**RQ 2:** How can the general understanding contribute to informing policymakers and researchers in identifying future policy measures to be taken and the necessity of performing research studies in the area?

After reviewing the articles on the issues, a consumer-centric CE framework is proposed with policy implications in Section 4. With this, RQ 1 was answered. Based on the in-depth literature review of the selected articles, research gaps were identified, proposing critical future research directions in Section 5, by which RQ 2 was addressed.

## 2. Research Methodology

According to Easterby-Smith et al. (2012) and Brocke et al. (2009), a literature review plays a critical role in understanding and exploring a specific research field's structure. New theory development and investigation scope could further progress the knowledge base by identifying a useful literature review (Machi and McEvoy, 2016). In this study, the four-steps systematic literature review technique proposed by Mayring (2001) under the qualitative content analysis method is utilized. Fig. 3 shows the four steps process model for the content analysis method consisting of material collection, descriptive analysis, category selection, and material evaluation. Mayring (2014) provided an extensive discussion on the method. Previously, several literature review articles have applied the research methodology to e-waste research (e.g., Wati and Koo (2010), Islam and Huda (2018b), Islam and Huda (2019b), Ismail and Hanafiah (2020), Ismail and Hanafiah (2019), Pérez-Belis, Victoria et al. (2015b)).



**Fig. 3.** Summary of the steps involved in qualitative content analysis, adapted from Mayring (2001) cited in Islam and Huda (2018b)

## 143 **2.1 Material collection**

144 To collect relevant articles that focused only on consumer behavior around e-waste, an extensive search was  
145 performed in the Web of Science (WoS) core collection database using “Advanced Search” window. The  
146 following keywords were used, which were previously utilized by Islam and Huda (2019a): “*TS= (“waste  
147 electrical and electronic equipment\*”) OR TS= (“e-waste”) OR TS= (“E-waste”) OR TS= (“WEEE”) OR  
148 TS= (“waste electronics\*”) OR TS= (“waste-electronics\*”) OR TS= (“electronic scrap”) OR TS= (“electronics  
149 waste”) OR TS= (“obsolete electronics\*”) OR TS= (“electronic-waste\*”) OR TS= (“electronic waste”) OR  
150 TS= (“electrical waste”) OR TS= (“electrical wastes”) OR TS= (“electronic wastes”) OR TS= (“waste  
151 electrical”) OR TS= (“wastes electrical”) OR TS= (“waste electronic”) OR TS= (“wastes electronic”) OR  
152 TS= (“electronic rubbish”) OR TS= (“electronic garbage”) OR TS= (“electrical rubbish”) OR  
153 TS= (“electrical garbage”)”.*

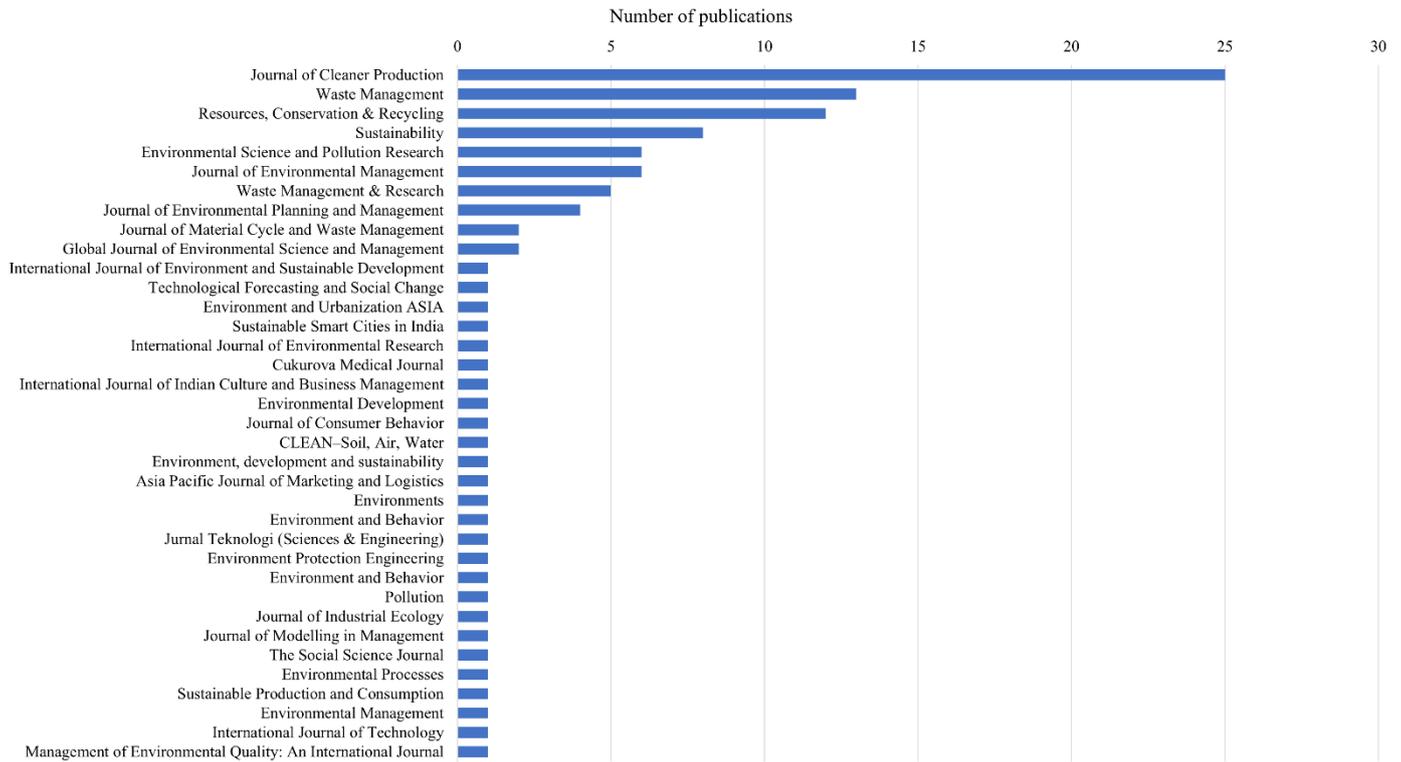
154 Here, TS refers to a topic utilized in the database. With these keywords, 4660 articles were found. In this stage,  
155 only "articles" (as a document category) and published in the "English" language were considered. Later,  
156 "public" OR "consumer\*" OR "consumers\*" OR "customer\*" OR "household\*" OR "resident\*" OR  
157 "residents\*" keywords were input in the refine search box of the database that retrieved a total of 907 articles.  
158 As the studies need to have a primary survey component as part of the methodology, the keyword "survey"  
159 was used in the refined search, which delivered 152 articles. The search was performed on 13 November 2020.  
160 Other criteria for selecting the articles were that the methodology section of the article must specify the sample  
161 size, sampling technique, and the number of the valid samples (of the participants).

162 In some cases, a few studies identified through the search involved surveyed stakeholders other than  
163 consumers, such as repair technicians, in the study by Sabbaghi et al. (2017). These were excluded from the  
164 selection, as the group does not represent consumers. Finally, 109 articles were found that only focused only  
165 on consumers' behavior around e-waste. The articles collected in the material-collection stage showed that  
166 authors had analyzed more than one issue in most cases. For example, Pérez-Belis et al. (2017) investigated  
167 the second-hand purchase and repair behavior of consumers focusing on small IT equipment in which they  
168 investigated consumption, R&R and disposal behavior altogether.

## 169 **2.2 Descriptive analysis**

### 170 **2.2.1 Journal-wise distribution**

171 The selected articles were published in thirty-six different journal outlets. From Fig. 4, it is evident that most  
172 of the papers were published in renowned journals such as the *Journal of Cleaner Production*, *Waste  
173 Management, Resources Conservation, and Recycling* and *Sustainability*. The diversity of the journal outlets  
174 publishing papers on consumer behavior related to e-waste shows the necessity of a multidisciplinary approach  
175 to analyzing specific behavior-related problems and solutions.



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**Fig. 4.** Number of papers published in journals

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**2.2.2 Year-wise frequency of publications**

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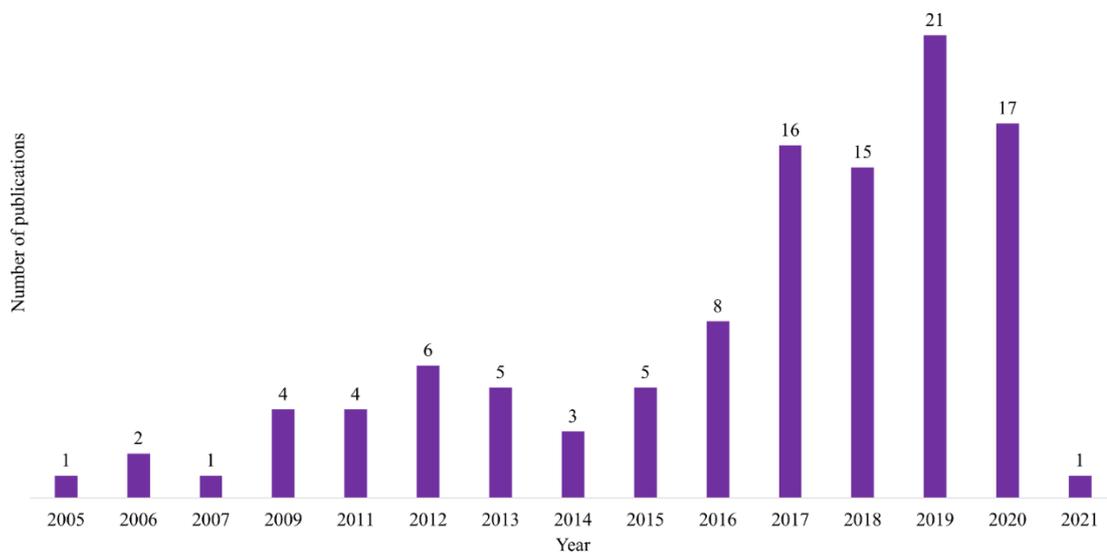
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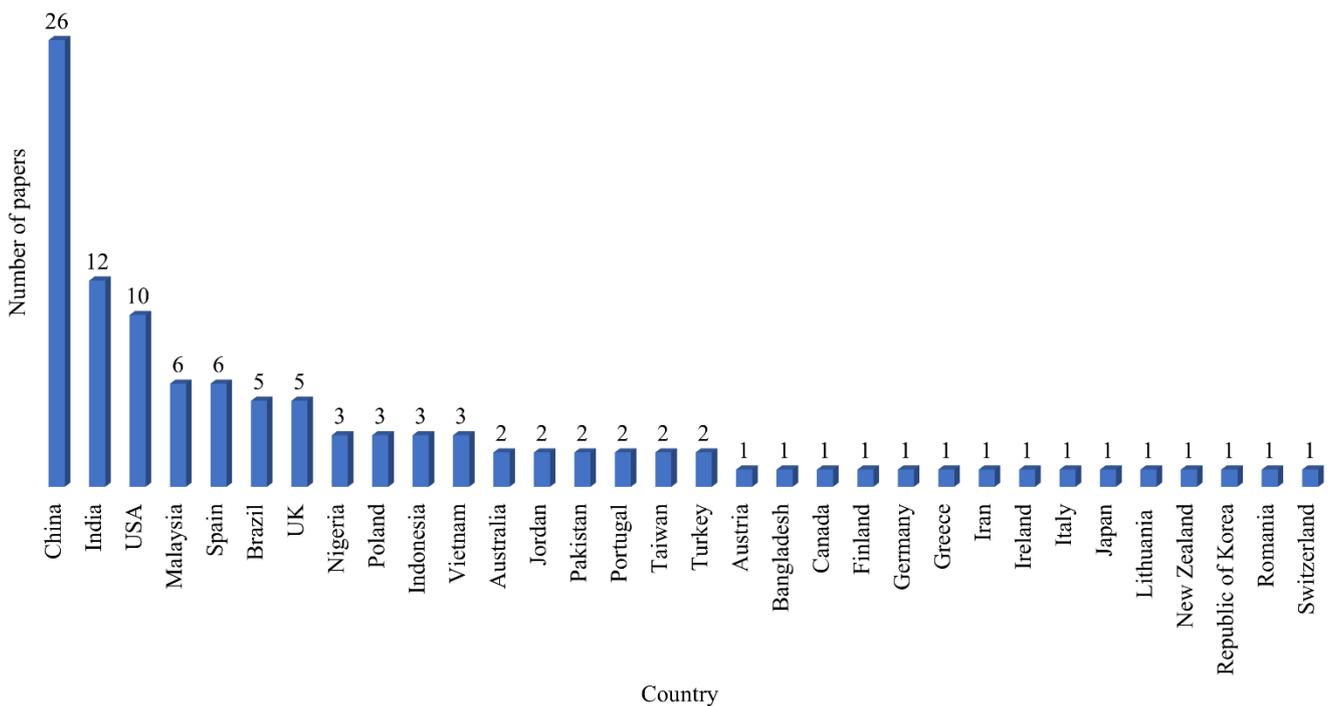
Annual distribution of the articles published on the consumer behavior related issues focusing on e-waste from 2005 to 2020 (until 13 November) is shown in Fig. 5. Most of the papers are published in recent years (2017-2020). 40 papers out of 106 papers were published before 2016, while 70 papers from 2017 or later. The highest number of papers were published in 2019. However, it is expected that the trend will continue (due to the increasing interest in the topic), and more papers will be published in the future. One article had a publication year of 2021, as some journals publish online version first and volume and issue numbers are assigned in advance.



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**Fig. 5.** Annual distribution of published papers (109 papers: 2005 – 2021)**2.2.3 Country-wise article production**

Fig. 6 shows the geographical distribution of the studies, in terms of the number of publications focusing on a specific country. China, under the group of developing countries, produced the highest number of articles (26 papers until November 2020), and this number is higher than the number of papers published by some of the countries from developed nations such as the USA (10 articles) and Spain (6 articles). Malaysia (5 papers), India (9 papers), and Brazil (5 papers) were some of the other developing countries in which consumers' behavior was studied. Even though e-waste is a global environmental problem and consumer behavior is an important factor for e-waste impacts, surprisingly, consumer behavior was studied in relatively few countries. For instance, from Australia, there are only two academic papers published on the issue in 2020.

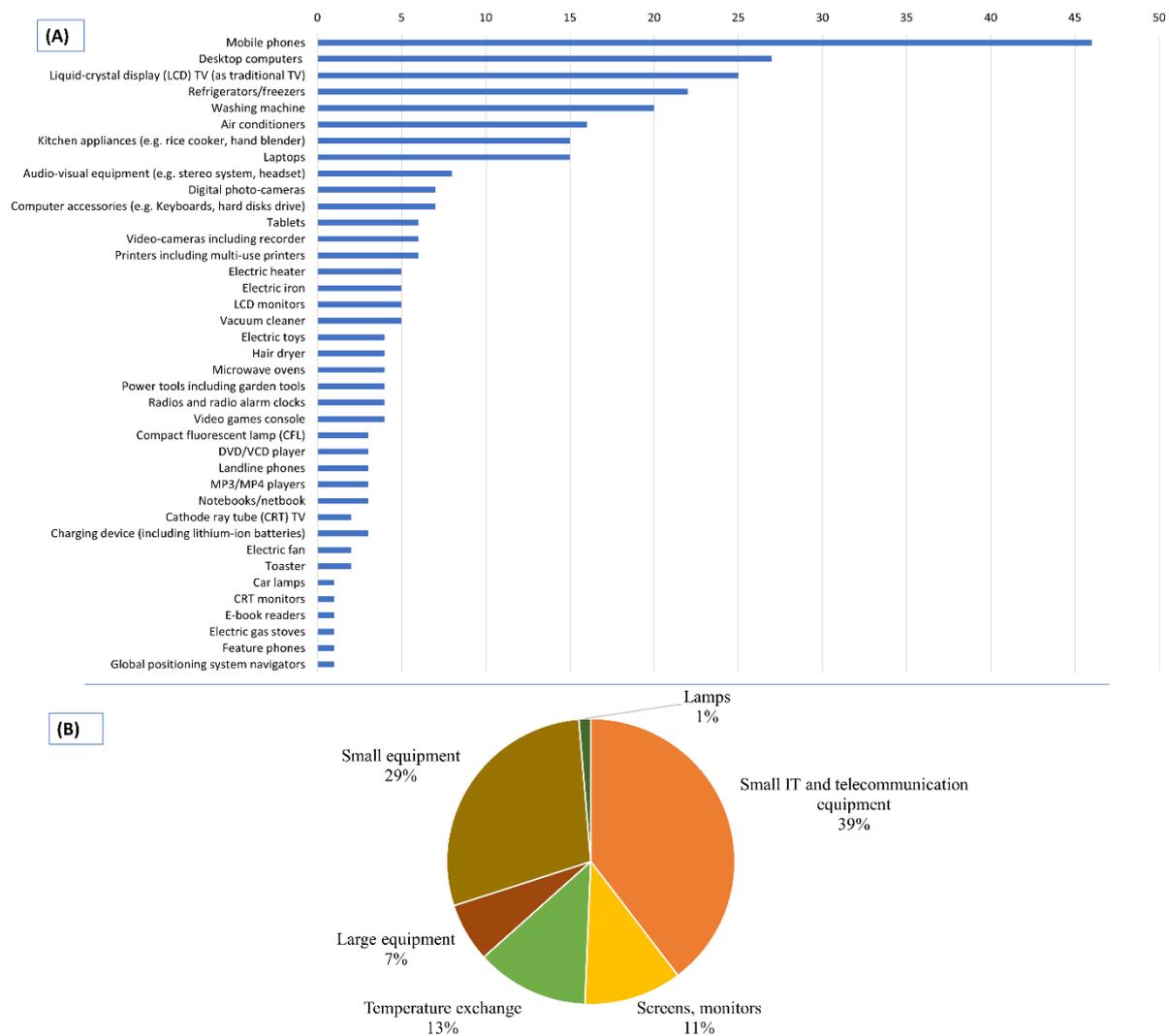


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**Fig. 6.** Geographical distribution and number of articles published by the countries**2.2.4 Product diversity in papers**

As consumer behavior varies substantially according to the categories of the products and specific product use, Fig. 7(A) shows the diversity of the products discussed in the selected articles. MPs (over 45%) were the most widely discussed topic in the consumer behavior related e-waste research (identified by analyzing the papers), followed by DCs (over 25%) and liquid crystalline displays (LCDs) (25%). In 24 papers, e-waste was not categorized; here, it is considered “e-waste in general,” which is not shown in Fig. 7.

Fig. 7(B) shows the distribution of the articles as per product categories presented in Table 1. SITTE (39%) products were most frequently considered, followed by SE (29%).



**Fig. 7.** Major e-waste considered in the papers (A) product (in %) and (B) category according to EU WEEE Directive (in %)

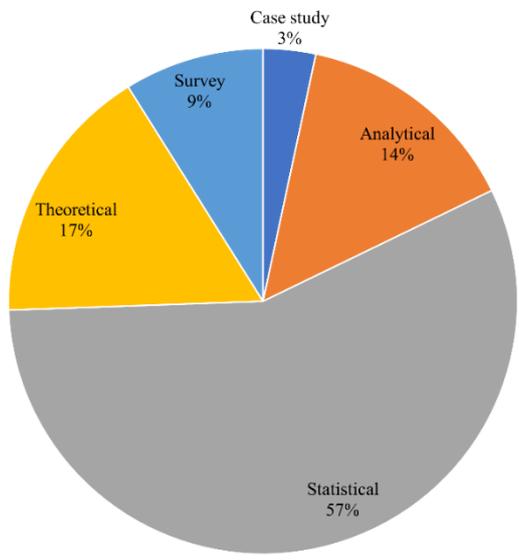
### 2.2.5 Distribution of research papers by methodology

In terms of research methodology (Fig. 8), the most frequent methodology was statistical (57%), followed by theoretical (17%), analytical (14%), survey (9%), and case study (3%). In Section S1 of the supplementary information (SI) of the article, details are given on utilized methodology. Although in this review article, articles that conducted surveys were selected, the "survey" as the research methodology category refers to the specific methodology that is directly connected with the data analysis technique. For example, the Contingent Valuation Method (CVM) is a survey-based economic technique (market research methodology) implemented mainly for assessing consumers' willingness to pay. Studies following this methodology are grouped under the survey category. Quasi-ethnographic approaches, direct waste analysis, and word of mouth research methodologies fall under the "case study" category.

Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) is one of the dominant theories used in the analysis technique coupled with structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM is a combined statistical technique consisting of multiple regression, path analysis, and factor analysis. Ajzen (1991) first postulated the TPB, and later several extended versions of the theory have been implemented in marketing research. This evolved out of the "Theory of Reasoned Action," which states that intentions are the best predictors of behaviors. The central premise of TPB is that something is more likely to be done if there is a plan to do it. According to TPB, intentions are the product of three different processes, (1) behavioral attitudes, (2) subjective norms, and (3) perceived

229 behavioral control. Papers that applied TPB, particularly in e-waste-related consumer behavior research, are  
 230 presented in the Appendix in Table A2, and the primary constructs and their interrelations are shown in Fig.  
 231 A1.

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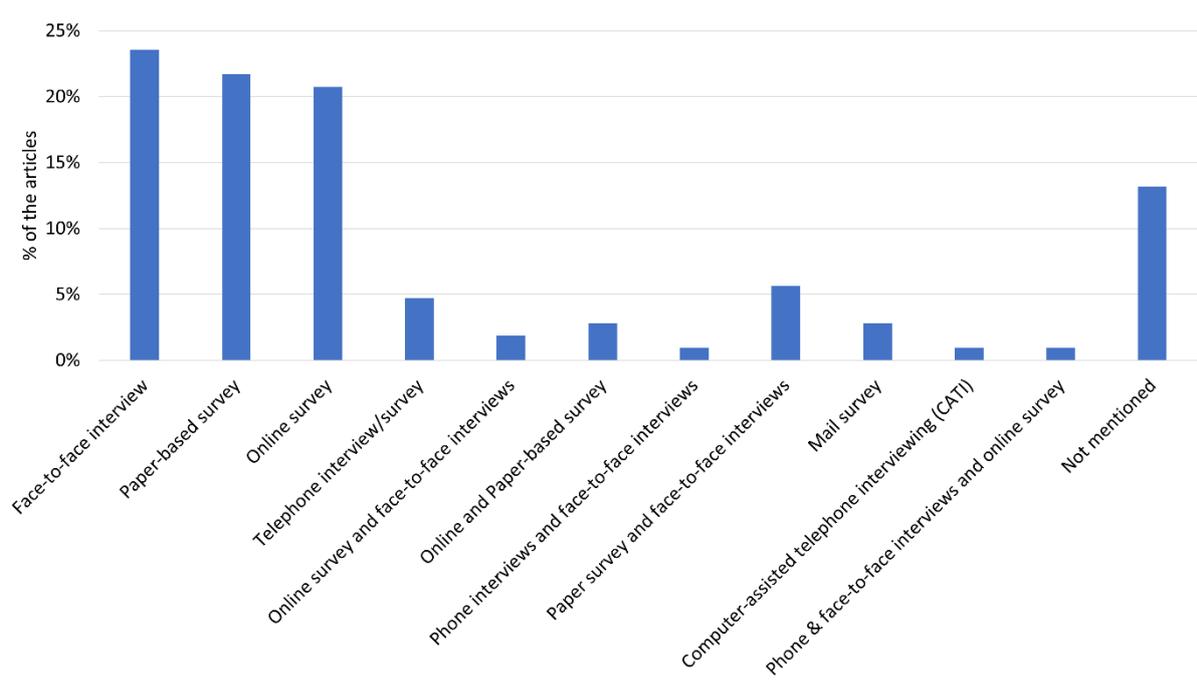
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**Fig. 8.** Distribution of research methodologies of the selected articles

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236 **2.2.6 Primary data collection and analysis techniques**

237 As mentioned earlier, in the selection criteria of the papers to be included in this article, a study must contain  
 238 a survey component in its research methodology. After analyzing the data collection technique (DCT) of the  
 239 papers (Fig. 9), it is found that face-to-face interviews (FTFI) were implemented by 24% of the articles,  
 240 followed by paper-based surveys (PBS) (22%) and online surveys (21%). Approximately 13% of the articles  
 241 mentioned that a survey was performed; but did not explicitly mention any specific DCTs. In some cases,  
 242 multiple DCTs were also observed; for instance, around 6% of the articles used both PBSs and FTFIs.



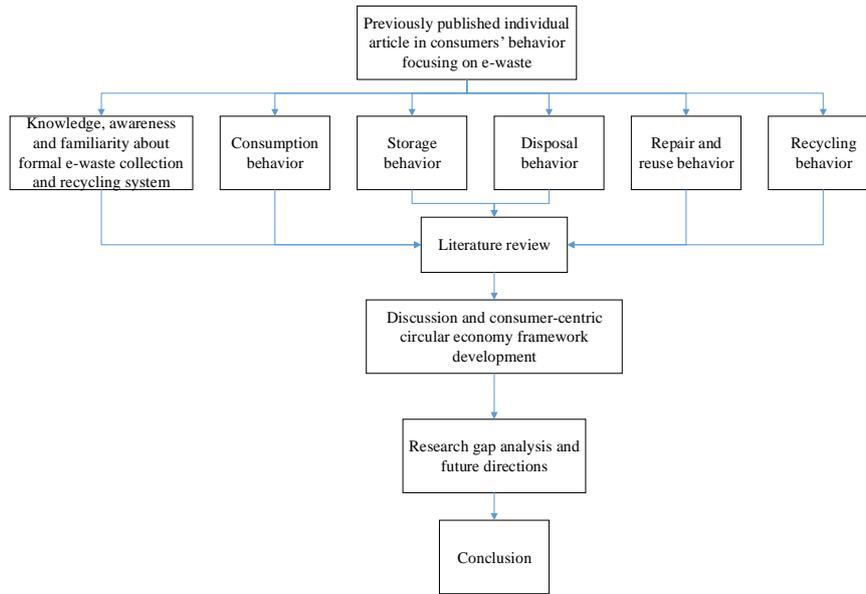
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**Fig. 9.** Data collection techniques of the articles

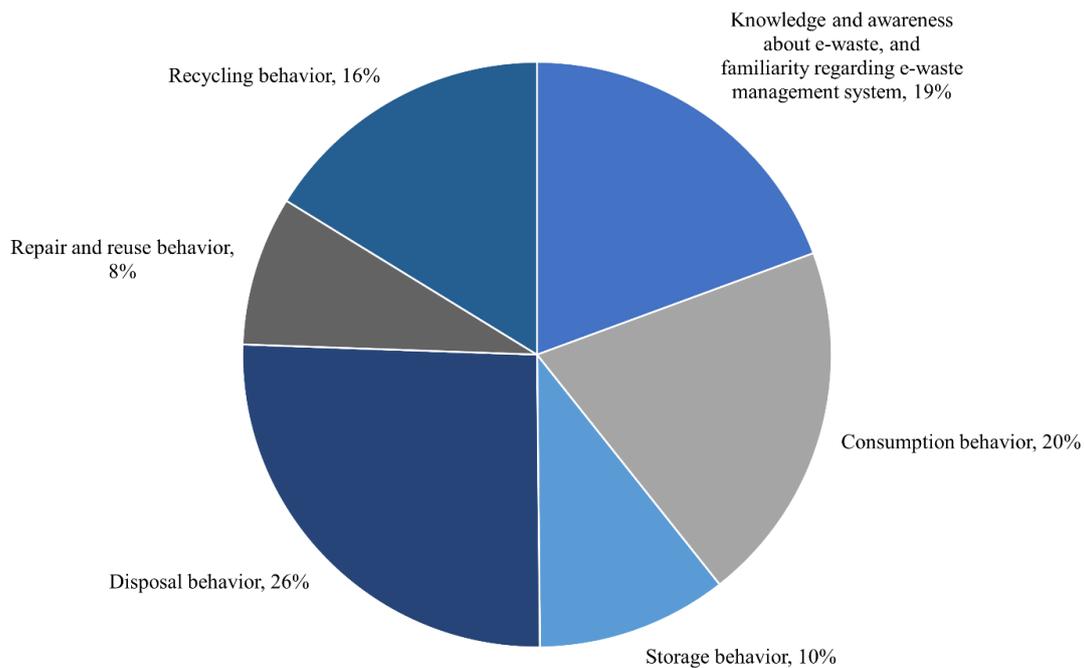
### 2.3 Category selection

The main categorization of the content of this article and the research framework is presented in Fig. 10. As mentioned in the material collection section, the literature is classified into six major research types/categories. These six categories are (1) knowledge, awareness, and familiarity about formal e-waste collection and recycling systems; (2) consumption behavior (CB); (3) storage behavior (SB); (4) R&R behavior; (5) disposal behavior (DB); and (6) recycling behavior (RB).



**Fig. 10.** Categorization and research framework of the studies

The distribution of the research articles for six different categories is shown in Fig. 11, with details of individual papers in Table S1 (in the SI). Disposal behavior was most commonly-assessed (26% of the publications), followed by consumption behavior (20%) and knowledge and awareness (19%). In contrast, recycling, storage, and repair /reuse behavior were less commonly studied, which illustrates the need for future exploration of these areas.



**Fig. 11.** Distribution of research articles for different categories

## 2.4 Material evaluation

Using inductive and deductive approaches simultaneously, two researchers performed a validity test as the last part of the content analysis process. The reliability of the content was measured by both intra-rater reliability and inter-rater reliability. After the material collection, all necessary data have been extracted as per categories and subcategories identified by the researchers and input in a Microsoft Excel™ spreadsheet to avoid repetition error. In the WoS database, the same keywords were utilized to search articles, producing similar results with the correct articles. This is how reliability was established. Over time, a few articles were added to the database. NVivo version 12 plus was utilized in some places, identifying specific content and subsequent analysis and for cross-referencing purposes. This is how the validity of the content has been achieved.

## 3. In-depth analysis of the literature

### 3.1 Consumers' knowledge and awareness regarding e-waste and familiarity of collection and recycling system

Response from the consumers regarding "what e-waste is" and "the negative health impact of e-waste" fell under the category of "general awareness," and these specific questions were investigated by around 19% of the articles. Rather than developed countries, this issue was mainly highlighted in the articles published from the developing countries. Associated issues that come under the category of consumers' knowledge and awareness are reviewed in the subsequent subsections.

#### 3.1.1 Understanding and perceptions of e-waste

Generally, mature adult consumers consider e-waste to create negative environmental impacts (Afroz et al., 2013, Siringo et al., 2020, Tan et al., 2018), even young consumers (Islam et al., 2020b, Ramzan et al., 2019); however, some studies indicated that level of awareness related to this is still substantially low (Awasthi and

285 Li, 2018, Borthakur and Govind, 2019, Ravindra and Mor, 2019, Saritha et al., 2015), even sometimes people  
286 do not consider e-waste as dangerous and toxic (Pandebezie et al., 2019).

287 Lack of information related to e-waste was found to be one of the critical aspects that need to be disseminated  
288 (Gök et al., 2017), as often e-waste recycling-related activities and consumers' role is unclear (understood as  
289 complicated and time-demanding task). This scenario prevails both in developing and developed countries,  
290 for example, by Saphores et al. (2012) in the USA, where the authors found that consumers were unwilling to  
291 transfer the waste to proper recycling facilities. Limited e-waste toxicity knowledge often creates barriers  
292 adopting environment-friendly products. Darby and Obara (2005) mentioned that consumers demanded more  
293 information on where they can recycle their small WEEE instead why they should recycle. In an e-waste take-  
294 back system, lack of awareness, insufficient information, and socio-demographic factors (e.g., age, gender)  
295 significantly affect consumers' motivation to return e-waste (Botelho et al., 2016).

296 There are also other behavioral factors associated with the motivation to adopt environment-friendly practices,  
297 and Siringo et al. (2020) found that moral norms, environmental beliefs, and social pressure significantly affect  
298 performing (or willingness to perform) appropriate activities, such as recycling. Liu et al. (2019) even urged  
299 for a fundamental change in the environmental awareness and behavior. Environmental beliefs largely  
300 influence willingness to pay (WTP) to develop a sustainable EM system, even if recycling convenience is  
301 limited (Nixon et al., 2009). Nguyen et al. (2021) mentioned that end-user's willingness to participate in  
302 recycling programs, laws and regulations, inconvenience of recycling, and experience were four key factors  
303 that indicated WTP for e-waste recycling. Adequate environmental knowledge could lead to stronger  
304 environmental belief, and Saphores et al. (2007) found that environmental knowledge was a significant  
305 predictor of WTP for environmentally friendly products. Several authors suggested that consumers'  
306 awareness-raising programs should be organized (Saritha et al., 2015).

### 307 **3.1.2 Lack of e-waste-related awareness – the consequences**

308 Due to lack of knowledge, informal sector collectors and recyclers got an advantage and became more  
309 influential. For example, Islam et al. (2016) found that 30% of the households preferred to sell their e-waste  
310 items to local scrap collectors or even throwing e-waste with household waste, as indicated by Pasiiecznik et  
311 al. (2017)'s study in which 12% of respondents (mostly young consumers) did so. For a formal system  
312 (developed and prepared as per environmental guidelines), 'weak environmental protection awareness' and  
313 limited knowledge of recycling channels results in a low collection rate, which is a loss in investment. Low-  
314 level of awareness could also influence personal beliefs. For example, Fraige et al. (2012) found that 11% of  
315 consumers believed that they could dispose of WEEE with household waste. Product-specific waste collection,  
316 for instance, in the case of waste mobile phone (WMP) recycling, low awareness levels, and inadequate  
317 recycling abilities were considered as main obstacles (Liu et al., 2019).

318 Furthermore, hibernating behavior (storing e-waste) could evolve due to little e-waste knowledge. Storing e-  
319 waste at home, a general practice (Borthakur and Govind, 2019), is nothing but stockpiling material resources  
320 in the whole supply chain or the built environment. Bai et al. (2018) particularly mentioned that perception  
321 regarding resource conservation effort (which was not well-recognized) needs to be more understood by the  
322 consumers.

### 323 **3.1.3 Familiarity of collection and recycling programs**

324 The familiarity of the formal collection and recycling system (C&RS) is critical for a system's overall long-  
325 term sustainability. Often such awareness, especially location of the nearest e-waste collection points, was  
326 found limited (Borthakur and Govind, 2019, Cao et al., 2018, Gu et al., 2017, Ravindra and Mor, 2019) or  
327 even any e-waste recovery programs in city area such as Bangalore, India (Awasthi and Li, 2018), Hong Kong,  
328 China (Deng et al., 2017), Sydney, Australia (Islam et al., 2020b), although in some cases, related e-waste  
329 knowledge was present. Environmental consciousness among young university students is expected to be  
330 higher than the general population, as seen by Dhingra and Maheshwari (2018) and Ramzan et al. (2019), and  
331 Islam et al. (2020b). Publicizing information regarding formal C&RSs was found to be critical in several  
332 studies (Cai et al., 2020, Park et al., 2019, Yin et al., 2014, Ylä-Mella et al., 2015), while Wang et al. (2018)

333 disagreed with that. Due to the lack of appropriate information regarding collection points, Colesca et al.  
334 (2014) found that 43.48% of the respondents dispose of their e-waste via other pathways such as landfills.  
335 Information dissemination on the collection schedule was also critical (Nowakowski, 2016). Miner et al.  
336 (2020) mentioned that community-based interventions to improve awareness levels have significance.

337 Dagiliūtė et al. (2019) mentioned that despite self-reported awareness, consumers were not familiar with the  
338 various classifications of e-waste (category of EEE) under the national EM of Lithuania. Among the various  
339 categories of e-waste, SE has a relatively shorter lifespan, and Echeagaray (2016) found that the products'  
340 expected lifespan decreases with the electronic device's portability. Cao et al. (2016) concluded that most  
341 consumers could not differentiate between formal and informal sector e-waste collection channels. Chi et al.  
342 (2014) mentioned that despite the higher economic benefits of old-for-new (OFN) collection schemes, 60.7%  
343 of respondents in their survey did not know about the price differences with other collection channels.  
344 Martinho et al. (2017) mentioned that environmental consciousness existed among Portuguese consumers,  
345 however, due to a lack of knowledge about recycling campaigns/programs, such moderately familiar aspects  
346 failed to capitalize on the higher collection and recycling rate of waste tablets and MPs.

### 347 **3.1.4 Impact of socio-economic factors on consumers' e-waste knowledge and awareness**

348 In India, Singh et al. (2018) found that respondents with higher educational qualifications had higher  
349 awareness about e-waste. Similar results were also found by Shaikh et al. (2020) in Pakistan. Nowakowski  
350 (2019) identified the factor as influential in Poland. Islam et al. (2020a) found that age, household size, and  
351 income were significantly associated with recycling program familiarity, while Milovantseva and Saphores  
352 (2013a) found gender and age. Regional distribution of EEE use and gender are vital attributes to a successful  
353 e-waste management system (EMS). Bhatt et al. (2017) found that most women from Delhi and NOIDA were  
354 more cognizant of the environmental issues related to e-waste. However, Miner et al. (2020) mentioned that  
355 respondents' socio-demographic characteristics had no significant influence on the levels of awareness,  
356 knowledge, and willingness to participate in the EM programs and extended producer responsibility schemes.

### 357 **3.1.5 Awareness improvement techniques**

358 Arain et al. (2020) suggested that e-waste educational campaigns should inform consumers on what constitutes  
359 e-waste and why it is essential to ensure proper recycling. Saphores et al. (2006) mentioned that providing  
360 education to young people and making e-waste sites convenient (similar to the curbside collection program  
361 for other recyclable products) for older people were crucial aspects of participants' willingness to recycle.  
362 Song et al. (2012) mentioned that despite general hazard perceptions among consumers regarding e-waste,  
363 educational campaigns should be promulgated specifically for reuse and recycling. Environmental protection  
364 and resource conservation-related education should be given at an early stage, creating recycling habits.

365 Jafari et al. (2017) contend that the focus of awareness-raising campaigns should be on college students,  
366 higher-income households, and married residents. Young consumers in a developing country, such as China,  
367 believe that EM is a shared responsibility of different stakeholders, including consumers, the government,  
368 manufacturers, and sellers (Ramzan et al., 2019). Huang et al. (2006) also found that respondents are willing  
369 to share environmental responsibilities around e-waste in China and similar perceptions exist amongst  
370 Australian consumers (Islam et al., 2020b). Kumar (2019) mentioned an opportunity to influence and  
371 propagate pro-environment behavior amongst young adults through university programs. Table S2 presented  
372 in the SI shows various solution techniques proposed by the reviewed articles' authors improving consumer  
373 awareness.

374

## 375 **3.2 Consumer behaviors**

376 Various consumers' behaviors were analyzed in the selected articles. The articles were categorized into five  
377 different consumer behavior types, as shown in Fig. 11 (consumption, storage, disposal, repair/reuse and  
378 recycling), which are discussed in the following sub-sections.

379

### 3.2.1 Analyzing consumers' consumption behavior

“Consumption behavior” was one of the significant topical issues researched by over 20% of the selected articles. Measurements applied to understand behavior included the number of appliances in households, average ownership of household appliances, average lifespan of EEE, reasons for replacing EEE and, frequency of replacement. Factors affecting consumption behavior are discussed below, including growing device penetration rate, source of device acquisition, factors-related to purchase decision, device-specific product ownership, reasons and trend of device replacement, and product lifespan. A detailed summary table of the consumers' consumption-related studies is presented in Table S3 in the article's SI. In the last column of the table (category), articles were mapped according to their discussion area.

#### 3.2.1.1 Growth of device penetration rate – the reasons

The consumption of AC is influenced by climatic conditions to a greater degree than other products such as PCs (including DCs and laptops), TV sets, refrigerators, and WMs (Cai et al., 2020, Chung et al., 2011, Song et al., 2012). During the Christmas season, consumption of electrical and electronic toys increases (Pérez-Belis, V. et al., 2015). On the other hand, new government initiatives in ICT knowledge and skill dissemination program showed a positive trend in higher device usage. Similarly, Rodrigues et al. (2020) identified that the government incentive program accelerated computers and printers' penetration rate. The major contributing factors to high penetration and replacement rates were the rapid economic growth of a country (Bhatt et al., 2017, Huang et al., 2006, Nguyen et al., 2009), the income of growing consumer segments, and the competitive market for electronic products (Arain et al., 2020, Cai et al., 2020, Shaikh et al., 2020), affordable fast-pace technological innovation and price (Afroz et al., 2012, Arain et al., 2020, Bhatt et al., 2017), local manufacturing base (Afroz et al., 2012), ever-increasing consumer demand (Cai et al., 2020), poor electronic repairability coupled with shorter product lifespan (Arain et al., 2020). High-tech device penetration, such as PCs, now becomes an indicator of a city's economic and cultural development (Li et al., 2012). Among large equipment, the most consumed products are washing machines, air conditioners and refrigerators (Cai et al., 2020, Nguyen et al., 2009). Chi et al. (2014) mentioned that, except for mobile phones, per capita consumption for large equipment was higher than small equipment such as camcorders and printers. On the other hand, a high device replacement rate indicates consumption patterns and future EG (Arain et al., 2020, Fraige et al., 2012).

#### 3.2.1.2 Factors-related to purchase decision

Consumers prefer to buy cheap (nonbrand) electronics, despite a shorter lifespan (Othman et al., 2015). Comparative price (Afroz et al., 2012, Gök et al., 2017, Islam et al., 2016), warranty period, brands, and installment facilities were also found as critical criteria during product purchase (Islam et al., 2016). Recommendations from friends and, store promotion were some of the motivating factors behind purchasing decisions (Afroz et al., 2012), while Huang et al. (2006) found that "launching of new products with more powerful designs and extended capacity" and "the increasing purchasing power" were the main reasons for new product purchase.

Some studies introduced a hypothetical green product to assess consumers' WTP or willingness to buy (WTB). For example, Nnorom et al. (2009) and Milovantseva (2016) populated the concept of “green phones” that do not contain any hazardous substances and can be disposed of with regular household solid waste. The products' purchase and use intentions were found to be positive, despite discrepancies about extra money (Saphores et al., 2007). The primary enablers for green product purchase and WTP for such products were environmental attitude (improving local environment), resource (money or wealth), ease of use, and product eco-labeling (Huang et al., 2006, Nnorom et al., 2009, Sheoran and Kumar, 2020). Milovantseva (2016) found that consumers who had a positive attitude towards recycling small electronics had significant environmental beliefs. Importance of environmental product labeling was critical especially, for informed decision-making of the consumers (Bovea, M.D. et al., 2018, Huang et al., 2006).

Tu et al. (2018) found that brand recognition, service quality, usage period, and perceived prices are the most significant characteristics of “iPhone” as a MP brand. For purchase motivation, “recognition” and “brand advantage” were the factors. In contrast, “recognition,” “brand advantage,” and “service quality” were essential factors for brand loyalty, and “perceived price” was necessary for purchase intention. Authors also found that female respondents were more inclined towards “recognition,” “brand advantage,” and “perceived price” than their male counterparts. Simultaneously, the level of income was the critical socio-economic variable for the factor “perceived price.” The factor also influenced the consumers’ purchase intention. Bai et al. (2018) reported that consumers tended to purchase mobile phones more frequently, and the service life of mobile phones was decreasing dramatically, with phones most commonly purchased brand new through official channels.

Echegaray (2016) and Li et al. (2012) showed variable ownership levels for different appliances, with MPs having the highest per-capita consumption and, DCs the lowest. Similarly, Araujo et al. (2017) observed that mobile phone ownership was higher than other LE such as WMs, ACs, and SE such as tablets and DCs. In India, Borthakur and Govind (2019) that the number of the out-of-use mobile phone was equal to or higher than the number of in-use mobile phones. Bai et al. (2018) identified that more than two MPs were possessed by the majority of the consumers in China. Martinho et al. (2017) identified that smartphone usage is higher than tablets in Portugal. Consumers with high income and education tended to acquire more high-tech equipment, such as MPs, plasma TV sets, PCs, and ACs (Cao et al., 2016, Nguyen et al., 2009, Song et al., 2012) in China and Vietnam.

### 3.2.1.3 General product-focused trend

Rodrigues et al. (2020) found that the device acquisition (possession) period was higher for white goods but smaller for SE and screen categories. Zhang, L. et al. (2019) mentioned that product functionality is shifting towards more portable devices (e.g., DCs’ functions could be replaced by tablets and laptops and digital cameras by mobile phone). A stationary device such as a PC requires fewer updates among the students. Borthakur and Govind (2019) identified that between computers and MPs, the latter is replaced more frequently than the first one among the Indian consumers. For example, within 2–3 years, MPs were replaced, and for computers, it was every 3–4 years. However, beyond four years, none of the devices were used.

### 3.2.1.4 Reasons for device replacement

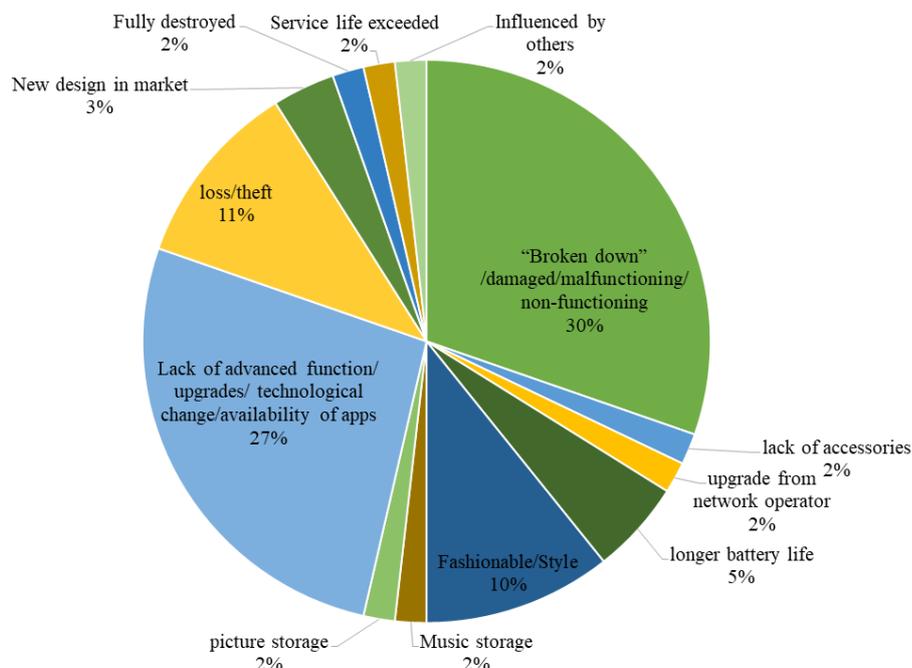
The reasons for product replacement could be broadly categorized as malfunction, technological obsolescence, and demand for additional features (Sabbaghi and Behdad, 2018). Consumers’ perceived obsolescence is characterized by physical and technological obsolescence. The first two reasons were more evident in European developed countries, and the last one is seen from the developing country’s context. Furthermore, due to demand for additional features, the product itself became obsolete and in that case, replacing a new item was the only option that consumers had. Wieser and Tröger (2018) revealed that perceived obsolescence is the primary motivation for mobile phone replacements and the defective device was the main reason for replacement. Perceived obsolescence was the main reason for replacement rather than “desire for a new phone”. Logics of technological change and fashion were the determinants of replacement.

Articles discussing for product replacement identified multiple reasons, which varied between products. The fast advancement of technology, function, and application availability was critical for MPs (Bai et al., 2018). Among the various reasons, “broken down”/malfunctioning device/damaged” was found as the main reason for device replacement regardless of the product types (Borthakur and Singh, 2020, Islam et al., 2020a, b, Martinho et al., 2017, Miner et al., 2020, Ongondo and Williams, 2011, Pérez-Belis et al., 2017, Rodrigues et al., 2020, Shaikh et al., 2020, Tan et al., 2018, Yin et al., 2014). Pandebesie et al. (2019) discovered that the unstable electrical voltage was the main reason for products malfunctioning in Indonesia. It is a common phenomenon in developing countries.

Among the other (secondary) reasons, lack of accessories of SE (Pérez-Belis et al., 2017), upgrade from network operator, longer battery life, fashionable, music storage, picture storage for MPs (Martinho et al.,

476 2017, Miner et al., 2020, Ongondo and Williams, 2011), new system requirements by software applications  
 477 for DCs (Islam et al., 2016), old design and backdated functionalities (Afroz et al., 2012, Martinho et al., 2017,  
 478 Shaikh et al., 2020, Yin et al., 2014), stolen (Liu et al., 2019, Miner et al., 2020, Shaikh et al., 2020), lost (Tan  
 479 et al., 2018), completely destroyed (Tan et al., 2018), service lifetime exceeded (Tan et al., 2018), market  
 480 introduction of newer designs (Miner et al., 2020), “influences by others (e.g., through advertisement, friends  
 481 and trend)” (Afroz et al., 2012) were found critical among consumes. Distribution of the reasons for  
 482 replacement is shown in Fig. 12.

483



484

485

**Fig. 12.** Top reasons for device replacement

486 In some studies, fashion pursuit (Cao et al., 2016, Liu et al., 2019), “additional and more advance technological  
 487 features” (Afroz et al., 2012, 2013) were selected as the main reason for device replacement. Borthakur and  
 488 Singh (2020) found that consumers tended to buy new phones even though their old phone is still working,  
 489 with fashion and status often driving such behavior around mobile phones (Shaikh et al., 2020, Yin et al.,  
 490 2014) and small equipment such as MP3/MP4 players and notebooks (Cai et al., 2020, Rodrigues et al., 2020).  
 491 Such high device replacement rates can indicate future EG (Arain et al., 2020, Fraige et al., 2012). On the  
 492 other hand, Shaikh et al. (2020) mentioned that consumers from Pakistan tended to buy new EEE due to their  
 493 needs, not for luxury, regardless of the new product introduction in the market.

494

### 495 3.2.1.5 Factors affecting device replacement

496 Ongondo and Williams (2011) found that among the various parts of a mobile phone, replacing batteries was  
 497 the most frequent activity among students for which the device was replaced. New device purchases do not  
 498 necessarily depend on products being malfunctioned; instead, consumers demand improved quality or  
 499 capacity. Echegaray (2016) identified that “technical failure” serves as a proxy indicator for product  
 500 obsolescence, and this is observed as a tangible reality for all individuals. Milovantseva and Saphores (2013a)  
 501 found that getting a more recent model is their primary motivation for replacement in the case of MPs.  
 502 However, replaced phones were still in working condition and hold economic value.

503 Nowakowski (2016) mentioned that the time to replace LE is higher than SE. Jayaraman et al. (2019) found  
 504 that computer literacy had a significant moderation effect on laptop usage. If a user has a relatively high

505 knowledge of using laptops, then there is a high probability that device replacement would occur after active  
 506 use.

507 **3.2.1.6 Perspectives of young consumers**

508 Ongondo and Williams (2011) identified that young consumers' age was not associated with the frequency of  
 509 mobile phone replacing and the number of phones stockpiled by students. Islam et al. (2020b) found that the  
 510 "number of items in use" laptops, television sets, and DCs were significantly associated with age, income, and  
 511 household size of young consumers in Australia. Around 28% of the students changed their MPs every year.  
 512 Besides device failure, mobile phone replacement because of the upgrades from network operators was  
 513 dominant, and this should be considered the planned obsolescence. The young consumers' lifestyle was found  
 514 responsible for the shorter lifespan of MPs (or the damage of the phones). Although limited, a small proportion  
 515 of the students changed their MPs due to fashion pursuit. Wieser and Tröger (2018) found that the definition  
 516 of "up-to-datedness" of a mobile phone varied. For example, old respondents perceived that their MPs were  
 517 not technologically or aesthetically obsolete, opposite to the young.

518

519 **3.2.1.7 Product-lifespan**

520 Product lifespan-related articles are summarized in Table 2.

521 **Table 2.** Summary of product lifespan-related articles

Discussion focus	Reference	Summary
MPs	Abbondanza and Souza (2019)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>MPs are the fastest growing e-waste items than CRT monitors, refrigerators and freezers, and CRT TVs</li> </ul>
	Cai et al. (2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>On average, consumers use MP for 6 hours per day</li> </ul>
	Borthakur and Singh (2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Although the potential life span of a mobile phone is around ten years, the present-day scenario is such that people will not use their phone longer.</li> </ul>
	Bhatt et al. (2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Consumers in different parts of India is also changing their MPs in 1-2 years.</li> </ul>
	Thiébaud et al. (2018)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>MPs' service life is often connected to mobile phone contracts. Consumers' expected service life for MPs was four years, while, MPs became obsolete (no longer in use) after three years.</li> </ul>
	Liu et al. (2019)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The lifespan of MPs was considerably shorter than the technical life expectancy and reduced from 3 years to 1 year (within the analyzed period 2011-2018)</li> </ul>
	Cai et al. (2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>MPs' service life is longer than the average life that included storage time</li> </ul>
	Jayaraman et al. (2019)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Modular repair work, for example, a broken screen of a mobile phone, could extend the product lifespan.</li> </ul>
	Ongondo and Williams (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Network operators' motivations and management strategies were identified as one of the undiscovered investigations, with operator promoting a culture of quick new technology obsolescence and product upgrades, with this seen as necessary for network providers to retain consumers</li> </ul>

Comparison between small and LE	Botelho et al. (2016), Cao et al. (2016), Chi et al. (2014), Echegaray and Hansstein (2017), Ravindra and Mor (2019)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Small IT equipment such as MPs, digital camcorders has a shorter lifespan (consumers changed every 2-3 years) than screens and LE such as TV sets, WM, and refrigerators</li> </ul>
	Nowakowski (2016)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The average lifespan for refrigerators was higher than for TV sets and WMs.</li> </ul>
	Islam et al. (2016)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Frequent repairing for refrigerators and TV sets was an economic burden for consumers, but essential to reach consumers' expected product lifespan rather than extend product lifespan</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>most EEE used by the households were phased out within the product lifespan, and devices were updated within two-thirds of the products' designed lifespan. TV sets and computers were notable.</li> </ul>
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>the average lifespan of devices was three years, and old portable electronic devices have been replaced three times within the device ownership period</li> </ul>
Factors associated with product lifespan	Zhang, L. et al. (2019)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>The product lifespan of SE is shorter among university students than the general population</li> </ul>
	Shaikh et al. (2020)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Lifespan of flat panel television, routers and modems, laptops, notebooks, and tablets were higher among women.</li> </ul>
	Echegaray (2016)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Individuals' past experiences with products (falling short of a reasonable lifetime) should relate to the informed decision making of consumers' expectations and specific product durability</li> </ul>
	Pandebesie et al. (2019)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>EEE's lifespan depends on the quality of the goods rather than the availability and quality of electricity.</li> </ul>
Product lifespan – an indicator for future planning	Abbondanza and Souza (2019)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Efficiency and efficacy of a take-back system largely depend on local data on product lifespan, required for future policy planning, especially location and capacity of WEEE dismantling units and WEEE collection routing.</li> </ul>
	Chung et al. (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Regional data on product lifespan data is incredibly useful, and lifespan-related data collection methods should be more efficient and accurate</li> </ul>
	Gök et al. (2017)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Service life of product is inversely proportional to the quantity of EG</li> </ul>
	Yin et al. (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Product service life is directly associated with energy and resource use</li> </ul>

522

523 Overall, product lifespan is a critical parameter that is generally used to estimate EG. Furthermore, for a similar  
524 product, the reported value of product lifespan may provide a tentative international comparison for future  
525 studies and define that product's lifespan profile. Table 3 shows the lifespan of various e-waste items.

**Table. 3** Reported product lifespans (in years) of various EEE (as e-waste)

Ref.	Country	Product lifespan (in years)																																	
		CRT monitor	CRT TV	Traditional TV set	Washing machine	Air conditioner	Microwave ovens	Refrigerators and freezers	MP3/4 player	Video camera	Photo-cameras	Mobile (smartphones)	Feature phone	Tablets	E-book readers	Desktop computer	Laptops	Hard disks drive	Global positioning system navigators (GPS)	Radio alarm clocks (RAC).	Electrical toys	Iron	Fluorescent lamp	Heater	Toaster	Vacuum Cleaner	Sandwich makers	Kettles	Hair Dryer	Headset	Large loudspeakers	Rice cooker	DVD player		
<b>Abbondanza and Souza (2019)</b>	Brazil	10	6.9				7.8																												
<b>Bovea, M.D. et al. (2018)</b>	Spain							3-6	>6	>6	1 - 3	1-3	1-3		3-6	>6	3-6	>6																	
<b>Chung et al. (2011)</b>	China	8.5	5.1	7.1	7.8		8.1							4.4	4.6																				
<b>Pérez-Belis, Victoria et al. (2015a)</b>	Spain																			2-3															
<b>Gutiérrez et al. (2011)</b>	Spain		12				11	10													5														
<b>Liu et al. (2019)</b>	China										2.21																								
<b>Nowakowski (2016)</b>	Poland		12.9	12.1			13.4																												
<b>Wieser and Tröger (2018)</b>	Austria										1.8																								
<b>Zhang, L. et al. (2019)</b>	China									2.5	1.6	1.7		3.5	2																				
<b>Tan et al. (2018)</b>	China										1.57																								
<b>Afroz et al. (2012)</b>	Malaysia		>6	>6			>6			>6				2-4																					
<b>Bai et al. (2018)</b>	China										2.24																								
<b>Borthakur and Govind (2019)</b>	India										4			4																					
<b>Cao et al. (2016)</b>	China		8				9				3	3																							
<b>Chi et al. (2014)</b>	China		8.1	7.1			8.6	2-3			2-3																								
<b>Botelho et al. (2016)</b>	Portugal		>10	>10		>10	>10				3-5			3-5																					
<b>Deng et al. (2017)</b>	China										1.91																								
<b>Echegaray (2016)</b>	Brazil						6				2.6																								
<b>Gök et al. (2017)</b>	Turkey						4.7		0.5	0.3				1.8								0.5													
<b>Huang et al. (2006)</b>	China		8-10		8-10		13-16							6																					
<b>Martinho et al. (2017)</b>	Portugal										2.7	3											8	8	7	7	6	6							
<b>Ravindra and Mor (2019)</b>	India		11	10	8		11				4			7	7								4												
<b>Sabbaghi and Behdad (2018)</b>	USA										2.84																								
<b>Saritha et al. (2015)</b>	India										1-2																								
<b>Thiébaud et al. (2018)</b>	Switzerland	9									3																		9	9					



528

### 529 **3.2.2 Analyzing consumers' storage behavior**

530 After useful life of an EEE, consumers tend to store the equipment at households before it reaches to  
531 collection points or the household bin, especially for small WEEE items such as MPs. Although this issue is  
532 crucial and considered a significant barrier for potential acquisition for collection and recycling  
533 (Nowakowski, 2019), very few studies focused on this specific topic (around 10% of the articles). The  
534 number of items stored at households, storage time before disposal, and reason for storage were critical  
535 aspects that were used by the articles identifying consumers' storage behavior. Summary of the storage  
536 behavior related studies is presented in Table S4 in SI of this article.

#### 537 **3.2.2.1 General trend of device storage**

538 In Switzerland, Thiébaud et al. (2018) found similar storage behavior for almost all types of electronic  
539 products. The study also found that a vast amount of the products was stored and reused before reaching the  
540 collection scheme. In Lithuania, Dagiliūtė et al. (2019) found that approximately 31% of respondents stored  
541 obsolete EEE, which later transferred to the collection points. In Poland, Nowakowski (2019) found that  
542 computer accessories and other information technology equipment were frequently stored by households (by  
543 over 60% of the respondents). For MPs, this was found above 80%. Another study by Nowakowski (2016)  
544 identified that SE stored per household was 1.5, while medium-sized equipment was stored one item per two  
545 households. In Ireland, Casey et al. (2019) identified that small e-waste items are generally existing in less  
546 visible and more fluid states due to the understanding of "lying somewhere in the house" on shelves and in  
547 drawers, which resulted in addressing e-waste differently than other recyclable materials. Ongondo and  
548 Williams (2011) observed that there is at least one mobile phone stockpiled for every student working out the  
549 average in the UK. Martinho et al. (2017) addressed that smartphones have a higher reuse potential than tablets  
550 in the overall storage behavioral pattern of Portuguese consumers.

551 In China, Zhang, L. et al. (2019) found that students' storage behavior was predominant (58% of the  
552 respondents). Tan et al. (2018) found that 62.1% of residents stored their MPs among the participants, while  
553 only 4.7% disposed of their WMPs in the formal collection facilities. Bai et al. (2018) estimated that WMP  
554 stored at home was 1.79 per person, and over the years, and surprisingly, it was observed that consumers  
555 became conservative in giving out their used phones to the recycling channels.

556 In Brazil, Rodrigues et al. (2020) found that more than half of the respondents intended to maintain out-of-  
557 use EEE, where small EEE products were stored the most compared to large EEE, as limited space is required.

558

#### 559 **3.2.2.2 Dominant stored products**

560 The top hibernated products were MPs (Blake et al., 2019, Nowakowski, 2016, Pandebesie et al., 2019,  
561 Ramzan et al., 2019, Shaikh et al., 2020, Singh et al., 2018) and laptops (Ramzan et al., 2019, Singh et al.,  
562 2018), followed by DC (Singh et al., 2018), mobile chargers (Bovea, M.D. et al., 2018, Nowakowski, 2016,  
563 Rodrigues et al., 2020), computer mouse (Shaikh et al., 2020), hairdryers (Pandebesie et al., 2019), digital  
564 cameras (Pandebesie et al., 2019, Rodrigues et al., 2020), refrigerators (Singh et al., 2018), DVD players  
565 (Singh et al., 2018), CRT TV sets (Singh et al., 2018).

566

#### 567 **3.2.2.3 Motivating factors behind storage behavior**

568 Top cited reasons for storing old devices found in the studies are shown in Table 4. These include barriers to  
569 recycling, such as cost and inconvenience, as well as the benefits of keeping devices, such as spare parts, data  
570 retention or to give to other people.

571

572

574 **Table 4.** Top cited reasons for storing devices

		Blake et al. (2019)	Kurisu et al. (2020)	Bovea, M.D. et al. (2018)	Ongondo and Williams (2011)	Qu et al. (2019)	Wieser and Tröger (2018)	Liu et al. (2019)	Shaikh et al. (2020)	Zhang, L. et al. (2019)	Martinho et al. (2017)	Zhang, B. et al. (2019)
Benefits of retention	For spare parts	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					
	Information/data security	✓				✓		✓	✓	✓		
	Difficulties backing up data		✓					✓	✓			
	Emotional attachment			✓					✓			
	To give them to family/friends					✓					✓	
Barriers to recycling	Not knowing where to take devices				✓	✓		✓			✓	
	Inconvenient or bothersome to participate in recycling or disposal		✓			✓		✓		✓		✓
	High cost of recycling	✓	✓									
	Low collection price					✓		✓		✓		✓

575

576 Martinho et al. (2017) found that most respondents prefer to keep e-waste items (smartphones and tablets) at  
577 home instead of recycling. However, optimistic consumers' attitudes were identified for reusing the products.  
578 Islam et al. (2020a) concluded that the lack of familiarity with a recycling program is critical for the observed  
579 WMP storage behavior. Wieser and Tröger (2018) concluded that emotional attachment to the phones due to  
580 data and information and the phones' qualities made consumers not dispose of it in any other means. Besides,  
581 consumers thought their kept phone would be used by someone instead of deliberately delivering it to the  
582 recycling channel. In this process, reusing the phone with a regular interval was common. In a cross-cultural  
583 study, Miliute-Plepiene et al. (2016) found that social norms are the most crucial factor in storing e-waste in  
584 Lithuania's early-stage recycling system; this did not apply to the case of Sweden.

585 Information/data security was the principal reason for storing MPs. Blake et al. (2019) mentioned that  
586 consumers tended to keep their device as a spare/backup, as it may have a monetary value. Similar reason was  
587 identified by Shaikh et al. (2020). Bovea, M.D. et al. (2018) identified that e-book readers, GPS navigators,  
588 or radio alarm clocks were stored because they could be used in the future as spare parts. Singh et al. (2018)  
589 identified that consumers often do not have or do not know about the dumping or resale opportunities of the  
590 discarded EEEs, which triggered storage habits. Qu et al. (2019) mentioned that little knowledge on hazard  
591 and contamination of e-waste coupled with preserving memories motivated device hibernation behavior.

592

#### 593 3.2.2.4 Mitigating measures against storage

594 Rodrigues et al. (2020) found that storage behavior could be changed by implementing recycling policies,  
595 reverse logistic systems, environmental education, and incentives for social participation. Casey et al. (2019)  
596 reported that charity campaigns and life transition circumstances (such as moving and renovation) could be  
597 internal and external triggers, respectively, against hibernating behavior.

598 Ongondo and Williams (2011) found that take-back services could encourage students not to hoard more than  
599 one extra phone, but some students may not participate even with knowledge of such schemes. Greater a  
600 awareness of the “environmental value” (the importance of recycling to reclaim the resources embedded)  
601 within the phone could increase participation. Arain et al. (2020) concluded that consumers’ awareness of  
602 stewardship responsibilities and lowering the personal cost to recycle could be determining factors behind  
603 reducing storage habits. Zhang, L. et al. (2019) contend that university students stockpile large and increasing  
604 amount of personal electronics, unless economic incentives are given. Pierron et al. (2017) found that in a  
605 student accommodation setting, students were not interested storing as 1) there is limited space and 2)  
606 alternatives (recycling, discarding, reusing, selling) are now more readily available than previously. This  
607 finding is different from others, where, in most cases, consumers wanted to store their devices at home.

608 Nowakowski (2016) concluded that for developing countries, storing and later reusing is expected behavior.  
609 The situation becomes intensified when the purchase price of the product is significantly higher, such as  
610 smartphones. This overall scenario influences consumers' discarding decisions. Improvement of WEEE  
611 returns' convenient methods is a crucial factor enhancing the collection rate (for recycling) of stockpiled e-  
612 waste. Dagiliūtė et al. (2019) found that consumers tended to repair their MPs if they were malfunctioning  
613 and if the operation is economically feasible; otherwise, the phones were stored or to a limited extent threw  
614 with household municipal waste.

### 615 616 **3.2.2.5 Storage period**

617 Milovantseva and Saphores (2013b) found that storing waste TV sets for up to 5 years was evident in American  
618 households where the number of sets was one or more. Kurisu et al. (2020) determined that PCs were disposed  
619 of within one year of storage. However, 3.8% of PCs were hibernated for more than ten years. Islam et al.  
620 (2020a) found that the average storage time (0.57 to 1.17 years) for MPs is similar for Swiss and Australian  
621 consumers. Results on hibernating time showed that all types of personal electronics have been retained for  
622 less than 3 years, with the longest retaining time close to 3 years (for DCs) (Zhang, L. et al., 2019).

### 623 624 **3.2.2.6 Socio economic factors**

625 Milovantseva and Saphores (2013b) found that pro-environmental behavior in the past 12 months, age,  
626 education, household size, marital status, the gender of the head of household, type of dwelling, and  
627 geographic location was strongly associated with the junk TVs storage among American households. The  
628 authors also identified that larger households are more likely to have more junk TVs, while the converse was  
629 true when household income increases. Furthermore, the consumers' geographical locations impacted waste  
630 TV storage behavior, and in that case, the age of the sets was equal or greater than 16 years old. Dagiliūtė et  
631 al. (2019) indicated that age has a positive association with storage. For example, due to limited purchase  
632 power, students tended to use the products as spares. Another study by Saphores et al. (2009) identified that  
633 except for knowledge of e-waste and income, all other explanatory variables age, marital and employment  
634 status, ethnicity, household size, previous e-waste recycling behavior, and to some extent education,  
635 homeownership, and understanding the consequences of recycling were found significant indicators  
636 describing the households' e-waste storage behavior.

637 Pandebesie et al. (2019) found that storage behavior is affected by the consumers' residential conditions. Arain  
638 et al. (2020) mentioned that attaining a certain level of education alone is not sufficient to eliminate storage  
639 behavior and lack of knowledge among consumers regarding disposal options, such as the location of proper  
640 facilities and concerns regarding personal data security, the main reasons for storage. Qu et al. (2019) reported  
641 that 80% of all residents had more than one WMP stored at home, while 17% of them had more than four  
642 WMPs. One of the apparent reasons behind this was high disposable income. Martinho et al. (2017) found  
643 that consumers with large household sizes and high education levels were keener keeping broken smartphones  
644 in the home (in the absence of preferred discounts/cashback method).

645

### 646 **3.2.2.7 Measurement perspective**

647 Rodrigues et al. (2020) found that at the center of the EG estimation method, the portion related to storage or  
648 donation could often result in overestimations (due to incorrect idea of immediate substitution of product).  
649 Repressed demand is expected to implement reverse logistics systems, which is often hampered by the storage  
650 habit. Singh et al. (2018) mentioned that the storage of discarded EEEs is a problem in quantification and  
651 recycling. Casey et al. (2019) found that keeping household items can be divided into two main categories: 1)  
652 disused or broken and 2) abandoned. In both cases, over time, the value of stored items dissipates, which is  
653 often more troublesome than recycling or discarding it.

654

### 655 **3.2.3 Analyzing consumers' disposal behavior**

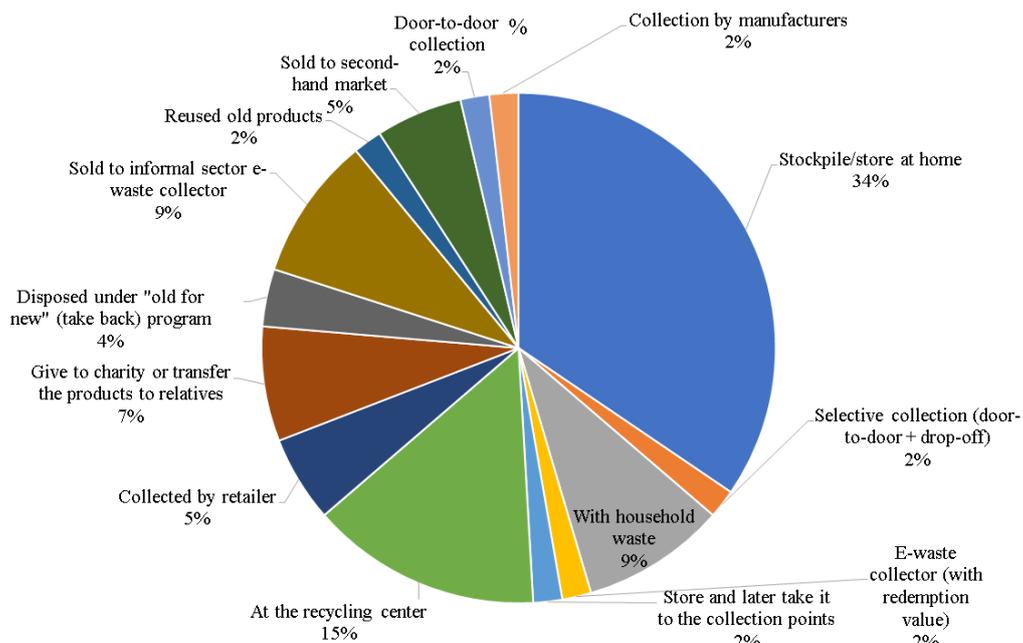
656 When consumers finally decide to dispose of unwanted EEE, many options are generally available to them. It  
657 could be formal disposal paths arranged and managed by government authorities or informal collection  
658 services managed by local scrap metal recyclers, paddlers, waste collectors, etc. The second practice is widely  
659 used in developing countries where recycling is done by a crude process such as acid leaching. Identifying  
660 "disposal pattern" is one of the significant issues of consumers' behavior that can provide valuable information  
661 on the existing e-waste collection system and opportunities to improve it. This issue was investigated in most  
662 of the articles (26% of the articles). In the following sub-sections, issues related to consumers' disposal  
663 behavior are reviewed. Table S5 (in the SI) provides in-depth details of each of the articles at the country  
664 level, highlighting the main research problems identified in the articles.

#### 665 **3.2.3.1 Mode of disposal**

666 Fig. 13 shows the top disposal methods identified by the articles reviewed. Overall, "store at home" is the  
667 most common disposal method (Borthakur and Govind, 2019, Chi et al., 2014, Islam et al., 2020a, Martinho  
668 et al., 2017, Miner et al., 2020, Ongondo and Williams, 2011, Shaikh et al., 2020, Siringo et al., 2020, Wieser  
669 and Tröger, 2018, Zhang, L. et al., 2019), but is typically temporary, as discussed previously. The reason was  
670 identified by the 34% of the article.

671 Other notable methods of e-waste disposal include - "throwing e-waste with household solid waste/mixed  
672 waste" (Arain et al., 2020, Araujo et al., 2017, Blake et al., 2019, Borthakur and Govind, 2019, Bovea, M.D.  
673 et al., 2018, Chi et al., 2014, Fraige et al., 2012, Gök et al., 2017, Martinho et al., 2017, Pasiecznik et al., 2017,  
674 Rodrigues et al., 2020, Wieser and Tröger, 2018), "donate to others" (Abbondanza and Souza, 2019, Araujo  
675 et al., 2017, Borthakur and Govind, 2019, Cao et al., 2016, Colesca et al., 2014, Echegaray, 2016, Fraige et  
676 al., 2012, Hamdan and Saidan, 2020, Martinho et al., 2017, Rodrigues et al., 2020), "drop it to council  
677 collection centers/recycling centers" (Araujo et al., 2017, Borthakur and Govind, 2019, Chi et al., 2014, Fraige  
678 et al., 2012, Islam et al., 2020a, Martinho et al., 2017, Rodrigues et al., 2020, Wieser and Tröger, 2018),  
679 "selling" (Cai et al., 2020, Cao et al., 2016, Chi et al., 2014, Echegaray, 2016, Fraige et al., 2012, Hamdan  
680 and Saidan, 2020, Islam et al., 2020a, Nguyen et al., 2009, Ongondo and Williams, 2011, Ravindra and Mor,  
681 2019, Rodrigues et al., 2020, Shaikh et al., 2020, Siringo et al., 2020), "forwarding it to recycling companies  
682 for environmentally friendly recycling" (Hamdan and Saidan, 2020, Islam et al., 2020a, Ongondo and  
683 Williams, 2011), "wait for the door-to door recovery" (Cai et al., 2020), "trade in OFN" (Cai et al., 2020),  
684 old-for new/discount (Bovea, M.D. et al., 2018, Cao et al., 2016, Colesca et al., 2014, Ongondo and Williams,  
685 2011), "deliver to point purchase" (Martinho et al., 2017) and "leave it at the store during new purchase"  
686 (Borthakur and Govind, 2019).

687



**Fig. 13.** Top disposal methods of e-waste

Depending upon the types and socio-economic conditions of consumers, e-waste flows at different channels. For example, Song et al. (2012) mentioned that people from less developed areas preferred to give MPs to friends, relatives, and other organizations while waste ACs and PCs were sent to manufacturers. On the other hand, Bovea, M.D. et al. (2018) found that “I threw it in the trash” and “I replaced it with another type of appliance” were the primary method and reasons for disposal, respectively for SE. For DCs, “collection by manufacturers” and “at electronic retail stores” were standard practices in Japan (Kurisu et al., 2020).

Delivering e-waste to various recycling channels existed a practice among consumers. For example, Wang et al. (2011) mentioned that 41.79% of residents used various recycling channels, 36.79% discarded e-waste with municipal waste, while 21.62% stored e-waste at home. Although there was a high percentage of users using recycling channels, it is believed that informal sector e-waste collectors are one of them. For example, Ongondo and Williams (2011) found that selling is happening among consumers, companies, or individuals. Singh et al. (2018) found that most consumers disposed of their e-waste to informal e-waste collectors and recyclers. Chi et al. (2014) in China found the same. Informal sector e-waste disposal practice was considered as loss of energy and resources due to its unfriendly recycling nature (Ramzan et al., 2019). Despite the fact, Borthakur and Govind (2019) found, “I sell them to the scrap dealers” or ‘kawariwalas’ as one of the disposal paths from where consumers got benefits. A similar result was found by Abbondanza and Souza (2019).

Donation is often considered as a gift from the donors (Ongondo and Williams, 2011). It is a product lifespan extension process that reduces EG (Rodrigues et al., 2020). Lau et al. (2013) mentioned the entity of donation as “donated to non-profit making organizations.”

Pérez-Belis, V. et al. (2015) concluded that besides the consumers who donate used toys to family or charities, around 67.1% of the consumers dispose of their fractions of waste toys in domestic bins, while 32.9% of the respondents used recycling points. Nowakowski (2016) mentioned that improper disposal practices existed among residents’, and many of the residents disposed of e-waste with household solid waste and selling the item to local scrappers. In Malaysia, Othman et al. (2015) while approximately 14% of the E-waste generated by low-income residents would go through landfill sites. Among the young consumers, this practice also prevails. For example, Pasiecznik et al. (2017) found that 12% of the respondents, mostly young people, threw their e-waste in regular household bins.

719 Cai et al. (2020) identified that “sell to second-hand market” and “sell to the qualified enterprise” are the two  
720 variations of selling items to others. Gök et al. (2017) found the first one as the preferred method by the  
721 consumers. The authors also mentioned that “wait for the door-to-door recovery” was widely used for ACs,  
722 WMs, and refrigerators and also for products that consumers perceived requiring “high repair cost or cannot  
723 be repaired.” Ravindra and Mor (2019) specifically mentioned “selling it to the second-hand dealer.” Self-  
724 disassembly and second-hand use were found by Chi et al. (2014). Wieser and Tröger (2018) identified that  
725 trading-in or selling MPs was performed for younger aged MPs to make a new mobile phone purchase. Kumar  
726 (2017) mentioned that company-owned showrooms, authorized dealers, and distributors as organized channels  
727 and second-hand goods shops and repair shops as unorganized channels were the two primary paths for mobile  
728 waste disposal.

### 730 3.2.3.2 Main disposed items – the product flow

731 Casey et al. (2019) mentioned that e-waste type typically has gone through 4 different stages, including 1)  
732 inactive EEE, 2) critical moment, 3) transition from EEE to WEEE, and 4) divestment. Consumers' disposal  
733 practices largely determine the final routes of e-waste (Chung et al., 2011). Dindarian et al. (2012) postulated  
734 that the product was discarded by customers' choice, not for the latest technology. On the other hand, Wieser  
735 and Tröger (2018) mentioned that the mode of disposal varies depending on the replaced device's age. When  
736 consumers understand their mobile phone has some value, it was preferred to reuse rather than other channels.

737 Before reaching a final disposal point, products are hibernated. For example, Dagiliūtė et al. (2019) found that  
738 "Store and later take it to the collection points" was the disposal method, and MPs were disposed of the most.  
739 Afroz et al. (2012) identified that more than one-third of the respondents sent their unused EEE to charities  
740 and gave it to relatives when they could not repair it. As there is no specific collection scheme available in the  
741 country, the authors found that little fraction of e-waste went to recycling facilities. "Self-disassembly and  
742 keep the useful parts" were the most common disposal practice for desktop and laptop computers (Lau et al.,  
743 2013). Apart from storing WMPs at home, they were donated to relatives, friends, and charities (Tan et al.,  
744 2018).

745 For second-hand use, consumers wanted to deliver used DCs, WMs, and laptops (Chi et al., 2014). Thiébaud  
746 et al. (2018) identified that firsthand users disposed of CRT TVs and DVD players directly (at point of  
747 disposal), while FDP TVs and monitors were sent for second-hand use. A higher disposal rate was found for  
748 headsets and small loudspeakers and was directly disposed of with general waste and after storage. In India,  
749 Singh et al. (2018) found that MPs, laptops, cameras, WMs, ACs, heaters, geysers, LED, and LCD televisions  
750 were the major disposed e-waste items among the participants. Huang et al. (2006) mentioned that "selling to  
751 waste collection centers was the main method to dispose of waste TV sets, refrigerators, and ACs, and selling  
752 in the second-hand markets was the key method to deal with waste PCs."

753 Typically, in Brazilian households, MPs were kept at home, and audio-video equipment was sold mainly or  
754 passed along among relatives, friends, or charity groups (Echegaray, 2016). Nguyen et al. (2009) indicated  
755 that selling or giving the appliances to other users were primarily adopted TVs, refrigerators, WMs, and PCs.  
756 As per a study by Bovea, M.D. et al. (2018), MPs, cameras, and radio alarm clocks were disposed of by the  
757 Spanish households. Abbondanza and Souza (2019) found that smartphones, refrigerators, or freezers, and  
758 WMs were the most discarded items by Brazil's households. Despite being a developing country, Islam et al.  
759 (2016) found that MPs and PC were the dominant WEEE categories in Bangladeshi households.

### 761 3.2.3.3 Norms and perceived behavioral control

762 Nduneseokwu et al. (2017) identified that infrastructure moderated the relationship between two influencing  
763 factors (attitude and subjective norm) and intention. Consumers who did not recycle or recycled infrequently  
764 tended to dispose of small WEEE in the general household refuse (Darby and Obara, 2005). Recycling  
765 behavior reflected in practice is somewhat related to the economic status of participants. Those who already

766 had a recycling habit do not have an interest in incentives (Botelho et al., 2016). However, Pandebesie et al.  
767 (2019) showed that willingness to separate e-waste among consumers was relatively high, and they were aware  
768 of the importance of separated waste.

769 Echegaray and Hansstein (2017) mentioned that “product disposal practices remain hardly influenced by  
770 favorable views towards the environment”. On the other hand, education had an impact on disposal behavior.  
771 For example, Saritha et al. (2015) found in their survey that 41.2% of the respondents would consider  
772 disposing of old products in an eco-friendly manner, while 94% agreed to return it to the manufacturer for  
773 free if the latter claimed to recycle products in an eco-friendly manner. Technical knowledge of product use  
774 also influences an individual’s perception regarding disposal. For example, Jayaraman et al. (2019) showed  
775 that social consequences and the conviction of individuals' laptop disposal practices strongly depend on  
776 knowledge of computer literacy.

#### 777 778 **3.2.3.4 Influencing factors-associated with disposal decision**

779 Infrastructural factors were some of the critical factors that determined willingness and positive behavior and  
780 attitude towards e-waste recycling and selecting disposal routes. These include availability and convenient  
781 access to recycling facilities and service (Arain et al., 2020, Araujo et al., 2017, Casey et al., 2019, Nixon et  
782 al., 2009, Wang et al., 2011, Zhang, L. et al., 2019), availability of information regarding formal collection  
783 channels rate (Arain et al., 2020, Borthakur and Singh, 2020), socio-economic condition, for example,  
784 residential condition (Wang et al., 2011), pro-environmental behavior, for instance, recycling habit and  
785 practice (Casey et al., 2019, Wang et al., 2011), information security (mainly for IT-related equipment, such  
786 as MPs and DCs) (Bai et al., 2018, Milovantseva and Saphores, 2013b, Zhang, L. et al., 2019), lack of product-  
787 related information (Arain et al., 2020), environmental concerns (Araujo et al., 2017) economic benefits (in  
788 terms of getting reward for e-waste delivery to the channel) (Wang et al., 2011, Zhang, L. et al., 2019), cost  
789 of disposal (in other words free access to disposal) (Arain et al., 2020, Kurisu et al., 2020, Nixon et al., 2009),  
790 and e-waste collector’s capacity (Araujo et al., 2017).

791 The reasonable distance was critical for recycling infrastructure (Arain et al., 2020). In developing countries,  
792 the informal sector e-waste collection is generally expected. Consumers preferred to deliver e-waste to the  
793 channel due to economic benefits (Chung et al., 2011), as e-waste is considered a valuable commodity  
794 (Borthakur and Singh, 2020). Central processing units (CPUs) of DCs, computer monitors, keyboards, mice,  
795 printers, cellular phones, and landline telephones were considered valuable e-waste (Rodrigues et al., 2020).  
796 Furthermore, if e-waste is not repaired, it is thrown away; buying a new one is a common trend (Shaikh et al.,  
797 2020). On the other hand, Blake et al. (2019) found that design (built-in obsolescence), marketing and fashion  
798 trends, or the speed of technology advancement were the main factors for high disposal.

799 Tan et al. (2018) found that consumers expect to receive specific revenue for various disposal modes. “The  
800 difference between the high expectations of obsolete MPs and the actual collection price was also an important  
801 factor leading to a high ratio of MPs stored at home.” Similarly, Deng et al. (2017) found that consumers kept  
802 the phones due to the low price for second-hand phones in the second-hand market. Identifying “best exchange  
803 offer and price” is the most critical factor for product return (Chi et al., 2014, Dwivedy and Mittal, 2013). In  
804 that case, Kumar (2017) argued that organized channels could provide incentives to consumers under the  
805 buyback scheme.

806 In terms of the e-waste collection method, Chi et al. (2014) found that consumers demanded to “collect other  
807 municipal wastes,” “free door-to-door collection,” “collect during a non-working time,” “easy access to  
808 collectors,” “provide repairing and cleaning service.” The influence of online internet-based collection  
809 systems is gaining popularity; however, understanding consumers’ preferences regarding modes (online and  
810 offline) of collecting e-waste (mainly obsolete MPs) was found paramount (Liu et al., 2019).

811 Product use could also be an indicator of the e-waste disposal trend. For example, Li et al. (2012) indicated  
812 that respondents with high income or good education possessed most high-tech household appliances  
813 advanced in technology and had the flexibility to use.

### 814 **3.2.3.5 Impact of socio-economic variables in disposal behavior**

815 Several studies applied statistical methods. Several independent socioeconomic variables were found  
816 significant; however, it is often hard to generalize the predictability of behavior indicators, mainly because of  
817 externalities (economic growth, local manufacturing, public policy, and others). For example, Abbondanza  
818 and Souza (2019) found that regional variation (pace of development across a country's regions) influenced  
819 disposal behavior. However, common variables that impacted disposal behavior were family size (Pérez-Belis,  
820 V. et al., 2015), age (mainly "method of disposal.") (Islam et al., 2020a, Nowakowski, 2019), income  
821 (Abbondanza and Souza, 2019, Darby and Obara, 2005, Islam et al., 2016, Othman et al., 2015), gender  
822 (Dagiliūtė et al., 2019, Darby and Obara, 2005, Nowakowski, 2019, Ongondo and Williams, 2011), education  
823 (Nowakowski, 2019, Zhang, B. et al., 2019), occupation (Zhang, B. et al. (2019), and types of residence  
824 (Dagiliūtė et al., 2019, Nowakowski, 2019).

825 Botelho et al. (2016) found that 'exchange for money' (mainly demanded by males) was the expected incentive  
826 in Portugal, followed by 'exchange for new EEE,' 'discount coupons on services' (females and consumers with  
827 a high level of education), 'collection of EEE at home' (females). Income and occupation, mainly in the  
828 environmental sector, influenced factors using e-commerce and professional recycling sites (Zhang, B. et al.,  
829 2019).

830 Othman et al. (2015) found that approximately 86% of the e-waste generated by low-income residents would  
831 go through four options of a waste management system, i.e., reuse, repair, remanufacturing, and recycling. On  
832 the other hand, Song et al. (2012) concluded that Macau residents did not consider the small financial benefit  
833 of selling discarded electronic products, which was different from mainland Chinese residents. In terms of e-  
834 waste sorting, Dagiliūtė et al. (2019) found that females preferred to do. For product-focused disposal  
835 behavior, Dwivedy and Mittal (2013) found that in India, the age of waste microwave ovens was relatively  
836 shorter, and consumers who were between 35 and 60 years old, owned cars, and were of middle to high income  
837 discarded most of the ovens.

838

### 839 **3.2.3.6 Barriers associated to disposal**

840 Ardi et al. (2020) found that consumers' disposal behavior was primarily influenced by lacking well-  
841 established collection systems. Siringo et al. (2020) found that only 2% of respondents voluntarily participated  
842 in formal e-waste recycling. Disposal using municipal waste was also a popular choice due to the  
843 unavailability of appropriate options (Shaikh et al., 2020). High repair cost/cannot also be repaired found to  
844 be the critical barrier for which e-waste is stored or unrepaired (Blake et al., 2019). Cao et al. (2016) indicated  
845 that due to "OFN," LE was going to formal channels; however, small-sized mobiles and cameras were stored  
846 at home and remained idle without incentives.

847

### 848 **3.2.3.7 Collection system/online recycling platforms**

#### 849 **3.2.3.7.1 Reverse logistics**

850 As seen earlier, infrastructural factors, such as availability and convenient (access to) recycling facilities, were  
851 one of the critical components of an efficient collection system (Nduneseokwu et al., 2017) and Dagiliūtė et  
852 al. (2019) indicated that consumer demanded more collection points/containers. Convenience appears to  
853 matter, as the number of consumers decreases with the increase of recycling centers distance (Darby and  
854 Obara, 2005, Saphores et al., 2012). Favot and Grassetti (2017) found that population density is negatively  
855 correlated with the kg of e-waste collected. The number of collection points, % of female, % of waste  
856 separately collected were positively correlated with kg of E-waste collected. Rodrigues et al. (2020) identified  
857 that the number of discarded units and the number of households were two critical parameters for RL system

858 design. Convenient transport facilities were also critical, especially for SE disposal for low-income residents  
859 (Darby and Obara, 2005). Darby and Obara (2005) also found that consumers needed information on how to  
860 dispose of WEEE and where it should be put for recycling for LE category. It is not clear under what  
861 circumstances consumers disposed of their items with household refuse or in the general waste at civic amenity  
862 (CA) sites for SE. This problem is also identified by Botelho et al. (2016) in Portugal. Sorting should be  
863 considered an essential task at the initial stage of RL system development; however, this issue is less  
864 concerned. Although, Gök et al. (2017) found that sorting e-waste from other types of waste was performed  
865 by 28% of the participants, mostly YUSs.

866 For young consumers, multiple options should be provided. Ongondo and Williams (2011) concluded that  
867 students' union facilities and libraries were the preferred central locations for disposal. Zhang, L. et al. (2019)  
868 mentioned that "university students intend to choose online recycling platforms to dispose of obsolete  
869 electronics." Regarding online collection platforms, perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, attitude,  
870 subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control have a positive impact, while perceived risk has a negative  
871 impact on the behavioral intentions of Chinese millennials on the adoption of online e-waste collection  
872 platforms (Ramzan et al., 2020).

#### 873 **3.2.3.7.2 Key attributes - Provision of incentives**

874 Cost of delivery (by consumers) to the collection system and receiving incentives were the two significant  
875 attributes of a successful system. Blake et al. (2019) found that consumers preferred to disposal cost to be  
876 collected at the product purchase point. Offering discounts/cashback during new product purchases could be  
877 significant for greater participation (Martinho et al., 2017). Nixon et al. (2009) conclude that California  
878 households preferred a combined service provision - "drop-off recycling at regional centers," with "curbside  
879 recycling" including other options such as Pay-As-You-Throw (PAYT), deposit-refund program at retail  
880 locations.

882 Park et al. (2019) found that a "free of charge door-to-door collection system" was preferred by most of the  
883 respondents, and in that case, public relation activities should be increased. There is a need for direct  
884 communication and booking channel with visiting engineers at the e-waste collection facility (and as a free  
885 service), which the consumers preferred. Due to the absence of a door-to-door collection system and incentive  
886 options, often there is a high chance that consumers deliver e-waste to the informal sector (Lau et al., 2013).  
887 Selling waste EEE items to local small scrap dealers to get economic benefits was the most preferred choice  
888 (Islam et al., 2016). Miner et al. (2020) identified that due to the lack of a door-to-door collection program, e-  
889 waste storage behavior was accelerated. In this regard, Pierron et al. (2017) mentioned that the stockpiled  
890 small e-waste category represented a vital source of revenue.

891 Cao et al. (2018) mentioned that different economic and internet penetration levels were the two main factors  
892 for developing efficient collection channels within a region. "Third-party integrated network platform  
893 integrate online, and offline resources were predicted to be widespread under the rapid development of IT and  
894 e-commerce. On the other hand, Yin et al. (2014) mentioned that consumers demanded official channel  
895 incentives. For WMPs, door-to-door collection services were not preferred. However, Zhang, B. et al. (2019)  
896 indicated that peddlers' on-site collection was still the dominant way of e-waste disposal and e-commerce and  
897 professional recycling site were far less competitive. The authors also found that the e-waste disposal rate  
898 among low income (<250 RMB/month) consumers were less while consumers with income > 10,000  
899 RMB/month preferred e-waste collection by peddlers, e-commerce. Young consumers (<30 years old)  
900 preferred to use e-commerce sites for e-waste disposal, while older people did not.

#### 901 **3.2.3.7.3 Policy-oriented regulatory intervention and actors' involvement**

902 Convenience and policy effectiveness influenced the youth e-waste disposal intention (Shaharudin et al.,  
903 2020). At the product-level, Tan et al. (2018) mentioned that WEEE-related regulation is expected to affect  
904

905 mobile phone collection positively. However, Chung et al. (2011) found that despite the absence of a producer  
906 responsibility scheme (PRS) in the current EMS, customers still disposed of their e-waste in the appropriate  
907 channels (around 17%).

908 Trust and quality of e-waste collection service (especially who and how involved in the system) were found  
909 to be significant factors among consumers. Consumers' trust is critical for market competitiveness for the  
910 recycling industry, and involvement and endorsement of the recycling industry and government were  
911 imperative (Bai et al., 2018). For example, Song et al. (2012) indicated that consumers demanded government  
912 departments or other organizations to be involved in the e-waste disposal, mostly a well-developed collection  
913 system that included a component "telephone reservation." In China, the "Green Box Program" and "OFN  
914 activity" (without incentives) were the two official disposal channels that consumers utilized (Yin et al., 2014).  
915 On the other hand, Liu et al. (2019) concluded that consumers preferred government-operated facilities or  
916 through the collection by communications operators and retailers.

917 Furthermore, Martinho et al. (2017) mentioned that producer responsibility organizations (PROs), private  
918 entities (including non-government organizations (NGOs)) could be potential places for sustainable disposal  
919 locations; however, a lack of knowledge regarding such available options was evident. Kumar (2017) argued  
920 that multinational mobile manufacturing companies had collection points in India, while local companies had  
921 no take-back mechanisms, and more than half failed to provide information on physical collection points.  
922 Araujo et al. (2017) found that consumers preferred to have e-waste collection by manufacturer or seller.  
923 Second-hand retail shops should also be responsible, as Cao et al. (2016) found that "sell to second-hand  
924 stores" and "sell to after-sales repair stations" were the two dominant choices.

925 Echegaray and Hansstein (2017) mentioned that the government should take advantage of municipal garbage  
926 collection systems (that may include a segregated solid waste collection) and manufacturers' or retailers' point  
927 of disposal of e-waste to enforce current regulations. Awasthi and Li (2018) argued that non-government  
928 organizations (NGOs) could play a vital role in mediating consumers' improper disposal behavior where socio-  
929 cultural circumstances, lack of advanced technology and infrastructure, and environmental considerations are  
930 limited. Besides, manufacturers and municipalities should be more active and involved in collection activities  
931 (Deniz et al., 2019). It is necessary to promote legal ways of disposal or prepare scrapyards for large e-waste  
932 equipment (Nowakowski, 2016).

#### 933 **3.2.3.7.4 Impact of awareness and perception on disposal decision**

934 Environmental awareness was cited in the literature as a key factor influencing disposal behavior (Ardi et al.,  
935 2020). Jayaraman et al. (2019) mentioned that individual awareness had a positive impact on laptop disposal  
936 behavior. Giving information about e-waste and its environmental risks would significantly increase proper  
937 disposal behavior (Gök et al., 2017), as a significant number of consumers did not have information about  
938 where to dispose of the e-waste (Dindarian et al., 2012). Gilal et al. (2019) mentioned that WOM significantly  
939 impacted consumers' e-waste disposal behavior, which also motivated acting to recycle appropriately.  
940 Furthermore, well-designed and door-stepping delivery of the campaigns could potentially shape consumers'  
941 disposal behavior for the items. Botelho et al. (2016) found that lack of awareness of consumers, delivery of  
942 e-waste-related information, and the consumers' socio-demographic factors significantly affected consumers'  
943 motivation to return e-waste.

#### 944 **3.2.4 Analyzing consumers' R&R behavior**

945 In the light of the CE principle, R&R is the first step of the entire closed-loop chain that extends the product  
946 lifespan and reclaim the value of used EEE. However, the researchers have not investigated this issue  
947 extensively; only 8% of the articles (mostly from developed countries) discussed this specific consumer  
948 behavior.  
949

#### 950 **3.2.4.1 Product design perspectives**

951 Chuang and Liao (2018) examined consumer-driven innovation in green product designing, considering  
952 Taiwanese residents focusing on the digital camera. Using conjoint analysis, the authors found that consumers'  
953 innovative design ideas could significantly improve product design, and this issue should be considered in  
954 designing energy-related products. Pérez-Belis et al. (2017) showed that 9.56% of the consumers had never  
955 repaired any products that fall under the small e-waste category, while 0.75% of the participants bought  
956 second-hand small EEE. The study results also revealed that consumers demanded product information (in  
957 terms of design and labeling) and the products' durability. On the other hand, 83.7 % of the respondents of  
958 Dagiliūtė et al. (2019) 's survey repaired MPs when it was malfunctioning. Central problems of MPs were  
959 with the battery, software, button/buttons stop functioning, malfunctioning during power on/off (Borthakur  
960 and Singh, 2020). However, Wieser and Tröger (2018) stated that MPs' perceived speed of obsolescence was  
961 vital for repair and reuse. Chi et al. (2014) mentioned that cell phones, TVs, laptops, and refrigerators are the  
962 major products, which have significant room for recirculation by repairing. Othman et al. (2015) mentioned  
963 that manufacturers should design products that are easily repairable and incorporate recycled content and  
964 remanufactured components.

#### 965 **3.2.4.2 Barriers to repair and reuse**

966 Bhatt et al. (2017) found that respondents preferred to buy new MPs instead of repairing and reusing them due  
967 to the higher repair cost. It was also found valid for other types of electronic products (Pandebesie et al., 2019).  
968 The same reason identified by Echegaray (2016) and the author mentioned that the product-repair market  
969 remains underdeveloped due to manufacturers' intention for higher returns selling new products. This reason  
970 is not only prevalent in a developing country but also in developed countries. Consumers from the developed  
971 country can buy a new EEE product instead of repairing as there is hardly any cost difference. This contributes  
972 to increased EG, with Blake et al. (2019) finding that 'lack of ability to repair/the cost to repair' was one of the  
973 significant drivers for EG.

974 Sabbaghi and Behdad (2018) found that consumers have robust repair behavior for products, but that the cost  
975 of manufacturers' repair service can be a significant inhibitor, resulting in losses for both consumers and  
976 manufacturers. The authors also estimated that WTP for repairing decreased at an annual rate of 6.7%. Ylä-  
977 Mella et al. (2015) found that reliability, perceived shorter product lifespan due to fast technical progress, and  
978 the existence of new budget models were the main reasons not to purchase used phones.

979 Another perspective of R&R is the second-hand market of the reusable product. Dindarian et al. (2012) found  
980 that current product design and the lack of market for second-hand items are significant barriers to product  
981 reuse. Bovea et al. (2017) showed that except for minor repairs of heaters, toasters, and vacuum cleaners, most  
982 SE category products were not repaired. Availability of cheap spare parts and difficulties during the  
983 disassembly process were the main constraints for repairing. The study also found that only 9.6% of  
984 respondents repaired their small-EEE, while less than 1% bought second-hand products from the repair shop.  
985 The reasons are also found valid for components (e.g., battery) of MPs and computers and accessories (Saritha  
986 et al., 2015). Lack of knowledge about repair and waiting periods were also critical for repair activities (Pérez-  
987 Belis et al., 2017).

#### 988 **3.2.4.3 Environmentally sustainable products**

989 Bovea, M. et al. (2018) inspected consumers' preferences in product design and labeling that can contribute  
990 to the CE, considering durability, repair-ability, recycled material content, low environmental impact, fair  
991 working conditions, and origin. They found that Spanish consumers were concerned about fair working  
992 conditions and durability of products. Kumar (2017) mentioned that the repair-related secondary market is  
993 mostly dominated by the informal sector, which has a relatively low-performance recirculating product in an  
994 environmentally friendly manner. The authors mentioned that extending lifespan is also an indicator of  
995 environmental products. Pérez-Belis et al. (2017) found that respondents who repaired appliances (e.g.,  
996 vacuum cleaners, juicers, and toasters) were using the products for more than four years. On the other hand,  
997 for cheaper electronics, the cost of repair is generally found high. Thiébaud et al. (2018) mentioned that after  
998 repair products' average service life is extended by at least 30%.

#### 3.2.4.4 Secondhand product purchase

Second-hand product purchase is a relatively common practice in developing countries; for example, Abbondanza and Souza (2019) mentioned second-hand product acquisition from donations and directly from past users.

Bovea, M.D. et al. (2018) found that more than half of the participants (65.5%) never repaired broken e-waste items, while 87.6% of the respondents never bought second-hand EEE items. Similar results were found by Pérez-Belis, V. et al. (2015) for electronic toys in Spain. Chung et al. (2011) found that consumers would buy second-hand products if the reconditioned product's price is substantially lower than new products, durability and performance of the reconditioned product is guaranteed, and finally, the warranty level is similar to that of new products. The authors also mentioned that there should be an authoritative quality assurance scheme that might take responsibility for reconditioned products. Lacking the factors mentioned above in repaired products, 88% of the respondents of Fraige et al. (2012) 's study were not interested in purchasing second-hand products. Even though people bought the products, that was mainly due to economic reasons and for temporary use. These factors were also mentioned by Ylä-Mella et al. (2015) and Rodrigues et al. (2020).

Environmental education largely influences environmental behavior, specifically on second-hand product purchases (Pérez-Belis, V. et al., 2015). A higher percentage of households reused their old cell phones than TV sets (Milovantseva and Saphores, 2013a). Borthakur and Govind (2019) found that instead of repairing, consumers tended to purchase a new phone due to repair cost, which was the primary reason for new product purchase, followed by new product features, status symbol, and the ripple effect of other people purchasing new products.

Borthakur and Singh (2020) found that un-repairability was the main reason for purchasing a new phone while repairing was an alternative reason. The authors also mentioned that repair shop owners also discourage consumers from repairing, as there are insignificant differences between repair costs and new product purchases. The repair shops are also acting as a selling point for second-hand items. As consumers have less intention to buy second-hand products, the shops might hold their repaired items for longer, an indirect economic loss involved in the process.

Echegaray (2016) mentioned that consumers believed that their e-waste was beyond repair in most cases, although deliberate lifespan curtailment by producers or consumers directly influenced this perspective. In that case, symbolic and planned obsolescence was both critical and existed. Consumers experience a technology-driven push (purchase new EEE) and barriers in extending product lifespan, which was often a difficult choice assessing cost and benefits (of product repairing).

Rodrigues et al. (2020) identified those vacuum cleaners, radio receivers, CRT displays, and freezers were some of the devices that had the opportunity for reuse. Second-hand items as gifts from others were not expected for printers, sandwich toasters, grills, and electric toasters. Notebooks, CRT displays, radio receivers, and computers could be considered during second-hand purchases. The authors also found that the main reasons for not buying second-hand items were "new EEE is better," cheaper, and guaranteed and mistrust of the durability of used EEE, which is evident in most developed countries. Smartphones and tablets have reuse potential (Martinho et al., 2017).

#### 3.2.5 Analyzing consumers' recycling behavior

Recycling behavior often overlaps with disposal behavior. Around 16% of the articles explored the behavior, investigating either consumers recycle their product or not (disposed of in a formal collection facility), any monetary incentives demanded by the consumers or not, or in some cases, consumers preferences in selecting recycling facilities among various available options. WTP was another aspect investigated by the articles to identify how much of the recycling fees consumers were willing to pay if any system requires it. This issue was mainly discussed from the developing countries' context because no specific collection and recycling options are available to the customer.

### 3.2.5.1 Willingness to participate in a recycling system

#### 3.2.5.1.1 Determining factors

According to Zhang, Y. et al. (2019), Thi Thu Nguyen et al. (2018), Milovantseva and Saphores (2013a), Li et al. (2012), and Martinho et al. (2017), main determining factors identified for enhanced participation of the consumers in any recycling system were compensation mode, collection price, and convenience degree, social pressure, laws and regulations, cost of recycling, and inconvenience of recycling. On the other hand, Otto et al. (2018) mentioned that environmental motivation and behavioral costs were the main factors where the latter could be manipulated within the short term. In addition to that, environmental awareness and recycling prices were also critical (Cai et al., 2020). Siringo et al. (2020) mentioned the importance of recycling intention, information, and recycling convenience for participation. From the RL perspective, Blake et al. (2019) found that the structure of the services available, including provision and cost, was significant. Siringo et al. (2020) found similar findings.

#### 3.2.5.1.2 Socio economic factors and influencing components of TPB

Jafari et al. (2017) found that household income, household size, education, e-waste awareness, and marital status were the main factors for consumers' incentive dependency. Kumar (2019) found that for young consumers, 1) attitude; 2) perceived control; 3) subjective norm and 4) individual responsibility were the main influencing factors, while convenience and awareness did not have any influence on the behavior. Saphores et al. (2012) found that moral norms, toxicity knowledge about the toxic content in e-waste, and recycling at work/school positively influence recycling behavior. Colesca et al. (2014) indicated that recycling knowledge, pro-environmental norms, and institutional support had a moderate effect on recycling behavior. Saphores et al. (2006) found that gender, education, convenience, and environmental beliefs had a strong relationship with the willingness to recycle, while income or political affiliation were found insignificant. Table 5 shows the significant and not significant socio-economic and demographic variables responsible for e-waste recycling behavior.

**Table 5.** Factors affecting e-waste recycling behavior

Socio-economic variable or others	Significant	Insignificant
Gender	Echegaray and Hansstein (2017), Milovantseva and Saphores (2013a), Martinho et al. (2017), Saphores et al. (2006)	Saphores et al. (2012), Colesca et al. (2014)
Age	Echegaray and Hansstein (2017), Milovantseva and Saphores (2013a)	Saphores et al. (2012)
Income	Echegaray and Hansstein (2017), Araujo et al. (2017), Yin et al. (2014)	Cai et al. (2020), Saphores et al. (2006), Colesca et al. (2014), Saphores et al. (2012)
Marial status		Saphores et al. (2012)
Households size		Saphores et al. (2012)
Location of participants	Echegaray and Hansstein (2017)	
Education level	Araujo et al. (2017), Yin et al. (2014), Saphores et al. (2006), Blake et al. (2019)	Cai et al. (2020) Saphores et al. (2012)
Home ownership		Saphores et al. (2012)
Ethnicity		Saphores et al. (2012)
Political affiliation	Blake et al. (2019)	Saphores et al. (2006)

073 Recycling behavior is strongly influenced by a “sense of duty” and perceived control, rather than subjective  
074 norms and benefits (Kumar, 2017). Nduneseokwu et al. (2017) and Wang et al. (2018) mentioned that attitude,  
075 subjective norm, and environmental knowledge significantly influenced consumers’ intentions to recycle. The  
076 mediating factor, such as infrastructure, influenced attitude and subjective norm and intention. On the other  
077 hand, pro-environmental activities and attitudes toward recycling small household electronics were essential  
078 in recycling the specific category of e-waste. Moral norms and environmental beliefs to recycle e-waste and  
079 to engage in pro-environmental behaviors were found critical. In e-waste recycling, subjective norms played  
080 a more significant role than the other constructs of TPB (Milovantseva and Saphores, 2013a, Wang et al.,  
081 2018). Papaoikonomou et al. (2020) found that total attitude (main significant predictor), WTP, information  
082 status, and subjective norm were other significant factors of WEEE recycling.

### 083 **3.2.5.1.3 Characteristics of formal recycling system**

084 According to Wang et al. (2011), Nixon et al. (2009), Dagiliūtė et al. (2019) and Ylä-Mella et al. (2015), in  
085 terms of infrastructural success factors, convenience and proximity of recycling facilities and service, and  
086 economic benefits and cost should be considered as the main characteristics of a successful recycling system.  
087 A centralized collection facility (One-stop drop-off points for all types of e-waste) could be an additional  
088 factor (Islam et al., 2020a). Of course, residential conditions and recycling habits were significant issues in  
089 such aspects (Wang et al., 2011). However, Lakhan (2016) identified that perceived environmental harm and  
090 visible fees (as a sticker on to a product) are strongly associated, which should be considered as counter-  
091 productive factors for WTP. Providing the solution to this problem, Dwivedy and Mittal (2013) proposed that  
092 visible and transparent fees and exchangeable sponsorship (where the ARF collected for one category of  
093 products is used to sponsor recycling of another category of products) in terms of fees should be implemented.  
094 Service-level integration could be built by E-waste recycling coupons, given to householders via rates payment  
095 receipts (of local councils' rates for general waste collection services) (Blake et al., 2019). The monetary  
096 influence was positively and significantly associated with the product take-back efforts, especially for young  
097 consumers (Ongondo and Williams, 2011). Song et al. (2012) mentioned that increasing the population's  
098 education level and propagandizing e-waste knowledge to promote residents' understanding should be  
099 considered a long-term and short-term approach, respectively.

### 100 **3.2.5.2 Formal e-waste collection channel and EPR**

101 Ramzan et al. (2019) mentioned that voluntary-based formal programs have fewer chances to ensure  
102 consumers' participation. Blake et al. (2019) identified that cost to recycle and lack of knowledge are the two  
103 barriers to success for the voluntary program. Qu et al. (2019) mentioned that collection price and collector's  
104 quality certification were the two critical attributes selecting collection services among the consumers. In  
105 terms of service preference, compensation mode, collection price, and convenience degree were the most  
106 significant factors for a formal collection channel (Zhang, Y. et al., 2019). Tan et al. (2018) and Arain et al.  
107 (2020) found that convenience of collection facilities at various locations, incentives, broader product  
108 coverage (especially small-sized e-waste), and a guarantee of information security was the leading product  
109 return performance indicators. When delivering products, "make appointment online or by phone first then  
110 have it picked up by the recycler" was the preferred method of collection among consumers (Bai et al., 2018).  
111 Arain et al. (2020) identified that factors for accessibility to recycling centers were pick-up services, e-waste  
112 drives, or providing a recycling drop-off center near campus. Bouvier and Wagner (2011) identified that  
113 recycling fees and frequency of the recycling facilities' opening were negatively and positively correlated,  
114 respectively, with the number of waste TV sets and monitors collected (e.g., collection rate) in the recycling  
115 facilities. Otto et al. (2018) identified collection cost reduction techniques as (1) curbside collection and  
116 deposit containers as a direct approach, and (2) the material and social enticements as an indirect approach.

### 117 **3.2.5.3 WTP for formal EMS**

118 Ramzan et al. (2019) and Li et al. (2012) found that young consumers’ were more in favor of “charging for  
119 discarding the product” for a formal EMS, and it varied from 0% to 5% of the recycling fees for the products.  
120 On the other hand, Liu et al. (2019) found that consumers’ WTP for e-waste has not increased for WMPs.  
121 Chung et al. (2011) identified some preconditions of the WTP. They found that collecting recycling fees  
122 involves some critical issues, such as (1) a high degree of transparency (using recycling funds), (2) levied

123 recycling fee, (3) visibility of the fees, (4) fees paid directly to manufacturers, (5) cost that covers proper  
124 recycling, and finally, (6) fees paid at the point of purchase. In terms of method of payment, Dwivedy and  
125 Mittal (2013) mentioned that a scheme charging after product take-back occurred is more preferred than  
126 advanced recycling fees (ARFs). Lakhan (2016) proposed that fees could be collected as "environmental  
127 handling fees are a form of tax."

128 In the studies of Afroz et al. (2013) and Huang et al. (2006), 52.5% of the residents showed a positive attitude  
129 towards WTP. Even though manufacturers should be responsible solely for the environment, consumers were  
130 willing to pay voluntarily to improve the environment (showing pro-environmental behavior). The amount of  
131 recycling cost that was agreed by the consumers (indicated as the highest percentage) was 0–5% of recycling  
132 cost (for households) (Yin et al., 2014), 5% - 10% of the product cost (Saritha et al., 2015), 10% of the product  
133 price (Shaikh et al., 2020), 1–2% of the product market price (Dwivedy and Mittal, 2013). The quantitative  
134 assessment showed that the mean monthly fee of WTP agreed among residents in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia  
135 was US\$8.09 per household (Afroz et al., 2015), while Song et al. (2012) found that in China, the mean WTP  
136 lower and upper values were US\$2.20 and US\$ 2.81 US dollar, respectively. Cai et al. (2020) found the  
137 amount as US\$ 4.10 per month. For product-specific WTP, Arain et al. (2020) identified that US\$12.60 to  
138 recycle a 32" television, and US\$2.90 to recycle a battery, US\$11.30 for a laptop, US\$7.80 for a cell phone.  
139 Arain et al. (2020) also found that batteries, cell phones, and 32" televisions, laptops were among the top  
140 products for which consumers were willing to pay a recycling fee. However, Afroz et al. (2012) and Liu et al.  
141 (2019) found that some participants thought that paying for e-waste recycling is unrealistic. Song et al. (2012)  
142 and Islam et al. (2016) found that the reasons behind not willing to pay for recycling vary substantially  
143 depending on the participants' socioeconomic condition. For example, some consumers believed that it is the  
144 government's responsibility (services should be free of charge). As the informal sector pays consumers  
145 economic benefits, for this reason, most consumers felt reluctant to pay fees. Low household income and  
146 satisfaction with the current situation were also found to be the reasons for such a negative attitude. In addition  
147 to that, Dwivedy and Mittal (2013) found that higher cost of living, lack of time, and non-mandated regulations  
148 were some of the other causes of the attitude.

149 According to Afroz et al. (2015), education level, age, and household income significantly impacted  
150 households' WTP for improving the WEEE management system. Similar results were found by Song et al.  
151 (2012). Li et al. (2012) mentioned that educational level and awareness of recycling WEEE positively  
152 influenced WTP while income level did not.

#### 153 **3.2.5.4 Reverse logistics**

154 According to Chung et al. (2011) and Ylä-Mella et al. (2015), the existing system should be more convenient,  
155 reliable, and accessible to consumers, which are the main characteristics of an RL system, as Favot and  
156 Grassetti (2017) found that additional collection points would enhance e-waste collection rate. Regarding the  
157 collection channels, more specifically for MPs, drop-off bins at retail stores, wireless service provider stores,  
158 mail-back services with incentives, central locations, the library would be potential locations (Milovantseva  
159 and Saphores, 2013a, Ongondo and Williams, 2011, Otto et al., 2018). For recycling service selection, Bai et  
160 al. (2018) proposed that recycling services would positively impact new MPs' sales. Consumers would choose  
161 a seller with the recycling service over other (conventional) sellers, and the price was given importance over  
162 convenience. Deng et al. (2017) found that price (the most critical factors), "ease of execution," "ease of  
163 contact," "ease of finding the location," "appropriate method of treatment/mobile phone recycling," and  
164 "service time" were the key variables in consumers' recycling experience. For highly-priced MPs, rewards are  
165 expected, and for cheaper models, convenience (Bai et al., 2018). However, two main barriers act in the  
166 process, specifically, for convenience degree of collection mode - excessive time and money (Zhang, Y. et al.,  
167 2019). To minimize the RL process complexity and cost, Bai et al. (2018) proposed that third-party recycling  
168 campaigns, convenient online second-hand transaction platforms would be beneficial. Jafari et al. (2017)  
169 mentioned that government support and private sector investment, awareness-building efforts should be the  
170 focus on areas of RL process optimization.

### 171 **3.2.5.5 Informal sector**

172 The informal sector is one of the key actors in the recycling chain and contributes to the circulation of materials  
173 and products. In other words, the informal sector influenced recycling behavior (Wang et al., 2016). Lau et  
174 al. (2013) found that selling e-waste to private (informal) e-waste collectors was the most preferred way among  
175 consumers due to perceived convenience. Environmental awareness, attitude, perceptions regarding informal  
176 recycling, and income were the direct determinants, whereas costs of recycling, social norms, and publicity  
177 were indirect factors selecting informal sector e-waste collectors (Wang et al., 2016). Zhang, B. et al. (2019)  
178 and Cao et al. (2018) identified that leading collectors' channels were street peddlers, appliance repairing  
179 stores, waste collection stations, and dismantling workshops. The informal sector's main characteristics  
180 providing collection services were convenient, flexible, accessible, acceptability of a wide range of e-waste  
181 categories (Chi et al., 2014).

### 182 **3.2.5.6 Online-recycling platform**

183 With the digital data-driven society, consumers are more willing to use online-based services for product  
184 purchase and product disposal. Zhang, L. et al. (2019) found that young students (as a growing consumer  
185 segment) are preferred to use online recycling platforms. Incentives are found interrelated with the willingness  
186 to participate in an online recycling platform. For example, Wang et al. (2019) found that willingness to deliver  
187 e-waste to online platforms was positively influenced by perceived behavioral control, subjective norms,  
188 attitudes, and economic motivation. Wang et al. (2019) also found that due to more significant economic  
189 benefits, willingness to participate in the platforms is higher than traditional (informal) section collection and  
190 recycling.

### 192 **3.2.5.7 Critical barriers to recycling**

193 Some of the critical barriers need to be focused on an efficient recycling system. For example, Liu et al. (2019)  
194 and Bai et al. (2018) found that information leakage, incentive, and convenience must be considered for any  
195 recycling system, while Thi Thu Nguyen et al. (2018) found that the inconvenience of recycling was negatively  
196 correlated to residents' recycling behavioral intention. For waste MPs, Tan et al. (2018) and Saritha et al.  
197 (2015) identified the main reasons for not recycling were lack of formal collection channels, 'low public  
198 awareness of collection responsibility' and 'insufficient promotion of formal collection' and price of returned  
199 product. According to Fraige et al. (2012), cost of recycling (the most critical reason), lack of recycling plants,  
200 lack of legislation and management systems, lack of awareness, lack of public trust regarding recycled  
201 equipment, and the unstable generation of WEEE that needs recycling were the main barriers. Gu et al. (2017)  
202 mentioned that consumers' lack of awareness regarding the appropriate destination of e-waste ("do not know  
203 where to send waste"), unexpected privacy disclosure, troublesome procedure, and lack of public awareness  
204 were the critical barriers to the recycling system.

## 206 **4. Discussion and consumer-centric CE framework development**

207 To enable a smooth transition towards CE, a multifaceted approach involved integrated measures is critical.  
208 This section discusses possible policy initiatives towards sustainable EM and business model innovation from  
209 the CE viewpoint, based on the in-depth literature review presented in section 3. Table A1 (in the appendix)  
210 provides a consumer-centric CE framework that connects the critical elements of CE building blocks, actors  
211 involved, sectoral perspective, and associated pathways of CE (combing elements of Fig. 1 and Fig. 2). This  
212 addresses a key gap in academic research to date by integrating all of these aspects in a single framework that  
213 focuses on consumer behavior and e-waste. This is potentially advantageous for developing national-level  
214 strategies and policies, with Table A1 also enabling the identification of future research opportunities. Section  
215 4.1 and Section 4.2 discuss policy implications and business model development, respectively, in order to  
216 answer RQ1 in relation to the need for an operational framework to achieve CE around e-waste.

## 4.1 Policy implications towards CE

### 4.1.1 Consumer awareness campaigns and pathways for information dissemination

A diverse range of consumers (households, individuals, university students) was analyzed in the reviewed articles. There is a clear need for increased effort to organize awareness-raising programs and publicize e-waste collection and disposal-related information. Sector-specific programs to raise public awareness should be planned and delivered, targeting households, schools, universities, and the private sector (Islam et al., 2016). Specific education and course materials (in early childhood or elementary education) resulted in the successful collection of small WEEE in Spain (Solé et al., 2012). This approach can lead to the creation of an entirely new consumer base across diverse countries who are environmentally cautious and understand their roles and responsibilities in a sustainable EMS. Awareness-raising campaigns should include e-waste sorting, associated service providers, available disposal methods, material content, recycling campaigns, environmental protection, internet-based online collection system, and product labeling (e-waste logo at the back of an EEE). Additionally, if e-waste is recycled (resource conservation), then information on the amount of material and energy saved should also be the campaigns' components.

The government, more specifically, local government, plays a crucial role in disseminating knowledge and information on e-waste to the public to improve their e-waste management and recycling habits (Davis et al., 2008, Kahhat et al., 2008b). The media used for information dissemination could be via newspaper, audiovisual, personal communication, television and radio, websites or mobile apps, posters, information leaflets, social media, word of mouth (WOM), pilot projects, workshops, and seminars. Among these media, social networking sites are considered to be a cost-effective path for delivering this information (Ramzan et al., 2019). To reinforce moral and social norms, church groups might play a critical role (Saphores et al., 2012). Physical locations for disseminating information could be residential building entrances, shopping centers, and transport (during morning and evening consumers' travel time). The workplace could also be an essential place to raise awareness as working people spend much of their time in these areas.

The contents of awareness-raising material and frequency of circulating the information were found to be crucial in the reviewed studies. For information materials, attractive design and colors could be used and feedback sheets on current service satisfaction could be added. Product labeling with easily visible e-waste signs should be designed. Household waste collection bins should have stickers that inform consumers not to dispose of their e-waste items into the bin should be prepared (Lakhan, 2016). Source separation at the generation point (e.g., households) should be encouraged for adequate recovery. Publicizing information on the CE should also be promoted in a broader context.

### 4.1.2 Consumer-focused economic incentives

Economic incentives aimed at consumers are crucial to ensuring that disposed e-waste reaches formal collection and recycling facilities. Economic incentives can eliminate unused EEE items' storage behavior and improper disposal of e-waste (Nowakowski, 2019). Liu et al. (2019) and Tan et al. (2018) concluded that for value-added products, such as smartphones, incentives are critical. Mobile phone penetration rate should be considered as a regional development indicator. MPs often become obsolete due to "service contract ending," (Martinho et al., 2017, Ongondo and Williams, 2011), with MP network service providers commonly providing additional internet data packages as a motivator for consumers to upgrade to a new MP.

Direct incentives such as trade-in for cash (Tan et al., 2018), OFN (Chi et al., 2014) or discount/cashback offers (Martinho et al., 2017) have been found to be practical ways of providing financial incentives to encourage a CE for e-waste. In determining the optimal level of incentives, the discarded (or reusable) items' local market price needs to be estimated, with Kumar (2017) highlighting the importance of understanding "consumer selling behavior" in order to determine an appropriate incentive to return products such as MPs. This is particularly important in developing countries with intensive competition between the informal sector and formal e-waste collectors. However, according to Benabou and Tirole (2003), incentives are weak behavior reinforcers over the short term and negatively impact long term behavior. Incentives are also dependent on socio-demographic variables (Botelho et al., 2016), such as household size, income level,

education, marital status (Jafari et al., 2017). Students could be given monetary rewards (approximately USD 5 per student for small household appliances) considering value retrieved from secondary materials (Pierron et al., 2017).

Deposit-return schemes should be given special attention as an essential economic instrument (Saphores et al., 2012) for developed nations and developing countries. Despite being a developing country, the scheme was preferred by 36% of the Vietnamese respondents (the most-preferred scheme) in a Vietnamese study (Nguyen et al., 2021). The flow of e-waste can be streamlined under this system by establishing testing facilities and maintenance centers for R&R, by which reclaimed products can be transferred to a social organization for further use. Currently, a lack of legal incentives promoting repairs and second-hand sales is considered a barrier to reuse practice (Bovea et al., 2017). Kahhat et al. (2008a) proposed a deposit-refund system based on radio-frequency identification device (RFID).

#### **4.1.3 Infrastructure development**

Wang et al. (2011) found that the availability of collection and recycling services to consumers significantly affect their awareness levels. Without proper collection and recycling facilities, it is hard to implement a (formalized) EMS (Liu et al., 2019). Construction and improvement of e-waste recycling infrastructure are the first steps that governments should take to foster increased collection and recycling rates. Regional infrastructure development with the help of public support has been found to be particularly vital (Nowakowski, 2019), with a need for governments to subsidize investments in necessary facilities. Special collection events for small and IT equipment could be arranged. Permanent collection points and event collection in highly populated areas could be established (Fraige et al., 2012). An active monitoring system identifying e-waste flows in various final disposal points needs to be investigated by the waste management authorities and other stakeholders through collaboration and coordination mechanisms. Overall, there is a clear need to bridge the information supplied to consumers regarding formal collection and recycling facilities and local recycling infrastructure development for enhancing consumers' level of awareness.

#### **4.1.4 Legislation and regulatory interventions**

Policy formulation should be focused more on consumers' attitudes towards e-waste, with the behavioral insights provided by the reviewed studies used to inform government regulations and programs. To increase awareness around national e-waste recovery programs, it is important to consider age, household size, income, gender, and education level. EPR implementation with government and non-government organizations (NGOs) should be given more attention. In most instances, existing e-waste-related regulation was found to be weak and did not reflect consumers' economic perspectives. The imposition of penalties for improper disposal were also suggested by study authors and making consumers responsible at the collection stage was found crucial. In most of the cases, consumers from developing countries demanded price incentives (at the time of disposal due to the presence of informal collectors), and subsidy amounts that can motivate consumers to choose formal collection facilities need careful attention. In connection to this, regulatory reform and legally-binding provisions that make consumers more responsible for overall EM should be considered. Incentives to informal sector e-waste collectors also need to be provided for efficient and environmentally responsible recycling (Lau et al., 2013).

Advanced recycling fees (ARFs) mandated in e-waste-specific regulations are an option for mediating consumers' disposal habits. Although ARFs were identified by a majority of articles as a burden for consumers, if legal obligations bound consumers to pay the fee (in the form of ARF or recycling fees at the time of disposal). Implementing ARFs through product pricing was also found to eliminate economic bottlenecks in an EMS in Switzerland (Islam et al., 2018, Khetriwal et al., 2009).

Extended producer responsibility (EPR) implementation in developing nations is particularly challenging as it imposes a cost on consumers (Dwivedy and Mittal, 2013). The prospect of EPR as a mandatory program needs further attention from policymakers, which will eventually restrict illegal imports and informal sector downstream recycling process. As EPR holds manufacturers and producers accountable for sustainable product lifecycle management, two of the indicators (of product design) - product durability (quality) and

product lifespan- should be directly interlinked with the EPR policy agenda. Official take-back schemes through a compulsory retailer-based collection system should be considered further, as voluntary schemes often fail to ensure widespread public participation (Blake et al., 2019, Echegaray and Hansstein, 2017, Liu et al., 2019).

Increasing awareness among consumers is one of the fundamental tasks of any C&RS. However, a lack of information regarding collection centers' existence and locations was found to be a barrier to a CE for e-waste, highlighting the need for a greater focus on increasing consumer awareness in national policy planning. Milovantseva (2016) argues that public support for green product design regulations can increase their likelihood of adoption by governments. Emphasis should also be placed on providing small and medium enterprises (SMEs) with incentives and subsidies that encourage green entrepreneurship for product design and development of local recycling facilities.

Technology transfer for implementing EPR-related initiatives should be included in regional development planning. Training and capacity building of formal recycling sector stakeholders need to improve. Dwivedy and Mittal (2013) mention that market mechanisms fail within current EMSs due to externalities (informal sector in developing countries). Innovative financing mechanisms need to be established for setting up infrastructure in developing countries and internationalization of recycling law is needed in the light of EU WEEE Directive and EPR. The CE package initiated by the EU could be an example for policymakers in developing countries.

## **4.2 Business model innovation**

### **4.2.1 Product design**

According to Chuang and Liao (2018), "there is a pressing need to understand cultural differences in behaviors, particularly in the context of designing less resource-intensive products and services." Understanding consumers' engagement with EEE is vital to product design, especially as the reviewed studies show that psychological undesirability has far more effect than technological obsolescence on consumer behavior. Furthermore, it is seen that most of the consumers (regardless of the country) tended to save old EEE for spare parts, creating opportunities for modular product design and simple repairability using a user-friendly instruction (e.g. diagrams/process figures). In most cases, product user manuals provide information on product use with limited troubleshooting information or repair instructions. Supply of spare parts and repair service availability are interrelated, and products and parts manufacturers should focus on this issue during product design. Aspects such as material use (recycled or virgin materials), product lifespan related data (date of manufacturing, expected expiry date, years of service guarantee), visible e-waste logo, and RFID based product tracking system (to include recycling fees, monitor at the recycling centers/improper disposal) should be integrated with product design for sustainable EM planning. According to Dindarian et al. (2012), there are hardly any incentive available for designing products that facilitate reuse.

### **4.2.2 Secondhand product and supply chain**

The growing secondhand product market is evident worldwide, primarily involving online product selling platforms such as eBay and Gumtree (in Australia). Oversight of this market by central authorities is needed to support local business and achieve consumers' trust in used products. Service guarantee and quality assurance could be the key to a thriving used product market that integrate e-waste recycling services. The benefits of secondhand product purchase and use, and secondhand product stores and outlets should be considered by service providers. Incentive-supported modular repair service for WMPs could vastly reduce rapid product replacement.

### **4.2.3 Reverse logistics service provider**

Economic incentives given to consumers in the form of collection price could form an integral part of the reverse logistic (RL) service model. The responsibilities of service providers are multifaced, including determining the appropriate mode of compensation, and ensuring that services are convenient to users. The

360 cost of recycling is an important aspect that should be visible (collected at the product purchase point). RL  
361 service providers must ensure the transparency of the process, and necessary policy and regulation should be  
362 formulated to support regular operation and maintain continuous consumer satisfaction. Telephone reservation  
363 and direct communication with the RL service provider would further enhance the product return process,  
364 with consumers preferring government-supported RL service providers for reasons of accountability (Park et  
365 al., 2019).

366 RL service providers may use the existing network of waste collection authorities (municipal council  
367 collection), and in this process, they can educate consumers and increase awareness. In this way, consumers'  
368 pro-environmental behavior could be further enhanced. Local government can play a critical role in enhancing  
369 public relations activities around e-waste collection, (Islam and Huda, 2020a), especially for WMPs.  
370 Information dissemination should be considered an essential operational activity for both local government  
371 and service provider. Campaigns focused on product lifespan with incentives could be organized to capture  
372 high-value materials from stored or unused items (e.g. MPs).

373 In collecting SE e-waste, opportunities exist for new small businesses to be developed around modular e-  
374 waste collection that, integrate OFN, exchange offers, and cash/coupon arrangements (in the case of reversible  
375 items). Subjective norms have been found to be critical to e-waste recycling, and RL service providers (both  
376 government-operated and privately-owned under government regulation) could significantly mediate  
377 behavioral intentions. This has the potential to reduce mobile phone storage, which has become a social norm.  
378 RL service providers could be standardized through certification (by government departments) to maintain the  
379 quality of e-waste collectors, including capacity to deliver repair services specific products.

380 Reliability and accessibility of service (e.g. number of collection points) was found to be critical in the articles  
381 reviewed. Generally, population centers should be targeted (Qu et al., 2019), potentially including retail stores  
382 (in the form of a drop-off bins), mobile network service providers' outlets (for WMP collection), libraries,  
383 supermarkets (dedicated areas for electronics stores). The service provision of reverse logistics arrangements  
384 should assess reasonable distance, ensuring collection points at the centers. Free mail-back service with  
385 incentives could also help to collect e-waste, especially for small e-waste items, as consumers are more  
386 concerned about service time and rewards from the collection channel. A flexible door-to-door collection  
387 could be established based on mobile apps and telephone reservations. Young consumers should be  
388 particularly encouraged to use online platforms for e-waste recycling. Partnering with informal sector  
389 collectors could help expand the collection network. Government support and policy initiatives are mainly  
390 required for this instance, especially providing incentives (Dwivedy and Mittal, 2013). On the other hand,  
391 establishing relationship with charity and secondhand product stores and businesses would bypass product  
392 flows that are generally destined for recycling only. In this aspect, consumers' perceived behavioral control-  
393 related issues should be closely observed, particularly any changes in recycling behavior in the presence of a  
394 government-supported RL service provider.

#### 395 **4.2.4 Online markets and data management for EG**

396 More products are now being sold online than ever before, and in the recent COVID-19 pandemic, sales of  
397 electronic products have been skyrocketing (World Economic Forum, 2020). Simultaneously, the online  
398 market - both new product sales and second-hand market, should be considered an essential element of  
399 product life management. For this case, the use of internet-of-things (IoT), "big data analytics" for combining  
400 socio-economic data with the distribution of waste across a geographical location, and blockchain technology  
401 could provide new insights on consumption habits as well as improved data quality on EoL product traceability  
402 (Zhang, A. et al., 2019, Zhang et al., 2010). The importance of data-oriented product labeling was found by  
403 several researchers, for example, research by Bovea, M.D. et al. (2018) and Huang et al. (2006). Major  
404 indicators of e-waste generation levels include device replacement rates, household device penetration rates,  
405 and products' service life (Arain et al., 2020, Fraige et al., 2012). Data can be collected on product lifespan  
406 by identifying the date of manufacturing and when consumers posted an advertisement for a product. This  
407 way, firsthand product use characteristics (lifespan-related data) could be gathered and utilized by applying  
408 various statistical models, such as the Weibull-distribution-based sales-stock-lifespan model.

#### 4.2.5 Mobile applications and social media

The use of technology, especially mobile apps, to support behavioral change is increasingly considered a useful tool to reduce e-waste (Kang et al., 2020). Although platforms such as Love Recycling, Taolv, Haoshou, and Baidu have already become popular platforms (Wang et al., 2019), broader service coverage is required for this effort. Further attention is also required around standardized price-setting and service innovation (for persons over 60 years of age). Government intervention is required for online/internet-based collection platforms for e-waste collection and recycling, as concerns over privacy are critical. These services should be expanded not only for waste MP but also for other e-waste items. Promoting the platform to rural and remote areas is another key task, which could be developed using optimized artificial intelligence (AI) algorithms (Nowakowski et al., 2018) and integrating IoT and subscription accounts on social media platforms (Jiang et al., 2021). Providing substantial incentives and training to local formal collectors should be considered in a smart EMS.

#### 4.2.6 Charity organization and retailer coordination

Many used products flow to charity organizations after initial product use. The most viable donation organizations are a charity and local schools (Gupta et al., 2014), where product reuse is often significantly higher than for other niche consumer segments. For example, Kahhat and Williams (2012) found that 60% of computers donated to charitable organizations were reused. This shows that there is a secondary product market (other than the conventional online EEE selling-buying platforms), which requires specific attention. There is an opportunity for charity organizations to provide repair services at a larger scale, creating jobs in local communities (Islam and Huda, 2020c). Technical, financial, and physical support from government, business and philanthropic organizations is needed to support the operations of charitable organizations. Donation sites and information campaigns on product reuse could be organized at schools and offices of social service providers.

An integrated approach could be adopted that incorporates EEE retailers, whereby consumer might buy secondhand refurbished products from retailers (repaired by charity organizations), alongside new equipment (Islam and Huda, 2020b). In that case, certification and quality assurance would be required to achieve consumer trust and acceptability. Retailers should be provided the necessary infrastructure support to collect disposed items by consumers, and retailers might provide cash/incentives to consumers. Establishing optimized collection points for repair services and setting standardized repair price also require further attention. Secondhand product circulation will be successful if retailers, manufacturers, service providers, governments, and charity organizations work together.

### 5. Analysis of research gap and future research directions

After reviewing 109 articles in this work, several research gaps were identified and analyzed in detail. These are discussed below to address the requirement of RQ2 around the potential for further research studies:

- Apart from China and India, the number of studies that have been performed on consumer behavior around e-waste in developing countries is limited and requires further attention (as per Fig. 3). Germany is also a gap, with only one paper identified despite it being one of the largest e-waste generating nations globally (Islam et al., 2020b). It is understood that German EM is well developed; however, investigation on consumers' repair and reuse, and storage behavior would substantially provide insight for other developed nations, which is currently missing in the academic research.
- Through the policy and business interventions discussed in section 4, there is an opportunity to study changes in consumers' behavior over time (before and after interventions are implemented).
- Consumers from so-called innovative sites (highly IT enabled cities or cities with high tech companies present) should be investigated further. This was revealed as a key research opportunity in this review, with a potential list of cities provided by Leskin (2018). This also supports the call from Borthakur and

455 Govind (2019) for "more locale-specific" studies to understand the dynamic behavior of e-waste  
456 disposal and awareness across nations.

- 457 • Consumer behavior across product categories needs further attention. For example, disposal behavior  
458 for SE and LE category is entirely different. As such, how consumers act for specific products (e.g.,  
459 DVD player vs. refrigerator) or for specific groups of products (e.g., SE vs. LE) require investigation.  
460 Through this, potential improvement opportunities could be identified for specific types of products.
- 461 • There is a clear opportunity for researchers to further investigate consumer consensus around ARF  
462 systems. In some studies, the WTP amount was investigated but the desired amount of incentives (cash  
463 or any other method) that consumers required was not investigated. Furthermore, WTP-related studies  
464 should focus more on implementing analytical methodologies such as analytical hierarchy process  
465 (AHP), analytical network process (ANP), and conjoint analysis. In responding to WTP-related  
466 questions in a survey, pictorial representations of e-waste collection and recycling services could be  
467 provided to deliver information to consumers about their roles and responsibilities (financial and  
468 physical).
- 469 • The economic benefits of internet or online-based system from consumers' perspective require future  
470 research. In this regard, identifying flows of e-waste would be a key first step, and implementing  
471 material flow analysis (MFA) models would be beneficial. MFA is capable of quantifying which  
472 platforms are profitable (traditional vs. online collection) considering all the actors (e.g., government,  
473 consumers, network platforms, processing facilities) in the RL supply chain (Islam and Huda, 2018a).  
474
- 475 • Most of the studies reviewed were focused on the individual and household-level. Specific attention  
476 should be given to other consumers such as government offices, higher education institutions, and  
477 large multi-national companies. Technological companies should be future study areas, as mentioned  
478 by Fraige et al. (2012).  
479
- 480 • This study identified that a smaller number of studies were conducted considering the young  
481 population, more specifically, students studying at the universities. Future studies should focus on this  
482 group of people as it is also found from the articles that this group's possession rate in some of the  
483 EEE is higher than the general population, indicating that different social norms may apply to this  
484 group.  
485
- 486 • Close attention is required around product return management through follow-up research into, for  
487 example, the funding mechanisms needed for informal collectors, price setting for various types of e-  
488 waste (dedicated to consumers), and the role of various stakeholders in the development of facilities.
- 489 • Wang et al. (2011) found that substantial differences exist in term of e-waste storage behavior among  
490 homeowners and renters in China. Future research should target these two groups of residents and  
491 investigate their e-waste disposal and recycling behavior, including in other countries. Furthermore,  
492 the authors found that income and level of education were not significant predictors for the group, so  
493 better statistical aspects considering other socio-economic variables such as the number of families in  
494 the households, the number of children need to be considered. Echegaray and Hansstein (2017)  
495 mentioned that high-income group adequately dispose of e-waste in appropriate channels in Brazil.  
496 However, it is necessary to understand why low-income residents are not involved in recycling and  
497 their potential demand for such services, including in other developing countries.  
498
- 499 • As cheaper products tend to have shorter lifespans, product design characteristics need to be  
500 investigated further. By analyzing samples across a range of products, a bill of materials (BoM) could  
501 be developed, and essential design modifications (cost and quality efficient products) could be  
502 identified by engaging YUSs. Babbitt et al. (2020) recently applied BoM for collecting disassembly  
503 properties of EEE.

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- Consumers' eco-friendly behavior remains until the product purchase, but is diminished in the use-phase, and at the EoL phase. Future research should identify the reasons for such practices focusing on product design, environmental labeling, and other factors. Echegaray and Hansstein (2017) mentioned that e-waste is not seen as a recyclable item as compared to other recyclable items such as paper, plastics, and others. "Why consumers do not consider e-waste as recyclable items?" is an open research question.
  - According to Borthakur and Govind (2019), e-waste-related studies are now being conducted mostly from natural/applied science disciplines. An interdisciplinary approach is required in understanding consumers' behavior towards e-waste from social science and policy research areas. A holistic techno-economic perspective (considering engineering perspective and social changes) needs to develop within the field of research (Awasthi and Li, 2018).
  - The introduction of internet-based collection systems has created an integrated cyber-physical space in which EM occurs, with Cao et al. (2018) proposing that block-chain technology could be applied in transportation and payment in the online e-waste collection system. This platform can collect data on annual EEE production, sales, recycling amount of e-waste, and these data can be used as valuable inputs for future policy formulation. IT is one of the emerging research areas that requires considerable attention.
  - Regarding online collection systems and formal recycling platforms, further research is needed into participant perceptions, especially for low-income and low-education participants. For older people, the scope, and service innovations required for internet-based recycling platforms requires further attention. Apart from MPs, there is a knowledge gap around how consumers dispose of their other e-waste items in the collection channels. Estimating acceptable collection prices (as per consumer demand) also requires further investigation.
  - Cross-cultural studies are required to understand consumers' demand for specific e-waste collection options (door-to-door, council pickup, permanent collection points, online-based system), and the associated need for incentives. For example, do citizens from China intend to behave the same when they emigrate to developed countries such as the USA, Australia, or Canada? How do cultural differences affect e-waste related consumer behavior (e.g. local people vs. immigrants)?
  - Few studies were found that had been performed on R&R behavior. Further investigations are required into consumer perceptions of this issue and local government policy on the topic (e.g. how local waste collection authorities engage consumers with repair shops and charity organizations). Major inhibitors need to be investigated further from developed countries' contexts.
  - Financing mechanisms for deposit-return systems is a research gap, that requires further investigation. The mechanism's impact on the online-based collection platforms and retailer-based collection needs special attention to identify optimal exchange offers for consumers. MPs and other small IT and equipment require further consideration in this regard.
  - According to Wang et al. (2011), the most critical factors attributed to using appropriate recovery channels are recycling habits, economic benefits, the convenience of recycling facilities and services, and residential conditions. These aspects need to be considered further for urban areas in developed countries. It is assumed that most consumers feel reluctant to dispose of e-waste through formal collection and recycling channels due to the considerable amount of time involved.

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- TPB was found to be one of the most widely utilized methods on the research topic. Future research should pay attention to the large population size, and source, more representative samples from rural and urban populations. Face-to-face interviews should be used more often to understand other consumer behavior dimensions, as this was performed in only a limited number of studies. In addition, it was observed that most of the studies applied TPB in the case of recycling behavior (as seen in Table A2 in the appendix), leaving further opportunities to assess consumers' consumption, reuse, and repair and storage behavior. In the case of CB, TPB application could observe connection with recycling intention, especially for products which are environmentally-friendly or designed under theoretical concepts such as green phones or green vacuum cleaners. Product-focused case studies involving TPB are also limited, as it was observed that recycling and disposal behavior is largely associated with the product type and category. Solar PV panels will be an emerging e-waste stream (Islam et al., 2020c, Mahmoudi et al., 2019), and, in that case, TPB application would provide a broader understanding of consumers' consumption and recycling behavior. Moreover, other constructs (of TPB) might be considered in consumption-related issues, such as product design, repairability, availability of recycling-oriented service (in a take-back system) connected with a product purchase, incentives, and disposal convenience. Nduneseokwu et al. (2017) mentioned that case-specific variable integration, such as situational factors, psychological factors, and eco-friendly values, could be integrated into an extended TPB model. These factors could be added by investigating possible interrelations between multiple behaviors at once, such as storage and repair and reuse. The general TPB constructs were not assessed for secondhand product purchase, and in the future, researchers should identify the factors associated with the consumers' reuse behavior. For example, do peer-pressure and social norms affect the R&R behavior? These issues were not extensively analyzed and need further attention. The impact/influence of TPB application among the participants could be observed over time (same number of samples after implementing intervention and observe the change of intentions).
  - Consumer preferences for retailer-based collection points for e-waste disposal require further attention. EU WEEE Directive places a specific focus on retailer-based collection (Directive, EC, 2012). Improving WMP collection channels and residents' environmental awareness is one of the future research areas (Zhang, Y. et al., 2019).
  - Computer and IT-related equipment were found as dominant product categories. Future research should obtain specific data (via a survey) on lifespan profile that eventually will help estimate EG for each category within a given region. Urban mining is an essential aspect that connects with this idea, and policymakers can identify opportunities for improvement in future policy planning from the studies.

## 590 **6. Conclusion**

591 In this comprehensive literature review article, consumers' behaviors and awareness regarding e-waste were  
592 thoroughly reviewed by analyzing 109 articles published in international peer-reviewed journals. The studies  
593 were categorized according to various behavioral aspects, such as consumption, repair and reuse, storage,  
594 disposal, and recycling. Finally, the article proposed a consumer-centric circular economy framework that  
595 indicates necessary policy initiatives and opportunities for business model innovation towards attaining a  
596 circular economy (CE) for the first time in academic research.

597 The research contributions of this review article are: (1) it provided a guide or reference for future researchers  
598 to accumulate all the information and knowledge surrounding consumer behavior-related topics focusing on  
599 e-waste; (2) it attempted to establish a connection (framework development) between CE (building blocks and  
600 pathways) and consumer behavior around e-waste for the first time. In many cases, published papers did not  
601 consider the CE concept into their central research theme, focusing instead on various behavioral aspects. The

602 framework incorporated behavior-specific aspects into CE pathways, creating interdisciplinary research  
603 opportunities in the field; (3) besides, presenting, a quantitative assessment of the research progress in the  
604 field, the article provided a transparent and replicable methodology, which could also be utilized collecting  
605 materials from other available databases; (4) in this paper issues related to policy and business model  
606 innovation are discussed, respectively, which provide suggestions for both researchers and policymakers in  
607 system-level development and future research areas; and (5) on the research topic, potential future research  
608 directions have been identified, which could be useful for future researchers.

609 One of the critical research findings is that consumers are demanding a substantial change in existing e-waste  
610 management systems. Issues requiring the attention of researchers and policymakers around both product and  
611 service innovation include formal e-waste collection options, data and information security, collection prices,  
612 modes of compensation, service options (online, door-to-door, curbside collection, proximity to permanent  
613 recycling centers), confidence and participation in online recycling platforms, and low-cost repair.

614 Consumers' awareness regarding e-waste should be raised through education and campaigns. More diversified  
615 strategies involving social media and information provided at physical locations are required to have an impact  
616 on consumers' storage and repair and reuse behavior. A specific focus is required on frequency and content  
617 development for awareness-raising campaigns. Regulatory frameworks require further attention in relation to  
618 informal sector recycling, extended producer responsibility, payment size and method in take-back systems,  
619 public engagement provision, and mandatory product stewardship schemes. In developing a national EM  
620 policy, regional aspects and city-wide socioeconomic diversity should be considered, rather than  
621 implementing a one-size-fits-all solution. To achieve better material circularity, government support through  
622 tax relief and subsidies should be provided to local recycling companies and cooperation should be established  
623 between electronic product manufacturers and local waste management authorities.

624 Manufacturers have a role to play in the product end-of-life stage and the product design stage to enhance  
625 consumer perceptions of convenient product disassembly (for recycling) and enhanced repairability. Online  
626 product selling and exchange sites play a critical role in influencing consumption behavior. In that regard, the  
627 government can develop a national inventory database on (category-wise) product sales and (statistical)  
628 parameter identification for waste generation estimation. Consumers' selling behavior and its impact on  
629 manufacturers' reverse logistics operations should be considered a research opportunity. Service innovation  
630 in e-waste collection for the aged population and the case of small e-waste items should have a particular  
631 focus.

632 Despite the complex interdisciplinary nature of the research, this paper provides an introductory guide to  
633 researchers investigating several issues in one single place. Most importantly, it is often hard to provide a  
634 generalized recommendation linking circular economy principles (building blocks) and associated pathways  
635 as socio-economic conditions, policy, and regulation are both country and culture specific. In this case, a more  
636 interdisciplinary research approach could be taken by future researchers in the field.

637 A global focus on consumer awareness and behavior towards e-waste has been considered in this review  
638 article, collecting, and analyzing articles published in the international peer-reviewed journals. As the focus  
639 topic encompasses an interdisciplinary field of research, if any paper missed the WoS database keywords, it  
640 might not appear in the collection and would not have been included in the analysis. Future research should  
641 utilize other keywords and integrating other search engines such as scholar.google.com. Extending the  
642 literature review to journals in other languages may address some of these gaps, but language barriers could  
643 also create difficulties around researchers learning from other nations' experiences.

644 It is hoped that this paper will have value for policymakers in developing strategies and for researchers in  
645 conducting future research into the multidimensional research theme of advancing knowledge around e-waste  
646 and circular economy. For future research, an interdisciplinary approach is required that seeks to understand  
647 the complex dynamics of consumer behavior including how it varies across different products and waste  
648 streams.

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Main issue or task to accomplish	Associated behavioral impact	Building block of circular economy	Sectorial perspective	Circular economy pathways	Actors involved	Proposed measures achieving circular economy
<b>Understanding and perceptions of e-waste</b>						
Awareness and capacity building	B3	PSU, P	E, S	M, R, Rf, Rc	C, G, SP	- Provide general awareness on the environment and health impact of improper e-waste handling via environmental education, publicity campaigns, social media, and public consultation at the local level
Information material	U	P	M, S, B, L	M	SP, G	- Designing campaigns and educational materials focusing on age
<b>Familiarity of collection and recycling programs</b>						
Amendment in legislation	U, B3, B5	P, PSU,	L	-	G	- Implement legislative provision letting the public know about the existence of e-waste-related policies and regulation as well as the e-waste handling process
Information dissemination on policy, regulation, and economic opportunities	U, B5, B3	P, R, B, T	L, B, E	Rc	G, SP	- Provide information on the reward and punishment system, environmental degradation caused by informal sector recycling, economic and environmental benefits of online-based (e-commerce) collection system
E-waste recovery program/scheme-related awareness	U, B3, B5	R, P,	B, S	Rc, R, Rf	G, SP	- Communication campaigns at the local level on available recovery program (special attention to WMPs and SE which are portable or easily thorn away with household waste), (nearest) collection points and availability of dedicated for e-waste collection services (e.g., door-to-door, curbside pickup), schedule of collection points (opening and closing hours), type of e-waste collected at the points, an environmental contribution of appropriate recycling (secondary material resource utilization) by

						public announcement and media coverage, internet, social media
Economic incentives from recovery/take-back program	B3, B5	B, R, P	E, M, B	Rf, Rc	G, SP	- Improved publicity of economic incentives on the returned product at university and colleges
	B3, B5, U	R, P, PSU, T	E, E, S, B, L	Rc	G, SP, C	- Community-based intervention for the high e-waste recovery rate and inclusion of the concept of urban mines at the policy level
<b>Consumption behavior</b>						
Event-oriented collection system	B3	B, PSU, R	B, M	Rc	G, SP	- Arrange targeted awareness-raising campaigns, and provide product take-back service in special events and occasion in a year - Information campaigns dedicated to young consumers, especially users of laptops and MPs at universities
Integrated consumption and reuse	B4	B, PSU, P	B, M, Tech	M	PoM, PaM	- Enhanced repair service for LE extending product lifespan
Product-specific consumption	B1	B, PSU, R, P	Tech, E, M, S, B, L	M, R, Rf, Rc	C, SP, G	- Develop national and regional level EM planning by analyzing consumption pattern and focusing on categories products: screen category (plasma TV sets, laptops), LE (e.g., refrigerator, WM, AC), SE (e.g., digital camcorders, digital camera, irons, hand blenders, hairdryers, vacuum cleaners, and heaters), small IT (tablets, DCs, MPs, routers, and modems)
Multi-channel device acquisition source	B1, B3, B5	B, PSD, R, P	M, B, L	M, R, Rf, Rc	G, PoM	- Recognizing importers (of cheap non-brand EEE) under a product take-back system
Role of online EEE retail websites	B1, B3, B5	B, P, PSD, R, PSU	M, E, B, L	Rc, R	G, PoM, SP	- Assigning well-defined role and responsibility of (foreign and local) online and physical retail outlets in EM planning

Government's product take-back services	B1, B3, B5	PSU, PSD, R, P	S, L	M, R, Rc, Rf	G, SP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Improved planning on product take-back and awareness-raising while promoting government-supported IT training program to avoid high product obsolescence rate, and later orphan products in the waste stream</li> </ul>
Green products' eco-labeling and environmental features in products	B1, B3, B4, B5	PSU, PSD, P	Tech, M	M, R, Rf, Rc	C, PoM, PAM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Provide information on expected service lifespan, use of material (% of recycled material), environmental benefits (water and energy-saving if the product used an extended period), CO2 emission, date of manufacturing, and others in pictorial form (and mostly in the user manual) rather long texts</li> <li>- Promote pro-environmental and sustainability-related educational campaigns during new product launch organized by famous brands</li> <li>- Extend green product design (simple disponibility and material recovery) concept to LE</li> <li>- Develop young consumers' demand-oriented product design for product lifespan extension (e.g., battery life, convenient replacement of screen, and others)</li> </ul>
Mitigating measures against high device replacement	B1, B3, B4, B5	PSU, PSD, P	Tech, M	M, R, Rf, Rc	C, PoM, PAM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Establishing authoritative quality assurance services for repair</li> <li>- Make available brand-specific spare part such as a battery for MPs and laptops by original equipment manufacturers (OEM)</li> </ul>
Campaigns on product lifecycle thinking	U	PSU, PSD	S	M, R, Rf, Rc	SP, G,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Organize information campaigns at universities and education institutions on product life cycle thinking</li> </ul>
Product lifespan and EG	-	PSU, PSD	Tech, E, B, L	M, R, Rf, Rc	G	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Develop a national-level product-specific lifespan database (using local data) as an input utilized for regional and national EM planning</li> </ul>
Product labeling	B1	PSD, P	Tech, M, B	R, Rf, Rc	PoM, PaM	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Integrate "energy and resource use" and expected device lifespan in eco-product labeling</li> </ul>

Mobile phone - lifespan	B3, B4	B, PSU, PSD, P	B	R	SP, G	- Develop mobile phone-related lifespan database combining direct waste analysis and contract history maintained by network operators
Monitoring of mobile phone network operator	B1, B3	PSD, P, R, B	B, L, E	R, Rf, Rc	SP, PoM, PaM	- The role of network operators (mainly for MPs) and their activity associated with the waste disposal scenario should be monitored by a centralized waste management authority as the product contain high-value material.
<b>Storage behavior</b>						
Lack of awareness for hibernated resources	U, B2, B4	PSD, P	S, B	M, R, Rf	G, PoM, PaM	- Organize information and publicity campaigns on unutilized resources (environmental value), consumers' product stewardship responsibilities, recycling program, locations of collection points, recycling facilities - Arrange mass training and (online) information shearing platform for repair
Data backup service	B3, B5	PSD, P, B, R	Tech, S, B	Rc	SP	- Data removal process at the point of purchase with necessary data backup service
Lack of spare parts usage platform	B2, B4	PSD, PSU, B	Tech, E, M, S, B	R, Rf	SP, G, PoM, PaM	- Online and offline (at repair café) spare parts sharing opportunity supported by part/device manufacturers
<b>Disposal behavior</b>						
Increasing awareness on disposal	U, B3	PSD, P	S, L	Rc	C, G, SP	- Door-stepping information campaigns (on the environmental, economic, and social problem) caused by improper disposal (with household waste) of e-waste, cost of disposal, current e-waste-related regulations, and availability of legal channels for disposal (location of collection points) with a specific focus on young (student) consumers
Components of new product launch	B1, B3	PSD, B, P	S, B, M, L	Rc	C, PoM, G	- The new product launch's marketing campaign should raise consumers' awareness of proper e-waste disposal.

Mobile apps development	B3	B, PSU, PSD, P	Tech, S, B	M, R	PaM, C, SP	- Developing online information platform (mobile app) finding the current state of malfunctioning of a product and possible measures to be taken
Product-specific collection campaigns	U, B3	PSD, R, B	S, B	Rc, R	G, SP, PoM	- Organize product-specific collection campaigns (e.g., WMPs)
Role of manufacturers in disposal	B3	PSD, PSU, R, P	B, M, E	R, Rc	PoM, SP	- Organize manufacturers' collection system for LE (white goods) and relatively greater size of IT equipment
Point of e-waste collection	U, B1, B3	PSD, P, R	E, B, S	R, Rc, Rf	G, SP	- Establish disposal points at the point of purchase (e.g., retail stores)
Product design (PD) – Parts replacement	B1, B2, B3, B4	PSD, T, R	Tech, E, B	R, Rc, Rf	PoM, PaM	- Modular product design for reduced malfunction and rapid parts replacement
PD – Product label	B1, B2, B3, B4, B5	PSD, T, R	Tech, B	M, R, R, Rf	PoM	- Develop product labeling on expected service lifespan of a product
Lack of appropriate amount of incentives	B3, B4, B5	PSD, P, R	M, B, E	M, R, Rf, Rc	PoM, SP, G	- Setting appropriate collection price against informal sector collectors along with other incentives such as OFN, discounted price for new product purchase, deposit-refund under formal e-waste take-back service
Monitoring products' quality	B3, B4, B2	PSD, R, P, T	S, B, E	R, Rc	SP	- Assessment of cost of disposal against product reuse potential
Mixed collection method development	B3, B4	PSD, B, R, P	E, S, B	M, R, Rf, Rc	SP, G	- Develop a creative (online/mobile app-based) e-commerce platform by integrating online and offline resources integrating RL service providers
Focus on universities providing incentives	B1, B2, B3, B4, B5	PSD, B, R, P	S, B, E	M, R, Rc	G, SP, PoM	- Universities as an e-waste collection hub (as well as district urban mines) providing incentives to students for a higher collection rate
Inclusion of informal sector	B3, B5	PSU, P, R, B	E, B, S, L, E	R, Rc	G, SP	- Introducing the informal sector as a collection service provider along with a formal RL system
Product-specific collection channel	B3, B2, B5, B4	B, PSD, PSU, R, P	B	R, Rc	SP	- Arranging a free-of-charge door-to-door collection system (for both SE and LE)

Integrated collection system	B3, B5	PSD, R, P, T	E, Tech	Rc	G, SP	- Integrating e-waste collection with general household waste handling system (using separate collection vehicles)
Capacity enhancement of second hand (repair) stores	B3, B4	B, PSD, P	Tech, S, B	M, R, Rf	SP, PoM, PaM	- Enhancing technical capabilities of secondhand stores and repair shops for the enhanced refurbished product delivery (especially for smartphones, laptops, tablets, and notebooks)
Promotion of online recycling platform	B5	B, PSD, R, P	Tech, S, B, E	Rc	G, SP	- Encourage e-waste sorting and promote online recycling platforms among young consumers
Enhancing capabilities (EC) of the charity organizations	B3, B4, B5	B, PSU, PSD, R, P	Tech, E, M, S, B	M, R, Rf	G, SP, PoM, PaM	- Technical and social capability enhancement of charity organizations with the support of government and product manufacturers
EC of repair and secondhand stores	B4	PSD, B, R, P	E, B	M, R	PoM, PaM	- Develop efficient product return management of retail stores (for brand new products), second-hand stores, and repair shops
EC of local manufacturers	B3, B5	PSD, R, P	B, S, E	R, Rc	PoM	- Improved arrangements of local manufacturers' e-waste collection (especially waste MPs)
EC of local government	B3, B5	P	L, B, S	M, R, Rc	G, PoM	- Enhanced role of local municipalities and manufacturers educating consumers and collecting e-waste
<b>Repair and reuse behavior</b>						
Information dissemination	B4	PSD, P,	S, B	R, Rf	SP	- Dissemination of information on repair shops' locations, price of repair work, the time required for repair work
Enhanced consciousness about secondhand product use	B4	B, PSU,	E, S, B	R	C, SP	- Quality assurance authority should be built as an intervention, especially in cost and confidence, highlighting acceptability of a service
EPR integration and incentives for repair	B4	P	L	R, Rf	G, PoM, PaM	- EPR integration in product repair-related tasks and guaranteed repair service for costly EEE as an incentive
Consumers' engagement in product design	B1	PSD, T, P, B	B, Tech, E, S	M, Rf	PoM, PaM	- Enhance initiatives on green product design engaging consumers, specifically energy-saving products, and LE

Input material and disassembly characteristics	B1	PSD, P	Tech, E, E, B, L, M	Rf, Rc	PoM, PaM, G	- Increased disassembly properties for optimized separation and parts replacement (mainly for cheap EEE items) and improved used of recycled material and remanufactured components
Informed decision making on product purchase	B1, B3, B4	PSD, P	S, Tech, B	R, Rf	PoM, PaM	- Information dissemination of product durability, environmental contribution, repair-ability via design and labeling
Product labeling associated to product use and EG estimation	B1	PSD, P	Tech, L, B	M, R, Rf, Rc	PoM, PaM, G	- Date of manufacturing, expected lifespan (based on service guarantee), the material used, and material quantity in product labeling and/ or user manual
Standardization - cost	B4, B2, B3	PSD, P, B	B, S, E	R, Rf	SP, PoM, PaM	- Repair-cost optimization depending on product types and conditions
Standardization – service delivery	B1, B2, B4, B4	PSD, P, PSU	E, M, S, B	R, Rf	C, SP, PaM, PoM	- Product-centric malfunctioning list development and improved availability of cheap spare parts for rapid repair
Product-specific repair initiatives	B1, B4, B2	PSD, P	Tech, E, M, S, B	R, Rf	PoM, PaM	- Initiate increased product-specific repair initiatives (especially for MPs, TV sets, laptops, and refrigerators)
Role of manufacturers	B4	PSU, PSD, P	Tech, B, L	R, Rf	PoM, G	- Engagement of manufacturers in repairing the product with minimal cost
Community engagement	B1, B2, B4	PSD, P	S, Tech	M, R	C, G	- Creating a community knowledge platform for product repair
Repair and charity organization	B1, B2, B4,	PSD, PSU, P	S, L, B	M, R, Rf	G	- Engagement of charity organization with government support
Secondary market development (SMD) - certification	B4	PSD, P, B	M, L, B	R, Rf	G, SP, PoM	- Creating centralized authority for certification of quality reusable EEE
SMD – product price	B1, B4	B, P, PSD	M, S, B	R, Rf	PoM, PaM	- Optimized price setting for repaired products without compromising durability and performance
SMD – service assurance	B1, B4	PSD, B, P	Tech, E, M, B	R, Rf	PaM	- Service guarantee (as product lifespan warranty) of repaired products at stores (second-hand/ repair/refurbished product stores)

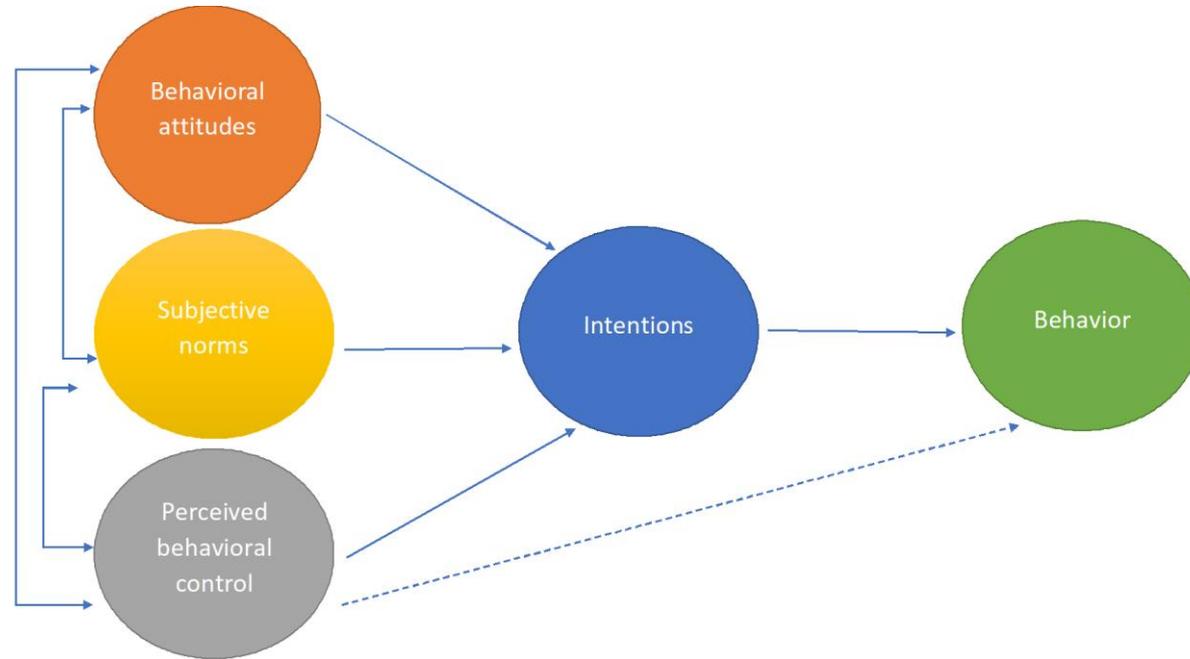
SMD – Periodic performance evaluation	B1, B4	PSD, B, P	S, Tech, E, M	R, Rf	G, SP	- Monitoring performance of repair stores and charity organizations against technical and service delivery standard
<b>Recycling behavior</b>						
Recycling-related information campaigns	B5, B1, B3	PSD, P	L, E, S,	Rc, M, R	G, SP, PoM, C	- Consumer awareness campaigns for environmental benefits on recycling, laws and regulations, recycling centers' location, available disposal options under formal collection channels, operating hour of the recycling centers, resource use, formal collection channels, environmental impact caused by informal sector recycling
Recycling service optimization	B3, B5	PSD, B, R, P, T	Tech, E, M, S, B	Rc	SP, G	- Determination of optimized collection center location, product-specific cost of recycling (collection price optimization depending upon original product price), collection modes (cyber and physical), e-waste collector's quality certification, service reservation (online and via phone)
Establishing collection points	B3, B5	PSD, B, R, P	B, E, S,	Rc	G, SP, C	- Development of pickup service (door-to-door), placing collection centers at population centers (e.g., library, train stations)
Integration of cyber-physical system	B5	B, PSU, PSD, R, P	E, B, S	Rc	G, C, SP, PoM	- Motivate young consumers using online recycling platforms (if available), including incentives integrating online money transaction platforms
Incentives in recycling system	B5	B, R, PSD, T, P	E, M, S, B, L	Rc	PoM, SP, G	- Ensure incentive-oriented participation of consumers under mandatory scheme covering a wide range of product at e-waste collection points and usability of incentives (in the form of coupons) for the products
Mandatory Information security	B5, B3, B4	B, PSD, R, P, T	Tech, B, L	R, Rf, Rc	G, SP, PoM	- Guaranteed information security (if required) for disposing of items
Visible recycling fees	B3, B5	B, PSU, R, P	E, L, S, B	Rc	G, SP	- Transparency of e-waste handling authority in terms of optimized cost (depending upon product price)

						contributed by consumers introducing visible recycling fees (for gaining greater public trust)
Structure of recycling fees	B3, B5	P	E, L, S	Rc	G, SP	- Assessment of recycling fees collection method (advanced recycling fees at point of purchase/fees collection at the point of disposal or in the form of tax (with other household municipality tax)
Capacity improvement of retailers	U, B1, B3, B5	P, PSD, B	E, B, L	Rc	G, SP, PoM	- Capability enhancement of retail stores collecting e-waste for recycling
Flow of (disposed) product	B3, B4, B5	B, PSD, R, P	M, E, B, L	R, Rf, Rc	G	- Monitoring final product flow from repair shops and secondhand product selling platforms
Recycling infrastructure development	B2, B3, B5	P, T, R	Tech, E, B	Rc	G	- Increase formal recycling facilities and associated low-cost technology for economies of scale

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Note:	
Associated behavior and aspects	U: knowledge and awareness, B1: Consumption, B2: Storage, B3: Disposal, B4: Repair and Reuse, B5: Recycling
Building blocks of circular economy	B: Business model, PSU: Product/service use, PSD: Product/service design, R: Reverse supply chain, P: Policy, T: End-of-life Treatment
Sectorial perspective	E: Environment, Tech: Technical, E: Economic, M: Market, S: Social, B: Business, L: Legislative
Circular economy pathways	M: Maintain/prolong, R: Reuse/redistribute, Rf: Refurbish/Remanufacture, Rc: Recycle
Actors	C: consumers/users, SP: Service provider, PoM: Product manufacturers, PaM: Parts manufacturers, G: Government/policymakers

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**Fig. A1.** Main constructs of TPB, adapted from (Ajzen, 1991)

**Table A2.** TPB-related studies on consumers' behavior towards e-waste

Reference	Country	Product	Behavior considered	Aspects considered	Main factor identified for behavioral intention			Additional construct considered in the study
					Under the construct of	Under the construct of	Under the construct of perceived	

					<b>behavioral attitude</b>	<b>subjective norm</b>	<b>behavioral control</b>	
Liu et al. (2019)	China	MPs	Recycling	Difficulties in recycling WMPs	Perception of negative effects, environmental sensitivity, and environmental responsibility	Personal influence and group influence	self-ability and recycling convenience	-
Echegaray and Hansstein (2017)	Brazil	E-waste in general	Recycling	Intention and behavior gap among consumers in major metropolitan cities	Favorable views of recycling	Perceived social acceptance of recycling	infrastructure and convenience	“Socio-demographic and socio-economic variables”, “degree of awareness”, and “personal (environmental) assessment” towards the problem
Kumar (2019)	India	E-waste in general	Recycling	Cross-cultural study on young consumers’ recycling behavior	-	-	-	Individual Responsibility, consequences Awareness, Sense of duty, and convenience
Nduneseokwu et al. (2017)	Nigeria	E-waste in general	Disposal	Assessing key determinants on recycling intentions in a formal collection system	-	-	-	Infrastructure, environmental knowledge, and economic incentive

Thi Thu Nguyen et al. (2018)	Vietnam	E-waste in general	Recycling	Examining key factors influencing the behavioral intentions or pro-environmental behavior	Environmental awareness and attitude of recycling	Social pressure and laws and regulations	Cost of recycling and inconvenience of recycling	Past recycling experience, residents' socio-economic characteristics
Wang et al. (2019)	China	E-waste in general	Recycling	Assessing wiliness to participate in an online recycling platform and identification of influencing factors	-	-	-	Economic motivation and convenience
Wang et al. (2018)	China	E-waste in general	Recycling	Impact of information publicity	Personal norm and recycling attitude	-	-	Awareness of consequences, ascription of responsibility, and personal norms variables as component for NAM model
Shaharudin et al. (2020)	Malaysia	E-waste in general (mostly small and IT equipment)	Disposal	Assessing disposal intention of small portable e-waste items	Perceived convenience and perceived benefits	Perceived norms	Perceived policy effectiveness	-
Yuan et al. (2020)	China	MPs	Trading (selling) behavior	Investigating decision-making mechanism of recycling rate of reusable mobile phone	Active wiliness to vote, environmental protection, public literacy,	Environmental policy constraints, neighbor's behavior, family member influence,	Specification of recycling channel, trading determination, active trading behavior	Under "Recycling facilities and services": recycling facility convenience, trading convenience,

					consumer trading returns	promote environmental education		recovery time cost and information leak sensitivity
Papaoikonomou et al. (2020)	Greece	E-waste in general	Recycling	Investigation on the factors affecting recycling intention	-	-	-	Outcomes and consequences and concern for the place of residence, total attitude, WTP and information status regarding WEEE recycling
Kumar (2017)	India	MPs	Selling	Understanding motivations and intentions of consumers' selling WMPs and its impact on RSC management	-	-	-	Sense of duty and perceived benefits
Wang et al. (2016)	China	E-waste in general	Recycling	Analyzing influencing factors towards consumers' recycling behavioral intentions and impact of informal sector recycling on the intentions	Environmental awareness and attitude of recycling	Norms and publicity	Convenience of recycling, cost of recycling, perceptions of informal recycling	Socio-demographic variables (gender, age, income, and education)

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666 **CRedit author statement**

667 **Md Tasbirul Islam:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Writing -  
668 Original Draft, Review & Editing.

669 **Nazmul Huda:** Validation, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Visualization, Project administration.

670 **Veena Sahajwalla:** Project administration

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673 **Atiq Uz Zaman:** Writing - Review & Editing

674 **Forkan Ali:** Writing - Review & Editing

675

676 **Declaration of competing interest**

677 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could  
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683

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