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End-of-waste criteria for waste plastic for conversion

Technical proposals

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**END-OF-WASTE CRITERIA
FOR
WASTE PLASTIC FOR CONVERSION
TECHNICAL PROPOSALS**

FINAL REPORT

OCTOBER 2014

**DG JRC
IPTS**

SEVILLE, SPAIN



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1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The new Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC, in the following referred to as 'the Directive' or WFD) among other amendments introduces a procedure for defining end-of-waste (EoW) criteria, which are criteria that a given waste stream has to fulfil in order to cease to be waste.

Waste streams that are candidates for the EoW procedure must have undergone a recovery operation, and comply with a set of specific criteria. The actual shape of such criteria is to be defined specifically for each waste stream, but Article 6 of the WFD defines in the following terms the general conditions that a waste material has to follow:

'certain specified waste shall cease to be waste [within the meaning of point (1) of Article 3] when it has undergone a recovery, including recycling, operation and complies with specific criteria to be developed in accordance with the following conditions:

- (a) The substance or object is commonly used for a specific purpose;*
- (b) A market or demand exists for such a substance or object;*
- (c) The substance or object fulfils the technical requirements for the specific purpose referred to in (a) and meets the existing legislation and standards applicable to products; and*
- (d) The use of the substance or object will not lead to overall adverse environmental or human health impacts.'*

Moreover, Articles 6(2) and 39(2) of the Directive specify the political process of decision-making for the criteria on each end-of-waste stream, in this case a Comitology procedure¹ with Council and Parliament scrutiny. As input to this decision-making process in Comitology, the European Commission prepares proposals for end-of-waste criteria for a number of specific waste streams. If approved, the outputs of this process are legal texts (normally Regulations) on end-of-waste for the concerned streams.

A methodology guideline² to develop end-of-waste criteria has been elaborated by the Joint Research Centre's Institute for Prospective Technological Studies (JRC-IPTS) as part of the so-called 'End-of-Waste Criteria' report.

The European Commission is currently working on preparing proposals for end-of-waste criteria for specific waste streams according to the legal conditions and following the JRC methodology guidelines. As part of this work, the IPTS prepares separate studies with technical information that will support each of the proposals for end-of-waste criteria. Besides describing the criteria, these studies include all the background information necessary for ensuring conformity with the conditions of Article 6 of the Directive.

¹ The progress of the Comitology processes on the WFD can be followed at: http://ec.europa.eu/transparency/regcomitology/index_en.htm

² End-of-waste documents from the JRC-IPTS are available from <http://susproc.jrc.ec.europa.eu/activities/waste/>. See in particular the operational procedure guidelines of Figure 5 in the "End-of-Waste Criteria" report.

For each waste stream, the technical studies are developed based on the contributions from stakeholders, by means of a Technical Working Group (TWG).

Specifically for waste plastics, the Technical Working Group has been composed of experts from Member States administration, industry, NGOs and academia. The experts of the group have contributed with data, information or comments to earlier draft versions of this report, and through participation in two expert workshops organised by the IPTS. The first workshop was held 22 November 2011, and the second took place 22 May 2012.

1.2 Objectives

The objective of this report is to present the information needed for the development of end-of-waste criteria for waste plastic. It also presents a first draft of the structure and content of criteria for waste plastic for conversion. This report builds on earlier versions presented and discussed in the TWG workshops, and addresses the written comments received from experts.

The publication of the technical proposals in this report does not prejudice the further steps that the European Commission may take in the preparation of a formal legislative proposal on end-of-waste for waste plastic.

Terminology note

In this report, the term *waste plastic* is used as a generic term referring to plastic from industrial or household origin which is collected, sorted, cleaned and in general reclaimed and processed for recycling. Recycling is understood as defined in the WFD³, i.e. the transformation of waste plastic material into finished and semi-finished plastic products.

Other related terms in use in the industry to define one or more waste plastic types are *recovered plastic*, *plastic scrap*, *plastic recyclate*, and in particular in CEN standards, *recycled plastic* and *plastic waste*.

Most often, the term *plastic scrap* relates to pre-consumer waste plastic, although the term can sometimes also be seen encompassing post-consumer waste, e.g. in *ISRI Scrap specification circular*.

The experts from the TWG have expressed split opinions on their preference for a suitable term in relation to the plastic material that meets EoW criteria, with preferences for either *waste plastic* or *plastic recyclate*. They also have indicated that the term *plastic scrap* is not much used in Europe.

The term *waste plastic* has been chosen in this report for practical reasons, but this choice does not bear any implicit judgment about the value or shape of the plastic

³ WFD EC/98/2008: Recycling: recovery operation by which waste materials are reprocessed into products, materials or substances whether for the original or other purposes. It includes the reprocessing of the material but does not include energy recovery and the reprocessing into materials that are to be used as fuels or for backfilling operations.

material, especially once it ceases to be waste. In this report, when reading *waste plastic*, one should bear in mind that alternative terms may also be currently used in trade, customs, or industry. By the provision of appropriate definitions and complementary recitals, a legal text on end of waste could make use of a different term than the one used in this report, for instance *plastic recyclate*.

1.3 Scope definition

Potential for energy recovery of waste plastic - restriction of scope to mechanical recycling (conversion)

The scope of this document and the proposals of end-of-waste criteria included in it refer to waste plastic for conversion, i.e. waste plastic that is reprocessed into a ready input for re-melting in the production of plastic articles and products.

Plastic conversion is understood as the transformation of plastic materials by application of processes involving pressure, heat and/or chemistry, into finished or semi-finished plastic products for the industry and end-users. The process normally involves sorting, size reduction operations to shred, flake or regrind, cleaning (including or not washing), agglomeration, melt-filtering, and final shaping into granular (pellet) or powder form, although some of the mentioned steps may be omitted. Once recyclate is in a suitable form and is of the required standard, it can be converted into a finished article.

It is assumed that plastic *articles* have a shape and function for final use, are not any longer subject to conversion, are already considered and classified as products, and are thus out of the scope of the present proposal.

It is also assumed that certain plastic types (e.g. some bio-, and oxo- degradable and/or compostable) cannot withstand conversion. If this is the case, they are also excluded from the scope of this proposal.

The use of waste plastic that has ceased to be waste in non-recycling recovery operations such as energy recovery, or recycling into applications where the nature of the material as plastic is not sought after and imply no re-melting, such as backfilling purposes or filter material, are not part of the scope of the end-of-waste criteria here presented.

End-of-waste criteria shall be designed as not to alter the practice, technology development and markets of the uses different from recycling into new plastic articles or products. Such alternative uses may continue to utilise waste plastic regulated under waste law. In other words, waste plastic that meets end-of-waste criteria can also be sold for these non-recycling uses, but in doing so, the material will not cease to be waste.

A detailed explanation of the rationale for this limitation of scope is provided in the following.

Feedstock recycling

Feedstock (chemical) recycling is also excluded from the scope⁴. The outputs are on the one side refined gas or liquid hydrocarbons (syngas, ethylene, etc.) used as chemical feedstock or as fuels, and on the other side heavy fractions (tar, oils) that normally are considered waste due to the presence of mixtures of high molecular mass aromatic compounds. This route has so far not faced any barrier in the recognition of the refined output materials (and only these) as non-waste, meeting consistently product standards, and therefore the inclusion would be redundant.

The opinions on this issue of the TWG members have been divided. Some experts have emphasised the need of not excluding feedstock recycling from the potential market opportunities of EoW. However, there is no evidence that these opportunities would currently be jeopardised, e.g. of national authority not presently recognising the product condition of feedstock ethylene/syngas, or having divergent opinions on its classification. On the other hand and in favour of exclusion, some stakeholders have highlighted the difficulty in identifying beforehand the final nature, quality and use of outputs (fuel/feedstock). In most cases, both the use as refined fuels and as chemical transformation feedstock are possible, but only feedstock is recycling, while the use as fuel is recovery.

Some members of the TWG have suggested including in the legal text a clause by which the exclusion of feedstock recycling from the scope could be revisited within a short time period (e.g. 4-5 years) from the adoption of the regulation.

Chemical recycling has currently very limited volumes and geographical spread in the EU, only ca. 50.000 tonnes are treated yearly, compared to >5Mt for mechanical recycling (conversion). Moreover, as discussed in the report, the acceptance criteria of contamination for feedstock recycling products (syngas, ethylene, etc.) is different than for mechanical recycling products (plastic polymers), the nature and amount of impurities that these two recycling options can handle are widely different, as are the techniques for decontamination.

Energy recovery and disposal

In the EU, several waste plastic fractions are for a number of reasons not appropriate for plastic recycling processes. This can be either because the polymer type does not allow recycling, because of a high content of non-plastic components, or because of a high content of other plastic types the mixture of which would spoil the properties of the end plastic product. Fractions that do not find a way into plastic recycling have other possible outlets in the EU, most notably:

- Feedstock outputs used as energy products.
- Energy use of waste plastic in incineration plants (normally without intermediate treatment).
- Energy use of waste plastic in cement plants (sometimes with shredding or other size homogenisation treatment).
- Recycling for other purposes than the processing into plastic articles, e.g: use for insulation purposes, sometimes with the addition of chemicals such as fire retardants, fungal resistance chemicals, or binding chemicals.

⁴ This is further discussed in Section 2.3.6.2. .

- Use as filler material, or for filtering purposes (sometimes with shredding or other size homogenisation treatment).
- Disposal in landfills.

Waste plastic not currently used for recycling is normally originating from a heterogeneous material, both as regards polymer types and non-plastic material content. Of a total annual generation of plastics in the EU in 2008 of ca. 50 Mt, only about a half (24.9Mt) was collected in the same year as post-consumer waste from households and commerce. The remaining amount of plastic products is traded (more exports than imports, as the EU's domestic consumption was ca. 40Mt), or is accumulated in stocks of durable materials that do not arise as waste in the same year.

Of the 24.9 Mt collected for waste management in 2008, about a half (12.1Mt) was disposed of via landfills and incineration without energy recovery, and the other half was evenly distributed between recycling (5.3 Mt) and energy recovery (7.5 Mt) as part of MSW or more targeted forms such as RDF, or plastic rejects from other industry (e.g. paper mills pulp rejects)⁵.

Of the amount sent for energy recovery, ca. 10% were incinerated in cement kilns⁶, i.e. some 800.000 tonnes. In cement kilns, this waste plastic was used both as energy source and clinker ingredient ('co-processing'), as the ash content is compatible with the mineral output. Some waste plastics aggregates are specifically prepared for this purpose, and the calorific value is indicated prominently in the specification data sheets (e.g. >32 MJ/kg or similar).

One of the reasons for not including energy recovery as part of the currently developed EoW criteria is that the technical requirements, the legislation and the standards that would apply for waste plastic destined for such uses would be both conceptually and in the details totally different from those that apply for recycling. Mechanical recycling involves processing of the waste plastic polymers into a new product that can only be made of such polymers. In contrast, combustion is a chemical reaction of substitution of other fuels, looking for different properties (calorific value, insulation, density, volume) that other substances also can fulfil. Following this logic, international standards (e.g. CEN, ISO) for waste plastic have little in common with standards or technical specifications for solid recovered fuels. Different types of pollutants are of concern in each case. The quality criteria, containing limit values and impurity thresholds, would be essentially different, and it would be a wrong approach to attempt to merge all limit values for the sole purpose of creating a set of EoW criteria encompassing all uses of waste plastic.

Another argument supporting the limitation of scope presented is the avoidance of conflict with existing legislation promoting recycling, both at EU level and national or regional level. The packaging waste Directive (94/62/EC amended by 2004/12/EC and 2005/20/EC including extended deadlines for new Member States) sets targets for the recycling of a number of recyclable packaging materials, including plastics. In case the

⁵ Eurostat 2008 data, Plastics Europe 2008 data.

⁶ In 2008 the EU27, ca. 27.3 PJ/yr were used for this purpose (about 0.8 Mt tonnes assuming conservatively an average calorific value in waste plastics of 30MJ/kg). Cembureau, pers. comm. Inneke Claes, Cembureau, Brussels, February 2009/October 2011.

criteria on EoW was not limited to recycling, part of plastic packaging may be diverted as EoW to non-recycling uses, and this may create additional difficulties in the achievement of the recycling targets agreed by Member States under the packaging directive. Some Member States or regions have additional prescriptions under waste law to avoid the incineration of recyclable waste material e.g. Flanders, Denmark, Germany and the Netherlands. These prescriptions would not apply to material that is not any more waste. By limiting the scope of end-of-waste to plastics recycling, this loophole is avoided.

In a parallel study, the JRC IPTS is assessing the properties of materials derived from waste (e.g. RDF, waste plastic fuels, and fuels from chemical recycling), vis-à-vis the conditions of Art 6 of the WFD. The publication of this study is expected in the course of 2014.

Reusable plastic products

Plastic is used widely in packaging applications, in both flexible and rigid forms. Some of these forms are reusable, predominantly in the rigid applications such as crate, pallets, trays and refillable bottles for beverages. In such cases, and when return systems are provided, the used products still have a value for their functionality as products and not only because of the value of the polymer material (PE, PET, etc..) that they contain. Used, but reusable products are thus not waste. One of the pre-conditions for a waste material for ceasing to be waste is indeed that it is waste and it has undergone a waste recovery operation. Not being waste in the first place, used reusable products are thus not part of the scope of this report.

1.4 Structure of this document

This document consists of three clearly differentiated chapters.

The first part of the study (Chapter 2) presents an overview of waste plastic, its composition, the types and sources, and their processing, grading and recycling. The chapter contains information on the fulfilment of the four conditions set out in Art. 6 of the Directive, namely the existence of a market demand and a specific use for waste plastic, the identification of health and environmental impacts that may result from a change of status, the conditions for conformity with standards and quality requirements, and the legislative framework of waste plastic inside and outside waste legislation. This is illustrated conceptually in the second row of the table in Figure 1.1.

Chapter 2 is partially based on the data collected in the frame of a project outsourced to the consultant BIO IS, which resulted in the report 'Study on recyclable waste plastic in the context of the development of end-of-waste criteria for the EU Waste Framework Directive'. This report is referred to as BIO IS (2011).

The second part of the study (Chapter 3) presents a set of EoW criteria, and includes the main issues discussed with the technical working group. This is conceptually illustrated in the bottom row in Figure 1.1.

Annex VI presents a compact version of the Criteria, which facilitates an appreciation of the criteria as a package.

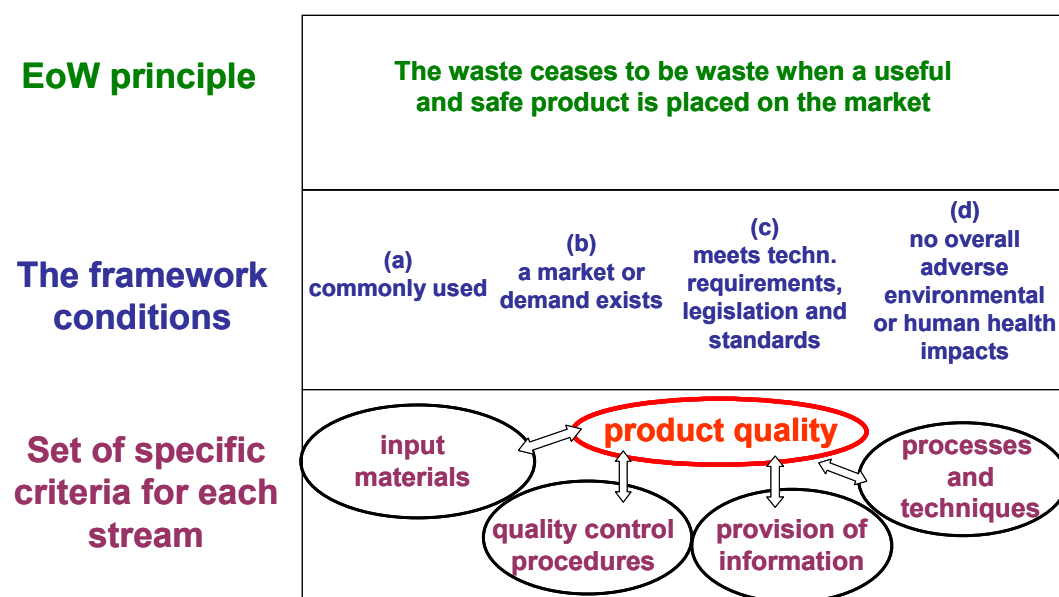


Figure 1.1. Conceptual illustration of the principle, framework conditions and elements of EoW criteria.

Finally, Chapter 4 presents a description of the potential impacts of the implementation of end-of-waste criteria.

2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON PLASTICS, WASTE PLASTIC RECLAMATION AND RECYCLING

2.1 Plastics: general description and characteristics

A plastic material is an organic solid, essentially a polymer or combination of polymers of high molecular mass. A polymer is a chain of several thousand of repeating molecular units of monomers. The monomers of plastic are either natural or synthetic organic compounds. The term *resin* is sometimes used as synonym of a commercial polymer.

Plastics can be classified by chemical structure, i.e. by the main monomer of the polymer's backbone and side chains. Some important groups in these classifications are the acrylics, polyesters, polyolefins, silicones, polyurethanes, and halogenated plastics. Plastics can also be classified by the chemical process used in their synthesis, such as condensation, and cross-linking. Other classifications are based on properties that are relevant for manufacturing or product design, e.g. thermoplasticity, biodegradability, electrical conductivity, density, or resistance to various chemical products.

The vast majority of plastics are composed of polymers of carbon and hydrogen alone or with oxygen, nitrogen, chlorine, fluorine or sulphur in the backbone. More often than not, plastics contain a main polymer, and a bespoke load of additives to improve specific properties, e.g. hardness, softness, UV resistance, flame formation resistance, or their behaviour during manufacture (lubricants, catalysts, stabilisers, solvents, polymerisation aids, recycling aids). The content of additives in plastics varies widely, from less than 1% in PET bottles and up to 50-60% in PVC, striking often a balance between technical properties and economics, as some additives are considerably more expensive than the main polymers, while others are inexpensive (inorganic fillers such as limestone or talc). A non-exhaustive list of additive types is provided below:

Additives enhancing properties of the plastic product:

- Stabilizers (acids, oxidation, biodegradation, heat, UV, etc)
- Flame retardants
- Plasticisers
- Colorants
- Antifogging and antistatic agents
- Optical brighteners, fluorescent whitening agents
- Fillers and Reinforcements/Coupling Agents
- Impact modifiers

Additives enhancing properties of the processing of plastics:

- Lubricants
- Nucleating Agents
- Polymer Processing Aids
- Blowing agents
- Additives for Mechanical Recycling of Plastics (mainly re-stabilisers and compatibilisers)

Some examples of the load of additives in polymers are provided in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1. Examples of additive load in plastics (Plastics Europe, 2011)

Additive	% Weight of the Polymer Present
Stabilisers	Up to 4%
Plasticisers	Present in flexible PVC at levels of 20 – 60%
Mineral Flame Retardants	In soft PVC cables, insulation and sheathing from 5 – 30%.
Fillers	Typically calcium carbonate is present in PVC flooring at very high proportions (50%) and in pipes from 0-30% or more. Talc and glass fibres are used in PP for automotive applications typically in the range of 20-40%. Glass fibres are also found in engineering polymers (such as PA or PBT), for reinforcement in the range 5-70%.
Pigments	Titanium dioxide is present in window profiles at 4-8%

Pfaendner (2006) describes that the primary target of the early additives was to help plastic survive the processing and shaping. This required antioxidants, heat stabilizers, processing aids, plasticizers and lubricants. Soon came the commercial need not only to maintain properties of plastics but also to extend their service life, e.g. in outdoor applications. This resulted in the development of light and UV stabilizers, biocides, or flame retardants. Market options developed widely with the combination of additional materials such as fillers, glass fibres or impact modifiers.

Most plastics characterise by their malleability or plasticity during manufacture, which allows them to be cast, pressed, or extruded into a variety of shapes such as films, tubes, bottles, fibres, plates, or boxes.

Due to their relatively low cost, ease of manufacture, versatility, low density, and low water permeability, plastics are used in an enormous range of products. They compete with many traditional materials, such as wood, stone, metals, paper, glass, or ceramics.

2.1.1 Production

The production of polymers involves a series of steps in which the raw materials are progressively processed to produce formulated polymeric materials to meet the specific requirements of the wide range of end applications. As an example the primary raw material, oil, gas, etc., is initially 'cracked' in a petrochemical process producing a range of products from which naphtha⁷ is passed to the next stage of monomer production.

The monomer is then converted to the desired grade of polymer as determined by the application needs of the converted product. Formulations are achieved as part of the polymerisation and granulation process, and/or through separate compounding operations where polymers and/or additives (such as colours, plasticizers, or impact modifiers) are blended to meet the specific application requirements.

Almost all plastics are currently derived from fossil sources, mainly oil and gas. Only 0.1-0.2% are derived from renewable organic sources such as starch, corn or sugar.

⁷ Naphtha is a group of liquid hydrocarbons encompassing the lightest and most volatile fractions in petroleum. Naphtha is a colourless to reddish-brown aromatic liquid, very similar to gasoline, and boiling between 30 °C and 200 °C.

2.1.1.1 Conversion

Plastic articles are produced from the polymer, usually in powder, granulate, pellet or flake form, by a range of different processes, generally termed as *conversion*. For example, rigid packaging such as bottles and drums use a moulding process where an extruded length of tube is inflated whilst still above its softening point into a mould which forms the shape/size of the container. Conversely, flexible packaging film is produced by extrusion techniques, such as casting, blowing or calendering depending on the material and the thickness. The films are then usually printed with product (content) data and may also be laminated to other plastic films or non-plastic materials to provide improved functionality, e.g. rigidity, aroma impermeability, modified atmosphere packaging.

The opportunity of using recycled polymers as substitutes of virgin polymers is very much influenced, and limited, by the end-use application. Transparent plastic products need the use of transparent resins. These may be reclaimed from mixed sources using a variety of sorting technologies. However, transparent recycled resins can be difficult to obtain from mixed colour input, and in order to avoid colour contamination they often require the set-up of closed loops of collection of e.g. PET beverage bottles of the same type. Applications that involve direct contact with foodstuffs are specially controlled, and meet also limitations as to the origin of the recycled input, for safety and health reasons.

2.1.1.2 Main figures of generation and use of plastics in the EU

The total yearly consumption of plastic converters in the EU-27 plus Norway and Switzerland in 2009 was approximately 46.4 million tonnes⁸, of which ca. not more than 10% (4.6 Mt) came from recycled origin. The total yearly production of polymers in the region was higher, about 57 million tonnes, the difference being explained by net exports of polymers to overseas converters. The EU has traditionally been a net exporter of plastics and plastic products, the main destinations being China and Hong Kong, Turkey, Russia, Switzerland, and for converted product, also USA.

There are many polymers in the EU market, but five categories of plastic polymers dominate the EU plastic market and account for around 75% of the production demand. In 2010 these proportions were:

- Polyethylene (29%, including low density-LDPE, linear low density-LLDPE, and high density-HDPE)
- Polypropylene (PP, 19%)
- Polyvinylchloride (PVC, 12%)
- Polystyrene (solid-PS and expandable-EPS, 8%)
- Polyethylene terephthalate (PET, 6%).

⁸ Figure for the EU-27 plus Norway and Switzerland. PlasticsEurope (2011) "Plastics-the facts 2011" www.plasticseurope.org

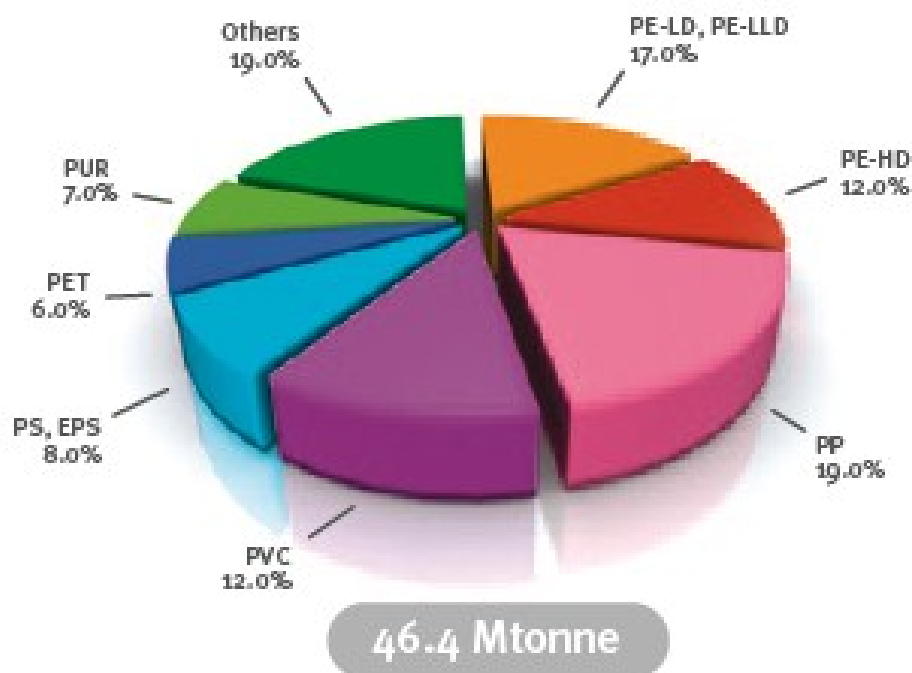


Figure 2.1. Demand by industry of different plastics in the EU27+NO+CH in 2008, by plastic type. Source: PlasticsEurope et al. 2011.

The shares of all these main polymers types are almost unchanged in the last 3-4 years: HDPE, PVC, PP and PET varied by only $\pm 2\%$.

Plastic materials are used in a variety of end-use applications. Figure 2.2 shows that packaging is clearly the main application for plastics (39%), followed by building and construction (20.6%), automotive (7.5%) and electric and electronic applications (5.6%).

Older data from APME⁹ suggests that around 73% of the total packaging plastic material is used in households, while the remaining 27% is mostly used as distribution packaging in industry. Household packaging applications are usually short-lived, while distribution packaging items are often designed for reuse, for instance big boxes, pallets, crates and drums, can have very long life spans (typically 10-15 years¹⁰).

⁹ APME, 1999. A material of choice for packaging

¹⁰ Bio Intelligence Service (2008), Study to analyse the derogation request on the use of heavy metals in plastic crates and plastic pallets, for DG ENV

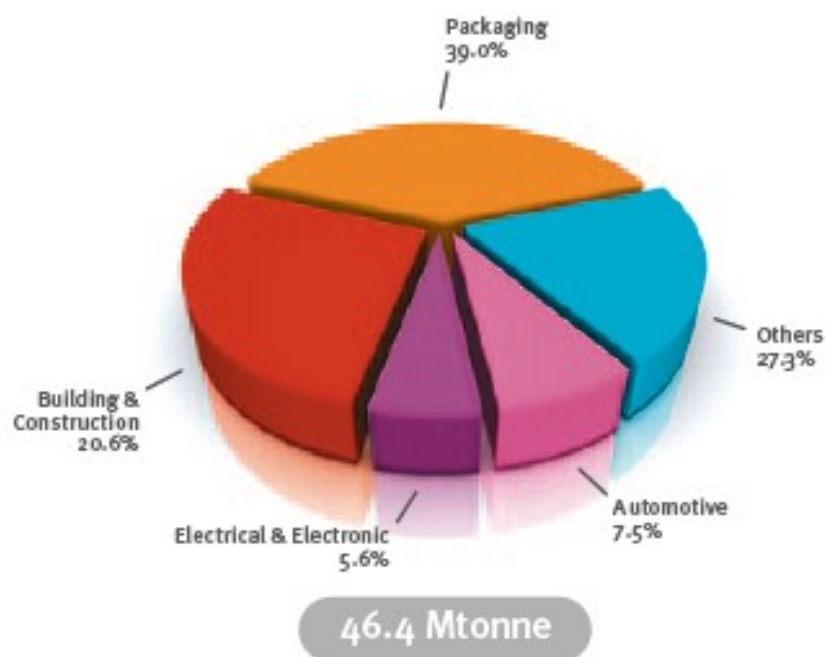


Figure 2.2. Demand by industry of different plastics in the EU27+NO+CH in 2010, by end-use sector. Source: PlasticsEurope et al. 2011.

In Figure 2.2, the category 'Others' include sectors such as household (toys, leisure and sports goods), furniture, agriculture and medical devices. Figure 2.3 and Figure 2.4 give a more precise breakdown of these 'other' uses. Figure 2.3 visualises a breakdown of the 'Others' category in 2004 in the more restricted region of EU-15 +NO +CH, where the overall consumption was 43.5 Mt in 2004⁽¹⁾. Household goods represented a substantial share of the 'other' demand, with 9%.

¹¹ PlasticsEurope et al. (2006), "An analysis of plastics production, demand and recovery in Europe 2004". www.plasticseurope.org; E&E = EEE (Electrical and electronic equipment)

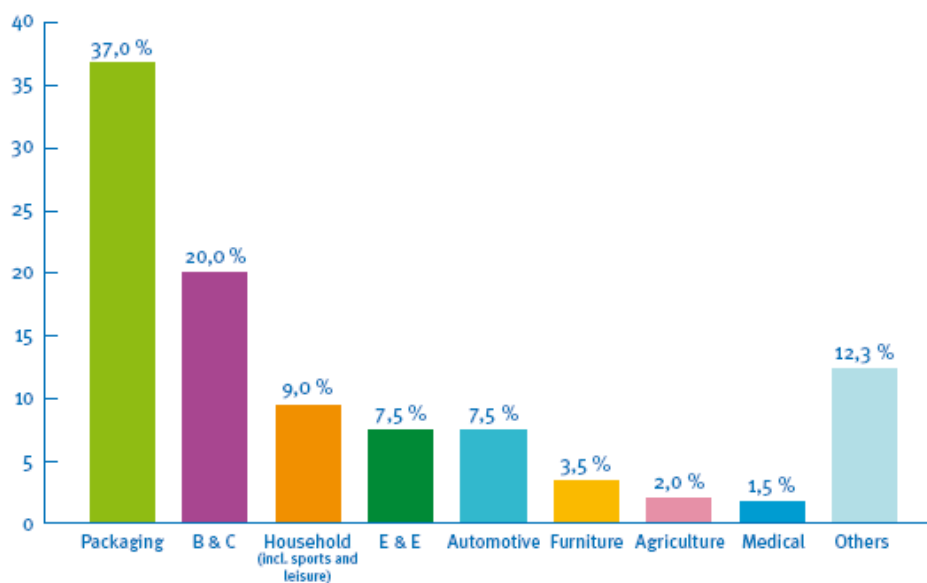


Figure 2.3. Breakdown of plastics demand by end-use sectors in the EU15 +NO+CH in 2004

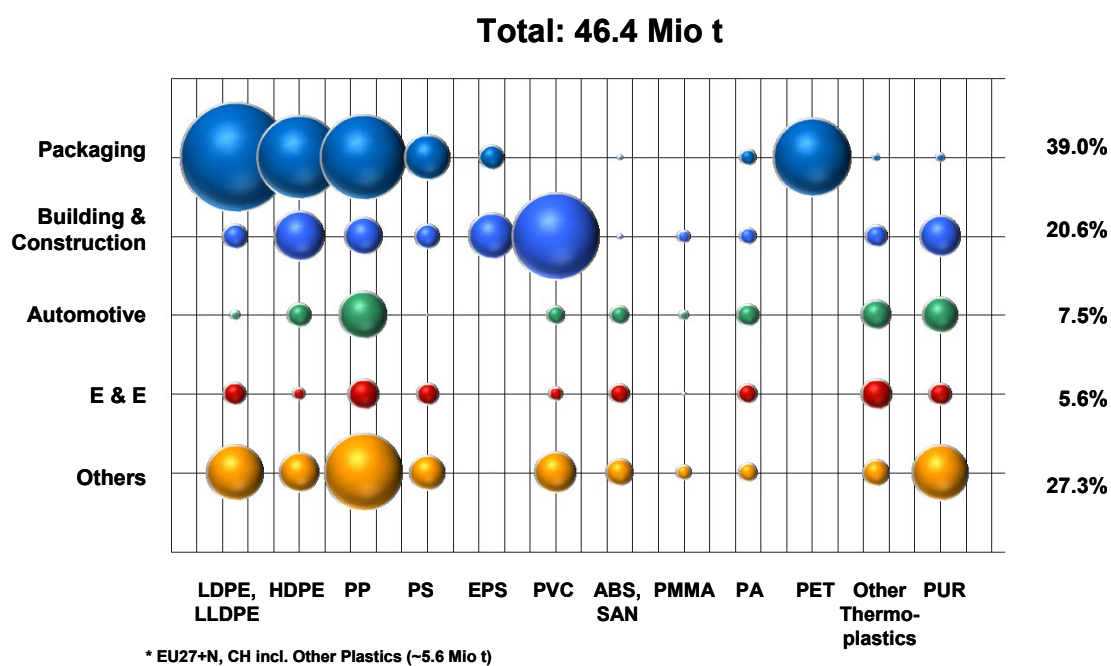


Figure 2.4. Breakdown of plastics demand by end-use sector and polymer type in the EU27 +NO+CH in 2010 . Source: PlasticsEurope 2011.

2.1.1.3 Additive production

Table 2.6 presents some aggregated figures on the evolution of the consumption of plastics and two additive types since 1950 (Pfaendner, 2006).

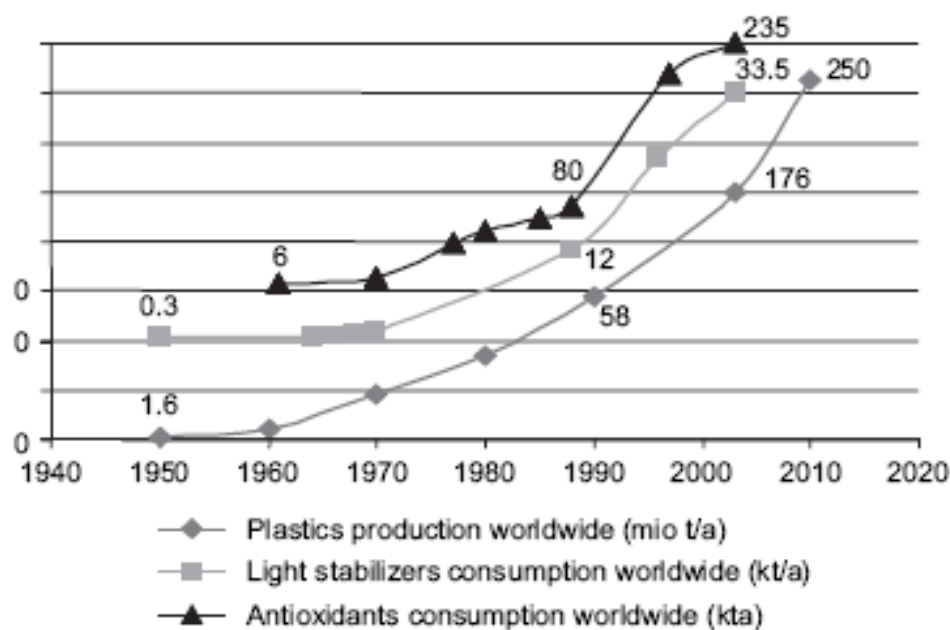


Figure 2.5. Evolution of the world consumption of plastics and two additives . Source: Pfaendner (2006).

The annual world consumption of additives in 2004 was in the range of 8 Mt, corresponding to a value of 18 billion US\$ (Figure 2.6).

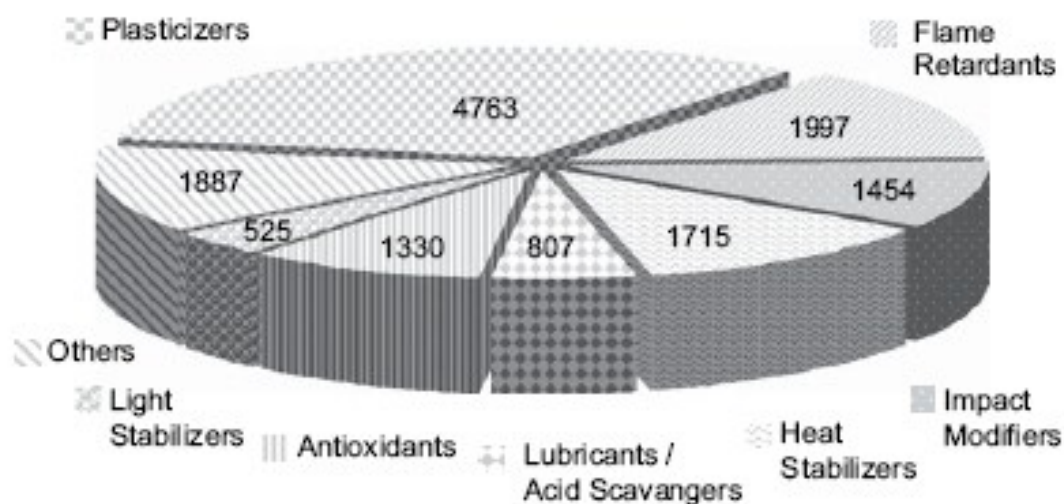


Figure 2.6. Share and tonnage (in ktonnes) of world turnover in 2004, by additive (Widmer, 2004).

Plasticizers dominate the market of additives but growth is slow and per kilogram value is low. Flame retardants are the fastest growing market with about 6% annually. PVC is the polymer consuming most additives, about one-third of the sum of plasticizers and heat stabilizers, and used in the early 00's ca. 73% of the world production of additives

by volume, followed by polyolefins (10%) and styrenics (5%)¹². About 40% of antioxidants and light stabilizers are used in polypropylene.

2.1.2 Waste plastic

As mentioned in the terminology section, waste plastic is a generic term to refer to plastic products that a holder discards, or intends or is required to discard. Once meeting EoW criteria, a different terminology is possible instead, e.g. 'plastic recyclate', see section 1.2.

2.1.2.1 Waste plastic classification

Because of the variety of plastics applications and uses, there are many grades of waste plastic. Some grades are homogeneous, some are a heterogeneous and complex mixes of polymers and other impurities. Regional and country differences in waste collection systems offer different qualities of waste plastic grades.

Several classifications for waste plastic are possible, based on e.g. the polymer type, the physical shape and use in recycling, or the origin. These three classifications are all useful in the context of this report, and are presented below.

Classification by recycling stage and shape

Waste inputs to recycling are bulk or baled materials that have normally received no other processing than sorting. Some illustrations of these materials are presented below:



Once processed by a reprocessor, the following categories of material are handled:

Regrind or Flake:

Is shredded and/or granulated recovered plastics material in the form of free-flowing material. Examples are depicted below:



The term *flake* is especially used in the PET business, referring to shredded bottle material. The typical particle size of regrind/flake below 2.5cm, but this size can vary. In the case of PVC, micronisation is an extra step which further reduces the size of the

¹² Murphy (2001)

recyclates to produce a powder, which is easier to blend and dose in new PVC production.

Agglomerate:

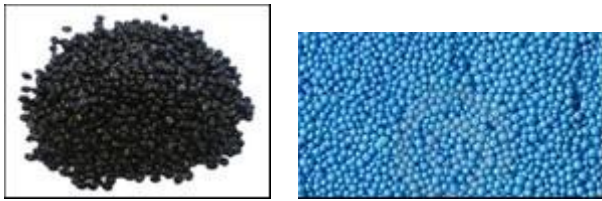
Shredded and/or granulated film material in the form of particles which cling together after an agglomeration process (pressing or thermal) with the aim of increasing the products bulk density. Examples of agglomerates are shown below:



Agglomerate pieces are normally not larger than 3cm x 2cm x 3cm.

Pellet:

A pellet is the product resulting from the recycling process using an extruder. Is a standard raw material used in plastics manufacturing and conversion. Examples are illustrated below:



The typical size of a pellet is around 0.2cm x 0.2cm x 0.2cm.

Classification by polymer

Most post-consumer waste contains a wide range of plastic polymer types, reflecting the variety of plastic polymers consumed in daily life.

The *SPI* resin identification coding system is a set of symbols placed on recyclable plastics to identify the polymer type. It was developed by the Society of the Plastics Industry (SPI) in 1988, and is used internationally (Table 2.2). The primary purpose of the codes is to allow efficient separation of different polymer types for recycling.

Table 2.2. Identification coding system of polymers. Adapted from (ACC, 2011)

Polymer name and image	Properties	Uses
 PETE Polyethylene terephthalate (PETE, PET)	• Clear and optically smooth surfaces for oriented films and bottles • Excellent barrier to oxygen, water, and carbon dioxide • High impact capability and shatter resistance • Excellent resistance to most solvents • Capability for hot-filling	PET is clear, tough, and has good gas and moisture barrier properties. This resin is commonly used in beverage bottles and many injection-moulded consumer product containers. Cleaned, recycled PET flakes and pellets are in great demand for spinning fibre for carpet yarns, producing fiberfill and geotextiles. Nickname: Polyester.
 High-density polyethylene (HDPE)	• Excellent resistance to most solvents • Higher tensile strength compared to other forms of polyethylene • Relatively stiff material with useful temperature capabilities	HDPE is used to make many types of bottles. Unpigmented bottles are translucent, have good barrier properties and stiffness, and are well suited to packaging products with a short shelf life such as milk. Because HDPE has good chemical resistance, it is used for packaging many household and industrial chemicals such as detergents and bleach. Pigmented HDPE bottles have better stress crack resistance than unpigmented HDPE
 Polyvinyl chloride (PVC or V)	• High impact strength, brilliant clarity, excellent processing performance • Resistance to grease, oil and chemicals	Pipe, fencing, shower curtains, lawn chairs, non-food bottles and children's toys. In addition to its stable physical properties, PVC has good chemical resistance, weatherability, flow characteristics and stable electrical properties. The diverse slate of vinyl products can be broadly divided into rigid and flexible materials.
 LDPE Low density polyethylene (LDPE) Includes Linear Low Density Polyethylene (LLDPE).	• Excellent resistance to acids, bases and vegetable oils • Toughness, flexibility and relative transparency (good combination of properties for packaging applications requiring heat-sealing)	LDPE is used predominately in film applications due to its toughness, flexibility and relative transparency, making it popular for use in applications where heat sealing is necessary. LDPE also is used to manufacture some flexible lids and bottles as well as in wire and cable applications. Plastic bags, 6 pack rings, various containers, dispensing bottles, wash bottles, tubing, and various moulded laboratory equipment
 PP Polypropylene (PP)	• Excellent optical clarity in biaxially oriented films and stretch blow moulded containers • Low moisture vapour transmission • Inertness towards acids, alkalis and most solvents	PP has good chemical resistance, is strong, and has a high melting point making it good for hot-fill liquids. This resin is found in flexible and rigid packaging, fibers, and large molded parts for automotive and consumer products. Auto parts, industrial fibres, food containers, and dishware

Polymer name and image	Properties	Uses
 PS Polystyrene (PS)	• Excellent moisture barrier for short shelf life products • Excellent optical clarity in general purpose form • Significant stiffness in both foamed and rigid forms. • Low density and high stiffness in foamed applications • Low thermal conductivity and excellent insulation properties in foamed form	PS is a versatile plastic that can be rigid or foamed. General purpose polystyrene is clear, hard and brittle. It has a relatively low melting point. Typical applications include protective packaging, foodservice packaging, bottles, and food containers. PS is often combined with rubber to make high impact polystyrene (HIPS) which is used for packaging and durable applications requiring toughness, but not clarity. Desk accessories, cafeteria trays, plastic utensils, toys, video cassettes and cases, clamshell containers, packaging peanuts, and insulation board and other expanded polystyrene products (e.g., Styrofoam)
 OTHER Other plastics, including acrylic, fiberglass, nylon, polycarbonate, and polylactic acid, and multilayer combinations of different plastics	• Dependent on resin or combination of resins	Use of this code indicates that a package is made with a resin other than the six listed above, or is made of more than one resin and used in a multi-layer combination.

Figure 2.7 displays the different types of plastic polymers found in EU-15 waste plastic in 2004. The main five plastic polymers found in waste (PE, PET, PP, PS, and PVC) are also the polymers consumed in largest amounts (see Figure 2.1), with slightly different shares explained by the different efficiency of collection of the different plastic products, and the different lifetimes of the products.

PE polymers (LLDPE, LDPE and HDPE) are overall the most abundant polymers in waste plastic because of their predominance in packaging applications¹³, which account for more than half the total waste plastic.

¹³ JRC, IPTS, "Assessment of the Environmental Advantages and Disadvantages of polymer recovery processes", 2007

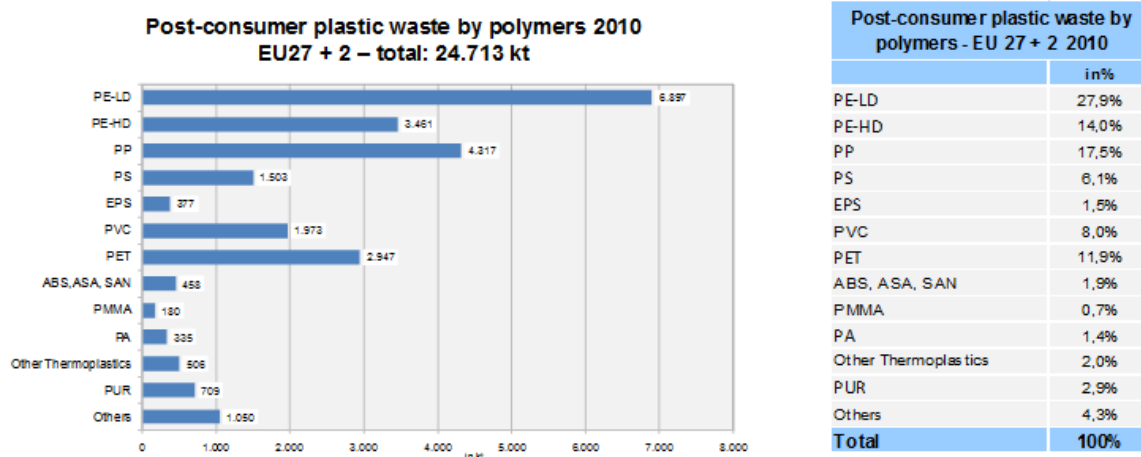


Figure 2.7. Plastic waste composition, EU-15 +NO +CH, 2004¹⁴

Figure 2.7 illustrates that ca. 60% of post-consumer plastics are polyolefins (PE, PP). Together with PET and PVC, these four resins account for more than 80% of the total plastic waste generation.

Classification by origin

A distinction is sometimes made regarding the industrial or consumer origin of the waste plastic. This distinction is important because some of the industrial streams are normally not regarded as waste, while most post-consumer and some industrial waste plastic is considered and classified as waste. The following terms are used:

- Internal **waste plastic** is composed of defective products detected and rejected by a quality control process during the industrial process of plastics manufacturing, transition phases of product changes (such as thickness and colour changes) and production off-cuts. These materials are often immediately absorbed by the respective industrial process as a raw material for a new manufacturing operation, not leaving the plastics manufacturing plant. Internal waste plastic is most often not registered as waste.
- External **waste plastic** is waste plastic that is collected and/or reprocessed with the purpose of recycling. External waste plastic can be of two types: **(1) pre-consumer**, also called post-industrial waste plastic, and **(2) post-consumer** waste plastic.

Pre-consumer waste plastic is scrap resulting from the manufacturing of products that contain plastic as one of their components, and which leaves the specific facility where it was generated, often for recycling. This stream can currently be classified as waste by some authorities, and as non-waste by others (normally under the denomination by-product, which in some countries/regions is dealt with within waste legislation, and in others out of waste legislation). It can also be called post-industrial waste plastic.

Post-consumer waste plastic is a waste material originated after the use of plastic products at the consumer market. This stream is always classified as waste.

¹⁴ ACRR, Good practices guide on waste plastics recycling a guide by and for local and regional authorities

The development of end-of-waste criteria for waste plastic refers only to material that is waste, and therefore most often refers to external waste plastic. If internal waste is classified as waste, then it is also under the scope of end-of-waste.

The main sources of post-consumer waste plastic are:

- Municipal solid waste (from household and commercial waste collection, both small-size and bulk)
- Construction and demolition waste (C&D)
- End-of-life vehicles (ELV)
- Waste from electric and electronic equipment (WEEE)

By nature, pre-consumer waste plastic is on average more homogeneous, and often may need little treatment other than size reduction, or no treatment at all. Waste plastic from post-consumer origins will almost always need different degrees of sorting, collection and treatment.

2.1.3 Waste plastic characterisation

Standards EN 153-42(PS)/-44(PE)/-45(PP)/-46(PVC) and -48(PET) are an important reference for a description of some of the most relevant physical and chemical characteristics of recycled plastics, including e.g. colour, fine particle content, hardness, or impact strength. They also describe the method for determination of these properties, from simple visual inspection to more elaborated laboratory tests that require specific description in annexes. The full description of the properties is provided in an overview table in Annex I.

Despite their extension, the information of relevance in the context of end-of-waste is limited in these standards, and in some of them, absent. For instance, the presence of impurities or contamination is not present in some of the standards, and it is described differently across the mentioned standards using different terminology for the different polymer recyclates.

A brief description of the key characteristics for end-of-waste is provided below, and a discussion of the potential use of existing standards in the criteria is included in Chapter 3.

2.1.3.1 Contaminants

Contaminants are materials present in waste plastic that are undesired for its further recycling. Contaminants can be classified in two groups: non-plastic material components, and plastic material components that are detrimental for recycling and further manufacturing.

2.1.3.2 Non-plastic material components

These are materials not bound to the polymer matrix, but are part of the products where plastic is present, e.g.:

- Metals (ferromagnetic and non-ferromagnetic)

- Non-metal non-glass inorganics:
- Ceramics, Stones and Porcelain
- Glass.
- Organics (non-hazardous) (paper, rubber, food remains, wood, textiles, organic plastic additives)
- Hazards (hazardous materials contained in plastic packaging, such as medicines, paint, solvents, and in general chemical waste)

2.1.3.3 Plastic material components

Plastic product quality is severely affected by the presence in waste plastic of more than one polymer of different structure. When a mix of polymers is melted for recycling, at the melting temperature of one of them, the polymers with lower fusion point will gasify and burn leaving solid burnout solids, while the higher fusion point polymers will stay intact. Both elements are undesirable in final products, as they interrupt the structure of the new product and reduce its mechanical properties.

Normally, it is possible to separate physically most polymer types using their different properties. The degree of separation and purity achieved depends on the costs of the treatment and the marginal value added of the purified material. Density differences are widely used to effectively separate polyolefins (PE, PP) which are lighter than water, from PVC and PET, which are denser than water (See Table 2.3 below). The separation of plastics with close density values (e.g. PVC and PET) can also be undertaken by density, modifying the density of the separation liquid (e.g. adjusting the salt content in water). In a dry phase, optical separation with near-infrared (NIR) separators is also a widely used separation technique.

Table 2.3.. Density of some of the most common plastics

Plastic type	HDPE	LDPE	PP	PVC	PET	Teflon	PC (Polycarbonate)
Density, g/cm ³	0,95	0,92	0,91	1,44	1,35	2,1	1,2

Non-plastic material components are in most cases also relatively easy to separate through mechanical techniques, some in dry phase (metals, glass and stones), some in wet phase (paper, liquid contents of packaging such as food remains or detergents). Some materials such as rubber and wood are reported to be more complicated to separate, as their physical properties are closer to plastics. In most cases, removal of non-plastic materials requires size reduction.

2.1.3.4 Plastic additives

Plastic monomers alone are typically not stable enough to withstand use conditions without losing their useful properties. Additives are therefore essential to compensate for this and enhance performance. Additive compounds are ubiquitously present in most plastics, sometimes in large amounts, and bound to the matrix structure of the plastics, so they cannot be removed using dry or wet physical methods. Actually, the presence of additives in plastics can alter significantly some of the properties used for separation (e.g. flame retardants and fillers in percentages above 10% can notably alter density).

2.2 Waste plastic management

As described in Section 2.1 above, the converter demand in the EU27+CH+NO reached 46.4 million tonnes in 2010. However, given the diversity and state of development of waste management in the EU, and numerous long-life applications, only slightly more than half (24.7 million tonnes, 58%) of the converted plastics end up in waste streams each year.

In 2010, plastic waste generation levels rose by 2.5% from the year before, which is slightly lower than the increase in demand (+4.5%), which is an unsatisfactory figure in terms of the ability of the EU to reclaim this recyclable material. Conversely, the management of the material once reclaimed is improving, as will be shown below.

2.2.1 Description of management options and amounts

Several end-of-life options can be chosen to deal with waste plastic, including as main options disposal (including landfilling and incineration without energy recovery), and recovery (be it recycling or incineration with energy recovery). Figure 2.8 shows the percentages of these different options for post-consumer waste plastic in the EU15. depicts the evolution in 2006-2010 of these shares.

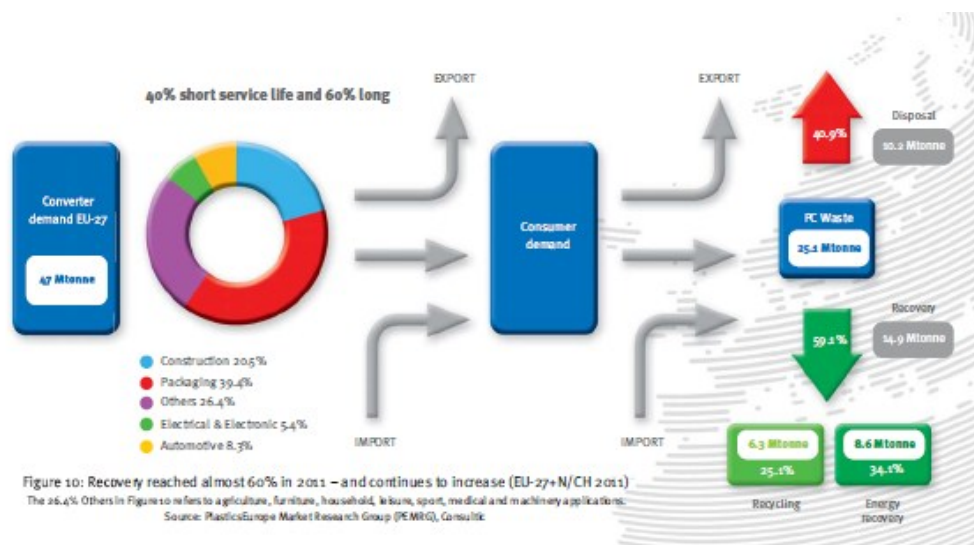


Figure 2.8. Management options for waste plastic in the EU-27+NO+CH in 2011¹⁵

Please note that from the ca. 6 Mt destined for recycling yearly, only a percentage comes actually as useful output for replacement of virgin plastic, as all reprocessing plants have a yield <100%. The yield can be very high for homogeneous, dry plastic sources (e.g. flaked bottle PET), but can be very low (as low as 50%) in post-consumer source-separated packaging made of polyolefins, or in very contaminated homogeneous streams such as agriculture foil. Based on these estimates of yield, the total annual

¹⁵ PlasticsEurope et al. (2012)

recycled plastic output in the EU ready for conversion into articles can thus be estimated at 3.5-4.5Mt.

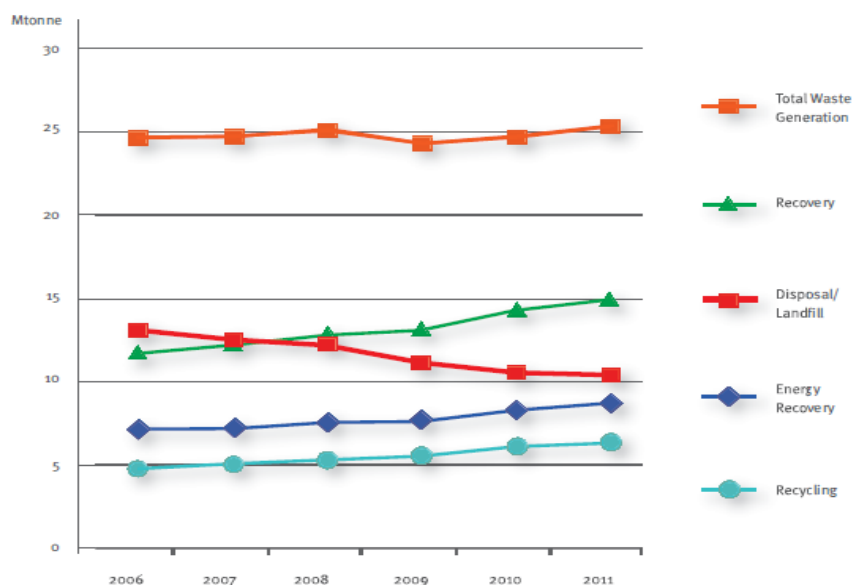


Figure 11: Total plastics waste recycling and recovery 2006 – 2011
Source: Consulfic

Figure 2.9. Development of management options for waste plastic in the EU-27+NO+CH in 2006-2011¹⁶. Note: the green line with triangle is the sum of the two blue lines with dots.

As mentioned above, the EU has been unable to increase its collection rates in the period 2006-2010. However, it is doing better with the management of the collected material, as energy recovery and recycling are gradually substituting landfill as the management option for plastic waste.

Once collected, waste plastic can be recycled to form new products directly (it is possible to manufacture a plastic product composed of 100% waste plastic input material), or in combination with virgin plastic material. The options for recycling of waste plastic depend on the quality (including polymer homogeneity) of the waste plastic, and the quality demands of the recycled product. Obviously, clean, contaminant-free source of a single polymer recycled waste plastic has more end-use options and higher value than a mixed or contaminated source of waste plastic.

Significant differences in the levels of waste plastic energy recovery can be observed across Member States in 2008¹⁷, see Figure 2.10. North European countries (Norway, Sweden, Germany, Denmark, Belgium, Switzerland, Austria, Luxembourg, Belgium) have the highest recovery rates (over 85%, and up to 99.7% for Switzerland), and there is a large gap between this group of countries and others. The next countries are France, with a rate close to the EU average (54.7%, 57.9% if non-EU European countries are added) and Italy. The remaining countries follow.

¹⁶ PlasticsEurope et al (2012)

¹⁷ PlasticsEurope et al. (2012)

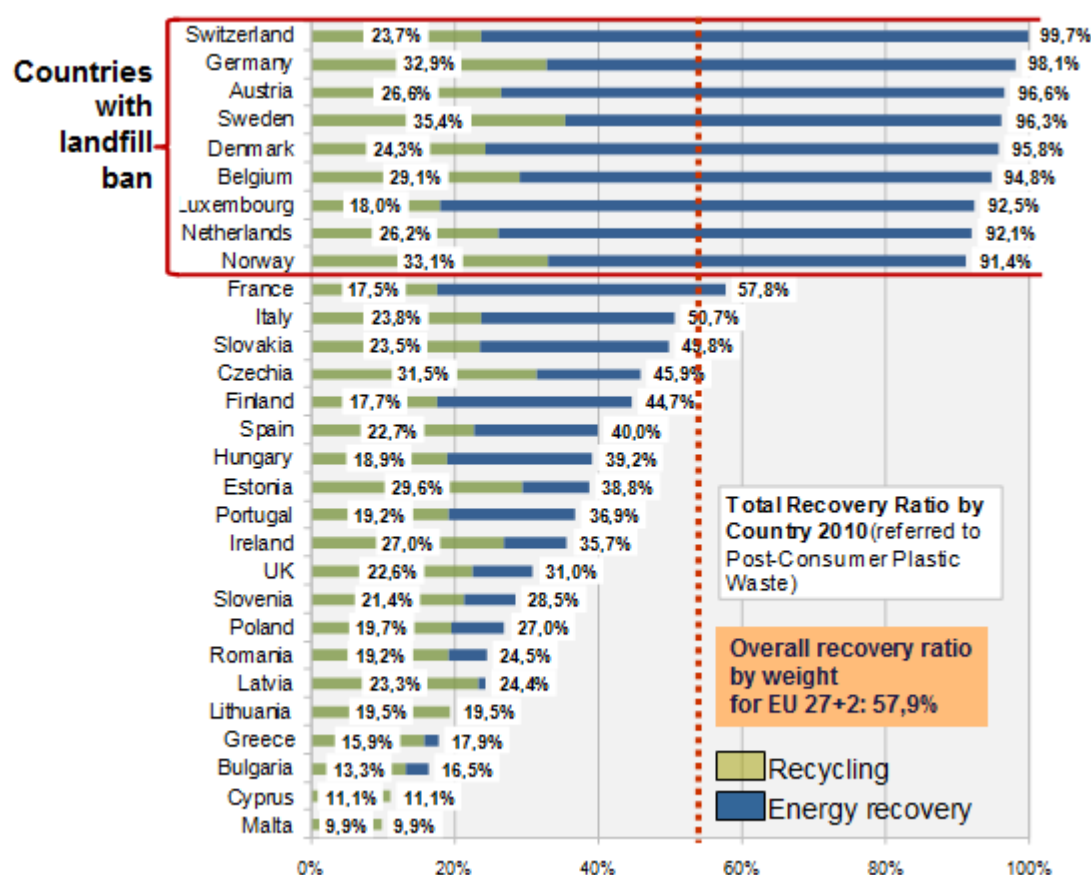


Figure 2.10. Recycling and energy recovery rates in the EU27 +CH in 2008¹⁸. The difference until 100% is disposal (landfilling and incineration without energy recovery)

In Figure 2.10, it can be observed that the recycling rates of European countries, which include all mechanical and feedstock recycling, are more homogeneous than the recovery rates.

An obvious contrast appears between countries with high recovery rates and those with low recovery rates. While some countries with low recovery rates seem to recycle a large part of the recovered plastic waste (Estonia, Ireland, Czech Republic, Latvia), others with high recovery rates (France, Denmark, Luxembourg) have recycling rates below 25%.

The incineration of waste plastic, even with energy recovery, is not always seen as a suitable solution to its management. In several member states, initiatives have been taken to reduce the large amount of waste plastic being sent for energy recovery, and to encourage more recycling. In the Netherlands for example, a general principle putting recycling as the minimum standard for recyclable waste plastic is laid down in The National Plan on Waste and Management for 2009-2015 called LAP2¹⁹, and in Germany,

¹⁸ PlasticsEurope et al. (2009) "An analysis of European plastics production, demand and recovery for 2008", available at: www.plasticseurope.org; E&E = EEE (Electrical and electronic equipment)

¹⁹ Pers.comm Ton Post, Ministry of Housing, Spatial Planning and the Environment, The Netherlands

the current price charged to waste management bodies by incinerating operations (about EUR120 per tonne of waste incinerated) is more or less equivalent to price charged by recyclers.

2.2.2 Generation of post-consumer plastic by source

Figure 2.11 and Table 2.4 below summarise 2008 figures of waste plastic generation per sector, in the EU27+NO+CH. In general, plastic packaging constitutes the largest contributor to total waste generation (approximately 62% of total waste plastic generated). But in addition, plastic packaging is also the source of waste plastic with the highest rate of recycling (approximately 29% of the total plastic packaging waste generated is recycled). Waste plastics from sources other than packaging show much lower generation amounts (Table 2.4), and also show lower recycling rates compared to packaging. In particular, the ELV and WEEE sectors have the lowest recycling rates, despite their share of waste plastic generated being similar to C&D and agricultural waste plastic sources.

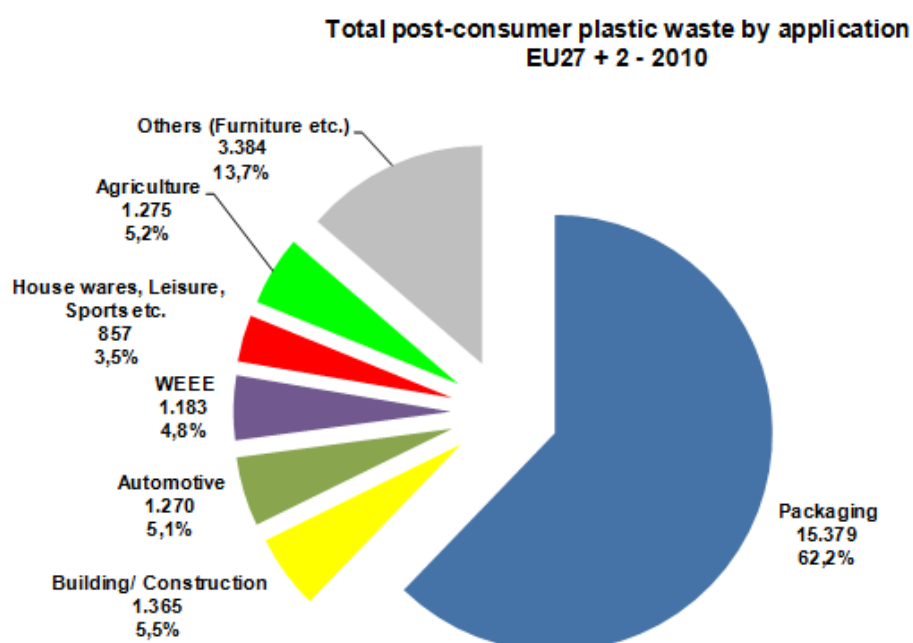


Figure 2.11. Total volumes generated (Mt) and proportions (%) of post-consumer plastic waste by application (EU-27 +NO +CH, 2010²⁰)

²⁰ PlasticsEurope (2012) pers comm. in response to the 2nd working document

Table 2.4. Quantification of post-consumer plastic waste by sector in EU27 +NO +CH, 2010 ⁽²¹⁾

Sector	Plastic waste generated (kt)	Plastic waste mech. recycled (kt)	Recycling vs. Generation (%)
Packaging ²²	15 379	4 951	32
C&D	1 365	273	20
ELV	1 270	133	10
Agricultural	1 275	293	23
WEEE	1 183	137	12
Other	4 241	100	2
TOTAL	24 713	5 886	24

Please note that Table 2.4 is not a mass balance, as there are a number of steps between the column of generated waste and that of waste for recycling, including net trade in/out of the EU (in 2010, ca. 1Mt imports, 3.5 Mt exports), see also Figure 2.8. In addition, please also consider that the ca. 6Mt waste plastic for recycling undergo processing steps where 20-50% of mass is removed (impurities), resulting in a yield of 3.5-4.5 Mt recyclate output for conversion. The last column represents thus the percentage of waste plastic material generated that undergoes recycling, not the recycled output, which can be estimated to 14-18% of the total generated.

The reasons why plastic packaging waste is the main source of the total waste plastic are evident: firstly and foremost, a significant share of total production of plastic, secondly, a relatively short product life, and thirdly, a prominent use of waste management systems that are associated to registration and control of flows, and therefore allow higher quality statistics.

Table 2.5. Estimated shares of generation of the different basic types of recyclates for conversion in the EU27 +NO+CH, assuming a total flow of 6Mt input to recycling (3.5-4.5 Mt recyclate output for conversion). Sources: Scriba et al.,2014, EUPR, 2014.

	Shares (±5%)	Amounts (Mt/yr in the EU27)
Pellets	~50%	1.7-2.3
Flakes/regrinds (washed and unwashed)	~25%	0.8 -1.1
Direct conversion to articles (*)	~15%	0.5-0.7
Agglomerates	~10%	0.3-0.5
TOTALS	100%	3.5-4.5

(*) NOTE: the input to direct conversion is typically shredded unwashed packaging waste with high non plastic content (often 15-20%).

21 idem

22 Included both household and commercial packaging

In the interpretation of the figures in Table 2.5, caution is also needed, as it has not been possible to complete the massbalance of flows of recyclates in the EU with any net trade figures in/out of the EU.

2.2.2.1 Waste plastic in Municipal solid waste

In Municipal Solid Waste (MSW), plastics (e.g. packaging, plastic toys, furniture) are mixed with other types of waste (e.g. organic material, metal, paper). Figure 2.12 below presents the plastic content in MSW for a number of countries, highlighting a varying content across the EU and neighbour countries (from approximately 5% in Finland to 15% in Switzerland).



Figure 2.12. Mixed Plastics Content (in %) in European MSW, 2004²³

A significant share of the plastics in MSW consists of packaging items (70%) (IPTs, 2007), but houseware items (toys, leisure and sports goods) or small electric and electronics (EEE) are also discarded by households, not always in specific WEEE drop-off containers.

Slight differences in the plastic content of MSW are seen subject to seasonal changes²⁴. In 2007, MSW plastic generation in Central Europe ranged from 9.6% in the winter, to 10.5% in the summer. In Eastern Europe, plastic waste accounted for 5.0% of MSW in winter, and 13.2% in summer. The generation of pre-consumer waste plastics such as agriculture plastic waste is also very affected by seasonality.

Breakdown by polymer

No recent data on the breakdown of MSW plastic by polymers has been found at the EU level, however recent data in some countries show the specific polymer breakdown of waste in the selective collection:

- The selective collection of plastics in France presented the following shares in 2007: 70% of PET, 29% of HDPE, 0.8% of films and 0.4% of PVC²⁵.
- In Belgium in 2002, only bottles were collected separately. The breakdown of the collected plastics in 2002 was: 78% PET (of which, 65% is clear, 29% is blue and 6% is

23 Steven Morin, 'Mixed Plastics Arisings in Scotland' presentation (2008). Available at: www.wrap.org.uk/downloads/Plastic_Presentation_-_Steven_-_WRAP_-_19-Jun-08.5eeea78f.5705.pdf

24 Council of Europe, 2007, Management of municipal solid waste in Europe; nations included in Central Europe and Western Europe not indicated

25 ADEME (2009), La valorisation des emballages en France, database 2007.

green) and 22% HDPE²⁶. The same breakdown for PET/HDPE was seen in 2009²⁷. In 2010, not only bottles but also non-beverage packaging, PVC and agriculture film were collected.

- In Hungary, the plastic packaging waste collected by different methods (bring banks and kerbside 'comingled' collection) have the following shares²⁸:
- PET accounts for 72.05%, LDPE for 5.75%, HDPE/PP for 10.80% and residues for 11.40%²⁹;
- The separate collection from households in ÖKO-Pannon's system had the following shares in 2009³⁰: 78.44% of PET, 10.67% of HDPE/PP and 10.89% of other plastics. Also plastics accounted for 25.12% of the total amount of waste in the separate collection system.

Breakdown by plastic product type

Table 2.6 below presents an example the content of plastic in MSW in different regions of the UK. Although the total amount was similar across the various regions, there were some notable differences based mainly on the type of product. In England and Wales for example, the percentage of plastic bottles was relatively low in comparison to plastic films, whereas in Scotland, this difference was smaller (Table 2.6). Plastic packaging (films, bottles and others) accounted for large part of plastics collected, with other dense plastics being present at a range between 1.9 and 2.6%.

Table 2.6. Percentage of plastics in residual household collected waste in the UK and the Republic of Ireland, 2009 (WRAP³¹, EPA³²)

Type	Wales (2009)	Scotland (2009)	Undisclosed English County (2008)	UK (2009)	Republic of Ireland (2008) ³²
Plastic film	6.0	4.5	5.5	14	13.6
Plastic bottles	1.7	3.3	1.9		
Other plastic packaging	3.2	4.0	2.4		
Other dense plastic	1.9	2.0	2.6		
Total	12.8	13.8	12.4		

2.2.2.2 Commercial waste

26 Plarebel factsheet (2002), available at: www.e-pro-plasticsrecycling.org/

27 Pers. comm. with Plarebel.

28 Pers. comm. with the National Association of Recyclers of Hungary.

29 According to Remoplast Nonprofit PLC

30 According to ÖKO-Pannon Nonprofit PLC, the most significant Producer Responsibility Organisation for packaging waste in the country

31 WRAP, 2009, The composition of municipal solid waste in Wales.

32 The Irish Environment Protection Agency, 2009, National Waste Report 2008

Table 2.7 below ³³ shows the breakdown of plastic waste in bins from local businesses. Although the composition remains similar for many different business types, there are some notable differences. In the Hair & Beauty trade, the percentage of plastic bottles was double that of the overall composition. In the case of transport trades, the percentage other dense plastic waste products is much higher than the overall percentage, at 8.3% compared to 2.2%. Furthermore, the total percentage of plastic waste from the transport trade in relation to total waste collected was much higher than other trades, at 23.3%; however, as plastic waste is often measured by weight, this may be due to the higher density of plastic waste disposed by the transport sector, which would increase its proportion of the total.

Table 2.7. Percentage of plastic present in waste collected from different businesses in Wales, 2009⁽³²⁾

Type	Food & Drink	Retail	Health	Manufacturing	Office	Hair & Beauty	Leisure	Transport	Care	Other	Over-all
Plastic film	5.9	9.6	5.8	7.0	8.5	8.7	6.9	7.5	6.0	6.1	7.6
Plastic bottles	1.9	1.7	3.4	3.0	2.9	5.1	3.9	2.9	3.1	1.9	2.5
Other plastic packaging	2.4	3.6	2.3	2.9	3.7	3.5	3.0	4.6	2.8	2.0	3.1
Other dense plastic	0.5	3.6	2.0	1.6	2.1	0.6	1.3	8.3	2.7	1.1	2.2
Total	10.7	18.5	13.5	14.5	17.2	17.9	15.1	23.3	14.6	11.1	15.4

2.2.2.3 Plastic packaging waste

Figure 2.13 completes Figure 2.4 and presents in quantitative terms the most common polymer types used for packaging plastics products. LDPE was the most used polymer in 2010 (32%), followed by HDPE (19%), PP (19%) and PET (16%). This distribution has barely changed for a decade.

³³ Note figures are for Wales only

Demand by Polymer 2010

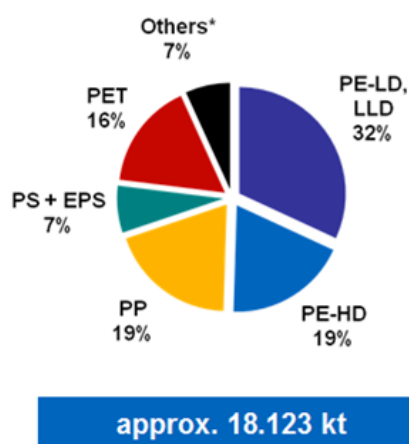


Figure 2.13. Most consumed polymers in packaging, EU-27 in 2010
(source: Plastics Europe ³⁴)

Depending on specific properties needed (e.g. gas permeability, contact to fatty material, transparency) plastic packaging for food and beverage products is made of different types of plastics, and can incorporate additional materials and adhesives. Clear plastic bottles, for example, may be composed of PET, whereas the (non-clear) caps are often made of the less expensive and more malleable PE, and the labels that are around the bottles may be composed of another type of plastic film (PS, PVC, PP) or material (paper). Each of these materials has very different properties and requires different recycling methods.

Table 2.8 below presents the main polymers used in packaging applications. As already presented before, bottles are mainly made of PET and HDPE, while plastic bags and sacks mainly contain HDPE and LDPE. Many different polymers can be used to manufacture films (LDPE, PP, PET, OPP, PVC) while PS is mainly used in trays and protective and service packaging.

Table 2.8. Polymers in main household packaging applications (adapted from IPTS, 2007)

Applications		Most common polymers used
Bottles	Dairy products	HDPE
	Juices, Sauces	HDPE, barrier PET, PP
	Water, Soft Drinks	PET, barrier PET
	Beer and alcoholic beverages	Barrier PET
	Oil, vinegar	PET, PVC
	Non-food products (cleaning products, toiletries, lubricants, etc.)	HDPE, PET, PVC
	Medical products	PET

³⁴ Plastics Europe (2012, pers.comm. response to the 2nd working document, July 2012

Applications		Most common polymers used
Closures	Caps and closures of bottles, jars, pots, cartons, etc.	PP, LDPE, HDPE, PVC
Bags and sacks	Carrier bags	LDPE, HDPE
	Garbage bags	HDPE, LDPE, LLDPE
	Other bags and sacks	LDPE, LLDPE, HDPE, PP, woven PP
Films	Pouches (sauces, dried soups, cooked meals)	PP, PET
	Overwrapping (food trays and cartons)	OPP, bi-OPS
	Wrapping, packets, sachets, etc.	PP, OPP
	Wrapping (meat, cheese)	PVDC
	Collection shrink film (grouping package for beverages, cartons, etc.)	LLDPE, LDPE
	Cling stretch rap film (food)	LLDPE, LDPE, PVC, PVDC
	Lidding (heat sealing)	PET, OPA, OPP
	Lidding (MAP and CAP foods)	Barrier PET, barrier layered PET/PE and OPP/PE
	Lidding (dairy)	PET
Trays	Microwaveable ready meals, puddings	PP, C-PET
	Ovenable ready meals	C-PET
	Salads, desserts	A-PET, PVC
	Vegetables	PP, EPS
	Fish	PP, PVC, A-PET, EPS
	Confectionery	PVC, PS
	Dairy products	PP, PS
	Meat, poultry	A-PET, PVC, EPS
	Soup	PP, A-PET
Others	Blisters	PET, PVC
	Pots, cups and tubs	PP, PS
	Service packaging (vending cups, etc.)	PS
	Protective packaging ('clam' containers, fish crates, loose filling, etc.)	EPS

Figure 2.14 describes the polymer market share of the packaging sector in Spain: 28% of polymers are used to manufacture films, 25% for bags and sacks and 20% for bottles. The remaining share is split between miscellaneous applications (containers, protection, etc.). Given the share of the polymer types in the different applications, LDPE (76% of films, and 61% of bags and sacks) appears to be the most used polymer, just before PET (66% of bottles) and HDPE (28% of bottles and 31% of bags and sacks). PP represents 73% of closure items, e.g. bottles caps.

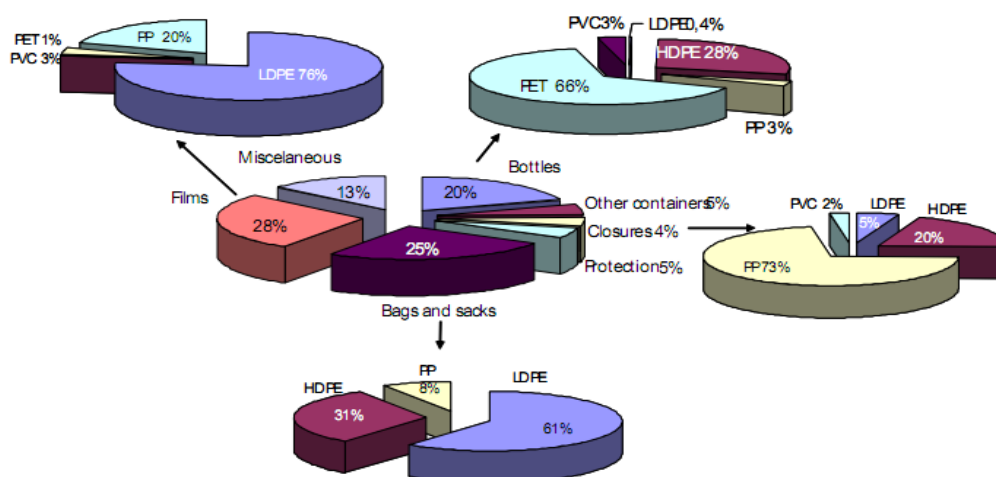


Figure 2.14. Approximate polymer market share in the packaging sector in Spain (2003, ANAIP³⁵)

2.2.2.4 Plastic waste from construction and demolition

The main applications generating waste in the construction and demolition (C&D) sector are fitted furniture, floor and wall coverings (PVC), pipes and ducts, insulation materials (PU) and profiles (PVC) (see Figure 2.15).

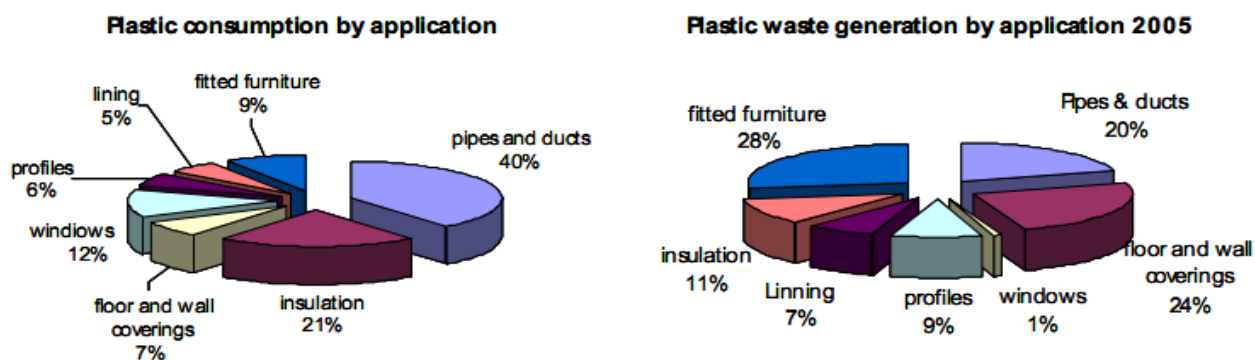


Figure 2.15. Plastic consumption and waste composition by application (Source IPTS, 2007)

Plastics used in construction have a long life span so in a time period of increasing consumption, the generation of plastic waste is low in a given year compared to plastics consumption in that same year. The polymer types used in C&D applications, as described in Table 2.9., are often characterised by the need of high UV mechanical and impact resistance. These plastics have often high content of fillers (>20-30%) such as talc and limestone to increase resistance to abrasion. If made of recycled material, it is common to manufacture them in a sandwich structure, so 80% recycled material is sandwiched between two layers of virgin material where the mechanical and chemical properties can be better adjusted.

35 ANAIP, 'Annual report 2003: Los plásticos en España. Hechos y cifras 2003', 2004

Table 2.9. Main polymers used by application

Applications	Most common polymers used
Pipes and Ducts	PVC, PP, HDPE, LDPE, ABS, CPVC, PSU, PPSU, PVDF
Insulation	PU, EPS, XPS
Windows profiles	PVC
Other profiles	
Floor and wall coverings	
Lining	PE, PVC
Fitted furniture	PS, PMMA, PC, POM, PA, UP, amino, PVC

2.2.2.5 Plastic waste from electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE)

The predominant polymers used in Electrical and Electronic Equipment (EEE) are PP, PS and ABS, the latter being increasingly used. Table 2.10 presents the different polymer composition of some EEE products.

Table 2.10. Typical applications of plastic polymers in EEE sector (IPTS, 2007)

Applications	Type of plastics
Components inside washing machines and dishwashers, casings of small household appliances (coffee makers, irons, etc.) Internal electronic components	PP
Components inside refrigerators (liner, shelving) Housings of small household appliances, data processing and consumer electronics	PS (HIPS)
Housings and casing of phones, small household appliances, microwave ovens, flat screens and certain monitors Enclosures and internal parts of ICT equipment	ABS
Housings of consumer electronics (TVs) and computer monitors and some small household appliances (e.g. hairdryers) Components of TV, computers, printers and copiers	PPO (blend HIPS/PPE)
Housings of ICT equipment and household appliances Lighting	PC
Housings of ICT equipment and certain small household appliances (e.g. kettles, shavers)	PC/ABS
Electrical motor components, circuits, sensors, transformers, lighting Casing and components of certain small household appliances (e.g. toasters, irons). Handle, grips, frames for ovens and grills Panel component of LCD displays	PET (PBT)
Insulation of refrigerators and dishwashers	PU (foam)
Lamps, lighting, small displays (e.g. mobile phones)	PMMA
Lighting equipment, small household appliances Switches, relays, transformer parts, connectors, gear, motor basis, etc.	PA
Gears, pinions	POM
Cable coating, cable ducts, plugs, refrigerator door seals, casings	PVC
Cable insulation and sheathing	PE
Housing, handles and soles of domestic irons, handles and buttons of grills and pressure cookers	UP polymers
Printed circuit boards	EP polymers

Table 2.11 below describes the composition by polymer of a number of Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment (WEEE) items. The complexity of construction of EEE items (for example, all items described in Table 2.11 contain at least 3 different types of polymers) presents one of the technical barriers that can hamper access to and recycling of waste plastics contained in WEEE. Small household appliances can contain up to 6 different plastic types. This complexity is often justified by the very different properties demanded to the different parts in EEE products: the outer parts need resistance to abrasion, some parts need to withstand high temperatures (e.g. printed circuit boards, battery and transformer casings), and other need flexibility and flame retardancy (e.g. cabling). In many cases, plastics have substituted other materials (metals, glass), and this could only be achieved by complex combinations of polymers and additives.

Table 2.11. Main polymers used in the manufacture of most common WEEE items collected (adapted from IPTS, 2007)

WEEE item	Polymers Composition
Printers/faxes	PS (80%), HIPS (10%), SAN (5%), ABS, PP
Telecoms	ABS (80%), PC/ABS (13%), HIPS, POM
TVs	PPE/PS (63%), PC/ABS (32%), PET (5%)
Toys	ABS (70%), HIPS (10%), PP (10%), PA (5%), PVC (5%)
Monitors	PC/ABS (90%), ABS (5%), HIPS (5%)
Computer	ABS (50%), PC/ABS (35%), HIPS (15%)
Small household appliances	PP (43%), PA (19%), ABS-SAN (17%), PC (10%), PBT, POM
Refrigeration	PS&EPS (31%), ABS (26%), PU (22%), UP (9%), PVC (6%),
Dishwashers	PP (69%), PS (8%), ABS (7%), PVC (5%)

2.2.2.6 Waste plastics from the automotive sector

Plastics are increasingly used in vehicles for their distinctive qualities, such as impact and corrosion resistance, in addition to low weight and cost. Table 2.12 below describes the precise applications of these main polymers found in the automotive industry. Many components can be manufactured from different types of plastics, and PP can be used almost everywhere. As described above for EEE products, a wide spectrum of plastics will be used in the different parts of vehicles responding to the very different property needs.

Table 2.12.: Polymers used in a typical car (IPTS, 2007)

Component	Type of plastics	Weight in average car (kg)
Bumper	PP, ABS, PC/PBT	10
Seating	PU, PP, PVC, ABS, PA	13
Dashboard	PP, ABS, SMA, PPE, PC,PVC	7
Fuel system	HDPE, POM, PA, PP, PBT	6

Component	Type of plastics	Weight in average car (kg)
Body (incl. Panels)	PP, PPE, UP	6
Under-bonnet components	PA, PP, PBT	9
Interior trim	PP, ABS, PET, POM, PVC	20
Electrical components	PP, PE, PBT, PA, PVC	7
Exterior trim	ABS, PA, PBT, POM, ASA, PP	4
Lighting	PC, PBT, ABS, PMMA, UP	5
Upholstery	PVC, PU, PP, PE	8
Liquid containers	PP, PE, PA	1

The weight percentages of most common polymers in the current and future plastic waste in End-of-life of Vehicles (ELV) was estimated as follows (IPTS, 2007):

Table 2.13. Most common polymers in ELV waste (IPTS, 2007)

Plastic type	Current use	Future use
PP	33-28%	43-38%
PU	22-17%	13-8%
ABS	17-12%	10-5%
PVC	13-8%	10-5%
PA	9-4%	11-6%
HDPE	8-3%	12-7%

2.2.2.7 Waste plastics from agriculture

In 2010, the agriculture generated 1.275 million tonnes of post-consumer plastics, ca. 5% of the total generation in the EU27. Compared to vehicles and EEE, the spectrum of plastics used in agriculture is more limited. The most common polymers in agricultural plastic waste stream are LDPE and PVC. LDPE accounts for around 60-65% of the waste stream while PVC represents 18-23%. This facilitates recycling and explains the higher reclamation and recycling rates of this sector.

Table 2.14 below lists the types of polymers used in the agricultural applications. LDPE can indeed be used in all types of bags and nets, and lining of greenhouses and ground covers, while PVC is mainly used to manufacture pipes and fittings. Also, some PP is found in ropes and bags.

Table 2.14. Types of plastic by agricultural application (adapted from IPTS, 2007)

Applications	Type of plastics
Fertiliser bags, liners	PP
	LDPE
Seed bags	PP
Feed bags	LDPE

Applications	Type of plastics
Agrochemical containers	HDPE
Nets and mesh	LDPE
Pots and trays	LDPE
	HDPE
Pipes and fittings	PVC
	LDPE
Nets and mesh	LDPE
	HDPE
Rope, strings	PP

2.2.3 Trends of waste plastic generation by polymer type and application

The ongoing developments in the plastic industry enable the continuous appearance of new plastic applications, resulting in the evolution of the plastics consumption and waste generation. The estimations of the total volume of the polymers in collected waste are described for each waste stream in 2005 and 2015 in Table 2.16. A significant piece of information that is not contained in these charts is the fact that packaging plastic waste accounts for more than half of the total plastic waste and can be collected either in separate packaging streams or mixed, e.g. in MSW.

Thus, because of its widespread use in packaging, LDPE was the most recovered polymer in plastic waste in 2005, and is expected to remain so in 2015. The most significant evolutions are the foreseen growth of PP and PET volumes, because of their increasing use in packaging (either in MSW or packaging for PET) and for PP, also in the automotive and EEE sector. The volumes of more technical plastic waste (ABS, PA, PU) are expected to grow, but not substantially.

Figure 2.17 below highlights the differences in end-of life management of plastics from different sectors in the EU27.

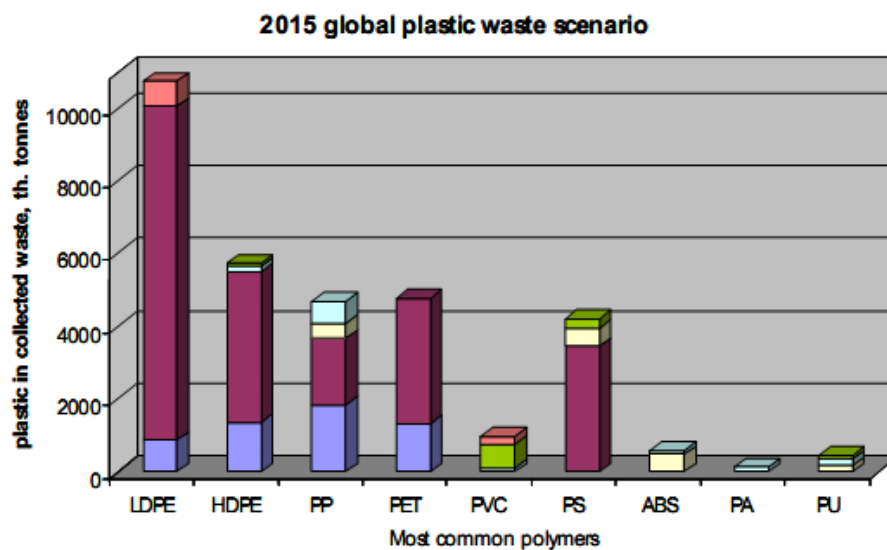
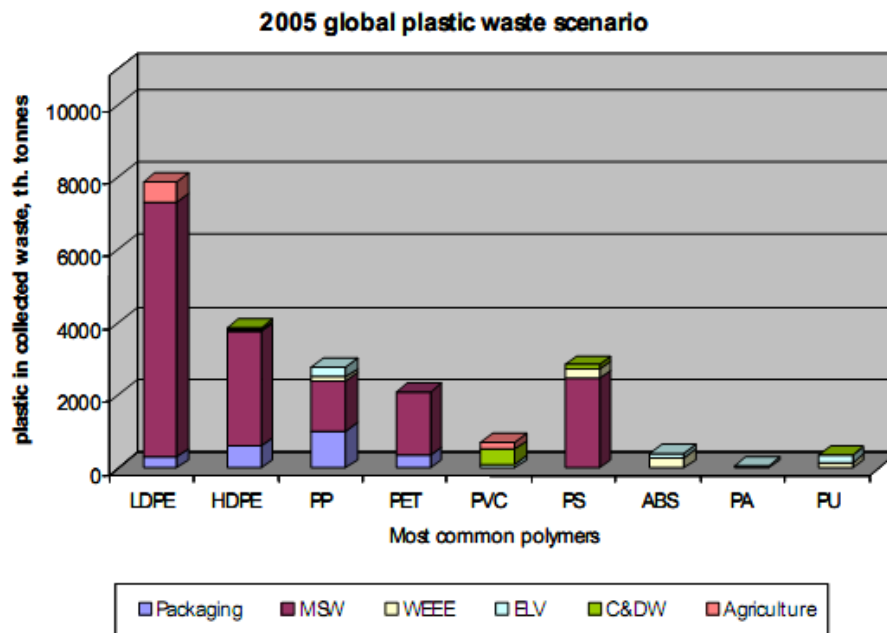
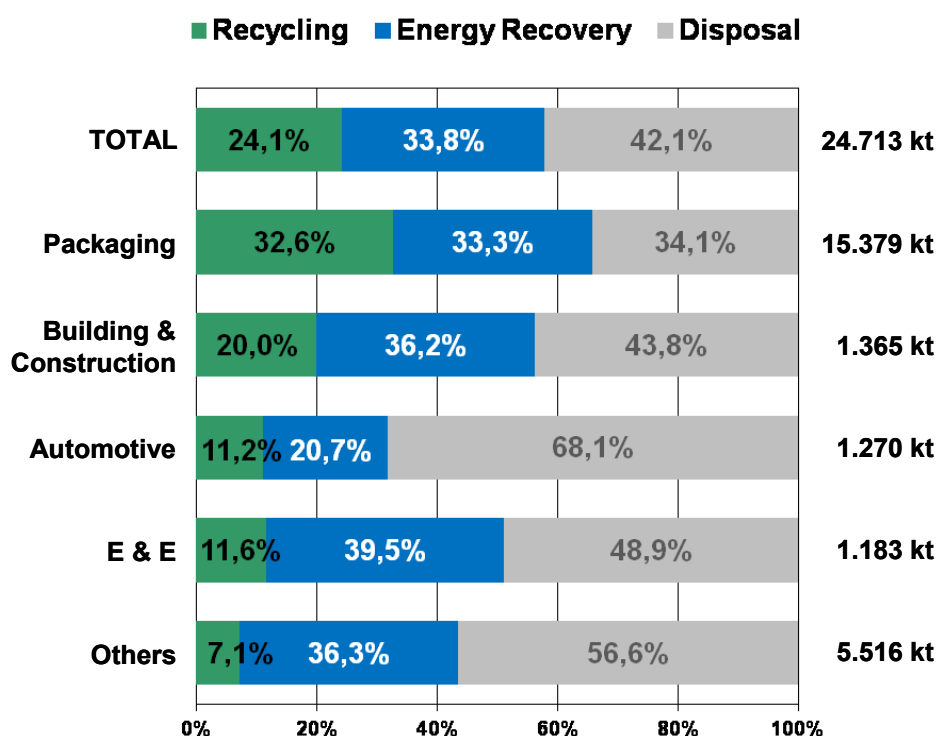


Figure 2.16. Estimations of the volumes of most common polymers in total waste (EU in 2005 and 2015)(IPTs, 2007)



Source: Consultic Marketing und Industrieberatung GmbH

Figure 2.17. End of life options for plastic from different sectors in the EU, 2010

2.2.4 Overall mass balance

In order to complete the mass balance picture of plastic production, consumption, and waste generation and management, some additional elements need to be described: (1) trade balances (before and after reprocessing), (2) an estimation of data on waste plastic generation from pre-consumer sources, and (3) estimates of the yield of the recycling processes for the different recyclate outputs (c.f. Table 2.5 and section 2.3 below).

2.2.4.1 Trade

Plastics trade data is only available for plastic packaging waste. Plastic waste trade is an important aspect of plastics recycling in the EU. As some MS do not have the capacity, technology or financial resources to treat plastic waste locally, a significant amount may be exported for treatment. In addition to this, the price of plastics is also a factor which significantly affects the trade of plastic packaging waste. For instance, in Luxembourg 9.77 kt of plastic packaging was recycled, which closely relates to its plastic packaging recycling export figure of 9.76 kt in 2007, and is 38% of the total generation

Table 2.15. Plastic packaging waste materials trade for recycling at different MS in 2007³⁶

Area	Material imports for recycling (kt)	Material exports for recycling (kt)
Austria	-	9.90
Belgium	-	84.25
Bulgaria	2.99	0.63
Cyprus	-	1.42
Czech Republic	-	28.35
Denmark	16.62	42.31
Estonia	-	4.61
Finland	-	-
France	13.00	188.96
Germany	-	272.70
Greece	-	40.70
Hungary	-	1.49
Ireland	58.73	38.83
Italy	-	4.32
Latvia	-	1.41
Lithuania	-	8.19
Luxembourg	-	9.76
Netherlands	-	60.00
Norway	-	12.99
Poland	-	47.70
Portugal	-	0.14
Romania	-	3.00
Slovakia	-	0.06
Spain	3.24	-
Sweden	-	34.34
United Kingdom	-	357.25

In order to determine just how much plastic packaging waste is treated outside of each EU MS, it is necessary to calculate the net trade. To determine the net trade of plastics recycling in each MS, the following calculation was used:

$$\text{Net trade \%} = (\text{Exports} - \text{Imports}) / \text{Total generation}$$

The final figure is converted into a net percentage value which shows how much plastic packaging waste is treated abroad (Figure 2.18). The figure below shows that the biggest exporter of plastic packaging waste in relation to domestic generation is Luxembourg, at approximately 39% of total generation, followed by Belgium at 27%, and Sweden at 18%. Conversely, in Ireland and Bulgaria more plastic is imported than is exported, resulting in a negative net trade, at approximately -8%, and -2%, respectively. What this means is that as well as treating domestically produced plastic packaging waste, these MS also handle an additional amount from other countries.

³⁶ Eurostat data; includes municipal packaging waste which has been separated at the source. This data is based on the trade of raw plastic waste, in accordance with Article 1(a) of the Waste Directive 75/442/ECC (superseded by Directive 2008/98/EC on waste).

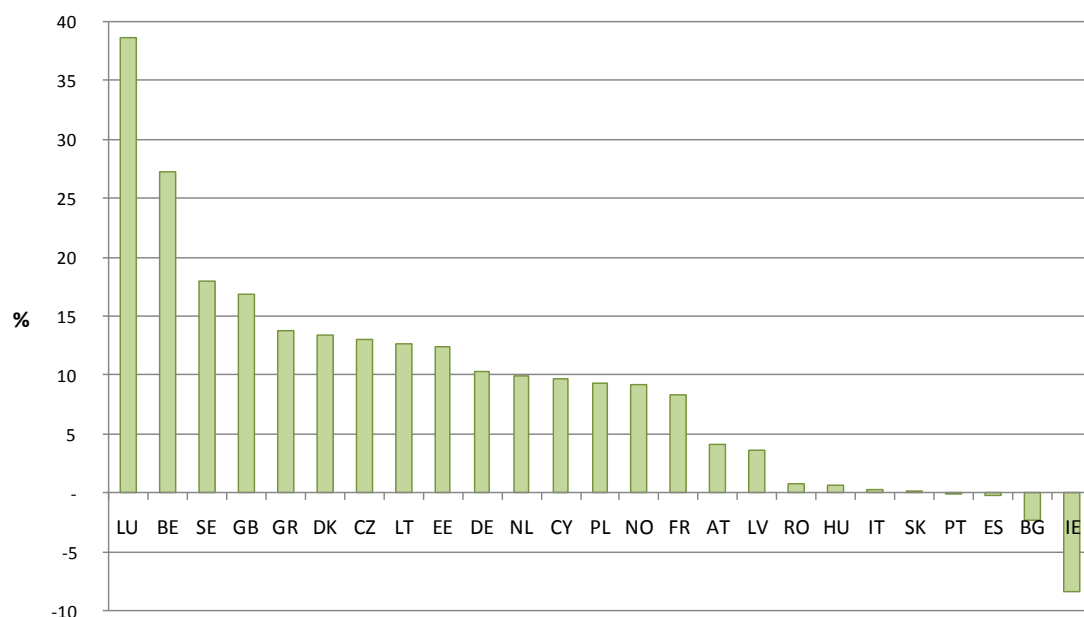


Figure 2.18.: Rate of plastic packaging waste trade per treatment type relative to annual plastic waste generation, 2007 (Source: EURtat, 2008)

2.2.5 Destination of traded plastic waste

2.2.5.1 Imports

In 2004, the majority of imports into MS originated from within the EU-27, i.e. it was intra-EU trade. Imports to MS from other MS were five times higher than imports from non-EU countries

Intra-EU sources

In 2004, intra-EU trade of waste plastics reached approximately 0.85 Mt (WRAP, 2006a), i.e. barely 3.5% of total waste plastic collection. Approximately two thirds of intra-EU imports were directed towards four main importers - the Netherlands (19.3%), Belgium (17.5%), Italy (15.6%), and Germany (14.1%). In addition to having significant reprocessing capacities, both the Netherlands and Belgium are also transit ports for recycled plastics which are exported to non-EU destinations (and may be included in records).

The largest intra-EU exporters of waste plastic were Germany (26.5%), France (23.6%), the Netherlands (15.2%), and Belgium (8.5%), accounting for almost three quarters of intra-EU exports. The inclusion of the Netherlands and Belgium as both significant importers and exporters of plastics is mainly due to the availability of recycling technologies in each country. For example, the largest recycling plant for EU generated LDPE films is found in the Netherlands (up to 37 kt in one facility). The most significant intra-EU plastic waste trade flows in 2004 were from Germany to the Netherlands (77 kt), France to Italy (65 kt) and from the Netherlands to Belgium (58 kt).

Table 2.16. Waste plastic exporters in the EU, 2004 (Source: WRAP, 2006a)

Exporting country	Net weight (kt)
Germany	225.0
France	201.7
Others	165.3
Netherlands	128.9
Belgium	72.8
Switzerland	71.5
UK	36.3
Sweden	29.1
Italy	28.4
Austria	20.9
Spain	13.5
TOTAL	993.3

Extra-EU sources

Total imports into the EU, including non-EU countries reached 0.99 Mt, approximately 4% of total waste plastic collection. The highest non-EU source was the USA. Of the plastic waste types imported into the EU, PE was the highest fraction for a single plastic type (37%), followed by PP (12%), PVC (8%) and PS (4%). Other types of plastics also made up a significant portion of plastics imported into the EU (39%).

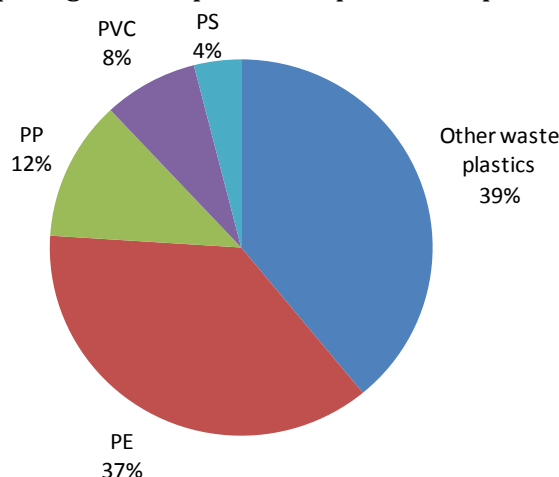


Figure 2.19: EU imports of waste plastics by material type, 2004 (WRAP, 2006a)

2.2.5.2 Exports

Countries in Asia are the main destination for EU-27 waste plastic exports, in particular, China and Hong Kong. Since 1999, exports to Hong Kong increased from 0.34 Mt tonnes to 1.10 Mt in 2006. During this period, exports to China increased from 0.018 Mt to 0.79 Mt. Hong Kong controls have been reported in the last years as a more lenient control harbour than other Northern Chinese entries. The share of the total export also increased from 4 % to 37 %. In 2006, China and Hong Kong accounted for 88 % of total EU waste plastic exports, with a total of 1.85 Mt (ca. 7% of the EU waste plastic collection). The trend has since been of growth, with an estimate of 3 Mt of plastic waste exports to these two countries in 2009 (12% of waste plastic collection), accounting for nearly 90% of total exports from the EU (Figure 2.20).

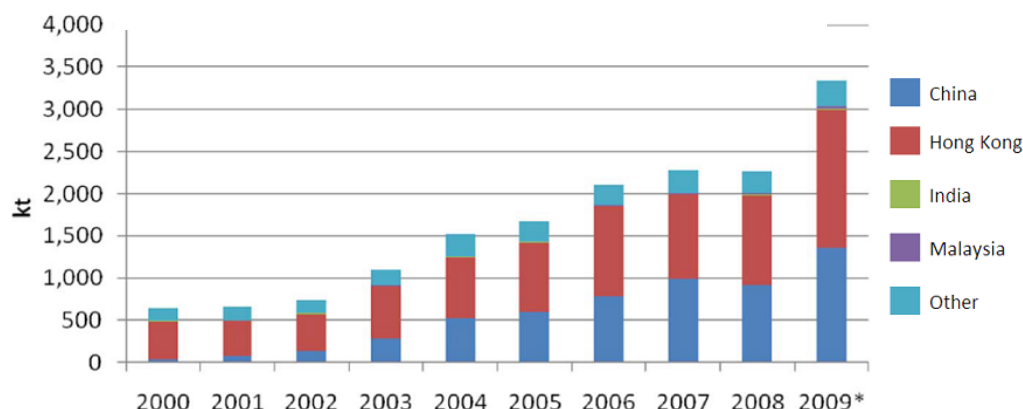


Figure 2.20.: EU-27 plastic waste exports by destination country (EUPR, 2009)

In 2004, PE was the largest declared plastic waste exported from EU (58.4%), followed by other unspecified waste plastic types (29.1%). Figure 2.21 presents the breakdown of extra-EU waste plastic imports by polymer type in 2004. It is worth noting that since that year, waste plastic exports outside the EU have increased significantly and continue to grow, therefore demand, and consequently the breakdown by plastic type, may have changed.

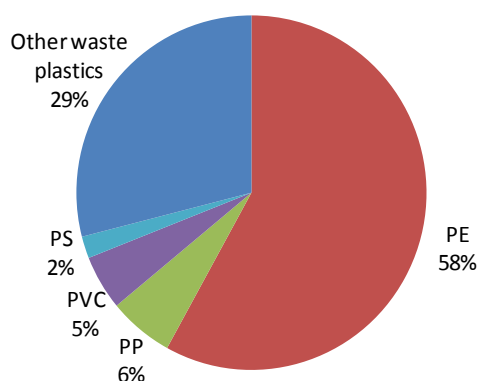


Figure 2.21.: EU export of waste plastics by material, 2004 (WRAP, 2006a)

2.2.5.3 Sources of waste plastic

Pre-consumer waste plastic streams are not well-recorded in the EU, as this type of waste plastic is not typically processed through the same waste management pathways as post-consumer waste plastic. National authorities do not have much information of the pre-consumer waste streams dealt with directly by the industry sectors, either reused in industrial processes (melted and fed back into the production process in-house) or sold to reprocessors³⁷ (dealt with by the private sector), without entering the publicly managed waste management systems.

The pre-consumer waste plastic generation for thermoplastics such as PVC is very low because the major part of this waste is reprocessed without leaving the facilities (it is

³⁷ Reprocessors are companies involved in one or more of the recycling stages of waste plastics, from crushing and washing through to production of end-products

therefore internal scrap and by-product, not waste)³⁸. However, waste plastic can also consist of smaller amounts of material that cannot be directly used, such as samples used for quality tests or plastics deteriorated by the start-up and shutdown periods of the machines (due to large heat variations), and composite materials. For fractions that cannot be fed back into the production process, open-loop recycling and other forms of recovery can be used.

Some reprocessors are specialised in the recycling of pre-consumer waste plastic streams, and these markets are functioning relatively well, showing high recycling rates³⁹. Older figures from 2000⁴⁰ reveal that almost all the plastic production scrap is being re-fed into the plastics production system; in other words, the recycling rate of pre-consumer waste is estimated at over 90%, due to direct reprocessing of the scrap. Pre-consumer waste plastic is currently recycled to a greater extent than post-consumer waste plastic, as it is a homogeneous contaminant-free material, is easier to recover and is available in large volumes from individual sources⁴¹ (e.g. from a factory).

In 2004, PlasticsEurope stated that approximately 90% of industrial scrap is recovered in all MS, with the majority being mechanically recycled⁴². The total amount of pre-consumer plastic waste is grossly estimated at 3-6Mt annually in the EU⁴³. In the UK for example, 95% of the 250-300 kt of industrial scrap produced is recycled⁴⁴ and in Germany, almost 100% of pre-consumer plastic waste) was recovered in 2007⁴⁵.

Due to data limitations, the data currently presented in this report is based on post-consumer waste generation figures, unless stated otherwise. The overall mass balance in the following sections therefore refers only to post-consumer waste plastic.

2.3 Waste plastic reprocessing and recycling

In the following sections, the different technical processes for the waste plastic management will be described, including collection, cleaning, sorting, size reduction, and different recycling steps (Figure 2.22).

38 Pers.comm with Solvay

39 Ingham A., 2005. Improving recycling markets, chapter 3, OECD

40 Ingham A., 2005. Improving recycling markets, chapter 3, OECD

41 Hopewell, J. et al., 2009. Plastics recycling: challenges and opportunities.

42 Plastics Europe, "An analysis of plastics production, demand and recovery in Europe 2004", 2006.

43 EUCP, 2011, Pers comm. To the first draft of this document.

44 The sources do not mention whether this quantity contains both the reprocessing in the original process as well as recycling by a third party, or only the latter. British Plastics Foundation, "Plastics Recycling" at: www.bpf.co.uk/bpfindustry/process_plastics_recycling.cfm; and

www.wasteonline.org.uk/resources/InformationSheets/Plastics.htm; no date provided within source

45 OECD, Plastic from the commercial and private household sectors, 2009

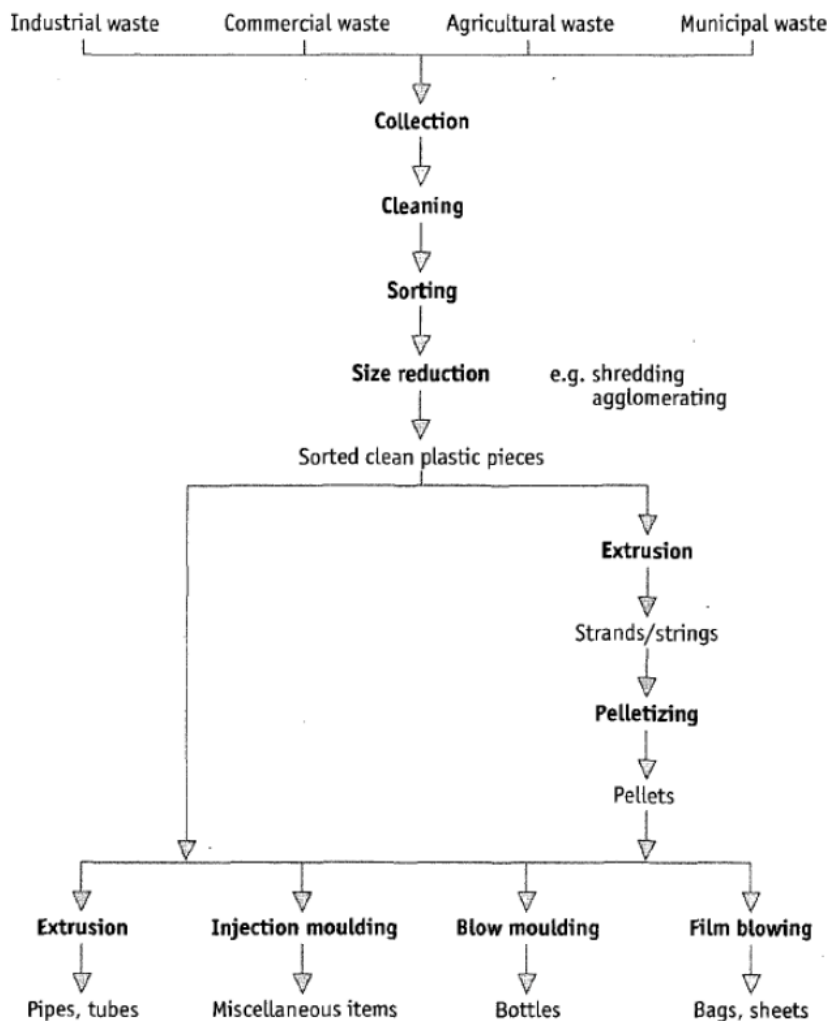


Figure 2.22. Waste plastic management steps, from collection to cleaning, sorting, size reduction, and different recycling steps⁴⁶

2.3.1 Reprocessing

Reprocessing is a broad term used to define any of the intermediate actions in the waste plastic chain between the end-users and the plastic converters. It encompasses companies or institutions undertaking activities such as collection, sorting, grading, classification, cleaning, baling, trading, storing, or transporting of waste plastic and recyclates. The inlet material to these plants is waste or waste plastic. The outlet is a plastic material that may either be waste or non-waste.

2.3.2 Collection

Waste plastics are collected through a range of systems covering industrial/commercial use and domestic users. Industrial/commercial waste plastics are usually collected as part of a contracted arrangement, and result in highly homogenous fractions. Most specialty plastics (e.g. polyamides, polycarbonates, PBT, PSU) are collected from

46 Lardinois, I., van der Klundert, A. (1995), Plastic Waste: Options for small-scale resource recovery, WASTE Consultants, TOOL, <http://www.waste.nl/page/252>

industry, as they are only marginally present in e.g. municipal plastic waste, compared to common commodity polymers such as PP, HDPE, PS, PVC and LDPE.

Commodity plastics from municipal waste can be reclaimed by various systems, depending on national and local conditions. Collection schemes differ depending on the source of the waste (e.g. household, industrial). The source of waste further determines the appropriate sorting and pre-treatment processes. Hence, depending on the waste stream considered and on the collection scheme, the sorting and separation of waste is more or less difficult and results in variations of the reprocessing costs and of the quality of the reprocessed material.

Waste generated by industry, as well as by the agricultural and the construction sectors is generally collected by the private sectors. This waste has in general a higher added value. Overall, household waste plastic can be collected in three main ways:

- Mono-material collection: Waste plastic (in the form of mixed plastic types) is collected separate from other types of recyclables (such as metals or glass). The waste plastic can be collected with all plastic types together, or targeting specific plastic types (e.g. PET bottles).
- Multi-material collection: Waste plastic is collected together with other dry recyclable waste such as metals or glass, but separately from the remaining components of municipal solid waste such as food.
- Mixed municipal solid waste collection: The waste plastic is collected together with the remaining components of municipal solid waste. Post-separation of dry recyclables such as metals, plastics and glass is possible, but frequently the resulting recyclables are highly contaminated and require intensive further treatment.

Both the mono-material or multi-material collection can happen in two ways:

- Kerbside or door-to-door collection
- Drop-off locations or collection points

Kerbside or door-to-door collection requires citizens to separate recyclable materials from the remaining components of their household waste, by putting them in specific waste bins. The bags are then collected from each household. **Typically, 40 to 60% of targeted recyclables are returned through this type of collection**⁴⁷. Door-to-door collection schemes result in a low degree of material contamination.

The other way to selectively collect mixed waste plastic is through **drop-off locations or collection points**. Drop-off locations or collection points require citizens to collect their recyclables and to then bring them to specific locations. **Usually, about 10 to 15% of recyclables are recovered through this method**. Drop-off collection may entail a high contamination level (10% - 30%)¹⁶. Some polymers such as PVC of wider use in outdoor and construction materials are mostly collected in drop off facilities.

Despite the presence of selective collection systems, many recyclable materials still find their way to disposal, e.g. mixed in the waste bin, and are then incinerated or landfilled.

47 What is PET?, available at: www.petcore.org/content/what-is-pet

For example, in France only one out of every two bottles finds its way to the plastic recycling bin⁴⁸.

In addition, mono-materials can be recovered from refill/deposit systems. Currently, these systems are typically used for the collection of beverage bottles. In refill/deposit systems, bottles are sold with the surcharge of a refundable deposit, which is given back to the user upon return of the empty bottle after use. Such deposit systems are in place in a number of European countries; in a few instances for refillable and single-use PET bottles. PET bottles can be recycled into their previous original application (closed-loop recycling), or cycled to other uses (e.g. polyester fibres for textiles). PET deposit programmes can achieve very high return rates (90%) with very low levels of contamination of the post-consumer PET, resulting in higher market values. Sometimes, refill/deposit systems have been considered as barriers to cross-border trade

In most EU Member States, selective collection of plastic packaging and deposit systems are combined with the existence of green-dot systems. These systems operate on behalf of the manufacturers of products using plastic packaging, which under the producer responsibility legislation (Packaging Directive 94/62/EC) have to manage the collection of their own packaging. According to the directive, if a company does not join a Green Dot scheme, they must collect recyclable packaging themselves, although this is almost always impossible for mass products and only viable for low-volume producers with a network of collection points. Green dot systems charge the producers with a fee for the collection of their packaging, which the producers normally transfer to the consumers as part of the product price. Green dot system logos are printed on the packaging whose manufacturer has paid the fee to the system. This way, consumers who see the logo can recognise recyclable packaging and its fate if disposed of in the appropriate bin (e.g. a mixed packaging bin). Once collected, green dot systems own in many cases the packaging, which they then sell to reprocessors and converters for further recycling. In other cases, reprocessor treats the material for the green dot system without owning it. There are also cases where the green dot system does not own the material at all, and only coordinates the system.

2.3.3 Sorting

When plastic waste is collected mixed or 'commingled' with other recyclables in multi-material collection schemes, the sorting requires steps to separate plastics from glass, paper, cardboards, metals, stones, etc. The same is true if the waste plastic is in mixed municipal solid waste. This type of material sorting is usually conducted at Material Recovery Facilities (MRF), which then sell the sorted plastics materials to different recyclers depending on the properties and requirements wanted.

Sorting waste plastic means not only to separate plastic from non-plastic content, but also to separate the waste plastic itself into the different plastic polymer categories and/or colours. This is important due to the fact that for plastic materials to be recycled into useable polymers, a pure stream of one or two polymers must be obtained. Inefficient sorting that leads to a mixture of different types of polymers may lead to a mixed plastic material that is not usable for recycling, or for which recycling is not economically feasible. In addition, in some cases the mix of plastic polymers may even

48 Pers. comm...with Paprec

result in safety or health risks; this is the case for example when PVC is mixed in PET recycling, which leads to the release of hydrochloric gases if melted at >200°C, or can seriously impair the integrity of the final product when melting the PET polymers. PET and PVC have particular problems with cross-contamination as they appear visually very similar to one another, and have very similar specific gravity (Table 2.3), therefore the use of conventional float and sink techniques alone may not always be successful in separating them. In such instances, additional sorting techniques are utilised to separate them.

There are two main methods for sorting plastic waste; through manual sorting, and using automated systems. Given the variety of plastics polymers, different techniques exist that are more or less appropriate depending on the type of input material and the desired purity of the output streams. The techniques include flotation, water table separation, centrifuges, cyclones, air vibration tables, dissolution, optical sorting (spectroscopic identification, high frequency cameras) or other advanced techniques (using the dielectric properties, the colour, etc.). Infrared sorting is quite common for the sorting of packaging. Piezoelectric methods and high frequency cameras can be used to separate PVC. Elutriation is another method used to remove labels or light weight accessories: this process separates particles of different weights thanks to a stream of gas or liquid, usually upwards-oriented. Unfortunately, in the context of recycling of plastic bottles, this process is not suitable for removing cap material, as the weight of flakes produced from the crushing of caps is close to that of flakes resulting from crushing of the bottle⁴⁹.

In most cases, separation takes place based on three properties: spectrophotometric (colour, transparency) density, and magnetic properties. Conventional magnetic separators sort steel objects, whilst eddy current separators sort non-ferromagnetic objects, and spectrophotometric technologies separate plastics by colour and polymer type.

Density separation may be used in the following ways⁵⁰:

- Air classifier. Is used to separate out less dense films and fragments from the main stream. This is achieved using jets of air to blow labels and fragments away from the denser body packaging.
- Flotation sorting. The main different types of plastic all possess distinguishing relative densities (Table 2.3) from PP 0.85 - 0.95 to PET 1.35 - 1.38, all of which can vary depending on the additive load and the density of the additive. Water/saltwater separation employs a flotation tank through which flakes pass and sink or float. Mechanical extractors collect the sinking or floating fractions.
- Centrifuge. Centrifuges are also used to separate plastics of differing densities.
- Cyclone and hydro-cyclone. An air or water-based system that employs centrifugal and shearing effects to separate polymer particles of different densities.

Colour-based sorting are based on the use of optical sensors to sort coloured plastics from clear. In optical sorting based on Near Infra-Red (NIR) spectroscopy, the flow is irradiated with Infra-Red radiation, the reflected light is analysed and compared to known polymers response for identification. Upon characterisation, an air separation

⁴⁹ ACOR (2003), Recycling Guide for Fillers Marketing in HDPE.

⁵⁰ Plastics Europe, 2011. Pers comm. to the first draft working document.

system is employed to sort different plastics. This strategy works very well for different polymers of simple structure (e.g. to distinguish PVC from PET bottles).

Raman spectroscopy uses monochromatic laser light directed at the sample molecules. The photons are scattered in all directions by elastic collisions. The scattering causes a displacement difference of the monochromatic laser light. The difference is characteristic for Raman sensitive materials such as plastics. Raman spectroscopy is complementary to infrared spectroscopy and has the advantage that very characteristic and easy to interpret measurement data are obtained.

There is no universal technique, and the know-how of the reprocessors lies often in the choice and layout of the sequence of separation and cleaning steps. Both flake sorting and bulk container sorting is operated. Shredding is normally necessary, but the placement of this step and the size of the shreds/flakes within the sequence is an important distinctive element of each reprocessor's know-how.

It is in the interest of recyclers to encourage and promote sorting at source, as it increases plastic waste value and reduces the cost of reprocessing. Poor sorting hampers the economic viability of recycling. Waste from households can be highly contaminated by non-recyclable residues: proposals from stakeholders to reduce contamination include improvement and simplification of sorting instructions and facilitation of sorting by reducing the complexity of products through Ecodesign⁵¹.

Collected and sorted waste plastic is processed by the mechanical recycling industry into different intermediate or final shapes such as shredded plastic, flakes, agglomerates and regranulates, as well as profiles and sheets. These processes normally involve steps of progressive cleaning and removal of contaminants.

All these preparation steps can stand alone and deliver intermediates that are marketed, or be an integral part of a continuum conversion operation into articles such as garbage bags, or outdoor furniture.

2.3.4 Removal of contaminants

Macro-physical contamination is much easier to remove than contamination at a microscopic level, especially if partially bound (like glues) or embedded (e.g. ingrained soil caused by abrasion or grinding). This microscopic contamination can be due to the initial quality of the waste source but also to the baling, transport and handling of the waste. Such impurities may lead to production problems and loss of quality. Finally, chemical contamination, occurring by adsorption of flavourings, essential oils, etc. can lead to global contamination of the waste plastic stream considered. Complete removal of these chemical contaminants requires desorption, which is a slow process decreasing throughput (not common). In order to avoid contamination, the plastic recycling sector tries to keep the streams as specific and separated as possible. Slightly contaminated material can be used to manufacture low risk applications (e.g. downcycling to non-food contact fibres).

51 Pers. comm. with FEDEREC

Sorting can be increasingly achieved by automatic identification at material recovery facilities. Automatised separation is largely more effective when accompanied by some degree of source separation, e.g. pre-separation at source of packaging recyclates (metals, plastics, glass, cartons) from organic waste. Currently, NIR and density separation techniques can separate WEEE plastic containing brominated flame retardants from non-brominated, and there are several facilities in the EU specialised in the separation of plastics with flame retardants from other plastics⁵².

2.3.5 Cleaning

Cleaning is used to remove contamination with oils, solvents, paints, fatty foodstuffs or detergents adsorbed by plastic. Absorption will differ according to plastic type and substance so the degree of effective removal also differs on polymers, contamination type and pre-treatment operations. Cleaning usually involves washing with water, which may include detergents/alkali. Sometimes, the residual content of packaging can help in the process, e.g. detergent residuals help in the removal of paper labels and oils. This step can take place after the sorting and the grinding stages as contacts with the treating water are facilitated, but other setups are possible. The washing can be done with hot or cold water, usually under agitation.

Once in a water tank, the density differences of the polymers can help separate different types of plastics by flotation. Water-based glues, which are the most common adhesives, are diluted and removed during the washing process. When the wash water temperature is ambient, the rubber compound based glues cannot be removed during this process.

The waste plastic may not require washing, depending on the specifications of the customer. After the washing operations, rinsing and drying steps can be carried out.

2.3.6 Recycling

Two main types of recycling can be distinguished, mechanical and chemical (the latter also called feedstock recycling).

Mechanical recycling involves the melting of the polymer, but not its chemical transformation. Process additives such as curing agents, lubricants and catalysts are added to improve processing, as well as dyes and correction agents to re-establish the properties of the plastic in case the original additives have reacted or decomposed. To a much smaller extent, recycling also takes place in the EU via chemical recycling, also called feedstock recycling, where a certain degree of polymeric breakdown takes place.

Out of the total of about 25 Mt of post-consumer waste plastic collected in Europe (EU-27 plus Norway and Switzerland) in 2008, the following quantities were recycled by mechanical and chemical means⁵³:

52 More information available at: www.mbapolymers.at, www.axionpolymers.com and WRAP (2006b)

53 PlasticsEurope (2009) "An analysis of European plastics production, demand and recovery for 2008", available at: www.plasticseurope.org

- Mechanical recycling: A total of 5.3 Mt of post-consumer waste plastic, representing 21% of the total post-consumer waste plastic generated in Europe, were mechanically recycled
- Chemical recycling: A total of 74.7 kt of post-consumer waste plastic, representing only 0.3% of the total post-consumer waste plastic generated in Europe, were chemically recycled

Chemical recycling is more widespread in other world regions, e.g. in Japan, where the share of waste plastics treated is ca. 5%.

Based on data from APME in 2002-2003⁵⁴, 87% of the mechanically recycled plastics are converted to recycled raw plastic intermediates (e.g. flakes, agglomerates, regrind, pellets, regranulates and profiles) while the remaining 13% are converted directly into products. This fits well with the EU average estimates presented in Table 2.5. Usually, the plastic that is directly reprocessed in products comes from the more contaminated streams and results in end uses with lower quality demands such as plant pots, door mats, outdoor furniture, or car mats.

The higher quality plastics can be used for a wider range of applications, with intermediary shapes as pellets or granules. Converters requiring supplementary virgin material may adapt the ratio of recycled/virgin material in their products, depending on the needs and market conditions. Sandwich structures are also common, using virgin plastic of precisely known composition in the contact surfaces where properties have to be controlled, and inner layers of recycled material.

The annual growth in terms of mechanically recycled quantities is estimated at over 12%. In general, most of the mechanically recycled plastics are from the commercial and industrial sectors, with mainly bottles being recovered from domestic sources⁵⁵. Improvements in the sorting and separation steps could help develop the use of this treatment method.

Table 2.17 below presents different terms found to refer to the two main types of waste plastic recycling (mechanical recycling and chemical recycling), and energy recovery. As mentioned in the introduction chapter and below in Section 2.3.6.2, it is proposed to not include feedstock recycling (for energy or chemicals) within the scope of this end-of-waste study. Some of the terms (downcycling, downgrading) seem to have negative connotations, and therefore are avoided by certain sectors of the industry.

Table 2.17. Plastic recycling ‘cascade’ terminology⁵⁶

ASTM D7209 – 06 standard definitions	Equivalent ISO 15270 standard definitions	Other existing terms
Primary recycling	Mechanical recycling	Closed-loop recycling
Secondary recycling	Mechanical recycling	Downgrading, downcycling

54 Aguado, J., Serrano, D.P. and San Miguel, G. (2006) “European trends in the feedstock recycling of plastic wastes”, to be published in Global NEST Journal.

55 British Plastics Foundation, ”Plastics Recycling”, Available at: www.bpf.co.uk/bpfindustry/process_plastics_recycling.cfm

56 Adapted from: Hopewell, J. et al., 2009. Plastics recycling: challenges and opportunities

Tertiary recycling	Feedstock recycling	Chemical recycling
Quaternary recycling	Energy recovery	Valorisation

2.3.6.1 Mechanical recycling

Mechanical recycling refers to the processing of waste plastic by physical means (grinding, shredding, and melting) back to plastic products. The chemical structure of the material remains almost the same. At present, the recycling of waste plastic is dominated by mechanical processes. This recycling path is viable when waste plastics are or can easily be cleaned and sorted properly. Added to this, the process requires large and quite constant input.

The five predominant plastic families, i.e. polyethylene (including low density-LDPE, linear low density-LLDPE, and high density-HDPE), polypropylene (PP), polyvinylchloride (PVC), polystyrene (solid-PS, expandable-EPS) and polyethylene terephthalate (PET), which are all thermoplastic, are also the most significant for mechanical recycling. One waste stream currently being treated in large amounts using mechanical recycling is packaging waste.

The basic operations of mechanical recycling are presented in the Table 2.18 below.

Table 2.18. Mechanical recycling operations (not necessarily sequential)

Process	Description
Cutting	Large plastic parts are cut by saw or shears for further processing
Shredding	Plastics are chopped into small flakes, allowing the separation of materials (e.g. metals, glass, paper) and plastic types (e.g. PET bottles from PP lids).
Sorting	Additional sorting (e.g. NIR) once the material has been shredded.
Contaminants separation	Contaminants (e.g. paper, ferrous metals) are separated from plastic in cyclone separators and magnets. Liquids/glues can be separated in a wet phase (see below).
Floating/Cleaning	Different types of plastics are separated in a floating tank according to their density. The density of the liquid can be modified to enable separation (e.g. adding salt to water). The wet phase can also be used for washing residuals (e.g. organic)
Extrusion	The flakes /pellets/agglomerates are fed into an extruder where they are heated to melting state and forced through, converting into a continuous polymer product (strand).
Filtering	The last step of extrusion may be filtering with a metal mesh (e.g. 100-300 micron)
Pelletizing	The strands are cooled by water and cut into pellets, which may be used for new polymer products manufacturing.

The players of the recycling chain can vary, depending on the country and the input materials available. In general, once collected, the post-consumer plastics aimed at

mechanical recycling are delivered to a material recovery facility (MRF) or handler for sorting into single polymer streams in order to increase product value. This step is not necessary for pre-consumer waste plastic. The sorted plastics are then baled and shipped to polymer-specialised reprocessors where the plastics are chopped into flakes and contaminants such as paper labels are removed (e.g. by cyclone separators) and/or the flakes are washed. Flakes may be further re-extruded into granules/pellets at the reprocessor, or they can be sold as flakes to the end-users for the manufacture of new products.

Some reprocessors may already re-compound the recycled material with additives and/or more virgin raw material at the re-extruding phase. But the size and structure of the mechanical recycling sector is intimately linked to the quality and quantity of the plastic waste streams that provide the recyclable material. Also, a significant share of companies operate both the reprocessing and manufacturing of end-products.

At this stage of the recycling chain, the pellets and granules produced normally only contain a few ppm of contaminants. The washed secondary raw material is valuable (normally >300EUR/tonne) and can be used in a plastics transformation process to replace virgin plastic material (fully or partially), without requiring a pre-treatment stage likely to generate waste or by-products.

2.3.6.2 Feedstock recycling

Feedstock (chemical) processing involves the transformation of plastic polymers by means of heat and/or chemical agents to yield monomers or other hydrocarbon products that may be used to produce new polymers, refined chemicals, or fuels.

Classifying a given process as feedstock recycling or as energy recovery according to the revised Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC) is not straightforward: if the process produces compounds that will be used as fuels, it should be considered as energy recovery and not recycling, even if chemical transformations are applied. If the process leads to products that will be employed as raw input to processing, then it may be considered as chemical recycling. However, waste plastic chemical processing often generates a complex mixture of products: consequently, some of them will be used as raw chemicals (feedstock) and others will be used as fuels (energy recovery). Currently, most of these are handled and accepted as products, except the densest tar fractions containing high amounts of mixed heavy aromatic hydrocarbons.

In practice, chemical recycling or feedstock recycling refer to the same processes, and are appropriate for mixed or contaminated waste plastics. Processes include:

- **Chemical depolymerisation:** This process involves the reaction of the plastic polymer with chemical reagents, yielding its starting monomers that can be processed to produce new polymers. Different processes exist, depending on the chemical agent; glycolysis, methanolysis, hydrolysis and ammonolysis being the most common. Chemical depolymerisation is only applicable to condensation polymers, mainly polyesters like PET and nylon, and cannot be used to reprocess addition polymers such as PE, PP or PVC⁵⁷.

⁵⁷ Aguado, J., Serrano, D.P. and San Miguel, G. (2006) "European trends in the feedstock recycling of plastic wastes", to be published in Global NEST Journal.

Nylon depolymerisation is currently only carried out in the USA, and considered not economically viable in EU.

- **Thermal cracking** (also called **pyrolysis**): Involves the degradation of the polymeric materials by heating (usually in temperatures between 500-800°C) in the absence of oxygen. The plastics are converted back into the liquid petroleum products used to produce plastics and new plastics, synthetic fibres, lubricants and gasoline are the end products of the process. It also yields small amounts of carbonised char and a volatile fraction that may be separated into condensable hydrocarbon oil and a non-condensable high calorific gas that can be reused onsite. Therefore, the classification of the pyrolysis process as recycling (tertiary/feedstock recycling) or recovery may vary depending on the final use of the resulting use of output fractions.

The proportion of each fraction and their composition depends primarily on the nature of the waste plastic but also on process conditions⁵⁸. Thermal depolymerisation of polyolefins⁵⁹, such as PE or PP, tends to break into a variety of smaller hydrocarbon intermediates whereas cracking of some other addition polymers⁶⁰, such as PS and polymethyl methacrylate, yields a high proportion of their constituent monomers⁶¹.

The main advantage of this technology when it is integrated with a traditional mechanical recycling process is that it can recycle mixed or commingled streams of plastics with high levels of contamination. Germany and Japan have several such plants already in operation⁶².

- **Catalytic conversion** (also called catalytic cracking): Involves the degradation of the polymers by means of catalyst. This type of conversion offers many advantages compared to thermal cracking including lower degradation temperatures and consequently lower energy consumption, higher conversion rates, and a narrower distribution of hydrocarbon products. Most processes produce higher quality fuels (gasoline and diesel fractions), gaseous olefins and aromatic compounds for the use as raw materials. Therefore, the classification of the catalytic cracking process as recycling (tertiary/feedstock recycling) or recovery may vary depending on the final use of the resulting use of output fractions.

Although a commercial plant for catalytic conversion was launched in Poland a few years ago, this process is still mainly at laboratory scale in EU.

- **Gasification**: Gasification refers to the production of synthesis gas (syngas) by partial oxidation of organic matter at high temperatures (typically between 1200-1500°C) under mildly oxidising condition (usually steam, CO₂ or sub-stoichiometric oxygen) which differs from the incineration process.⁶³ Syngas, which consists primarily of CO and hydrogen and is free of dioxins and furan compounds, can be used in the synthesis of chemicals (e.g. methanol and ammonia) and to produce synthetic diesel, or may be combusted directly as a fuel.

58 Aguado, J., Serrano, D.P. and San Miguel, G. (2006) "European trends in the feedstock recycling of plastic wastes", to be published in Global NEST Journal.

59 Polymers produced from the polymerisation of a simple alkene as monomer

60 Polymers produced by the addition of monomers, without the loss of any atom

61 Environment and Plastic Industry Council, "Plastic Recycling Overview". www.plastics.ca/epic

62 Environment and Plastic Industry Council, "Plastic Recycling Overview". www.plastics.ca/epic

63 PlasticsEurope (2008) "An analysis of plastics production, demand and recovery in Europe 2007", available at: www.plasticseurope.org

Depending on the waste plastic materials used, other compounds may be present in the gaseous stream and should be removed. The formation of significant amounts of heavy products (with high molecular weight) is one major problem of the process, which decreases the gas yield and in addition creates significant plugging problems⁶⁴.

As with pyrolysis, the synthesis gas produced during the gasification process can be used as chemical raw materials or as fuel. Therefore, the classification of the gasification process as recycling (tertiary/feedstock recycling) or recovery may vary depending on the final use of the synthesis gas.

This technology has been used for more than half a century and is used all over the world, and especially on a large scale in Germany⁶⁵ and Austria. However, the administrative and legislative requirements, which are heavier than for conventional recycling facilities, have prevented this technology from being widely implemented in many countries. Indeed, there is currently only one gasification plant in operation in Finland, where the official permit costs and requirements have been reported as burdensome. This burden appears to be also a barrier in Ireland⁶⁶. Gasification facilities must hold a waste incineration licence, and emission measurements must be carried out frequently (in particular, dioxin and flue gas emissions must be measured at least twice a year).

- **Blast furnace reducing agent:** This is a special variation of the gasification: the synthesis gas formed is used directly as a chemical reactant to reduce the iron ore in the production of steel. Coal and coke used to be used as reduction agents in the furnace, before being replaced by heavy liquid petroleum fractions, and by plastic waste as first attempts in the 1990s. Voest-Alpine in Austria even uses mixed plastic waste in this process and can substitute up to 25% of the oil with it. Around 300 kt annually of ground plastic waste were used similarly by German companies⁶⁷, and the process contributes highly to meet the ambitious national recovery target for plastic packaging waste⁶⁸. The process could be thought of as energy recovery, as it is transformed neither into feedstock, nor a plastic product.

To date, it has proven reliable and represents the main commercial process for plastic waste (in quantitative terms) within chemical recycling in EU, particularly in Germany⁶⁹.

- **Coke oven chemical feedstock recycling:** Plastics can substitute part of the coal used to generate coke for use as the reducing agent in coke ovens (as in blast furnace process above). Hydrocarbon oil and coke oven gas, also produced during this process, are used, respectively, as chemical feedstock and to generate electricity. The classification of the coke oven chemical process as recycling (tertiary/feedstock recycling) or recovery may vary, depending on the use of output fractions.

65 ASSURRE, "Plastic manufacturing and recycling".

66 Pers. comm. with the Environmental Protection Agency (Ireland).

67 PlasticsEurope (2009) "An analysis of European plastics production, demand and recovery for 2008", available at: www.plasticseurope.org

68 TNO "Chemical Recycling of Plastic waste (PVC and other polymers)", 1999. For the European Commission, DG III.

As the products of chemical/feedstock recycling processes may be used both as raw chemicals or fuels, there is no classification of these processes as closed-loop recycling or open-loop recycling, as different compounds can be obtained and used for two different purposes. Consequently, the environmental assessment of one chemical recycling process may even vary depending on the end uses of each plant. Even if the cracking of plastics into its monomers may be more energy intensive than mechanical recycling, a chemical recycling process may have greater environmental benefits than a mechanical downgrading process, depending on the final product's quality.

Chemical recycling is an elegant concept, and despite attracting scientific attention, it has not been widely commercialised so far because the process economics and because the quality of the products is lower than normal commercial grade feedstock⁷⁰. Also, back-to-monomer recycling is so far only operational for certain types of polymers (PU, PA and polyester) while back-to-feedstock recycling (splitting polymers into raw materials substituting fuel or gas) is less demanding⁷¹.

Some chemical recycling projects have been brought to the industrial scale, namely in Germany and France⁷². Feedstock recycling was tried in the UK but judged as economically not viable so that all recycling is currently mechanical⁷³.

Feedstock recycling and scope of this study

As advanced in the introduction chapter, it is proposed to exclude feedstock recycling from the scope of this study, for several reasons:

- Firstly, no evidence has been found of feedstock recycling facing barriers in the recognition of the refined output materials for recycling (syngas, ethylene, etc.) as products. In this sense, it is perceived as redundant to include these materials in the scope of this end-of-waste study. Only specific outputs such as the heaviest fractions (tar, oils) may remain waste due to the presence of high molecular mass aromatic compounds, but if these fractions are by nature hazardous, they would also fall by nature out of the scope of this study.
- Secondly, the technical requirements, the legislation and the standards that would apply for waste plastic destined for feedstock recycling or for its output would be both conceptually and in the details totally different from those that apply for re-melting recycling. Mechanical recycling involves processing of the waste plastic polymers into a new product that can only be made of such polymers. In contrast, feedstock processes involve chemical reactions where the properties of interest (e.g. content and type of impurities) are different. The quality criteria, containing limit values and impurity thresholds, would thus be essentially different. It is therefore considered an incorrect approach to attempt to merge all limit values for the sole purpose of creating a set of EoW criteria encompassing all processing of waste plastic.

70 Juniper Analysis, "Plastic waste", 2006. Available at www.juniper.co.uk/services/market_sectors/plastics.html

71 Wollny V. and Schmied M., 2000. Assessment of Plastic Recovery Options

72 Pers. comm. with Valorplast.

73 Pers. comm. with DEFRA.

- Thirdly, from the reviewed evidence it seems not possible to sharply distinguish the use of the feedstock products as fuels or feedstock chemicals. It seems that both options are possible in practice for the same output materials. This may create a conflict with existing legislation promoting recycling, both at EU level and national or regional level. The packaging waste Directive (94/62/EC amended by 2004/12/EC and 2005/20/EC including extended deadlines for new Member States) sets targets for the recycling of a number of recyclable packaging materials, including plastics. In case the criteria on EoW for waste plastics was not limited to recycling but supported the production of fuels, part of plastic packaging may be diverted as EoW to non-recycling uses, and this may create additional difficulties in the achievement of the recycling targets agreed by Member States under the packaging directive. Some Member States or regions have additional prescriptions under waste law to avoid the energy recovery of recyclable waste material e.g. Flanders, Denmark, and Netherlands. These prescriptions would not apply to material that is not any more waste. By limiting the scope of end-of-waste to plastics recycling, such potential loopholes are avoided.
- Finally, the statistical information collected shows that this application has currently a marginal role in the EU (50kt treated yearly, compared to >5Mt for mechanical recycling (conversion), and >8.5 Mt for energy recovery). It is thus justified to concentrate the initial efforts of plastic EoW on the most practised applications.

The opinions of the TWG experts on this issue are divided. While some experts have emphasised the need of not excluding feedstock recycling from the potential market opportunities of EoW, others have highlighted the difficulty in identifying the actual uses of feedstock outputs. As there is no evidence that the opportunities for recycling of feedstock materials would currently be jeopardised by exclusion, and the total material flows treated in the EU are negligible compared to mechanical recycling, exclusion is proposed in this study. Some members of the TWG have suggested including in the legal text a clause by which the exclusion of feedstock recycling from the scope could be revisited within a short time period (e.g. 3-5 years) from the adoption of the regulation, if the markets for feedstock recycling and the trade of their output develop sufficiently to justify policy action.

2.3.6.3 Additives and recycling

In general, it is not technically and/or economically feasible to separate the additives during recycling.

Most additives in waste plastics, except e.g. lubricants or catalysts, are essentially not consumed, altered or degraded during the melting process of mechanical recycling (much unlike glass or metal recycling). They are resistant to the melting temperatures used in recycling, and therefore withstand unaltered these processes. Other additives release free radicals and unsaturated groups that alone or in combination with other impurities (e.g. metals, fillers, dyes) may significantly alter the quality of the plastic, decreasing most notably its stability to temperature and oxidation compared to the virgin plastic (Pfaendner, 2000). The objective of the last steps of purification (solvent and surfactant washing, melt filtration) is to remove as many of such foreign materials

and additive residuals as possible, reducing the breakdown potential of the recycled plastic⁷⁴.

There are hundreds of additives in the EU market, and their presence in the plastics can vary largely, from a few percentages and up to 50-60%. Some of them are sought after in recycling, as they are much needed in the recycled product (e.g. stabilisers, hardeners, plasticisers, structural fillers). Some of them may have no function in the recycled product (UV absorbers, flame retardants) or need correction measures (odour, colour). In recyclates, all types of synergistic and antagonistic effects between different additives have been reported. However, in most cases no negative effects result from mixing additives from different sources (Pfaendner, 2000), with exceptions that normally can be restored by the addition of new stabilisers and compatibilisers to the recyclate. Should it not be possible, the recyclate has to be cycled down to less demanding applications.

Environmental concerns

Some additives may be bound to the polymeric structure of plastics, while some others, especially if of low molecular weight, have a certain capacity of migration, and may leach out of plastics, especially if the plastic is in contact with a receiving material to which the migrate has affinity, e.g. a fat or a solvent. One may thus assume that all additives are to an extent mobile from plastics unless there is a functional barrier. The content of potentially mobilising substances is different from the actual leaching. Actual leaching is also distinct from an actual environmental impact, as the leaching/migration and impact are driven by the environmental conditions and the exposure. Normally, the impact would be assessed using risk/exposure assessments, and the legislation controlling it would be related to the use, e.g. food contact or building material legislation, in any case under the umbrella of REACH/CLP.

Most additives in use are not known to have environmental or health risks. Currently, only very few problem substances used in/as additives or processing intermediates have been identified as bearing environmental and/or health risk, notably:

- PFOS - Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid and its derivatives (impregnating agent to repel dirt, grease and water for carpets and upholstery)
- Bisphenol A (curing agent in polycarbonate and epoxy resins)
- Some low molecular weight phthalates (plasticisers): DEHP, BBP, DBD, DIBP, but not high molecular weight ones such as DINP and DIDP.
- Some halogenated flame retardants: e.g. brominated biphenyls, diphenylethers, cyclododecanes, and short-chained chlorinated paraffins (SCCP). Some non-halogenated are also of concern, e.g. Tris(2-chloroethyl)phosphate (TCEP).
- Toxic heavy metals (colorants and stabilisers): Cadmium, Chromium VI, Lead, organotins (tin mercaptides and carboxylates).
- Acrylamide (a monomer)

Please note additionally that the risk potential refers to a free, pure substance, and not to physicochemical combinations in preparations or mixtures where the material may

⁷⁴ In degradable plastics, there is absence of such stabilizing additives, as the purpose is to allow the photo or biodegradability of the material. Moreover, additives may be present to enhance degradation. These materials can thus not be considered recyclable.

have limited mobility, as is the case when bound in a polymer matrix. In such cases, specific risk assessments are necessary to evaluate the degree of mobility and exposure that can be expected during the lifetime (including disposal or reprocessing into articles) of the plastic.

Some of the mentioned substances have been voluntarily phased out by the industry, and they are present as legacy but are not being re-introduced in the plastic cycles through virgin plastics. The presence of these substances in waste is currently handled via specific legislation, essentially the packaging directive, and WEEE, and to a certain extent REACH and POPs Regulations (e.g. Annex XVII on REACH on restriction of uses of recycled material and Annex IV of POPs). The presence of these substances in plastic products is handled by RoHS (but covers only EEE), REACH (and CLP for labelling), the POPs Regulation, and specific food contact legislation for this type of use.

Should these substances be present, REACH and CLP are to ensure the provision of environment and health information through the supply chain. Once the plastic products are used and become waste, this information chain is normally broken. Reprocessors and especially converters have to re-establish the information chain, in the first place by characterising thoroughly the recycled plastic output. This characterisation is also essential for the identification of residues of materials that were in contact with the plastic during its use (e.g. solvents), or substances are added/formed during re-processing (e.g. flame retardant reaction products). Spectrograph- or chromatograph-like characterisation is essential at some point and is commonplace in sensitive applications such as food contact.

A completely different but also relevant environmental question related to the presence of additives is how adequate it is to market a recycled plastic with a load of additives that have no function, such as a flame retardant or a fluorescer in an application not requiring it. Close-loop recycling applications are typically not in such situation, as most if not all additives are targeted. Conversely, open loop recycling and especially downgrading recycling faces often this situation, where the originally intended functionality of the additive is not needed or requested. The additive has in these cases a mere filler function, and its presence can even be detrimental and require correction (e.g. it can increase density, hardness, brittleness and require additional supply of a softener or plasticiser).

These environmental issues are further discussed in the chapter on description of impacts.

2.4 Uses of recycled waste plastics

This section identifies common end-uses for recycled plastic. Table 2.19 provides a general overview of the array of products currently produced.

When the input material has a mixed colour pattern, this restricts significantly the degrees of freedom of its applications. The main end applications of such recycled plastics are opaque films and bags for the distribution sector, and building and construction materials, as these uses are not as demanding regarding colour and appearance. The application options are larger when the material has a light colour.

The most consistently present end-use product type is therefore dark plastic films and packaging containers. PET is normally recycled in closed-loop systems for beverage packaging. Large amounts of LDPE and HDPE are currently recycled from packaging, traditionally for dark colour applications (for reasons explained above), but increasingly for other applications as the colour sorting technology develops. PVC has been relatively difficult to recycle from post-consumer material, as it normally is very contaminated with other materials, but the situation is also changing. Today, a small share of PVC cables is recycled using Vinyloop process, but hard PVC in pipes and profiles is routinely recycled. PP is difficult to quickly identify and separate from other polyolefins, hampering its effective recovery as a separate stream. It is often melt together with the other main polyolefin (PE), reducing the quality compared to pure PP or PE and therefore the potential applications.

Some applications require especially stringent requirements in terms of content of impurities, most notably food contact plastics. This grade cannot be obtained from other sources than food-contact material, unless it has undergone additional decontamination treatment, which is usually not economically feasible. Treatment may in some cases not be enough to guarantee that contaminants do not migrate to food, and multi-layered containers may then be devised enclosing the recycled plastic between functional layers of virgin plastic.

A main challenge for the plastics recycling industry is that plastic processors require large quantities of recycled plastics, manufactured to strict specifications, which must remain at a competitive price in comparison to that of virgin plastic.

Table 2.19. Typical end-uses for different types of recycled waste plastic⁷⁵

High-density polyethylene (HDPE)	Containers, toys, housewares, industrial wrapping and film, gas pipes
Low-density polyethylene (LDPE)	Film, bags, toys, coatings, containers, pipes, cable insulation
Polyethylene terephthalate (PET)	Fibres, bottles, film, food packaging, synthetic insulation
Polypropylene (PP)	Film, battery cases, microwave containers, crates, car parts, electrical components
Polystyrene (PS)	Electrical appliances, thermal insulation, tape cassettes, cups, plates
Poly Vinyl Chloride (PVC)	Window frames, pipes, flooring, guttering, applications not related to the original use (traffic signals, shoes, etc.)

Once plastic waste is collected and treated, it must be converted to useable end products or face disposal. Waste plastic can be recycled into a secondary raw material to form new products directly, or in combination with virgin plastic material. The options for use of recycled plastic depend on the quality and polymer homogeneity of the material; a clean, contaminant-free source of a single polymer recycled waste plastic has more end-use options and higher value than a mixed or contaminated source of plastic waste. The use of recyclates is heavily dependent on demand, which is influenced by the price of virgin material, as well as the quality of the recycled polymer. In 2000 (see Figure 2.23) it was estimated that products manufactured using LLDPE polymer had the highest ratio of recycled to virgin polymer (recycled material was 10% of total) in comparison with other polymers.

75 A.Ingham, 2005. OECD study "Improving recycling markets, Chapter 3

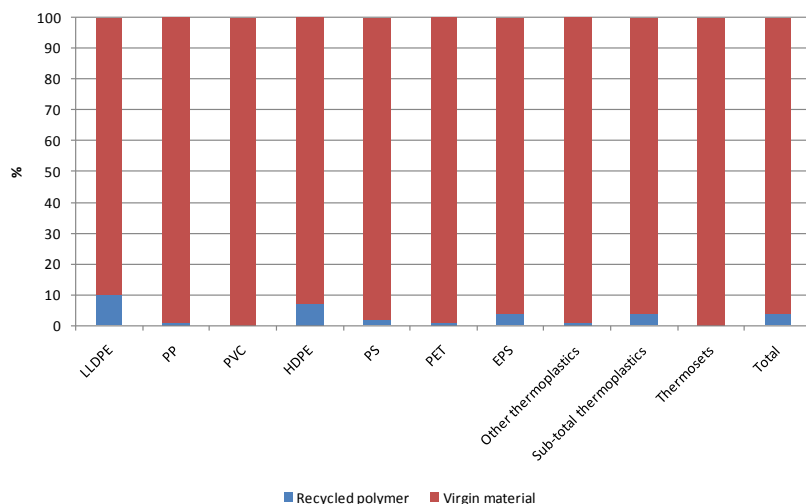


Figure 2.23. Ratio of recycled to virgin polymer use in EU, 2000 (ACRR, 2004)

The small ratio of recyclate to virgin material could be attributed to aspects such as contamination, technological availability and market demand. It is worth noting that these figures are from 2000 and therefore may not provide an accurate vision of the current market for recycled plastic polymers. More recent data from the UK shows significant use of recycled material for PET (see Figure 2.24). However, the ratios remain generally relatively low for other polymers (ACRR, 2004).

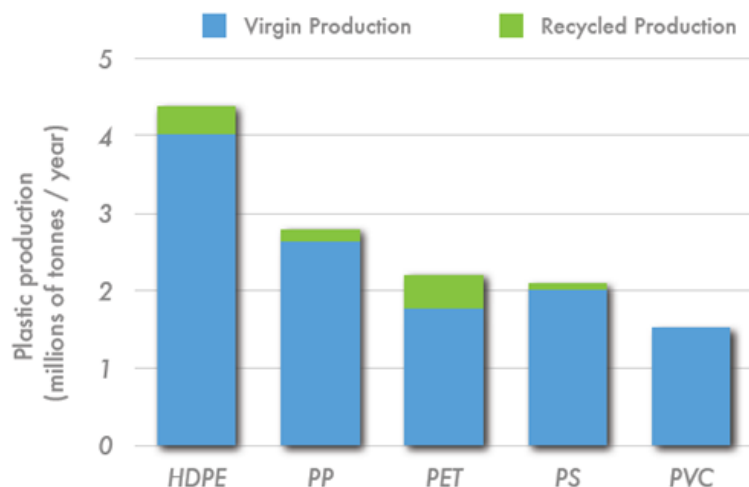


Figure 2.24. Ratio of recycled to virgin polymer use in the UK, 2005

The substitution rates above fit well with recent estimates (c.f. Table 2.5) of overall yearly use in the EU27+CH+NO of between 3.5 and 4.5Mt recyclates, compared to 47Mt input to conversion, i.e., an aggregated 7.5-10% substitution of virgin input. The values above assume a negligible net extra-EU trade of recyclates (it has not been possible to obtain reliable figures on this).

The aim of the recycling industry is generally to keep the same application for a plastic material as the one it had, as in this way it is easier to make use of the properties of the polymer and its additives, and meet the requirements needed for technical or legislative reasons.

However, as discussed earlier, it is not easy to obtain homogenous waste plastic streams, as closed-loop systems are effective but expensive, and mixed plastic systems are less expensive but are still dependent on still imperfect but continuously evolving separation technologies.

The options for marketing materials of mixed origin often involve 'downcycling' of plastics for cheaper and less demanding applications (e.g. the packaging and building sectors, opaque dark coloured plastics such as plastic bins) – specifically for LDPE and HDPE plastics. Because of the variety of the plastics industry, building a map of the precise waste plastic streams going through one type of recycling process and resulting in a specific application would be very hard.

Figure 2.25 presents the main destination sectors and application of recycled plastics. Film and bags (around 30% share), miscellaneous building products (14%) and pipes (12%), and fibres in household products (9%) represented the main end uses of recycled plastics in 2002.

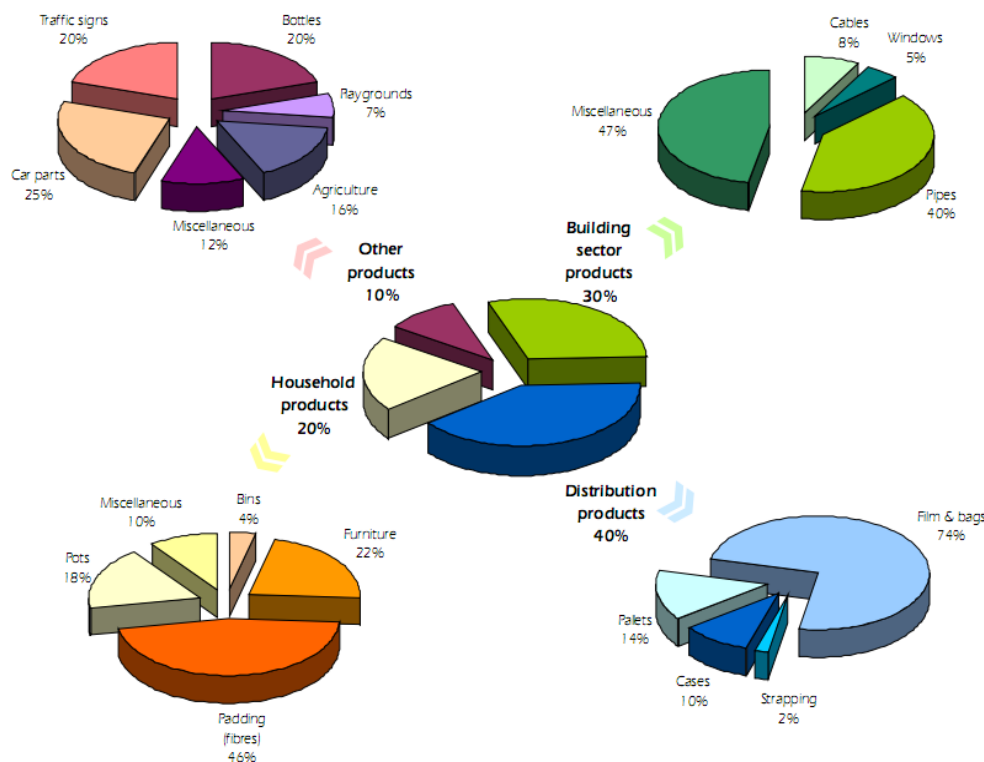


Figure 2.25. Destination sectors and main applications of recycled plastics (EU-15 +CH +NO, 2002⁷⁶)

As mentioned above, close loops for PET have created an independent and normally 'cleaner' cycle, where the recycled material of high quality is used whenever possible for production of new bottles. Clean, recycled PET flake can be converted into many different products competing in the same markets. It is used again in bottles for non-food end uses like household chemicals and cleaners. In areas where legislation define it

⁷⁶ APME, Plastics in Europe 2002 & 2003.

(such as the recycled plastic food contact Regulation (EC) 282/2008), the use of recycled PET for the manufacture of new drinking bottles is growing rapidly⁷⁷.

Recycled PET main end-uses identified are fibres, non-food bottles and sheets. The industry is constantly innovating and there are many developing markets for recycled PET such as:

- Polyurethane foams can be made from polyester polyols⁷⁸ developed from PET flakes. This material is widely used in building and construction.
- Engineered polymers made from recovered PET can be injection moulded to manufacture computer and automotive parts
- Other alternative production processes use 'spunbonded' PET in the manufacture of shoe liners, webbing, and geotextiles (shoes, backpacks)⁷⁹

The use of recycled PET for the manufacture of new beverage bottles is growing rapidly⁸⁰ (in particular, with chemical depolymerisation). The main reasons lying behind the success of PET containers (such as bottles) is that they have a specific molecular structure (set into a web), which makes it unbreakable. Another advantage offered by recycled PET is that its physical properties allow for great freedom in design.

Plastic bottles and films are also recycled in non-food packaging and agricultural films. Usually, the plastic that is directly converted in end products without an intermediate regranulate step comes from contaminated streams and results in end uses such as flower pots and other products with low appearance and quality physicochemical demands.

2.5 Structure of the reprocessing industry

Recycled plastic supply and production chains can be quite complex and consist of various types of activities, including brokering, with actors being involved in single or multiple processes in the chain. The market structure varies depending on the type of system set up by national authorities, as regards collection and sorting, especially for households (kerbside collection, drop off locations, refill/deposit systems). Integration and non-integration along the recycling chains also varies widely depending on the national context. The only feature common to all the Member States is that the market is currently dominated by SMEs.

A simplified diagram of the structure of the supply and demand sides is provided in Figure 2.26. The vertical line in the middle of the figure sets the usual boundary between the supply side and the demand side, but this can also be between elements of the right hand side, e.g. if intermediates like flakes, pellets or granulates are traded.

77 PlasticsEurope, the EU Packaging and Packaging Waste Directive, available at: www.plasticseurope.org/Content/Default.asp?PageID=1215

78 Alcohols containing multiple hydroxyl groups

79 What is PET?, available at: www.petcore.org/content/what-is-pet

80 PlasticsEurope, the EU Packaging and Packaging Waste Directive, available at: www.plasticseurope.org/Content/Default.asp?PageID=1215

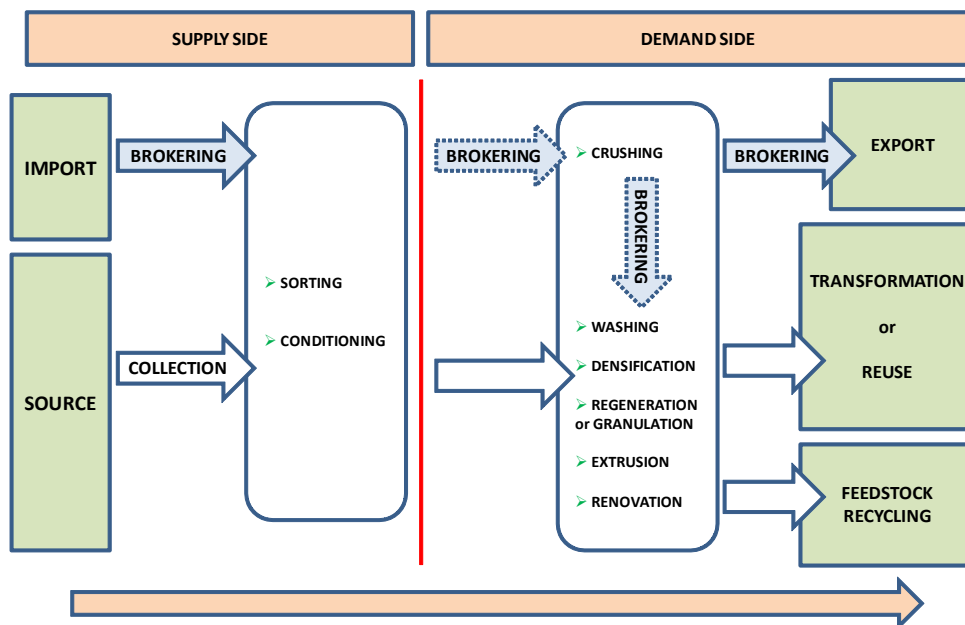


Figure 2.26. Overview of the recycling sector's activities ⁸¹

Each of these separate activities, e.g. collection; sorting; cleaning and granulation; and re-processing can be undertaken by different bodies, both private and public, and some of them can be integrated in the same company.

Supply side activities result in collecting, recovering, and preparing materials for recycling or products for resale. For the purpose of EoW, the demand side has been considered as starting at the point where waste plastics have been conditioned and are sold to reprocessors, crushers or recyclers for further treatment. Below, a breakdown of the demand side presents the specificity of each activity and the way they articulate in the EU-27.

2.5.1 Collection and sorting

Commercial Distribution/Packaging

The plastic waste generated by the commercial sector is largely packaging waste. The most common waste plastics generated by these sectors are: crates, distribution and commercial films and EPS packaging.

Collection and sorting are easy and profitable since plastic waste is produced in larger quantities than household plastic waste and the fractions collected do not need significant sorting operations, as fractions are relatively homogeneous.

⁸¹ This figure has been adapted from a report published by ADEME: ADEME, 2009. Enquête sur le recyclage des plastiques en 2007

Municipal Solid Waste

In a majority of European countries, the recycling of waste plastic from households essentially corresponds to packaging waste plastic recycling. This is the main plastic waste stream stemming from households and also the main stream being recycled.

The three main systems described in Section 2.3.2 are operational in Europe: door to door or kerbside collection, drop-off locations or collection points and the refill/deposit system. The 'kerbside collection' system offers the lowest degree of material contamination. In most countries there are also regional differences, addressing among others differences in population density. Ireland, Germany, Sweden, Spain and Italy, for example, include all kinds of plastic packaging in their household collection schemes, either in a separate plastic collection fraction or together with other light packaging. In Austria and the UK, the collection depends on the region considered: some collect all plastic packaging while other parts of the country only recover bottles for instance. In France, the system mainly focuses on bottles and some flexible plastics, and the question has been recently raised whether to comprise all plastic packaging in the future. In Denmark, only bottles are collected.

Local authorities or municipalities are often involved in the management of household waste. In the UK, they can choose what to collect and how to collect it. In Norway, municipalities own the waste, which is collected by a transporter and recyclers buy the plastics from the municipality⁸². In France, local authorities have two options: they can either subscribe to the 'Garantie de reprise' (recovery guarantee) allowing Valorplast to deal with the collected waste (Valorplast is an intermediary between local authorities and recyclers), or contact the recyclers directly. Major recycling companies as PAPREC and SITA often sign contracts with local authorities, which entitle them to run the waste-related public service ('delegation de service public').

The 'collection points' system is also widespread and often used in combination with the 'kerbside collection' system.

Finally, the 'refill and deposit' system was largely widespread in countries such as the Netherlands, Germany, Switzerland and Austria but is now used to a lower extent since it has been considered as a barrier to cross-border trade⁸³. This has been the case in Finland where the previous refilling system for crates was considered a barrier to trade and removed in 2008⁸⁴. In certain countries such as Denmark, the system is still in place and was extended to non-reusable mineral water bottles in 2008⁸⁵.

The table below, while now outdated, illustrates choices made by certain EU Member States in 2002, in terms of collection systems for light packaging, and shows relatively even mix of options taken by the MS screened.

82 Pers. comm. with Erik Oland, from Gront Punkt, Norway

83 EUROPEN, 2009. Modern Beverage Container Policy

84 Communication with Vesa Kärhä, Finnish Plastics Industry Association

85 Packaging waste legislation in Denmark, available at: www.pro-e.org/Denmark

Table 2.20. Collection systems of light packaging in some Member States, 2002⁸⁶

Member State	Door to Door System	Collection points
Austria	x	
Belgium	x	
Finland		x
France	x	
Germany	x	
Luxembourg	x	
Portugal		x
Spain		x
Sweden		x
UK	x	x

Many municipalities use a combination of different systems. How to sort, recycle and recover the mixed stream of plastic packaging waste is a major issue today⁸⁷.

Distribution of costs

The costs borne by local authorities no longer represent the real costs of the collection, since waste collection's responsibility tends to be shared between public authorities and private companies. Various different systems can be described.

In France, Italy, Ireland, Portugal, Spain, Finland and Sweden, local authorities bear the collection and sorting costs while Industry is in charge of recycling. Regarding packaging, the industry participates in collection and sorting costs through contributions allocated to 'Green Dot' organisms⁸⁸, and ultimately paid by consumers upon purchase of the products. In Netherlands and United Kingdom, local authorities additionally receive a percentage on the sales of recycled material. By contrast, in Germany and Luxembourg, the industry ensures collection and sorting as well as recycling of packaging.⁸⁹

Plastic waste separation

The sorting of household plastic waste is performed in sorting plants, which can be either public organisms or private firms. The material obtained once sorted can be sold to a reprocessor or to a broker, and in certain cases the reprocessor can ensure the sorting operations himself. In Norway, for instance, most plastics are sent to Germany to be sorted in separate fractions⁹⁰.

⁸⁶ Based on data extracted from the report: ADEME, 2002. Coûts de collecte sélective et de tri des ordures ménagères en Europe, p.7

⁸⁷ According to EPRO

⁸⁸ Green Dot is a producer responsibility system in the field of packaging. In certain EU MS, organisms are founded by the business and industry community to assume industry's packaging waste take-back and recovery obligations.

⁸⁹ ADEME, 2002. Coûts de collecte sélective et de tri des ordures ménagères en Europe

⁹⁰ Communication with Erik Oland from Gront Punkt, Norway

Construction and Demolition

A number of experts consulted points to private sector handling of construction waste, and underdevelopment of systems to collect plastic waste from this sector due to lack of consideration at the planning stage in the construction process.

Agricultural

Large amounts of plastics are generated in agriculture, especially films (silage, greenhouse covering, etc), and piping for watering. The main hindrance to the recycling of agricultural film ⁹¹ is the lack of financing in order to ensure collection and transport of waste films to the recycling plant. As a consequence of the film's thinness and large contamination content (soil, stones, plant residues), high tonnages must be transported to make the transport operations profitable. In the UK, Defra is discussing to introduce a producer responsibility scheme to encourage its collection and recovery.⁹² Norwegian farmers launched voluntary initiatives to collect and sort agricultural films in the mid-1990s, before the introduction of the national plastic recycling scheme⁹³. The main challenges are the quality of the films, which need to be washed before reprocessing, and the long distances of transportation of a frequently heavily soiled material (frequently up to 50-60% of soil), which require optimising the transport system. Most farmers bring their recyclates to local recycling stations, but larger farms can also be visited by waste collectors.

There is a raising interest of public authorities to increase the recycling rate of this plastic waste stream, and recycling in this area is increasingly structured.

Automotive

Plastics in vehicles are used for their distinctive qualities, such as impact and corrosion resistance, low weight, and low cost compared to alternative materials (mostly metals). Despite the relatively high recycling rate for ELVs, the proportion of plastics being recycled from ELVs is extremely low. One reason for this is the wide variety of polymer types and additives used, due to the demands of each specific application. Another reason is the established practices of recycling, focused on metals recovery, and not based on dismantling but on initial shredding and subsequent separation of mixed streams. As more and more weight in vehicles is not any longer metals, and the value of the non-metallic materials increases, these practices are being questioned and re-engineered. End-of-life vehicles are still dismantled by traditional, small companies.

Electrical and Electronic Equipment

Collection of WEEE is not well-organised in a large majority of EU MS. The existing systems include collection points established by municipalities, obligation for producer to take back the waste product, and voluntary collection by social organisms.

91 ADEME, 2004. Gestion des films plastiques agricoles usagés : analyse des expériences existantes et des problèmes soulevés

92 Information available at: www.letsrecycle.com. Website provided by Department for Environment, Food and Rural affairs.

93 PlasticsEurope, 2009. An analysis of European plastics production, demand and recovery for 2008, available at: www.plasticseurope.org

There are two points at which plastic from WEEE can be sorted: during the dismantling process or after equipment has been shredded⁹⁴. Although WEEE products can often be recycled entirely, the recycling of the plastic components can cause problems because of the large variety of very often technical plastics (PS, ABS, PU, PC, PVC, etc) and the very diverse loads of additives, some of them of environmental/health concern (e.g. some phthalate plasticisers and brominated flame retardants). Other challenges include the economies of scale in systems which often do not effectively sort WEEE, and the absence of sufficiently effective technical solutions for dismantling, identifying and sorting plastic types.

A growing trend of WEEE dismantling has been witnessed during the last few years, as demonstrated by a study of ADEME⁹⁵. In Ireland 100% of WEEE is exported to be sorted and reprocessed abroad⁹⁶. In the Netherlands, one of the frontrunner countries in terms of effective collection of WEEE, it is estimated that only 1/3 of the WEEE material is treated for recycling. The other 1/3 rds go to other disposal options (landfilling, energy recovery), non-WEEE metal recovery traders and dealers, and trade outside the EU, often camouflaged for re-use⁹⁷.

2.5.1.1 Conditioning

Conditioners carry out low-tech processes in the recycling chain, such as compacting into bales or de-baling.

2.5.1.2 Reclaimers

This category is very generic, as the companies included can run several different activities such as transport of waste, brokering and recovery (leading to the production of recyclates). It is worth noting that in certain cases brokers might be counted separately.

2.5.1.3 Crushers

Crushers process waste plastic, and this crushed plastic will be later reintroduced in a production process or sold to plastic reprocessors/converters who will re-granulate it, add additives, colours etc.

2.5.1.4 Reprocessors

The activity of reprocessors usually consists of the production of recyclates like pellets, aggregates, regrind, and flakes taking waste plastic as input, but it can also involve melting and extrusion, in which case the output are regranulates or profiles.

In some cases, especially applications that tolerate high content of physical impurities such as or outdoor furniture, the regranulate/profile step is by-passed by direct conversion to end-products,

⁹⁴ Wastewatch, Plastics in the UK economy, a guide to polymer use and the opportunities for recycling

⁹⁵ ADEME, 2009. Enquête sur le recyclage des plastiques en 2007

⁹⁶ Pers. comm. with Louise Connolly from the Irish organism 'Rx3'. To progress the development of new markets for recyclables, the Irish Government established the Market Development Group Rx3 for 'Recycle, Rethink, Remake'. Available at: www.rx3.ie

⁹⁷ Pers. comm. JH Stiens, PHB/Van Gansenvinkel Groep., 2012

2.5.1.5 Brokers

Brokers are involved at various levels of the recycling chain. On the supply side, brokers play a role by importing waste plastic which will eventually be sold to undergo further sorting and conditioning treatments or will be directly sold to the reprocessors. On the demand side they play a role after the sorting and cleaning operations, at a point where the waste plastic is generally conditioned or crushed (e.g. in bales) to be sold to crushers, reprocessors or recyclers.

2.5.1.6 Converters

Converters manufacture semi-finished or finished products by a number of operations involving pressure, heat and/or chemical addition, using as input a plastic intermediate, normally in the form of powder, flakes, regrind, pellets (regranulates), agglomerates or profiles. The process involves the re-melting of the plastic, and often involves extrusion and filtering.

2.5.2 Examples of plastics recycling market structure in some Member States

The data presented in this section serves as an illustration of the structure of the plastic recycling markets in various MS. However, constant market changes are reported in this sector, partly due to the variety of end products and qualities, and the variety of activities that can be carried out by each company along the recycling chain.

France

The waste plastic recycling sector in France in 2007 consisted of 69% reprocessors and 15% converters. Crushing manufacturers accounted for 11% and brokers and renovators represented only 3 and 2% respectively.

Table 2.21 below presents an overview of the evolution of the recycling sector between 2000 and 2007, showing a relatively small increase of the number of reprocessors, with only 16 new recyclers in 7 years. Their number decreased from 116 in 2005 to 104 in 2007, which might result from a trend to concentration of the activity. An increase in the amount of waste plastics collected has not lead to an increase of the number of reprocessors, rather the size of the recycling companies has grown by ca. 5% per year.

Table 2.21. Evolution of the number of establishments by profession in France

Year	2000	2002	2005	2007
Renovators	13	20	19	14
Reprocessors / Recyclers	88	83	116	104
Crushers	59	62	59	79
Brokers	N/A	N/A	17	23
Reclaimers (incl. Brokers in 2000 and 2002)	172	196	278	492
Total	332	361	489	712

N/A: Data not available

The number of companies specialised in waste plastics crushing/shredding has increased from 59 to 79 between 2000 and 2007. This appears to be partly explained by the growing WEEE dismantling activity recently observed across all Europe. Consequently, the tonnage of waste treated by such establishments increased by 40% in 2 years. The recovered plastic streams produced consist in 58% of crushed waste and 35% of sorted waste. In France, 55% of the production of this branch is exported⁹⁵, a figure in line with the EU trade averages.

Ireland

Table 2.22 shows a basic breakdown of the actors operating in the Irish plastic recycling market in 2010.

Table 2.22. Number of operators by profession in the plastic waste sector in Ireland, 2010⁹⁸

Types of operators	Number of operators
Recovery operators	157
Reprocessors	36
Brokers supplying the market with Irish packaging waste (incl. Irish, UK and Asian brokers)	88

Belgium

There are about 45 companies operating in the field of plastic mechanical recycling in Belgium^{99,100}.

Table 2.23 below gives an overview of the types of activities performed by these companies. Some of them operate only in the sector of pre-consumer waste, some only in the field of post-consumer waste, while others do both.

Table 2.23. Number and activities of companies operating in the plastic recycling sector in Belgium, 2009

Number of companies involved	Sorting & Conditioning	Crushing & Regrinding	Reprocessing & Compounding	End -Products
4	X			
9				X
1			X	
8		X		
5	X	X		
14		X	X	
4		X		X

Hungary

Table 2.24 provides an overview of the plastic recycling market structure and capacity in Hungary in 2010.

⁹⁸ Pers. comm. with REPAK and Rx3

⁹⁹ Plamerec, 2009, Guide of the Belgian Plastics Recycling Industry, available at: www.federplast.be/DOWNLOADS/RECYCLING%20GUIDE%202009.pdf

¹⁰⁰ According to a Pers. comm. with Plarebel, the document is not completely exhaustive

Table 2.24. Plastic recycling market structure and capacity in Hungary in 2010¹⁰¹

Types of activities	Number of companies involved in these activities	Total capacity in tonnes per year
Plastic waste collection companies (Average number)	125	N/A
Companies producing regrinds/agglomerates	27	122 800
Companies producing PET washed regrinds/agglomerates	3	22 500
Companies producing regranulates	25	87 000
Companies owning washing equipments	7	42 000
Companies manufacturing end-products (directly from mixed plastic waste)	2	10 800

N/A: Data not available

2.5.3 Additional considerations on competitiveness of the market

SMEs

How the recycling industry is organised in a MS depends significantly upon government rules and regulations, and varies from an integrated system (such as that in Germany) to decentralised schemes (such as in France).

Many of these firms are relatively small. Reclaimers tend to be the smallest of the enterprises involved, even though they are at the heart of the recycling process, and reprocessing firms are typically SMEs in the range of 5,000 - 20,000 tonnes per annum (2005 data).¹⁰² The size of the companies involved at different stages of the recycling chain can be partly explained by the diversity of polymers and products, especially in comparison to other products like steel and aluminium, which results in a high degree of niche specialisation. Also, the investment necessary to launch a company in the recycling area appears relatively small.

However, due to their size, SMEs can experience difficulty maintaining profitability, considering the instability and volatility of recycled plastic prices. The larger size of the enterprises involved in virgin plastic production means that they are better able to smooth out profits and losses. The costs of collecting, sorting and transporting plastic waste to reprocessors can exceed revenue generated by the sale of the resulting recovered plastic waste. This can be supported to a certain extent by some form of subsidy or other financial contributions such as the payments made by national Green Dot organisms¹⁰³.

Market size and concentration

In Germany, some reprocessing SMEs report that their larger supplier (Green dot Sytems) have in the last years reduced the standard contract duration of supply of plastic waste from 1 to 2 years to a few months. This is probably a market strategy to adjust prices in the current market conditions of rising oil and virgin polymer prices. The consequence is that it becomes more and more difficult for these SMEs to sign long-

101 Pers. comm. with the National Association of Recyclers in Hungaria, based on 2009 and 2010 data

102 Ingham A., 2005. OECD study "Improving recycling markets, chapter 3

103 Green Dot is a producer responsibility system in the field of packaging. In each of the 27 Member States, organisms are founded by the business and industry community to assume industry's packaging waste take-back and recovery obligations.

term contracts of delivery of their product (pellets, flakes, regranulates, agglomerates) when there is so much uncertainty about the input. A growing number of such SMEs are closing down, or are being bought/overtaken by e.g. Green dot Systems, which then expand vertically their activity from the collection and sorting of packaging plastics, to the manufacture of the higher value-added regranulates, and the direct supply to converters.

Around 3,000 companies in Europe are active in the mechanical plastics recycling industry meaning that they use machines to shred, grind, wash, regenerate and/or compound¹⁰⁴. About 80% of the total volumes that are mechanically recycled are, however, processed by less than 100 companies, so elements of the market are more concentrated.

Most companies specialise in specific fields of the waste plastic stream, doing for example only PVC waste and others doing only PET bottles¹⁰⁴. However, some companies have links with either larger plastic converter groups or waste collection companies.

Comparison of virgin and recovered plastic market structure

Recovered plastics markets are still small and immature in comparison with the size of the market for virgin plastics. Currently, recovered plastics prices are not determined by production costs as they would be in an efficient market. Instead, recovered plastics prices are linked to the price of virgin plastics in the long run.

The fact that the supply of recovered plastic is not directly linked to demand indicates that the recovered plastic market is not self-standing, and may depend on variations in the virgin plastic market. Other factors preventing the maturation of the market are potentially the lack of sufficient supply or capacity. Plastic recyclers frequently suffer from a lack of plastic waste supply, especially since in some countries such as the UK, a large share of the waste plastic generated is not collected (and/or sorted) for recycling in the EU, but is exported to the Far East¹⁰⁵.

Only some markets are well-established. This is the case of recycled PET used in fibre (e.g. carpets, clothing and strapping), and of HDPE used in various applications

End-user perception¹⁰⁶

The use of recycled plastics by consumers is restricted by a negative perception of the quality of this material, affecting the development of recycled plastics market. However, this impact is lessened when the recycled plastic enters as an intermediate good, end-users being less aware (or not at all) of its presence.

The information chain and consumer perception play an important part in the achievement of a mature market for recycled plastics. As long as the information chain remains incomplete, and in the absence of market signals influencing consumers' perception, the market evolution will be slowed down. It has been detected that some

104 Life Project APPRICOD, Guide 'Towards Sustainable Plastic Construction and Demolition Waste Management in Europe'

105 EUPR, 2010, How to increase the mechanical recycling of post-user plastics, Strategy paper, p17, available at:

www.plasticsrecyclers.eu/uploads/media/eupr/HowIncreaseRecycling/1265184667EUPR_How_To_Increase_Plastics_Recycling_FINAL_low.pdf

106 Ingham A., 2005. Improving recycling markets, chapter 3, OECD

recyclers are still unaware that REACH/CLP exempts waste from some requirements such as registration, but not all. Foremost are the need of thorough characterisation of the output in order to check if the material is hazardous or not, and the need to communicate down the supply chain the presence of any hazardous substance.

Beyond their perception, but also fed by the lack of compliance of some recyclers as mentioned above, buyers may be wary of entering the market because they do not have full information about the quality of the final product manufactured from recycled materials. In efficient markets such information is diffused effectively as market participants monitor the choices of other agents. However, for new products there may be significant lags before diffusion of information is clearly established.

Additionally, in the absence of market signals which reflect the benefits of recyclability, product design will be inefficient. Such problems may be particularly important in the plastic packaging area.

To control this instability, some recyclers have called for legislative changes such as the introduction of a minimum required percentage of recycled material in PET bottles. This could help the market to grow in maturity by ensuring outlets and hence increase demand and modify consumer perception. It is worth noting that some big companies producing drinking bottles have already started to implement this requirement and incorporate a large fraction of recycled PET in their production process¹⁰⁷.

An initiative geared towards establishing confidence in the supply chain is the project EuCertPlast, aiming at creating a European certification for post-consumer plastics recyclers towards the European Standard EN 15343:2007. The project aims also at encouraging environmental compliance, particularly focusing on the process for traceability and assessment of conformity and recycled content of recycled plastics.

According to the information collected and presented above, it seems there is still need for a better communication of the obligations for recyclers under REACH, herewith providing accurate information of the chemical composition of marketed substances and products, and how these obligations are made operational by the industry.

2.6 Economic and market aspects of plastic recycling

2.6.1 Costs of plastic recycling

The main factors affecting the profitability of recycling include the price paid to the collector or intermediate processor, the processing costs, and the selling price.

The price paid to the collector is dependent on the collection method used and the distance from generation to the recycler. Processing costs are determined by the quality of the material, the type of polymer, as well as by the facility and the types of technologies used.

107 Victory M., Recycled PET market hit by downturn, available at: www.icis.com/Articles/2009/06/22/9225435/recycled-pet-market-hit-by-downturn.html

Vertical integration and economies of scale existing in virgin polymer production are not generally available to operators of the plastic recycling chain, which makes their margins narrower.

Costs of collection

The costs of collection vary widely depending on the collection system. For instance, in UK collection fees of material by a business or exporter (on an ex-works basis) can range from EUR17 to EUR40 per tonne depending on material quality, volume, location and transport costs¹⁰⁸.

Separated pre-consumer waste is relatively cheap to handle, as the main cost involved relates to collection with low additional costs, and the amounts are generally large. Collection costs from households are considerably higher, but vary according to whether an urban or rural area is involved¹⁰⁹.

A 2004 study¹¹⁰ states that the costs of selective collection systems currently range from between EUR50 per tonne (for PVC windows) to EUR800 per tonne (for EPS). Costs differences result from differences between schemes (kerbside collection, drop-off collection points, combination of both etc.).

Prices paid to intermediate actors in the supply chain

For high quality material, reproprocessors may find direct suppliers, or pay to intermediates such as brokers. The exact terms of contracts negotiated between sellers and intermediates as well as between intermediates and buyers are at their discretion and rely on pricing references only to a certain extent, especially in the field of recycled plastics where prices and certain market are unstable and fragile.

For mixed grades, it is normally the opposite: reproprocessors can charge producers of plastic waste for treating their material. This depends very much on which are the alternatives, which then depends on the local/regional fess for disposal and incineration. The level of taxation ranges very widely in the EU. A plastic waste producer has three basic options:

(1) Landfilling. In some MS, the landfilling of combustible waste is banned. In others, it is regulated by market instruments, normally through taxes on top of the treatment cost (gate fees). The gate fees vary largely in the EU, from EUR 3 per tonne in BG to up to EUR 107.49 per tonne in NL. In 2012, the total typical charge for landfill (i.e. the tax plus the middle of the range of gate fees) to landfill one tonne of municipal waste in the EU ranged from EUR 17.50 in LT to up to EUR 155.50 in SE¹¹¹. Once the transport costs are factored in, there is little incentive in MS with low landfilling costs to send the plastic material to recycling. The higher the landfill charge, the larger is the negotiation margin

¹⁰⁸ Information available at: www.letsrecycle.com/prices/plastics/

¹⁰⁹ Bacon P. and associates, 2008. Examination of impact of recent price collapse in markets for recycle materials and required intervention

¹¹⁰ APME, ECVI, EUPR, EUPC, 2004, Waste Plastics Recycling – A good practices guide by and for local and regional authorities

¹¹¹ EC 2012

between waste plastic producers and recyclers to find a price to pay the recycler which is below the landfilling fee.

(2) Incineration. The same diversity of fee ranges is observed as with landfilling¹¹², the values ranging between 45 and 175 EUR/tonne, with 6 MS including a tax. Most waste plastic is a valuable fuel, with a relatively high calorific value (30-38 GJ/tonne). The energy cost is normally set by brown coal prices, which in the EU have been in the last decade around 3-4 EUR /GJ. This means that plastic with the appropriate ash composition and particle size has an energy value of as alternative fuel of 90-100 EUR/tonne. Sales have been reported of agglomerates with 20% impurity content to metal works and cement plants at a price of 80 EUR/tonne. Sometimes, the calorific value is even indicated clearly in the specification data sheets of these agglomerates (e.g. >32 MJ/kg).

(3) Recycling. Normally, this waste treatment option has no artificial tax or fee determined by waste policy instruments. The treatment cost depends on the degree of cleaning, see Table 2.26, and can be as simple as grinding and size homogenisation into a free-flowing material (10-20 EUR/tonne) that can be transported in a compact form.

From the options above, it is clear that depending on the disposal and incineration alternatives in the place of origin of waste plastic, and the distance and transport costs (see below), reprocessors of mixed grades can negotiate a variety of gate fees with the plastic producers, ranging from zero to almost 100 EUR/tonne for almost the same type of material. This gives a large margin for lowering the price of the output product compared to the pure operation cost (100 EUR/tonne, see sections below).

Costs of transport

These are highly dependent on local conditions, but are estimated to be around EUR27 – 45 per tonne in the EU in 2004 (see Figure 2.27, Figure 2.28 and Figure 2.29 below).¹¹³ Figure 2.29. EU transport of plastic waste, weight carried by trucks¹¹⁴).

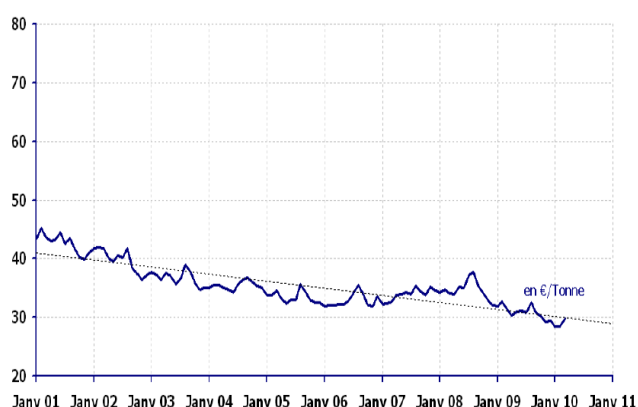


Figure 2.27. EU costs of transport of plastic waste in EUR /tonne¹¹⁴

¹¹² EC 2012

¹¹³ Recyclage-Récupération, 19th-24th May 2010,

¹¹⁴ Valorplast, 2nd quarter 2010, Votre partenaire pour le recyclage des emballages plastiques

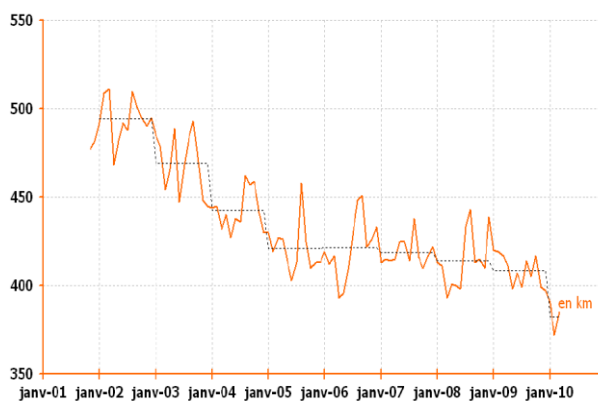


Figure 2.28. EU transport of plastic waste, distances covered in kilometres ¹¹⁴

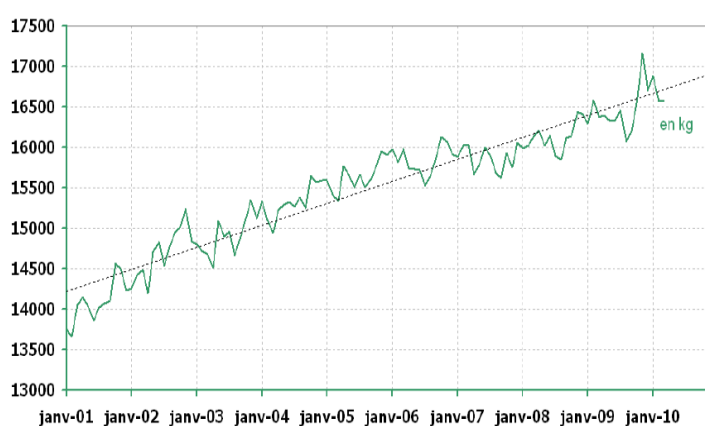


Figure 2.29. EU transport of plastic waste, weight carried by trucks ¹¹⁴

Costs of sorting

In 2004, the costs of sorting ranged from EUR50 per tonne to around EUR200 per tonne (HDPE bottles). Similarly to collection costs, improvements in current technologies, and development in new automated technologies will predictably decrease costs¹¹⁵.

Costs of disposal of rejects

The cost of disposal of material rejected from waste plastic reprocessing amounts to around EUR 10-220 per tonne. This cost might have increased recently pursuant to the raise of landfilling taxes and levies applied in many Member States. However, as collection, sorting and processing technologies become more efficient before the material reaches the plants, the quantity of reject material generated by reprocessors is predicted to decrease¹¹⁵, and would increase upstream.

Costs of recycling and pre-treatment

Recycling and pre-treatment costs vary widely depending on the type of technology used and on the polymer recycled.

¹¹⁵ APME, ECVM, EUPR, EUPC, 2004, Waste Plastics Recycling – A good practices guide by and for local and regional authorities

Table 2.25 below gives an overview of the average costs of recycling in Scotland and highlights the margin currently available for paying for the operations involved by recycling.

Table 2.25. Comparative price for plastic products and material used in Scotland, 2004¹¹⁶

Recovered Material	Cost (EUR/tonne)	Sale value as product (EUR/tonne)
HDPE, separated, baled	85-155	2055
LDPE Silage wrap	Zero or gate fee charged	720
Mixed plastic	0-40	360

In France, for 1 tonne of clean separated plastic waste, free of contamination (<1%), the following average costs have been described: EUR150 for crushing; EUR152 for washing and drying; EUR150 for micronisation (when needed) and EUR230 for granulation. Pre-treatment and recycling costs amount to an average of EUR682.

In Germany, the transformation in dry phase (i.e. no washing) of pre-sorted plastic packaging from separate collection bins, including shredding, grinding, air separation, metal separation, dry cleaning, shaping and agglomerating, sieving, storing and loading of agglomerates costs about EUR100.

2.6.2 Costs of regulatory compliance and administrative work

For the purpose of their activity, recyclers and reprocessors have to support various administrative costs arising at different steps of the recycling chain.

Recycling licences / fees

In England and Wales the charges in 2009/2010 for registering as a transporter or as a broker of controlled waste were: Registration: EUR172; renewal of registration: EUR118; registration of a carrier who is already registered as a broker of controlled waste: EUR45¹¹⁷. Brokers or dealers arrange the collection, recycling, recovery or disposal of controlled waste on behalf of another person, without ever taking possession of or storing the waste.¹¹⁸

In Germany, cost of SME licenses for waste treatment can vary largely, from 100 to 10.000 EUR depending on the plant size and location, with averages around 4-5.000 EUR¹¹⁹. These require initial inspection and are valid for 2-10 years, with yearly renewal fees reported to be much less costly (1/10 to 1/20 of the initial cost). The cost of the license is often linked (e.g. by a percentage, normally <1%) to the amount of the

¹¹⁶ Pringle R.T. and Dr Barker M. B., Napier University Edinburgh, (2004). Starting a waste Plastic recycling business, p 53.

¹¹⁷ Respectively £152, £104 and £40. The conversion is based on the exchange rate of the 15/04/2010. Available at: www.exchangerate.com/

¹¹⁸ Netregs, Waste brokers and dealers: what you need to do, available at: www.netregs.gov.uk/netregs/111708.aspx

¹¹⁹ German UBA (Janz, Jaron, Schmid-Unterseh, 2014, pers comm

investment needed for transformation to waste operation. In some cases, little or no transformation is needed.

Costs of exports

In Ireland, exporters must pay a fixed annual fee on green and amber listed waste shipped¹²⁰. Plastics are generally included in the green list unless it is mixed with other material or contaminated by dangerous substances. For this category of waste the fee amounts to EUR250 per year, plus EUR0.60 per tonne of waste shipped¹²¹.

Similar charges are paid in other MS. There is one charge per notification which is payable when the notification is made. The charge depends on whether the waste is being imported or exported to/from the MS; the purpose of the shipment, whether it is for recovery or disposal and the band into which the number of shipments included in the notification falls. The cost for a shipment of waste from UK for non-interim recovery amounts to EUR1970¹²².

In France, since 2009 the General Tax on Pollutant Activities applies also to waste exporters, except if the waste is shipped to be recycled¹²³. In 2010, the tax was between EUR3.5 and EUR7 per tonne for waste shipped in a country to be treated in an incineration plant, and will rise every year (EUR8-14 per tonne in 2015). The tax aims at reducing waste disposal and transboundary shipments of waste.

On the other hand, two other Member States' experts interviewed (Sweden, Belgium) declared that there was no specific fee to be paid by waste exporters in their own MS¹²⁴ (although export taxes are paid in Belgium).

Request for food contact authorisation

The National Authority shall give an opinion within six months of receipt of a valid application as to whether or not a recycling process complies with the conditions laid down in Article 4¹²⁵ of Regulation 282/2008/EC on recycled plastic materials and articles intended to come into contact with foods. After that step, a request must be submitted to European Food Safety Agency (EFSA).

120 Pers. comm. Mrs. Connolly from the Irish organism 'Rx3'

121 Dublin City Council, Revised Charging Structure for Amber and Green listed Waste, available at: www.dublincity.ie/WaterWasteEnvironment/Waste/WasteCollectors/National_TFS_Office/Pages/RevisedChargingStructureforAmberandGreenListedWaste.aspx

122 The Transfrontier Shipments of Waste Regulation 2007, Charges in England and Wales payable to the Environment Agency, available at: www.environment-agency.gov.uk/static/documents/Business/relevant_fees_1778235.pdf. The conversion is based on the exchange rate of 15/04/2010, available at: www.exchangerate.com/

123 Chambre de Commerce et d'industrie de Paris, Taxe générale sur les activités polluantes (TGAP) appliquée à l'élimination et au transfert des déchets, available at: www.environnement.ccip.fr/Transversal/Aides-et-taxes/Dechets/Taxes-dans-le-domaine-des-dechets/Dechets-menagers-et-assimiles/TGAP-Elimination-et-transfert-de-dechets

124 Pers. comm. with FTIAB in Sweden (Swedish Green dot organism), and Geminicorp in Belgium

125 Commission Regulation 282/2008/EC of 27 March 2008 on recycled plastic materials and articles intended to come into contact with foods and amending Regulation (EC) No 2023/2006, available at: eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:2008:086:0009:0018:EN:PDF

France Plastique Recyclage (PET recycling company) provided an overview of the authorisation process at the French national level. The French Food Safety Agency (AFSSA) has set up a test based on strict standards assessing each step of the recycling process i.e. collection, sorting, regeneration, decontamination etc. The candidate must comply with this test and obtain a certification to go further and solicit the European authorisation. According to the certification document ('Avis') emitted by the Agency¹²⁶, evidence has to be provided by the candidate regarding each stage of the industrial process at which a quality control is done, and particularly the regeneration phase (washing, crushing) during which possible contaminants must be removed. Costs cannot be precisely estimated since they are dependent on the purchase of high quality machines, increased quality controls (e.g. spectrometry/chromatography to ensure the absence of substances non-listed in the PIM-Regulation. 10/2011), and to a certain extent on paperwork.

Costs of compliance with REACH

One of the obligations under REACH that EoW material (substances and mixtures, but not articles) would have to fulfil is the creation of Safety Data Sheets for recyclates. This obligation is difficult to formulate in the precise form required, as recyclers do not receive the necessary REACH-related information when buying their input material, and the input stream constantly varies in composition¹²⁷. The costs of compliance with REACH are mostly linked to the precise characterisation of the material, identification of substances, and the creation of safety data sheets. This administrative burden entails costs, but they are currently centralised through the European EuPC and EuPR associations, and are not considered as 'major' by some recyclers¹²⁸.

2.6.3 Prices

2.6.3.1 General price considerations

The prices for waste plastic are largely determined by the price of finished plastic and the products. Other elements influencing waste plastic prices are:

- Availability - which depends on the collection scheme, and the patterns of consumption;
- Quality – depends on the collection scheme and the technology for separation;
- International demand of plastic products;
- International demand of waste plastic, trade quotas, shipping costs;
- Price of oil;
- Legislation constraints – administrative burdens, pollution abatement requirements for plastic production;
- Costs of alternative outlets to recycling.

Starting from collection, the purchase costs can be positive or negative (meaning the collection origin has to pay for collection and recycling), depending on the purchase contract, some including price guarantees (e.g. large commercial sources). As long as the costs of the

¹²⁶ AFSSA, April 2009. Avis, available at: www.afssa.fr/Documents/MCDA2008sa0374.pdf

¹²⁷ Recycler demand reforms to maintain the sustainability of plastic recycling, February 2010, available at: www.britishplastics.co.uk/x/guideArchiveArticle.html?id=32723

¹²⁸ Pers. comm.. with Mark Burstall, from the British Plastic Federation Recycling Council Ltd

alternatives (landfill/incineration/other) exceed the costs of waste plastic collection and reprocessing, there is an economic basis for waste plastic recycling.

In most cases the profit margin and the net price (free delivered sales price minus outbound transport costs) are the main drivers for deciding where waste plastic is sold to. Like any other commodity, waste plastic is delivered to the best bidder. In some cases, specific waste plastic grades can have limited outlets because only a few plants can use it in their plastic conversion process.

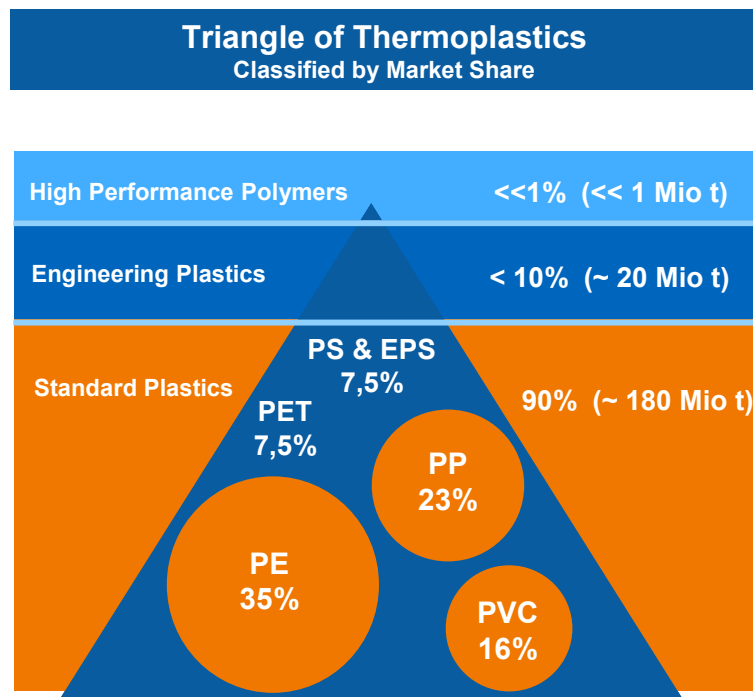
In principle, there is no difference between domestic and exported waste plastic quality. In practice, absence of domestic capacity to treat low quality material can result in large export to countries with lenient quality requirements for waste plastic, e.g. mixed plastic from UK comingled facilities. As a consequence of this, the exported material can on average be of worse quality than the domestic. The demand of given qualities of waste plastic strongly depend on the targeted quality of the plastic producer's finished products, and the production techniques. Reprocessors and merchants are continuously looking for markets and good price opportunities. Other reasons for outlet management of waste plastic are e.g. risk spread, logistic optimization, or exchange rates.

The price setting is usually based on standard grades (mostly based on business-to-business specifications). Experts mention that the price-setting mechanism described is not expected to change significantly for waste plastic that has ceased to be waste.

2.6.3.2 Waste plastic prices

Virgin plastics

Figure 2.30 below depicts the market shares and prices of different (virgin) plastic types worldwide. Naturally, the largest shares correspond to the most affordable plastic types, widely used in packaging (PE, PP, PVC, PS).



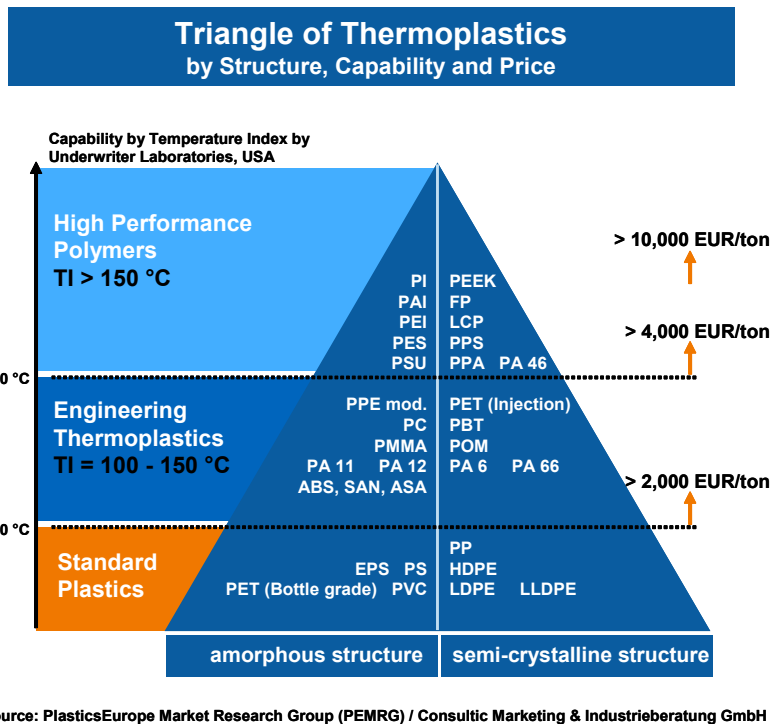


Figure 2.30. World market shares and prices of plastics

Recyclates

A list of sorted waste plastic prices in Germany in 2009 is provided in Table 2.26. The list displays the prices of waste plastic material of different types before further reprocessing into recyclates.

Table 2.26. Prices of some waste plastic grades before reprocessing– Germany, November 2009 (EUR/tonne)

Plastic type	Nov 2009	Oct 2009	Aug 2009
PE Production waste			
HDPE coloured	300 - 450	300 - 450	300 - 450
HDPE clear	400 - 530	400 - 530	400 - 530
LDPE coloured	250 - 400	250 - 400	250 - 400
LDPE clear	330 - 430	350 - 450	350 - 450
PE Post user			
PE Film: Transparent	250 - 305	240 - 280	300 - 335
PE Film: Transparent (coloured)	20 - 70	20 - 70	20 - 100

In the UK (Table 2.27 and Table 2.28), for the same type of plastic waste, the prices are different depending on whether the material is sold on the domestic market or exported ¹²⁹.

¹²⁹ Information available at: www.letsrecycle.com/prices/plastics/

Table 2.27. Prices of some waste plastic grades, baled, for domestic UK market ¹³⁰

Waste plastic film type for recycling	March 2010 (EUR/tonne)
Printed/coloured	260 – 300
Clear/Natural	365 – 410

Table 2.28. Prices of some waste plastic grades, baled, for export from the UK ¹³⁰

Waste plastic film grade for recycling (clear film/coloured film ratio)	February 2010 (EUR/tonne)	March 2010 (EUR/tonne)
80/20	105 - 140	90 - 125
90/10	205 - 250	195 - 240
95/5	250 - 290	240 - 285
98/2	285 - 355	285 - 345

Ground or crushed waste plastic (PE/PP) prices range between 20 and 530 EUR/tonne in the EU, depending on many factors such as the polymer type, the source (pre- or post-consumer), and the degree of cleanliness of contaminants. The average price difference between sorted waste plastic prior dry cleaning and flakes/aggregates is of between 100 and 200 EUR/tonne¹³¹, and of 200-400 EUR/tonne if compared to washed and melted and filtered material, e.g. regranulates. These values reflect the value added by the reprocessing industry through sorting, cleaning, and purifying the material.

Recycled polymer prices compared to virgin polymer prices

The current price of virgin plastics is around 1200 EUR/tonne for primary PE and PP polymers, and the price of secondary plastics is between 600 and 800 EUR/tonne for secondary PE and PP.

Table 2.29 **Error! Reference source not found.** below provides some further examples from the US market.

Table 2.29. Polymer pricing of recycled plastics, 2010 (EUR/ tonne) ¹³²

Polymer/Grade	Clean regrind or flake	Pellets
HDPE		
Natural, post-consumer	616– 680	778 - 843
Mixed colours, post-consumer	421 - 519	583- 681

¹³⁰ Information available at: www.letsrecycle.com/prices/plastics/

Prices expressed in GBP have been converted in Euro according to the exchange rate of the 16th of April 2010, available at: www.exchangerate.com

¹³¹ Information available at: www.plasticsnews.com/polymer-pricing/recycled-plastics.html

Prices have been converted in Euro per tonne for prime polymer, unfilled, natural color, FOB supplier. The conversion is based on the exchange rate of the 5th of February 2010, 1USD = 0,73 Euro, available at: www.exchangerate.com/)

¹³² Information available at: www.plasticsnews.com/polymer-pricing/recycled-plastics.html

Prices have been converted in Euro per tonne for prime polymer, unfilled, natural colour, FOB supplier. The conversion is based on the exchange rate of the 5th of February 2010, 1USD = 0,73 Euro, available at: www.exchangerate.com/)

Mixed colours, industrial	438 - 551	567 - 681
HMW-HDPE film, post-consumer	--	437 - 502
LLDPE stretch film	--	437 - 502
Clear, post-consumer	--	535 - 632
Coloured, post-consumer	340 - 405	437 - 502

The information on value added through the different cleaning steps is summarised in Table 2.30 below.

Table 2.30. Value added of some treatment steps

Treatment step	Treatment cost range (EUR/tonne)	Price of output after treatment step (EUR/tonne)
Input		
- Pre-sorted mixed packaging		-80-50 (often negative, i.e. gate fees)
- Pre-consumer (see examples in Table 2.26 Table 2.27, Table 2.28)		100-400
Dry treatment to regrinds or agglomerates (shredding, grinding, air separation, metal separation, dry cleaning, shaping and agglomerating, sieving, storing and loading)	100-150	Unwashed agglomerates: 50-150 Unwashed regrind: 50-200
Wet treatment to washed agglomerates (idem to above plus washing and drying)	150-200	Washed agglomerates: 250-450 Washed regrind: 250-950
Micronisation (mostly hard PVC)	~150	
Melt filtration, pelletising	~100-230	Pellets (=regranulates): 350 – 1400 (500-800 for most PE, PP and polyolefin mixtures)
References:		
-Plastic fluff and other high calorific material for energy recovery:		70-120 (3-4 €/GJ)
-Virgin pellets (see also Figure 2.30):		1000-1500
-PE, PP, bottle grade PET -Engineering plastics:		1500-2500

As with any other recyclable material, purer forms of waste plastic offer greater opportunities for market development, while mixed waste plastic has higher contamination and currently offers lower potential profit for recyclers.

Recycled plastics of all types and grades were hit by the 2008 crisis and consequently prices decreased substantially. However, in 2009 and 2010, prices have recovered their initial levels and in cases exceeded them, although for some polymers prices are still below their 2007 level.

Waste plastic price trends

Figure 2.31 provides an illustration of the evolution of average prices for certain regrind plastic polymers between 2001 and 2007. Natural (non-returnable) PET in bales has undergone the greatest increase (approximately a EUR200 rise, from a starting price of just over EUR50 in 2002), while the other waste plastic types have increased by similar amounts (around EUR100 to EUR150). A general fall in prices is noticed between 2001 and 2002, and have also repeated in year 2008 (see Figure 2.32).

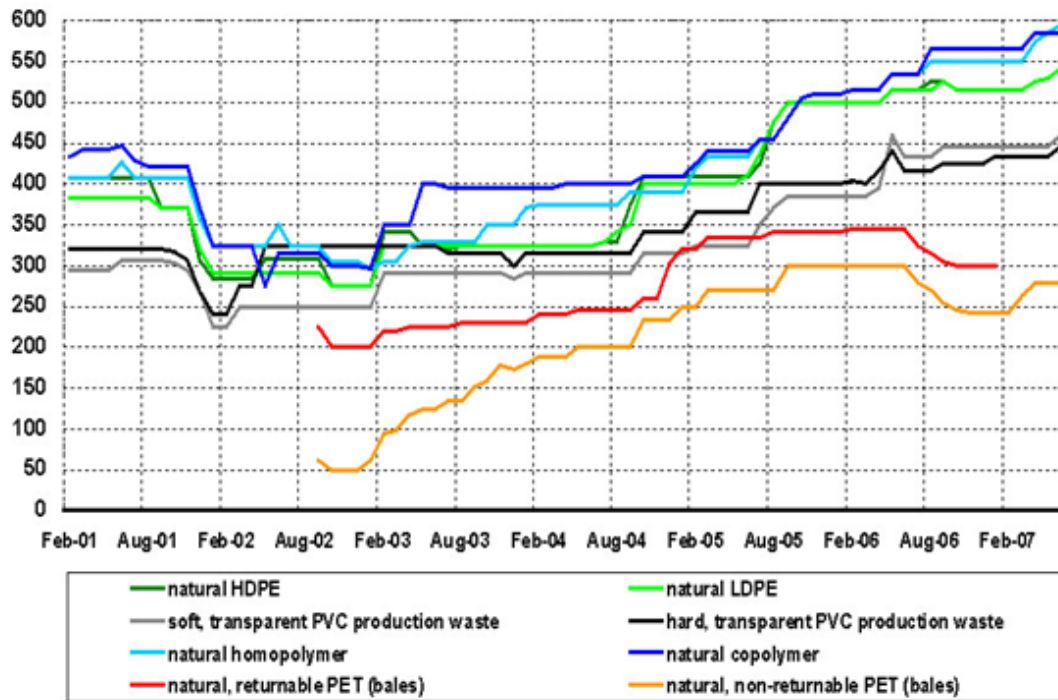


Figure 2.31. Evolution of average prices for some waste plastics (grinding stock) in Germany 2001 – 2007 in EUR/tonne

Figure 2.32 shows the prices of clear and light blue PET bottles between 2002 and 2010. The red line corresponds to highest prices paid for one tonne of material at a given date while the blue line refers to the lowest prices.

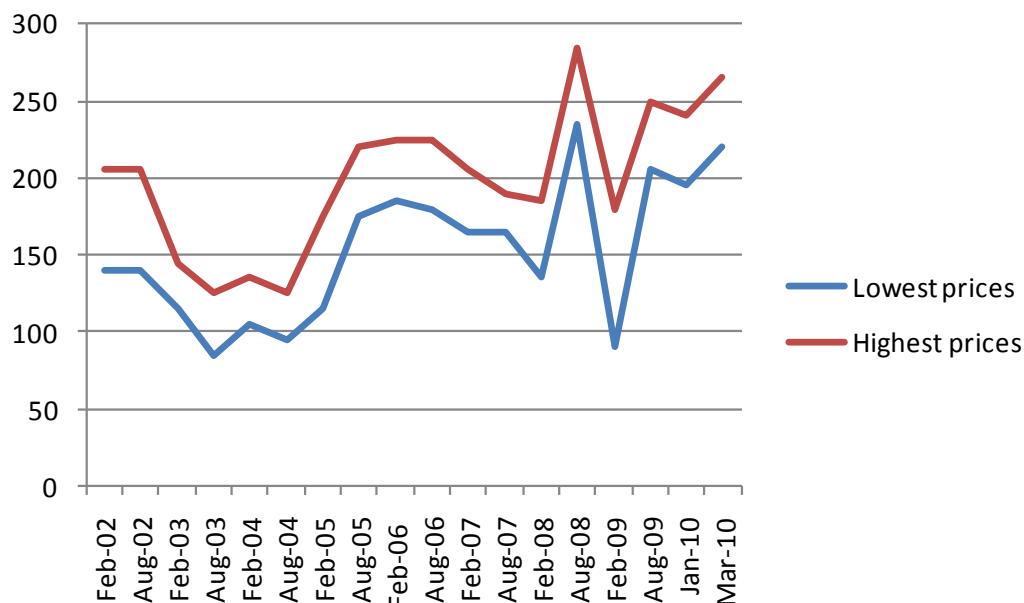


Figure 2.32. Evolution of prices of clear PET bottles on the UK market between 2002 and 2010, in EUR/tonne¹³³

Figure 2.33 shows the prices of single colour/natural HDPE film between 2002 and 2010. The red line corresponds to highest prices paid for one tonne of material at a given date while the blue line refers to the lowest prices.

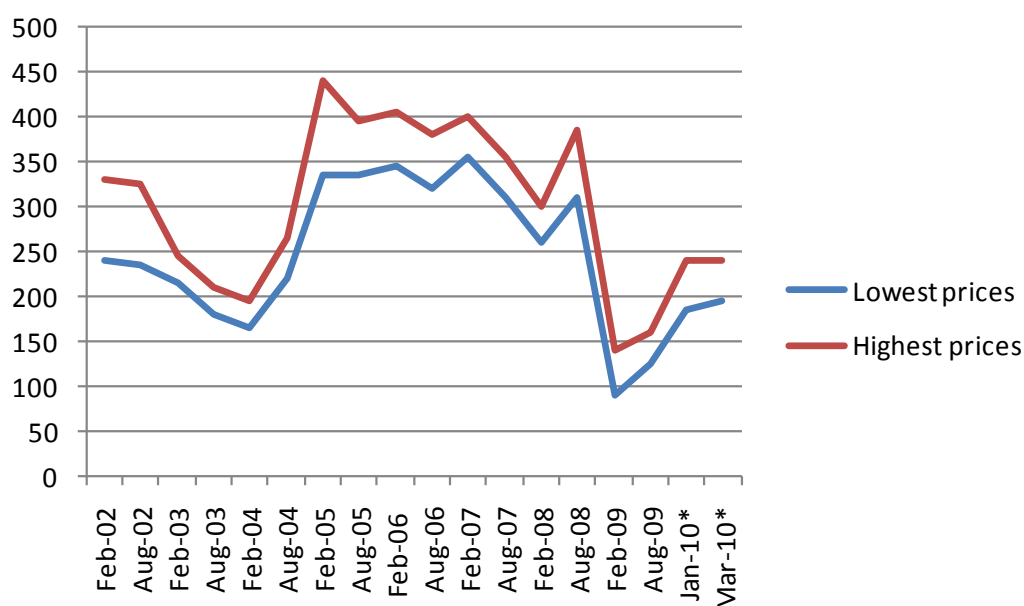


Figure 2.33.: Evolution of prices of single colour/natural HDPE film on the UK market between 2002 and 2010, in EUR/tonne¹³⁴ In 2010 : prices for the export market

¹³³ Prices have been extracted from the following website: letsrecycle.com. Conversion to €/tonne has been calculated using annual currency rates.

¹³⁴ Prices have been extracted from the following website: letsrecycle.com. Conversion to EUR/tonne has been calculated using annual currency rates

Impact of the duration of contracts

Some experts underline that price also depends on the kind of agreements made with buyers. If waste plastic bales are sold within the framework of long term contracts (covering a period of 3 to 4 years), the prices paid are rather stable, based on official market price references for virgin plastic polymers, and respect a bottom price. On the other hand, short term contracts are more subject to price variations, but seem on the increase after 2008, responding to the suppliers' pressure in order to benefit from raising oil prices.

Figure 2.34 below shows indexed variations of prices between 2007 and 2009 compared to the base year's prices (100 in year 2005) for virgin and recycled plastics: the two graphs can be compared to each other in terms of price variation but not in terms of prices as such. As an example, during the 4th semester 2007, virgin plastic prices had increased by 30.6% compared to their 2005 level while recycled plastic prices increased by 87% compared to their 2005 level. The figure illustrates clearly the link between virgin and recycled plastic prices. Indeed when virgin plastic have been high, recycled plastic prices have also been high. Following the financial crisis, prices of both materials fell sharply.

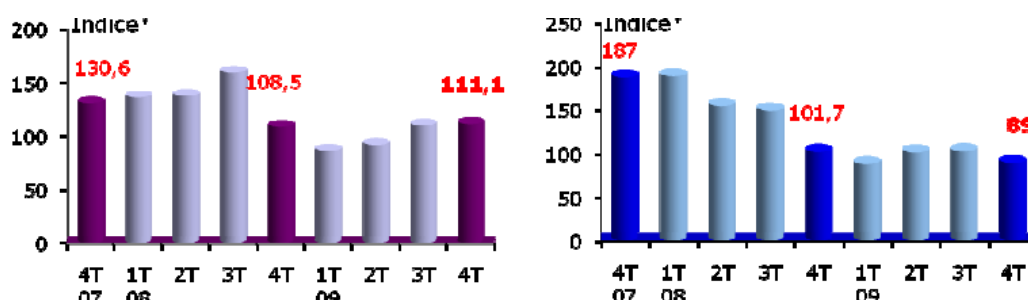


Figure 2.34. FEDEREC Recycling Observatory, 4th quarter 2009, Price Index¹³⁵. Left: virgin plastic price index, right: recycled plastic price index.

2.6.3.3 Recycled plastic price volatility

Waste plastic markets are volatile, and prices have ranged from 50 to 500 EUR per tonne of the most traded grades in the last 10 years, with prices as high as 1400 EUR per tonne being recorded at peak demand periods for the finest regranulate qualities. Updated prices of most grades are widely available in most countries, and historical records of the 5-10 main traded grades are also available.

The supply markets for waste plastic are, in economic terms, inelastic. Demand and supply do not adjust quickly to price signals and to other changes in market conditions. This is a main reason for price volatility. Because much of the waste plastic collection is part of political commitments and targets, particularly in Europe, supply will continue irrespective of the price of waste plastic (i.e., the European supply is relatively price inelastic). In case of a negative demand shock it is conceivable, although unlikely, that prices of low grade waste plastic

¹³⁵ FEDEREC, 4th quarter 2009, Observatoire de la récupération, du recyclage et de la valorisation. Prices are in base 100 : 2005

could fall to levels below the cost of collection and reprocessing, requiring intervention to ensure that the political commitments and/or recycling targets are achieved. Demand is to a lesser degree inelastic, as plastic manufacturing plants are larger entities.

Collection and apparent consumption of waste plastic are getting closer, and stocks of plastics are becoming increasingly tight in the EU. This 'real time' operation mode is apparently in conflict with the logistics of international container shipping, contributing to price instability and encouraging broker speculation. Such speculation is fed additionally by the opportunistic behaviour repeatedly observed in some large buyers with large stock capacity, e.g. in China, which instead of supporting long-term purchase contracts prefer to follow prices and buy large amounts for storage when prices plunge. This ensures them short term production at a low price, but once operations are completed reverts in price peaks and preserved volatility for the rest of the market.

As described in a report published by NAPCOR in 2001¹³⁶, '2001 saw the U.S. markets for PET bottle bales dominated for the first three quarters by North American buyers and then by Chinese buyers during the fourth quarter. A strong economy allowed North American buyers to push prices to levels that forced Chinese buyers out of the market for a short period of time in May. Conversely, the Chinese took advantage of the dramatic U.S. economic downturn in the fourth quarter to purchase large quantities of bales at the lowest prices in years. It must be noted that during this period, competing Chinese buyers often drove prices higher while North American buyers were absent from the market.'

On the other hand, volatility is a short-term effect that does not mask background average prices of 400-600 EUR/tonne for the most traded grades (PE and PP regranulates), which together with a progressive increase in the virgin polymer price since the turn of the century, has pushed recycled plastics demand internationally and has slowly expanded the sector. This has been witnessed since the beginning of statistics collection.

Another important element in the market assessment is the cost trend of the alternatives to waste plastic recycling. With the development of stricter waste management legislation, often containing economic instruments, the access to alternatives at the bottom of the waste hierarchy are being made difficult through bans (e.g. on landfilling of biodegradable, recyclable and in some countries also combustible waste) or are penalised with gradually increasing taxes and fees. This scenario adjusts environmental externalities previously non-tackled and welcomes recycling of what is feasible to recycle.

There is still much to do, as only about 60% of the plastics consumed in the EU are collected as waste, and still half of the collected waste plastics are disposed of. However, most high grades are already tapped, and as new lower quality waste plastics arise and the technology to sort them develops, larger amounts of low grades (50-70 EUR/t) arise, increasing competition between energy uses and recycling. Only policy action or a higher demand for recyclates, combined with stable energy prices, may favour recycling over incineration.

136 NAPCOR, 2001 Report on Post-consumer PET Container Recycling Activity Final Report

2.6.3.4 Recycled plastics prices are linked to virgin plastics prices

In cases where waste plastics and virgin polymers are considered substitute goods, the demand for one will depend on the price of the other, which means that the two markets will need to be considered as parallel. This case will occur when the quality of recycled plastic can compete with the quality of virgin plastic and can therefore perfectly substitute it. Thus forces driving demand in one market will affect the other market. However, in many cases and for many uses, recycled plastic (depending on the polymer type, grade and quality) is an imperfect substitute for virgin material. It is worth noting that the financial viability of recycling firms will be dependent on this relationship between waste plastic and virgin plastic.

Impact of virgin plastic demand on recycled plastics prices

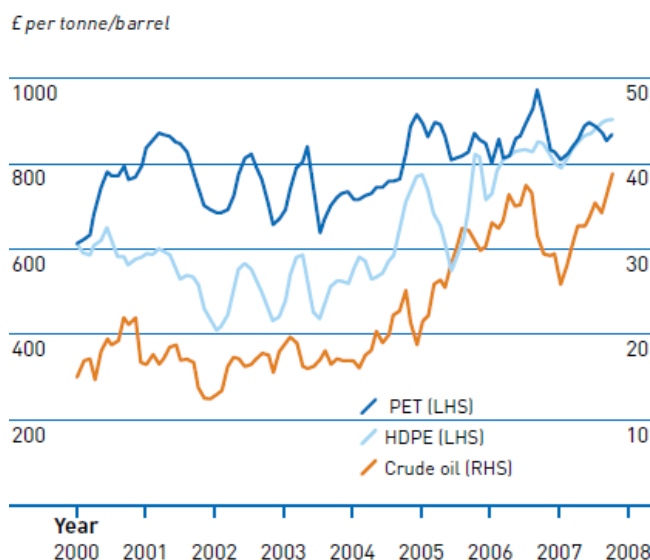
The recycled plastic market widely depends on the residual demand that is left unsatisfied after the supply of virgin material at the equilibrium price.

Capacity in the virgin polymer industry can sometimes be limited in the short-run. In this situation buyers will compensate the lack of virgin polymer supply with recycled material, in order to achieve the new equilibrium quantity. The cause can be a higher market price. The example of historical exports of waste plastic material from the USA to China is a good illustration¹³⁷.

When there is excess capacity in the virgin polymer industry, recycled material will only compete to the extent that it can be supplied in matching quality at the same or lower cost, or provide a level of quality which is lower but acceptable at a lower price (i.e. there is a trade-off).

As a consequence of this excess capacity, the use of recycled material can become marginal in cases where polymer prices decline sharply. Virgin polymer prices are pushed down due to the structure of the industry and the competition within it, which is desirable for competition in the virgin polymer sector but has negative impacts on the plastic recycling sector.

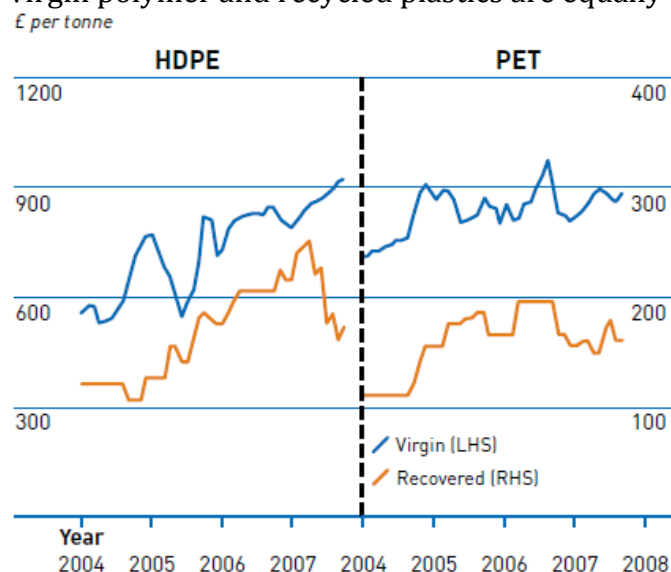
137 Ingham A., 2005. Improving recycling markets, chapter 3



Sources: www.pieweb.com, EIA and Bank of England.

Figure 2.35. Crude Oil and Virgin polymer prices in GBP per tonne^{138,139}

Figure 2.35 illustrates the link between oil prices and virgin plastic prices. The prices of virgin polymer and recycled plastics are equally correlated, see Figure 2.36 below.



Sources: www.pieweb.com, MPR and Bank of England.

Figure 2.36. Virgin and recovered polymer prices in GBP per tonne^{140,141}

138 WRAP, 2007. Market situation report – realising the value of recovered plastics

139 LHS: Left hand side, refers to the unit ‘£ per tonne’; RHS : Right hand side: refers to the unit ‘barrel’

140 WRAP, 2007. Market situation report – realising the value of recovered plastics

141 LHS : Left hand side, refers to the prices in £ per tonne for virgin plastics ; RHS : right hand side, refers to the prices in £ per tonne for recovered plastics

Table 2.31. Standard Deviation of Price divided by Mean Price¹⁴²

	USA	USA	UK	Germany
	Virgin	Recycled	Recycled	Recycled
HDPE Natural	0.15	0.19	0.26	0.14
HDPE Coloured	0.15	0.19	0.35	0.84
PET Natural	0.18	0.31	0.37	0.80
PET Coloured	0.18	0.29		
Polypropylene	0.16	0.24		0.12
Polystyrene	0.08	0.09		0.10
Mixed			0.92	2.85

Source: Calculated from Data for USA, - Plastics News, Recycling Times, UK - Materials Recycling Weekly, Germany - EUWID

Table 2.31 shows that according to data from USA, UK and Germany, virgin plastics prices are much less volatile than recycled plastics prices.

2.6.3.5 Impact of general economic conditions

After the significant fall in prices of oil and various raw material such as plastics resulting from the financial crisis in 2008, market started to recover slowly in 2009. Some plastics stockpiled at the end 2008, and were recycled during the first half of 2009¹⁴³. In October 2008, prices and volumes of exports of recovered plastics to China from the UK fell by between 40% and 60% due to a major decrease of Chinese demand. Prices have increased since then¹⁴⁴.

2.6.3.6 Impact of Chinese demand on recycled plastics prices

Chinese demand has a strong impact on recycled plastic prices, since it is one of the major importers of waste plastics. Plastic recycling in the UK, for example, is strongly dependent on the export market, with a large amount of demand for material coming from the Far East. WRAP (the Waste & Resources Action Programme) claims that dependence on the export market has grown nine-fold in the past seven years, which leaves the domestic market susceptible to overseas influence, and the influence that potential demand turndowns has on these markets¹⁴⁵.

2.7 Market size and future potential

Market trends have been analysed to provide a mid-term estimate of market potential for recyclable plastic waste. Data by types of polymers were not available and this section focuses mainly on the Asian market, since market reports about recyclable waste plastic generally focus on China, for reasons explained through the section.

¹⁴² Ingham A., 2005. Improving recycling markets, chapter 3

¹⁴³ Information available on EPRO Website: www.epro-plasticsrecycling.org/c_1_1.html

¹⁴⁴ WRAP, 2009. The Chinese markets for recovered paper and plastics

¹⁴⁵ Information available at: www.letsrecycle.com.

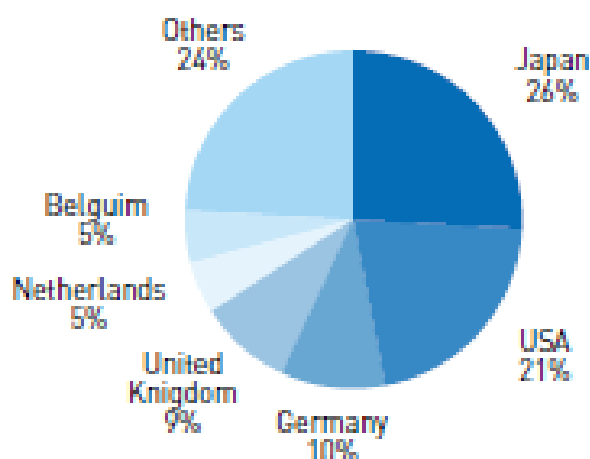
2.7.1 Nature of the supply

Waste plastic is generally exported in bales or equivalent conditioning to be recycled abroad. Waste plastic processing costs related to labour are much lower in Asia than in Europe. Consequently, if waste plastic is reprocessed within the EU, it will most likely be sold in Europe¹⁴⁶, as there is no additional subsequent labour-related processing involved.

2.7.2 Main suppliers and main users

As depicted in Figure 2.20, China has become one of the largest – often the largest – consumers of most primary commodities. This has extended beyond demand for virgin raw materials to demand for recyclable materials (i.e. waste plastic), which provide a key additional input resource¹⁴⁷. In 2006, China and Hong Kong were the destination of almost 90% of total EU waste plastic exports, with a total amount of 1.85 Mt¹⁴⁸, and this figure has reached 3.5Mt in 2010.

Year 2007 marked the first year in which Chinese traders purchased more US post-consumer PET bottles than did US reclaimers¹⁴⁹. The impacts of this are of no small consequence. US reclaimers have had to look to other countries, particularly in Central and South America, for the additional supply if they had to operate maximising the existing capacity.



Source: UNComtrade, 2007

Figure 2.37. Origin of world exports of waste plastics to China and Hong Kong¹⁴⁷

According to Figure 2.37, a number of Member States, USA and Japan are the largest exporters of waste plastics to China, including Hong Kong.

146 Pers. comm. with the waste plastic company 'Geminicorp', exporting waste plastic to China and India

147 WRAP, 2009. The Chinese markets for recovered paper and plastics

148 WRAP, 2006. UK Plastics Waste – A review of supplies for recycling, global market demand, future trends and associated risks

149 National Association for PET Container Resources (NAPCOR), 2007. Report on Post-consumer PET Container Recycling Activity, Final report

2.7.3 Strong demand from China¹⁵⁰

China's demand for waste plastic destined to be recycled grew rapidly during the last decade with total consumption rising to 15 Mt in 2007 from 4 Mt in 2000, overhauling the 6Mt figure of the EU27 in 2010. While the EU is self-supplied, imports of recovered plastics to China are estimated to 45% of the total Chinese consumption, having risen from 200 thousand tonnes in the mid-1990s to close to 7 Mt in 2007.

A number of reasons explain this, most notably the fast pace of economic growth and industrialisation of the country, resulting in rising packaging demand and insufficient domestic supply of virgin plastics, the rising prices for oils and plastic polymers leading China to use the less expensive recovered plastics.

These factors are evidently temporary. In a stable future scenario, these effects will level out and the picture is likely to resemble that of the EU, with a much larger domestic supply of waste plastics and recycling of domestic waste plastic supply. The question is when such stability will be reached. Pöyry has forecasted high growth in demand for recovered plastics in the long term, with demand expected to rise from 15 Mt in 2007 to around 45 Mt in 2015 and 85 Mt in 2020. On the supply side, by 2020, 37 Mt is seen as coming from imports with 48 Mt recovered from the waste stream in China.¹⁵¹

The positive perception of the market situation was corroborated by discussions with Chinese trade associations. Their expectation was in 2010 that demand and prices would continue to strengthen, albeit perhaps more modestly, at least for prices¹⁵².

China's trade regulations on waste plastic have become more stringent than in the past. For instance, imports of plastic films from household sources, such as post-consumer carrier bags, as well as agricultural films and fishing nets imports have been banned since March 2008. The impurity content is since 2006 on 0.5%¹⁵³. Additionally, the application of controls over the plastic recycling industry has become much tighter and many of the smaller companies have been forced to shut down as a result. The government of the Nanhai District in Fuoshan City in the Guangdong Province has closed all of the plastic recycling companies in the district. This reinforcement of controls operated by China are reported to have led to a transfer of exports from Europe to other Asian countries or regions less stringent about controls such as Hong Kong, Indonesia, Vietnam, and India.¹⁵⁴

¹⁵⁰ In this section, recovered plastic mean 'waste plastic destined to be recycled'

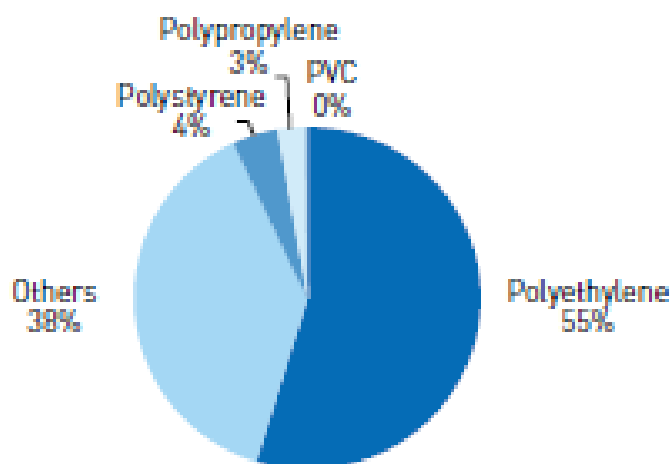
¹⁵¹ WRAP, 2009, The Chinese markets for recovered paper and plastics

¹⁵² Valpak consulting, 2010, Market sentiment survey of recovered fibre and recovered plastics reproprocessors in China

¹⁵³ National standard GB 16487.12-2005. State environmental protection administration of China (SEPA), 2006.

¹⁵⁴ According to a report by BCC Research

2.7.4 Composition of traded plastic



Source: HM Revenue and Customs, January-December 2008

Figure 2.38. Composition of UK exports of waste plastic to China in 2008 ¹⁴⁷

Figure 2.38 shows that the main type of plastic exported by the UK to China is PE. A 2008 market survey on about 100 Chinese plastic reproprocessors using material from the UK¹⁵⁵ revealed that plastic bottles and plastic films are the main types of waste plastic being reprocessed. The majority of Chinese reproprocessors turn these into intermediates for further reprocessing, for a variety of sectors including non-food plastic packaging and agricultural plastic films. 80% indicated that they produced re-compounded pellets. 15% produced plastic fibre, 9% produced plastic film, 5% produced clean flake and 3% produced a product other than plastic film or fibre. The survey indicated that the plastics market had recovered relatively well from the late 2008 downturn.

The survey respondents did not show a strong interest in sourcing plastic locally i.e. from the Chinese supply market, mostly due to significant differences in perception of quality by grade, with domestic film in particular being seen as low quality. To a certain extent, they reported that greater monitoring and enforcement of environmental legislation concerning factory operation and import controls had led to a need of choosing suppliers with greater care to ensure quality standards were high and consistent.

2.7.5 Plastic type market differences

A TNO report, commissioned by APME¹⁵⁶, identified a number of specific plastic flows that were economically profitable or needed only partial support in the early 2000s. These included:

- recycling of distribution and commercial films and crates (large profits)
- recycling of PET bottles (some profit)

¹⁵⁵ Valpak consulting, 2010. Market sentiment survey of recovered fibre and recovered plastics reproprocessors in China

¹⁵⁶ TNO, 2000. Best practices for the mechanical recycling of post-users plastics

- recycling of HDPE bottles, EPS packaging, PVC pipes and windows, agricultural films and mixed plastic (little profit)
- recycling of automotive bumpers (small or no profit)

Decisive criteria driving the 'score' allocated to each flow regarding its profitability (i.e. financial balance sheet) were the price of virgin plastic, quantities available, number of disposal options, contamination level, markets, substitution threat and recycling costs.

Although the development of the waste plastic markets has changed some of these parameters, this example does demonstrate the internal differences in the plastic types.

2.8 Technical specifications and standards

The objective of this section is to identify the existing quality standards and technical requirements for waste plastic, recyclates and recycled plastic end-uses. Such information is required, as in order to comply with condition (c) of Article 6 of the Directive, the recycled plastic should meet all technical standards applicable to the material.

Technical specifications and standards are needed and are widely used in the industry to create references for price-setting, for classification, and for quality control.

Of particular interest for the formulation of end-of-waste criteria are technical specifications and standards referring to the environmental and health properties of the waste plastic material, including:

- Physical-chemical composition
- Content of impurities
- Physical size and shape
- Homogeneity, i.e. the variation within the given specification
- Grading and classification of consignments
- Safety requirements.

Two main groups of technical specifications have been detected in the waste plastic sector:

- Specifications and standards on waste plastic, i.e. input material to reprocessing, and to some types of converting. Examples of this are EN 15347, and ISRI specifications.
- Specifications and standards on waste-plastic-based intermediates (e.g. regranulates), which are output materials from reprocessing, and are used as input for the converting industry. Examples of this are the standards on characterisation of plastics recyclates (PE, PP, PS, PVC, PET) EN 153-42,-44,-45,-46, and -48.

Both types have been screened for information that can be used in the formulation of the end-of-waste criteria, and are described below. In addition and not necessarily linked to any of the above categories, there are always business-to-business specifications, which tailor the specific requirements demanded in case-by-case applications.

2.8.1 Overview of existing standards

2.8.1.1 Shipping standards

Security requirements are becoming more stringent. For example, China has recently developed new quality standards for plastic waste due for shipment, and has posted monitors at foreign ports to inspect plastic waste shipments and ensure compliance with these standards before they are transported to China. Stakeholders described how some shipping firms refuse certain types of shipments when the plastic waste is expected to be treated abroad¹⁵⁷.

Brokers pass this burden on to suppliers, who therefore have the responsibility of making sure that their product will be accepted along the trade chain¹⁵⁷.

2.8.1.2 Standards on plastic waste

After the plastic waste collection and sorting stages, standard EN ISO 15347 'Plastics - Recycled Plastics - Characterisation of plastics wastes laying out those properties for which the supplier of the waste shall make information available to the purchaser' covers the characterisation of waste plastic. The characteristics of a batch of waste plastic that should be provided to the purchaser by the supplier are either required or optional. Table 2.32 describes the quality parameters presented in this standard, as well as the test methods used.

Table 2.32: Required and optional characteristics of plastics wastes (EN 15347)¹⁵⁸

Property	Status (test method)
Batch size	Required (weight or volume)
Colour	Required (visual assessment)
Form of waste	Required (e.g. flake, film, bottle)
History of waste	Required (EN 15343)
Main polymer present	Required (percentage by weight if known)
Other polymers present	Required (percentages by weight if known)
Type of packaging in which the waste is present	Required
Impact Strength	Optional (EN ISO 179-1 and EN 179-2 or EN ISO 180)
Melt mass flow rate	Optional (EN ISO 1133)
Vicat softening temperature	Optional (EN ISO 306 Method A)
Additives, contaminants, moisture, volatile	Optional
Ash content	Optional (EN ISO 3451-1)
Moisture	Optional (EN 12099)
Tensile strain at break	Optional (EN ISO 527, parts 1 to 3)
Tensile strain at yield	Optional (EN ISO 527, parts 1 to 3)
Volatiles	Optional (Weight loss at a process temperature)

¹⁵⁷ Pers. comm. with GoldenRecycling.

¹⁵⁸ NOTE This standard does not cover the characterisation of plastics recyclates.- this is described in 15342-44-45-46-48

According to this standard, the specification and the standard deviation or range of values within and between batches of material are agreed between the supplier and the purchaser.

Waste plastics arise in many different forms and may be a single polymer type or a mixture, depending on how the waste has been collected. A batch of waste material can, therefore, include wastes from a single source (such as factory scrap, or window frames from building demolition) or a mixture of types (as in unsorted domestic waste). The forms in which the waste is collected can equally vary. A batch of waste material offered for sale can be a quantity as collected, or may have been sorted by the collector to add value to it. The wide range of possible forms and compositions of waste plastics offered for sale makes it important to dispose of a standardised means of characterising waste plastics, so that there is a transparent transaction between seller and purchaser.

In other words, the quality requirements for waste plastic are chosen and defined by purchasers in their contract technical specifications, the evolution of which follows the trends in industrial and plastics applications¹⁵⁹. Usually, tags on plastic films are accepted by purchasers as they can be easily removed during the cleaning process¹⁶⁰.

The standard is very generic, and leaves a high degree of freedom between buyer and seller to detail the quality. For instance, the content of contaminants is an optional characteristic where 'any additional information of the material will be useful'. Only the main polymer present, and other polymers are asked for, but not necessarily quantitatively 'the percentage if known'.

For practical reasons, the sector has also been developing codifications at national levels, to facilitate agreements between suppliers and customers by providing standardised categorisations and/or contaminant limits (see below).

The waste plastic quality controls are based on characterisation processes and are carried out by sampling¹⁶¹. The situation is very dependent upon the MS (and sometimes even the region) considered, upon the professionalism of the collection system and recyclers, and the end market considered. Thus, when the waste is shipped to Asia, only limited specifications exist, whereas when the waste is used within EU for recycling and manufacture of new goods, the reproprocessors and recyclers bear the burden of ensuring specifications for their end customers.

In the UK, recyclers usually are in a weak position. The collection scheme is driven by tonnage, so that the quality of collected waste does not necessarily respect the percentages in the codification (e.g. instead of the maximum level of 10% of non-relevant material, this quantity can represent up to 20 to 30%). The main reason for accepting such low qualities is the existence of the possibility of export markets to Asia, which are outlets not as demanding in terms of quality, facilitates the local recyclers to accept lower quality material to run their business, and limits their strength in pushing the supply chain to deliver higher quality. At the output of the reprocessing stages, recyclers have to demonstrate the quality of their recycle, as customers are

¹⁵⁹ Pers. comm. with FEDEREC and the British Plastics Federation Recycling Council.

¹⁶⁰ Pers. comm. with FEDEREC.

¹⁶¹ Pers. comm.s with PAPREC and CeDo.

demanding. In the particular sector of WEEE, no specifications at all are made by reproprocessors for the input but every tonne at the output is sampled and analysed with the usual tests of the standards (e.g. elongation at break, impact strength, colour, x-rays to detect heavy metals), but according to personal statistical methods. In comparison with the production of virgin raw material, much more testing is required to ensure a stable output quality because of the high variations in quality and homogeneity of the input material. Attempts to set up a common way of measurement of the collected waste quality (before the reprocessing step) have failed so far¹⁶².

The situation can be significantly different in other countries. In Norway, Green Dot carries out quality controls of the waste, although stakeholders claim that this is not made on a consistent basis, between the collectors and the recyclers. Third party consultancy controllers are hired (this can also be the case in Sweden, in case of disagreements between the two parties). If the material is not in accordance with regulations, Green Dot reduces the financial incentive for the collector. Other organisations, such as Fost-Plus in Belgium and Valorplast in France work on a similar basis: they ensure quality controls and respect of specifications between the collectors and the reproprocessors. Such a system is not implemented in the Netherlands, because all plastic waste are recovered, which makes it virtually impossible to control quality or have any relevance of samples. Therefore, reproprocessors check incoming material visually and based on experience. The output is systematically controlled by the reproprocessors thanks to an analysis before shipment, which can include customer-specific parameters. Datasheets similar to the datasheets used for virgin plastics are made.

In the coming years, control methods might be gathered in a common code that would aim to harmonise the plastic tests that are carried out at a national and possibly EU scale.

2.8.1.3 ISRI specifications

The US Institute of Scrap Recycling Industries (ISRI) issues yearly the so-called 'Scrap Specifications Circular'¹⁶³, which provides standard specifications intended to assist in the international buying and selling of reclaimed materials and products of metals, paper, plastics, electronic scrap, tyres and glass. The specifications are constructed to represent the quality or composition of the materials bought and sold in the industry. The specifications are internationally accepted and are used throughout the world to trade the various commodities. Often, parties to a transaction use it as reference, and specify additions as are suited for their specific transactions.

For waste plastics, ISRI has defined a coding system based for baled waste plastic, consisting of a three digit number with a prefix letter 'P' and a two-letter suffix: P - 0 0 0 X X.

The first digit corresponds to the SPI resin identification code system (Figure 2.39 below) and designates the primary plastic material. The second digit describes the plastic/product category. The third digit defines the colour/appearance of the product. The first suffix letter indicates the type of recycled plastic, e.g. specifying its pre- or post-

¹⁶² Pers. comm. with stakeholder.

¹⁶³ www.isri.org/specs, last accessed November 2011

consumer origin. The second suffix letter indicates the source of the recycled plastic product, e.g. commerce, industrial or municipal. The code system is reproduced below:

Coding Key:

P	O	O	O	X	X
Plastic	Resin Code	Product	Color	Type	Source
	0 Mixed Resins (1-7)				
	1 PET	0-Bottles	0-Mixture	P-Post Consumer	M-Municipal
	2 HDPE	1-Rigids	1-Natural		
	3 PVC			R-Recovered	I-Industrial
	4 LDPE	2-Films	2-Pigment/Dyed		
	5 PP				C-Commercial
	6 PS	3-9 To be assigned	3-9 Designated within each category		S-Institutional
	7 Other				
	8 To be assigned				
	9 To be assigned				

Baled Plastic Material Identification Codes

Series	Code	Resin	Categories	Series	Code	Resin	Categories
P-100 Series-PET	P-100	PET	Mixed Bottles	P-500 Series-PP	P-500	PP	Mixed Bottles
	P-101	PET	Clear Soda Bottles		P-501	PP	Natural Bottles
	P-102	PET	Green Soda Bottles		P-502	PP	Pigmented Bottles
	P-103	PET	Mixed Clear & Green Soda Bottles	P-600 Series-PS	P-600	PS	Mixed Bottles
					P-601	PS	Natural Bottles
	P-104	PET	Custom Bottles		P-602	PS	Pigmented Bottles
	P-110	PET	Mixed Rigid Containers	P-700 Series Other/Code 7			
P-200 Series-HDPE	P-200	HDPE	Mixed Bottles		P-700	OTHER	Mixed Bottles
	P-201	HDPE	Natural Bottles		P-701	OTHER	Natural Bottles
	P-202	HDPE	Pigmented Bottles		P-702	OTHER	Pigmented Bottles
P-300 Series-PVC	P-300	PVC	Mixed Bottles	P-000 Series-Mixed resins (Codes 1-7)	P-000	MIXED	Mixed Bottles
	P-301	PVC	Natural Bottles		P-001	MIXED	Natural Bottles
	P-302	PVC	Pigmented Bottles		P-002	MIXED	Pigmented Bottles
P-400 Series-LDPE	P-400	LDPE	Mixed Bottles	NOTE: The existence of a code category does not imply the existence of a market for the material. These are representative code categories. Other categories may be developed as the need arises.			
	P-401	LDPE	Natural Bottles				
	P-402	LDPE	Pigmented Bottles				

Figure 2.39. ISRI waste plastic code system (ISRI, 2011).

Despite fitting into the purpose and content of EoW, most experts of the technical working group have pointed out that ISRI specifications are not used in general in Europe, nor in trade between the EU and Asian countries.

2.8.1.4 National specifications

The quality of waste plastic is critical for recycling and its further development. Although recycling (and additionally energy recovery) technologies can handle mixed plastics, they require maximum acceptance limits for the concentration of certain compounds, as well as a minimum conditioning of the waste to be fed into their

processes¹⁶⁴. This section describes standards applicable after collection, but before reprocessing.

Being EN 15347 so general in its formulation, some codifications have been implemented in Member States at national scales to specify limits and categorise waste plastic, in order to facilitate trade between the collectors/brokers and the reprocessors. The interface of such specifications is illustrated below.

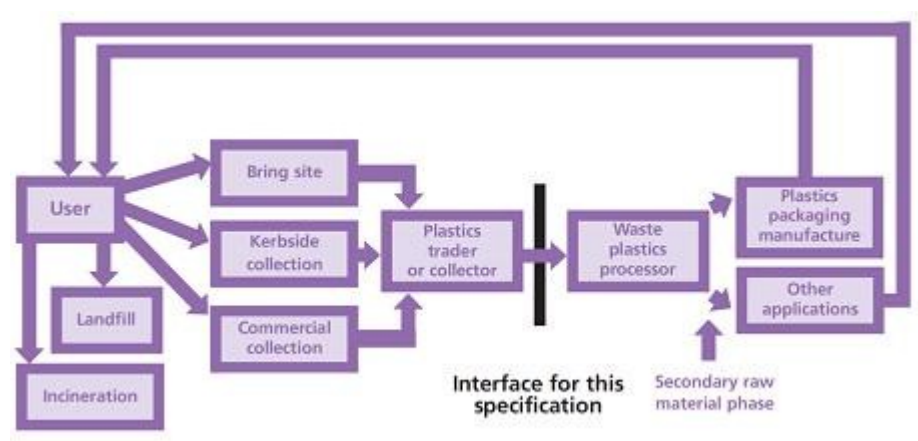


Figure 2.40. Interface of national waste plastic specifications¹⁶⁵.

Traders and collectors can carry out collection, transport, sorting and washing operations. Each trader will carry out one or several tasks, depending on their position in the market and the requirements of the customer: there is no fixed structure. For example, some processors do not need cleaned or highly sorted waste plastic; therefore few preliminary operations will be made by the traders and collectors. Waste plastics processors can deal with shredding and reprocessing operations: from the waste plastic of variable quality (usually in bales) provided by the brokers, they produce flakes and pellets (secondary raw material) through processes as shredding, extrusion and pelletising, and may even directly manufacture end-products.

United Kingdom

In the UK, hand-sorting and processing of plastic films is carried out overseas and some contaminated material is recycled. The general principle for plastic film recycling is that the material should be as clean and as contaminant-free as possible.

The UK has been trying to substantially develop recycling at a national scale lately. There are no formal agreed specifications for plastic bottles or PE films but the WRAP, the British Plastics Federation Recycling Council and the British Standards Institute have developed the PAS-103 Specification¹⁶⁶. It outlines some of the main contaminants and also the clarification and grading process for plastics. It applies at the same stage as the FEDEREC codification, i.e. between the plastics trader/collector and the reprocessor. This system is expected to increase the value of the materials being bought and sold,

¹⁶⁴ JRC, IPTS, "Assessment of the Environmental Advantages and Disadvantages of polymer recovery processes", 2007

¹⁶⁵ WRAP/BPF Recycling Council/BSI, Introduction to PAS-103: Collected waste plastic packaging.

¹⁶⁶ A free copy can be ordered online.

expand the markets for the waste and simplify the trading process through the adoption of a common language. However, it is not to be regarded as a British Standards.

According to this document, buyers and sellers should record:

- the source and batch identification of waste plastics;
- the net weight of the batch;
- the form of the batch (baled or bagged);
- the number of units (bales or bags) in the batch;
- the form of the waste plastic (e.g. original product, flaked, granulate, shredded, crumbed or reel);
- the weight, dimensions and density of the bales and bags;
- whether it is post- or pre-consumer waste;
- and whether it is obligated packaging.

Depending on the original application of the waste, the main polymer type present, the main colour (natural, clear tinted, single, mixed colour) and presence of any contaminant, a visual assessment of the quality of the waste is then carried out. The contamination levels are:

- category A: those that are not normally accepted and usually result in rejection of the waste (e.g. hazardous or clinical waste: syringes, other sharps, radioactive waste...);
- category B: those that are normally permitted and can be removed from the waste by cleaning and separation procedures. They include: paper (including labels), cardboard, ferrous and non-ferrous metals, ceramics, glass, dirt, stone, non-hazardous residues (e.g. food, drink, detergents) and other unidentified plastics.
- category C: those that may be permitted to agreed levels and do not necessarily require removal from the waste plastics. They include: bio-degradable polymers (which might results in poor performance of products), halogenated flame retardants, printed plastics, fillers (e.g. clay, chalk), heavy metals, barrier layers and coatings and other polymers (e.g. extraneous packaging materials, caps, cap-liners, adhesive tape and labels).

PAS 103 also includes test methods for the verification of quality in the event of a dispute and specifies good practice in collection, storage and delivery of waste plastic packaging.

Two main types of plastic film are traded within the UK and most of the film is exported for processing (especially to China). Material is usually expected to be baled in various grades (e.g. natural, jazz); weights are either light or heavy; and in various grades of contamination, from little to heavily contaminated.

For plastic bottles, reproprocessors normally only accept baled material. The current preferred bale form is 1.8m x 1.2m x 1m because larger bales are too big to be handled by reproprocessors' bale-breaking equipment and smaller balers are more difficult to store. Bales are compacted to a density which ensures safe stacking, loading and transport and which allows for separation of the bales once the bale strapping is removed. The bale weight can vary depending on the polymer type but one bale usually weight between 200 and 325 kg.

The provenance and traceability of recycled plastics are of growing importance, and being able to present evidence of such is likely to increase the value of the material. Pale colours will tend to attract a higher value than darker colours. The classification of waste plastic grades in PAS 103 is provided in Annex IV.

An example of UK grades for export is presented in Table 2.33 below.

Table 2.33. Waste plastic grades of use in the UK for exports. (Source: WRAP, 2008)

Name	Description	Alternative Names
JAZZ FILM 95:5	95% coloured film	
JAZZ FILM 50:50	50% coloured film	
LDPE 100%	100% Clear film, no labels	
LDPE 99:1	99% clear LDPE / LLDPE film	
LDPE 98:2	98% clear LDPE / LLDPE film	
LDPE 95:5	95% clear LDPE / LLDPE film	
LDPE 90:10	90% clear LDPE / LLDPE film	A grade film, retail grade film
LDPE 80:20	80% clear LDPE / LLDPE film	B grade film
LDPE 70:30	70% clear LDPE / LLDPE film	C grade film
PET 100%	100% Clear PET bottles	
PET 90:10	90% clear PET bottles, 10% light blue tinted PET bottles	
PET 80:20	80% clear PET bottles, 20% coloured PET bottles	
HDPE 90:10	90% natural HDPE bottles, 10% coloured HDPE bottles	
HDPE 80:20	80% natural HDPE bottles, 20% coloured HDPE bottles	
HDPE JAZZ	Coloured HDPE bottles	

France

The company Eco-emballages is in-charge of the collection and sorting of all the household packaging waste in France (plastics, paper, metal etc. mixed). The waste is firstly pre-sorted in sorting facilities by type of material: separated streams for plastics, metals, paper and glass are obtained. Table 2.34 describes the contamination rates tolerated in the plastic packaging streams, at the output of these facilities. Some products are not tolerated at all: miscellaneous sources of pollution (rocks, wood, concrete, soil, textiles, etc.), needles, syringes and medical products, and plastic bottles from commercial or industrial sources.

Plastic packaging is sorted into three different sub streams: HDPE+PP, PET (light colour) and PET (dark colour). Thus, the nature of these streams can be adapted locally depending on the market needs and the nature of the source. This collaborative process involves the local authorities, the sorting facility and the recycler.

Table 2.34: Contamination rates tolerated after the sorting process of mixed waste (France¹⁶⁷)

Tolerated products	Contamination rate tolerated by bale
Plastic bottles and flasks (other than main stream) Other plastic packaging (sacks, films, pots, trays, etc.) Other household packaging (steel, aluminium, paper, cardboard, etc.) Newspaper, magazines	< 2% (weight, altogether)
Glass, porcelain, stones/gravels (in bottles or not)	< 0.2% (weight altogether)
Bottles and flasks containing or having contained dangerous products regarding the different legislation considered: mineral or synthetic oil or fat paints, solvents, varnish, inks, glues and tapes pesticides	< 0.02% (weight, altogether)

At this stage, recyclers/reprocessors in France can use a codification that has been set up by FEDEREC in order to clearly express their needs and quality requirements. This national codification classifies waste plastic materials by material type and quality (see

¹⁶⁷ Accreditation “Eco-emballages”

Annex III). It is used as a reference by all FEDEREC members (360 kt of post-consumer plastics recycled in 2008¹⁶⁸) i.e. recyclers as well as traders, in order to facilitate the trade thanks to a common set of rules. To ensure consistency, the codification has been developed according to the market reality and requirements. The next step is to adopt such a classification at the EU level, and eventually at the international level.

The codification is based on the SPI codes¹⁶⁹, which classifies plastics in seven different categories (see Table 2.2). The source of the material is indicated either by '1' (pre-consumer, high quality) or '2' (plastics selectively collected and used packaging). Finally, the quality of plastic materials is identified by a code consisting of 2, 3 or 4 digits (the number of digits used depending on the number of quality grades for each type).

An update of the current list of categories is being carried out in order to complete and develop the existing codification by adding new quality standards that have recently been put on the market.

Germany

In Germany, the company Duales System Deutschland (DSD), who developed the first Green Dot system ('Grüne Punkt') in 1991 which was later also implemented in other MS, provides product specifications for waste plastic. The detail of the waste plastic categories is described in Table 2.35, and the characteristics of each category (description, purity, impurities, conditioning) are available in Annex V.

Table 2.35: Waste plastic categories in use in Germany¹⁷⁰

Fraction number	Name of fraction
310	Plastic Films
320	Mixed Plastic Bottles
321	Polyolefin Plastic Bottles
322	Plastic Hollow Bodies
324	Polypropylene
325	PET Bottles, transparent
328-1	Mixed-PET 90/10
328-2	Mixed-PET 70/30
328-3	Mixed-PET 50/50
329	Polyethylene
330	Cups
331	Polystyrene
340	Expanded Polystyrene (EPS)
350	Mixed Plastics
365	Preliminary Product for R.D.F (Refused Derived Fuel)

Hungary

As an example, the technical acceptance conditions of waste plastics defined by Remoplast for PET waste (according to EN 15347) are presented in Table 2.36.

Table 2.36: Technical acceptance conditions of PET waste in Hungary

Characteristics	Sorted	Unsorted	Comments
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¹⁶⁸ FEDEREC statistics. Available at: www.federrec.org/presentation/federrec/recyclage-chiffres.html

¹⁶⁹ Society of the Plastics Industry

¹⁷⁰ Source : <http://www.gruener-punkt.de/en/waste-management-infoservice/plastics-recycling.html>

Characteristics	Sorted			Unsorted	Comments
	Class I	Class II	Class III		
Batch size	-	-	-	-	batch size
Colour	max: 0.01%	max: 1%	mixed	mixed	during sorting via sorting by colour
Shape of waste	-	-	-	-	bottle, tray etc.
History of waste	-	-	-	-	according to the standard
PET content	100%	min: 90%	min: 90%	min: 74%	
PVC content	not allowed	max: 2%	max: 2%	max: 2%	during sorting
Other polyolefin content	max: 0.3%	max: 5%	max: 5%	max: 17%	caps, labels allowed, only what is on the bottle. no surface handle or other attachment.
Foreign material content (wood, wires, paper etc.)	Not allowed	Not allowed	Not allowed	max: 1%	
Paper content	max: 0.4%	max: 0,4%	max: 0.4%	max: 0.4%	labels
Mineral and glass content	Not allowed	Not allowed	Not allowed	Not allowed	
Moisture content	max: 1%	max: 2.0 %	max: 2.0%	max: 2.0%	moisture in the bottle etc. not allowed
Other contamination	max: 0.3%	max: 0.6 %	max: 0.6%	max: 4.0%	
Packaging	-	-	-	-	bale, big-bag, loose, bulk

European PET Bottle Platform¹⁷¹

The EPBP is a voluntary initiative, aimed at the packaging industry, which has established test procedures to assess the recycling profile of new packaging technologies such as barriers, additives, closures, labels, etc. Some of the quick tests that have been finalised so far include:

- QT 500: Oven test
- QT 501: Metal separation test
- QT 502: Swim/sink test
- QT 503: Sorting test
- QT 504: Glue separation test
- QT 505: Melting test

These quick tests are rapid and low-cost techniques for the quick assessment of the recycling profile of PET bottles. They include a complete explanation of the scope, techniques, equipment and test conditions, and a 'summary interpretation' explaining how to use the test results. Based on their results, which are purely indicative, the EPBP is optimising further tests and establishing specific test procedures using up-to-date testing methods that produce qualitative and/or quantitative test results (this is ongoing work). Products passing these tests will be given approval for recycling.

The Platform has also developed PET recycling guidelines, describing the different materials allowed or not in the bottle components (body, label, cap) (see Table 2.37).

¹⁷¹ More information available at: www.petbottleplatform.eu

Table 2.37: Recycling guidelines for PET bottles (Source: EPBP¹⁷²)

		Yes	Conditional ¹⁷³	No
Body ¹⁷⁴	Container	PET		PLA / PVC / PET-G
	Colour	clear/light-blue /green	other transparent colours	opaque
	Barrier	clear plasma coating	external coating /PA (3 layers)	EVOH / PA monolayer blends
	Additives		O2 scavengers / UV stabilisers / AA blockers / nanocomposites/ etc.	
Label	Direct printing	production or expiry date		other direct printing
	Labels	HDPE/MDPE /LDPE /PP/OPP/EPS (density <1 g/cm3)/Paper	PET metallised labels	PVC / PS (density > 1 g/cm ³)
	Sleeves	PE/PP/OPP/EPS (density <1 g/cm3)/foamed PET/foamed PET-G	PET	PVC / PS (density > 1 g/cm ³) / PET-G / full body sleeves
	Glue ¹⁷⁵	no adhesive on body water-soluble adhesive or alkali soluble adhesives (<80°C)		adhesive not removed in water or alkali at 80°C
	Ink	EuPIA Good Manufacturing Practices		bleeding / reactive / hazardous
Cap	Closure	HDPE / LDPE / PP		metal / aluminium / PS / PVC / thermosets
	Closure liner	HDPE / PE+EVA / PP		PVC / EVA with aluminium
	Seals	PE / PP / OPP / EPS / foamed PET		PVC / silicon / aluminium
	Other components		HDPE / PP / PET	PVC / RFID / non-plastic

Similar initiatives for HDPE and PP packaging are currently at a development stage.

China: waste plastic shipping standards

Some waste plastic is shipped abroad, mainly to China and especially Hong Kong, mostly after the collection and grinding stage, and not after the reprocessing. The tenders of specification are also becoming increasingly stringent and the Chinese standard GB 16487.12-2005 has been developed to specify the forbidden and allowed importation of waste plastic.

¹⁷² www.petbottleplatform.eu/downloads.php

¹⁷³ Some materials/bottle components are recyclable under certain conditions. Please check with EPBP, recyclers or recycling organisations.

¹⁷⁴ All materials must meet the legal requirements for materials and articles intended to come into contact with food.

¹⁷⁵ Ref. EUPR positive glue list

The standard defines the waste and scrap of plastics as ‘the remnant materials, leftover materials, and inferior products produced in the manufacture and processing of plastics, and thermoplastics that has been processed and washed (in chips, blocks, granulated or powdery)’. Carried-waste consists of ‘substances mixed in imported waste and scrap of plastics during the production, collection, packing and transportation processes (exclusive of packing materials for the imported waste and scrap of plastics and other substances that need to be used during the transportation process)’. It is applicable to the materials listed in the Table 2.38.

Table 2.38: Plastics materials under the scope of Chinese standard GB 16487.12-2005

Customs commodity number	Name of solid waste
3915.1000.00	Waste and scrap ethylene polymers and remnants
3915.2000.00	Waste and scrap vinyl benzene polymers and remnants
3915.3000.00	Waste and scrap chloroethylene polymers and remnants
3915.9010.00	Waste and scrap PET remnants
3915.9090.00	Other waste and scrap plastic and remnants

The criteria and requirements for control are the following:

- It is forbidden to mix the following carried-wastes (exclusive of wastes listed in Article 4.4) with the waste and scrap of plastics: radioactive wastes; explosive weapons and ammunitions such as discarded bomb and shell, etc.; substances identified as hazardous wastes according to GB5085; other wastes listed in ‘National Hazardous Waste Inventory’.
- α and β radioactive contamination limits on the surface of the waste and scrap of plastics: the average value of the detected maximum α level on any part of a 300 cm² surface shall not exceed 0.04Bq/cm² and that of β shall not exceed 0.4 Bq/cm²
- The specific activity value of the radionuclide in the waste and scrap of plastics shall not exceed limits that are specified. (No radioactivity)
- Following carried-wastes shall be strictly restricted and their total weight shall not exceed 0.01% of the weight of imported waste and scrap of plastics: asbestos waste or waste containing asbestos; burnt or partly burnt waste and scrap of plastics and those polluted by extinguishing agent; film containing photosensitive material; used and intact plastic container; sealed container; other hazardous wastes that cannot avoid (there are sufficient reasons) being mixed into the imported waste and scrap of plastics during the production, collection and transportation processes. (no hazardous material content)
- Used imported plastic containers should be broken into pieces and cleaned until they have no peculiar smell or blots.
- In addition to the wastes listed above, other carried-wastes (such as waste wood, waste metal, waste glass, thermoplastic, plastic film and plastic products coated with metal, etc.) shall be restricted and their total weight **shall not exceed 0.5% of the weight** of the imported waste and scrap of plastics.

The inspections of the various requirements have to be carried out in accordance of the following provisions: GB5085, SN0570 and SN0625. ‘Used waste plastic bags, films and nets collected from household, sorted out from municipal waste, and used agricultural films’ is listed in the Catalogue of Solid Wastes forbidden to import in China and the ban has been implemented since 1 March 2008.

2.8.2 Control of quality

The industries involved in the waste plastic cycle carry out many quality control checks of waste plastic throughout collection, sorting, storage, grading, transport and admittance to plastic production. Most of these controls are visual, and do not involve quantitative measurements. Currently, the quantitative controls mainly take place at plastic production sites and focus on measurements of three parameters:

- Unusable non-plastic components (as %)
- Plastic types detrimental to production (as %)
- Total dry and wet weight of the consignment

Plastic producers may ask for a declaration from the supplier about the origin of the material, in relation to national regulations, standard requirements, or directly on the composition of the waste plastic transported. Knowledge of the origin of waste plastic is in general useful for risk management at plastic producers and of particular concern for some producers that manufacture products meant to be in contact with food.

Additional recommendations related to quality control registered for other recyclates are:

- Quality controllers should be independent from the commercial department.
- A description of the waste plastic quality control procedures and system installed and operating at the waste plastic plants – currently in the majority of cases only visual control and weight measurement – should be given by the supplier to the buyer before the first contract is signed between them.
- Quality controls (weight and visual controls) should ideally be made at the waste plastic producer, and not only at the converter.
- One delivery document has to be established by the last supplier per consignment and a copy has to be given to the plastic manufacturer.
- The delivery document must at a minimum include the identification of the contract partner, the identification of the trailer, the delivered grade, the weight, the number of bales or bulk.
- Plastic producers may ask for a declaration from the supplier about the origin of the material.
- Results of the quality controls made at the plastic converter and at the waste plastic reprocessor should be available on a reciprocity basis.
- Controls at the sorting plants: visual controls and use of a calibrated weighbridge should be considered as a minimum.
- Controls at the plastic converter: non-plastic components, and plastic detrimental to production.
- Information on the results of the quality controls should be given by the buyers to the suppliers through periodical reports (in case of rejects, the results of the controls have to be given immediately).
- Conditions for reject and re-classification should be clearly established (precision has to be given regarding the threshold and the requirements).
- The conditions and the limits of the ownership of the waste plastic and the responsibility for the materials delivered should be clearly established between the supplier and the buyer.

Sampling can be carried out manually or using specialised devices, and vary depending on whether the consignment is loose or baled.

Quantitative (gravimetric) manual sampling of bales consist of the random selection of one or two bales of the consignment. The bale(s) is open by de-wiring and a sample is taken (often of 30 to 100 kg). The sample is manually sorted in various components (plastic types, paper, wood, glass, etc.). Each category of components is dried and weighted to quantify the amount of non-plastic components, unusable plastic, and to be measured per moisture-free weight. Moisture content is also measured by sampling, weighting, drying and weighting again.

For the loose consignments, one of several possible procedures consists in spreading the load on the floor and sampling on e.g. 2 meter length on all the width of delivery, followed by the manual sorting of components and moisture content measurement.

Sensors are evolving to also enable material distinction (image analysis, near infra-red technique and mass spectrometry). The Near Infra-Red (NIR) spectrometry has been already used since many years in other sectors such as food processing in order to study precisely and quickly sample's chemical composition, e.g. plastic types. Using these sensor technologies, several instant measurements are possible.

The simplest gravimetric procedures do not require advanced equipment, and can be undertaken with simple devices such as a sorting table, a scale and a microwave. Conversely, the design of a sampling plan that fits the quality of the waste plastic requires advanced knowledge of quality control and of statistics. Nevertheless, a statistically sound sampling plan reduces to the minimum the frequency of sampling required.

For food contact plastics, a much more thorough quality control scheme has to be set up, including spectrometry/chromatography to screen the full range of hazardous substances, and any substance not present in the positive list of Regulation 10/2011 (PIM).

The methods outlined above are valid for loose material, before any thermal treatment transforms it into agglomerates or pellets. After that, only analytical methods such as spectroscopy or chromatography are possible for the determination of the content of polymers, when possible combined with less precise methods such as sink-float.

In addition to the mentioned quality control guidelines, minimum quality procedures are recommended by reproprocessors at two stages:

Inspection upon receipt

Waste plastic arrives at the facilities in different transport means and sizes: by trailer (waste plastic packaged), in containers, in auto-compressors, in compressors, in trucks, etc. loose material (free-flowing) would typically arrive in big-bags or similar. This depends on the origin as separate collection, from households, bins, companies, shopping centres, or from other reproprocessors. Once the consignment has arrived, it is weighed on a calibrated scale, and the weight is recorded. This is followed by visual inspection, and for baled input may involve opening randomly a number of bales. Depending on the quality, waste plastic is unloaded at the relevant warehouse location, and if not meeting the contracted quality, the supplier may be contacted to renegotiate the price of the consignment, and in some cases the consignment may be rejected. Accepted waste plastic may then be sorted, shredded, graded and baled.

Inspection prior dispatch

Once graded, waste plastic can be baled and/or shredded. Internal procedures may exist to ensure proper baling, should this be necessary.

In other recyclates, it is emphasised that experienced staff need to train novel staff into the criteria used for visual inspection. The following key requirements for the training of staff performing visual inspection are often mentioned:

A sound knowledge of:

- Company reporting structure;
- waste plastic grades and associated standards;
- what non plastic components are;
- what contamination is;
- what to do within the process to remove and limit the above;
- what to do with non-plastic components removed from the process stream;
- the health and safety requirements of the process;
- what to do with non-conforming bales of waste plastic;
- the documentation requirements for processed material; and
- regulatory requirements for waste plastic movements.

Due to the fact that quantitative content control is most often made by plastic converters to the incoming material, each plastic producers has designed their sampling plans to fit their needs.

Input materials and communication

Normally, results of plastic converter's controls are communicated back to the reprocessors for checking with their own controls. In addition, some converters e.g. food packaging producers have to care about food contact with their product and demand an 'origin' declaration. In such cases, apart from the grade, special quality requirements may apply. The origin is known for most grades, and as a general rule, pre-consumer waste plastic is cleaner than post-consumer waste plastic, and it needs less sorting. Other than food contact plastic products, the origin of the material is secondary to the output quality after processing and grading.

No guideline has been developed so far for the reprocessors to control quantitatively the output, including e.g. a simple spreadsheet tool based on sound statistics. In a scenario where some waste plastic streams cease to be waste, such tools could help reprocessors define a sampling plan as part of their (quality) management system, and take better control over their output. The reprocessors of other recyclables such as glass are very familiar with these procedures, as quality control of output is commonplace in reprocessing of waste glass.

2.8.3 Standards for recycled plastics, and for end uses

A large variety of plastic types is needed in society, since plastic is used in a wide range of applications which require different mechanical, thermal, electrical, and chemical properties (i.e. technical properties). CEN standards have been set and are used at the EU level to characterise plastics material at a secondary raw material stage (see Figure 2.41), for example for regranulates, flakes or pellets, after the reprocessors.

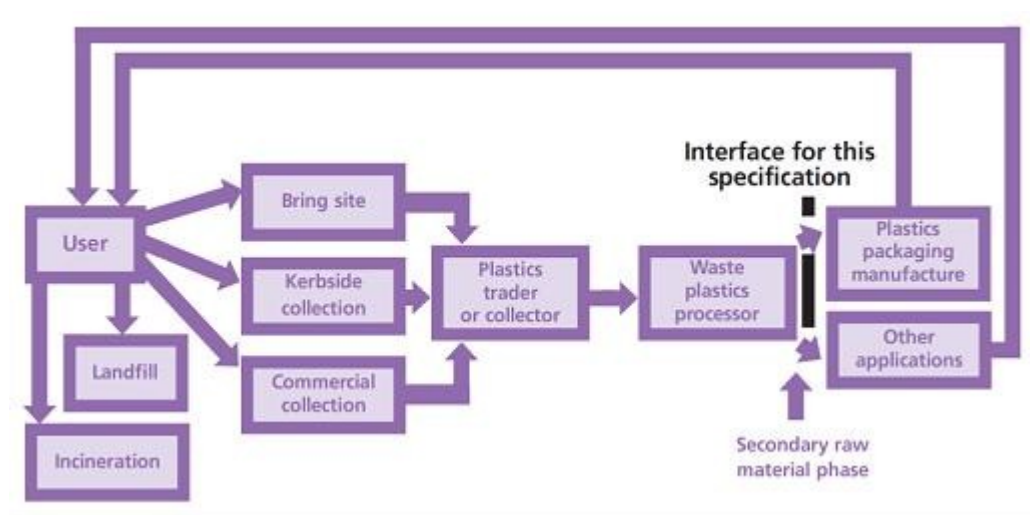


Figure 2.41. Stage at which EU standards for secondary raw material apply¹⁷⁶

European standards define quality parameters, which can be mandatory or optional, and the relevant test procedures; the limit values for each parameter must be agreed between the supplier and the customer. Purchasers' specifications can and often do require higher quality (or more stringent technical) requirements, depending on the planned end use, and the burden of testing is usually placed on the reprocessor (with third party organisations also providing quality assurance in some MS). Fluidity, colour and moisture content are common criteria. In addition, national standards and industry initiatives (such as the European PET Bottle Platform guidelines provide methods to test the suitability of plastic bottles for recycling) provide means to facilitate the design for recyclability and management of waste plastic.

The EN plastics recyclates standards are presented in Table 2.39. These are implemented in the MS under a corresponding wording that uses the same reference numbering system. They define tests for generic characteristics.

Table 2.39: Common standards used for recyclates in EU¹⁷⁷

Standards/protocol used	Key technical property tested/description
EN 15342	Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polystyrene (PS) recyclates
EN 15343	Plastics. Recycled plastics. Recycling traceability and assessment of conformity.
EN 15344	Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polyethylene (PE) recyclates
EN 15345	Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polypropylene (PP) recyclates
EN 15346	Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of poly(vinyl chloride) (PVC) recyclates
EN 15347	Plastics. Recycled Plastics. Characterization of plastic waste
EN 15348	Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET) recyclates

¹⁷⁶ Adapted from: WRAP/BPF Recycling Council/BSI, Introduction to PAS-103: Collected waste plastic packaging.

¹⁷⁷ The standards stakeholders most commonly quoted are in bold. Other standards are listed here as informative data, or were referred to in the key standards bibliography.

prCEN/TR 15353		Guidelines for the development of standards relating to recycled plastics
EN 13430		Packaging. Requirements for packaging recoverable by material recycling.
EN 13437		Packaging and material recycling. Criteria for recycling methods. Description of recycling processes and flow chart
ISO 16103		Packaging. Transport packages for dangerous goods. Recycled plastics material
ISO 15270		Plastics -- Guidelines for the recovery and recycling of plastic waste
ASTM 5033:2000	D	Standard guide for the development of standards relating to recycling and use of recycled plastics.
ASTM 5991:1996	D	Standard practice for separation and identification of poly(vinyl chloride) (PVC) contamination in poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET) flake.
ASTM D 6288		Standard practice for separation and washing of recycled plastics prior to testing.
ASTM D 5814		Standard practice for determination of contamination in recycled poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET) flakes and chips using a plaque test.
ASTM D 5577		Standard Guide for Techniques to Separate and Identify Contaminants in Recycled Plastics
ASTM D 5676		Standard Specification for Recycled Polystyrene Moulding and Extrusion Materials
ASTM D 5203		Standard Specification for Polyethylene Plastics Moulding and Extrusion Materials from Recycled Post-Consumer (HDPE)
ASTM D 5491		Standard Classification for Recycled Post-Consumer Polyethylene Film Sources for Moulding and Extrusion Materials

Standards EN 15342, EN 15344, EN 15345, EN 15346 and EN 15348 define methods of specifying delivery condition characteristics for recyclates of different plastic types (PS, PE, PP, PVC and PET). They describe the most important characteristics and associated test methods to assess the recyclates intended for use in the production of semi-finished/finished products. They are intended to support parties involved in the use of recycled plastics to agree on specifications for specific and general applications. The standards also state that the supplier shall maintain records of the quality control carried out, including incoming materials, processes and finished products.

These standards are very open and generic. The characteristics of the recyclates can be either mandatory (ones needed to define recyclates in general and required for all recyclates), or optional (ones needed to define recyclates but according to customer specifications). Other tests may be carried out by agreement between the purchaser and the supplier and the results reported. Their potential use in the EoW criteria is further discussed in Chapter 3.

Standard EN 15343 aims at describing the necessary procedures for mechanical recycling that are required for products that have been manufactured completely (or in part) from recycled plastics, and need proof of traceability. It enables producers to use the recycled materials with confidence, and provides the end users with a basis for their acceptance. Procedures required for the traceability of recycled plastics include:

- Control of input material (e.g. proper design of collection and sorting schemes, batch identification);
- Control of the recyclates production process (e.g. recording the process variables, quality control testing of the products delivered by the process);
- Plastics recyclates characterisation (e.g. EN 15342, EN 15344, EN 15345, EN 15346 or EN 15348);
- Traceability (description of origins, logistics, tests carried out before processing, process parameters, tests carried out after processing, intended application).

EN 15343 also provides the basis for the calculation procedure for the recycled content of a product.

Standards EN 13430 and EN 13437 deal with packaging recycling. EN 13430 specifies the requirements for packaging to be classified as recoverable (through recycling), whilst accommodating the continuing development of both packaging and recovery technologies. It also sets out procedures for assessment of conformity with those requirements, including the procedure to define the requirements and the procedure for assessing recyclability criteria. Standard EN 13437 defines the criteria for a recycling process and describes the principal existing processes for material recycling and their inter-relationship.

The tests required by the standards and tender of specifications can be carried out either at the output of the reprocessing step (quality requirements of the secondary raw material above the EU standards) and also at the stage of the finished products. Reprocessors are usually responsible for ensuring the quality of the recyclate they provide to their end customers and they bear the costs of the control processes. Regarding end products, test products are produced along the normal production chain to check the compliance with possible constraints. The external colour of the PVC profiles is often specified, for instance, whereas the internal colour does not matter; some pieces in the automotive applications (e.g. interior doors) have to be very resistant, etc.

Requirements can also vary from one company to another for the same product; however, this is commonly a confidential aspect of the product composition or the manufacturing process. Similarly to the stage between the collector and the reprocessor, tenders of specifications are contracted between the reprocessor and the industrial customer. Thus, in practice, more specific requirements may be added to these standards, but these have to be respected in any case.

2.8.3.1 Technical specifications for recycled plastic end-uses

Some of the legislation presented in the next section includes actually technical criteria and restrictions on the content of certain substances in plastics, herewith recycled plastics. Examples of such restrictions are briefly sketched in Table 2.40 below.

Table 2.40: Summary of material properties required for acceptance to different uses¹⁷⁸

Type of plastic	Type of use	Key requirement
Any type of plastics	Electrical and electronic equipment	Limit values ¹⁷⁹ : 5 mg/kg (sum of 6 PCBs) and 50 mg/kg (PCB equivalents) 1000 ppm for Penta/Octa PBDEs (EU 2003/11) 1000 ppm for PBDEs and PBBs (RoHS II Directive 2011/65/EU) < 1 ppm for 4 PBDD/Fs ¹⁸⁰ (German Chemical Banning Ordinance) < 5 ppm for 8 PBDD/Fs (German Chemical Banning Ordinance)
Any type of plastics	Automotive; Electrical and electronic	Limit values (RoHS and ELV): 100 ppm for cadmium 1000 ppm for lead, mercury and hexavalent chromium

¹⁷⁸ Sources: BIO Intelligence Service (2008), Heavy metals in plastic crates and pallets; PlasticsEurope (2006), The characteristics of plastics-rich waste streams from end-of-life electrical and electronic equipment.

¹⁷⁹ PBDE: polybrominated diphenyl ether. PBB: polybrominated biphenyl

¹⁸⁰ Dioxins and furans

Type of plastic	Type of use	Key requirement
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	equipment	
Mainly HDPE, PE	Plastic crates and pallets	Requirement in terms of maximum limit for the heavy metals in packaging. The sum of the concentrations of four heavy metals (lead, cadmium, mercury and hexavalent chromium) is not to exceed: 600 ppm (as of July 1998); 250 ppm (July, 1999), and 100 ppm (July 2001). However, because crates and pallets have a long life span (10-15 years), a derogation has been set up in order to enable these products to progressively become compliant with the legislation. Packaging that has been manufactured under utilisation of the derogation is labelled with: Plastic packaging made of heavy metal containing recyclates (> 100 ppm) – market with the line under the plastic type In comparison, this is heavy metal free plastic packaging label (made of recyclate, virgin polymer possibly added).

Plastics -with or without recycled content- for food contact have to comply with EU 1935/2004 (framework regulation on food contact), the plastic implementation measure regulation (10/2011/EC, PIM), and most specifically with Regulation 282/2008/EC on food contact for recycled plastic materials. According to the latter, waste plastic may be contaminated by substances from the previous use or incidental misuse of the plastics or by substances originating from non-food contact grade plastic. As it is not possible to know all possible types of contamination, and as different types of plastics have different capacities to retain and release contaminants, it is not possible to set defined characteristics for the final product applicable to all types of recycled plastics. Therefore a combination of input characterisation together with an adequate process to remove possible contamination is necessary to control the safety of the final product. Thus, source certified post-consumer plastics collected for re-use have to be washed using an additional 'superclean' process that has been approved to EU282/2008.

Most commercial pre-form trays or sheets for form-fill-seal manufacturers are a mix of food and non-food products. Rather than have a mix-up with grades, all plastics should subscribe to one benchmark. A recent legislative proposal in France aiming at banning the commercialization of infant feeding bottles containing Bisphenol A (BPA) has

resulted in a EU wide restriction (Directive 2011/8/EU). The proposal was initially planning to ban BPA in all food grade plastics but this was not accepted¹⁸¹.

2.8.3.2 Conclusion on technical specifications and standards

The following conclusions can be extracted from the presentation of technical specifications and standards of this section:

None of the international existing standards and technical specifications fits the purpose of EoW. The standards on plastic waste (ISO 15347) are facultative on the properties of environmental properties, for which it does not provide specific guidance. The standards on recyclates, which in principle should better fit the characteristics of an EoW material by having undergone recovery operations, are also very open and generic on the properties of relevance for end-of-waste, such as the content of contaminants. Both standard types refer in essence to business-to-business specifications for the detailed communication of the properties of the material.

Gravimetric methods are simple and inexpensive means of determination of the content of impurities and the targeted plastics. However, these are only suited for loose material, before any thermal treatment transforms it into agglomerates or pellets. After that, only analytical methods such as spectroscopy or chromatography are possible for the determination of the content of polymers, when possible combined with less precise methods such as sink-float.

The TWG experts communicate that other international specifications containing maximum contaminant thresholds such as ISRI (which specifies 2% as the most common contaminant limit for the plastic types listed) are actually not of use in the EU or in EU- Asia trade.

The overall conclusion is that only business to business specifications define in actual practice the technical characteristics of waste plastics and recyclates. Therefore, it seems appropriate to refer to such business-to-business specifications as a general rule, and define in parallel convenient parameter limits for the material(s) of environmental concern not currently regulated by waste (WEEE, ELV) or product policy (RoHS, REACH, CLP, POPs).

2.9 Legislative aspects

In order to clarify the legal basis for trade of waste plastic, it is necessary to analyse both the legislation currently controlling waste plastic as waste, and the legislation that would cover waste plastic if it no longer was waste. The question to be answered is: how would product legislation regulate and control the environmental risks associated with waste plastic disposal/recovery once it ceases to be waste? Would this be sufficient to ensure environmental and health protection or are there additional measures (criteria) needed as part of the end-of-waste regulation?

In the EU, the management and trade of waste plastic are currently regulated under waste law. In practice, there seems to be a certain degree of *de facto* recognition of some

¹⁸¹ France Info. www.france-info.com/france-politique-2010-03-24-le-senat-bannit-les-biberons-au-bisphenol-a-421843-9-10.html

reprocessed products (e.g. regrind, agglomerates, pellets) as products, i.e. non-waste. This recognition is frequently the result of case-by-case agreements between the producers and the authorities (local/regional/national) with competences in activity licensing and the determination of waste/non-waste status. This situation would clearly benefit from harmonisation at EU level, as it is currently dependent on national rules that may be diverging and currently favour some more lenient markets in detriment of others where criteria are applied more strictly.

The following pieces of waste legislation will be discussed:

- The waste packaging Directive;
- The EU Waste Shipment Regulation;
- By-product definition under the WFD;
- The Waste Electric and Electronic Equipment (WEEE) directive;
- The End-of-Life Vehicles (ELV) directive;
- Other waste trade regulation issues (China).

Once the material ceases to be waste, the following pieces of legislation would regulate the marketing and use of the plastic material as a product at EU level:

- restriction of hazardous substances in EE equipment (RoHS) directive;
- REACH and CLP regulations;
- Legislation on plastics intended for food contact;
- The Persistent Organic Pollutant (POP) Regulation
- VAT.

2.9.1 Waste legislation

2.9.1.1 Waste packaging directive

The Packaging and Packaging Waste Directive, 94/62/EC¹⁸² of 20 December 1994, amended by 2004/12/EC, is intended to harmonize national legislations with the goal of preventing or reducing the environmental impact of packaging and packaging waste. Its provisions address the prevention of packaging waste, the reuse of packaging materials, and their recovery and recycling. As part of the Directive's provisions, the following commitments and targets for packaging waste recycling are set (longer deadlines apply to the new Member States):

- Article 6.1 (e) no later than 31 December 2008 the following minimum recycling targets for materials contained in packaging waste had to be attained:
- [...] (ii) 22,5 % by weight for plastics, counting exclusively material that is recycled back into plastics;
- By 2007, new targets shall have been set for the next 5 year period (2009-2014). However, in a Report of December 2006 (COM(2006) 767 final), on the implementation of Directive 94/62/EC on packaging and packaging waste, the Commission announced that the recycling and recovery targets contained in the Packaging Directive, including the

¹⁸² European Parliament and Council Directive 94/62/EC of 20 December 1994 on packaging and packaging waste, amended by 2004/12/EC
http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/environment/waste_management/l21207_en.htm

aforementioned on plastics, are still appropriate, and proposed these should remain to enable all the Member States to catch-up with them.

- In addition to the product specific target set by the Packaging Directive (94/62/EC), an overall 2020 target of minimum 50% re-use or recycling rate for at least paper, metal, plastic and glass collected from households (or similar) sources is set in the Article 11(a) of the Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC):
- 'by 2020, the preparing for re-use and the recycling of waste materials such as at least paper, metal, plastic and glass from households and possibly from other origins as far as these waste streams are similar to waste from households, shall be increased to a minimum of overall 50 % by weight.'

This target is not to be met by each material individually.

An end of waste regulation would contribute to foster recycling of high quality materials, and is thus aligned with the increased recycling objectives of the packaging directive.

2.9.1.2 Waste shipment regulation - WSR

Exports for disposal are, apart from some very restricted exceptions, prohibited. Under the Waste Shipments Regulation (WSR)¹⁸³, wastes can be shipped for recovery, and are divided into two different control categories known as the green and amber lists. The WSR will remain the alternative framework for the transboundary movement of waste plastic not meeting the EoW criteria and thus not falling under EoW provisions.

Broadly speaking, wastes on the green lists are non-hazardous, and are subject to minimal controls when shipped between EU Member States for recovery. Wastes on the amber lists are deemed to be hazardous and are therefore subject to more stringent control regimes within the EU. Waste plastic, in an uncontaminated, homogenous form with minimal non-plastic components, can be shipped under green list controls as it is non-hazardous. For hazardous waste, its transboundary movement is regulated by the Basel Convention¹⁸⁴

If waste is exported to be recovered, the WSR controls ('green list' controls or notification controls) applying will depend on the type of waste shipped and the country where the recovery is to take place, as belonging to one of these groups:

- an EU Member State – except for the 'new' Member States listed below;
- a 'new' EU Member State, namely Latvia, Poland, Slovakia, Bulgaria or Romania;
- an OECD Member State;
- a non-EU Member State outside the OECD.

Where waste is to be shipped from an EU country to a non-EU country, additional controls apply. It is generally not prohibited to export waste plastic or other plastic-containing waste from a EU Member State to recovery in a third country outside the EU. If the non-EU country

¹⁸³ Regulation (EC) No. 1013/2006 of the European Parliament and the Council of 14 June 2006 on shipments of waste (Waste Shipment Regulation),

<http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=CELEX:32006R1013:EN:NOT>

¹⁸⁴

The

Basel

Convention,

http://europa.eu/legislation_summaries/environment/waste_management/l28043_en.htm

is a Member of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the controls are similar to those within the EU. However, if the non-EU country of import is not a Member of the OECD, then following an amendment made to the Basel Convention in 1995, exports of amber (i.e. hazardous) wastes, even for recovery, are banned completely.

For 'green list' exports (recycling, non-hazardous) to non-OECD countries, the Regulation requires the Commission to obtain a new declaration from the receiving country as to whether it will accept each kind of waste; it may also require pre-notification and consent. The country of import can choose which green list wastes it wishes to import for recovery, and which it does not.

Some of the responding countries have waste plastic as green list without the need of control, including, from the top-10 importers of EU waste plastic (see Fig 2.17), Philippines, Thailand and India. Waste plastic is not fully prohibited by any of the top-10 world importers, but all of them require either prior written notification, or have own additional control procedures (see dedicated section below). However, some of the non-OECD countries failed to respond and where no reply is received, those countries are to be regarded as having chosen a procedure of prior written notification and consent. Default controls of prior written notification and consent are applied, which requires administration and payment of a fee as well as the establishment of a financial guarantee, and shipments are delayed whilst this is completed

In consequence, it is important that those wishing to export waste plastic for recycling outside of the EU are not only sure that their material properly falls under the green list categorisation, but also check that the importing country is prepared to accept the material without further controls.

In any case, the Waste Shipment Regulation allows exports from the Community only if the facility that receives the waste (i.e. plastic producer or other) is operated in accordance with human health and environmental standards that are broadly equivalent to standards established in Community legislation (IPPC). In reprocessing and recycled plastic manufacturing, waste plastic must be dealt with in an environmentally sound manner, without causing health risks. Generally, the reprocessor should be licensed or permitted in some way by the relevant local regulatory authorities.

Waste plastic under green list controls may contain the following materials¹⁸⁵ (WSR Annex V 1B: B3010 Solid plastic waste):

The following plastic or mixed plastic materials, provided they are not mixed with other wastes and are prepared to a specification:

— Waste plastic of non-halogenated polymers and copolymers, including but not limited to the following (1):

- ethylene
- styrene
- polypropylene
- polyethylene terephthalate
- acrylonitrile

¹⁸⁵ List of wastes from Annex V of 1013/2006 (Annex IX to the Basel Convention, reproduced in Annex V, Part 1, List B, of 1013/2006)

- butadiene
 - polyacetals
 - polyamides
 - polybutylene terephthalate
 - polycarbonates
 - polyethers
 - polyphenylene sulphides
 - acrylic polymers
 - alkanes C10-C13 (plasticiser)
 - polyurethane (not containing CFCs)
 - polysiloxanes
 - polymethyl methacrylate
 - polyvinyl alcohol
 - polyvinyl butyral
 - polyvinyl acetate
 - Cured waste resins or condensation products including the following:
 - urea formaldehyde resins
 - phenol formaldehyde resins
 - melamine formaldehyde resins
 - epoxy resins
 - alkyd resins
 - polyamides
 - The following fluorinated polymer wastes (2):
 - Perfluoroethylene/propylene (FEP)
 - Perfluoro alkoxyl alkane
 - Tetrafluoroethylene/per fluoro vinyl ether (PFA)
 - Tetrafluoroethylene/per fluoro methylvinyl ether (MFA)
 - Polyvinylfluoride (PVF)
 - Polyvinylidenefluoride (PVDF)
- (1) It is understood that such scraps are completely polymerised.
- (2) Post-consumer wastes are excluded from this entry. Wastes shall not be mixed. Problems arising from open-burning practices to be considered.

Surprisingly, the Annex does include PVF and PVDF but not PVC and PVDC.

'Green list' controls include:

- The waste can be moved legally without obtaining permission from the regulators.
- The waste must be accompanied by a completed and signed 'Annex VII form'.
- Specified contracts for recovering the waste between the person sending the waste and the person receiving the waste must be in place.
- When the person receives the waste, he/she must sign the accompanying form.
- Copies of the form relating to the waste movement must be kept for three years.

The regulatory authorities can ask for copies of the documents relating to the movements already made or ask for information from those documents.

According to the comments received by some experts of the technical working group, some of the entries of the regulation, as quoted above, are non-exhaustive (e.g. expressions like 'including but not limited to'), and this ambiguity opens the possibility of different interpretations by the enforcement authorities.

The OECD (2009) reports that traders encounter problems related to the 'Annex VII form' requirements. The traders mention that the form adds administrative burden, which they do not feel is necessary, but the main concern is about providing information on the origin and the final destination of the shipment, which in some cases is perceived as confidential for commercial reasons. This confidentiality is no longer guaranteed if the buyer and seller of the traded waste plastic get this information via the Annex VII form. End-of-waste will impact trade, as waste plastic that fulfils EoW criteria will not be under the waste shipment regime.

The procedures laid out in OECD Decision C(2001)107/Final concerning the control of transboundary movements of waste destined for recovery indicate that the materials may be traded for recovery using normal commercial controls within the OECD. This implies that the standard customs controls for goods are applied to these materials, without additional procedures. According to (OECD 2009: Joint Working Party on Trade and Environment: Reducing barriers to international trade in non-hazardous recyclable materials: exploring the environmental and economic benefits, Part 1: A synthesis report), the US and Japan apply the OECD Decision in this way. Conversely, the EU follows the WSR and applies the 'green list controls' to waste plastics.

The logic of end-of-waste is that waste plastic that has fulfilled the criteria and has become product is no longer under the waste shipment regime. As the scope of application of an end-of-waste regulation is the EU, nothing can be said on how a stream is classified (waste/ non-waste) at a destination out of the EU. The adoption of the EoW criteria may or not influence the criteria currently used for such decisions out of the EU, e.g. acknowledging at destination non-waste status for consignments classified as such before leaving the EU.

2.9.1.3 By-products definition under the waste framework Directive

If a certain waste plastic generated were regarded as being a by-product and not waste, in the sense of Article 5 of the WFD, then a possible interpretation is that end-of-waste criteria would not apply to it, unless the by-product becomes waste at a later phase. By-product status should not be an alternative to avoid compliance with end-of-waste, but this is not likely to be the case, as by-product conditions are even more strict than end-of-waste, by the introduction of Art. 5 (b) and Art. 5 (c), both of which are not required for end-of-waste and would only be met by some high quality flows of pre-consumer waste plastic. Article 5 of the WFD on by-product reads as follows:

'1. A substance or object, resulting from a production process, the primary aim of which is not the production of that item, may be regarded as not being waste referred to in point (1) of Article 3 but as being a by-product only if the following conditions are met:

- (a) further use of the substance or object is certain;
- (b) the substance or object can be used directly without any further processing other than normal industrial practice;
- (c) the substance or object is produced as an integral part of a production process; and

(d) further use is lawful, i.e. the substance or object fulfils all relevant product, environmental and health protection requirements for the specific use and will not lead to overall adverse environmental or human health impacts.

2. On the basis of the conditions laid down in paragraph 1, measures may be adopted to determine the criteria to be met for specific substances or objects to be regarded as a by-product and not as waste referred to in point (1) of Article 3. Those measures, designed to amend non-essential elements of this Directive by supplementing it, shall be adopted in accordance with the regulatory procedure with scrutiny referred to in Article 39(2).'

It is noticeable that Article 5 of the WFD says '*...may be regarded...*', which leaves a certain freedom of choice even if the four conditions of Article 5 are met, as long as measures under Article 5.2 have not been adopted.

2.9.1.4 WEEE

The Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment (WEEE) Directive, 2002/96/EC contributes to some improvements in the management of EE equipment waste. It mandates that new EE products must be recovered at a rate of 70 to 80%, and 50 to 70% of materials must be recycled)¹⁸⁶. New targets have been agreed in its recast in 2012 (2012/18/EU).

The primary driving forces for any WEEE treatment operation are the removal of any hazardous materials and the recycling of metals. As EEE is a major source of waste plastics, the directive has some significant implications on plastics recycling. However, it does not specify to what extent any plastics can be recovered for recycling. The directive sets out certain design requirements, the result of which could be a gradual reduction in the variety of plastics components in EEE products. The legislation increases the emphasis on the recyclability of EEE product components, although costs, and economic feasibility, remain a barrier to its success.

The WEEE directive imposes the removal of plastics containing brominated flame retardants from any separately collected WEEE. Some stakeholders have stated that the percentage of plastics containing Br-FRs actually recycled appears to be limited. This measure does not specifically target the Br-FR of most concern, and penalises the allowed Br-FRs. However, it is reinforced in combination with other EU legislation that restrict specific brominated flame retardants such as tetra-, penta-, hexa-, hepta- and octa-BDE (POPs regulation, RoHS Directive, REACH, see below under the section on product policy), some of them envisaged to gradually remove from the plastic cycles the presence of these specific substances.

Austria reports that plastics from the processing of electrical and electronic wastes which are proven to originate only from telephone housings (no mobile phones), vacuum cleaner housings, housings of kitchen appliances (e.g. coffee machine) or larger appliances (e.g. washing machine, refrigerators) usually include hardly any or no hazardous flame retardants

¹⁸⁶ European Commission, 2007, Plastics Composition of WEEE and Implications for Recovery.

Mixed plastic housing fractions from waste household electrical/electronic equipment in many cases do not exceed the total content of polybrominated diphenyl ethers of 0.1% (see limit of the RoHS Directive for application of plastics in the electronic sector).

Waste plastic fractions from waste electrical and electronic equipment arising from TV casings, monitor housings, electrical tools, photocopy machines, printers, fax machines or mains adapters usually contain larger amounts of hazardous flame retardants, such as, in particular, polybrominated diphenyl ethers. These substances are however not in free form but bound/embedded in a polymer matrix (PVC, ABS, PE, etc)

One of the problems reported by experts is that the EU-legislation does not require a separation of plastics from WEEE containing brominated flame retardants at the level of the WEEE dismantler, but the separation may also take place at a later step, e.g. after shredding in a shredder facility by means of IR or density separation processes. Some MS authorities fear that during shredding the waste may be (intentionally or not) diluted with plastics containing no flame retardants, so that the resulting plastic fractions might show contamination with brominated FR below the thresholds allowed by ROHS Directive (for application in the electronic sector) or POP- Regulation for recycling (in other industrial sectors than the electronic industry), resulting in dilution of these substances, and not their controlled removal from the material cycles for adequate disposal/destruction.

2.9.1.5 ELV

Directive 2000/53/EC on End-of-life Vehicles sets out targets to reduce the amount of waste from vehicles when they reach end-of-life. One such target is that by 1 January 2015 reuse and recovery of vehicle material (including plastics) must be increased to a minimum of 95 % (by an average weight per vehicle and year). The directive's targets are not specific to material types, but an increased treatment of plastics will be necessary to meet such targets.

So far, the dismantling of vehicles has followed traditional technologies essentially focusing on the reclamation of metals. Because of this, the technologies used, based on shredding, have not been adapted to the recovery of glass or plastics. As vehicles are increasingly consisting of plastic components, the directive provides an opportunity to develop plastic recycling in the sector.

The European Commission published a report in November 2009 presenting the implementation of the Directive for the period 2005-2008¹⁸⁷, according to which the level of transposition of the Directive in National legal orders has substantially increased since 2006. However, in 2009, nine non-conformity cases and six cases for non-reporting were still pending; which shows that some of the provisions of the Directive have not yet been transposed fully or correctly.

¹⁸⁷ COM (2009) 635 final Report from the Commission to the Council, the European Parliament, the European Economic and Social Committee and the Committee of regions on the implementation of Directive 2000/53/EC on end-of-life vehicles for the period 2005-2008

2.9.1.6 Other regulatory elements in waste trade

Regulatory authorities may assess exported waste to test whether or not the exporter has appropriately classified the waste. In some cases there may be differences in approach between regulators inside the EU for shipments outside the EU. For example, an official from the Dutch regulators might intercept a consignment on route from the UK to China and conclude the waste being exported should be considered differently from what the exporter declared. In such a case the view of the Dutch authorities would prevail and the exporter would have to pay to have the waste repatriated to the UK, even if the UK regulatory authorities were satisfied with the waste category declared by the exporter.

Cases have also been reported of agglomerates and regrind with high (and visible) content of impurities produced in Germany, receiving non-waste status in this country, and being questioned about this status upon crossing the borders to neighbour countries (Austria, Netherlands), by the authorities in charge of inspection of the customer conversion plant.

Trade with China, India and Indonesia

According to WRAP¹⁸⁸, the Chinese national provisions require that a waste shipment be accompanied by three documents and these documents must be arranged prior to shipment in order to be considered legal and be allowed for import by the Chinese government. The procedure of exporting waste plastic to mainland China involves:

- Ensuring that the receiving facilities (destination) have the Chinese SEPA-licence; this includes conformity with the Environmental Protection Control Standard for Imported Solid Wastes as raw materials.
- Obtaining a so-called AQSIQ licence
- Obtaining a pre-shipment inspection certificate from CCiC¹⁸⁹

Chinese importing restrictions for waste plastic include additionally:

- The amount of hazardous components (e.g. asbestos waste, burnt or partly burnt waste plastic, etc.) not to exceed 0.01%.
- Impurities (such as wood, waste metal, waste glass, etc.) shall not exceed 0.5% of the weight of the imported plastic material.
- All waste plastic materials must be broken into pieces (in chips, blocks, granulated or powder) and washed – this means for instance that China may refuse shipments of plastic bottles to mainland China ports if the bottles are whole.

In the case of India and Indonesia, BIR¹⁹⁰ reports that these two countries are implementing stricter quality controls on imported recyclables, especially paper and plastics, requiring all shipments to be pre-inspected by third parties (e.g. SGS, Bureau Veritas) to ensure the shipment is not waste. India is also introducing requirements on inspection certificates for imports, confirming the absence in the shipment of municipal waste, biomedical waste and hazardous waste, plus a chemical certificate.

188 WRAP, 2008

189 China Certification & Inspection (Group) Co., Ltd (CCIC) is a transnational company and dedicated to provide “inspection, surveying, certification, and testing” services. CCIC is the first nationwide non-governmental organization in China, focusing its principal activities in the field of import & export commodity inspection, survey, and certification.

190 BIR (2009) BIR world mirror – Quarterly report, April 2009 and July 2009. BIR, Belgium

China's own RoHS legislation, called *Management Methods for Controlling Pollution from Electronic Information Products*, is similar and in some aspects stricter than the EU's ROHS.

According to some experts of the technical working group, WSR and Asian inspections increase bureaucracy and cost of shipments, however regular changes in the Asian import requirements do hinder recycling, as changes in legislation are usually announced in the national language without prior notice. In such cases, the consequences of the legislative changes are not clear to the exporters, and often to the custom and inspection staff. According to the latest communications in relation to the WSR, other Asian countries or regions applying controls based on national law are Taiwan and Vietnam.

2.9.2 Legislation for recycled plastics as products

2.9.2.1 RoHS

Directive 2002/95/EC on Restriction on Hazardous Substances (RoHS) aims to improve qualitative waste prevention in waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) through the restriction of the use of a number of substances. The RoHS directive requires that from 1st July 2006 new E+E equipment put on the market does not contain:

- Lead
- Mercury
- Cadmium
- hexavalent chromium
- polybrominated biphenyls (PBBs)
- polybrominated diphenylethers (PBDEs)

A number of specific applications where there currently is no substitute were provided with an exemption, subject to maximum content thresholds. The prohibition regarding BDEs had as exception Deca BDE, where more information was requested.

The RoHS directive has more recently been recasted (2011/65/EU) confirming the restriction of use of the above substances in EEE. However, it formulates it not as a ban but as a concentration threshold, which for the content of heavy metals is 1000ppm for lead, mercury, and Chromium IV, and 100ppm for Cadmium. For brominated biphenyls and diphenyl ethers it is 1000ppm (0.1%). The recasted Directive clarifies also the exempted applications for heavy metals, where the above mentioned concentrations may be trespassed.

2.9.2.2 REACH and CLP regulations

REACH (EC 1907/2006) ¹⁹¹ is a European Community Regulation on chemicals and their safe use. It deals with the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemical substances. The Regulation entered into force on 1 June 2007. The aim of REACH is to ensure a high level of protection of human health and the environment, promote alternative methods for assessment of hazards of substances, and facilitate the

191 REACH, http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/reach/reach_intro.htm

free circulation of substances on the internal market. REACH is structured to include the following overall requirements (Figure 2.42.):

Figure 2.42. Titles and overall requirements of Regulation 1907/2006 (REACH)

TITLE II	REGISTRATION OF SUBSTANCES
TITLE III	DATA SHARING AND AVOIDANCE OF UNNECESSARY TESTING
TITLE IV	INFORMATION IN THE SUPPLY CHAIN
TITLE V	DOWNSTREAM USERS
TITLE VI	EVALUATION
TITLE VII	AUTHORISATION
TITLE VIII	RESTRICTIONS ON THE MANUFACTURING, PLACING ON THE MARKET AND USE OF CERTAIN DANGEROUS SUBSTANCES AND PREPARATIONS
TITLE IX	FEES AND CHARGES
TITLE X	AGENCY
TITLE XI	CLASSIFICATION AND LABELLING INVENTORY
TITLE XII	INFORMATION
TITLE XIII	COMPETENT AUTHORITIES
TITLE XIV	ENFORCEMENT
TITLE XV	TRANSITIONAL AND FINAL PROVISIONS
- * -	
ANNEX I	GENERAL PROVISIONS FOR ASSESSING SUBSTANCES AND PREPARING CHEMICAL SAFETY REPORTS
ANNEX II	GUIDE TO THE COMPILATION OF SAFETY DATA SHEETS
ANNEX III	CRITERIA FOR SUBSTANCES REGISTERED IN QUANTITIES BETWEEN 1 AND 10 TONNES
ANNEX IV	EXEMPTIONS FROM THE OBLIGATION TO REGISTER IN ACCORDANCE WITH ARTICLE 2(7)(a)
ANNEX V	EXEMPTIONS FROM THE OBLIGATION TO REGISTER IN ACCORDANCE WITH ARTICLE 2(7)(b)
ANNEX VI	INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS REFERRED TO IN ARTICLE 10
ANNEX VII	STANDARD INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS FOR SUBSTANCES MANUFACTURED OR IMPORTED IN QUANTITIES OF 1 TONNE OR MORE
ANNEX VIII	STANDARD INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS FOR SUBSTANCES MANUFACTURED OR IMPORTED IN QUANTITIES OF 10 TONNES OR MORE
ANNEX IX	STANDARD INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS FOR SUBSTANCES MANUFACTURED OR IMPORTED IN QUANTITIES OF 100 TONNES OR MORE
ANNEX X	STANDARD INFORMATION REQUIREMENTS FOR SUBSTANCES MANUFACTURED OR IMPORTED IN QUANTITIES OF 1 000 TONNES OR MORE
ANNEX XI	GENERAL RULES FOR ADAPTATION OF THE STANDARD TESTING REGIME SET OUT IN ANNEXES VII TO X
ANNEX XII	GENERAL PROVISIONS FOR DOWNSTREAM USERS TO ASSESS SUBSTANCES AND PREPARE CHEMICAL SAFETY REPORTS
ANNEX XIII	CRITERIA FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF PERSISTENT, BIOACCUMULATIVE AND TOXIC SUBSTANCES, AND VERY PERSISTENT AND VERY BIOACCUMULATIVE SUBSTANCES
ANNEX XIV	LIST OF SUBSTANCES SUBJECT TO AUTHORISATION
ANNEX XV	DOSSIERS
ANNEX XVI	SOCIO-ECONOMIC ANALYSIS
ANNEX XVII	RESTRICTIONS ON THE MANUFACTURE, PLACING ON THE MARKET AND USE OF CERTAIN DANGEROUS SUBSTANCES, PREPARATIONS AND ARTICLES

Under REACH, only substances are subject to registration, and not mixtures or articles. Moreover, REACH excludes some substances (such as waste or naturally occurring substances) from its scope, and includes provisions to exempt some other substances (such as those recovered from waste) from some or many of its requirements, as some of these have already been done when the substances were placed on the market for the

first time. To facilitate the implementation of REACH, guidelines published by the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA). Specifically on waste, the guidelines of 2010 on waste substances have clearly defined the obligations to be borne by plastic recyclers, as regard registration and production of safety data sheets.

Some of the key implications of the application of REACH to recycled plastics are discussed below. A further discussion of the possible impacts for producers/importers is presented in Chapter 4:

Waste is excluded from some of the obligations of REACH (Art.2.2), as it is covered by the waste regulatory regime, which is taken as ensuring equivalent or more demanding control of health and environmental protection risks. Waste is not fully excluded, as e.g. section 5.2.2 in Annex I requests that information on emissions during relevant life-cycle phases is collected¹⁹², and this may where relevant relate to the waste stage. The prescriptions of REACH regarding communication apply also, in full.

However, when waste plastic ceases to be waste according to Article 6 of the WFD, the exemption under Article 2.2 of the REACH Regulation does not apply anymore.

For the purpose of REACH, waste plastic that has ceased to be waste is to be considered as a substance or mixture of substances such as the main polymer, and its additives, with or without impurities. In REACH, plastic lumber and other shaped products directly obtained from waste plastic would fall under the definition of articles, and not under the definition of substances or mixtures.

REACH includes exemptions to some of its requirements (Titles II on registration, V on downstream users obligations, and VI on evaluation, but not on e.g. data sharing or information down the supply chain) for substances which are known to pose little or no health and environmental risk. Three exempted groups of relevance for waste plastic and its constituent substances are:

- Polymers. Through Art 2.9, these are explicitly exempted from Titles II and VI (but not from Title V on downstream users obligations)¹⁹³.
- Substances, on their own, in preparations or in articles, which have been registered in accordance with Title II and which are recovered in the Community (art. 2.7.d) if:
 - the substance that results from the recovery process is the same as the substance that has been registered in accordance with Title II (e.g. the main

¹⁹² Annex I, Section 5 of REACH states: "EXPOSURE ASSESSMENT: The objective of the exposure assessment shall be to make a quantitative or qualitative estimate of the dose/concentration of the substance to which humans and the environment are or may be exposed. The assessment shall consider all stages of the life-cycle of the substance resulting from the manufacture and identified uses and shall cover any exposures that may relate to the hazards identified [...] The exposure assessment shall entail the following two steps, which shall be clearly identified as such in the Chemical Safety Report: Step 1: Generation of exposure scenario(s) or the generation of relevant use and exposure categories, Step 2: Exposure Estimation. Where required and in accordance with Article 31, the exposure scenario shall also be included in an annex to the Safety Data Sheet. [...]" . Section 5.2.2 reads: "The emission estimation shall consider the emissions during all relevant parts of the life-cycle of the substance resulting from the manufacture and each of the identified uses. The life-cycle stages resulting from the manufacture of the substance cover, where relevant, the waste stage".

¹⁹³ OBS: monomers are not exempted from these Titles.

- waste plastic polymers/monomers and the additives that do not undergo chemical transformation); and
 - the information required by Articles 31 or 32 relating to the substance that has been registered in accordance with Title II is available to the establishment undertaking the recovery. (e.g. main waste plastic polymers and additives that do not undergo chemical transformation, in case these are not covered by (i)).
- Substances covered by Annex V, as registration is deemed inappropriate or unnecessary for these substances and their exemption from the above mentioned Titles does not prejudice the objectives of REACH Regulation ((art. 2.7.b), e.g. substances which are not themselves manufactured, imported or placed on the market and which result from a chemical reaction that occurs when the following substances functions as intended , and are not dangerous¹⁹⁴: *a stabiliser, colorant, flavouring agent, antioxidant, filler, solvent, carrier, surfactant, plasticiser, corrosion inhibitor, antifoamer or defoamer, dispersant, precipitation inhibitor, desiccant, binder, emulsifier, de-emulsifier, dewatering agent, agglomerating agent, adhesion promoter, flow modifier, pH neutraliser, sequesterant, coagulant, flocculant, fire retardant, lubricant, chelating agent, or quality control reagent*.' Of relevance for plastics recycling, this Annex refers therefore not to the listed substances themselves (non-dangerous stabilisers, plasticisers, fire retardants, etc), but to any reaction substance and by-product that may result from the use of those additives.

The classification of material from plastic waste according to REACH is described in detail below:

Mixtures, substances and impurities

The Commission issued in October 2008 the document 'Waste and Recovered Substances' (CA/24/2008 rev.3 of April 2009), which clarifies the general principles for waste and recovered substances for REACH, and gives useful interpretation for the obligations under REACH of the major recovered materials. This document has been expanded and consolidated by the ECHA in April 2010¹⁹⁵. The CA/24/2008 rev.3 document, also quoted in ECHA (2010), specifies the considerations to be taken on *recovered* [sic] *polymers* for the purpose of REACH, as described below:

The polymer recovery operator should identify any intended substances in the recovered material (e.g. substances added to adjust or improve the appearance and/or the physicochemical properties of polymeric material) originally present in the polymeric material that was recovered. This may happen in case of selective recovery. Intentionally recovered substances cannot be treated as impurities, but have to be considered as a substance for which one has to check whether one can rely on the exemption via Article 2(7)(d) of REACH. For this reason, it is recommended to regard the recovered material as a substance in a mixture (e.g. in the case of selective recycling of soft PVC, it would be necessary to register the relevant softeners, unless they have been registered before).

The spectrum of impurities and their concentrations is relatively wide. Impurities originating from substances originally present in the polymeric material to be recovered do not need to be registered, as their presence is covered by the registration of the monomer substance(s). Any other unintentional 'impurity' present in the recovered

¹⁹⁴ That is, they do not meet the criteria for classification as dangerous according to Directive 67/548/EEC.

¹⁹⁵ ECHA, 2010.

polymer substance (e.g. pigments which have not any longer the intended function in the recovered material or impurities that are introduced after polymer manufacturing) can be considered as impurities, unless present in quantities above 20%. If that is the case, the constituent should be seen as a substance in a mixture, even if its presence is non-intentional.

In determining the status of the recovered polymeric material, information on the origin may be important in establishing which constituents may be present in the material and whether they should be seen as impurities or separate substances. Impurities are part of the substances and do not need to be registered. However, registration exemption does not mean oblivion: manufacturers of recovered polymers shall have information on the identity and quantities in which hazardous minor constituents or impurities are present in the recovered polymer. Therefore, while the impurities do not need registration, they do indeed need to be identified and characterised in order to ensure that none of them has hazardous properties. Should any of the impurities be hazardous (e.g. the phthalates or flame retardants of Annex VI in CLP Regulation), this will trigger further communication obligations in the supply chain, although not necessarily the classification of the plastics as hazardous, if it can be demonstrated that the substances do not migrate from the polymer matrix.

An analysis is not required in certain cases where no significant impurities are expected (e.g. if the recovery occurs from a polymer used in its pure form). Also in some cases it may be possible to characterise the recovered polymeric product sufficiently without considering the origin¹⁹⁶. There is also the option of handling recovered polymers as UVCBs, if the composition is unknown.

In a first step it may be assessed whether the recovery process results directly in an article (i.e. if the first non-waste material in the recovery chain is an article and neither a substance as such nor in a mixture). There is no registration requirement under REACH with regard to the presence of a polymer substance in a recovered article.

Following the approach, the recovery operator should then assess whether substances in the recovered polymers¹⁹⁷ are exempted under Annex IV¹⁹⁸ or Annex V¹⁹⁹ of REACH or whether any other exemption criteria under REACH apply²⁰⁰.

Although the registration provisions under REACH do not apply to polymers, the manufacturer or an importer of polymer is required to register the monomers and other substances used to manufacture the polymer under certain conditions in accordance with

¹⁹⁶ However, in the case of polymers, and with the idea to help recovery operators in identifying the materials in various plastic items, plastic identification code numbers 1-6 have been assigned to six common kinds of recyclable plastic resins, with the number 7 indicating any other kind of plastic, whether recyclable or not. Standardized symbols are available incorporating each of these codes. As there are six commonly recycled polymers it would be helpful to give such information on which monomers have been used for the manufacturing of the polymer.

¹⁹⁷ i.e. targeted monomers/polymers/additives, or known/unknown impurities. Unknown impurities have to be identified (see below).

¹⁹⁸ Exemptions following Art. 2.7.a (sufficient information known, low-risk substances, often naturally occurring such as limestone, graphite, plant oils)

¹⁹⁹ Exemptions following Art. 2.7.b (registration unnecessary: by products, naturally occurring reaction products of exposure to the environment)

²⁰⁰ The exemptions would refer to Titles II, V and VI only, but not to all requirements of REACH

Article 6(3) of REACH. Similarly, for recovered polymers, one has to check that the monomers and the other substances are registered in order to be able to rely on the exemption of Article 2.7(d) of REACH. The impurities and additives need also be covered by an existing registration.

In most cases the waste polymer is collected from the EU market, then the polymer recovery operators are exempted from the obligation to register the monomer(s) or any other substance(s) meeting the criteria of Article 6(3) of REACH in the recovered polymer, provided that these substance(s) from which the polymer is derived ha(s)(ve) been registered. Moreover, the recovery operator must have the safety information required by Article 31 or Article 32 of REACH concerning the monomer and its additives. For that purpose, all available information on the components of the recovered material needs to be taken into consideration.

Consequences for the registration of waste plastics

Under REACH, only substances are subject to registration. Articles, mixtures and impurities are covered by REACH, but do not require registration.

In waste plastics, not only the main polymer, but also the additives and impurities are covered by its obligations, depending on two conditions:

- whether their presence is intentional or not, i.e. whether they are targeted substances, or can be considered impurities. Targeted additives require registration.
- if they are impurities, i.e. non-targeted substances, whether their content is above or below 20% (w/w). Impurities <20% do not require registration.

In essence: polymers and targeted additives shall be registered or, if from recycled material, one must ensure that they have been previously registered (in the case of the polymer, the monomers). For impurities there is some minimal room of manoeuvre for the producer, that only concerns registration and in case they are <20%. This may be the case of e.g. a non-targeted additive in a recycled plastic. But as mentioned above, the exemption is only for the registration, and not from the CLP obligation of characterising it in detail and determining if it is hazardous.

The classification and labelling requirements of REACH and CLP expect recyclers to characterise to the detail the recycled materials. Obviously, this is more difficult for a recycler than for a primary manufacturer. In principle, recyclers have two options for obtaining information about the constituents of substances:

- a) Complete (laboratory) analysis of the constituents,
- b) Accessing available knowledge about the composition (and hazard profile).

Normally, a combination of both approaches will be necessary and most practical. Chapter 4 in Oekopol (2012) offers a number of examples of how to obtain this type of information.

Polymers are substances of common use for many purposes, so it can be expected that reproprocessors can obtain information from these without a disproportionate effort. In practice, reproprocessors will not have to register the monomers under REACH, but will

have to find information about them to prepare the safety data sheets that are to accompany the recycled material once it ceases to be waste. Obtaining such information for the large amounts of additives and impurities present in waste plastics can be more difficult, and will require a combination of own analyses (e.g. chromatography and spectrography) and generic information derived from the knowledge of the input materials. Industry associations can contribute decisively to keep the burden low for companies (especially SMEs, which actually dominate the recycling plastic markets) that need to demonstrate compliance with these conditions, and most of them are embarked in preparing guidance documents and drafting safety data sheet databases of monomers, polymers and additives relevant for their members.

Substances requiring authorisation

The aim of the authorisation procedure in Title VII is to assure that the risks from substances of very high concern (SVHC) are properly controlled and that these substances are progressively replaced by suitable alternative substances or technologies where these are economically and technically viable. Very limited cases where there is no replacement for the substances can be exempted.

SVHC are substances that are supposedly

- CMR (carcinogenic/mutagenic/reprotoxic)
- PBT (persistent, bioaccumulative, toxic)
- vTvB (very toxic, very bioaccumulative)

Substances of very high concern will be gradually identified in a 'Candidate list' and once agreed upon, eventually included in Annex XIV of the REACH Regulation. Once included in that Annex, they cannot be placed on the market or used after a date to be set (the so-called 'sunset date') unless the company is granted an authorisation.

The latest approved SVHC list (REACH Annex XIV) and the current candidate list of SVHC are presented in Annex VI of this report.

Once on the list in Annex XIV of REACH, a manufacturer, importer or downstream user, including plastics recyclers, shall not place a substance on the market for a use, or use it himself, unless:

- the specific use has been authorised (to the producer itself, or its immediate downstream user), or
- the substance has been exempted from authorisation (permanent or subject to transitional periods and so-called sunset dates), or
- the substance is present in preparations:
 - below a concentration limit of 0,1 % weight by weight (w/w), for substances in accordance with the criteria set out in Annex XIII (SVHC criteria) as referred to in Article 57(d), i.e. PBT substances (persistent, bioaccumulative and toxic), 57 (e) vPvB substances (very persistent and very bioaccumulative); and 57 (f) substances having endocrine disrupting properties or PBT or vPvB properties.
 - for all other substances, below the lowest of the concentration limits specified in Directive 1999/45/EC or in Annex I to Directive 67/548/EEC which result in the classification of the preparation as dangerous.

Article 133(4) lays out a procedure for decision on authorisation, involving a member State Committee, and a recommendation to the Commission by ECHA based on the requests it receives, as well as for the update of the list based on new information.

Substances of restricted use through Title VIII (And Annex XVII) cannot be authorised. Art 61(6) indicates also that if the use of a substance is prohibited or restricted in Regulation (EC) No 850/2004 on POPs, the authorisation for that use is withdrawn.

Restricted substances

REACH contains, inter alia, specific market and use restrictions of certain substances (formerly addressed in Directive 76/769/EEC) in its Annex XVII. Of concern for plastics are currently:

- the use of low molecular weight phthalates in toys
- the use of cadmium from recycled polymers (higher threshold limits have been agreed in all PVC products and other polymers).
- the use of cadmium in crates
- The use of some HM in certain plastic applications.

New restrictions are under scrutiny affecting plastics, for instance:

- phthalates in indoor use articles
- PAHs in consumer articles

Example: Cadmium in PVC

The inclusion of restrictions to the use of substances is only done after a careful evaluation of pros and cons. This was also the case for the recent Regulation (EU/494/2011) amending REACH as regards Annex XVII (Cadmium). The regulation had to strike a balance between reducing the presence of cadmium in PVC, and allowing the recycling of this material, rather than the incineration or landfilling of cadmium-containing PVC. Before the regulation, a concentration limit on cadmium in PVC applied for articles such as pipes, flooring, cabling and related items but not for profiles, square cable ducts or roofing.

The implication of an expansion of the recycling of PVC waste into new construction articles in the EU is that pipes and round cable ducts which may contain recyclates may inadvertently be placed on the market with a cadmium concentration exceeding the regulatory limit of 100 ppm. However, there was a fear that adherence to the 100 ppm cadmium content limit could have significant adverse effects for the future of recycling of PVC construction waste in the EU.

To address the risk of such adverse effects whilst keeping the environmental and human health impacts of PVC stabilised with cadmium, a range of policy options were considered when reviewing the restriction.

The policy option chosen was a complete restriction on the use of cadmium in PVC with an exemption for specified rigid PVC construction articles, with recycling taking place in a restricted number of applications. The proposed option for profiles/square cable ducts was to maintain 'business as usual', for pipes/round cable ducts, to raise the existing limit to 1,000 ppm for non-pressure pipes and round cable ducts for an initial period of

10 years (at the end of this period, a detailed evaluation of the presence of cadmium in waste and new articles should be conducted before further action on the cadmium limit is taken), and for flexible roofing to introduce an EU-wide cadmium concentration limit of 100 ppm.

Determination of the hazard profile

In order to determine all further information requirements (hazard profile, classification, labelling, providing information to customers etc.), the manufacturer of recycled plastic material must have a deep knowledge about the hazard profile of the substances. The hazard classification must be done by the manufacturer, importer or downstream user before the material is put on the market, independent from any tonnage manufactured, imported or already existing on the market.

The recyclers have to determine whether the substances manufactured by them (including any impurities) have hazardous properties (e.g. corrosive, acutely toxic, chronically toxic, carcinogenic etc.). As distributors, they are required to search for relevant existing information and evaluate it. This is not a novelty of REACH, but a practice that has been established for decades for any manufacturer through the dangerous substances legislation (67/548/EEC, Art.6), and has also recently been taken over and harmonised through CLP (EC/1272/2008, art. 5 and 6).

The hazard classification can be either triggered by the CLP Regulation (Article 4(1)) or by the REACH Regulation. CLP relates to materials put on the market, while classification by REACH affects substances not placed on the market if they are subject to registration or notification in line with Articles 6, 9, 17 or 18 of REACH. This includes the classification of monomers, on-site isolated intermediates, transported intermediates as well as substances used for product and process-orientated research and development (PPORD). Producers or importers of articles, still have to classify the substances contained in it where REACH Articles 7 and 9 provide for their registration or notification and such substances have not already been registered for that use.

The hazard profile of a plastic is determined to a large extent by the type and quantity of any additives. Moreover, the hazard profile of an additive in a polymer can differ substantially from the profile it has as a separate (free) substance.

One has to distinguish between physical risks, and risks to humans and the environment. Classification with regard to physical risks (explosivity, flammability etc.) is based on test methods listed in Annex VI, No. 2 of Directive 67/548/EEC and Annex I, part 2 of the CLP Regulation, and cannot be based on the individual constituents, but must be determined experimentally. Conversely, the determination of risks to humans and to the environment can be based on the individual constituents of a substance or a mixture. For example, under Directive 1999/45/EC or the CLP Regulation, a mixture is regarded as germ cell mutagen or carcinogenic if the content of the mutagen or respectively carcinogenic constituent exceeds 0.1%. As example, if a recycled plastic contains 0.2% cadmium, it is to be classified as hazardous, regardless of the cadmium being an additive or an impurity, unless it can be proven that the cadmium is bound and not mobile, resulting in no exposure. For most substances, depending on the type of hazardous property, the classification-relevant concentrations (so-called 'cut-off values') are either 0.1% or 1.0%.

A detailed guideline on the classification of substances is provided by ECHA: 'Guidance on the Application of the CLP Criteria' (ECHA, 2012).²⁰¹. Specifically for waste plastics, it is also useful to follow the examples provided in the guideline 'REACH and the recycling of plastics' (Oekopol, 2012).

Communication requirements

As regards communication requirements, the presence in the recycled plastic of a substance which is hazardous, or a substance listed in either Annex XIV or in the candidate list triggers information obligations to manufacturers. If (1) the recycled plastic is hazardous, or/and (2) a SVHC is present in amounts >0.1% in weight (be it in the candidate list or in Annex XIV), then the mixture needs a SDS be prepared (Art 31).

If the mixture contains a hazardous or candidate list substance but below the mentioned thresholds, then there is still a need to provide information down the supply chain about the presence of the substance, and approved/denied authorisation files (Art 32). However, if the hazardous properties are not evident in the specific use of the plastic, labelling the container can be spared. The recycler should, however, be able to demonstrate and substantiate why exposure is not to be expected. This is the likely situation of many (per-se, in pure form) hazardous additives, if (and only if) they are immobile in polymer matrices.

Articles follow a similar procedure (Art 33). If a SVHC is >0.1% and totals >1 tonne/yr in an article for a use not yet registered, it needs be notified to ECHA and sufficient information for safe use be communicated to customers (but not necessarily as SDS, as the form of communication of this is not regulated in detail).

CLP has also notification requirements: If a recycled plastic material is manufactured in the EU (substance under REACH), and contains more than 0.1% of a hazardous substance, it should be notified to the classification and labelling inventory. The notification duty applies only to the material's manufacturers and importers, not to its users.

In case the immobility of the (hazardous) additives cannot be proven, classification is based purely on the concentration of this substance in the plastic. As example, let us know the cleanliness needed to ensure that a recycled plastic mixture or article is not classified as hazardous according to CLP. The concept is illustrated in Figure 2.43 below. One calculates the maximum percentage (Max %) of a recycled plastic p1 containing A% (e.g. 10-20%) of a SVHC-classified additive (e.g. one of the brominated flame retardants of Table 4.1), marked X in the figure below, that could be mixed with other SVHC-free plastic p2 in a mixture or article before it triggers the hazardousness content communication of 0.1% in CLP. If A (additive content) is 20%, the maximum content of the plastic it is in would be $0.001/0.2=0.005$, i.e. 0.5% of the mixture of plastics. If the SVHC content is 10%, the percentage of the plastic p1 would be 1%. A SVHC content of 10 to 20% is not unusual for certain parts of EE products, e.g. certain brominated flame retardants in screens and printed circuits, or some plasticisers in PVC.

²⁰¹ http://echa.europa.eu/documents/10162/13562/clp_en.pdf

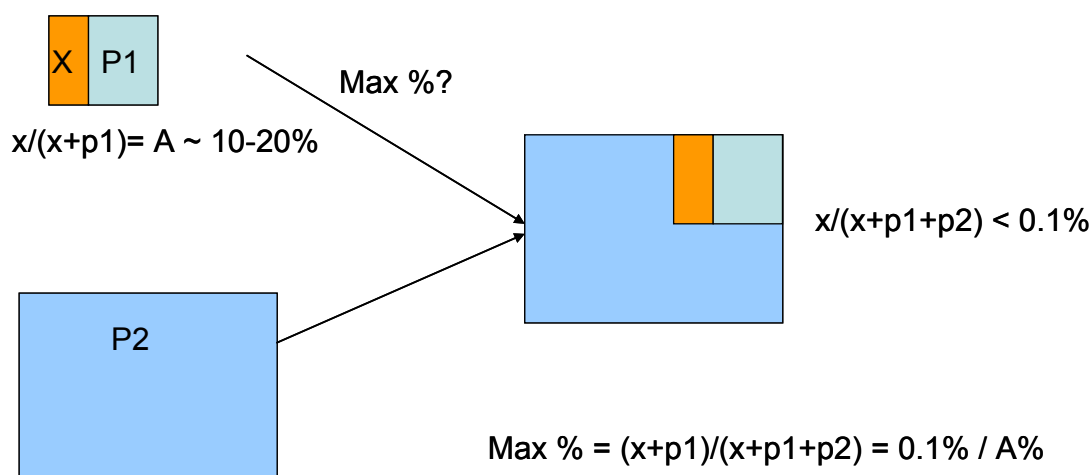


Figure 2.43. Example of the relationship between the content of a SVHC in an impurity plastic (x in p1) and the maximum content of it in a recycled plastic mixture or article (x+p1+p2) that would, in the absence of evidence of no exposure, trigger hazardousness classification according to CLP.

This means that in order to give a guarantee to the downstream users of fulfilment of Arts 31, 32 or 33 of REACH, the proof of absence of any risk has to be delivered according to the assessment of RAC and SEAC following the REACH procedure. Producers of recycled plastic mixtures or articles have to be able to detect (and if appropriate remove) SVHC-containing plastics very effectively, i.e. to be able to document if the presence is or not below 0.1%.

CLP

While REACH provides the general framework and action lines for the control of chemicals and the collection of information, the Classification and Labelling of Packaging (CLP, EC/1272/2008) regulation establishes the tools for hazard communication. It is currently being gradually rolled out, in a process lasting until 2015.

The regulation implements the so-called Globally Harmonised System (GHS). The Regulation is related to substances and mixtures²⁰², describing hazards and classifying chemicals accordingly. Following Article 3(1), a substance or a mixture fulfilling the criteria relating to physical hazards, health hazards or environmental hazards, laid down in Parts 2 to 5 of Annex I, is hazardous and shall be classified in relation to the respective hazard classes. The new system will stepwise entirely replace the current system of Directives 67/548/EEC (on substances) until December 2010 and 1999/45/EC (on preparations) until 2015.

Article 37 of CLP lays out a procedure for update of Table 3.1 in its Annex IV, which lists the harmonised hazard classes of substances. For instance, since its latest update of 10 July 2012, the list now includes the flame retardant Hexabromocyclododecane (and 1,2,5,6,9,10- hexabromocyclododecane), that had recently been included in Annex XIV of REACH as SVHC needing authorisation and subject to phase-out. In this way, it is

²⁰² The former wording for mixtures was *preparations*

ensured that substances whose condition as SVHC is agreed upon at community level obtain a harmonised hazardousness classification.

Both CLP and the current system introduce an obligation for manufacturers, importers and downstream users to classify substances or mixtures before placing them on the market. In addition, in the Annexes to CLP Regulation, official classifications are provided for a number of chemicals.

Examples of substances relevant for this project explicitly mentioned in CLP are penta, octo – BDE, and Bisphenol A, which are listed in Annex VI as a hazardous substance for which harmonised classification and labelling have been established at Community level.

2.9.2.3 Plastics intended for food contact applications

There are no general requirements on release of hazardous chemicals from plastic products or for testing release, but there are some requirements for certain product groups. One of such examples is food contact materials, as this is a sensitive application due to the direct contact and high exposure to the plastics. In the EU, several pieces of legislation regulate e.g. migration levels and list the permitted additives and monomers for food contact plastics.

Plastics Contact with Food Directive, 2002/72/EC, substituted by the Plastic Implementation Measure (PIM) Regulation EC/10/2011.

These legislative acts regulate the use of plastic materials and articles intended to come into contact with food. Plastic is not an inert material, and it can absorb and release substances from and into food. As the possible contaminants can be versatile and are often not known, the setting of limits is not an effective approach, and the legislation has opted for establishing a list of monomers and other substances, such as additives, that are permitted for use in the manufacture of food packaging. Substances on the list must undergo risk assessment and authorisation before being used. The lists cover polymers and some additives (e.g. plasticisers, hardeners, fillers) but not all (colorants, catalysts, lubricants, reaction products). The list is the result of more than 20 years of migration testing, risk assessment and information exchange in Europe. It also amends existing restrictions, in particular related to migration.

Recycled Plastics Contact with Food Regulation, 282/2008/EC

Regulation 1935/2004/EC on materials and articles intended to come into contact with food sets out the general principles for eliminating the differences between the laws of Member States as regards materials and articles in contact with food and provides in Article 5(1) for the adoption of specific measures for groups of materials and articles.

It identified that harmonisation of rules on recycled plastic materials and articles should be given priority, which led to the adoption of Regulation 282/2008/CE, which sets up a framework **specific to recycled plastics**, and therefore amends to this specific case some of the provisions of the general Regulation 2023/2006/EC on good manufacturing practice for materials and articles intended to come into contact with food.

In theory and before this specific regulation, waste plastic could be recycled into plastic products for the packaging of food. Regulation 282/2008/EC came into force to

determine the minimum health and safety requirements for recycled plastics which may come into contact with food.

Recycled plastics material complying with strict quality criteria and therefore falling under the scope of this regulation must follow a strict procedure to obtain the authorization to be put on the market, involving approval by the EFSA (European Food Safety Authority). The authorisation covers a recycling process in the framework of an intended contact with food and must be delivered by the competent national authority as well as by the European Commission.

Recycled plastics have so far only used to a very limited extent in contact with food. Mainly PET beverage bottles and polyolefin crates, operating in closed loops. This situation may change in the future. Currently, EFSA is evaluating 80+ requests of recycle producers for food contact²⁰³.

Application in Member States

Legislation covering plastic in food contact applications (PIM 10/2011, and the Recycled Plastics Contact with Food Regulation, 2008/282/EC) seem to have established clear and uniform rules, and has been well received by EU Member States. Most applications of recycled plastic for food contact are developed as closed loop applications, i.e. only input from food contact plastics is used (e.g. bottle to bottle recycling). The need for significant technologic investments and quality control is reported to affect growth of recycling of this waste plastic stream.

2.9.2.4 POPS: Stockholm convention and POPs Regulation

Persistent organic pollutants (POPs) are chemical substances that persist in the environment, bioaccumulate through the food web, and pose a risk of causing adverse effects to human health and the environment. This group of priority pollutants consists of pesticides (such as DDT), industrial chemicals (such as polychlorinated biphenyls, PCBs, but also some polybrominated flame retardants such as penta- and octa- BDE, and HBCD, and unintentional by-products of industrial processes (such as dioxins and furans).

The Stockholm Convention on Persistent Organic Pollutants requires the parties of the convention to eliminate or reduce the use of the listed POPs. Of the chemicals used in plastics some of the brominated flame retardants are listed. These include the polybrominated diphenyl ethers tetra-, penta-, hexa-, hepta-, and octa BDE and the polybrominated biphenyl hexa PBB²⁰⁴ (UNEP, 2001).

The 1998 Aarhus Protocol on Persistent Organic Pollutants (UNECE, 2012)²⁰⁵ focuses on a list of 16 substances that have been singled out according to agreed risk criteria. The substances comprise eleven pesticides, two industrial chemicals and three by-products/contaminants. The ultimate objective is to eliminate any discharges, emissions and losses of POPs. The Protocol bans the production and use of some products outright

²⁰³ <http://www.efsa.europa.eu/en/topics/topic/foodcontactmaterials.htm>

²⁰⁴ UNEP. 2001. Stockholm convention on persistent organic pollutants. Annex A, B and C. Adopted 22 May 2001. <http://chm.pops.int/Convention/The%20POPs/tabid/673/language/en-US/Default.aspx> (Accessed 1 May 2012)

²⁰⁵ http://www.unece.org/env/lrtap/pops_h1.html, (accessed 1 May 2012)

(aldrin, chlordane, chlordecone, dieldrin, endrin, hexabromobiphenyl, mirex and toxaphene). Others are scheduled for elimination at a later stage (DDT, heptachlor, hexachlorobenzene, PCBs). Finally, the Protocol severely restricts the use of DDT, HCH (including lindane) and PCBs.

On 18 December 2009, Parties to the Protocol on POPs adopted decisions 2009/1, 2009/2 and 2009/3 to amend the Protocol to include seven new substances: polychlorinated naphthalenes, pentachlorobenzene, hexachlorobutadiene, perfluorooctane sulfonates (PFOS), octabromodiphenyl ether, pentabromodiphenyl ether, and short-chain chlorinated paraffins. The last four are additives in plastics and plastic products. Furthermore, the Parties revised obligations for DDT, heptachlor, hexachlorobenzene and PCBs as well as emission limit values (ELVs) from waste incineration.

The European Commission, committed to the effective implementation of these two environmental agreements, developed Regulation (EC) No 850/2004 of 29 April 2004, complementing earlier Community legislation on POPs and aligning it with the provisions of the international agreements on POPs. To a certain extent the Regulation goes further than the international agreements emphasising the aim to eliminate the production and use of the internationally recognised POPs.

The Regulation contains provisions regarding production, placing on the market and use of chemicals, management of stockpiles and wastes, and measures to reduce unintentional releases of POPs.

The Regulation is synchronised with REACH/CLP, e.g. substances already listed in REACH Annex XVII that will be listed in the POPs Regulation would be removed from Annex XVII by a separate amendment to REACH. Having two different restrictions in force at the same time covering the same substances would lead to legal uncertainty²⁰⁶. For instance, the POPs regulation limits the content of Tetra-, penta-, hexa- and hepta-bromodiphenyl ether in plastics in the EU. The threshold for PBDEs in new plastic of 0.001% is introduced as an interpretation of unintentional trace contamination for which a general exemption is given in Article 4(1)(b). The threshold of 0.1% specified in Annex XVII of REACH is too high to be credibly considered as an unintentional trace contamination. However, there is a derogation (Derogation 2 (a)) for 'articles containing concentrations below 0.1% of [tetra-, penta-, hexa- or hepta]-bromodiphenyl ether by weight when produced from recycled materials', to allow continuation of recycling of materials (including materials not within the scope of Directive 2002/95/EC). It was recognised that recycling of plastic would become a special challenge when adding the PBDEs to the list of prohibited substances.

2.9.2.5 VAT

Member States have the authority of deciding whether waste plastic that has ceased to be waste is subject to value-added taxation.

The Commission is responsible for ensuring the correct application of Community law, which in this case is the VAT Directive. However, since this Community legislation is based on a

²⁰⁶ http://ec.europa.eu/environment/pops/pdf/questions_answers.pdf

Directive, each Member State is responsible for the transposition of these provisions into national legislation and their correct application within its territory. Therefore, the details about the taxation of waste plastic in a specific Member State are based on the national tax administration.

2.10 Environmental and health issues

For the purpose of determination of end-of-waste criteria, the interest as regards environment and health is to ensure the fulfilment of condition (d) of Art. 6 in the WFD, that is, by changing the condition of the waste plastic stream from waste to non-waste, *'the use of the substance or object will not lead to overall adverse environmental or human health impacts'*. The question is therefore to analyse which are the direct and indirect environmental impacts of this change of status on waste plastic collection, treatment and recycling.

It is therefore not as much relevant to characterize the environmental impacts of e.g. recycling or recycling versus not recycling, or recycling versus energy recovery, but to characterize the potential changes between current impacts when the material is waste, and future impacts when the material ceases to be waste.

In this regard, one has to answer which are the environmental protection measures provided by waste legislation which will cease to apply, and the product legislation measures which will then be enforceable.

The types of environmental impacts of waste plastic collection, treatment and recycling, including storage and transport of recovered/recycled materials have been identified as:

- Energy uses
- Resource uses
- Air emissions: CO₂, and other greenhouse gases
- Other air emissions (toxic and/or environmentally harmful substances and dust)
- Leaching or leakage of liquid components to the underground
- Accumulation or release of toxic substances (e.g. some brominated flame retardants)
- Fire hazards
- Accidents at work (by e.g. glass, metals, sharps)

This section describes the environmental impacts outlined, and estimates if these would change when waste plastic ceases to be waste in the different stages of the chain, e.g. waste plastic collection, treatment and recycling (including storage and transport of materials).

Energy, emissions and resource use issues

It is well known from LCA studies that recycling of most waste plastic types contributes to an overall energy and air emission saving compared to the use of virgin polymers.

These emission and resource savings are the very essence and driver of recycling of plastic. Discounted the total monetary costs of collecting and processing waste plastic, they match the cost equation that keeps the recycling system running. The direct savings

are thus a necessary, though not sufficient condition for proving the existence of a market, as the information is only complete when the total costs are incorporated, including the economic effects of legislation compliance (subsidies, taxes, etc.), environmental protection (pollution abatement, disposal of rejects, etc), and investments in technology.

Recycling avoids the disposal of used plastic, and this still takes place via landfilling in a large number of EU countries. Energy recovery of waste plastic through incineration is also an option to avoid landfilling.

The waste hierarchy holds to an extent, but essentially for clean plastic fractions that can be recycled without excessive treatment. (see e.g. IPTS, 2008). Incineration can be a favourable option for e.g. waste plastic types of low recyclability because of high content of impurities (adhesives, mixed plastics, paper, metals, glass, rubber, wood, cross-contamination with food, solvents or oil), or content of inadequate plastic types that cannot be sorted out or is too costly to sort out. Recycling processes which use exclusively solid fuels and have old, energy-intensive technologies can also be worse performers in environmental terms than energy recovery options.

In any case, the overall result of life-cycle based studies will be dependent on a number of boundary conditions, including (1) the degree of substitution of virgin material (e.g. 70%, 80, 90 or 100% of the virgin material is substituted), (2) the energy mix used for recycling and the energy sources substituted by virgin material production avoidance and incineration, and (3) the technologies and techniques for recycling and incineration, and the waste management context.

Several reviews²⁰⁷ have shown that mechanical recycling is in general the most beneficial end-of-life option, in terms of reduced environmental impact, provided that the recycled material substitutes at least some portion of virgin polymers, and losses remain low. Substitution or down-cycling appeared to have lower benefits than substitution of virgin plastic materials.

The benefits of mechanical recycling are approximately the same whether materials are taken by consumers to a specific collection point, or mixed plastics are collected at the kerbside, being separated at the materials recovery facility, and that earlier steps of recycling (collection, sorting and pre-treatment) contribute only slightly to the environmental impact of the recycling system. However, the studies have described how transport can typically account for 10-20 % of the environmental burden, in some cases contributing to 30% of total impacts in the recycling chain. Transport impacts were however not enough to reduce the overall benefits of recycling over other waste treatment options

Another study concluded that in the case of bottle recycling, recycling of a material for its original purpose (i.e. reuse) is often more advantageous than recycling of materials for alternative purposes. This appeared to be the case for both HDPE and PET bottle recycling. This study also demonstrated that in the case of some indicators, recycling

207 Wollny V. and Schmied M., 2000. Assessment of Plastic Recovery Options

was less beneficial when carried out abroad (in China) rather than closer to the source (in the UK)²⁰⁸.

In some cases, plastics recycling can have a negative impact on human health. For example, in facilities where manual sorting is still in place, workers may risk injury and disease while sorting materials²⁰⁹. There is also a risk of plastic waste recycling having an effect on local populations. In particular, in countries with less stringent regulations, the recycling techniques used to treat plastic waste can be primitive, and in some cases there is a lack of appropriate facilities to safeguard environmental and human health. For example, chipping and melting of plastics in unventilated areas²¹⁰.

Waste plastic bales of most grades of waste plastic do not normally leach, since their main components are not soluble in water. Leaching is common in unsorted plastic still mixed with organic residuals.

It is common that small pieces of waste plastic and dust blow around in open-air waste plastic yards exposed to the wind. This can be solved by the covering of reprocessing plants to protect the waste plastic bales or piles. Regarding transport, the companies in charge of transport need to have a permit for waste transport and appropriate transport means. Under normal operation and cleaning practice of trucks, there should be no cross-contamination to a waste plastic load transported after other waste.

At the converters, odours, noise, dust and other environmental aspects are covered by IPPC permits under the IPPC Directive. Reprocessors, due to their small size, do not follow normally IPPC legislation, and operate under permits that include in general the exploitation conditions, but do not normally specify emission limits or types and methods of control.

In summary, the EoW regulation is devised to facilitate high quality recycling. Compared to the situation as waste, once the regulation is operational, one could expect a higher share of material led to recycling and not to the alternative end-of-life options (energy recovery/incineration, landfilling). EoW will thus contribute to recycling and multiply the known life-cycle environmental benefits of this option.

Risk of inappropriate management of overseas end-of-waste shipments

Should a waste plastic EoW consignment be used in the EU, it shall go for recycling, and it can be controlled that the reject with the non-plastic components is treated according to EU waste law. Should a waste plastic EoW consignment be exported out of the EU, two uncertainties arise:

(1) Whether it will be recycled. The only known fact is that by meeting the EoW criteria, it has sufficient quality (e.g. material with <2% impurities has a value >200EUR/tonne), and it is therefore unlikely that the material will be purchased for operations not related to the use of

208 WRAP, 2010, Life cycle assessment of example packaging systems for milk

209 Communication with stakeholder

210 Wong M.H., Wu S.C., Deng W.J., Yu X.Z., Luo Q., Leung A.O.W., Wong C.S.C., Luksemburg W.J., and Wong A.S., 2007, Export of toxic chemicals - A review of the case of uncontrolled electronic-waste recycling. Environmental Pollution, 149: 131-140

the plastic's functionality, such as for energy (which for plastics, with a calorific value above 30 GJ/tonne results in a price around 100 EUR/tonne).

(2) If once recycled, the rejects will be treated appropriately, be it recovery or disposal. Should the consignment remain waste, recital 33 and Art.48(2) of the Waste Shipment Regulation requires management conditions at the destination that are broadly equivalent to those in the EU²¹¹. If the consignment is EoW, this cannot be requested.

Additives and the environment

Most plastic additives in use in the EU are not known to have environmental or health risks. Currently, only very few problem substances used in/as additives or processing intermediates have been identified as bearing environmental and/or health risk in mobile form, notably:

- PFOS - Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid and its derivatives (impregnating agent to repel dirt, grease and water for carpets and upholstery)
- Bisphenol A (curing agent in polycarbonate and epoxy resins)
- Some low molecular weight phthalates (plasticisers): DEHP, BBP, DBP, DIBP, but not high molecular weight ones such as DINP and DIDP.
- Some halogenated flame retardants: e.g. brominated biphenyls, diphenylethers, cyclododecanes, and short-chained chlorinated paraffins (SCCP). Some non-halogenated flame retardants are also of concern, e.g. Tris(2-chloroethyl)phosphate (TCEP) (is also a stabiliser).
- Toxic heavy metals (colorants and stabilisers): Cadmium, Chromium VI, Lead, organotin (tin mercaptides and carboxylates).
- Acrylamide (a monomer)

However, note that the impacts of these substances are altered notably if they are embedded or bound in a polymer matrix, which can significantly reduce their mobility and exposure. This again depends on the type of polymer and its behaviour in the environment, including its stability/degradability.

A combination of measures on waste plastics (WEEE, ELV) and plastic products (REACH, CLP, RoHS, POPs, Food contact) frame currently the introduction into the EU markets and end of life treatment of plastics containing these substances.

Flame retardants

Flame retardants (FR) are among the most common and varied of plastic additives, with hundreds of different substances on the market for preventing or inhibiting the spread of fire in polymers. Much of their demand is driven by fire safety legislation covering consumer products, especially those that under normal conditions are exposed to high temperatures, such as electronic and electrical devices. Brominated FRs are popular because of their low cost and efficiency. The amounts required in a polyolefin or polyamide product are half to two-thirds less than those for flame-retardant minerals such as aluminum trihydrate and antimony. The closest substitutes in performance are phosphorus-based retardants.

211 'The facility which receives the waste should be operated in accordance with human health and environmental protection standards that are broadly equivalent to those established in Community legislation.' EC/1013/2006

Of the three main types - halogen, phosphorus and mineral - halogenated (brominated or chlorinated) flame retardants have raised by far the most concern, although recently some phosphates (e.g. Tris(2-chloroethyl)phosphate - TCEP) are also being analysed.

The RoHS Directive has restricted the presence in EEE of a small number of Br-FRs, the production of which in the EU had already been discontinued. The exemption is decabromodiphenyl ether, still produced but not consumed in the EU. In between the existing ban (octa-, penta- BDE) and the accepted use, some Br-FR such as hexabromocyclododecane (HBCD) and Deca BDE have been classified or proposed as substances of very high concern (SVHC), subject to inclusion in Annex XIV of REACH and requiring authorization for marketing in the EU. These two substances are also under scrutiny as Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs), and if this is approved, they would join penta- and octa -BDE in the list of POPs of the POP Regulation, which defines timelines of out-phasing these substances..

The POP-listed Br-FRs have been banned in the EU and may not be placed on the market, but in contrary to the other new POPs of short life, they will continue to challenge the waste management sector due to the medium to long life-span of major product groups (e.g. vehicles, electronics) containing them. Based on this background, exemptions allowing continued recycling of plastics containing them have been negotiated in the Stockholm Convention, as one has to strike a balance between increased recycling of plastics, and elimination of these substances.

Mixing plastic waste containing brominated flame retardants with other waste plastic is not allowed by the WEEE and ELV Directives, and purposeful mixing of plastic wastes in order to dilute the pollutant content is in general prohibited by the Waste Framework Directive.

In practice, many MS export plastic waste contaminated with flame retardants to Asia for recycling (declared as green listed waste) without considering the level of these contaminants contained in the plastic waste²¹².

An example of efforts to limit these brominated flame retardant contaminants includes the Austrian regulation (Waste Management Plan) referring to shipment of plastic waste containing prohibited flame retardants²¹²: plastic fractions from pre-treatment/recovery of WEEE, whose total levels (i.e. sum) of penta-, octa- and decabromodiphenyl ether exceed 0.1% and/or whose content of polybrominated biphenyls (PBB) exceeds 50 ppm (= 0005%) are subject to a notification obligation (unlisted waste or in the case of exceeding the limit for PBB – Amber Listed waste: A3180), independently from the subsequent recovery operation.

In case of the presence of higher contents of the above mentioned flame retardants, particularly when the content of octabromodiphenyl ether exceeds 0.5 %, a hazard characteristic (teratogen) is triggered (a ban of export on hazardous wastes to non-OECD countries).

²¹² Communication with Bundesministerium für Land- und Forstwirtschaft, Umwelt und Wasserwirtschaft (Austria).

Pursuant to the Austrian Treatment Obligation Ordinance as amended, the recycling of plastic waste from WEEE containing halogenated flame retardants is allowed only in those production fields, where such flame retardants need to be added due to technical requirements.

Plasticisers

In volume terms, plasticizers have by far the biggest share of many plastic additives markets, particularly in the emerging economies, where there is a high consumption of PVC, the main driver behind demand for plasticizers. In China and India, plasticizers make up around two-thirds of demand for plastic additives.²¹³

Most plasticizers are phthalates, consisting of compounds of phthalic anhydride and various alcohols, whose safety has been raising concerns among regulators, health organisations and electronic device producers. Among others, some low molecular weight phthalates - Benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP), Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP), Dibutyl phthalate (DBP), Diisobutyl phthalate (DIBP) - have been restricted or listed for authorization (SVHC) under REACH. Both DEHP and DBP are used in PVC and other polymers for medical devices and packaging, as well as PVC flooring and roofing.

Other high molecular weight phthalates such as DINP and DIDP have undergone risk assessments and are found safe for most uses, except toys.

Pigments

Safety concerns about the insolubility of substances in their pigments have forced colorant producers to reformulate products used in plastics, particularly in Europe. Europe's WEEE directive, for example, has led to the elimination of heavy metals in some plastics pigments for electronics. Under REACH, some pigments such as Lead chromates may be classified as persistent, bioaccumulative and toxic, or very persistent and very bioaccumulative. This would mean they would have to be authorized or replaced by safer alternatives.

Stabilisers (e.g. cadmium)

Cadmium based stabilisers have been widely used in the past in many PVC products. In the last two decades, concerns of the toxicity of Cadmium and scientific progress regarding substitute stabilisers has enabled plastics producers to progressively cease its use, and has finally resulted in the Vinyl 2010 voluntary commitment, in which the PVC industry committed itself not to use cadmium as a stabiliser in PVC after 2001.

However, the question remained on how to manage the large amounts of cadmium-containing PVC currently in use, especially rigid PVC in construction (windows, profiles, etc.).

Annex XVII of REACH restricted the use cadmium-containing PVC. In view of the general objectives to support the EU waste policy in favour of recycling, and the phase out of the use of cadmium, the uses of cadmium-containing recycled PVC were reviewed in 2008-2011.

²¹³ Milmo, S (2009) Regulations in the mix. www.icis.com

The solution found was, together with the elimination of new inputs of Cadmium as committed by the industry, to derogate the restrictions under REACH for mixtures produced from PVC waste and referred to as 'recovered PVC' for use in certain construction products, which have a very restricted exposure to humans and therefore risks to health and the environment.

In practical terms, this was done by establishing a maximum limit value for cadmium (1000ppm) in the following rigid PVC applications: (a) profiles and rigid sheets for building applications; (b) doors, windows, shutters, walls, blinds, fences, and roof gutters; (c) decks and terraces; (d) cable ducts; (e) pipes for non-drinking water if the recovered PVC is used in the middle layer of a multilayer pipe and is entirely covered with a layer of newly produced PVC.

With this solution, it was possible to eliminate gradually Cadmium from PVC while encouraging the recycling of this plastic. This avoids PVC being discarded in landfills or incinerated causing release of carbon dioxide and cadmium in the environment. In order to control the gradual dilution of existing cadmium, a review mechanism is established to check the limit value for cadmium in the future.

3 END-OF-WASTE CRITERIA

3.1.1 Approach and principles

End-of-waste criteria for a material should be such that the recycled material has waste status if – and only if – regulatory controls under waste legislation are needed to protect the environment and human health.

Criteria have to be developed in compliance with the legal conditions, be operational, not lead to new disproportionate burdens and undesirable side-effects, and consider that waste plastic collection and recycling is a well-functioning industrial practice today.

Criteria shall be simple and not duplicate existing legislation such as WEEE or ELV for waste, or RoHS, POPs, REACH, CLP and food contact for products.

Criteria should ideally be ambitious in providing benefits to as many waste plastic flows as possible, but shall also address with priority the main and largest represented flows in the EU. Criteria should not fail to target these priority flows by trying to encompass all existing waste plastic flows, and all national and regional singularities.

It has been reported that the current waste status of waste plastic (and other recyclable waste materials) creates in some cases a variety of administrative and economic burdens, especially related to storage and shipment, and creates legal uncertainty by keeping under waste legislation a material that in practice is perceived and treated as a product. It is important to remark that recycling of plastics takes place currently in MS under different regimes: while recyclates are still waste in some regions/MS, they enjoy non-waste status in others. These differences have raised some cases of conflict in transboundary movement, but according to stakeholders, have so far been solved on a case-by-case basis. Therefore, however well-functioning, the legislative playing field is uneven in the EU, and may clearly benefit from harmonisation.

The following main benefits can be expected when EU-wide end-of-waste criteria for waste plastic are introduced:

- Clearer differentiation of the value chain for waste plastic, and recognisable distinction of a quality-assured product to non-quality checked waste plastic. Certainty that only high-quality waste plastic destined to recycling will cease to be waste;
- Improved functioning of the internal and external markets to the EU (simplified and harmonised rules across countries, increased legal certainty, increased transparency and reliability on quality assured shipments);
- Reduction of administrative burdens related to shipment, transport and trade that are redundant for environmentally safe materials.

EoW criteria have to be clear, concise and enforceable. They have to be robust and controllable through spot checks, and minimise non-compliance that may undermine the credibility of end-of-waste criteria.

The definition of the criteria has to be guided by the principles of simplicity and proportionality. Criteria have to be proposed in the less intrusive form possible, yet

ensuring fulfilment of the conditions of Art.6 of the WFD. Proportionality shall be used in the prioritisation of the target waste plastic groups, addressing first the largest flows. In the appraisal of the need to set a criterion, criteria are introduced only where it is judged that the magnitude of the risks of unintended consequences or of impact to health and the environment requires it.

Following the findings of the JRC methodology guidelines for EoW²¹⁴, the ultimate aim of end-of-waste criteria is product quality. End-of-waste criteria include direct product quality requirements. In addition, a set of end-of-waste criteria may include other elements that help indirectly to ensure product quality, such as requirements on input material, requirements on processes and techniques, and in particular on quality assurance procedures that shall be as strict as those regulating products.

The criteria have to be understood as a package, linked to each other. This means that e.g. stricter quality criteria may make redundant the inclusion of one or more of the input or process criteria, and conversely, appropriate input criteria may make unnecessary certain quality criteria if these were only of concern for the excluded input flow. The criteria within the same area do also interact, e.g. strict hazardousness requirements have important implications for an overall low impurity content.

Following these considerations, it can be summarised that waste plastic should cease to be waste when:

- Waste plastic complies with industry specifications for a waste plastic grade for which there is a market or demand for plastic conversion;
- Waste plastic includes precise knowledge about the type(s) of polymer(s) contained, the additives likely contained based on sampling (as these are required by REACH, CLP, POPs, RoHS and the food contact legislation once the plastic becomes a product), and has a known maximum content of non-plastic components, and unusable plastic types. Other properties of interest to the buyer such as moisture, density or melt mass flow rate may be added as non-compulsory information;
- Waste plastic has not hazardous properties, this being met by the producer producing evidence of this, or in the absence of such evidence, by ensuring a maximum content of hazardous substances in the mixture;
- Waste plastic is during processing not in contact with certain waste types that can cause cross-contamination, e.g. biowaste, oil waste, waste solvents, health care waste or mixed municipal solid waste;
- The producer of waste plastic provides documentation of the fulfilment of all conditions above, and supplementary information concerning the limitation of use to plastic manufacturing.

Furthermore, the end-of-waste criteria for waste plastic should not disrupt the existing recycling systems, both if currently under waste regime, or characterised as non-waste. They should simply identify where waste plastic has attained a quality that is sufficient to ensure that no environmental risks occur when it is transported, further processed or traded without being controlled as waste. For ensuring no disruption of existing, well-functioning systems, the end of waste is proposed and is to be understood as an option for high quality material, in no case an imposition. The main players in these systems (collection, reprocessing,

214 Can be downloaded from: <http://susproc.jrc.ec.europa.eu/activities/waste/>

conversion, administration) shall adjust with minimal effort the existing recycling systems or parts of these systems under their control, and opt for operation under the waste regime or product regime, the latter only if the EoW criteria are fully met.

In the specific case of waste plastic, the additional requirement on the provision of information is necessary to limit the scope to the manufacture of plastics, and document awareness and acceptance of the producer to this intended use. Different options are possible for achieving this, including the provision of contact data of the converter, compulsory labelling, or a signed declaration of conformity. The options evaluated are presented and discussed further in the section on provision of information.

This approach to define a set of end-of-waste criteria combining several levers of action corresponds well to current good industrial practice of ensuring the product quality of waste plastic. Accordingly, waste plastic ceases to be waste when it is placed on a market where it has a demand because it fulfils certain product quality requirements, has a clearly identified origin and has been processed according to the required treatment processes. Compliance with all these requirements has to be ensured by applying industrial practice of quality control. The potential different elements of the end-of-waste criteria are discussed in detail in the following sections.

3.1.2 Outline of EoW criteria

Following the JRC methodology guidelines, the following complementary elements can be combined in a set of end-of-waste criteria:

- Product quality requirements
- Requirements on input materials
- Requirements on treatment processes and techniques
- Requirements on the provision of information (e.g. documentation of end use, traceability systems, labelling).
- Requirements on quality assurance procedures

The preliminary proposed end-of-waste criteria are presented individually below. These draft criteria will be extensively discussed with the technical working group.

3.2 Product quality requirements

Product quality criteria are needed to check:

- For elements that can result in direct environmental and health risks, and
- That the product is suitable as direct input to recycled plastic production.

Product quality requires that the polymers and additives in waste plastic are adequate alternative to primary raw-materials, and that non-plastic components limiting its usefulness have been effectively separated. This refers to the usefulness both in the short term (production of recycled plastics) and in a long-term perspective that considers several cycles of collection and recycling and the progressive potential accumulation of trace elements that cannot be removed from the cycle.

Direct quality criteria on waste plastic should include thus quantitative limits on non-plastic components, hazardous substance content, content of unusable plastic types, and it may also

include criteria on other properties, such as moisture, density, etc. Such parameters describe the completeness of treatment, ensuring that the waste plastic is fully characterised and fit for a safe direct use. Quantitative criteria may in principle be general or specific for the existing grades of waste plastic. The benefits of uniform criteria across grades are simplicity, and easier communication and implementation.

Other considerations related to product quality received by experts and concluded by other material's EoW discussions are presented below. Their suitability to the EoW criteria on waste plastics were discussed with the Technical Working Group:

- If standardised grades exist and are internationally accepted (e.g. CEN, ISRI), it is advisable to refer to such standards in the definition of quality. However, the TWG experts point out that there are no clear reference standards of widespread use in the EU, and the essential element of contracts is supplier/buyer specifications.
- Non-plastic materials shall preferably be specified and limited, as they directly relate to the commercial value of the waste plastic, and to potential environmental risks. It is pointed out that not all non-plastic materials are the same: some of them can be separated in a dry phase, while some need washing, and some are embedded in the plastic matrix, and can only be removed (if this is done) by filtration in the melted phase. An additional complication relates to non-plastic materials present in the waste plastic matrix but deliberately sought for, such as glassfiber, or wood fibres, for the production of composite plastic/glass/wood materials. A possible solution for those is to exclude such reinforcement materials from the definition of foreign materials (or non-plastic components), as the types of such materials are limited, and to refer to measurement in the earliest stage of processing that allows physical separation of the materials, normally before any thermal treatment for agglomeration or pelletising is applied. A different approach is to count on two alternatives, should the non-plastic content be limited and include materials present in the plastic matrix: one is to remain out of the waste regime as by-products (e.g. automobile pieces of PA-GF from fault manufacturing batches, which are converted to regrind and sent back for the production of more such pieces). The other is that such materials remain waste. These two alternatives seem to fit into existing practices, as non-plastic materials present in the waste plastic matrix are only deliberately sought for if they are in a homogenous batch. No communication has been received so far on the existence of targeted mixed non-plastic materials.
- Some producers of non-washed agglomerates are concerned of the implications of limiting the content of non-plastic components, as they see in this interference in the future development of new applications of recycled plastic. Other stakeholders indicate that the EoW would not interfere in such development, and would only bring clarity as to when the input to such applications is still waste, until the material is converted to articles, thereby addressing the higher risk that the material, with high impurity content, is diverted to non-recycling applications.
- In conclusion, it is recommended to provide a maximum limit to non-plastic content. It has been demonstrated in other materials such as rubber, wood or paper that the status as waste is not an impediment for recycling in highly creative applications. The risk of diversion to non-recycling is high for the very marginal proportion of fractions containing high percentages of non-plastic material, and a threshold related to current practice would control this risk.

- While TWG experts find desirable to develop specific grading based on the homogeneity and polymer type, they also acknowledge that this would only result in a complex system, difficult to enforce.
- The mixture of two end-of-waste waste plastic flows can only become an end-of-waste flow if a uniform non-plastic component content threshold (e.g. 3%) is agreed for all grades. In case of split of thresholds for different grades, this equation would not necessarily hold. If both original EoW flows are of the same grade, the mix of them would be EoW of that same grade.
- Properties such as moisture that vary widely but are easy to remove, do not relate to an environmental concern, and are tolerated differently by different repressors and converters, and in general do not need to be limited in EoW. Such properties can normally be dealt with through supplier/buyer specifications.
- Experts did in general not welcome to restrict the content of 'non-targeted plastics' or 'plastic detrimental to production', as they considered this to be a commercial issue. Depending on the polymer type, the technology available, and the output from reprocessing/ conversion, different producers tolerate foreign plastics differently. If the presence of non-targeted plastics is accepted, the material has a value and a use, and there is no significant health or environmental impact, this parameter may better be dealt with through supplier/buyer specifications.
- Converging opinions have been received on the prescription of the shape and size (bales/bulk, empty clean packaging, scrap, pellets, flakes, regranulates, profiles), of waste plastic. The mentioned parameters are not per se of concern in relation to the fulfilment of the conditions of Art 6 of the WFD (provide a guarantee of cleanliness), but it is acknowledged that the reduction in size is a common denominator of all reprocessing resulting in clean material, as some of the cleaning processes in operation today cannot function on e.g. pieces of plastic retaining their original shape. If appropriate but not necessarily, it has been proposed to prescribe as a minimum for EoW the need that the materials is reduced in size, and is free flowing. As part of this argumentation, it has been proposed to limit particle size to e.g. 30mm.
- The maximum age of the plastic is not to be prescribed. This parameter is present in ISRI scrap specification circular (e.g. <1 or <6 months without UV protection), and it seems a relevant quality parameter for some applications, affecting the value of the material. It is recommended to leave this parameter to supplier/buyer specifications.
- A clear message has been received from the TWG indicating that waste plastic qualifying for EoW must not present hazardous properties. This reflects the perception of the TWG members of the risk that would involve the marketing of recyclates exhibiting hazardous properties as non-waste.

By default, three options are possible to control the risks derived from hazardousness:

- (1) a direct criterion on the quality of the material, which shall not display any hazardous properties,
- (2) a criterion on the exclusion of the use of hazardous material as input, and

(3) a criterion on the processing for the removal of hazardous material.

Alternatives (2) and (3) have drawbacks as stand-alone alternatives. Alternative (2) is difficult to control by reprocessors and is currently often not controlled, because of the nature of waste plastic as originated from many different products of diverse origin, some of which may contain hazardous substances. Users may accidentally mix in the stream hazardous components (e.g. a battery, a circuit board). If taken, it seems evident that this alternative cannot stand alone, because in the case an EoW consignment is judged hazardous upon control by the authorities, the reprocessor cannot be freed from responsibility by claiming that the input was controlled. The output, which is candidate to cease to be waste, has to be controlled too prior dispatch of consignments. Some experts have pointed out that alternative (2) may lead to the undesirable consequence that larger amounts of e.g. ELV or WEEE plastics go to landfills and incineration, and not to recycling. However, this is to a large extent solved once WEEE and ELV have been treated in authorised facilities and the hazardous components (PCBs, batteries, lamps, electronic boards, etc.) are removed. Therefore, while ELV and WEEE as such (that is, untreated) shall not be allowed as inputs, the non-hazardous components (e.g. car bumpers) should be suited material for recycling. Alternative (3) is not currently operational in most reprocessing plants, which are designed to separate independent, foreign hazardous elements such as batteries, but most are not prepared to avoid that plastic impregnated with solvents or toxic powders ends in their output. Specialised facilities (e.g. on WEEE) are indeed prepared to separate the hazardous materials, as required by the WEEE Directive. Option (1) requiring quantitative evaluation of non-hazardousness of the output material, seems therefore necessary. In addition, the inclusion of a criterion and control of the input (option 2) has been suggested as a complement, in order to better tackle the risk of cases of dilution, i.e. hazardous elements are allowed into the reprocessing, but by dilution these are not detected in the output, which then can become EoW material. The extent of the inclusion of this complement has to be balanced with the abovementioned concern of hindering recycling. It can be expected that only some input hazardous substances are detected by visual inspection, even though most of them are very well known (screens and old TV sets, batteries, printed board circuits, plastic parts in household devices that are warmed up such as toasters, printers, drill machines or hair dryers). The actual detection of hazardous substances inside plastics would require the combination of a qualitative and quantitative approach. The qualitative part comprises the collection of upstream information on the composition of the waste plastic used as input. The quantitative approach implies sampling and testing. This quantitative effort is likely intensive in the beginning of the process, when full characterisation is needed to ensure CLP and REACH compliance, in line with virgin plastics production. Once a steady-state is attained, and provided that the input sources do not vary significantly, the effort will be low if it is found that the presence of hazardous substances is low. If the presence of hazardous substances is frequent, the effort has to be maintained also throughout the normal operation.

- The material shall be free of visible chemical or biological contamination such as oil, solvents, paint, or biodegradable substances resulting in mould growth. Some of this may be detected by the presence of odour. This is a difficult issue, as some reprocessors and converters operate their plants without a washing step, i.e. with only dry cleaning, or a wet washing step which does not remove all of these residuals, some of which are absorbed to the plastic matrix. The mentioned residuals are thus part of the material entering the melting step, where some of it evaporates, some of it burns (and can be

filtered out if sufficiently large in relation to the filter mesh size), and some of it remains in the plastic output. The presence of residual amounts of vegetable and mineral oils, solvents and detergents can indeed be detected in the end product (e.g. PO regranulate or agglomerate from MSW packaging input), so it would enter the wider definition of 'visible'. These elements are in very small concentrations, small enough to make the output non-hazardous, and in most cases not leaching to any significant degree, especially in the product-like storage conditions provided to this material. The presence in such small amounts has some but limited effect on the value of the material (normally well above 100-200 EUR/tonne), which is highly appreciated by the industry as substitute of virgin polymers.

3.2.1 Content of contaminants: non-plastic components and non-targeted plastics

In response to the general agreement among the TWG experts (see previous section) on limiting the content of non-plastic components in plastic that ceases to be waste, it is proposed to include a criterion on the maximum allowable content of non-plastic components in waste plastic. The criterion is connected to the fulfilment of the following objectives, linked to two of the conditions of EoW, namely

1) Existence of a market and a demand for mechanical recycling:

- ensuring that the material is essentially composed of a recyclable material, in this case a targeted plastic polymer (with known amounts of additives) with only a minor content of other non-recyclable materials, and for this reason a valuable input to plastic making,
- limiting the risk that the material is not used for other purposes than mechanical recycling. For waste plastics, the higher risk is that agglomerates and regrind not sufficiently clean (containing high content of impurities in the range of 10-20%, rarely above) are used as energy source in e.g. cement kilns and metal industry.

2) Limitation of the overall environmental impact:

- limiting the amount of rejects that need ulterior waste treatment, as waste treatment has environmental impacts, and it cannot be controlled once it is exported out of the EU.
- providing the markets involved in the development of new plastic lumber applications an indication that despite the high tolerance of plastic lumber applications to the presence of physical impurities (frequently up to 15%, but also above), such applications shall not be used indiscriminately as a long-term and dispersed sink of waste impurities. These waste impurities shall with priority be removed from the plastic, and be treated following the existing waste management systems, including recycling when this is possible. This overall objective has to be seen in the national/regional context of the likely fate of the physical impurities if not embedded in plastic lumber. In some countries, the alternative to lumber may be worse (e.g. disposal), but in others the alternative may have a similar or better overall life-cycle impact (e.g. incineration, or treatment for purification and recycling of the impurities).

The definition of non-plastic components has been discussed in-depth with the technical working group. The definition is in principle based on limiting the content of any material different from the targeted plastic polymer(s) and additives.

According to the comments from TWG experts, of two basic distinct ranges of recyclate output are currently marketed in the EU:

- "Type 1": High quality, most often washed, melt-filtered and granulated/pelletised recycled plastic with a non-plastic component content between 0.1 and 1%. Pre-consumer flakes, or post-consumer washed flakes may also meet these criteria, and the criterion can be exceptionally be met for unwashed material (agglomerates, flakes and regrind), some of which reach prices around 200 EUR/tonne. However, the market value of washed recyclates is often way above 300 EUR/tonne, most of them in the 400-600 EUR/tonne range. These recyclates represent currently some 70-80% of the EU market of recycled plastics (see Table 2.5). They often are able to substitute virgin resins in their applications.
- "Type 2": Agglomerates and regrinds from mixed origin (mostly from post-consumer plastic waste), with high non-plastic component content, often between 5% and 15 %, sometimes more. These materials are only traded to a limited extent due to their low value. These recyclates clearly above 2% impurity content represent currently some 15% of the EU market (see Table 2.5)²¹⁵. The market value of the agglomerates and regrind is in most cases way below 200 EUR/tonne, with prices decreasing proportionally to the increasing impurity content. A very commonly traded grade is an unwashed regrind or agglomerate with 10-15% impurities (mostly paper, but also other plastics such as PET and PVC, and 3-4 % ash content from glass, ceramics, metal and stones), which currently has a market value of 90-120 EUR/tonne. Non-washed material with 20% impurities or above has a value of 50-80 EUR/tonne, and is frequently marketed in some regions of the EU as fuel (cement kilns, metal foundries) and not for mechanical recycling.

Recycled output material of "Type 2", while still marketed as agglomerate or regrind – sometimes as non-waste - is normally the outcome of non-thorough cleaning, of a very mixed input material quality, or of a combination of both. This latter material is not suited for substitution of equivalent virgin polymers, and is currently only used in applications with high tolerance to physical impurities, substituting other materials than virgin plastic, such as cement and wood for outdoor furniture and civil works applications. The high impurity tolerance of some of these applications (normally up to 15%, exceptionally above 20%) allows the reprocessors to not be in the need of undertaking further cleaning, as they have already a market for a material that is only partially cleaned. The technology exists for cleaning further, but it does not make economic sense to clean further in order to obtain EoW status, as the material meets already the technical requirements for plastic lumber applications. Further cleaning of these regrind/agglomerates would only increase its costs and the price of the end products. If they were much more expensive, these articles would not find much demand, and the overall benefits of recycling into them would not be met. The most likely consequence if a strict (e.g. 2%) EoW criterion is set is that the recycling of this second group of recyclates would have to take place (or remain taking place) under the waste regime. This would be no novelty in some regions, but it would be subject of concern in regions where reprocessors and authorities (normally municipalities) have already negotiated non-

²¹⁵ an additional 15% of waste plastics is directly used into articles , but this is in most cases shredded unwashed packaging waste with >15% impurity content, which is directly converted after shredding without any further cleaning or transformation into tradable intermediates

waste status for the recyclate. Reprocessors mention in this regard two elements that may hurdle operation under the waste regime:

1) Some converters may have to request waste licenses. Apparently, this is not much an economic matter (the cost of waste licenses is limited, see section 2.6.2), but a question of image, and a practical reluctance to undergo an additional administrative process. However, the extent of this impact is limited, as most of the affected converters treating "Type 2" recyclates do not deal with high quality recyclates and have already waste licenses, because they combine as input both plastic waste – which they clean themselves- and agglomerates or regrind processed outside, and rarely use as exclusive input regrind or agglomerates pre-processed elsewhere.

2) The perception that not meeting EoW criteria will mean the end of recycling. This is a misunderstanding, as many recyclable materials are traded in the EU for recycling under the waste regime (paper, metals, glass cullet, compost...) and this is no impediment for reaching high recycling rates, some of them up to 70-80%, which is way above current plastic recycling rates. For some of them, also EoW criteria have already been adopted, opening with it an alternative trade option. Moreover, the non-waste condition of the converted articles (plastic lumber furniture, etc.) is not questioned.

The definition of one or more thresholds for limiting the impurity content shall be as simple as possible, and limit to the extent possible additional administrative burden. Any threshold proposed should ideally be at reach for a large part of the recovered waste plastic flow currently used for recycled plastic product making, and perceived by the sector as a raw material, not waste. Only mixed origin plastics used for substitution of non-plastics, e.g. for plastic lumber and similar articles, would need considerable additional efforts to reach the proposed limit values.

However, the threshold should:

- be sufficiently strict to avoid that too contaminated material is classified as non-waste, especially concerning the risk of shipment of non- plastic material out of the EU as part of an end-of-waste consignment or of using it for energy purposes. Only the cleanest material currently used and perceived as raw material should pass.
- not discourage technology development towards producing cleaner material that could fulfil the threshold, to affect the efforts made in the last decades towards increasing waste plastic collection, increased quality in the collected waste plastic, the technologies for use of waste plastic for plastic making, and the demand of recycled plastic products.
- not make EoW a luxury issue only for the benefit of a marginal part of the total plastic flows, and out of reach for the majority of the plastic flow currently perceived and used by the sector as a product.

Based on the arguments above, and the feedback from the TWG, **a seemingly suitable threshold of 2% of non-plastic impurities is proposed,** valid for all polymer types.

The maximum limit of physical impurities has been discussed intensively with the TWG, both orally and by means of a written consultation. The members of the TWG were

requested to provide opinions and arguments for values between 1.5 and 5%. It can be concluded from the comments that the value proposed represents an operational borderline between the quality obtained after thorough cleaning (washed material, melt-filtration) that is intended for substitution of virgin plastic, and after basic cleaning (dry cleaning and material separation, no filtration, no removal of organic residuals) intended for plastic products that replace other materials such as wood and concrete. The lowest quality fractions (>15% impurity content) are also sometimes bought as a source of energy. Additional technical considerations on why the consultation was restricted to this numeric range are provided in Annex II.

Diverging opinions among the TWG have been registered on what the maximum limit value shall be. A vast majority of Member States representatives, and most business organisations would prefer strict values in the 1-2% range, sometimes even lower, and would grant EoW status only to "Type 1" recyclates. The main reasons are (1) that waste status for "Type 2" will not jeopardise its recycling, (2) there is too high risk that "Type 2" material can be diverted to non-mechanical recovery applications, most notably incineration in cement kilns and metal works, based on the current market prices, and (3) non-targeted plastics and non-plastics (including additives) are present in relatively high proportion, but have a mere filler function, and are not present because of their properties or functionality substituting polymers or additives present in plastic articles made of virgin plastics. Stakeholders also argue to support this that recent international shipping criteria establish a maximum impurity content in this range, e.g. the Chinese GB 16487.12-2005 of 0.5% and the Dutch green list waste export threshold of 2%.

Conversely, a few business associations and individual MS would support a value in the 3-6% range, or even to have no limit at all. The main argument used to support this is the need to be lenient and support existing industrial practice based on mixed material input. These associations argue that if "Type 2" agglomerate material did not qualify for EoW, this would cause a breakdown of the recycling industry. However, there is evidence of healthy recycling markets operating under the waste regime. It is also observed that unwashed regrind and agglomerates are generally an intermediate product that is rarely traded. This indicates that the argued barriers if the material is waste are rather of image and marketing-related, and technical, environmental, or even economic.

A group of stakeholders has proposed to establish **two routes**:

- The strict limit (2%) is kept for "Type 1" material, as above;
- For "Type 2" material failing to meet this criterion, an additional more lenient limit is established²¹⁶, e.g. 3-6%, but it is additionally requested to provide evidence of the use of the recyclate in mechanical recycling.

This proposal has been analysed in detail.

The proposal has a number of advantages and disadvantages in terms of potential impacts, which are presented in Chapter 4 (description of impacts). In essence, it would build on the proposal made (2% limit). This safeguards the simplicity of the criterion for

²¹⁶ in the view of some stakeholders this second limit could also be higher, e.g. 15%, or even absent.

the very pure material (e.g. impurity contents $\ll 1\%$), which would therefore not need regular checking of compliance with the 2% limit, as this limit is far above the average content. Very pure recyclates have also market prices much higher than alternative fuels, and are therefore not sought after as energy source by cement kilns, incinerators and the metal industry.

This option would offer an open door for "Type 2" material where there is certainty of mechanical recycling. Therefore, it would be granted only if the producer or importer is able to provide additional evidence of this. Examples of such evidence would be a contract with the mechanical recycler (converter), or a statement from the converter to be attached to the Statement of Conformity that contains as a minimum the following information:

- *Contact data of the destination facility:*
 - *Name:*
 - *Full address, postcode and country:*
 - *Contact person:*
 - *Telephone:*
 - *Fax:*
 - *E-mail:*
- *Reference to the load of the consignment, such as a load reference number, or a description and total amount that allows a 1:1 correlation to the Statement of Conformity.*
- *Signed declaration from the destination facility that the intended use of the full load of the material in the consignment is the conversion to articles.*

Some members of the TWG have questioned if the continuous measurement of impurity content to check compliance with the 2% threshold may be a too costly burden. As explained below and in the discussion in Annex II, it is probable that the most demanding sampling effort, and investment in cleaning of plastic, is not driven by the need of reducing the non-plastic component content but is driven by the need of characterising appropriately the non-hazardous condition in order to meet the requirements of product legislation (REACH, CLP and POPs regulations).

It is in the spirit of the criteria proposed that facilities using multi-material sources should have regular non-plastic components testing on output qualifying for EoW. "Regular" means in this context a statistics-based approach. Normally, the testing of high quality grades (pelletised material) will be minimal, as the average non-plastic components is in the range of 0.1-0.5% and therefore far from the mentioned threshold. Plastic from homogeneous and pre-consumer sources will require generally a much more modest sampling effort than mixed and post-consumer sources. If the material is not washed and melt-filtered, the frequency of sampling has to be sufficient to be able to detect trends and non-conformities.

Sampling results have to be recorded, kept for the competent authorities and made available on their request. The sampling procedures and calibration methods shall be made available to auditing, e.g. by making them part of quality management procedures such as ISO 9001 that requiring auditing.

3.2.2 Detection of hazardousness and alignment with REACH/CLP/POPs

In order to meet the requirements with regard to classification, labelling and customer information, recyclers must know the hazard profile of the substances put on the market by them. This means that recyclers have to determine whether the substances manufactured by them (including any impurities) have hazardous properties (e.g. corrosive, acutely toxic, chronically toxic, carcinogenic). As distributors, they are required to search for relevant existing information and evaluate it. The principle is that all relevant information relating to a substance should be utilised, and in the absence of data, it has to be created via analyses or tests. The hazard profile of a plastic is determined to a large extent by the type and quantity of any additives, and their degree of mobility from the polymer matrix where they are bound or encapsulated.

CLP Regulation, Article 5, has the following prescriptions:

'Identification and examination of available information on substances:

(1) Manufacturers, importers and downstream users of a substance shall identify the relevant available information for the purposes of determining whether the substance entails a physical, health or environmental hazard as set out in Annex I, and, in particular, the following:

- a) data generated in accordance with any of the methods referred to in Article 8(3);*
 - b) epidemiological data and experience on the effects on humans, such as occupational data and data from accident databases;*
 - c) any other information generated in accordance with section 1 of Annex XI to Regulation (EC) No 1907/2006;*
 - d) any new scientific information;*
 - e) any other information generated under internationally recognised chemical programmes. The information shall relate to the forms or physical states in which the substance is placed on the market and in which it can reasonably be expected to be used.*
- (2) Manufacturers, importers and downstream users shall examine the information referred to in paragraph 1 to ascertain whether it is adequate, reliable and scientifically valid for the purpose of the evaluation pursuant to Chapter 2 of this Title'.*

As mentioned above, MS have clearly requested at TWG meetings that waste plastic qualifying for EoW must not be classified as hazardous.

Previous work on EoW has relied for the identification of hazardousness on the definitions of waste legislation, as follows:

- The EoW material, including its constituents, shall not display any of the hazardous properties listed in Annex III to Directive 2008/98/EC (WFD)
- The waste plastic shall comply with the concentration limits laid down in Commission Decision 2000/532/EC ('List of wastes')

However, an examination of the detail of both requirements reveals that they refer further to the definition of hazardousness provided in the old legislation on dangerous substance determination and labelling (Directives 67/548/EEC and 88/379/EEC), both of which are now superseded by the CLP Regulation.

It seems thus logical to referring directly to the new definition of hazardousness in products in CLP, and the requirements to hazardous substances in REACH and POPs. In other words, request that recyclates meet the same requirements than virgin plastic, including notably the same knowledge of material composition, and the communication of this data in the supply chain.

The determination of hazardousness is not easy. A full description of this can be obtained in the guidelines issued by the European Chemicals Agency (ECHA). In these guidelines²¹⁷, it is explained that there are several different approaches to assessing hazard, based on the compilation of information from different sources.

For waste material, the basic approach is to collect hazard information from:

- the input materials, such as migration tests, or SDS of the input substances.
- own tests and measurements characterising the hazardousness of the waste plastic (e.g. migration tests, bridging principles).

In the absence of any of the above information about the actual behaviour of the plastic waste and any hazardous substance present in it, hazard can be assessed based on the presence of hazardous substances above a given threshold. For instance, would an ABS pellet containing brominated flame retardants be a candidate for EoW? The above mentioned tests should be available from the manufacturers that put the ABS in the EU market for the first time, as this is a basic requirement of REACH for those products. Failing this, no test results can demonstrate that the flame retardants are not mobile in ABS under different exposure scenarios, including normal use conditions, and therefore hazardous classification has to be done based on merely on the concentration. This may result in the characterisation of the waste plastic as hazardous, as there is no evidence that it is not.

Recyclers have thus a strong motivation to characterise the additives in its product, determining if it is hazardous. This will be very case-specific. The recycles has to check the content of additives and is these have one or more of the properties that make a substance hazardous (acutely toxic, chronically toxic, carcinogenic, etc), and the concentration in the plastic is above that established in product legislation (REACH, CLP and POPs) where mixtures of recycled plastics are regarded as carcinogenic if the content of a carcinogenic constituent exceeds a given threshold, usually 0.1%. If the additive has none of such properties, then the plastic would not be classified as hazardous. If the concentration is above, and it cannot be proved that it cannot migrate out of the plastic matrix once converted to a recyclate, then the recyclate would be classified as hazardous. The recycler has to reproduce this exercise for the main problem substances (toxic heavy metals, phthalates, etc..) presented in Section 2.10 on environmental and health issues and in section 4.1 (Table 4.1) of description of impacts.

If the recyclate material is characterised as hazardous based purely on the content of additives, but the recycler is convinced that the hazardous additives cannot migrate and present no exposure, additional evidence on migration or toxicological tests has to be collected from literature or be directly tested on the recyclate.

²¹⁷ ECHA (2012)

As explained in the section on legislation, the POPs Regulation is complementary to REACH in the sense that it does not aim at characterising the content and hazard profile of substances, but to identify and eliminate from the technosphere those characterised as persistent, including avoiding that they are recycled into new products. Table 4.1 illustrates that the threshold limits as POPS for elimination of persistent substances are often stricter than the limits for hazardousness characterisation of CLP. To facilitate that the recycle producers meet the same conditions as virgin plastic producers, the EoW criteria proposed refer also to the article of POPs where persistent substance presence is regulated, as the reference to CLP only would not be sufficient to address the hazard of persistent pollutants.

Also in this spirit, reference to the SVHC candidate list in REACH is seen necessary, as Table 3.1. in Annex VI in CLP (hazardous substance harmonised characterisation) encompasses REACH's Annex XVII substances, but is not fully synchronised with the SVHC candidate list.

In conclusion, simultaneous reference to the following three legislative elements is necessary for a consistent coverage of the potential hazardousness of recycled plastics:

The waste plastic (recyclate) shall:

- Not be classified as hazardous following the definitions in Article 3 and Annex I of CLP Regulation (EC/1272/2008)**
- Observe the limitations to the placement on the market of Substances of Very High Concern - SVHC (PBT substances -persistent, bioaccumulative and toxic-, vPvB substances -very persistent and very bioaccumulative-, and substances having endocrine disrupting properties or PBT or vPvB properties), unless authorised or exempted, following the prescriptions laid out in Art 56 of REACH (which makes further reference to Arts 57 and 58 and its Annex XIII).**
- Observe the restrictions to the placement on the market of persistent organic pollutants (POPs), as laid out in Article 3 of Regulation EC/ 850/2004, and its Annex I, as amended by Regulation 757/2010.**

Example: plastic lumber

Articles such as plastic lumber and outdoor furniture have high tolerances in terms of non-plastic material content, often in the range of 5-15%, rarely above. As articles and not waste, they are out of the scope of the EoW regulation (although not out of the scope of REACH/CLP). However, the material used as input into them can be waste, or EoW.

If the plastic material used as direct input to such articles is to be EoW, it has to meet product legislation, herewith REACH, POPs and CLP, and following the request from MS in the TWG, it must not be classified as hazardous. In order to ensure that, and due to the very heterogeneous nature of their input, a very detailed knowledge of the composition is needed by the producers of plastic lumber articles in order to guarantee the absence of hazardous properties. This requires to ensure one of two elements: either that the content of hazardous substances is below the thresholds established by the three above

referred legislative elements (Art 3 and Annex I in CLP, SVHC in REACH, and Art 3 in POPs) (see the example in Figure 2.43), or if above these thresholds, that the hazardous substances present cannot migrate out of the plastic to an extent that renders the plastic recycle or plastic recycled article hazardous.

For article converters, this data has to be requested upstreams to the reprocessor of the waste, regrind, flake, agglomerate or pellet used as input, and be complemented with chemical analyses and when possible with migration tests.

3.2.3 Criteria proposed

Based on the discussed issues, the criteria on quality proposed are:

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
1. Quality of waste plastic resulting from the recovery operation	
1.1 The waste plastic²¹⁸ shall comply with a customer specification, or an industry specification for direct use in the production of plastic substances or objects by re-melting in plastic manufacturing facilities. When applicable, the following standards on characterisation of plastic recyclates shall be used: – For polystyrene: EN 15342 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polystyrene (PS) recyclates – For polyethylene: EN 15344 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polyethylene (PE) recyclates – For polypropylene: EN 15345 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polypropylene (PP) recyclates – For poly(vinyl chloride): EN 15346 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of poly(vinyl chloride) (PVC) recyclates – For poly(ethylene terephthalate): EN 15348 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of poly(ethylene	Qualified staff²¹⁹ shall verify that each batch in the consignment complies with the appropriate specification.

²¹⁸ As indicated in the introduction (section 1.2 on Terminology), the term *plastic recyclate* can be used instead of *plastic waste* in the formulation of the Regulation. The term plastic waste was used in the first phases of the discussions with the TWG, well knowing that substitute terms may be proposed later on. In the last phases of the work, the term *plastic recyclate* seems to have gained support by a growing number of stakeholders from the TWG.

²¹⁹ Qualified staff is defined as: staff who are qualified by experience or training to monitor and assess the properties of the waste plastic.

terephthalate) (PET) recyclates	
1.2 The non-plastic component content shall be ≤ 2 % of moisture-free weight²²⁰. A non-plastic component is any material different from plastic, which is present in waste plastic for recycling. Examples of non-plastic components are metals, paper, glass, natural textiles, earth, sand, ash, dust, wax, bitumen, ceramics, rubber, organic matter and wood, except when these materials are integral constituents of the plastic structure before it is re-melt, such as talc, limestone, glassfibre or wood fibres used as fillers and structural or mechanical reinforcements. (*)²²¹	Qualified staff shall carry out visual inspection²²² of each batch in the consignment. At appropriate intervals subject to review if significant changes in the operating process are made, representative samples of the moisture-free waste plastic shall be analysed gravimetrically to measure the content and nature of non-plastic components. The non-plastic components content shall be analysed by weighing in moisture-free condition after mechanical or manual (as appropriate) separation of materials under careful visual inspection. When the material has undergone thermal treatment to agglomerate or pelletise it, the determination of the content of non-plastic components has to be carried out at the latest stage of reprocessing before thermal treatment is applied to the plastic to agglomerate or pelletise it. Complementary analytical techniques may be used in the determination of the non-plastic component content, such as chromatography or infrared spectroscopy, especially for the purpose of inspection. The appropriate frequencies of monitoring by sampling shall be established

220 Please note that there is currently no standard for the determination of moisture-free conditions of plastics. The standards on recyclates cited in Criterion 1.1 include reference to moisture determination, but this is based on the adoption of methods for moisture characterisation of non-plastic products!

²²¹ (*) An alternative formulation for Criterion 1.2 has also been assessed. The formulation is based on a 2-tier proposal: the criterion is met if recyclates contain <2% impurities, but it can also be met if the impurity content is >2% AND additional evidence is provided that the material is used for conversion into articles, e.g. in the form of a signed declaration issued by the client (converter). The pros/cons of this alternative are described in Chapter 4 (description of impacts).

²²² "visual inspection" means inspection of consignments using either or all human senses such as vision, touch and smell and any non-specialised equipment. Visual inspection shall be carried out in such a way that all representative parts of a consignment are covered. This may often best be achieved in the delivery area during loading or unloading and before packing. It may involve manual manipulations such as the opening of containers, other sensorial controls (feel, smell) or the use of appropriate portable sensors.

	taking into account the following factors: • (1) the expected pattern of variability (for example as shown by historical results); • (2) the inherent risk of variability in the quality of the waste used as input for the recovery operation and any subsequent processing, for instance the higher average content of metals or glass in waste plastic from multi-material collection systems; • (3) the inherent precision of the monitoring method; and • (4) the proximity of results to the limitation of the non-plastic components content to a maximum of 2 % of moisture – free weight. The process of determining monitoring frequencies shall be documented as part of the management system and shall be available for auditing.
1.3 The waste plastic shall not be classified as hazardous following the definitions in Article 3 and Annex I of Regulation EC/1272/2008 (CLP). shall meet the conditions of commercialisation of substances of very high concern (SVHC) laid out in Article 56 of Regulation EC/1907/2006 (REACH). shall meet the prescriptions about the restriction of the commercialisation of persistent organic pollutants laid out in Article 3 of Regulation 850/2004/EC (POPs)²²³.	The assessment of REACH compliance, and in particular determination of hazardousness has to be concluded from a qualitative and quantitative characterisation of the plastic material in the consignment²²⁴. At appropriate intervals subject to review if significant changes in the operating process are made, representative samples of waste plastic shall be analysed to measure the content and nature of hazardous substances, and the extent to which users of the waste plastic or the environment are exposed to contact with these

223 OJ L L 229, 30.4.2004, p. 1. on POPs, as amended in Regulations 757/2010 and 756/2010.

²²⁴ this information should be derived from the characterization needed for compliance with REACH, CLP and POPs regulations .

	substances. The appropriate frequencies of monitoring by sampling shall be established taking into account the following factors: • (1) the expected pattern of variability (for example as shown by historical results); • (2) the inherent risk of variability in the quality of the waste used as input for the recovery operation and any subsequent processing, for instance the higher average content of plastics containing hazardous substances; • (3) the inherent precision of the monitoring method; and • (4) the proximity of results to the concentration thresholds that render the material hazardous or restrict their commercialisation. The procedure of recognising hazardous materials shall be documented under the management system, and shall be available for auditing. In addition to quantitative characterisation, qualified staff shall carry out visual inspection²²⁵ of each batch in the consignment. The staff shall be trained on potential hazardous properties that may be associated with waste plastic and on material components or features that allow recognising the hazardous properties visually.
1.4 Waste plastic shall not contain	Qualified staff shall carry out a visual inspection of each consignment. Where

225 "visual inspection" means inspection of consignments using either or all human senses such as vision, touch and smell and any non-specialised equipment. Visual inspection shall be carried out in such a way that all representative parts of a consignment are covered. This may often best be achieved in the delivery area during loading or unloading and before packing. It may involve manual manipulations such as the opening of containers, other sensorial controls (feel, smell) or the use of appropriate portable sensors.

leachable fluids such as oil, solvents, glues, paint, aqueous and/or fatty foodstuffs, that can be detected by visual inspection and olfactory test, except for negligible amounts that will not lead to any dripping.	visual inspection reveals the presence of signs of fluids except water, that may result in e.g. mould growth or odours, and these signs are non-negligible, the consignment shall remain waste. The staff shall be trained on potential types of contamination that may be associated with waste plastic and on material components or features that allow recognising the contaminants. The procedure of recognising contamination shall be documented under the management system.
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3.3 Requirements on input materials

The purpose of criteria on input materials is to check indirectly the quality of the product.

Two main options exist: a *negative list*, and a *positive list* approach. A negative list approach for input material criteria would limit the inputs or input sources that pose a specific environmental, health or quality concern if not treated adequately. The positive list approach consists of referring to the types of input materials that are preferred because their origin ensures absence or minimisation of risks, e.g. a requirement that only selective collection sources are accepted for EoW.

A positive list approach bears the risk of letting aside suitable sources of waste plastic, or sources which can become suitable as new technologies become available. Negative lists bear the concern of not excluding all potentially unsuitable materials. Both need an update mechanism, but the positive list is more sensitive to it.

In the discussions held with the technical working group and the feedback received to the first version of this document, the opinions received from the experts declare a preference for a negative list, i.e. similar approach to the one used for glass, metals, and paper, - but dissimilar from compost. The food contact legislation is also based on a positive list, indicating that this approach may be best suited in cases where the product uses are close to consumers/the environment and therefore more sensitive.

3.3.1 Restriction of sources

The end-of-waste criteria should allow as input only waste streams containing plastic that can be processed for the production of new plastic in compliance with the product quality requirements, after appropriate treatment, and without overall adverse environmental or human health impacts.

For instance, concerns have been registered from some experts on the suitability of ELV and WEEE plastics as input. The concerns relate primarily to the content of additives listed in Annexes XIV or candidates to it (SVHC: low molecular weight phthalates, Br-FR, toxic heavy metals) and XVII (restrictions of use: Cd in PVC, phthalates in toys) of REACH, some of them also addressed or restricted in RoHS (Br-FR, heavy metals), WEEE (Br-FR), ELV (heavy metals), and POPs (Br-FR) legislation.

Most TWG experts agree that plastics containing these problematic substances shall not be recycled into products. The approach used to achieve this goal diverges. Some TWG experts would prefer to restrict all material which may contain it (ELV, WEEE), whereas some others would prefer to let the existing technology take care of sorting out the problematic plastics, as required by WEEE Directive. Either way, in general it is acknowledged that if appropriate measures in terms of e.g. technology and man-power are taken to perform sorting and avoid cross-contamination, a high quality material can be obtained from very diverse origins. It is also recognised that end-of-life products such as WEEE and ELV provide valuable sources of quality recyclates, frequently expensive technical polymers.

Some experts argue additionally that the right approach is not to restrict the recycling of WEEE and ELV, as the alternatives of incineration and landfilling could result in more environmental and health impacts, and it would additionally hinder the development of the recycling industry and new separation techniques. They propose approaches similar to the one recently taken in relation to the use of Cadmium as stabiliser in PVC (c.f. section 2.10), which involves a combination of measures based on risk assessments that on the one hand limit the entry of substances in new products (e.g. through the revision of the lists in RoHS, POPs, and Annex XIV of REACH), and on the other hand restrict the uses of products containing recycled content to those with low exposure. Following this argumentation, end of waste (product) condition shall not be denied to a recycled plastic of known content of one or more of the problem substances, if it follows the existing legislation that prescribes the conditions of use (e.g. Annex XVII of REACH, or food contact legislation).

Depending on the strictness that one may choose for the quality criteria, most notably on non-plastic content, some degree of flexibility is possible in the input criteria. The stricter and more thorough the quality criteria are on maximum content of impurities and non-hazardousness, as well as any criteria on processing (e.g. if cleaning or filtering in melt/dissolved phase is required), the less stringent the criteria on the allowable origin need to be.

Compared to other EoW material streams such as metals or paper, the proposed criteria on plastics need to be at least as restrictive on the characterisation of hazardousness, as the two mentioned materials had to undergo a cleaning process of hazardous content, while plastics can incorporate these materials in the plastic matrix.

Once the foreign non-plastic materials have been restricted (e.g. to 2% as proposed), the remaining substances of concern are part of the plastic structure, i.e. are additives. Compared to paper and metals, there is a stronger role for the control of the substances still in the plastics, most notably through REACH/CLP/POPs compliance. Because of the implicit requirement of a more advanced completion of the cleaning of the material and

hazardousness control, the requirements on the input do not need be as demanding as for metals or paper, as most of the residuals of e.g. cross contamination, packaging content, etc. will have been eliminated.

Based on the arguments above, one may only need to exclude certain origins of waste plastic, the presence of which can potentially represent a risk for health, safety and environment, e.g. health care waste.

Most experts have commented that there is no reason for excluding mixed origin waste streams such as MSW, as the criteria on quality will only be met when the material undergoes a sequence of sorting and cleaning processes. If these cleaning steps are not present, the material will never reach the required quality. In current industrial practice, the suggested quality (<2% non-plastic content) is only achievable in a cost-effective manner with input from pre-consumer sources, from relatively homogeneous post-consumer sources (e.g. agriculture film, and from separate collection systems (packaging) after thorough sorting and cleaning, be these mono-material for plastics, or multi-material with other recyclables. To the extent possible one shall not interfere the development of the sorting and cleaning techniques that may allow in the future the extraction of pure materials from mixed sources.

In principle, for the benefit of a simpler and clearer legislative proposal, it is proposed as default not to include any limitation to the collection system used.

In the EoW debate for other recyclable materials (paper, glass), the option of compulsory labelling of the origin was requested, as this facilitated to better tackle a higher risk of impurities and cross-contamination of the material as part of the management systems of end-product manufacturing, and better identify the nature of this contamination (e.g. an average larger content of glass/metals, if these be detrimental to production in plastic manufacturing plants, or/and average larger content of adsorbable fluids like vegetable oils or detergents). For plastics, there has been no specific request from the TWG experts in this regard.

3.3.2 Criteria proposed

The criteria on input materials proposed include the following elements:

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
2. Waste used as input for the recovery operation	
2.1 Bio-waste, health care waste, and used products of personal hygiene shall not be used as input.	Acceptance control of all plastic-containing waste received by visual inspection and of the accompanying documentation shall be carried out by qualified staff which is trained on how to recognise plastic-containing input that does not fulfil the criteria set out in this section. Particular attention shall be placed to the absence of hazardous components in plastic material input originated from electric and electronic equipment waste (WEEE),
2.2 Hazardous waste shall not be used as an input except where proof is provided that the processes and techniques specified in Section 3 of these Criteria to remove all hazardous properties have been applied.	

	construction and demolition waste, and end-of-life vehicles (ELV). The procedure of recognising hazardous materials shall be documented under the management system.
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3.4 Requirements on treatment processes and techniques

The purpose of introducing requirements on processes and techniques is to check indirectly product quality.

Apart from plastic which is reused (before collection), waste plastic is collected in varying quantities, processed and eventually converted into plastic products. Waste plastic needs most often sorting and removal of non-plastic components. Some very homogeneous waste plastic fractions may just need transport and storage without contact to other waste fractions, while others may need thorough sorting after collection.

Without pre-judging the point in the treatment chain where end-of-waste is reached, the purpose of the introduction of process requirements is to define minimum treatment conditions which are known to in all cases result in quality suitable for EoW. When reaching end-of-waste status, the material must have those minimum necessary treatment processes that make it a suitable direct input material to the manufacture of plastic products. The treatment processes must also ensure that transporting, handling, trading and using waste plastic takes place without increased environmental and health impact or risks.

- The treatment processes required to achieve this sufficient quality differ depending on the waste streams from which the waste plastic has originally been obtained. The criteria on processes and techniques can include:
 - Basic general process requirements that apply in all types of waste/waste plastic streams, such as the avoidance of cross contamination and after-mixture with waste.
 - Specific process requirements for specific types of waste/waste plastic streams: which is the key unit operation or operations (sorting, cleaning, etc.) that provide the essential reduction/removal of environmental and health risks for waste plastics.

Generic requirements that do not prescribe a specific collection scheme, origin, type of operator (municipal/private/local/global) or technology are preferred, since industry and authorities in the waste plastic recycling chain should not be prevented from adjusting processes to specific circumstances and from following innovation.

It should be clear in any case that no dilution with other wastes (i.e. wastes that do not contain recyclable plastic) should be allowed for EoW material. As part of this principle, cross-contamination is to be avoided. As the remaining criteria do not provide the means to avoid dilution, it is proposed to maintain a criterion expressing clearly the need of avoiding mixing with other wastes.

There is a range of specific processes and techniques that can be adopted by reprocessors to achieve high quality output. For example, in addition to the choice of equipment installed at sorting plants, key factors affecting the quality of the output include:

- Speed of throughput (e.g. at manual sorting cabins, at mechanical screens)
- Staffing levels within sorting cabins
- Management of quality of the input streams (e.g. through communication with the waste producers and collectors)
- The existence of a wet cleaning phase (washing) for removal of fluid residues (oils, detergents, solvents, paints, foodstuffs, etc.), versus dry cleaning, which does not remove them if they are attached or adsorbed to the plastic surface.
- The existence of a filter mesh for impurity removal in the melted phase (extrusion), and if used, its size (e.g. 150 µm).

EuPR et al (2012) outline the following examples essential processes in ensuring quality in the reprocessing of plastics, see also Annex II.:

- Polyolefins (PE; PP) and PET:
 - Post-consumer: Sorting, grinding and washing (in some case where the recycler is directly producing (semi-)finished products the washing phase does not happen).
 - Pre-consumer: Sorting and grinding.
- PVC:
 - Post-consumer and pre-consumer: sorting and grinding.

The minimum common denominator seems thus sorting and size reduction (normally by grinding). These treatments can be described as necessary but not sufficient in ensuring fulfilment of all 4 conditions of Art 6 of the WFD. They do not remove impurities, and on the contrary, they normally disperse them. Additional techniques may be needed in most cases for the removal of impurities to an extent that makes the material safe for storage under any conditions, and suited input for melting and moulding into new products in replacement of either virgin polymers (normally for higher quality demands) or other materials such as wood/metal/concrete (e.g. outdoor furniture).

Prescribing the minimum requirement of sorting and size reduction may result unnecessary for many pre-consumer streams and some exceptionally clean post-consumer streams. One has then to strike a balance between overregulation, and the value added of sorting and size reduction in ensuring environmental and health risk protection. In the proposed formulation, only the free flowing condition is requested, leaving a degree of freedom to the specific shape and size.

Wet cleaning is often mentioned by experts as a technology ensuring impurity removal, but some clean fractions are also reported not needing this step, or operating using dry cleaning. Some MS have proposed the more cumbersome option that washing and size

reduction are compulsory by default, and it is the producer of the EoW material that has to demonstrate that they were not needed.

Regardless of the above, it shall be borne in mind that it is the quality of the final output that is key to EoW, and neither the origin of the waste plastic nor how it was treated along the way. If a reprocessor is meeting the quality criteria established by EoW, to the extent possible one shall avoid to prescribe how this is achieved, as this may risk stifling innovation.

In a future review of the criteria, one may draw from the results of the recently launched initiative for certification of recycling plants, see:

http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/raw-materials/public-consultation-waste/index_en.htm

3.4.1 Criteria proposed

The criteria on treatment processes and techniques proposed are:

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
3. Treatment processes and techniques	
3.1 Waste plastic streams used as input shall, once received by the producer or importer, be kept permanently separate from the contact with any other waste, including other waste plastic grades. 3.2 All treatments needed to prepare the waste plastic for direct input in a free flowing form to manufacturing of plastic products, such as de-baling, sorting, separating, size-reducing, cleaning, melting, filtering, regranulating, or grading, shall have been completed. 3.3 For waste containing hazardous components, the following specific requirements shall apply: (a) input materials that originate from waste electrical or electronic equipment or from end-of-life vehicles shall have undergone all treatments required by Article 8 of Directive 2012/19/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council (WEEE) and by Article 6 of Directive 2000/53/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council (ELVs); (b) hazardous waste that is not mentioned in point (a) shall have been efficiently removed in	Particular attention shall be placed to the processing of input materials that may contain hazardous components in plastic, especially electric and electronic equipment waste (WEEE), construction and demolition waste, and end-of-life vehicles (ELV). Treatment techniques resulting in the mixing of these materials, such as shredding before removal of hazardous components, shall be avoided.

a process which is approved by the competent authority.	
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3.5 Requirements on the provision of information

Requirements on the provision of information are a complementary element of end-of-waste criteria. The criteria have to minimise any onerous administrative load, recognising when current practice is competent in providing a valuable material for recycling, respecting existing legislation, and protecting health and the environment.

Criteria on e.g. labelling of a consignment are only needed in specific cases. One such specific case is to support the limitation of scope of application of the criteria to a specific purpose, pursuing fulfilment of condition (a) of Art 6. in the WFD ('(a) the substance or object is commonly used for a specific purpose').

In the case of waste plastic, and as explained in the Scope (Section 1.3) and Section 3.2.1 on the limitation of non-plastic components, the only specific purpose commonly used for high grade (<2% non-plastic component content) plastic recyclates is the recycling of polymers, but as the percentage of non-plastics increases, and its price decreases proportionally, the recyclates become attractive for other alternative applications such as substitution of wood and concrete (plastic lumber), and energy use.

In order to ensure a correct application of the limited scope of use of waste plastic, additional requirements can be necessary as part of EoW criteria. The purpose of such requirement is to minimise the risk that waste plastic that has ceased to be waste is diverted to uses different from conversion, be it within or outside the EU. However, there is no jurisdiction to control the uses outside the EU. In this sense, only an adequately designed constellation of criteria ensuring quality, input and treatment can warrant that end-of-waste waste plastic is only attractive for the recycling market, and in all likelihood, it will be used in plastic manufacturing. In this sense, it has similar conditions and risks as for ordinary commodities, and can be freely traded without additional environmental concerns.

Different options are possible for achieving this, some more explicit, some more implicit, some more burdensome and administrative, some more agile. The options are not mutually exclusive.

One of the options discussed is that producers provide evidence that waste plastic is destined directly to the manufacturing of recycled plastic products, e.g. through a contract with a plastic converter. This would be relevant in case an alternative Criterion 1.2 is pursued, based on the 2-tier proposal (unrestricted use for recyclates with <2% impurities, but additional proof in form of a contract if the impurity content is >2%). The benefit of this is that recyclates with >2% can also opt for the benefits of EoW (or maintain them, if in regions where such agreements have already been achieved between producers and the competent authorities). The drawback is that such documentation makes the EoW workload equivalent to the current requirements under

waste legislation, e.g. Green List waste shipments in the Waste Shipment Regulation. This 2-tier proposal has only been supported by a smaller part of the technical working group experts.

Another option debated has been that the operator in the waste plastic chain is part of a traceability register, by which the producer and subsequent holders of waste plastic that has ceased to be waste would be required to keep register of the previous and next holder of the consignment in the supply chain. Provisions are normally in place to safeguard confidentiality of operations. By being part of a register, operators commit to make this information available to competent authorities or auditors upon request. A system of this type is currently being finished: EUCertPlast²²⁶. Traceability of collected post-consumer waste and clarification of whether the material is recycled or sent into trading is only one of several objectives of the project, others being to create a European audit scheme for the certification of post-consumer plastics recyclers to improve transparency in the sector. The certification is to work according to the European Standard EN 15343:2007 and aims to encourage an environmentally friendly recycling of plastics by standardizing it, particularly focusing on the process for traceability and assessment of conformity and recycled content of recycled plastics.

Like in other recyclable material sectors, traceability has not been widely supported by the TWG. Most TWG experts have supported the voluntary use of EUCertPlast, but would prefer not to prescribe it. As mentioned in the previous section, in a future review of the criteria one may draw from the results of the recently launched initiative of the European Commission for international certification of recycling plants, see: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/policies/raw-materials/public-consultation-waste/index_en.htm

An additional option concerning provision of information is whether one should require compulsory labelling on the end-of-waste consignment, once it has passed all end-of-waste requirements and its exclusive intended use is the manufacture of recycled plastic. It may also be used to highlight the fact that end of waste material is to follow the obligations under REACH. Labelling is not meant as a physical attachment to the bales, but as a visible remark in the Statement of Conformity. The labelling is meant as a supplementary highlight of facts that are known but may not be evident, e.g. the scope of the EoW criteria as stated in the recitals of the Regulation²²⁷, or the obligations under REACH/CLP.

In previous discussions with experts on other recyclable materials, the preferred solution has been to introduce a requirement on labelling. This requirement does not directly ensure that waste plastic is destined to the manufacturing of plastic, or that REACH/CLP is followed, but no other of the requirements proposed would provide a warranty on this, as all of them can be misused if this is the intention. However, ignoring the labelling is ignoring the scope of the Regulation. If waste plastic material labelled as

²²⁶ www.eucertplast.eu

²²⁷ For a first estimate of the feasibility of diversion of waste plastic to energy recovery, the following information may be of use: currently, steam coal prices range 0.7-2 EUR/GJ (20-60 EUR/t), and crude oil is in the range 7-15 EUR/GJ (300-500 EUR/t). Waste mixed plastics of too low quality for recycling are paid at 25-100EUR/t. Their energy content ranges widely between 14 and 30 GJ/t, resulting in the also wide range 1-7 EUR/GJ. Assuming the high prices are for the high caloric waste and the low price for low energy plastics, this range would be narrower, of 2-3 EUR/GJ.

EoW for recycling is not intended for plastic manufacture and the producer omits to comply with REACH/CLP, it becomes waste, and the consignment becomes an illegal shipment of waste.

Given the prominent role proposed in the waste plastics EoW to the non-hazardousness control following product legislation, and not waste legislation, it is proposed that the requirement on the provision of information requires compulsory labelling indicating that this non-hazardousness control has been undertaken.

The labelling is only for the purpose of highlighting these facts. This labelling does not impose additional burden, as the check has to be done in all cases. It is deemed proportional to the risk of infringement in light of the strictness of the rest of criteria.

The non-plastic component threshold to be proposed is likely only achievable for waste plastic that was directly of high quality (e.g. pre-consumer) or that has gone through sorting and cleaning, which restricts the market for the end-of-waste waste plastic to buyers willing to pay for this quality in of waste plastic because of the high content of polymer of suitable quality for plastic manufacturing. EoW plastic of this quality poses no environmental or health risk. For material fulfilling all requirements except the content of non-plastic components, the environmental risk is that the material is not recycled, but incinerated, and option which has lower quality demands, has an overall higher environmental impact, and is in general positioned lower in the waste hierarchy of policy priorities for recyclable materials.

Other options of labelling proposed in other recyclable materials, such as the declaration of origin, have not been suggested or endorsed by the technical working group experts. The arguments used to defend such labelling have been that the knowledge of a multi-material origin could be found necessary by some plastic producers and reproprocessors to be aware of a higher risk of non-plastic component content and cross-contamination of the material, and better handle it as part of their (quality) management systems. This knowledge is complementary to the total non-plastic component content, and lets the buyer know that there is a higher probability of presence of certain types of non-plastic materials, or non-targeted polymer types, which can be detrimental to production. Labelling facilitates also legal compliance in the manufacture of plastics in the cases where non-plastic component materials are not allowed, e.g. plastic products to be in contact with food. As with the intended purpose, labelling is here not meant as physical attachment of a piece of paper to the bales, but the inclusion of additional short text in the (digital) Statement of Conformity in a consignment.

Labelling is seen as a soft, low burden criterion, and therefore it is proposed as a suitable proportionate instrument to tackle the risk of cross-contamination content at plastic manufacturing, in case these risks are seen as actual.

The labelling of the intended use is seen as an additional element to the inclusion of a statement about this scope restriction in the enacting provisions of a Regulation, that is, a legal condition.

3.5.1 Criteria proposed

Criteria proposed on requirements on the provision of information:

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
4. Provision of information	
4.1 Waste plastic that has ceased to be waste is only intended for use in the manufacture of plastic through conversion processes. Waste plastic consignments shall be specifically labelled with a statement on this intended use. The statement of conformity of the consignment shall include a section with the statement: 'The material in this consignment is intended exclusively for the manufacture of plastic products'. Waste plastic that has ceased to be waste is within the scope of Regulations (EC) No 1907/2006 concerning the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), and (EC) No 1272/2008 on classification, labelling and packaging of substances and mixtures (CLP). A prominent role is given to the procedures laid out in these Regulations for the determination of hazardousness, completed with a reference to Regulation (EC) No 850/2004 on persistent organic pollutants (POPs). In this regard, the statement of conformity of the consignment shall include a section with the statement: 'The material in this consignment is not classified as hazardous, following the definitions in Article 3 and Annex I of Regulation EC/1272/2008 (CLP), and meets the prescriptions on commercialisation of substances of very high concern (SVHC) laid out in Article 56 of Regulation EC/1907/2006 REACH, and the restriction of the commercialisation of persistent organic pollutants laid out in Article 3 of Regulation 850/2004/EC (POPs)'.	NONE

3.6 Requirements on quality assurance procedures (management system)

Quality assurance (QA) is an element of end-of-waste criteria of importance because it is needed to establish confidence in the end-of-waste status. The technical working group has expressed very strong support for making quality assurance requirements an essential part of the end-of-waste criteria, in light of the specific quantitative control

demands required for compliance with the obligations of characterisation of the output material under REACH.

Product quality assurance is actually commonplace in the industry, in particular in the segment of the chain that additionally has to comply with food contact legislation. The framework legislation on food contact (EC/2023/2006 on good manufacture practice) requires business operator shall establish, implement and ensure adherence to an effective and documented quality assurance system. Additionally, operators need authorisation for their manufacturing processes (EC 1935/2004).

For non-food contact waste plastic, this is not a foreign concept either, as many (if not most) plastic waste reproprocessors and converters follow already QA procedures of both input and output of their plants. Quality assurance is also encouraged in current related EN standards, e.g. Chapter 5 in EN 15342, EN 15344, EN 15345, EN 15346, EN 15347, and EN 15348, albeit in a very generic manner.

The acceptance of input materials, the required processing and the assessment of compliance with waste plastic requirements shall have been carried out according to good industrial practice regarding quality control procedures.

In this context, quality assurance is needed to create confidence in the quality control on the waste plastic undertaken by its owner, and reliability on the end-of-waste criteria that distinguish consignments meeting EoW criteria from consignments that have not applied for or do not meet EoW criteria. The owner of the material applying the end-of-waste status will have to have implemented and run a management system to be able to demonstrate compliance with all the end-of-waste criteria, and use this as documentation when the material is shipped.

In the currently proposed structure of criteria, quantitative limits for EoW criteria are only suggested on the non-plastic components content. Should the finally adopted definition for the non-plastic components or contaminant content be aligned with any of the methods for measurement presented in CEN standards, the EoW Regulation could make explicit reference to these. However, should it not fit with standardised testing methods, a generic procedure for compliance, as simple as possible, would be made, e.g. through sampling and analysis using accessible equipment.

Both in the qualitative and quantitative EoW criteria that refer to procedures and process controls, it is considered essential that there is a management system in place which explicitly covers the key areas of operation where compliance with end-of-waste criteria has to be demonstrated, notably the quality of the end product.

One of the possible options to demonstrate compliance is having implemented and run an internationally recognised and externally verified quality management system such as ISO 9001, or equivalent. External verification is a compulsory element of these, and shall assess if the management system is effective and suitable for the purpose of demonstrating compliance with the end-of-waste criteria.

A suitable management system for waste plastic is expected to include:

- acceptance of input materials;
- monitoring of processes to ensure they are effective at all times;
- procedures for monitoring product quality (including sampling and analysis) that are adjusted to the process and product specifics according to good practice;
- actively soliciting feedback from customers in order to confirm compliance with product quality;
- record keeping of main quality control parameters;
- measures for review and improvement of the management system;
- training of staff.

For the competent waste authority, it must be able to commission an independent second party audit of the implemented management system to satisfy itself that the system is suitable for the purpose of demonstrating compliance with end-of-waste criteria.

In respect of the frequency of monitoring, the appropriate frequency for each parameter should be established by consideration of the following factors:

- the pattern of variability, e.g. as shown by historical results;
- the inherent risk of variability in the quality of waste used as input to the recovery operation and any subsequent processing;
- the inherent precision of the method used to monitor the parameter; and
- the proximity of actual results to the limit of compliance with the relevant end-of-waste condition.

Frequency of monitoring includes both the number of times a parameter is monitored over any given time period and the duration of each monitoring event so that it is a representative sample of the total. In the absence of historical results for any relevant parameter, it is good monitoring practice to carry out an intensive monitoring campaign over a short period (e.g. a month or a few months) in order to characterise the material stream and provide a basis for determining an appropriate longer term monitoring frequency.

The result of the monitoring frequency determination should provide a statistical confidence (often 95% confidence level is recommended as a minimum) in the ultimate set of monitoring results. The process of determining monitoring frequencies should be documented as part of the overall quality assurance scheme and as such should be available for auditing. The detail on the verification, auditing or inspection of the management system can follow different national approaches.

The Commission adopted a reference document in July 2003 entitled 'General Principles of Monitoring' which was developed under the provisions of the IPPC Directive but which remains a relevant reference for the determination of appropriate monitoring frequencies in this respect. It is available to download from the web site at: http://eippcb.jrc.ec.europa.eu/reference/BREF/mon_bref_0703.pdf

The Bureau of International Recycling (BIR, 2011) has recently issued the guidance document 'Tools for quality management for an ISO compliant Quality Management System that includes End-of-Waste procedures'. It is available to download from the web site at: <http://www.bir.org/assets/Documents/publications/brochures/Tools-for-Quality-Management.pdf>

Similar business recommendation guides have been issued for other recyclable chains, e.g. paper, or metals. These documents are to an extent meant to improve the mutual understanding between producers and buyers of waste plastic, and the general conditions of their contracts. These recommendations include additional elements not mentioned above such as:

- Special quality specifications besides reference to grades (e.g. ISRI) should be agreed between buyer and supplier
- Reciprocity in communication of quality results is recommended between buyer and supplier
- Quality controllers should be independent from the commercial department.
- Conditions of reject and limits of ownership should be agreed between buyer and supplier

Most elements of the mentioned guidelines are not included in the end-of-waste criteria. The reason is that while these elements are useful in transactions, they are to be applied under equal conditions to consignments of waste or of end-of-waste.

3.6.1 Criteria proposed

The requirements on management system proposed are:

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
5. Management system	
The producer shall implement a management system suitable to demonstrate compliance with the EoW criteria. The management system shall include a set of documented procedures concerning each of the following aspects: (a) monitoring of the quality of waste plastic resulting from the recovery operation (including sampling and analysis); (b) monitoring of the treatment processes and techniques; (c) acceptance control of waste used as input for the recovery operation; (d) feedback from customers concerning the product quality; (e) record keeping of the results of monitoring conducted under points (a) to (d); (f) review and improvement of the management system; (g) training of staff.	

The management system shall also prescribe the specific monitoring requirements set out for each criterion. . The management system of the supplier shall be certified by a conformity assessment body which is accredited by an accreditation body successfully peer evaluated for this activity by the body recognised in Article 14 of Regulation (EC) 765/2008; or by an environmental verifier which is accredited or licensed by an accreditation or licensing body according to Regulation (EC) No 1221/2009 which is also subject to peer evaluation according to Article 31 of that Regulation, respectively. Verifiers who want to operate in third countries must obtain a specific accreditation or licence, in accordance with the specifications laid down in Regulation (EC) No 765/2008 or Regulation (EC) No 1221/2009, the latter together with Commission Decision 2011/832/EU. The importer shall require his suppliers to implement a management system which complies with these requirements and has been verified by an independent external verifier. A conformity assessment body, as defined in Regulation (EC) No 765/2008, which has obtained accreditation in accordance with that Regulation, or an environmental verifier, as defined in Art 2 (20) (b) of Regulation (EC) No 1221/2009, which is accredited or licensed in accordance with that Regulation, shall verify that the management system complies with the requirements of this Article (2(20)(b)). The verification shall be carried out every three years. Only verifiers with the following scopes of accreditation or licence based on the NACE Codes as specified in Regulation (EC) No 1893/2006 are regarded to have sufficient specific experience to perform the verification mentioned in this Regulation: – * NACE Code 38 (Waste collection, treatment and disposal activities; material recovery); or – * NACE Code 20 (Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products); or – * NACE Code 22 (Manufacture of rubber and plastic products) . The producer shall give competent authorities access to the management system upon request.	
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3.7 Application of end-of-waste criteria

For the application of end-of-waste criteria laid out above it is understood that a consignment of waste plastic ceases to be waste when the producer of the waste plastic certifies that all of the end-of-waste criteria have been met.

It is proposed to formulate the restriction of the intended use to plastic production as a legal condition in the enacting provisions of a Regulation.

It is understood that waste plastic that has ceased to be waste can become waste again if it is discarded and not used for the intended purpose, and therefore fall again under waste law. This interpretation does not need be specifically stated in the EoW criteria, as it applies by default.

It is proposed that the application to EoW from a producer or importer refers to a statement of conformity, which the producer or the importer shall issue for each consignment of waste plastic, see draft form below. The producer or the importer shall transmit the statement of conformity to the next holder of the consignment. They shall retain a copy of the statement of conformity for at least one year after its date of issue and shall make it available to competent authorities upon request. The statement of conformity may be issued as an electronic document.

A few MS have proposed to include the SoC as a physical attachment that accompanies the EoW consignment. This proposal was debated in other waste streams EoW proposals and did not obtain majority support.

Statement of Conformity with the end-of-waste criteria

1.	Producer/importer of the waste plastic: Name: Address Contact person Telephone: Fax: E-mail:
2.	a) The name or code of the waste plastic category in accordance with an industry specification or standard. b) Content of non-plastic components, in percentage points of moisture-free weight ($\leq 2\%$) ²²⁸ .

²²⁸ If appropriate, one may introduce an additional point under (2): (c) if the content of non-plastic components is $>2\%$ in percentage points of moisture-free weight, additional proof of mechanical recycling is requested from the converter that takes ownership of the consignment, in the form of a signed declaration that as a minimum specifies the following information:

3.	Quantity of the consignment in kg.
4.	The plastic consignment complies with the industry specification or standard referred to in point 2.
5.	This consignment meets the criteria referred to in Regulation No.. <i>[will be inserted once the regulation adopted]</i> ,
6.	The producer of the plastic applies a management system complying with the requirements of Regulation No <i>[will be inserted once the regulation adopted]</i> , and which has been verified by an accredited conformity assessment body or by an environmental verifier or, where plastic which has ceased to be waste is imported into the customs territory of the Union, by an independent external verifier.
7.	The material in this consignment is intended exclusively for the manufacture of plastic products via conversion.
8.	'The material in this consignment is not classified as hazardous, following the definitions in Article 3 and Annex I of Regulation EC/1272/2008 (CLP), and meets the prescriptions on the restriction of the commercialisation of substances of very high concern (SVHC) laid out in Article 56 of Regulation EC/1907/2006 REACH, and the restriction of the commercialisation of persistent organic pollutants laid out in Article 3 of Regulation 850/2004/EC (POPs)'.
9.	Declaration of the producer/importer of the plastic: I certify that the above information is complete and correct and to my best knowledge: Name: _____ Date: _____ Signature: _____

Note 1: Items 2(a), 2(b), and 8 are a highlight of key information issues already required under item 5, which refers to quality criteria no. 1.1., 1.2, and 1.3 in which these items are included. They are a reiteration, but worth to include in the DoC given their prominence in the determination of EoW.

Note 2: In similar formulations for other EoW materials, some experts suggest that Point 2(b) bears a clarification note where it states that it will not be possible to state the content of non-plastic components for every consignment of waste plastic. The Management Systems and risk-based monitoring will provide a level of confidence that the consignment is below the agreed % threshold, but will not provide an actual measurement for every consignment. The statement of conformity would in that case clarify that the results of the risk-based monitoring demonstrate compliance with the

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- ☐ Contact data of the destination facility: (name, full address, postcode and country, contact person, telephone, fax, e-mail);
 - ☐ Reference to the load of the consignment, such as a load reference number, or a description and total amount that allows a 1:1 correlation to the Statement of Conformity.
 - ☐ Signed declaration from the destination facility that the intended use of the full load of the material in the consignment is the conversion into articles.

agreed % threshold on non-plastic components. This has not been included in the current proposal, as (1) compliance with the limits is required in all cases, and (2) the self-monitoring requirements include the essential demands to sampling.

Note 3: If appropriate, item 7 can relate to the provision of a contract with a converter.

4 DESCRIPTION OF IMPACTS

The introduction of end-of-waste criteria is expected to support recycling markets by creating legal certainty and a level playing field, as well as removing unnecessary administrative burden. This section outlines the key identified impacts of the implementation of end-of-waste, on the environment, on markets, and on existing legislation.

For the purpose of identification and characterisation of impacts, the interest is the effect of potential changes between the impacts when the material is waste, and the impacts when the material ceases to be waste. The arguments presented can be used reversed for the discussion on whether material that currently enjoy non-waste status based on the agreement between a recycler and the administration with competences in waste/non-waste licensing should remain non-waste or should actually be waste.

A summary table of the impacts is provided at the end of the chapter. In addition to the impacts of the proposed criteria (SCENARIO A), these tables include also the identified impacts of a scenario where EoW is possible for material with >2% non-plastic components content, upon provision of evidence of the use for conversion in new plastic products (SCENARIO B).

4.1 Environment & health aspects

Air emissions, odours, dust, noise, fire risks, health impacts

Within the EU, the treatment of waste plastic is governed by waste regulation, as for any facility that handles waste input, until the reprocessing delivers non-waste output. Thus, the specific emissions, dust or noise generated during the treatment of waste containing plastic will not be changed by the implementation of end-of-waste criteria. The environmental and health impacts of plastic manufacturing are described under IPPC permits.

A move towards higher quality output may mean for plastic reproducers that the composition of rejects made of non-plastic components may change, as in the search of quality, these will increasingly be removed further upstream in the supply chain. This may help improve health and safety down the waste plastic chain, and may affect the permits of both reproducers and converters.

Risks related to transport and storage

Storage and transport of end-of-waste plastic is no longer covered by waste regulatory controls. Theoretically, this could imply an increased risk of impact to the environment if end-of-waste plastics had properties needing control only provided by waste regulation. However, normal good practice of transport and storage seem to be appropriate to control the type of risks of end-of-waste plastic storage, essentially related to fire control. These impacts are currently controlled in many reprocessing plants by indoor storage, separation screens and walls, fire extinction piping, and regular cleaning. In practice it can be expected that end-of-waste plastic will, as a product, be stored in most cases under the same conditions as it used to as waste.

In the proposed EoW criteria, no special provisions for health and environmental protection are introduced except the exclusion of a number of input materials, such as health care waste. The criteria proposed are considered sufficient to reduce the health and environment risks from cross-contamination to a minimum, and thereby the risk of disamenities like odours, vermin attraction, or leaching, as if they were under waste law. Among other effects, this may have an impact on some plastic grades that have an origin in mixed material collection systems, and are therefore more exposed to cross-contamination. If these waste plastic types do not meet the criteria, then it is understood that they cannot fulfil - in all conditions of use of the waste plastic as a product - the fourth condition of Art.6 of the WFD, which requires that the use of the substance or object does not lead to overall adverse environmental or human health impacts (compared to its use under waste law).

Impacts outside the EU

It is unlikely that facilitated export of end-of-waste plastic outside the EU would have any substantial effects on increased emissions outside the EU. It may be of concern that emissions (air, water, waste generation) of plastic production outside the EU may be larger than in the EU if the technology used overseas was 'dirtier'. However, recycling and processing technology access is currently essentially unrestricted, and if changing with EoW, the emissions would decrease and not increase, as non-plastic component content is on average lower in end-of-waste consignments than in waste consignments.

End-of-waste will likely imply a shift of reject waste disposal, but for the better: by more systematically controlling sorting and cleaning to meet EoW material quality criteria, there would be a reduced export of hazardous and non-plastic components in waste plastic, as exported end-of-waste plastic will be on average less polluted than waste plastic exported today for production outside the EU. Rejects will thus be treated within the EU, under EU waste law, and not under the waste law of the destination countries. This would imply additionally the avoidance of cases of camouflaged waste export, export for cheap labour sorting purposes, and the avoidance of the unknown disposal of the non-plastic fraction in the destination country. Marginal energy savings may also result by not unnecessarily transporting for long distances the unusable materials in waste plastic.

Once the material is not waste, the control mechanisms of the waste shipment regulation (identification of destination, check that the destination facility is a recycling facility, notification and acceptance by destination country) are not any longer applicable. The material would be traded as a conventional commodity.

Should an EoW consignment be used in the EU, it shall go for recycling, and this can be controlled, as well as that the reject with the non-plastic components is treated according to EU waste law. Should a waste plastic EoW consignment be exported out of the EU, two uncertainties arise:

(1) Whether it will be recycled. The only known fact is that by meeting the EoW criteria, it has sufficient quality, a value of normally >200EUR/tonne in Scenario A (but no lower price limit in Scenario B), and a market for recycling into new plastic products (ensured by the price in Scenario A, ensured by a document in Scenario B), and it is therefore unlikely that the material will be purchased for operations not related to the use of the plastic's

functionality, such as for energy (by market forces in Scenario A, by the evidence of a signed contract in Scenario B).

(2) If once recycled, the rejects will be treated appropriately, be it recovery or disposal. Should the consignment remain waste, recital 33 and Art.48 (2) of the Waste Shipment Regulation requires management conditions at the destination that are broadly equivalent to those in the EU²²⁹. If the consignment is EoW, this cannot be requested.

Other recycling issues

The EoW regulation is devised to facilitate recycling. Compared to the situation as waste, once the regulation is operational, one could expect a higher share of material led to recycling and not to the alternative end-of-life options (energy recovery, incineration, landfilling). EoW is intended to contribute to recycling, and multiply the known life-cycle environmental benefits of this option.

A completely different but also relevant environmental question related to the presence of additives is how adequate it is to market a recycled plastic with a load of additives that have no function, such as a flame retardant or a fluorescer in an application not requiring it. Close-loop recycling applications are typically not in such situation, as most if not all additives are targeted. Conversely, open loop recycling and especially downgrading recycling faces often this situation, where the originally intended functionality of the additive is not needed or requested. The additive has a mere filler function, and its presence can even be detrimental and require correction (e.g. it can increase density or hardness and require additional supply of a softener or plasticiser). The proposed EoW criteria are devised to ensure as a minimum the restriction of any hazardous properties. In this way, the downgrading of the function of additives to fillers is, although not optimal strategies, left as a commercial/technical question, but without an environmental consequence.

The aim of the recycling industry is generally to keep the same application for a plastic material as the one it had, as in this way it is easier to make use of the properties of the polymer and its additives, and meet the requirements needed for technical or legislative reasons. The commercial arguments play in favour of this approach, as many additives are much more expensive than the basic polymers in plastics.

However, as discussed earlier, it is not easy to obtain homogenous waste plastic streams, as closed-loop systems are effective but expensive, and mixed plastic systems are less expensive but are still dependent on still imperfect but continuously evolving separation technologies.

The options for marketing materials of mixed origin often involve 'downcycling' of plastics for cheaper and less demanding applications (e.g. the packaging and building sectors, opaque dark coloured plastics such as plastic bags and bins) – often for LDPE and HDPE plastics. Because of the variety of the plastics industry, building a map of the precise waste plastic streams going through one type of recycling process and resulting in a specific application would be very hard.

229 'The facility which receives the waste should be operated in accordance with human health and environmental protection standards that are broadly equivalent to those established in Community legislation.' EC/1013/2006

As mentioned above, this is on the one hand a loss, i.e. the use of a highly specialised substance for an application that may not need this quality. Also a long-term storage choice for potentially hazardous substances for which the alternatives are only landfilling (also a loss, but in a more concentrated form), or energy recovery (with an energy gain, but elimination of long term storage concerns of the hazardous substances). On the other hand, the presence of such substances in recycled material is an opportunity for innovation of new applications, as it makes a material with highly specific properties (e.g. resistance to UV, humidity and insects of outdoor furniture and equipment) affordable for applications that otherwise would not look for this material because of costs.

4.2 Legislation aspects

Legislative status of waste plastics

In many MS, recycled plastics in the form of pellets or flakes, but sometimes also regrind or agglomerates, have a de-facto status as products with respect to controlling and licensing authorities, and clients. Some stakeholders are concerned that the exclusion of their material from the product status may have important consequences, and they fear that some converters would be reluctant to continue their demand if it is waste, as this would require them to be registered as waste treatment facilities. In general, it has been found that this concern is not much economic (In Germany, these licenses have a cost of 4-5000 EUR and are valid for a number of years, the renewals being substantially cheaper), but of image. In addition, it would not affect many converters: those using pellets and high quality flake/regrind would keep operating as non-waste - now under the EoW status. The facilities using lower qualities for conversion into outdoor furniture and other articles with high impurity tolerance would not be much affected either, as they often not only use agglomerates or regrind traded from other reproprocessors, but also use directly waste, and therefore have already waste treatment licenses.

The EoW regulation may thus have an impact on the material that currently has product status, but would fail to meet the EoW criteria. There are two important questions in this regard. The first one is if the de-facto product status was justified. In many cases, it will probably be genuine, and not the result of a legal vacuum, or the absence of REACH/waste authorities having made themselves the question. The second question is if the original product status was achieved based on different aspects than those that the proposed EoW lays down, e.g. (1) the full compliance with REACH requirements regarding control of hazardousness and a knowledge of the chemistry of the output similar to virgin plastic producers, and (2) the management of the risk that the material is not used for mechanical recycling. Licensing authorities may have overseen these questions in deciding on the waste/non-waste status determination. If the criteria above were not considered, the classification may differ.

Articles such as plastic lumber and outdoor furniture have high tolerances in terms of non-plastic material content, often in the range of 5-15%, and only exceptionally above. As articles and not waste, they are out of the scope of the EoW regulation (although not

out of the scope of REACH/CLP). However, the material used as input into them can be either waste, or EoW.

If the plastic recycler transforms directly waste into an article, such as plastic lumber profiles or outdoor benches, REACH requires information communication to customers (Art 33) of the composition and content of SVHC from the Candidate List, if the article contains any of them in amounts >0.1% in weight and the SVHC is present in those articles in quantities totalling over 1 tonne per producer or importer per year. This applies unless the producer or importer can exclude exposure to humans or the environment during normal or reasonably foreseeable conditions of use, including final disposal. The producer/importer shall also notify the presence of the substance to the ECHA (Article 7). Registration is compulsory only for deliberately released substances (e.g. fragrance release), which virtually does not occur in the case of products from recycled plastics. If producers/importers of articles from plastic waste wish clarity on the processing point (article or before, e.g. agglomerate) where EoW status is achieved, they have to investigate the point of the processing where they are able to characterise the material and demonstrate that it fulfils the EoW conditions. REACH obligations are to be applied from that point.

If the plastic material used as direct input to such articles is to keep the product status, it has to meet product legislation, herewith REACH, POPs and CLP, and following the request and from the Member States that participated the TWG, it must not be classified as hazardous. In order to ensure that, a very detailed knowledge of the composition is needed by the producers of plastic lumber articles in order to guarantee the absence of hazardous properties failing to provide such evidence they have to demonstrate that the material embedded in it is not present above threshold concentrations (see the example in Figure 2.43 referring to the above three legislative elements Annex I in CLP, SVHC in REACH, and Annex IV in POPs).

The guarantee of non-hazardousness or safety information on content may be legitimately requested upstreams from the article converter to the reprocessor of the agglomerate of pellet used as input. If plastic reprocessors fail to produce evidence of non-hazardous properties of the plastic, then the determination of hazardousness would be based on the content of substances above the limits laid out.

The considerations on REACH fulfilment outlined above would in theory not be different in Scenario A or B. However, in practice it is unlikely that reprocessors currently producing material with a >5% non-plastic content level will be able to ensure non-hazardousness in line with product legislation, as a >5% impurity content level reveals the absence of a technology able to separate hazardous-containing elements to the 1-2% level required for non-hazardousness compliance by REACH, CLP and POPs regulations.

Harmonisation of legislation in the EU – level playing field

Recycling of plastics takes place currently in MS under different regimes: while recyclates are still waste in some regions/MS, they enjoy non-waste status in others. These differences have raised some cases of conflict in transboundary movement, but according to stakeholders, have so far been solved on a case-by-case basis. Therefore,

however well-functioning, this situation would clearly benefit from harmonisation at EU level, as it is currently dependent on national rules that may be diverging and currently favour some more lenient markets in detriment of others where criteria are applied more strictly, or simply differently. In the absence of harmonised EU rules, Member States may continue in the future diverging paths as regards the development of own EoW legislation, opening further the legislative gap.

Additives and the environment

Some TWG members have suggested developing specific thresholds to problematic substances such as SVHC for EoW. This approach may lead to inconsistencies across existing legislation, e.g. in the case of update or review of the thresholds in one of them, and the non-automatic update of the other, and be vulnerable to updates in the listing of substances. It would additionally establish a distinct treatment for EoW material and virgin material.

To ensure consistency, the preferred approach has been to refer to existing definitions of hazardousness in product (chemical) policy (REACH, CLP, POPs), and existing listing of hazardous substances, some of which are additives. This approach would not discriminate EoW against products, but it will indeed highlight the need of the most laggard reproprocessors to bring themselves up to date in terms of knowledge of their produce and compliance with product chemical legislation. The mentioned legislative texts include also derogations for recycled materials, often taken to not hinder the development of the recycling industry. Reference has been made to such specific derogations for recycled material (e.g. Annex VI in POPs, Annex XVII in REACH), so there is full alignment and consistency, e.g. not requesting stricter standards to recyclates than to virgin materials.

As regards the identification of the hazardousness profile, additional self-monitoring requirements have been added to the proposal, requesting a transparent quantification procedure that is subject to audit, equivalent to the one known for the non-plastic components. Special attention has been drawn to the processing of high risk plastic sources such as plastics from electrical and electronic waste, end-of-life vehicles, and construction and demolition waste.

Most plastic additives in use in the EU are not known to have environmental or health risks. Currently, only very few problem substances used in/as additives or processing intermediates have been identified as bearing environmental and/or health risk per se (in pure form), notably:

- PFOS - Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid and its derivatives (impregnating agent to repel dirt, grease and water for carpets and upholstery)
- Bisphenol A (curing agent in polycarbonate and epoxy resins)
- Some low molecular weight phthalates (plasticisers): DEHP, BBP, DBD, DIBP, but not high molecular weight ones such as DINP and DIDP.
- Some halogenated flame retardants: e.g. brominated biphenyls, diphenylethers, cyclododecanes, and short-chained chlorinated paraffins (SCCP). Some non-halogenated flame retardants are also of concern, e.g. Tris(2-chloroethyl)phosphate (TCEP) (is also a stabiliser).

- Toxic heavy metals (colorants and stabilisers): Cadmium, Chromium VI, Lead, organotin (tin mercaptides and carboxylates) .
- Acrylamide (a monomer)

However, please note that the impacts of these substances are altered notably if they are embedded or bound in a polymer matrix, which can significantly reduce their mobility and exposure. This again depends on the type of polymer and its behaviour in the environment, including its stability/degradability.

A combination of measures on waste plastics (WEEE, ELV) and plastic products (REACH, CLP, RoHS, POPs, Food contact) frame currently the introduction and treatment of plastics containing these substances. An overview of the existing relevant legislation is depicted in Table 4.1 below.

Completing the picture of Table 4.1, voluntary agreements by the industry have discontinued the production or marketing in the EU of certain substances, e.g. cadmium stabilisers for PVC. Such substances are thus present as legacy, and are not being re-introduced in the plastic cycles through virgin plastics. The presence of these substances in waste is currently handled via specific legislation, essentially WEEE and RoHS, and to a certain extent REACH (e.g. Annex XVII on restriction of uses of recycled material). The presence of these substances in plastic products is handled by REACH (and CLP for labelling), the POPs Regulation, the Packaging Directive, and specific food contact legislation for this type of use.

A detailed examination of Table 4.1 illustrates several issues. Firstly, it shows that there is no significant advantage in making reference to the definition of hazardousness in waste legislation (hazardous properties listed in Annex III to Directive 2008/98/EC, and the concentration limits laid down in Commission Decision 2000/532/EC on list of wastes), as compared to Art 3 and Annex I of CLP, as both refer to the same older dangerous substances definitions (Directives 67/548/EEC and 88/379/EEC), which have been consolidated in CLP.

Secondly, the table shows that there is not full overlap and synchronisation of the different restrictive measures. Article 37 of CLP lays out a procedure for update of its Table 3.1 in Annex IV, which lists the harmonised hazard classes of substances. For instance, since its latest update of 10 July 2012, the list now includes the flame retardant Hexabromocyclododecane (and 1,2,5,6,9,10- hexabromocyclododecane), that had earlier been included in Annex XIV of REACH as SVHC needing authorisation and subject to phase-out. However, this does not take place automatically or consistently. Nor is there an update with new entries to POPs (rather conversely, POPs listings are synchronised to REACH and CLP), or to REACH Annex XIV or SVHC candidate lists. This means that in order to ensure coherence, there is the need of simultaneous reference to REACH, CLP and POPs Regulations, as explained in section 3.2.

In the context of hazardous identification, the references to RoHS, food contact legislation, the packaging Directive or WEEE Directive provide no additional stricter protection measure and therefore no added value in the EoW proposal.

Table 4.1: Overview of legislative coverage (as waste, and as product) of substances of concern in plastics (monomers, process chemicals and additives), as of Oct 2012. NOTE: please consider that the legislation texts below are in constant evolution as new scientific evidence is released.

	Product legislation							Waste legislation	
	REACH SVHC list (Annex XIV): Threshold for authorisation: 0.1%(w/w), sunset dates in 2015	REACH SVHC authorisation candidate list: Threshold for information: 0.1%(w/w)	REACH Restriction of use (Annex XVII)	CLP Annex I . Most ct-offs values within 0.1-1% (w/w)	RoHS (2002/95/EC) and ROHS II recast (2011/65/EU)	Food contact legislation (PIM, EU/10/2011, Annex I, and Rec. plastics 282/2008)	POPs regulation (757/2010)	Packaging and packaging waste Directive (94/62/EC)	WEEE (2012/19/EU) / ELV (2000/53/EC)
PFOS - Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid and its derivatives (impregnating agent in carpets and upholstery)			Shall not be placed on the market as substances or in mixtures > 0,005 % w/w, and in semi-finished products or articles >0.1% w/w or, for textiles or other coated materials, if the amount of PFOS is equal to or greater than 1 µg/ m ² of the coated material.				Shall be eliminated from production and use: < 0.001% w/w in substances and preparations, and <0.1% w/w in articles.		
Bisphenol A (epoxy and PC curing agent)				Hazardous profile: Skin Sens. 1 Aquatic Chronic 2 Eye Irrit. 2, if conc >5% Skin Irrit. 2 if conc >5%		Included in the positive list of PIM Regulation, allowed except in babybottles (2011/8/EU)			

	Product legislation							Waste legislation	
	REACH SVHC list (Annex XIV): Threshold for authorisation: 0.1%(w/w), sunset dates in 2015	REACH SVHC authorisation candidate list: Threshold for information: 0.1%(w/w)	REACH Restriction of use (Annex XVII)	CLP Annex I . Most ct-offs values within 0.1-1% (w/w)	RoHS (2002/95/EC) and ROHS II recast (2011/65/EU)	Food contact legislation (PIM, EU/10/2011,Annex I, and Rec. plastics 282/2008)	POPs regulation (757/2010)	Packaging and packaging waste Directive (94/62/EC)	WEEE (2012/19/EU) / ELV (2000/53/EC)
Low molecular weight phtalates (plasticisers)	Benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP) Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP) Dibutyl phthalate (DBP) Diisobutyl phthalate (DIBP)	Bis(2-methoxyethyl) phthalate Currently proposed (Oct 2012): Diisopentylphthalate	In toys not above 0.1% of the plastic weight. Sum of : Bis (2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP),Dibutyl phthalate (DBP),Benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP), and sum of Di-‘isononyl’ phthalate (DINP),Di-‘isodecyl’ phthalate (DIDP),Di-n-octyl phthalate (DNOP). Indoor air contact use restriction are currently (2012) being analysed.	Harmonised hazardous classification (mostly 0.1% w/w cut-off) of the SVHC phthalates in Annex XIV of REACH, and some (not all) in its candidate list. The currently discussed (Oct 2012) candidate list substances may or may not yet have the harmonised classifications, e.g.: Diisopentylphthalate has it.		The only phthalates listed are tricyclodecanedimethanol bis(hexahydrophthalate) and cyclic oligomers of butylene terephthalate, in concentrations up to 1 % w/w, in contact with aqueous, acidic and alcoholic foods, for long term storage at room temperature.			
flame retardants	HBCDD - Hexabromocyclododecane (alpha, beta and gamma)	Alkanes, C10-13, chloro (Short Chain Chlorinated Paraffins)	Diphenylether, octabromo: 1. Shall not be placed on the market in articles or mixtures in	Harmonised hazardous classification (mostly 0.1% w/w cut-off) of the SVHC flame	PBBs and PBDEs shall not be in EEE and		PBDEs shall be < 0.001% w/w, but derogation to 0.1% w/w if from		WEEE plastic brominated flame retardants shall be

	Product legislation							Waste legislation	
	REACH SVHC list (Annex XIV): Threshold for authorisation: 0.1%(w/w), sunset dates in 2015	REACH SVHC authorisation candidate list: Threshold for information: 0.1%(w/w)	REACH Restriction of use (Annex XVII)	CLP Annex I . Most cut-offs values within 0.1-1% (w/w)	RoHS (2002/95/EC) and ROHS II recast (2011/65/EU)	Food contact legislation (PIM, EU/10/2011, Annex I, and Rec. plastics 282/2008)	POPs regulation (757/2010)	Packaging and packaging waste Directive (94/62/EC)	WEEE (2012/19/EU) / ELV (2000/53/EC)
	Tris(2-chloroethyl)phosphate (TCEP)	Currently proposed (Oct 2012): Bis(pentabromophenyl) ether (DecaBDE)	concentrations above 0,1 % by weight. (derogated are EEE within the scope of Directive 2002/95/EC , and articles that were in use before 15 August 2004)	retardants in Annex XIV of REACH, and some (not all) in its candidate list. The currently discussed (Oct 2012) candidate list substances may or may not yet have the harmonised classifications, e.g.: Deca BDE has not it.	in no case >0.1% w/w SCCPs <1% w/w		recycled plastics The recycling derogations are under scrutiny. Also new thresholds, e.g. SCCPs proposed < 0.1% w/w HBCDD proposed : < 0.01-0.1% w/w		removed.
Toxic heavy metals and organotins (mostly stabilisers)	Lead sulfochromate yellow (C.I. Pigment Yellow 34) Lead chromate Lead chromate	Cr- and Pb-based pigments Bis(tributyltin) oxide (TBTO)	In general, HM shall not be used in plastics. Specifically, Cr-VI, Cd and Pb are mentioned. Specific limits for	Harmonised hazardous classification (mostly 0.1% w/w cut-off) of the SVHC heavy metals in Annex	HM shall not be in EEE and in no case >0.1% w/w for	OBS: Colorants and pigments are not part of the scope of EU food contact legislation, and		Maximum HM sum content in packaging:	

	Product legislation							Waste legislation	
	REACH SVHC list (Annex XIV): Threshold for authorisation: 0.1%(w/w), sunset dates in 2015	REACH SVHC authorisation candidate list: Threshold for information: 0.1%(w/w)	REACH Restriction of use (Annex XVII)	CLP Annex I . Most ct-offs values within 0.1-1% (w/w)	RoHS (2002/95/EC) and ROHS II recast (2011/65/EU)	Food contact legislation (PIM, EU/10/2011, Annex I, and Rec. plastics 282/2008)	POPs regulation (757/2010)	Packaging and packaging waste Directive (94/62/EC)	WEEE (2012/19/EU) / ELV (2000/53/EC)
	molybdate sulphate red (C.I. Pigment Red 104)		construction PVC are laid out	XIV of REACH, and some (not all) in its candidate list.	Hg, Pb, and CR VI, and 0.01% for Cd	is regulated at national level.		0.001% w/w. Derogation for crates and pallets recycled in loops	
Monomer		Acrylamide	not above 0,1 % for grouting applications after 5 November 2012	Harmonised hazardous classification available, e.g. Carc. 1B Muta. 1B Repr. 2 Acute Tox. 3 * STOT RE 1 Acute Tox. 4 * Acute Tox. 4 * Eye Irrit. 2 Skin Irrit. 2 Skin Sens. 1		Included in the positive list of PIM Regulation			

As discussed in the section on input restrictions, the most recent example of how to manage a legacy substance is the case of Cadmium in PVC. In this case, the approach was not to restrict the recycling, as the alternatives of incineration and landfilling could result in more environmental and health impacts, and it would additionally hinder the development of the recycling industry and new separation techniques. The recycling of well identified, no-risk polymers and additives shall indeed be encouraged.

The approach taken by the EC involved a combination of measures that on the one hand, based on risk assessments, limit the entry of substances in new products (e.g. through the revision of the lists in RoHS, POPs, and Annex XIV of REACH, and the voluntary industry phase-out, see <http://www.vinylplus.eu/>), and on the other hand restrict the uses of products containing recycled content to those with low exposure (rigid PVC windows, piping, etc) by means of a content threshold (1000ppm by weight) (see also http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/chemicals/reach/restrictions/index_en.htm)

Following this argumentation and in order to ensure legal consistency, end of waste (product) condition shall not be denied to a recycled plastic of known content of one or more of the problem substances, if one can expect that it will follow the existing legislation that prescribes the conditions of use (e.g. Annex XVII of REACH, or food contact legislation), and any derogations already laid out to recycled material. A similar case may soon be the restriction of Lead stabilisers, already led by the industry through a voluntary phasing out the use of lead in new PVC by 2015.

Should the substances of concern be present, REACH and CLP are to ensure the provision of environment and health information through the supply chain. However, once the plastic products are used and become waste, this information chain is broken. The situation is illustrated in Figures 4.1 and Figure 4.2 below.

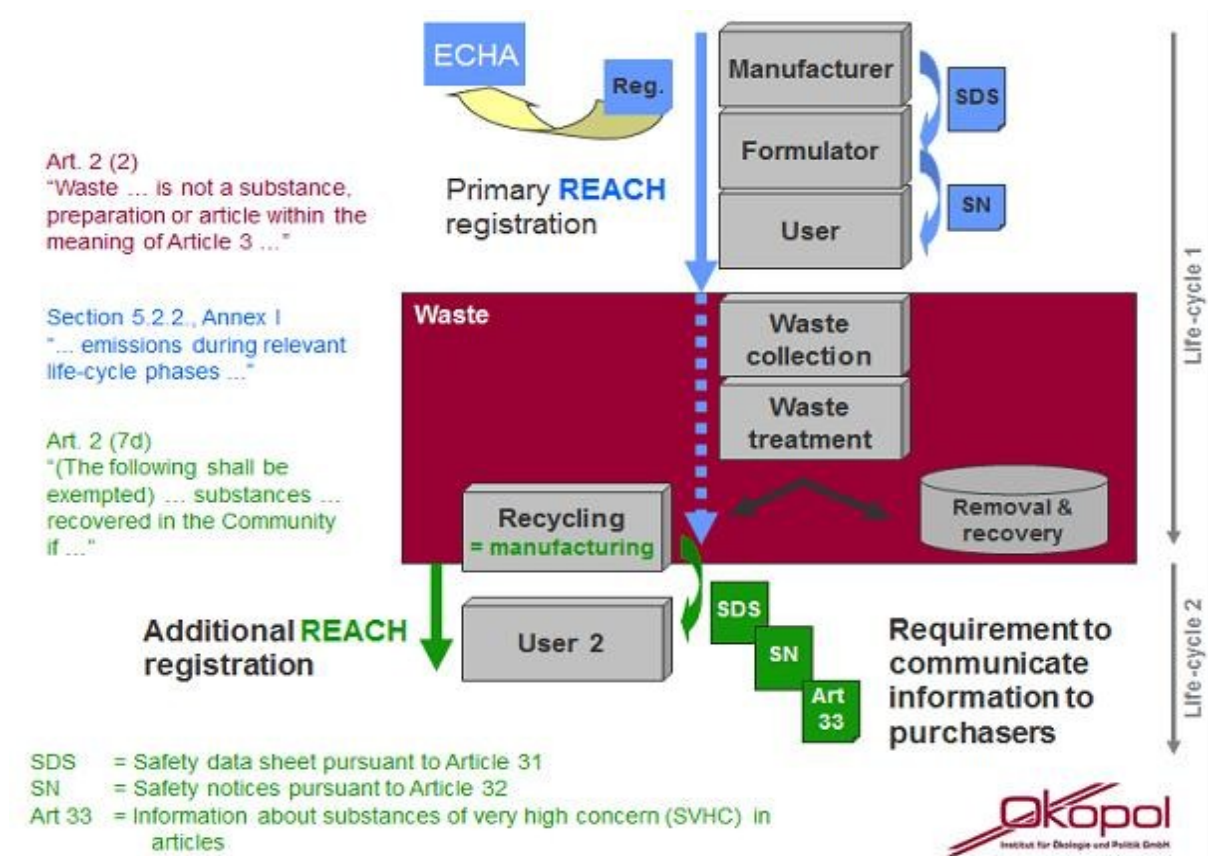


Figure 4.1. Interfaces between REACH and waste legislation (blue :REACH duties arising from the primary life cycle of the substance, responsibility lies with the primary manufacturer; red: waste phase of the substance, no direct REACH duties; green: REACH duties arising. NOTE: SDS are not always needed in the recycled material. Source: Oekopol, 2011).

Once EoW criteria are adopted, plastic recyclers that generate a granulate/aggregate/flake will have a choice between classification as waste or as non-waste, the latter upon fulfilment of EoW criteria. In practical terms, they need to establish whether they prefer their material be classified as waste within the meaning of the Waste Framework Directive, or substances/ mixtures/articles within the meaning of REACH. In the latter case, the recycler is a downstream user with the corresponding duties.

If during the processing, the material is modified with additives, this is understood as a downstream use and the recycler a substance manufacturer and downstream user under REACH.

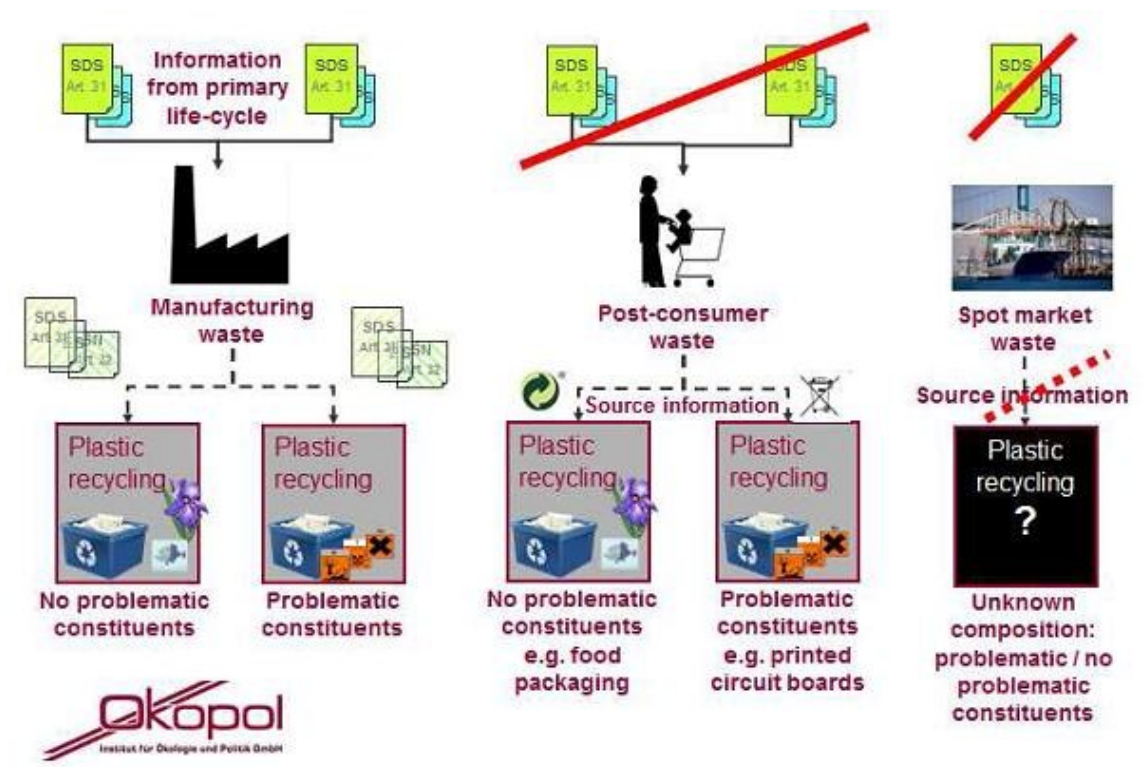


Figure 4.2. Various plastic waste streams, defined in terms of the knowledge available about the preceding life cycle stages. Problematic constituents are understood here to be those that may lead to a classification as hazardous under the rules for classification and labelling of substances and mixtures. Source: Oekopol, 2011.

Reprocessors and especially converters have to re-establish the information chain, in the first place by characterising thoroughly the recycled plastic output. This characterisation is also essential for the identification of residues of materials that were in contact with the plastic during its use (e.g. solvents), or substances are added/formed during re-processing (e.g. flame retardant reaction products), for the correct preparation of safety data sheets and CLP labelling, and for the potential classification of the output as hazardous/non-hazardous. Spectrograph or chromatograph characterisation is essential and commonplace in sensitive applications such as food contact.

4.3 Economic/Market aspects

The following potential economic and market impacts may be expected:

- Avoidance of costs related to shipment of waste;
- Avoidance of transboundary conflicts of interpretation;
- Avoidance of costs of handling the waste plastic in terms of permits and licenses;
- Costs of additional sorting and quality control of waste plastic;
- Coexistence of waste and non-waste markets, and non-plastic making markets.
- Impacts on MS with singular collection systems for waste plastics;
- Long-term availability and strategy of the European plastic industry;
- Price adjustments;

Reverse use of the argumentation above could be expected for the small percentage of the market of recyclates which currently enjoy non-waste status but would not likely meet the proposed criteria on impurity content (2%), e.g. some unwashed agglomerates and regrind, and which currently have prices that in occasions are attractive for their use for energy recovery, and not mechanical recycling. In Scenario B, these materials would be able to become EoW upon provision of additional documentation. In Scenario A, they would have to be recycled as waste, something which happens currently for other non-plastic recyclates in the EU and has not been a barrier for very high recycling rates, as the main driver for recycling is not the status as waste-/non-waste but the existence of a demand for recycling of these high quality substitutes to virgin input.

Costs related to shipment of waste

The waste status of waste plastic affects its exportability by increasing the administrative and economic burdens. The total costs related to international shipment are related to the following factors (BIR, 2010):

- Requirement to obtain certain information from overseas (non-EU) re-processors to satisfy ‘broad equivalence’ obligations set out in the Packaging Directive, and Waste Shipments Regulation. With ‘end-of-waste’ status, it would be possible to produce the necessary evidence based on the end-of-waste criteria concept.
- Notification and insurance costs on financial guarantees for waste shipments sent to countries where pre-notification is required (including certain ‘green list’ shipments) under the Waste Shipments Regulation. Each notification requires a financial guarantee, except to countries under treaty of accession arrangements. This is covered by financial institutions at certain costs, and also means a less liquidity for the waste plastic operators. Because of this there is a limit to the number of notifications a company can handle or absorb. In other words, there is an artificial (trade) barrier and companies cannot sell to all potential customers after their financial limit has been reached.
- The shipment of Green Listed waste to EU Member States in a transitional period does not require a financial guarantee (insurance). However, administrative fees for notification might be high and vary from country to country. End-of-waste would facilitate free trade of waste plastic that meets the set end-of-waste criteria in Latvia up to 31 December 2010; Poland up to 31 December 2012; Slovakia up to 31 December 2011; Bulgaria up to 31 December 2014; and Romania up to 31 December 2015.
- Administration costs for maintaining Annex VII Waste Shipments Regulation tracking forms and domestic waste movement forms. In addition to the direct administration costs associated with form filling, there is an issue of having to supply commercially sensitive data. Customers outside the EU jurisdiction are not willing to have their commercial transactions recorded and made available to public authorities. Therefore they turn to non-EU suppliers.
- Loss of business where customers fail to provide appropriate information

Costs of handling the waste plastic in terms of permits and licenses

The situation for waste collectors, transporters and reprocessors regarding permits or licenses will not change for both (1) producers of recyclates of high quality, which would

pass without trouble the criteria proposed, or (b) producers of material clearly not meeting the criteria, which would remain to be recycled as waste. Some traders and transporters may decide to trade only waste plastic which has ceased to be waste, and would not need any waste license. The most affected fractions would be those close to the proposed limits, or that are not able to produce evidence of one or more of the requirements (e.g. non-hazardousness). In Scenario B, more volumes of recyclates would be able to enjoy the benefits of EoW status.

There is no additional cost expected for waste plastic material that does not qualify for end of waste criteria. Collection and reprocessing can continue as usual under waste law, and the use of non-qualifying waste plastic grades by converters will not cease, as the qualities of the waste plastic that currently is recycled will not disappear with the introduction of end-of-waste criteria.

As part of an authorisation to treat waste, a waste plastic company may have to complete the following administration paperwork every year:

- An annual report (company-specific reporting of all transactions and EWC code-specific reporting of all transactions). This usually requires administration time of 5 person months / year).
- Monthly reports of incoming and outgoing materials.
- Record books.
- Special activity license for the yard (In Germany, 100-10.000 EUR for SMEs, with an average of 4-5000EUR. The license fee is normally linked by a percentage (<1%) to the investment(s) needed for the conversion to waste treatment facility, if necessary), for transport for processing (for the yard approval as an example the license renewal is every 10 years). Procedure takes at least 6 months to 1 year. The costs of the reports are substantial.
- Environmental impacts assessment of the waste plastic reprocessor activity if handling over 5 tonnes/day.
- Environmental responsibility insurance.
- Waste transport authorization (There is a restricted market of carriers, transporters of waste plastic classified as waste).

These requirements would be relieved if a company only deals with end-of-waste. End-of-waste would in these cases release some resources, but it adds other requirements, as EoW consignments will need documentation on fulfilment of the EoW criteria. However, this documentation is not much different from the type of information that follows the trade of any commodity, and is a warranty of the consignment having passed a quality check, and the record of its trade. The burden is thus of a different nature: under waste law it is meant to trace the material and highlight its waste nature and the need of additional environmental and health precautions, whereas as non-waste the burden is the ordinary quality statement and documentation of a commodity.

As indicated above, it has been mentioned by stakeholders that the concern of some few converters is not much economic but of image, as they would like to avoid the additional administrative work related to dealing with a waste input. But as also mentioned, not many would be affected, as the ones using high quality input would still not need waste licenses, and the ones using low quality agglomerates and regrind would already have waste licenses.

Costs of additional sorting and quality control of waste plastic

This is one of the major economic impacts identified. It is claimed by the industry that waste plastic is a valuable raw material, and has pushed for acknowledgement of the product qualities of the processed output (flakes, regrind, agglomerates, pellets). However, not in all parts of the waste plastic sector have these demands been balanced by a correspondingly quantitative quality control of output material.

The proposed EoW Regulation will highlight the need of this balance – hand in hand with awareness raising of the need to meet the requirements of REACH-, ensuring that waste plastic that ceases to be waste follows the same practice that is expected from a commodity.

One of the characteristics expected from a product is a defined quality. EoW criteria requiring quantitative measurements have been kept to a minimum in order to avoid unnecessary costs. The threshold on non-plastic components keeps the burdens of quantitative quality control to the minimum, as the more detailed control of problem substances (see section on legislation above) in recycled products is covered by product legislation, and would have to be met anyway.

The use of the criterion on non-hazardousness (at a quantitative level, if no evidence of non-hazardousness is provided, together with the maximum non-plastic component content, are the cornerstone of the EoW criteria. These parameters are not believed to be overburdening current practice, as they replicate parameters used in the definition of the quality of plastic recyclates and downstream communication obligations, and should theoretically be already met by companies operating with product status for their output.

By establishing these two criteria, other EoW criteria become redundant, e.g. an input criteria requiring that the material is composed mainly of plastic: by fulfilling that waste plastic respects the non- plastic component threshold, one can be sure that the material delivered is mainly the targeted plastic.

The introduction of a threshold on non-plastic components may however result in an initial increase of the sampling effort for those producers that were not yet up-to date with REACH, POPs and CLP compliance, as virgin plastic producers are. The compliance check with EoW criteria will be an opportunity to do so.

The overall increase in sampling is expected because this is the only means of documenting the non- hazardousness, and improve the knowledge of the plastic component content. However, the frequency of measurement will vary. It can be expected that in a risk-based approach based on robust statistics, the high quality grades will need very sparse quantitative control in addition to a systematic visual inspection ('fast track' concept). This criterion is thus redundant for washed, melt filtered materials (regrind), as the concentration of non-plastic component is far below the proposed threshold.

Conversely, intermediate outputs such as unwashed agglomerates, flakes and pellets from e.g. multi-material collection will need more frequent sampling. The exact value of the physical impurity threshold has an influence on the magnitude of this effort, as discussed in Section 3.2 and Annex II.

The facilities that currently base their management on visual inspection exclusively, if interested in end-of-waste classification, will have to invest in equipment or external testing for measurement of not only non-plastic components, but also the characterisation of additives as required by REACH, POPS and CLP and any additional product policy relevant to their polymer and expected applications (see section on legislation above). However, this does not need to be costly. Non-plastic component measurement equipment can be as simple as a sorting table, some trays, a scale, and a microwave/oven to obtain dry air conditions. Larger expenses can be expected in:

- 1) the start-up phase, in getting familiar with the grades that can qualify for EoW, and acquiring the expertise about of the sampling frequency needed for each grade.
- 2) the operation phase, in the time required for undertaking the measurements and storing the data.

Quality control of output is commonplace in the reprocessing of other recyclables with less specific value such as glass/cullet (30-50 EUR/tonne), suggesting that the uptake of these practices is by and large not a matter of costs but of change of practice. Companies not having yet done so would have to incorporate the new EoW procedures into existing quality management protocols, which shall be regularly audited by a third party.

In risk-based sampling, many approaches are acceptable if they contribute to ensure quality. For instance, it would be acceptable to use quantitative feedback from customers as part of a sampling plan, that is, sampling does not need to be undertaken exclusively before the shipment of a consignment: consignments part of long-term contracts may benefit from sparser frequency needs, and control may use data taken upon arrival at the converter, if the same material of the same grade and the same treatment is delivered over a long period of time. However, it shall be made clear that the entity that has the burden of proof and shall guarantee compliance with the criteria is the producer/importer. As long as the quality of the consignment and fulfilment of the EoW criteria can be guaranteed and documented to the buyer and inspectors through the EoW Statement of Conformity, and that the method used to ensure this quality is documented to third party auditing, it is up to the holder of EoW plastic to decide which procedure to use. This is of course not the case for ad-hoc shipments not part of long-term contracts, as sampling will be needed on the consignment before dispatch.

These new playing rules for shipments candidate to EoW would require additional communication efforts between suppliers and buyers, as better communication and exchange of sampling results between reproducers and converters can significantly reduce the sampling effort (and costs) required on both sides.

Coexistence and share of markets

The entering into force of an EoW criteria Regulation will likely result in a new option within the market of waste plastic. Waste status will remain for a part of the waste plastic market. Firstly, as explained in detail in the scope definition, all other uses of waste plastic than conversion will remain under waste legislation, until decision are made on the appropriateness of preparing additional EoW criteria for other uses. Secondly, the waste plastic market for conversion will have two options, both within the EU and outside the EU. EoW plastic, because of its demonstrated quality, will in its own right acquire EU-wide acknowledged benefits of a product in terms of trade and image. Waste plastic that remains waste will continue to be a valuable material for reprocessing and conversion, while recognising its limitations. Both market options will find an equilibrium point and coexist. The exact point of equilibrium and uptake of the new option cannot be predicted. Decisions will have to be made by individual reprocessors and converters, weighting the advantages and disadvantages for them of both options.

Coexistence will also be observed on trade. On the one hand, plastic that has ceased to be waste will be easier to export out of the EU. On the other hand, the EU demand of plastic that has ceased to be waste will also be higher, as higher quality material generating less rejects and a widely acknowledged image as a product is likely to be more demanded. It is difficult to forecast the share of EoW material in the domestic market and in exports outside the EU when equilibrium is reached. It may vary depending on how strong is the EU's demand for waste plastic vis-à-vis the demand from outside the EU.

As discussed in Section 3.2, the EoW criteria have been proposed with the aim of encompassing the main flows of waste plastic that are currently used and perceived by the industry as a valuable raw material, while respecting the conditions of Art.6 of the WFD. In the absence of a unique solution that fits all demands, the proposed criteria are the result of a compromise and the principle of proportionality, addressing with priority the major flows.

Potential alternative uses of waste plastic different from conversion, feedstock recycling or energy recovery have been excluded from the scope of the end-of-waste criteria presented in this study. These marginal uses are estimated to represent less than 1% of the total waste plastic flows. No use different from conversion has been found that requires high quality waste plastic. EoW shall in principle not affect the current availability of waste plastic for these markets (which could for instance be insulation and filling, or filtering media), which in any case would take place under waste legislation. Should these uses require higher quality waste plastic, there should be no barrier for having access to end-of-waste material. The only consequence for the non-conversion users is that EoW status is not any longer maintained. End-of-waste plastic would return to its waste status, and its use be regulated by waste law.

Long-term availability

Standards on high-quality end-of-waste materials will enable materials reclaimed from waste to better compete with primary raw materials. Currently, this happens with some identified imperfections.

A quantitative assessment of the impact of end-of-waste criteria on exports to third countries is not feasible with the data available. However, it is not to be expected that releasing certain waste plastic from the waste regime would lead to additional exports at a scale which could threaten the availability of these secondary raw materials on the EU markets. Should availability be of concern, the market instruments of trade policy would enter into action (custom tariffs, taxes, subsidies) regardless of the waste status of waste plastic. Such trade policy instruments are of much larger magnitude and impact than the market effects of EoW (e.g. recent Chinese 15% tariff on the exports of metal scrap).

Increasing amounts of waste plastic are being generated in the EU, following the efforts undertaken to tap waste plastic sources. In the last decades, the amounts of waste plastic generated in the EU have been consistently higher than the amounts used by EU industries, leading to increasing exports, and are currently about 4 Mt annually (12% of waste plastic collection) compared to 1Mt imports. As described in the exports section in Section 2.2.4.1 and depicted in Figure 2.20, the main destination of EU waste plastic exports is China, including Hong Kong.

When waste plastic is exported, one also exports the energy and emission savings of using this resource compared to using raw materials. So far, the trade of embedded savings is somehow balanced: waste plastic is shipped from the EU to China, but it returns to the EU in the form of plastic commodities and packaging. With the current collection systems in place in the EU, a large part of this waste plastic source is readily collectable and is made available for converters by reproducers. At a point, the development of domestic consumption and collection systems in China should decrease China's current reliance on waste plastic imports to maintain the expected growth, as has happened in other developed economies. This may reduce the imports of waste plastic to China, but it is to be seen if it also stops the export as commodities or packaging, so the equilibrium of net imports of material may move. Unless alternative materials substitute plastics, it is highly improbable that plastic would become a scarce resource in the EU, as it would continue to flow back to the EU in a recyclable form.

From an EU perspective in the current situation, the international market for waste plastic needs to function well, there must be sufficient demand for waste plastic, inside or outside the EU, and waste plastic prices must remain reasonable and without excessive volatility. A high demand from export markets for waste plastic has been in some periods in the past crucial to sustain or further expand the recycling of waste plastic generated in the EU, and this is facilitated by EoW. This overseas demand has expanded the reprocessing capacity of the EU, and it is to be seen whether this is for a transitional period or as a permanent status. The international demand conditions may change if China gradually becomes more self-sufficient in waste plastic and no other country takes over the international demand pull (e.g. Indonesia, Thailand, India). As the flow of packaging in Chinese exports would still exist, this scenario may result in a surplus of waste plastic in the EU that can be followed by e.g. price decrease.

Price

Generally speaking, waste plastic prices follow plastic product prices and oil prices. Non-EU demand for waste plastic is currently about 10% of domestic demand in the EU. It is therefore likely that the domestic EU demand will continue to play the largest role in

price setting. EoW plastic will fit into this existing market with little disturbance in economic terms, including prices.

Better conditions for exports of waste plastic that has ceased to be waste may lead to more investments in reprocessing, and more quality control and sorting equipment at reprocessing plants or laboratories (see discussion above). Some of this equipment may increase the use of energy and manpower at reprocessing plants. However, this may lead to a subsequent reduced need of non-plastic component separation downstream, due to the more systematically checked quality, sorting and characterisation of the input materials received. As mentioned above, the impact is likely to be only noticeable in the initial phase of the monitoring of the criteria, and only if this capacity is not existing beforehand.

It is expected that the supply of high quality waste plastic would be stimulated. This may lead to an increase in recycling rates and an image improvement, both of them stimulating collection and recycling. One of the potential side effects of this in the medium and long term could be marginally higher prices of waste plastic that has ceased to be waste, compared to waste plastic. This possible effect on prices is probably seen differently by converters and reprocessors. Reprocessors can expect a price increase signal if they are able to deliver consignments with the added value of being non-waste, backed by quality management that includes periodical quantitative sampling. Converters may be cautious on their willingness to pay more for non-waste material, but they are interested in a material that is free of the sometimes stigmatising 'waste' label.

4.4 Summary of identified potential impacts of EoW on waste plastic

Additional considerations are made to the following two scenarios:

- SCENARIO A - Single threshold for non-plastic components 2%. Material >2% is excluded from EoW, (but still can be recycled as waste).
- SCENARIO B – The single threshold for non-plastic components 2% is kept, but material >2% can opt for EoW if evidence is provided of the use for conversion into new plastic articles.

It is estimated that ~30% of current input to conversion in the EU does not meet and is not close to the 2% threshold. Of this, about a half (~15% of the total) is material undergoing some degree of sorting and cleaning into recyclates (agglomerates, regrind), with a variety of qualities from 2 to 20% impurity content, in total ca. 0.5-0.7Mt yearly in the EU. The remaining ~15% of the total (additional 0.5-0.7Mt/yr) is typically unwashed, basically sorted and shredded waste plastic with high (>10-20%) non-plastic content used directly, without much further cleaning, in conversion to articles such as plastic lumber, with high tolerance to inert impurity content.

Impact	Pros	Cons
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Impact	Pros	Cons
Health and environment	Easier trade of EoW high quality material for recycling within and out of the EU. The remaining fractions can still perfectly be recycled, but following the control of waste legislation. EoW will likely stimulate in the EU more collection and recycling of waste plastic, using untapped recycling potentials in many countries with current low collection rates. EoW will clearly indicate the need to update compliance with REACH, CLP and POPs if a material is to achieve product status. It will likely stimulate better quality control, identification of problem substances and their removal from the plastic cycles, and more treatment of waste plastic to higher quality. If the material traded (and exported) is on average cleaner, the treatment of non-plastic materials remains in the EU. Lower risk of irregular shipments not meeting EoW criteria.	Be it waste or EoW, there is always a risk that waste plastic shipped to non-EU facilities is: * not recycled * recycled but not in accordance with human health and environmental standards that are broadly equivalent to standards established in the EU, including non-plastic reject management. The stricter the non-plastic component limits (the higher the quality of EoW plastic), the lower this risk. However, if the non-plastic component threshold is too strict, less waste plastic will become EoW, and the potential benefits of the policy will decrease. However, this does not mean that recycling cannot take place: some stakeholders wrongly interpret that not meeting EoW means that the material cannot be marketed or recycled. This is wrong. Recycling will still take place for non-compliant fractions, but following the control of waste legislation.
<u>SCENARIO A</u> - Single threshold for non-plastic components 2%. Material >2% is excluded from EoW.	Support to the image of waste plastic as a recyclable resource, matching quality with virgin plastic for a range of applications. Better control of the fate of the ~30% material not meeting the 2% threshold, without the need of additional documents such as contracts or signed declarations. Most of the compliant material is washed, thereby removing most organic residues.	One may not be supporting the trade (within or out of the EU) of lower quality, but still recyclable material, which is currently in some cases attractive in the EU for energy recovery.
<u>SCENARIO B</u> - Single threshold for non-plastic components 2%. Material >2% can opt for EoW if evidence is provided of the use for conversion in new plastic articles	Easier trade of EoW material within and out of the EU, if evidence of mechanical recycling is provided. Larger volumes of recyclates can potentially benefit from EoW (it is estimated that ~15% of currently produced recyclates, ca. 0.5-0.7Mt yearly would not meet the 2% criterion). In addition to this, ~15% of waste plastic (additional 0.5-0.7Mt/yr) with high (>10-15%) non-plastic content used directly in conversion to plastic lumber would clearly not be EoW.	Higher presence of unwashed material, containing traces of organic residues. Higher risk of irregular shipments not meeting EoW criteria. Worse control of the fate of the ~30% EU material flows (15% recyclates, 15% shredded plastic waste) not meeting the 2% threshold. Some of this material is currently used for energy. Mechanical recycling is not ensured by the quality of the material, but by the existence of a client signing a document. If exported out of the EU, easier trade of regrind for recycling not meeting the 2% threshold means the

Impact	Pros	Cons
		treatment of non-plastic materials, if removed, takes place out of the EU, where there is less certainty of its adequacy.
Economy and markets	Avoidance of administrative costs related to shipment of waste (permits, licenses, uncertainty). Improved functioning of the internal and external market to the EU: transparency, level playing field, etc. The additional image push of plastic as a recyclable resource will likely translate into higher value of this material and its recycling chain, especially the EoW material generated in the EU.	Economic impact of the material not meeting the criteria and transported as waste, as waste transport is marginally more costly than goods (products) transport. Easier overseas export might tighten the market for waste plastic in the EU. When demand is low in the EU, exports overseas supports the activity of the EU recovery chain. When demand in the EU is high, facilitated export strains competition. Additional sorting and quality control will foster changes in current practices, which in the short term may result in costs and the abandonment of certain applications of low quality material. In the long term, these costs should be lower and be compensated by the benefits of EoW.
<u>SCENARIO A</u> - Single threshold for non-plastic components 2%. Material >2% is excluded from EoW	Market indicators are used as evidence of use in mechanical recycling, and of the minimal risk that the material is not used for mechanical recycling.	The intra and extra EU trade for the ~30% material (15% recyclates, 15% shredded waste for conversion) not meeting the 2% threshold is not made easier, even if intended for recycling
<u>SCENARIO B</u> - Single threshold for non-plastic components 2%. Material >2% can opt for EoW if evidence is provided of the use for conversion in new plastic articles	Promotion of trade for recycling, also for the ~35% material (15% recyclates, 15% shredded plastic waste) not meeting the 2% threshold. Larger volumes of plastic recyclates (estimated at 0.5-0.7Mt/yr) could additionally potentially benefit from EoW.	Market indicators are not sufficient evidence of use in mechanical recycling, as some reprocessed material (regrind, agglomerates) is currently used for energy recovery.

Impact	Pros	Cons
Legislation	EoW will bring awareness of the need to comply with REACH/CLP/POPs obligations for EoW material, and of the need to trace potentially problematic substances in plastic cycles. Improved functioning of the internal and external market to the EU: legal certainty, harmonised rules, etc. Decrease of unnecessary control related to the Waste Shipment Regulation. EoW mechanism materialises recurrent past policy messages that have encouraged improved use of recyclates, and not only punishment of waste generation.	The current de facto product status of some material may be challenged, and it may need re-classification as waste. Some operators producing material close but not meeting EoW criteria may have to trade the non-compliant output under waste legislation. To achieve a larger environmental safety certainty of the fate of the material and its components, a limited number of clients would need to adapt to this, Each Member State must check the extent of impact to national law, e.g. countries that use reverse VAT or taxation of natural resources in national law. Increase efforts will be needed to check enforcement of REACH/CLP/POP obligations, in hands of the Member States.
SCENARIO A - Single threshold for non-plastic components 2%. Material >2% is excluded from EoW	Easier compliance and enforcement of REACH/CLP/POP because of the more homogeneous state of the material. No need of exceptional mechanisms (declaration from converter), as the value of the recyclates, ensured by thorough cleaning, reduces the risk of other uses than mechanical recycling.	
SCENARIO B - Single threshold for non-plastic components 2%. Material >2% can opt for EoW if evidence is provided of the use for conversion in new plastic articles	Same as Scenario A above, but benefitting a larger flow of materials.	Characterisation of the material is more difficult, as it is more heterogeneous. Easier compliance and enforcement of REACH/CLP/POP. The technical criteria are not sufficient. The recognition of the additional risk of use for non-recycling purposes requires additional control requirements by means of a contract or signed declaration, a mechanism which is equivalent or even stricter to waste legislation.

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6 GLOSSARY

Additive: Substance added to a polymer in the manufacturing of plastics to improve specific properties of the end product, e.g. hardness, softness, UV resistance, flame formation resistance, or improve their behaviour during manufacturing (lubricants, catalysts, stabilisers, solvents, polymerisation aids, recycling aids). The content of additives in plastics varies widely, from less than 1% in e.g. PET bottles and up to 50-60% in some types of PVC.

Batch: quantity of material regarded as a single unit, and having a unique reference. Batch is primarily a processing term.

Bio-waste: means biodegradable garden and park waste, food and kitchen waste from households, restaurants, caterers and retail premises and comparable waste from food processing plants. It includes beverages and foodstuffs.

Chemical recycling: See feedstock recycling

Collection: (Follows the definition of the Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC)): the gathering of waste, including the preliminary sorting and preliminary storage of waste for the purposes of transport to a waste treatment facility. NOTE: In this document, only collection for recycling is covered.

Collection rate. Percentage of waste plastic collection compared to the total plastic consumption. Waste plastic collected in a country but exported for recycling in another country is included. Waste plastic imported from other countries and recycled in a country in question is not included.

Comingled collection: is a multi-material collection system where two or more recyclable materials are deliberately collected together, for later sorting into individual recyclable materials at a dedicated sorting plant. The system can be for pick-up by waste trucks from door to door (also called 'kerbside collection') or following a pick-up contract, or be based on regular emptying of containers or banks distributed in the collection areas, and where waste producers bring and deposit their waste (also called 'bring systems'). The materials are normally paper, plastics, metals, and sometimes also glass. In some cases, the only allowed plastic, metal and glass is as packaging.

Contraries: see non- plastic components.

Consignment: means a batch of waste plastic for which delivery from a producer to another holder has been agreed; one consignment might be contained in several transport units, such as containers.

Contaminant, see also **impurity:** a substance or compound present in waste plastic, together with a targeted waste plastic type, but the presence of which is undesired. It can be a not- plastic component or a non-targeted plastic type.

Conversion: plastic conversion is the transformation, of raw plastic materials in granular or powder form by application of processes involving pressure, heat and/or

chemistry, into finished or semi-finished products for the industry and end-users. Some usual processes are extrusion, moulding, blowing, casting, callendering or laminating. Plastics converters are sometimes called 'Processors'.

Disposal: (Follows the definition of the Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC)): any operation which is not recovery even where the operation has as a secondary consequence the reclamation of substances or energy. Annex I of the Directive sets out a non-exhaustive list of disposal operations.

Down-cycling: Also known as down-grading, this refers to the process of converting waste materials into new materials or products of lesser quality and reduced functionality than those of the products they originate from. Also referred to as 'open-loop' recycling.

Down-grading: see down-cycling

Dry sorting: Sorting of waste plastic not based on the use of water. It is used in the context of separation of non- plastic components, referring to the separation waste items not originally part of plastic products, or of products which one wishes to conduct to a separate stream.

Empty packaging: packaging is empty if - under normal and foreseeable circumstances - all product residues that can be removed by the emptier have been removed using practices commonly employed for that type of packaging. A non-exhaustive list of common practices includes: removing an inner liner; pouring; pumping; aspirating; shaking; scraping; squeezing; rinsing; wiping-out. See e.g. EN 13430:2003

Energy recovery: The use of waste principally as a fuel or other means to generate energy

Feedstock recycling: Also known as chemical recycling, feedstock recycling refers to techniques - cracking, gasification or depolymerisation - used to break down plastic polymers into their constituent monomers, which in turn can be used again in refineries, or petrochemical and chemical production. NOTE: Feedstock recycling and chemical recycling are synonyms.

Fillers: fillers are inert solid materials incorporated to polymers to reduce polymer costs, improve processability and mechanical properties, but remaining as a separate phase within the mix. They can be either powders or fibres.

Health Care waste: wastes from human or animal health care and/or related research (except kitchen and restaurant wastes not arising from immediate health care), including all its subcategories as detailed in code 18 of Commission Decision 2000/352/EC of 3 May 2000 (List of Wastes).

Holder: means the natural or legal person who is in possession of waste plastic.

Importer: means any natural or legal person established within the Union who introduces waste plastic which has ceased to be waste into the customs territory of the Union.

Impurity, see also **contaminant**: a substance or compound present in waste plastic, together with a targeted waste plastic type, but the presence of which is undesired. It can be a not- plastic component or a non-targeted plastic type.

Material recovery: Recovery is a broader term that includes any useful use of a waste, in replacement to another material. For example, a typical form of material recovery (as opposed to energy recovery) which should not be considered as recycling, is backfilling, where waste is used to refill excavated areas for engineering purposes.

Mechanical Recycling: for plastics, refers to processes which involve the reprocessing by melting, shredding or granulation.

Moisture: means water diffused as vapour or condensed on or in waste plastic.

Mono-material collection (system): is a system for the deliberate collection of a single recyclable material, such as paper, plastics, metals, or glass.

Mono-material origin means that waste plastic originates from a collection system designed for the collection separately of only one recyclable material, e.g. plastic, metal, paper or glass.

Municipal solid waste. (MSW) Means non-sorted, mixed waste from households and commerce, collected together. This waste flow excludes the flows of recyclables collected and kept separately, be it one-material flows or multi-material (comingled) flows.

Mt: Million tonnes. 1 tonne = 1000 kg (International System of Units)

Multi-material collection (system): a system for deliberate collection of two or more recyclable materials together. Normally, Materials are later sorted into mono-material streams at a dedicated sorting plant. Examples of widespread multi-material systems are separate packaging collection systems, and comingled collection systems. The materials collected are normally paper, plastics, metals, and sometimes also glass. In some cases, the only allowed forms of plastic, metal and glass are as packaging.

Multi-material origin means that waste plastic originates from a collection system designed for the deliberate collection of two or more recyclable materials together, e.g. plastic, metal, paper and glass. Normally, Materials are later sorted into mono-material streams at a dedicated sorting plant. Examples of multi-material systems are separate packaging collection, and comingled collection.

Non-plastic components: also known as contraries and sometimes impurities, are materials different from plastic, which are present in waste plastic. Examples of non-plastic components are metals, paper, glass, textiles, earth, sand, dust, wax, bitumen, ceramics, burnt or fire damaged materials, textiles, leather, rubber, and wood. In

addition to this definition, there is a list of materials to which there is zero tolerance e.g. health care waste, hazardous waste, foodstuffs, toxic compounds, or used personal hygiene products.

Non-targeted plastic: A polymer or resin present in waste plastic, but the presence of which is detrimental to the direct use of the waste plastic in the production of plastic substances or objects by re-melting in plastic manufacturing facilities. Examples of non-targeted plastics in the manufacturing of PE recyclates are PET and PVC.

Plastic: generic term referring to a material essentially composed of one or more polymers of high molecular mass, plus when needed a recipe of additives that adjust the properties of the polymers (softeners, hardeners, UV absorbers, flame retardants, dyestuffs, etc). A polymer is a chain of several thousand of repeating molecular units of monomers. The monomers of plastic are either natural or synthetic organic compounds.

Plastic Detrimental to Production: plastic types not matching the quality definition of a batch, bale or lot of plastic (e.g. PVC in a PP scrap load). Plastic which has been recovered or treated in such a way that it is, for a basic or standard level of equipment, unsuitable as raw material for the manufacture of plastic, or is actually damaging, or whose presence makes the whole consignment of waste plastic unusable.

Plastic Consumption: Plastic that is delivered (purchased) and used within a list of countries, plus imports from countries outside the list of countries.

Plastic production: plastic that is manufactured by a list of countries. Some of it is unsold, some of it is sold in the market within the list of countries, and some of it is exported.

Plastic manufacture: see plastic production.

Pre-consumer waste: Also known as post-industrial waste, or industrial scrap, this refers to waste generated during converting or manufacturing processes.

Polymer: is a chain of several thousand of repeating molecular units of monomers. The monomers of plastic are either natural or synthetic large molecular mass organic compounds.

Post-consumer waste: waste products generated by a business or consumer that have served their intended end use, not involving the production of another product.

Primary raw material: material which has never been processed into any form of end use product

Producer: means the holder who transfers waste plastic to another holder for the first time as waste plastic which has ceased to be waste.

Prohibited materials: Any materials in waste plastic which represent a risk for health, safety and environment, such as health care waste, used products of personal hygiene,

hazardous waste, organic waste including foodstuffs, bitumen, toxic powders and the like.

Qualified staff: means staff which is qualified by experience or training to monitor and assess the properties of waste plastic.

RDF: Refuse-derived fuel. Generic term that defines a fuel obtained from waste. Normally it refers to a fraction of MSW essentially composed of plastic, paper, textiles and wood, and obtained by removal of readily biodegradable material and moisture, glass, and metals.

Recovery: (Follows the definition of the Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC)): any operation the principal result of which is waste serving a useful purpose by replacing other materials which would otherwise have been used to fulfil a particular function, or waste being prepared to fulfil that function, in the plant or in the wider economy. Annex II of the Directive sets out a non-exhaustive list of recovery operations.

Recovery Rate: See collection rate above

Recycled plastic: A broad term, generally applied to any sort of plastic product containing to some degree waste plastic polymer, and not only virgin polymer. plastic can currently be labelled recycled if even only a small percentage of it is made from waste plastic. The term does not currently imply or guarantee that it is manufactured with any additional environmental consideration. Case-by case labelling will indicate the type and percentage of recycled plastic content.

Recyclate: recyclable material resulting from the processing of waste (cullet, scrap, pellets, granules, flakes, etc).

Recycling: (Follows the definition of the Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC)): any recovery operation by which waste materials are reprocessed into products, materials or substances whether for the original or other purposes. It includes the reprocessing of the material but does not include energy recovery and the reprocessing into materials that are to be used as fuels or for backfilling operations.

Recycling Rate: Percentage of waste plastic utilisation (plastic which is reused for making new plastic) compared to the total plastic consumption.

Reprocessing plant: broad term used to define any of the intermediate actors in the waste plastic chain between the end-users and the plastic producers. It encompasses companies or institutions undertaking activities such as collection, sorting, grading, classification, cleaning, baling, trading, storing, or transporting. The inlet material to these plants is waste or waste plastic. The outlet is waste plastic that may either be waste or non-waste.

Reprocessor: operator of a reprocessing plant (see above).

Separate collection: (Follows the definition of the Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC)): the collection where a waste stream is kept separately by type and nature so as to facilitate a specific treatment.

Targeted plastic: A polymer or resin present in waste plastic, which is collected and treated for recycling, i.e. the direct use of the waste plastic in the production of plastic substances or objects by re-melting in plastic manufacturing facilities.

Thermoplastic polymer: a polymer that can be repeatedly made soft through heating and that hardens when cooled. Modern thermoplastic polymers soften anywhere between 65°C and 200°C. Thermoplastics are therefore recyclable and include polyethylene, polystyrene, polypropylene.

Thermoset polymer: a polymer that softens when initially heated, but hardens permanently once it has cooled. It is not re-mouldable. Thermosetting materials are made of long-chain polymers that cross-link with each other after they have been heated, rendering the substance permanently hard. They include epoxy resins and polycarbonate.

Treatment: (Follows the definition of the Waste Framework Directive (2008/98/EC)): recovery or disposal operations, including preparation prior to recovery or disposal.

Unusable or Unwanted Materials, also termed 'Outthrows'. A term encompassing both non- plastic components and plastic and cardboard detrimental to production of plastic. In general, purchaser and supplier agree to a certain proportion of unusable materials.

(Waste plastic) Utilisation: Use of waste plastic as raw material at plastic producers.

Utilisation Rate: Percentage of waste plastic utilisation (plastic which is reused for making new plastic) compared to total plastic production (by all means: using virgin plus waste fibres).

Visual inspection: means inspection of consignments using either or all human senses such as vision, touch and smell and any non-specialised equipment. Visual inspection shall be carried out in such a way that all representative parts of a consignment are covered. This may often best be achieved in the delivery area during loading or unloading and before packing. It may involve manual manipulations such as the opening of containers, other sensorial controls (feel, smell) or the use of appropriate portable sensors.

Waste plastic: Refers to waste which the holder discards, intends to discard or is required to discard, and consists mainly of plastic polymers and additives such as softeners, hardeners, flame retardants, or UV protection agents.

WFD: Waste Framework Directive (DIRECTIVE 2008/98/EC OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL of 19 November 2008 on waste and repealing certain Directives).

7 ACRONYMS

ABS	Acrylonitrile Butadiene Styrene
amino	Any thermosetting synthetic resin formed by copolymerisation of amines or amides with aldehydes.
ANAIP	Asociacion Nacional de Industrias del Plastico
A-PET	Amorphous Polyethylene Therephthalate
APME	Association of plastics Manufacturers in Europe (now <i>PlasticsEurope</i>)
ASA	Acrylonitrile Styrene Acrylate
ASR	Automotive Shredder Residue
B&C	Building and Construction
BDE	Brominated Diphenyl Ether
BFR	Brominated Flame Retardant
BPA	Bisphenol A
CEN	European Committee for Standardisation
C-PET	Crystalline Polyethylene Therephthalate
DEFRA	Department for the Environment, Food and Rural Affairs
EEE	Electrical and electronic equipment
ELV	End-of-Life Vehicles
EoL	End-of-Life
EoW	End-of-waste
EP	Epoxy (resin)
EPBP	European PET Bottle Platform
EPRO	European Association of Plastics Recycling and Recovery Organisations
EPS	Expanded Polystyrene
ETP	Engineering Thermo-Plastics
EuPC	European Plastics Converters
FEDEREC	Fédération des Entreprises du Recyclage (France)
FR	Flame Retardant
HDPE	High Density Polyethylene
HIPS	High Impact Polystyrene
ISO	International Standardisation Organisation
kt	Thousands of tonnes (kilotonne)
LCA	Life Cycle Assessment
LDPE	Low Density Polyethylene
LLDPE	Linear Low Density Polyethylene
MR	Mechanical Recycling
MRF	Material Recovery Facility
MS	Member State(s) of the European Union
MSW	Municipal Solid Waste
Mt	A million tonnes (Megatonne)
NIR	Near Infrared
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

OPA	Oriented Polyamide
OPP	Oriented Polypropylene
OPS	Oriented Polystyrene
pa.	Per annum
PA	Polyamide
PBB	Polybrominated Biphenyls
PBDD/F	Polybrominated dibenzodioxins and dibenzofurans
PBDE	Polybrominated Diphenyl Ethers
PBT	Polybutylene Terephthalate
PC	Polycarbonate
PCB	Polychlorinated Biphenyl
PE	Polyethylene
PEN	Polyethylene Naphthalate
PET	Polyethylene Terephthalate
PMMA	Polymethyl Methacrylate
POM	Poly-Oxy-Methylene
POPs	Persistent Organic Pollutants
PP	Polypropylene
PPE	Polyphenylene Ether
PPO	Polyphenylene Oxide
PS	Polystyrene
PU/PUR	Polyurethane
PVC	Polyvinyl Chloride
PVDC	Polyvinylidene Chloride
REACH	Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and restriction of Chemicals
RoHS	Restriction of Hazardous Substances
SAN	Styrene Acrylonitrile Copolymer
SMA	Styrene Maleic Anhydride
SB	Styrene-Butadiene
UP	Unsaturated Polyester
WEEE	Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment
WFD	Waste Framework Directive
WRAP	Waste & Resources Action Programme
XPS	Extruded Poly-Styrene

8 ANNEX I. CHARACTERISATION OF RECYCLED PLASTICS IN EN STANDARDS

In the table below, required characteristics correspond to green cells, and optional characteristics to orange cells. Some tests referred to are defined in the annexes of the standards. Source: adapted from BIO IS(2011)

Characteristic	PS (EN 15342)	PE (EN 15344)	PP (EN 15345)	PVC (EN 15346)	PET (EN 15348)
Colour	Visual inspection	Visual inspection	Visual inspection	Visual inspection	Visual inspection
Fine particle content					Annex A (Method for the determination of size and distribution of PET-R flakes by Sieving)
Hardness				EN ISO 868	
Impact strength	EN ISO 179-1, EN ISO 179-2 or EN ISO 180		EN ISO 179-1, EN ISO 179-2 or EN ISO 180		
Impurities				Annex C (Impurities contained in recycled PVC compounds by dissolution in Tetrahydrofuran)	
Melt mass flow rate	EN ISO 1133 Condition H	EN ISO 1133	EN ISO 1133 Condition M		Annex B, to be agreed
Particle size determination	method appropriate to the particle type and size range	ISO 22498		Annex D (Size and distribution of particles contained in micronized recycled PVC compounds by sieving), Annex E (Size and distribution of recycled PVC crushes by sieving)	Given by the size of the screen of the grinder
Polyolefin content, PVC content, Other residual content					Annex D (Rapid method for the determination of residual impurities)
Shape	Visual inspection	Visual inspection	Visual inspection	Visual inspection	Visual inspection
Water content					Annex C (Gravimetric method)

Characteristic	PS (EN 15342)	PE (EN 15344)	PP (EN 15345)	PVC (EN 15346)	PET (EN 15348)
					for the determination of residual humidity (water content))
Bulk density	Annex A	Annex B	Annex A	Annex B	
Density	EN ISO 1183-1, Method A	EN ISO 1183-1, Method A or B	EN ISO 1183-1 Method A	EN ISO 1183-1 Method A	
Vicat softening temperature	EN ISO 306 Method A			EN ISO 306 Method B50	
Alaklinity					Annex E (Potentiometric method for the determination of the residual alkalinity)
Ash content	EN ISO 3451-1	EN ISO 3451-1	EN ISO 3451-1	EN ISO 3451-5 Method A	
Colour					Colourimeter
Contaminants (number)		Annex A, Method A, B or C			
Dry flow rate				EN ISO 6186	
Extraneous polymers			Thermal/Infra-red analyses		
Filterability					Annex F (Method for the determination of infusible impurities by filtration)
Filtration level	Mesh size	Mesh size	Mesh Size		
Fitness of processing of PVC recyclates — by calendering — by extrusion				— Annex F — Annex G	
Flexural modulus	EN ISO 178		EN ISO 178		
Intrinsic viscosity (IV)					ISO 1628-5
Izod impact strength or Charpy impact strength		EN ISO 180, EN ISO 179-1			
Original application	Supplier to declare				
Presence of modifying additives	Supplier to declare (e.g. fire retardants, fillers and reinforcements)				
Recycled content			EN 15343		
Residual Humidity	EN 12099	EN 12099		EN 12099	
Tensile stress at	EN ISO 527-1, EN	EN ISO 527-	EN ISO 527-	EN ISO 527-	

Characteristic	PS (EN 15342)	PE (EN 15344)	PP (EN 15345)	PVC (EN 15346)	PET (EN 15348)
yield	ISO 527-2	1, EN ISO 527-2	1, EN ISO 527-2	1, EN ISO 527-2	
Tensile strain at break	EN ISO 527-1, EN ISO 527-2	EN ISO 527-1, EN ISO 527-2	EN ISO 527-1, EN ISO 527-2	EN ISO 527-1, EN ISO 527-2	
Thermal stability				ISO 182-1, ISO 182-2, ISO 182-3, ISO 182-4	
Volatile Content	Weight loss at 200 °C		EN 12099 or other	ISO 1269	

9 ANNEX II. ADDITIONAL CONSIDERATIONS ON PRODUCT QUALITY CRITERIA

Limit value of non-plastic components

The nature of non-plastic materials varies from grade to grade, with the source of the material playing the most important role. The most common non-plastic materials are paper, glass, and metals, but the list of materials found in trace amounts is long and includes also wood, textiles, earth, sand, dust, wax, bitumen, ceramics, rubber, or fabric. Wood and rubber are reported as being particularly detrimental in mechanical recycling, as they have a density close to that of plastics and are thus difficult to separate when this parameter is the property used for separation.

Non-plastic materials can be separated by cleaning and washing, and has to be distinguished from additives bound to the polymer matrix during the manufacture of plastics. These structure fillers (glassfibre, wood, talc, limestone, etc.) and additives are to be considered as part of plastic, and shall be out of the scope of non-plastic components. Some of them can be separated by filtering in the fluid, melted phase, and some cannot. Some can be separated by dissolution of the polymer. Some can be intentionally kept.

Non-plastic component content is dealt with differently for different polymer recyclates, using different terminology, even within CEN standards:

- PE. The term 'contaminant' is used in Annex A of CEN standard EN 15344:2007 (Plastics - Recycled Plastics - Characterisation of Polyethylene (PE) recyclates) to refer to 'non melted particles and impurities', but this is measured as 'number of contaminant pieces' trapped in a filter mesh, so it is not a gravimetric method.
- PVC. In Annex C of CEN standard EN 15346:2007 (Plastics - Recycled Plastics - Characterisation of poly(vinyl chloride) (PVC) recyclates), the determination of the amount of impurities in recycled PVC compounds is gravimetric, and is based on the dissolution of PVC in tetrahydrofuran (THF).
- PET. For PET, Annexes D and F of CEN standard EN 15348:2007 (Plastics - Recycled plastics - Characterization of poly(ethyleneterephthalate) (PET) recyclates) describe two types of 'impurities', and two methods for its characterisation:
 - Annex D addresses the determination of impurities content in the flakes of PET-R of PVC, Polyolefins, glue, other polymers, and other impurities, by forced air circulation at 220 °C and a later separation by colour/appearance and gravimetry.
 - Annex F describes a method for the determination of 'infusible impurities (such as Aluminium, paper, carbonized PVC, etc.)' by filtration of PET, measuring the increase of pressure observed during the extrusion of melted PET polymer through a filter, as it is a function of the quantity of solid particles present in the polymer.
- PP,PS: no reference is made to impurities/contaminants in CEN standards EN 15342 and EN 15345.

- Waste plastics: CEN standard EN 15347:2007 (Plastics - Recycled Plastics - Characterisation of plastics wastes) is particularly vague on the requirements for non-plastic components, barely mentioning the percentage by weight if known of the 'main polymer' and 'other polymers present', and that 'any additional information on the material will be useful' for additives, 'contaminants', moisture, and 'volatiles'.

If waste plastics before melting are eligible for EoW, the non-plastic component content in them is to be measured as dry air weight (= moisture-free material). Drying to dry air condition is undertaken customarily by plastic producers and reprocesses for sample measurement of moisture. Dry air condition can be ensured by e.g. residence at $105 \pm 5^\circ\text{C}$ for 30 minutes in an oven, but can likewise be achieved by simple and affordable alternative procedures such as residence in a microwave for a few minutes.

The maximum content of non-plastic components allowable, yet considering the material ready for direct input to a producer, depends on the type of recycled plastic produced, and the end product in mind. Producers using high qualities will be less tolerant than producers that use mixed grades as main input. Some applications such as outdoor furniture tolerate a much more contaminated material (5-20%) than e.g. film in waste bags (<1%).

In the context of quantitative quality criteria, one of the key elements investigated is the amount of waste plastic currently used in the EU for plastic making that would fulfil different non-plastic component limits in the range 0.1 - 3%. The concept is illustrated in graphical form in Figure 9.1 below:

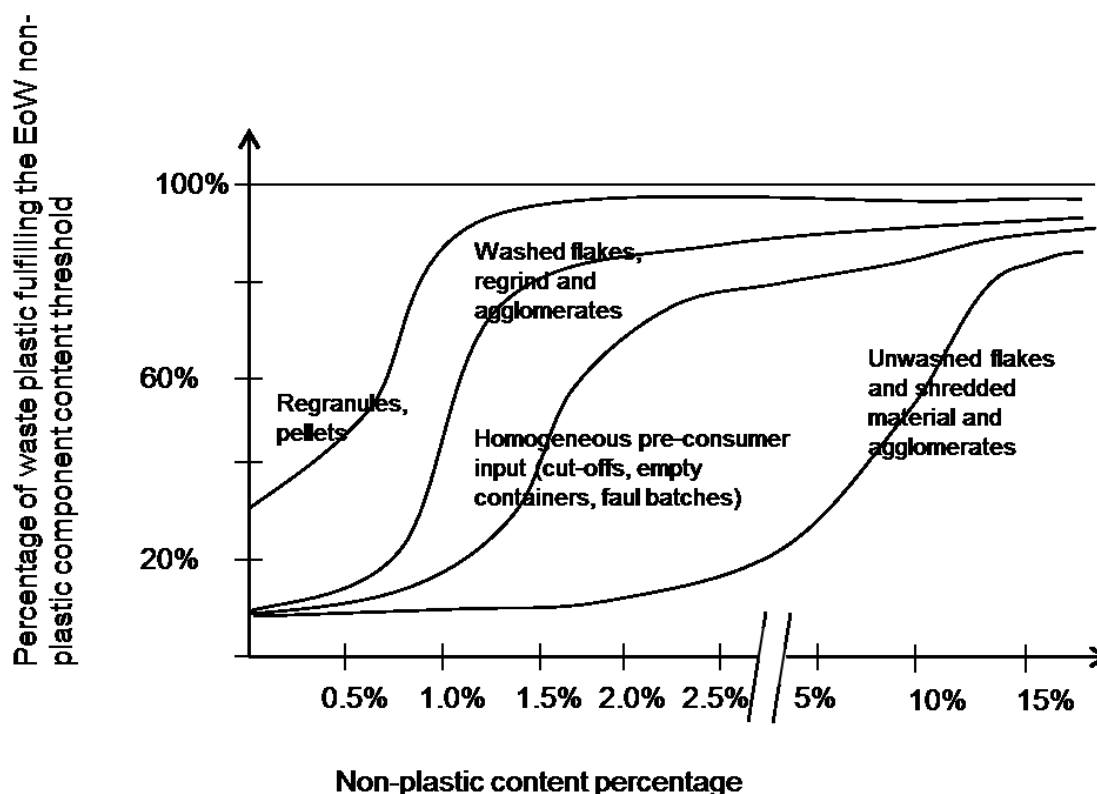


Figure 9.1. Fictive illustration of the percentage of waste plastic fulfilling the EoW non-plastic component content threshold, as a function of these thresholds.

The figure above has been prepared for the sole purpose of illustrating the concept. The values used are fictive. Many variables may play a role in moving these curves upwards, downwards or sideways, including polymer type, plastic grade, plastic collection systems, seasonal variations, etc., making a precise sketching of this curve difficult or even unfeasible. From the data collected in Chapter 2, it has been found that the bulk of recycled plastic is processed as pellets or clean flakes, and only ca. 30% is processed directly into articles such as plastic lumber and outdoor furniture, half of it directly from shredded pre-sorted unwashed plastic waste, and the other half in the form of regrind and agglomerates. A low percentage of intermediates (agglomerates, shreds) are traded in the EU markets. An unknown fraction of these plastic shreds, agglomerates and regrind are currently used for energy recovery.

Figure 9.2 below, produced by EuPC/EuPR, presents some rough estimates of the non-plastic material content of different plastic types and intermediates, and in its bottom summary section, the types of material *a priori* suited for end-of-waste. The figure depicts clearly the very important role that a washing step can have in improving the quality of the output material.

LDPE		Bales	Briquette	Regrind - Dry	Regrind Washed	- Agglomerate	Pellet
Contamination (%)	Non-plastics	>1	N/A	<1	<0.1	<1	<0.05
	Plastics	>0.5	N/A	<0.5	<0.05	<0.5	<0.05
PET		Bales	Briquette	Regrind - Dry	Regrind Washed	- Agglomerate	Pellet
Contamination (%)	Non-plastics	>1	>3	<1	<0.001	N/A	<0.00001
	Plastics	>3	>1	<3	<0.001	N/A	<0.00001
PP		Bales	Briquette	Regrind - Dry	Regrind Washed	- Agglomerate	Pellet
Contamination (%)	Non-plastics	>1	N/A	<1	<0.001	N/A	<0.00001
	Plastics	>1	N/A	<1	<0.001	N/A	<0.00001
HDPE		Bales	Briquette	Regrind - Dry	Regrind Washed	- Agglomerate	Pellet
Contamination (%)	Non-plastics	>1	>1	<1	<0.001	N/A	<0.00001
	Plastics	>1	>1	<1	<0.001	N/A	<0.00001
PVC		Bulk waste	Briquette	Regrind	Agglomerate	Pellet	
Contamination (%)	Non-plastics	>10	N/A	<10	N/A	<1	
	Plastics	>5	N/A	<5	N/A	<1	
Mixed Plastics		Bales	Briquette	Regrind - Dry	Regrind Washed	- Agglomerate	Pellet
Contamination (%)	Non-plastics	>30	>30	<30	<25	N/A	<20
	Plastics	>30	>30	<30	<5	N/A	<1
		No recycling	First recycling process		Ultimate recycling process		
		Bales or Bulk	Regrind/Flake		Agglomerate	Pellet	
Pre-consumer	Waste	Product	Product		Product	Product	
Post-consumer	Waste	Waste ⁱ	Waste ⁱⁱ		Waste	Product	

i - If priority washed (dry or wet) during the recycling process the regrind is a product.

ii - In the case of PVC, a regrind can be a product (as PVC is not always washed).

Figure 9.2. Rough estimates of the non-plastic material content of different plastic types and intermediates, and *a priori* suitability for end-of-waste (in blue or hashed shade).
Source: EuPC et al 2012²³⁰.

Several options of thresholds are possible, among others:

- A single, cross-cutting value for any shape and polymer type
- Two-value, three-value or four-value sets, e.g. one for granules, one for pellets and/or aggregates, one for flakes and shredded material, and one for cleaned material preserving the original shape. Distinction could also be made between pre- and post-consumer material, or between homogeneous or heterogeneous polymer mixes. If needed, the threshold can be formulated as a dynamic mathematic formula, dependent on a given variable (e.g. average grain size).
- A value for each main polymer type, likely close to the 1-8 codes of the SPI resin identification coding system.

A single value has the advantages of ease of understanding, communicating, implementing and controlling. However, it is also acknowledged that a single value would hardly address the intrinsic differences of the streams, (e.g. shapes and sizes, polymer types). It therefore cannot deliver to all grades the same incentive to improvement of e.g. sorting, or address specifically the parameters that distinguish for each grade a product vs. waste.

Most comments received from the TWG experts recommend, if feasible, the simplicity of a single value for use in all grades and polymer types.

Quantitative criteria are potentially the most burdensome in terms of monitoring costs. However, including such criteria relieves the inclusion of other alternative criteria, as it ensures that EoW waste plastic is essentially composed of plastic polymers and additives and very little else. This information, together with knowledge of the existing collection and reprocessing systems in use in the plastic sector in the EU, ensures that the material is of adequate quality for use as direct input for recycled plastic making. A low content of non- plastic components limits the amount of non- plastic traded (also out of the EU), and limits the amount of rejects that need treatment for recovery or disposal. The use of a quantitative criterion is in line with recent studies on the quality of output of MRFs (WRAP, 2009) and the use of this parameter as benchmark in waste plastic grading specifications such as ISRI and a number of CEN standards (15344, 15346, 15347, 15348:2007).

Setting single threshold has obviously benefits and limitations. On the negative side, it discriminates waste plastic containing e.g. an average content slightly over the threshold (e.g. $t+0.05\%$), as this would still be a valuable raw material for recycled plastic product manufacture. However, it is beneficial, as it conveys a simple and clear message that sets the benchmark of what is considered high quality, and a low risk for health or the environment. It has to be understood that the key issue is the distance to the threshold.

²³⁰ "JRC questions on the plastics' EoW Criteria", Joint comments to the first draft of this report, submitted by BVSE- Bundesverband Sekundärrohstoffe und Entsorgung e.V., CIRFS- European Man-made Fibres Association, EuPC- European Plastics Converters, EuPR- European Plastics Recyclers, FEAD- European Federation of Waste Management and Environmental Services, and Recovinyl.

If a material is still waste, the distance to the threshold is a driver for improvement, and if it has ceased to be waste, it is a mechanism to manage and reduce the frequency of sampling.

The non- plastic component content has to be ensured for each consignment as part of a quality assurance programme, but this does not mean that each consignment has been tested. If the producer can ensure through a statistically sound, transparent sampling plan available to auditing, that the average value (including the confidence intervals) of deliverables of the same grade and origin is below the threshold, this should be accepted. A risk-based sampling approach is thus suggested. Compared to random sampling, risk-based sampling can reduce both the sample size and the frequency of sampling in continuous survey plans, e.g. in consignments part of long-term delivery contracts. In the risk-based approach, information from previous surveys can reduce the sample size and frequency of sampling of the new surveys, while maintaining the overall level of confidence.

Normally a confidence level of 95% is used, indicating that the probability that the mean value of the content of non- plastic components in a sample is below the legal limit is 95%, or conversely, that the probability of the mean value of the sample being above the threshold is 2.5%. This implies that the mean concentration of the whole consignment plus the confidence interval needs to be below the threshold.

Usually, it is impractical to sample from the total consignment and a subset of it that can be considered representative will have to be defined as part of the quality assurance process. The scale of sampling needs to be chosen depending on the sales/dispatch structure of a reprocessor. The scale should correspond to the minimum quantity of material below which variations are judged to be unimportant.

The better the precision of the testing programme (the smaller the standard deviation and the narrower the confidence interval), the closer the mean concentrations may be allowed to be to the legal limit values. Once the confidence level is fixed, the two variables available for improving the behaviour of the material in relation to the threshold are (a) increasing the sample size (which is costly), or (b) reducing the standard deviation (which implies improving the homogeneity of the material and reducing the uncertainty about its content). The costs of a testing programme of waste plastic with very good quality (parameter values far from the limits) can therefore be held lower than for waste plastic with values that are closer to the limit. More statistics details on sampling plans are available in standard EN 16010:2009 (Plastics - Recycled plastics - Sampling procedures for testing plastics waste and recyclates).

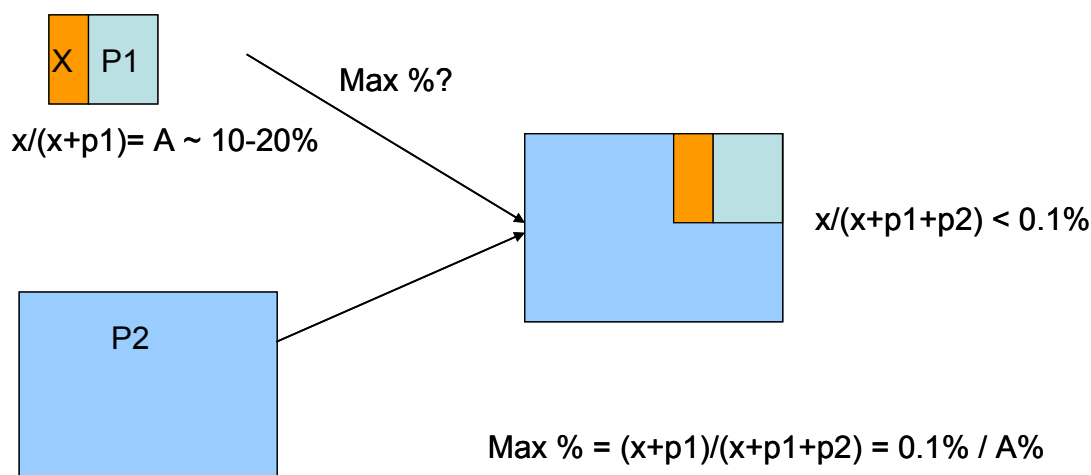
For plastics, any threshold above 1% would be easy to achieve for nearly all melt filtered (pelletised) material. By keeping far from the threshold, EoW condition would be achieved and the sampling effort is reduced to a minimum.

When a new reprocessing line or plant is licensed there is usually an initial phase of intensive testing to achieve a basic characterisation (for example one year) of the waste plastic generated. If this proves satisfactory, the further testing requirements are then usually reduced.

Visual inspection will be required in all cases, regardless of the frequency of the quantitative control done in parallel. Recent conclusions of a study comparing visual vs. quantitative inspection of MFR output (WRAP, 2009) indicate that large discrepancies are observed between these two methods of inspection. Large discrepancies are also observed within the methods, especially in visual inspection (e.g. plastic producer vs. reprocessor of the same consignment). Visual inspection is thus to be regarded as a complement and by no means a substitute of quantitative control

Synchronisation with the hazardous content criteria

In section 2.9.2.2, an example was provided of the cleanliness needed to ensure that the material was not classified as hazardous according to CLP, in the case that non-hazardousness cannot be demonstrated by other means (tests, upstream documentation, information bridging), and the concentration of hazardous substances had to be used as criterion. The concept is illustrated in Figure 2.43, replicated below. In the example, one calculates the maximum percentage (Max %) of a recycled plastic p1 containing A% (e.g. 10-20%) of a SVHC-classified additive (e.g. one of the brominated flame retardants of Table 4.1), marked X in the figure below, that could be mixed with other SVHC- free plastic p2 in a mixture or article before it triggers the hazardousness content communication of 0.1% in CLP. If A (additive content) is 20%, the maximum content of the surrounding plastic would be $0.001/0.2=0.005$, i.e. 0.5% of the mixture of plastics. If the SVHC content is 10%, the percentage of the plastic p1 would be 1%. A SVHC content of 10 to 20% is not unusual for certain parts of EE products, e.g. flame retardants in screens and printed circuits.



This means that in order to inform correctly downstream users about the hazard profile of the plastic, and fulfil their obligations on Arts 31, 32 or 33 of REACH, producers of recycled plastic mixes or articles have to be able to detect the presence of SVHC above 0.1%, and use this information to develop a sampling programme that based on their processes, estimated and communicates the likelihood of presence of these substances in continuous operation.

These values sets into context the role of the sampling effort required by EoW in relation to the non-plastic component content, compared to the characterisation effort needed to comply with product legislation (REACH, CLP and the POPs Regulations). Fulfilling the

requirements of the mentioned product legislation to ensure non-hazardousness and ensure correct communication obligations under REACH requires a high level of knowledge of the input and control of the contents in the output.

Conclusion from the analysis

One could summarise the arguments above, and the illustrative data of Figure 9.1, Figure 9.2 and Figure 2.43, as supportive elements for the proposal of a single, cross-cutting threshold for non-plastic components.

Based on the input from the TWG experts, a seemingly suitable numeric value for such threshold is 2%, as it appears that most regrind material would already be below the threshold, especially if it has undergone washing. Material further processed (melt filtration, pellets) would definitely meet (by far) the limit. Flake material of high purity may also meet this limit. Plastic from pre-consumer origin would in general meet the threshold with less need for sorting and reprocessing than post-consumer material. The meeting of the threshold by pre-consumer would depend on case-by-case conditions, as even non-shredded material (e.g. faulty batches of PET bottles) could meet the proposed degree of purity. However, it seems that in most cases except clean, pre-consumer streams, size reduction to flakes/regrind is associated with the separation and cleaning processes that would deliver compliant material.

Using this threshold range, process intermediates like agglomerates and pellets where a thorough non-plastic removal has not yet taken place would not qualify for end-of-waste.

Articles such as plastic lumber and outdoor furniture have high tolerance in terms of non-plastic material content, in the range of 5-15% (more rarely higher). But regardless of the non-plastic material content, the plastic material used for this purpose that is to be EoW has to meet product legislation, herewith REACH, POPs and CLP, and it must not be hazardous.

10 ANNEX III: NATIONAL CLASSIFICATION FOR RECOVERED PLASTICS IN FRANCE

CODE	Plastics type
01	PET
01-2-10	Film, sheet – colour
01-2-11	Collected bottles – colour
01-2-12	Collected bottles – natural
01-2-13	Collected bottles – azure
01-2-15	Collected bottles – all colours
01-1-10	Film – colour
01-1-11	Film – natural
01-1-12	Fibers –natural
01-1-13	Mixed injection/thermoforming – colour
01-1-14	Bottles – colour
01-1-15	Bottles – natural
01-1-16	Preform – opaque colour
01-1-17	Preform – translucent colour
01-1-18	Preform – natural
01-1-19	Thermoforming – colour
01-1-20	Thermoforming – natural
01-1-21	Purging – all colours
02	HDPE
02-2-20	Injection and extrusion (pipes, crates, pallets, containers, etc.)
02-2-21	From selective collection
02-1-20	Films – mixed or printed colour
02-1-21	Films – natural
02-1-22	Extrusion/injection – colour
02-1-23	Extrusion/injection – natural
02-1-24	Rotational moulding – colour and natural
03	PVC
03-2-29	Bottles – from collection
03-2-30	Colour items (pipes, drainpipes, crates, profiles, plates)
03-1-30	Crystal flexible
03-1-31	Flexible expanded/non-expanded – colour
03-1-32	Thermoforming – colour
03-1-33	Thermoforming – crystal

CODE	Plastics type
03-1-34	Woodwork with/without seal – colour
03-1-35	Woodwork with seal - white
03-1-36	Woodwork without seal - white
03-1-37	Mixed all colours (purging, pipes, plates)
03-1-38	Films – colour and printed
03-1-39	Films - crystal
04	LDPE
04-2-40	Mixed films (colour and natural, thick and thin)
04-2-41	Thick film cover – colour
04-2-42	Thick film cover – natural
04-2-43	Cling film – natural
04-2-44	Agriculture film
04-2-49	Construction site films
04-1-40	Films – all colour and/or printed
04-1-41	Films – natural
04-1-42	Injection/extrusion – colour
04-1-43	Injection/extrusion – natural
05	PP
05-2-50	Mixed films (bags, big-bags, cordage)
05-2-51	Mixed – colour and natural (plates, pipes, crates, bumpers, buckets, strips, jars)
05-1-50	Films – colour
05-1-51	Films – printed
05-1-52	Films – natural
05-1-53	PP/PE – white or non-talc
05-1-54	PP/PE colour
05-1-55	Non-woven - natural
05-1-56	Non-woven – white
05-1-57	Non-woven – colour
05-1-58	Extrusion and injection – colour
05-1-59	Extrusion and injection - natural
05-1-60	Expanded
06	PS
06-2-60	Injection and extrusion – colour (jars, hangers, inserts, reels)

CODE	Plastics type
06-1-60	Expanded
06-1-61	Extrusion – natural and white
06-1-62	Extrusion – colour
06-1-63	Injection – colour
06-1-64	Injection – natural and white
07	Others

CODE	Plastics type
08	ABS
08-2-80	Injection and extrusion – colour (dismantling)
08-1-80	Injection and extrusion – colour (AE or not)
08-1-81	Injection and extrusion – white (AE or not)
09	Technical plastics

11 ANNEX IV: ORIGINAL APPLICATION CATEGORIES USED FOR THE CLASSIFICATION IN PAS-103

General application category	Specific application category	
A Bottles	A1	Any pre-use applications, unfilled, without caps and labels (> 100 mL and < 5 L capacity)
	A2	Any pre-use applications, unfilled, without caps and labels (unspecified sizes)
	A3	Any post-use applications, excluding hazardous chemical and motor oil bottles, with associated labels and caps (> 100 mL and < 5 L)
	A4	Any post-use applications, excluding hazardous chemical and motor oil bottles, with associated labels and caps (unspecified size)
	A5	Any post-use applications, with associated caps and labels (> 100 mL and < 5 L capacity)
	A6	Any post-use applications, with associated caps and labels (unspecified sizes)
	A7	Any post-use application, excluding hazardous chemical and motor oil bottles, no caps (> 100 mL and < 5 L)
	A8	Any post-use application, excluding hazardous chemical and motor oil bottles, no caps (unspecified sizes)
	A9	Any post-use applications, no caps (> 100 mL and < 5 L)
	A10	Any post-use application , no caps (unspecified sizes)
	A11	Beer bottles
	A12	Post-use food oil bottles
	A13	Post-use motor oil bottles
	A14	Post-use pesticide bottles
	A15	Post-use toner bottles
	A20	Mixed applications in this category (assessor to specify)
	A30	Other specific application in this category (assessor to specify)
	A40	Unspecified bottles
B Bags	B1	Carrier bags
	B2	Polymer bags
	B3	Woven big bags and sacks
	B4	Fertiliser sacks
	B5	Other bags
	B6	Carton and box liners
	B20	Mixed application in this category (assessor to specify)
	B30	Other specific applications in this category (assessor to specify)
	B40	Unspecified bags
C Films and sheets	C1	Pallet stretch wrap
	C2	Pallet shrink wrap
	C3	Agricultural film
	C4	Food and cigarette packets (PP film only)
	C20	Mixed application in this category (assessor to specify)
	C30	Other specific applications in this category (assessor to specify)
	C40	Unspecified films and sheets
D Tubs, pots and small trays	D1	Spreads containers
	D2	Yoghurt containers
	D3	Jars
	D4	Buckets

General application category	Specific application category	
	D5	Plant pots
	D6	Paint pots
	D7	Disposable cups (non-foamed)
	D8	Small food trays
	D20	Mixed application in this category (assessor to specify)
	D30	Other specific applications in this category (assessor to specify)
	D40	Unspecified tubs, pots and small trays
E Crates, containers and large trays	E1	Pallets
	E2	Bottle crates
	E3	Food trays (e.g. bread trays)
	E4	Fish boxes (non-foamed)
	E5	Drums
	E6	Clear plastic boxes (e.g. CD cases)
	E20	Mixed application in this category (assessor to specify)
	E30	Other specific applications in this category (assessor to specify)
	E40	Unspecified crates, containers and large trays
F Expanded foam	F1	Block packaging
	F2	Loose fill
	F3	Food trays
	F4	Fish boxes
	F5	Flower pots trays
	F6	Disposable foam cups
	F20	Mixed application in this category (assessor to specify)
	F30	Other specific applications in this category (assessor to specify)
	F40	Unspecified expanded foam
G Rope, string and strapping	G1	Rope, string and strapping
	G40	Unspecified rope, string and strapping
Y Mixed and other plastics packaging applications	Y20	Mixed plastics packaging applications (assessor to specify)
	Y30	Other specific plastics packaging applications (assessor to specify)
	Y40	Unspecified plastics packaging applications
Z Mixed waste (i.e. includes other than plastics packaging waste)	Z20	Mixed waste (assessor to specify)
	Z40	Unspecified mixed waste

Colour categories used in PAS-103

Colour code	Colour description
P1	Natural (i.e. no visible pigmentation present)
P2	Natural with tint (e.g. clear tinted water bottles)
P3	Single colour (i.e. no visible colour variation in the batch)
P4	Single colour, mixed shades (i.e. various shades of the same colour)
P5	Mixed colours (commonly referred to as 'jazz')

12 ANNEX V: TYPOLOGIES OF PLASTIC WASTE IN GERMANY

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
Supplementary sheet	The supplementary sheet is part of all the other specifications included in this table Description: The system compatibility of a piece of packaging, also in respect of the product filled into it, is the prerequisite for licensing and will be checked by an expert as required. Basically, only unground products from the sorting process of light weight packaging arising from household collection systems that are operated by contract partners of the Duales System Deutschland GmbH will be accepted. Purity: The purity of the sorting fraction will be determined by sampling in accordance with LAGA PN 2/98 (status: December 2001) and subsequent analysis (e.g. manual sorting and weighing or chemical analysis). Impurities: Impurities are substances with technically complicate or impede the recycling of the sorting fraction, without specifying complication or prevention in the individual case. Impurities are all materials and articles that are not described under Point A (specification/description). These include for instance: Packaging made of other sorting fractions which do not comply with the specification. Materials not covered by the system which have been incorrectly placed in the collection system. etc. The fractions of individual impurities or groups of impurities are limited separately as far as this is technically necessary. The maximum total amount of impurities is the percentage of all impurities in the fraction and must not be exceeded in any case.
Plastic films Fraction-No. 310	Description: Used, completely emptied, system-compatible articles made of plastic film, surface > DIN A4, e.g. bags, carrier bags and shrink-wrapping film, including packaging parts such as labels etc. Purity: At least 92 mass %²³¹ in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 8 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g are not permitted. Other metal articles: < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles: < 4 mass % Other residual materials: < 4 mass % Examples of impurities: glass, paper and cardboard, composite paper/cardboard materials (e.g. beverage cartons), aluminised plastics, other materials (e.g. rubber, stones, wood, textiles, nappies), compostable waste (e.g. food, garden waste) Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 23 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with Duales System Deutschland (DSD) bale label stating the sorting

²³¹ In percentage of weight

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
	plant No., fraction No. and production date
Mixed plastic bottles Fraction-No. 320	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible packaging made of plastic, volume ≤ 5 litres, e.g. detergent and household cleaner bottles, including packaging parts such as caps, labels etc. Purity: At least 94 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 6 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g and cartridges for sealants are not permitted Other metal articles: < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles: < 3 mass % Other residual materials: < 3 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 14 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Polyolefin plastic bottles Fraction-No. 321	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible sales packaging made of plastic, excluding PET-bottles (transparent), volume ≤ 5 liter, e.g. detergent- and household cleaner bottles including packaging parts like caps, labels etc. Purity: At least 94 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Maximum total amount of impurities: 6 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g and cartridges for sealants are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles < 3 mass % Other residual materials < 3 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 15 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Plastic hollow bodies Fractions-No. 322	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible sales articles made of plastic, bottles > 5 litres, buckets, cans, large containers ≤ 200 litres, incl. packaging parts such as lids, labels etc. Purity: At least 94 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 6 mass %

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
	Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles < 3 mass % Other residual materials < 3 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 14 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Polypropylene Fraction-No. 324	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible articles made of polypropylene, volume ≤ 5 litres, e.g. bottles, dishes and tubs, incl. packaging parts such as caps, lids, labels etc. Purity: At least 94 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 6 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g and cartridges for sealants are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Rigid PE articles < 1 mass % Expanded plastics incl. EPS articles < 0.5 mass % Plastic films < 2 mass % Other residual materials < 3 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 17 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
PET bottles, transparent Fraction-No. 325	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible packaging made of polyethylene terephthalate, volume ≤ 5 litres, e.g. soft drink and mineral water bottles, incl. packaging parts such as caps, labels etc. Purity: At least 98 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 2 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Opaque PET bottles, other PET packaging and other plastic articles < 2 mass % EPS articles < 0.5 mass % PVC articles < 0.1 mass % Other residual materials < 2 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
	Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 14 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Mixed PET 90 / 10 Fraction-No. 328-1	Description: Used, residue-drained dimensionally stable, system-compatible packages made of polyethylene terephthalate (PET), volume ≤ 5 litres in the following composition: 1. transparent bottles, e.g. washing-up-liquid bottles, beverage bottles 2. other dimensionally stable PET packages, e.g. beakers, bowls Clear, coloured, opaque, including ancillary constituents such as closures, labels, etc. Purity: At least 90 % PET bottles, transparent Maximally 10 % other dimensionally stable packages made of PET Impurities: Maximum total content of impurities: 2 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with a unit weight of > 100 g must not be contained! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles < 2 mass % PVC articles < 0.1 mass % Other residual materials < 2 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimensions and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 14 t stored in a dry place produced using commercially available bale presses identified by bale tags provided with Sorting Line Number, Fraction Number and production date
Mixed PET 70 / 30 Fraction-No. 328-2	Description: Used, residue-drained dimensionally stable, system-compatible packages made of polyethylene terephthalate (PET), volume ≤ 5 litres in the following composition: 1. transparent bottles, e.g. washing-up-liquid bottles, beverage bottles 2. other dimensionally stable PET packages, e.g. beakers, bowls Clear, coloured, opaque, including ancillary constituents such as closures, labels, etc. Purity: At least 70 % PET bottles, transparent Maximally 30 % other dimensionally stable packages made of PET Impurities: Maximum total content of impurities: 2 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with a unit weight of > 100 g must not be contained! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles < 2 mass % PVC articles < 0.1 mass % Other residual materials < 2 mass %

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
	Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimensions and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 14 t stored in a dry place produced using commercially available bale presses identified by bale tags provided with Sorting Line Number, Fraction Number and production date
Mixed PET 50 / 50 Fraction-No. 328-3	Description: Used, residue-drained dimensionally stable, system-compatible packages made of polyethylene terephthalate (PET), volume ≤ 5 litres in the following composition: 1. transparent bottles, e.g. washing-up-liquid bottles, beverage bottles 2. other dimensionally stable PET packages, e.g. beakers, bowls Clear, coloured, opaque, including ancillary constituents such as closures, labels, etc. Purity: At least 50 % PET bottles, transparent Maximally 50 % other dimensionally stable packages made of PET Impurities: Maximum total content of impurities: 2 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with a unit weight of > 100 g must not be contained! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles < 2 mass % PVC articles < 0.1 mass % Other residual materials < 2 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimensions and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 14 t stored in a dry place produced using commercially available bale presses identified by bale tags provided with Sorting Line Number, Fraction Number and production date
Polyethylene Fraction-No. 329	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible articles made of polyethylene, volume ≤ 5 litres, e.g. bottles and dishes, incl. packaging parts such as caps, lids, labels etc. Purity: At least 94 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 6 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g and cartridges for sealants are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Dimensionally stable PP articles < 3 mass % Foamed plastics incl. EPS articles < 0.5 mass % Plastic films < 5 mass % Other residual materials < 3 mass % Delivery form:

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
	Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 17 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Cups Fraction-No. 330	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible sales packaging made of plastic, volume ≤ 1 litre, e.g. yoghurt and margarine tubs, incl. packaging parts such as lids, labels etc. Purity: At least 94 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 6 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Other plastic articles < 3 mass % Other residual materials < 3 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 17 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Polystyrene Fraction-No. 331	Description: Used, completely emptied, rigid, system-compatible articles made of polystyrene, volume ≤ 1 litre, e.g. tubs and dishes, incl. packaging parts such as lids, labels etc. Purity: At least 94 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 6 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Expanded plastics incl. EPS articles < 1 mass % Other plastic articles < 4 mass % Other residual materials < 2 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 19 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Expanded polystyrene Fraction-No. 340	Description: Used, completely emptied, system-compatible packaging made of coarse-grained, white expanded polystyrene, incl. packaging parts such as labels etc.

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
	Purity: At least 97 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 3 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g and packaging chips are not permitted! Other metal articles < 0.5 mass % Delivery form: in 1 m³ or 2.5 m³ big bags or Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 0,7 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Mixed plastics Fraction-No. 350	Description: Used, completely emptied, system-compatible articles made of plastics that are typical for packaging (PE, PP, PS, PET) incl. packaging parts such as caps, lids, labels etc. Purity: At least 90 mass % in accordance with the Specification/Description. Impurities: Max. total amount of impurities: 10 mass % Metallic and mineral impurities with an item weight of > 100 g are not permitted! Paper, cardboard < 5 mass % Other metal articles < 2 mass % PET bottles, transparent < 4 mass % PVC articles other than packaging < 0.5 mass % Other residual materials < 3 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 21 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date
Preliminary Product for RDF (Refused Derived Fuel) Fraction-No. 365	Description: A1. Used, completely emptied system-compatible articles made from plastics used for packaging (PE, PP, PS, PET) as well as paper, cardboard, paper board containers and paper composites, including packaging parts such as labels etc. A2. Other chemical-physical parameters²³². Purity: At least 90 mass % in accordance with the Material description (A1.)

²³² Details available here :

http://www.gruener-punkt.de/fileadmin/user_upload/Seiteninhalt/Dateien/DKR_Kunststoffverwertung/pdf_eng/365_Preliminary_Product_for_RDF_Refused_Derived_Fuel.pdf

Sorting fraction	Characteristics
	Impurities: Maximum total amount of impurities: 10 mass % Massive impurities with an item weight of > 100 g are not permitted. Metal < 2 mass % Textiles and shoes (clothing- and homebound textiles, other textiles) < 2 mass % Electric powered and electronic articles < 0.5 mass-% PVC-articles < 0.5 mass % Other impurities < 7 mass % Delivery form: Transportable bales Dimension and density of the bales must be chosen so as to ensure that a tarpaulin truck (loading area 12.60 m x 2.40 m; lateral loading height min. 2.60 m) can be loaded with a minimum loading of 23 t Dry-stored Produced with conventional bale presses Identified with DSD bale label stating the sorting plant No., fraction No. and production date

13 ANNEX VI: CRITERIA

This Annex presents a compact version of the proposed criteria for end-of-waste on waste plastic, without explanatory text, to allow an overall perception of the set of criteria, and how the criteria depend on each other as a package (some sentences have been reformulated in this compact version as to make clear these dependencies across the text).

CRITERIA DETERMINING WHEN CERTAIN TYPES OF PLASTIC WASTE CEASE TO BE WASTE

Waste plastic²³³ shall cease to be waste where, after being processed, and upon transfer (commercially, not physically) from the producer to another holder, or prior to its use at a converter, it complies with all the following criteria and conditions:

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
1. Quality of waste plastic resulting from the recovery operation	
1.1 The waste plastic shall comply with a customer specification, or an industry specification for direct use in the production of plastic substances or objects by re-melting in plastic manufacturing facilities. When applicable, the following standards on characterisation of plastic recyclates shall be used: – For polystyrene: EN 15342 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polystyrene (PS) recyclates – For polyethylene: EN 15344 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polyethylene (PE) recyclates – For polypropylene: EN 15345 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of polypropylene (PP) recyclates – For poly(vinyl chloride): EN 15346 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of poly(vinyl chloride) (PVC) recyclates For poly(ethylene terephthalate): EN 15348 Plastics. Recycled plastics. Characterization of poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET) recyclates	Qualified staff²³⁴ shall verify that each batch in the consignment complies with the appropriate specification.

²³³ The term *plastic recyclate* can be used instead of *plastic waste* in the formulation of the Regulation. The term plastic waste was used in the first phases of the discussions with the TWG, well knowing that substitute terms may be proposed later on. In the last phases of the work, the term *plastic recyclate* seems to have gained support by a growing number of stakeholders from the TWG.

²³⁴ Qualified staff is defined as: staff who are qualified by experience or training to monitor and assess the properties of the waste plastic.

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
1.2 The non-plastic component content shall be ≤ 2 % of moisture-free weight²³⁵. A non-plastic component is any material different from plastic, which is present in waste plastic for recycling. Examples of non-plastic components are metals, paper, glass, natural textiles, earth, sand, ash, dust, wax, bitumen, ceramics, rubber, organic matter and wood, except when these materials are integral constituents of the plastic structure before it is re-melt, such as talc, limestone, glassfibre or wood fibres used as fillers and structural or mechanical reinforcements. (*)²³⁶	Qualified staff shall carry out visual inspection²³⁷ of each batch in the consignment. At appropriate intervals subject to review if significant changes in the operating process are made, representative samples of the moisture-free waste plastic shall be analysed gravimetrically to measure the content and nature of non-plastic components. The non-plastic components content shall be analysed by weighing in moisture-free condition after mechanical or manual (as appropriate) separation of materials under careful visual inspection. When the material has undergone thermal treatment to agglomerate or pelletise it, the determination of the content of non-plastic components has to be carried out at the latest stage of reprocessing before thermal treatment is applied to the plastic to agglomerate or pelletise it. Complementary analytical techniques may be used in the determination of the non-plastic component content, such as chromatography or infrared spectroscopy, especially for the purpose of inspection. The appropriate frequencies of monitoring by sampling shall be established taking into account the following factors: • (1) the expected pattern of variability (for example as shown by historical results); • (2) the inherent risk of variability in the quality of the waste used as input for the recovery operation and any subsequent processing, for instance the higher average content of metals or glass in waste plastic from multi-material collection systems;

235 Please note that there is currently no standard for the determination of moisture-free conditions of plastics. The standards on recyclates cited in Criterion 1.1 include reference to moisture determination, but this is based on the adoption of methods for moisture characterisation of non-plastic products!

²³⁶ (*) An alternative formulation for Criterion 1.2 has also been assessed. The formulation is based on a 2-tier proposal: the criterion is met if recyclates contain <2% impurities, but it can also be met if the impurity content is >2% AND additional evidence is provided that the material is used for conversion into articles, e.g. in the form of a signed declaration issued by the client (converter). The pros/cons of this alternative are described in Chapter 4 (description of impacts).

237 "visual inspection" means inspection of consignments using either or all human senses such as vision, touch and smell and any non-specialised equipment. Visual inspection shall be carried out in such a way that all representative parts of a consignment are covered. This may often best be achieved in the delivery area during loading or unloading and before packing. It may involve manual manipulations such as the opening of containers, other sensorial controls (feel, smell) or the use of appropriate portable sensors.

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
	• (3) the inherent precision of the monitoring method; and • (4) the proximity of results to the limitation of the non-plastic components content to a maximum of 2 % of moisture –free weight. The process of determining monitoring frequencies shall be documented as part of the management system and shall be available for auditing.
1.3 The waste plastic shall not be classified as hazardous following the definitions in Article 3 and Annex I of Regulation EC/1272/2008 (CLP). shall meet the conditions of commercialisation of substances of very high concern (SVHC) laid out in Article 56 of Regulation EC/1907/2006 (REACH). shall meet the prescriptions about the restriction of the commercialisation of persistent organic pollutants laid out in Article 3 of Regulation 850/2004/EC (POPs)²³⁸.	The assessment of REACH compliance, and in particular determination of hazardousness has to be concluded from a qualitative and quantitative characterisation of the plastic material in the consignment²³⁹. At appropriate intervals subject to review if significant changes in the operating process are made, representative samples of waste plastic shall be analysed to measure the content and nature of hazardous substances, and the extent to which users of the waste plastic or the environment are exposed to contact with these substances. The appropriate frequencies of monitoring by sampling shall be established taking into account the following factors: • (1) the expected pattern of variability (for example as shown by historical results); • (2) the inherent risk of variability in the quality of the waste used as input for the recovery operation and any subsequent processing, for instance the higher average content of plastics containing hazardous substances; • (3) the inherent precision of the monitoring method; and • (4) the proximity of results to the concentration thresholds that render the material hazardous or restrict their commercialisation. The procedure of recognising hazardous materials shall be documented under the management system, and shall be available for auditing.

²³⁸ OJ L L 229, 30.4.2004, p. 1. on POPs, as amended in Regulations 757/2010 and 756/2010.

²³⁹ this information should be derived from the characterization needed for compliance with REACH, CLP and POPs regulations .

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
	In addition to quantitative characterisation, qualified staff shall carry out visual inspection²⁴⁰ of each batch in the consignment. The staff shall be trained on potential hazardous properties that may be associated with waste plastic and on material components or features that allow recognising the hazardous properties visually.
1.4 Waste plastic shall not contain leachable fluids such as oil, solvents, glues, paint, aqueous and/or fatty foodstuffs, that can be detected by visual inspection and olfactory test, except for negligible amounts that will not lead to any dripping.	Qualified staff shall carry out a visual inspection of each consignment. Where visual inspection reveals the presence of signs of fluids except water, that may result in e.g. mould growth or odours, and these signs are non-negligible, the consignment shall remain waste. The staff shall be trained on potential types of contamination that may be associated with waste plastic and on material components or features that allow recognising the contaminants. The procedure of recognising contamination shall be documented under the management system.
2. Waste used as input for the recovery operation	
2.1 Bio-waste, health care waste, and used products of personal hygiene shall not be used as input. 2.2 Hazardous waste shall not be used as an input except where proof is provided that the processes and techniques specified in Section 3 of these Criteria to remove all hazardous properties have been applied.	Acceptance control of all plastic-containing waste received by visual inspection and of the accompanying documentation shall be carried out by qualified staff which is trained on how to recognise plastic-containing input that does not fulfil the criteria set out in this section. Particular attention shall be placed to the absence of hazardous components in plastic material input originated from electric and electronic equipment waste (WEEE), construction and demolition waste, and end-of-life vehicles (ELV). The procedure of recognising hazardous materials shall be documented under the management system.
3. Treatment processes and techniques	
3.1 Waste plastic streams used as input shall, once received by the producer or importer, be kept	Particular attention shall be placed to the

²⁴⁰ "visual inspection" means inspection of consignments using either or all human senses such as vision, touch and smell and any non-specialised equipment. Visual inspection shall be carried out in such a way that all representative parts of a consignment are covered. This may often best be achieved in the delivery area during loading or unloading and before packing. It may involve manual manipulations such as the opening of containers, other sensorial controls (feel, smell) or the use of appropriate portable sensors.

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
permanently separate from the contact with any other waste, including other waste plastic grades. 3.2 All treatments needed to prepare the waste plastic for direct input in a free flowing form to manufacturing of plastic products, such as de-baling, sorting, separating, size-reducing, cleaning, melting, filtering, regranulating, or grading, shall have been completed. 3.3 For waste containing hazardous substances, the following specific requirements shall apply: (a) input materials that originate from waste electrical or electronic equipment or from end-of-life vehicles shall have undergone all treatments required by Article 8 of Directive 2012/19/EU of the European Parliament and of the Council (WEEE) and by Article 6 of Directive 2000/53/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council (ELVs); (b) hazardous waste that is not mentioned in point (a) shall have been efficiently removed in a process which is approved by the competent authority.	processing of input materials that may contain hazardous components in plastic, especially electric and electronic equipment waste (WEEE), construction and demolition waste, and end-of-life vehicles (ELV). Treatment techniques resulting in the mixing of these materials, such as shredding before removal of hazardous substances, shall be avoided.
4. Provision of information	
4.1 Waste plastic that has ceased to be waste is only intended for use in the manufacture of plastic through conversion processes. Waste plastic consignments shall be specifically labelled with a statement on this intended use. The statement of conformity of the consignment shall include a section with the statement: <i>'The material in this consignment is intended exclusively for the manufacture of plastic products'.</i> Waste plastic that has ceased to be waste is within the scope of Regulations (EC) No 1907/2006 concerning the Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), and (EC) No 1272/2008 on classification, labelling and packaging of substances and mixtures (CLP). A prominent role is given to the procedures laid out in these Regulations for the determination of hazardousness, completed with a reference to Regulation (EC) No 850/2004 on persistent organic pollutants (POPs).	

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
In this regard, the statement of conformity of the consignment shall include a section with the statement: <i>'The material in this consignment is not classified as hazardous, following the definitions in Article 3 and Annex I of Regulation EC/1272/2008 (CLP), and meets the prescriptions on commercialisation of substances of very high concern (SVHC) laid out in Article 56 of Regulation EC/1907/2006 REACH, and the restriction of the commercialisation of persistent organic pollutants laid out in Article 3 of Regulation 850/2004/EC (POPs).'</i>	
5. Management system	
5.1 The producer shall implement a management system suitable to demonstrate compliance with the EoW criteria. The management system shall include a set of documented procedures concerning each of the following aspects: (a) monitoring of the quality of waste plastic resulting from the recovery operation (including sampling and analysis); (b) monitoring of the treatment processes and techniques; (c) acceptance control of waste used as input for the recovery operation; (d) feedback from customers concerning the product quality; (e) record keeping of the results of monitoring conducted under points (a) to (d); (f) review and improvement of the management system; (g) training of staff. The management system shall also prescribe the specific monitoring requirements set out for each criterion. The management system of the supplier shall be certified by a conformity assessment body which is accredited by an accreditation body successfully peer evaluated for this activity by the body recognised in Article 14 of Regulation (EC) 765/2008; or by an environmental verifier which is accredited or licensed by an accreditation or licensing body according to	

Criteria	Self-monitoring requirements
Regulation (EC) No 1221/2009 which is also subject to peer evaluation according to Article 31 of that Regulation, respectively. Verifiers who want to operate in third countries must obtain a specific accreditation or licence, in accordance with the specifications laid down in Regulation (EC) No 765/2008 or Regulation (EC) No 1221/2009, the latter together with Commission Decision 2011/832/EU. The importer shall require his suppliers to implement a management system which complies with these requirements and has been verified by an independent external verifier. A conformity assessment body, as defined in Regulation (EC) No 765/2008, which has obtained accreditation in accordance with that Regulation, or an environmental verifier, as defined in Art 2 (20) (b) of Regulation (EC) No 1221/2009, which is accredited or licensed in accordance with that Regulation, shall verify that the management system complies with the requirements of this Article (2(20)(b)). The verification shall be carried out every three years. Only verifiers with the following scopes of accreditation or licence based on the NACE Codes as specified in Regulation (EC) No 1893/2006 are regarded to have sufficient specific experience to perform the verification mentioned in this Regulation: – * NACE Code 38 (Waste collection, treatment and disposal activities; material recovery); or – * NACE Code 20 (Manufacture of chemicals and chemical products); or – * NACE Code 22 (Manufacture of rubber and plastic products) The producer shall give competent authorities access to the management system upon request.	

The producer or the importer shall issue, for each consignment of waste plastic, a statement of conformity as set out below. The producer or the importer shall transmit the statement of conformity to the next holder of the consignment. They shall retain a copy of the statement of conformity for at least one year after its date of issue and shall make it available to competent authorities upon request. The statement of conformity may be issued as an electronic document.

Statement of Conformity with the end-of-waste criteria

1.	Producer/importer of the waste plastic: Name: Address Contact person Telephone: Fax: E-mail:
2.	a) The name or code of the waste plastic category in accordance with an industry specification or standard. b) Content of non-plastic components, in percentage points of moisture-free weight ($\leq 2\%$) ²⁴¹.
3.	Quantity of the consignment in kg.
4.	The plastic consignment complies with the industry specification or standard referred to in point 2.
5.	This consignment meets the criteria referred to in Regulation No.. <i>[to be inserted once the regulation is adopted]</i> ,
6.	The producer of the plastic applies a management system complying with the requirements of Regulation No <i>[to be inserted once the regulation adopted]</i> , and which has been verified by an accredited conformity assessment body or by an environmental verifier or, where plastic which has ceased to be waste is imported into the customs territory of the Union, by an independent external verifier.
7.	The material in this consignment is intended exclusively for the manufacture of plastic products via conversion.
8.	'The material in this consignment is not classified as hazardous, following the definitions in Article 3 and Annex I of Regulation EC/1272/2008 (CLP), and meets the prescriptions on the commercialisation of substances of very high concern (SVHC) laid out in Article 56 of Regulation EC/1907/2006 REACH, and the restriction of the commercialisation of persistent organic pollutants laid out in Article 3 of Regulation 850/2004/EC (POPs)'.
9.	Declaration of the producer/importer of the plastic: I certify that the above information is complete and correct and to my best knowledge: Name: _____ Date: _____ Signature: _____

Note 1: Items 2(a), 2(b), and 8 are a highlight of key information issues already required under item 5, which refers to quality criteria no. 1.1., 1.2, and 1.3 in which these items are included. They are a reiteration, but worth to include in the DoC given their prominence in the determination of EoW.

241 If appropriate, one may introduce an additional point under (2): (c) if the content of non-plastic components is >2% in percentage points of moisture-free weight, additional proof of mechanical recycling is requested from the converter that takes ownership of the consignment, in the form of a signed declaration that as a minimum specifies the following information:

- ☐ Contact data of the destination facility: (name, full address, postcode and country, contact person, telephone, fax, e-mail);
- ☐ Reference to the load of the consignment, such as a load reference number, or a description and total amount that allows a 1:1 correlation to the Statement of Conformity.
- ☐ Signed declaration from the destination facility that the intended use of the full load of the material in the consignment is the direct conversion into an article.

Note 2: In similar formulations for other EoW materials, some experts suggest that Point 2(b) bears a clarification note where it states that it will not be possible to state the content of non-plastic components for every consignment of waste plastic. The Management Systems and risk-based monitoring will provide a level of confidence that the consignment is below the agreed % threshold, but will not provide an actual measurement for every consignment. The statement of conformity would in that case clarify that the results of the risk-based monitoring demonstrate compliance with the agreed % threshold on non-plastic components. This has not been included in the current proposal, as (1) compliance with the limits is required in all cases, and (2) the self-monitoring requirements include the essential demands to sampling.

Note 3: If appropriate, item 7 can relate to the provision of a declaration from a converter of the intended use of the material for conversion into articles.

14 ANNEX VII – CURRENT STATUS OF ANNEX XIV IN REACH (LIST OF SUBSTANCES OF VERY HIGH CONCERN –SVHC)

Annex XIV sets the list of substances subject to authorisation obligations. Taking into account the first recommendation of priority substances for inclusion in Annex XIV adopted by ECHA on 1st June 2009, the Commission adopted on 17 February 2011 a Commission Regulation (143/2011) including the first six substances of very high concern in the list of substances subject to authorisation, followed by eight additional ones through Commission Regulation (EU) No 125/2012.

These substances of very high concern were on the list of candidates since 28 October 2008, and will be banned within the next three to five years unless an authorisation has been granted to individual companies for their use. These substances are carcinogenic, toxic for reproduction or persist in the environment and accumulate in living organisms. The substances are the following²⁴²:

Substance Name	EC Number	CAS Number	Sunset date	Latest application date
Hexabromocyclododecane (HBCDD), alpha-hexabromocyclododecane, beta-hexabromocyclododecane, gamma-hexabromocyclododecane	221-695-9, Å 247-148-4	3194-55-6, 25637-99-4, 134237-50-6, 134237-51-7, 134237-52-8	21-08-2015	21-02-2014
Benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP)	201-622-7	85-68-7	21-02-2015	21-08-2013
Bis(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP)	204-211-0	117-81-7	21-02-2015	21-08-2013
Dibutyl phthalate (DBP)	201-557-4	84-74-2	21-02-2015	21-08-2013
5-tert-butyl-2,4,6-trinitro-m-xylene (Musk xylene)	201-329-4	81-15-2	21-08-2014	21-02-2013
4,4-Diaminodiphenylmethane (MDA)	202-974-4	101-77-9	21-08-2014	21-02-2013
2,4 Dinitrotoluene (2,4-DNT)	204-450-0	121-14-2	21-08-2015	21-02-2014
Tris(2-chloroethyl)phosphate (TCEP)	204-118-5	115-96-8	21-08-2015	21-02-2014
Diarsenic pentaoxide	215-116-9	1303-28-2	21-05-2015	21-11-2013
Lead sulfochromate yellow (C.I. Pigment Yellow 34)	215-693-7	1344-37-2	21-05-2015	21-11-2013
Diarsenic trioxide	215-481-4	1327-53-3	21-05-2015	21-11-2013
Lead chromate	231-846-0	7758-97-6	21-05-2015	21-11-2013
Lead chromate molybdate sulphate red (C.I. Pigment Red 104)	235-759-9	12656-85-8	21-05-2015	21-11-2013
Diisobutyl phthalate (DIBP)	201-553-2	84-69-5	21-02-2015	21-08-2013

As it can be seen, the list includes a number of plastics additives: four low molecular weight phthalates used in PVC, a flame retardant (Hexabromocyclododecane) used in PS foam, and a number of pigments (lead chromates).

ECHA has launched in 2012 a public consultation on additional 54 potential SVHC²⁴³, in which interested parties can post by a deadline their comments via the ECHA website.

²⁴² See <http://echa.europa.eu/web/guest/addressing-chemicals-of-concern/authorisation/recommendation-for-inclusion-in-the-authorisation-list/authorisation-list>

²⁴³ See http://echa.europa.eu/web/guest/view-article/-/journal_content/512b7526-9dd6-4872-934e-8c298c89ad99

Comments should provide information concerning the identity of the substances or on their PBT/vPvB or 'equivalent concern' properties. The Member State Committee will take these comments into account when seeking agreement on the identification of all proposed substances as SVHCs. No account will, however, be taken by the Committee of comments on CMR properties where harmonised classification is laid down in Annex VI of the regulation on classification, labelling and packaging of hazardous substances and mixtures (CLP Regulation).

Furthermore, ECHA invites the submission of information on the uses of the substances. This would include data on tonnages per use and exposures or releases resulting from these uses. Information on the availability of safer alternative substances and techniques as well as the structure of supply chains is also welcome. ECHA will consider this information when recommending SVHCs for inclusion in the Authorisation List (Annex XIV) to join the existing 6 substances.

Information on the identity of the substances and the reasons for their proposal as SVHCs is available at ECHA's consultation web pages and on their uses in the registered substances database.

The substances currently on the candidate list as SVHC and reasons for their inclusion are:

Substance Name	EC Number	CAS Number	Date of inclusion	Reason for inclusion
Bis[4-(dimethylamino)phenyl]-4-(phenylamino)naphthalene-1-methanol (C.I. Solvent Blue 4)	229-851-8	6786-83-0	41078	Carcinogenic (Article 57a)
N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-4,4'-methylenedianiline	202-959-2	101-61-1	41078	Carcinogenic (Article 57a)
1,3,5-tris[(2S and 2R)-2,3-epoxypropyl]-1,3,5-triazine-2,4,6-(1H,3H,5H)-trione (I ² -TGIC)	423-400-0	59653-74-6	41078	Mutagenic (Article 57b)
Diboron trioxide	215-125-8	1303-86-2	41078	Toxic for reproduction (Article 57 c)
1,2-bis(2-methoxyethoxy)ethane (TEGDME; triglyme)	203-977-3	112-49-2	41078	Toxic for reproduction (Article 57 c)
4,4'-bis(dimethylamino)-4''-(methylamino)trityl alcohol	209-218-2	561-41-1	41078	Carcinogenic (Article 57a)
Lead(II) bis(methanesulfonate)	401-750-5	17570-76-2	41078	Toxic for reproduction (Article 57 c)
Formamide	200-842-0	75-12-7	41078	Toxic for reproduction (Article 57 c)
[4-[4,4'-bis(dimethylamino)benzhydrylidene]cyclohexa-2,5-dien-1-ylidene]dimethylammonium chloride (C.I. Basic Violet 3)	208-953-6	548-62-9	41078	Carcinogenic (Article 57a)
1,2-dimethoxyethane; ethylene glycol dimethyl ether (EGDME)	203-794-9	110-71-4	41078	Toxic for reproduction (Article 57 c)
[4-[[4-anilino-1-naphthyl][4-(dimethylamino)phenyl]methylene]cyclohexa-2,5-dien-1-ylidene]dimethylammonium chloride (C.I. Basic Blue 26) >	219-943-6	2580-56-5	41078	Carcinogenic (Article 57a)
1,3,5-Tris(oxiran-2-ylmethyl)-1,3,5-triazinane-2,4,6-trione (TGIC)	219-514-3	2451-62-9	41078	Mutagenic (Article 57b)
4,4'-bis(dimethylamino)benzophenone (Michler's ketone)	202-027-5	90-94-8	41078	Carcinogenic (Article 57a)

				Equivalent level of concern having probable serious effects to the environment (article 57 f)
4-(1,1,3,3-tetramethylbutyl)phenol	205-426-2	140-66-9	40896	
N,N-dimethylacetamide	204-826-4	127-19-5	40896	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
Phenolphthalein	201-004-7	77-09-8	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Lead diazide, Lead azide	236-542-1	13424-46-9	40896	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c),
Lead dipicrate	229-335-2	6477-64-1	40896	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
1,2-dichloroethane	203-458-1	107-06-2	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Calcium arsenate	231-904-5	7778-44-1	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Dichromium tris(chromate)	246-356-2	24613-89-6	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
2-Methoxyaniline; o-Anisidine	201-963-1	90-04-0	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Pentazinc chromate octahydroxide	256-418-0	49663-84-5	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Arsenic acid	231-901-9	7778-39-4	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Potassium hydroxyoctaoxodizincatedichromate	234-329-8	11103-86-9	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Formaldehyde, oligomeric reaction products with aniline	500-036-1	25214-70-4	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Lead styphnate	239-290-0	15245-44-0	40896	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
Trilead diarsenate	222-979-5	3687-31-8	40896	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
Zirconia Aluminosilicate			40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Bis(2-methoxyethyl) phthalate	204-212-6	117-82-8	40896	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
Aluminosilicate Refractory Ceramic Fibres			40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Bis(2-methoxyethyl) ether	203-924-4	111-96-6	40896	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
2,2'-dichloro-4,4'-methylenedianiline	202-918-9	101-14-4	40896	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Cobalt dichloride	231-589-4	7646-79-9	2011/06/20 - 2008/10/28	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
1,2-Benzenedicarboxylic acid, di-C6-8-branched alkyl esters, C7-rich	276-158-1	71888-89-6	40714	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
1,2-Benzenedicarboxylic acid, di-C7-11-branched and linear alkyl esters	271-084-6	68515-42-4	40714	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
Strontium chromate	232-142-6	2151068	40714	Carcinogenic (article 57a)
1-Methyl-2-pyrrolidone	212-828-1	872-50-4	40714	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
1,2,3-Trichloropropane	202-486-1	96-18-4	40714	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)

2-Ethoxyethyl acetate	203-839-2	111-15-9	40714	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
Hydrazine	206-114-9	302-01-2, 7803-57-8	40714	Carcinogenic (article 57a)
Cobalt(II) diacetate	200-755-8	71-48-7	40527	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
Cobalt(II) sulphate	233-334-2	10124-43-3	40527	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
2-Ethoxyethanol	203-804-1	110-80-5	40527	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
Acids generated from chromium trioxide and their oligomers. Names of the acids and their oligomers: Chromic acid, Dichromic acid, Oligomers of chromic acid and dichromic acid.	231-801-5, 236-881-5	7738-94-5, 13530-68-2	40527	Carcinogenic (article 57a)
2-Methoxyethanol	203-713-7	109-86-4	40527	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
Chromium trioxide	215-607-8	1333-82-0	40527	Carcinogenic and mutagenic (articles 57 a and 57 b)
Cobalt(II) carbonate	208-169-4	513-79-1	40527	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
Cobalt(II) dinitrate	233-402-1	10141-05-6	40527	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
Trichloroethylene	201-167-4	79-01-6	40347	Carcinogenic (article 57 a)
Potassium dichromate	231-906-6	7778-50-9	40347	Carcinogenic, mutagenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a, 57 b and 57 c)
Tetraboron disodium heptaoxide, hydrate	235-541-3	12267-73-1	40347	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
Ammonium dichromate	232-143-1	2151163	40347	Carcinogenic, mutagenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a, 57 b and 57 c)
Boric acid	233-139-2, 234-343-4	10043-35-3, 11113-50-1	40347	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
Sodium chromate	231-889-5	2146108	40347	Carcinogenic, mutagenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a, 57 b and 57 c)
Disodium tetraborate, anhydrous	215-540-4	1303-96-4, 1330-43-4, 12179-04-3	40347	Toxic for reproduction (article 57 c)
Potassium chromate	232-140-5	7789-00-6	40347	Carcinogenic and mutagenic (articles 57 a and 57 b).
Acrylamide	201-173-7	79-06-1	40267	Carcinogenic and mutagenic (articles

				57 a and 57 b)
Lead sulfochromate yellow (C.I. Pigment Yellow 34)	215-693-7	1344-37-2	40191	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c))
Lead chromate molybdate sulphate red (C.I. Pigment Red 104)	235-759-9	12656-85-8	40191	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
Anthracene oil	292-602-7	90640-80-5	40191	Carcinogenic ^{>1} ^{</sup>, PBT and vPvB (articles 57a, 57d and 57e)}
2,4-Dinitrotoluene	204-450-0	121-14-2	40191	Carcinogenic (article 57a)
Anthracene oil, anthracene paste, anthracene fraction	295-275-9	91995-15-2	40191	Carcinogenic ^{>2} ^{</sup>, mutagenic^{>3} ^{</s up>}, PBT and vPvB (articles 57a, 57b, 57d and 57e)}
Anthracene oil, anthracene-low	292-604-8	90640-82-7	40191	Carcinogenic ^{>2} ^{</sup>, mutagenic^{>3} ^{</s up>}, PBT and vPvB (articles 57a, 57b, 57d and 57e)}
Tris(2-chloroethyl)phosphate	204-118-5	115-96-8	40191	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
Diisobutyl phthalate	201-553-2	84-69-5	40191	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
Lead chromate	231-846-0	7758-97-6	40191	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
Anthracene oil, anthracene paste	292-603-2	90640-81-6	40191	Carcinogenic ^{>2} ^{</sup>, mutagenic^{>3} ^{</s up>}, PBT and vPvB (articles 57a, 57b, 57d and 57e)}
Pitch, coal tar, high temp.	266-028-2	65996-93-2	40191	Carcinogenic, PBT and vPvB (articles 57a, 57d and 57e)
Anthracene oil, anthracene paste, distn. lights	295-278-5	91995-17-4	40191	Carcinogenic ^{>2} ^{</sup>, mutagenic^{>3} ^{</s up>}, PBT and vPvB (articles 57a, 57b, 57d and 57e)}
Lead hydrogen arsenate	232-064-2	7784-40-9	39749	Carcinogenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57 a and 57 c)
Benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP)	201-622-7	85-68-7	39749	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
Bis (2-ethylhexyl)phthalate (DEHP)	204-211-0	117-81-7	39749	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
5-tert-butyl-2,4,6-trinitro-m-xylene (musk xylene)	201-329-4	81-15-2	39749	vPvB (article 57e)
Diarsenic trioxide	215-481-4	1327-53-3	39749	Carcinogenic (article 57a)

Bis(tributyltin)oxide (TBTO)	200-268-0	56-35-9	39749	PBT (article 57d)
Triethyl arsenate	427-700-2	15606-95-8	39749	Carcinogenic (article 57a)
Diarsenic pentaoxide	215-116-9	1303-28-2	39749	Carcinogenic (article 57a)
Sodium dichromate	234-190-3	7789-12-0, 10588-01-9	39749	Carcinogenic, mutagenic and toxic for reproduction (articles 57a, 57b and 57c)
Dibutyl phthalate (DBP)	201-557-4	84-74-2	39749	Toxic for reproduction (article 57c)
4,4'- Diaminodiphenylmethane (MDA)	202-974-4	101-77-9	39749	Carcinogenic (article 57a)
Alkanes, C10-13, chloro (Short Chain Chlorinated Paraffins)	287-476-5	85535-84-8	39749	PBT and vPvB (articles 57 d and 57 e)
Anthracene	204-371-1	120-12-7	39749	PBT (article 57d)
Hexabromocyclododecane (HBCDD) and all major diastereoisomers identified: Alpha-hexabromocyclododecane Beta-hexabromocyclododecane Gamma-hexabromocyclododecane	247-148-4 and 221-695-9	25637-99-4, 3194-55-6 (134237-50-6) (134237-51-7) (134237-52-8)	39749	PBT (article 57d)

It can be seen that the new candidate list includes also a number of additional phthalates and bromide-based flame retardants.

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Abstract

This report is the JRC-IPTS contribution to the development of the end-of-waste criteria for waste plastic in accordance with Article 6 of Directive 2008/98/EC of the European Parliament and of the Council on waste (the Waste Framework Directive).

This report includes a possible set of end-of-waste criteria and shows how the proposals were developed based on a comprehensive techno-economic analysis of the waste plastic production chain and an analysis of the economic, environmental and legal impacts when such waste plastic ceases to be waste.

The purpose of end-of-waste criteria is to avoid confusion about the waste definition and to clarify when certain waste that has undergone recovery ceases to be waste. Recycling should be supported by creating legal certainty and an equal level playing field compared to virgin material production, and by removing unnecessary administrative burdens. The end-of-waste criteria are defined as to provide a high level of environmental protection and an environmental and economic benefit to the recycling chain of the material under study.

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