The world-wide waste web

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Globally, 7-10 billion tonnes of waste are produced annually[1,2], including 300-500 million tonnes of hazardous wastes (HW)–explosive, flammable, toxic, corrosive, and infective ones[3,4]. About 10%[5] of these HW are traded through a *world-wide waste web* (W4). The volume of HW traded through the W4 in the last 30 years has grown by 500%[6] and will continue to grow[7], creating serious legal[8], economic[6], environmental[9] and health[10] problems at global scale. Here we investigate the tip of the iceberg of the W4 by studying networks of 108 categories of wastes traded among 163 countries in the period 2003-2009. Although, most of the HW were traded between developed nations, a disproportionate asymmetry existed in the flow of waste from developed to developing countries. Using a dynamical model we simulate how waste congestion propagates through the W4. We identify 32 countries with poor environmental performance which are at high risk of waste congestion. Therefore, they are a threat of improper handling and disposal of HW. We found contamination by heavy metals (HM), by volatile organic compounds (VOC) and/or by persistent organic pollutants (POP), which were used as chemical fingerprints (CF) of the improper handling of HW in 94% of these countries.

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It is frequently claimed that the global trade of HW is mainly a waste flow from developed to developing countries[5,11]. From an economic perspective waste trade may offer benefits to both types of countries[9]. Developed countries would benefit from cheaper disposal costs in developing nations and avoiding increasing resistance to HW disposal facilities in their countries. Developing countries would gain access to cheap raw materials by recycling wastes, rocketing production and employment. This would be a win-win situation if it were not because many of the importer nations are highly indebted countries with very poor track records of waste management and environmental performance[8]. Additionally, as revealed by several high profile cases[12], the situation is aggravated by illegal HW trafficking to, and dumping in, developing countries[13].

To address the problems of HW, UN created in 1989 the Basel Convention (BC) on the Control of Transboundary Movement of Hazardous Wastes and their Disposal[14]. In its more than 30 years, BC has revealed the difficulties to obtain accurate information regarding the magnitude and direction of global HW flows[5,15]. The information recorded by the BC on waste trade is incomplete, inaccurate and does not contain information on illegal trade. However, it constitutes the most reliable information for building a map of the W4, which is vital to understand how the flows of HW are organized at global and local scales. This analysis is necessary for efficiently managing the transboundary HW trade and implementing more effective measures for its better management and control.

Here we rely on data reported by 163 countries on their trade of 108 categories of HW during the years 2003-2009. This data is the most complete information about transboundary waste trade at the BC database. By merging these categories into seven classes of waste we study the trade networks that account for the legal flow of HW in the world. First, we analyze the global characteristics of these networks with emphasis on the North-South flow of HW. By considering the relation between the simulated risk of waste congestion and countries' environmental performance, we analyze the potential risks of improper handling and disposal of HW by individual nations. Finally, we identify "chemical fingerprints" that reveal the impact of improper handling and disposal of HW on the environment and human health on 32 countries identified at high risk.

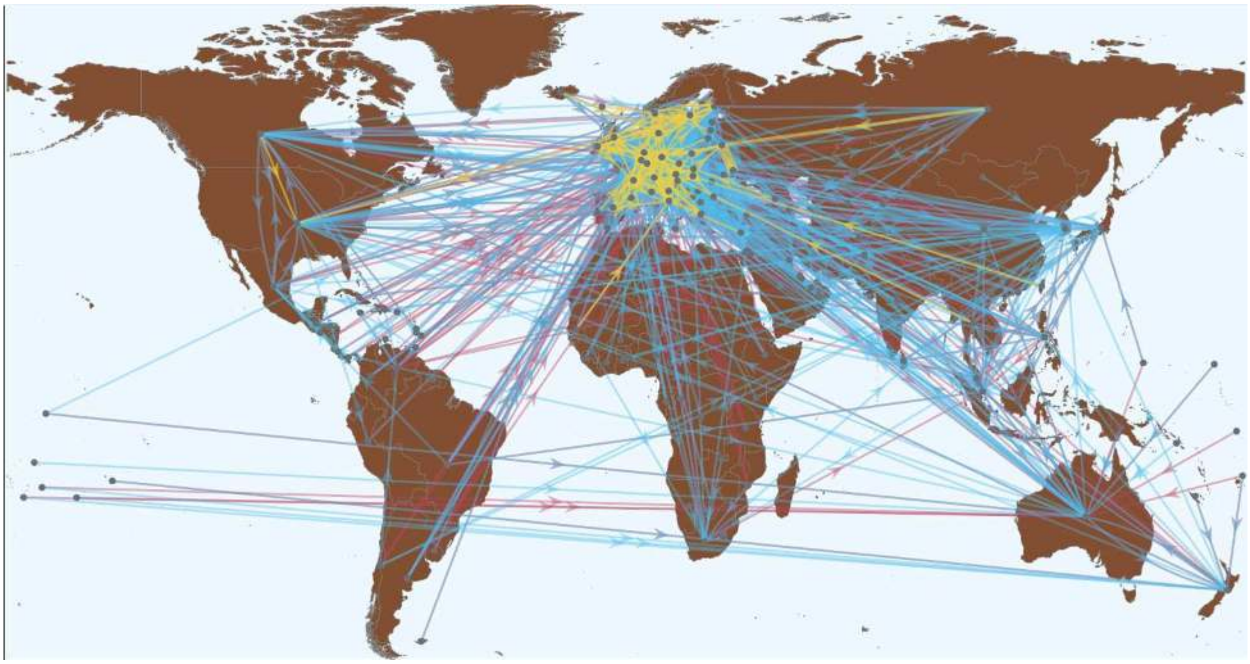

FIG. 1. **The world-wide waste web**. Superposition of the W4 networks of types I (blue edges), type II (red edges) and type III (yellow edges) of waste, where the nodes represent the countries which traded the corresponding waste in the years 2003-2009. The direction of the edges indicates the flow from exporter to importer as reported at the BC database.

GLOBAL ANALYSIS OF W4

During 2003-2009, the total traffic of wastes reported by the BC around the world was of 1,112,539,300 metric tonnes. Time-aggregated weighted-directed networks of seven types of waste grouping together 108 BC categories were created as described in Methods. The distribution of wastes by the different types considered here (see Methods) is very unequal with a large concentration on the wastes of types I-III. These three types of wastes account for 99.9997% of the total weight of wastes traded in the period of study. We then focus here on these three types and the rest are considered in the SI. Waste of type II accounts for 53.8% of the total volume of wastes traded world-wide in the period of study, followed by type I (36%) and type III (10.1%). For the period 2003-2009 most of the international trade of type I-III wastes took place between developed nations. They accounted for 99.88% (type I), 98.85% (type II) and more than 99.99% (type III) of the total volume of waste traded in that period. A closer inspection of the W4 (see Fig. 1) reveals a large unbalance in the directionality of the HW trades between developed, developing and least developed countries. Developed nations exported to developing and least developed ones 1,008,600 and 14,151 tonnes of wastes of type II more than what they imported from such nations, respectively. Even for the case of household wastes (type III) developed nations exported 1,961 tonnes more than what they imported from developing nations. The exports and imports of types I-III display skewed distributions, indicating the existence of a relatively small number of exporters/importers which concentrate most of the volume and number of connections in the W4.

LOCAL ANALYSIS OF W4

Weighted degrees reveal that the major exporters of types I-III are Ukraine, Poland and Russia, as well as Netherlands and Belgium (type I), USA and Italy (type II) and Netherlands and France (type III). The major importers are Belarus and Germany (types I-III), plus Netherlands and Belgium (type I), USA and Belgium (type II) and Monaco and Sweden (Type III). The weighted in- and out-closeness centrality identify countries closer to the rest in the major flows of HW trade. For type I the out-closeness identifies Cyprus, Libya, Egypt, Jordan, Greece and Israel as the most central countries, clearly pointing the North-South flow of HW (Fig. Extended Data 1). For type II, they are Malaysia, Tonga, Cook Islands, New Zealand and Niue, which points to the trans-pacific trade (Fig. Extended Data 2).

There is a potential trade-off between waste congestion (WC) and countries environmental performance (EP). Thus, we introduce the Potential Environmental Impact of Waste Congestion (PEIWC) (see Methods). In Fig. 2(a) we illustrate a typical PEIWC. Ideally, those countries with poor EP should manage low volumes of HW. They should appear at the top-left corner of the PEIWC. Those countries with good EP and low levels of HW congestion should appear in the low-right corner of the PEIWC. The central zone represents a "tolerance" zone, where countries manage wastes according to their capacities and their environmental responsibilities. However, there are countries with poor EP that may congest very quickly of waste. They are located over the tolerance zone and represent countries with high risk of improper handling and disposal of wastes (HRIHDW). We use a fractional susceptible-saturated model (see Methods) to estimate the relative times at which a country may congest of a given type of waste. In Fig. 2(b-d) we illustrate the PEIWC for wastes

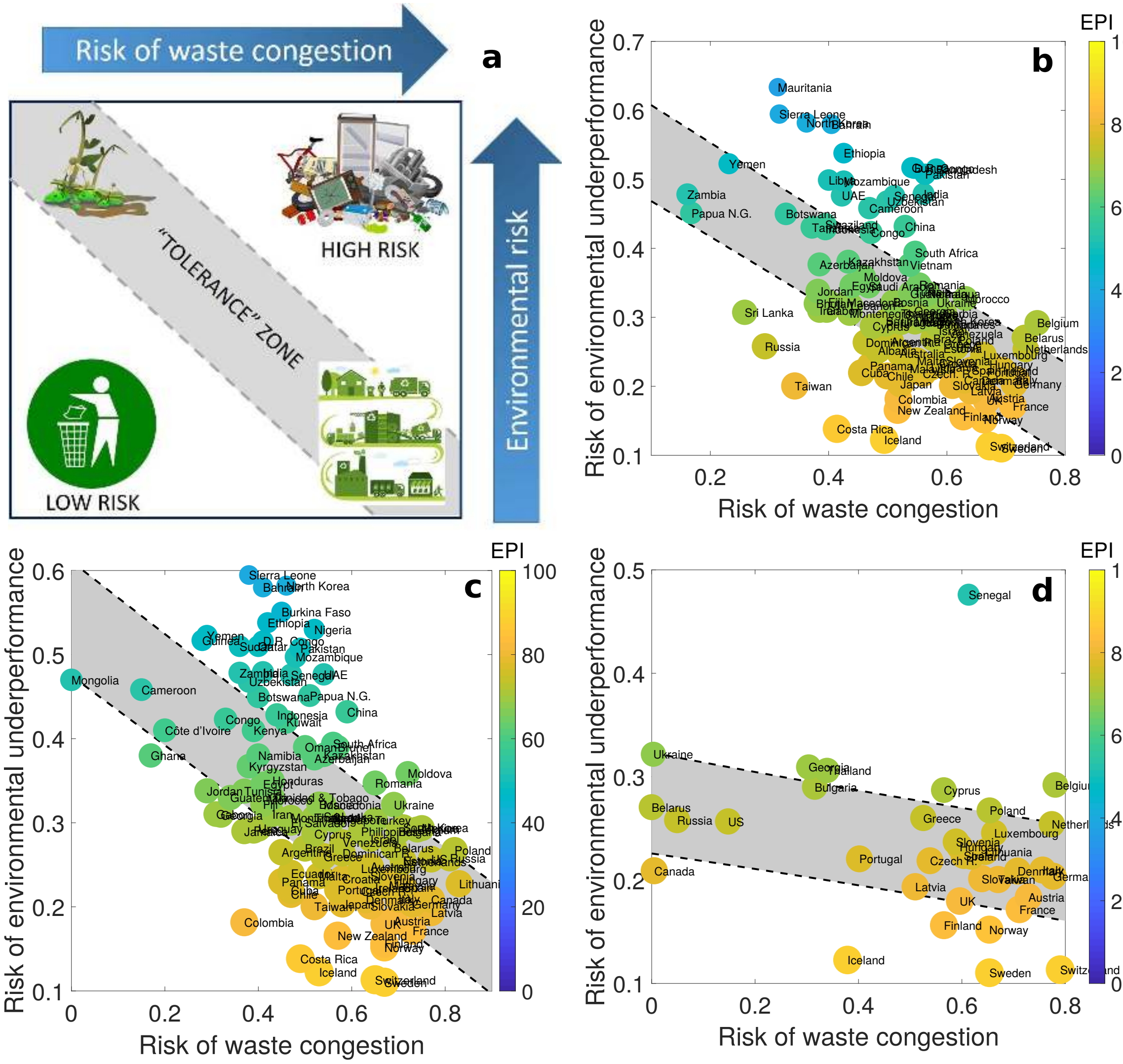

FIG. 2. **Potential Environmental Impact of Waste Congestion (PEIWC)**. Plot of the risk of waste congestion versus the environmental performance (a) indicating the central region of "tolerance" where countries process waste with relatively low environmental and human health impacts. The tolerance zone is defined here by the upper and lower 50% prediction bounds for response values associated with the linear regression trend between the two risk indices. Countries over the tolerance zone are at high risk of improper handling and disposal of wastes (HRIHDW). They are countries pressed to manage more waste than what their environmental performances indicate that they can manage. (b)-(d) Illustration of the PEIWC for wastes of types I-III, respectively. The risks of waste congestion are calculated from the simulated dynamics using a fractional susceptible-congested model described in Methods. The index of risk of environmental underperformance is obtained from the of Yale University environmental performance index (EPI). Nodes representing countries are colored by their EPIs.

of types I-III. We identified 32 countries at HRIHDW: 16 from Africa, 8 from Asia, 4 from Middle East and 4 from Europe. On the safer side of the PEIWC we find Costa Rica, Iceland, New Zealand, Switzerland, Sweden, Finland, Norway and Colombia.

We also study waste-aggregated W4 networks for every year in the 2003-2009 period. Temporal trends of the waste congestion and environmental underperformance risks were built for 19 of the 32 countries at HRIHDW (Fig. Extended Data 3). Only three countries display a tendency to improve both risk indices, while 10 showed simultaneous detriment of both from 2003 to 2009.

CHEMICAL FINGERPRINTS OF W4

We have found that wastes of types I-III may leave environmental and/or human health chemical fingerprints (CF) in one or more of the following categories: (i) heavy metals (HM)[16], (ii) volatile organic compounds (VOC)[17,18], and persistent organic pollutants (POP)[19]. In Fig. 3 we illustrate the connections between the BC wastes Y1-Y47, their CFs and the 32 countries at HRIHDW.

Heavy metals

Wastes are one of the main anthropogenic sources of HM in the environment[16,20], with electrical and electronic waste (e-waste) alone containing 56 metals[21]. We focus on 8 HM ubiquitous in wastes of different kinds. Lead (Pb), cadmium (Cd), nickel (Ni), mercury (Hg), chromium (Cr), zinc (Zn), copper (Cu) and arsenic (As), appear in wastes from pesticides, medicines, paints, dyes, catalysts, batteries, electronic devices, industrial sludge, printing products, incineration of household wastes, among others[16,20](see SI). In total, there are 25 countries at HRIHDW in which wastes are expected to leave CFs in the form of HM. These HM are identified as pollutants directly or indirectly related to wastes in 23 out of the 25 countries at HRIHDW. For instance, the death of 18 children in Senegal[22]has been linked to high levels of Pb in children living in surrounding areas used for recycling of used lead-acid batteries. Higher than expected hair levels of Pb, Cd, and Hg have been claimed as a potential cause of childhood iron deficiency anemia in Uzbekistan[23]. Learning disorder has been associated with high levels of Pb, Cd, As, Ni, and Cu in children of UAE[24]. In

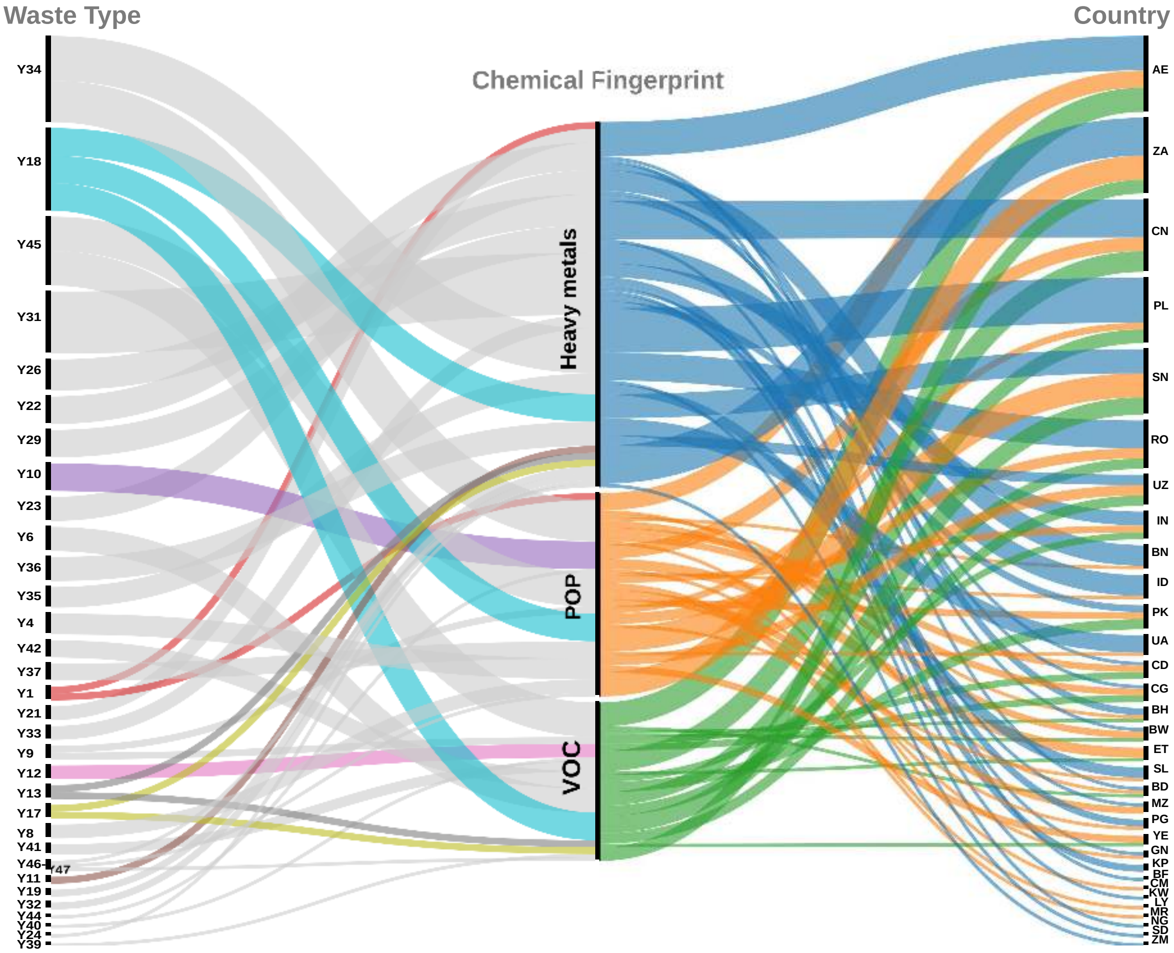

FIG. 3. **Chemical fingerprints of waste**. The three classes of chemical fingerprints left by BC categories of waste Y1-Y47 in the 32 countries at high risk of improper handling and disposal of wastes (HRIHDW). Waste types are described in the SI. Countries are represented by their ISO 3166-1 alpha-2 code.

Indonesia, high levels of Pb, As, Cd and Hg in hair of children living close to places where e-waste is dumped, or (formally or informally) processed, has been associated with their deficits in attention and executive function[25]. In China[26], levels of Pb in mother-infant pairs were found to be five times higher in regions known for the high concentration of e-waste disposal/processing than in control. It was related to the higher rates of adverse birth outcomes observed in Guiyu–where 70% of global e-waste ends up[27]–related to control. In the same region children are reported to have significantly higher levels of Pb, Cr, and Ni, which have been linked to low mean IQ, and decreased forced vital capacity[26]. Cd, Pb, Zn, Cu, Ni, As, and Cr were also found at higher levels in hairs of residents and dismantling workers in Longtang and Taizhou relative to control locations[26]. The levels of dermal exposure of these HM in workers of Indian e-waste recycling sites is 192.6 (Cr), 78.1 (Cu), 30.9 (Pb) and 37.3 (Zn) times higher than those for people not exposed to e-waste[28].

Volatile Organic Compounds

VOC are ubiquitous organic pollutants affecting atmospheric chemistry and human health[17]. VOC can be released from wastes containing solvents, paints, cleaners, degreasers, refrigerants, dyes, varnishes and household wastes, from processing of e-wastes, plastics and waste incineration[17,18]. We identify benzene (B), toluene (T), ethylbenzene (E) and o-, m-, and p-xylenes (X) as potential CF of Y1-Y47 waste[17,18,29,30]. Toluene is the only BTEX which has significant non-traffic sources, with important contributions from previously mentioned sources. Indeed, when the T/B ratio is over two it indicates the existence of sources beyond vehicular traffic[31].

We identified 16 countries at HRIHDW which potentially have an impact in the emission of VOC from wastes. For instance, several VOC have been identified in an e-waste dismantling town in Guangdong province of China, including alkanes, BTEX, and organohalogen[29]. The T/B ratio found here was 3.15, which clearly correlates with emissions of VOC occurring during pyrolisis of e-waste[29]. T/B ratio of 9.36 is reported for Guangzhou[32], which is the capital city of Guangdong. In the city of Dakar, Senegal, both at the urban district and at a semirural district, T/B ratios were 4.51 and 5.32[33]. Senegal is a country at HRIHDW for types I, II and III. In Senegal there has been continuous problems with the collection of household waste[34], which have been responsible for public health problems (dermatosis, diarrhea, conjunctivitis and malaria)[35]. Other high risk countries also have high values of T/B ratio reported at different locations: South Africa (4.87, 5.67, 21.3), India (3.67, 6.66, 8.97), Bangladesh (6.85), Ethiopia (4.25), Belgium (3.8, 4.38), and Poland (2.29, 2.96) (see SI for references).

Persistent Organic Pollutants

POP are chemicals with high resistance to degradation in the environment, high accumulation in human/animal tissues and transmission through food chains[19]. As POP indicators we consider here polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB)[36] and polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins and polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDD/Fs)[37]. In total these CFs are related to 12 BC waste categories with impact in 26 countries at HRIHDW.

PCB are intentionally produced due to their many industrial applications. They are related to neurodevelopment effects in infants, cancer and immunotoxic effects in humans[36]. Vast amounts of PCB are stored in some of the countries at HRIHDW (Fig. Extended Data 4)[38]. For instance, in Sierra Leone there are 103,372 tonnes of oil having PCB. Contamination by high levels of PCB has been found about 400 km off parts of the coast of Sierra Leone[39]. In Mozambique 240,571 tonnes of oil suspected to have PCB are reported. Pollution by particulate and vapor samples containing PCB was detected in three sites in KwaZulu-Natal Province, South Africa[40], which is close to Mozambique border. PCBs are also found in four fish species from Lake Koka, Ethiopia[41]. In China high PCB concentrations have been reported in sediments from Pearl River and its estuary[42,43]. In Dalian Bay and Songhua River the pollution by PCB is directly related to PCB equipment storage locations[42]. In the Bengal coast of Bangladesh PCB contamination is linked to the past and on-going use of PCB-containing equipment[44]. Indeed, all 209 congeners of PCBs were found in 48 seafood samples collected from the coastal area of Bangladesh, with severe health risk for coastal residents[45]. Additionally, in three European countries at HRIHDW, Poland, Ukraine and Romania, there are 253,000 (second in Europe after Russia), 103,102 (third in Europe) and 6,869 equipments, respectively, that contains or might contain PCB[38].

On the other hand, PCDD/Fs are known to be extremely toxic in animals/humans[37]. Consequently, their release to the environment are presented as toxic equivalent (TEQ) (see Fig. Extended Data 5)[46]. In D. R. Congo alone PCDD/Fs amount to 300,412 g/TEQ/a (grams per toxic equivalent per year)[47]. It is followed by China (10,232), India (8,658), Indonesia (7,352) and Nigeria (5,340). The mean TEQ of PCDD/Fs in 73 countries, excluding those found here at HRIHDW, is 428.13[46].

CONCLUSIONS

The W4 in the period 2003-2009 shows a disproportionately asymmetric trade of HW. These flows mainly from the developed to the developing world, placed several third-world countries at HRIHDW. The current work reveals the urgent necessity of substantial in-

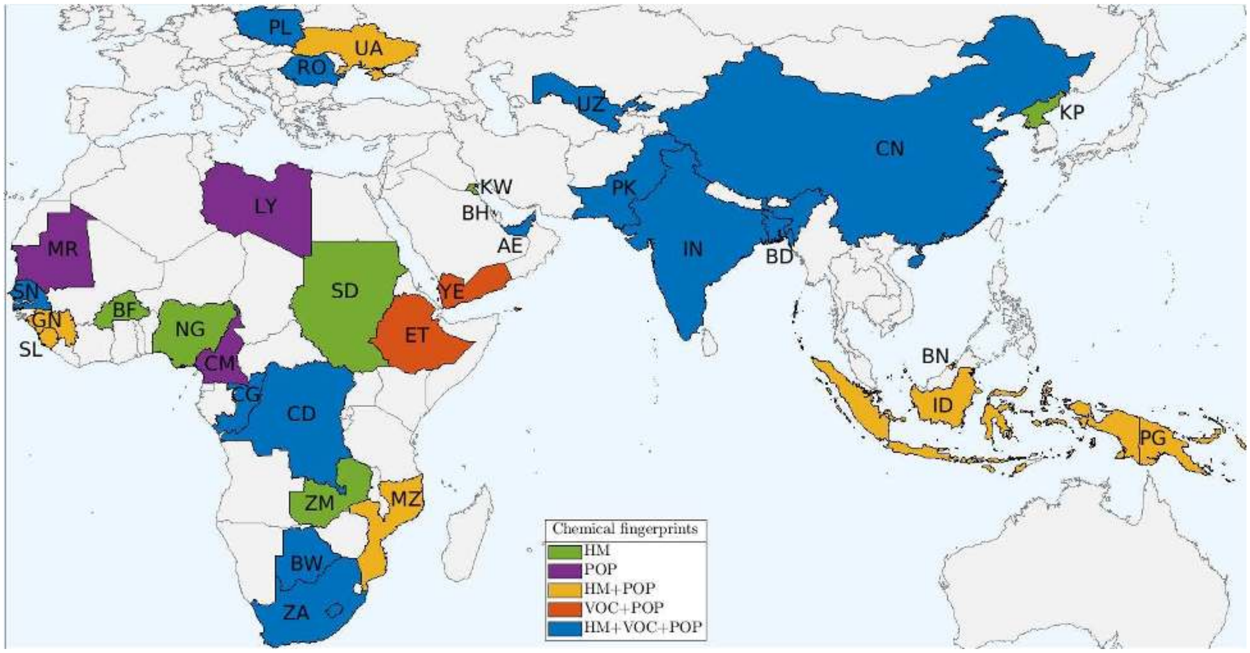

FIG. 4. **High risk of improper handling and disposal of wastes**. Illustration of the 32 countries at HRIHDW of types I-III wastes and the chemical fingerprints left by these HW in their environment and/or human health. Countries with impact of heavy metals (HM) (green), persistent organic pollutants (POP) (purple), HM and POP (yellow), volatile organic compounds (VOC) and POP (red), HM and VOC and POP (blue) are illustrated.

vestment in waste management in those countries at HRIHDW. It also paves the way to understand further rechannels of the HW through the W4 due to "import bans" policies in major importers, like the one impossed in 2017 by China[48]. It also will allow to understand the potential waste congestion problems arising from the COVID-19 pandemic and from emerging sources of e-waste[49,50].

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METHODS

Data collection

We extract the data used to build W4 networks from BC Online Reporting Database[51,52]. It contains summarized compendiums where individual national reports are altogether condensed into single Excel files per year, with the explicit and quantitative information of associated parties: destination, import, origin and transit. We extract from these files the information about countries/territories of exports and imports, transaction amounts in metric tons (tonnes), waste classification codes, characteristics and type of waste streams. While the on-line repository of surveys range from years 2001-2019, the quantitative digest of commercial waste transactions are only available from 2003 to 2009[52]. Code names of countries, and special territories like those that has no total political sovereignty, are considered by using the standard ISO 3166-1 alpha-2[53]. We do not include the countries of transit due to its scarcity in the reports, and because of the lack of information about the temporary order of the landings. We also excluded the existing self-export (a country that exports to itself). We manually curated the database for errors in the country/territories names, e.g., due to typos or possible transcription errors, as well as for the use of nonofficial country codes such as EIRE instead of IE for Ireland. The BC reports may also combine formal ISO alpha-2 codes with others codes that have become obsolete and sometimes with codes of another standards like transitory codes or international postal union codes. Reports may pointing out to a state party that currently is dissolved or split into two new ones, e.g., Serbia and Montenegro. In the case of waste categories we also exclude those for which their codes do not coincide with the ones defined by the BC, such as 11b, AN8, Y48.

Waste types

We consider 108 categories of wastes according to BC classification, which are then grouped into seven types of waste designated by Type I-VII. The classification of wastes used in this work are based on the Annexes I, II and VII of the BC[51]. No wastes in categories B of the BC are included in this work as they are not reported by countries in the database of the Convention[52].

Type I considers, for instance, Y1: Clinical wastes from medical care in hospitals, medical centers of clinics, Y2: Wastes from the production and preparation of pharmaceutical products, up to Y18: Residues arising from industrial waste disposal operations (see pp 46 of Ref [54]). The **Type II** of wastes used in this work associates the second subdivision of the Annex I, Y-codes Y19-Y45. In general, wastes containing 27 chemical constituents, i.e., Y19: Metal carbonyls, Y20: Beryllium compounds, up to Y45: Organohalogen compounds. The **type III** of wastes discussed here accounts for the Annex II of the BC classification. Y46: Wastes collected from households, and Y47: Residues arising from the incineration of household wastes. A complete list is provided in the SI.

The remaining four types of wastes recover the four subclassification of the Annex VIII[51]. Specifically, **Type IV** links with the Metal and Metal-Bearing Wastes. It accounts for A-list items grouped from A1010-A1090 and A1100-A1190, e.g., A1010: Metal wastes and waste consisting of alloys of Antimony, Arsenic, Cadmium, Selenium, among others; up to A1190: Waste metal cables coated or insulated with plastics containing or contaminated with coal tar, PCB11, lead, cadmium, other organohalogen compounds (see pp 66 of Ref [54]). **Type V** relates Inorganic constituents containing metal and organic material. (cathode-ray glasses, liquid inorganic fluorines, catalysts, gypsum, dust-fibres of asbestos, coal-fired power plant fly-ash). Its A-items ranges from A2010-A2060. **Type VI** associates Organic constituents containing metal and inorganic material. (Petroleum coke and bitumen, mineral oils, leaded anti-knock sludge, thermal fluids, resin, latex, plastiticizers, glues, adhesives, nitrocellulose, phenols, ethers, leather wastes, (un)halogenated residues, aliphatic halogenated hydrocarbons, vinyl chlorides), accounting for A-items: A3010-A3090, A3100-A3190 and A3200. Finally, **Type VII** are Wastes which may contain either inorganic or organic constituents (Some pharmaceutical products, clinical-medical-nursing-dental-veterinary wastes from patients and researches, biocides-phytopharmaceutical, pesticides, herbicides outdated, wood chemicals, (in)organic cyanides, oils-hydrocarbons-water mixtures, inks, dyes, pigments, paints, lacquers, varnish, of explosive nature, industrial pollution control devices, for cleaning of industrial off-gases, peroxides, outdated chemicals, from research or teaching activities, spent activated carbon, to name a few). It accounts for the groups A4010-A4090, and A4100-A4160.

W4 construction

We construct a weighted directed network for each of the types of waste analyzed. In every network the nodes correspond to the countries/territories reporting the given type of waste in the period 2003-2009. It is frequent in the BC database that a country i reports the export (import) of an amount q_{ij} to (from) j, which includes several BC waste categories. If all the BC categories belong to the same waste type, then we simply use that amount as the weight of the link (i, j). However, it happens sometimes these BC categories belong to several waste types. Let us consider two BC categories C_1 and C_2, e.g., Y1 and Y19. Then, C_1 belongs to one waste type, e.g., type I, and C_2 to another, e.g., type II. In this case we have to split the quantity q_{ij} in the weights of the links between i and j for the two types of wastes. We then proceed as follows. We obtain the weight of the link (i, j) for the waste of type k as

$$w_{ij}^{k} = \frac{q_{ij} \cdot \phi_k}{\Phi} , \tag{1}$$

where ϕ_k is the average of the amounts of waste of type k traded between every pair of countries during the corresponding year, and $\Phi = \sum_k \phi_k$ where the summation is carried out for all types of waste involved in the quantity q_{ij}.

In any case we can obtain two different weights for a pair of countries based on the data reported at BC from “Export” and “Import” reports. Then we can have the following two different cases: (a) that the amount $E(i, j)$ reported by country i as exported to country j coincides with the amount $I(j, i)$ reported by j as imported from i; (b) that $E(i, j) \neq I(j, i)$. In the case (a) we simply add a directed arc from i to j with the weight $E(i, j) = I(j, i)$. In the case (b) we assume that i exports $\max[E(i, j), I(j, i)]$ to j. We designate by $\tilde{A} = \tilde{A}(G)$ the adjacency matrix of the network G. Notice that $\tilde{A}$ is not necessarily symmetric because $\tilde{A}_{ij} = \max[E(i, j), I(j, i)]$ is not necessarily the same as $\tilde{A}_{ji} = \max[E(j, i), I(i, j)]$. Here we normalize the adjacency matrices by: $A = \tilde{A}/\sum_{i,j} \tilde{A}_{ij}$.

Network parameters of the W4 networks

Because the W4 networks are weighted and directed we consider here the distributions of their in- and out-degrees. The weighed in-degree of the node i is the sum of the weights of all links pointing to i. The weighed out-degree of that node is the sum of the weights of all links leaving that node. For each kind of degrees we tested 17 types of distributions[55]: beta, Birnbaum-Saunders, exponential, extreme value, gamma, generalized extreme value, generalized Pareto, inverse Gaussian, logistic, log-logistic, lognormal, Nakagami, normal, Rayleigh, Rician, t-location-scale, and Weibull. To test the goodness of fit we used[56,57]: negative of the log likelihood, Bayesian information criterion, Akaike information criterion (AIC), and AIC with a correction for finite sample sizes. The results are given in the Supplementary Information.

We also studied several centrality measures, apart from the in- and out-degrees, of the individual countries in the weighted-directed networks of the W4[58]. The weighted betweenness centrality of a given node k is obtained as

$$BC\left(k\right)=\sum_{i\neq j\neq k}\frac{\rho_{ikj}}{\rho_{ij}}, \tag{2}$$

where ρ_{ikj} is the number of weighted directed shortest paths from i to j that pass through node k, and ρ_{ij} st is the total number of weighted directed shortest paths from from i to j.

We also calculated the in- and out-closeness centrality, which are defined as the inverse sum of the shortest-path distance from a node to all other nodes in the weighed directed network. If not all nodes are reachable, then the centrality of node i is:

$$CC_t\left(k\right)=\frac{\eta_k}{n-1}\frac{1}{\sum_j d_{kj}}, \tag{3}$$

where $t=\{o,i\}$ for out- and in- types, respectively, η_i is the number of reachable nodes from node i (not counting i), n is the number of nodes, and d_{ij} is the weighted shortest-path distances from node i to j. If no nodes are reachable from node i, then CC_i is zero. For the in-closeness, the distance measure is from all nodes to node i.

Susceptible-congestion dynamics

We model waste congestion propagation as a contagion process in which at a given time t, a country i is susceptible to get congested of wastes or it is actually congested. The rate at which a congestion at a given country is transmitted to another is given by β. The capacity of a link between two countries to carry wastes is accounted for the corresponding entry of the weighted adjacency matrix. We use here relative link capacities by dividing every entry of the adjacency matrix by the sum of all entries of the given matrix, such as the link weights are bounded between zero and one. Finally, we assume the realistic scenario in which wastes at a given country are not "exported" immediately to another, but that they can have a variable "residence time" at given countries. To account for such variable (and unknown) residence times of wastes at given countries we use Caputo time-fractional derivatives in the model[59] . We detail the models below.

Before proceeding we should clarify some specific characteristics that are present in the W4 that influence the HW congestion of a given country. The obvious situation is that a country with poor capacities for waste management get congested because others export large amounts of waste to it. This could be for instance the case of China, where an estimate of 70% of the world's e-waste ends up in Guiyu, in Guangdong Province where no more than 25% is recycled in formal recycling centers. However, more tricky is to detect cases where a given country has already large amounts of a given type of waste, which it needs to export, possibly because it cannot cope with it with its actual capacities. This is the case of household waste in Senegal, where the lack of infrastructures and collection system makes the problem insurmountable by local authorities. Senegal exported more than 15,000 tonnes of household waste to Italy in 2009. To differentiate both situations we will designate them as (i) congestion at arrival, for the case where congestion can be produced by importing large amounts of a given type of waste; and (ii) congestion at departure, for the case where congestion can be produced due to the existence of large amounts of waste in a country, which are then exported to another.

For a given W4 network G we consider the following two dynamical process accounting for the congestion of waste trade among countries. Let $s_i(t)$ be the "surprise" that a country i is not congested at time t, namely $s_i(t) := -\log(1 - x_i(t))$, where $x_i(t)$ is the probability that the country i is congested of a given type of waste at time t following Lee et al.[60]. Let

$$D_t^{\alpha} f(t) := \frac{1}{\Gamma(\kappa-\alpha)} \int_0^t \frac{f^{(\kappa)}(\tau)\, d\tau}{(t-\tau)^{\alpha+1-\kappa}},$$

be the Caputo time-fractional derivative of the function $f(t)$ where $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ and $\kappa = \lceil \alpha \rceil$[61]. Let $s_A(t)$ and $s_D(t)$ be the vectors of "surprises" for individual countries in a given W4 network. Then, let $x(t) = x_0$, we have

i) Congestion at arrival

$$D_t^{\alpha} s_A(t) = \beta_A^{\alpha} A x\left(t\right), \tag{4}$$

ii) Congestion at departure

$$D_t^{\alpha} s_D(t) = \beta_D^{\alpha} A^T x\left(t\right), \tag{5}$$

where A^T is the transpose of A. The solution of these fractional-time congestion propagation models is given by (see Supplementary Information for details)[59]:

$$s_{\ell}\left(t\right) = \left(\frac{1-\gamma}{\gamma}\right) E_{\alpha,1}\left(t^{\alpha} \beta_{\ell}^{\alpha} \gamma B\right) \vec{1} - \left(\frac{1-\gamma}{\gamma} + \log \gamma\right) \vec{1}, \tag{6}$$

where $\ell = A, D$, $B = \left\{A, A^T\right\}$, $E_{\alpha,1}\Big(\zeta B\Big)$, $\zeta = t^{\alpha} \beta_{\ell}^{\alpha} \gamma$ is the Mittag-Leffler matrix function of B, $\gamma = 1 - x_0$ with $x_0 = \frac{c}{n}$ where $c \in \mathbb{R}^+$, and n the number of nodes in the network[62]. Here we consider the same rate for both processes, i.e., $\beta_A = \beta_D$. In the simulations we use $\alpha = 0.75$, $\beta = 0.01$, and $c = 0.005$.

As a way of quantifying how easy a country get congested by a given waste we use the time at which 50% of the total congestion is reached. Let us designate by $\hat{t}_i$ this time. Then, $\hat{t}_i$ is the time t at which $s_{\ell}\left(t\right) = 0.5$.

Let us consider a trade network of three countries where A exports 100 tonnes of waste to B and 120 tonnes to C; B exports 200 tonnes to C, and C exports 50 tonnes to A. As can be seen in Fig. Extended Data 6., the times $\hat{t}_C < \hat{t}_A < \hat{t}_B$ for the congestion at arrival model. This indicates that C is at the highest risk of congestion due to its large imports of waste. However, if we consider the process at departure, $\hat{t}_A < \hat{t}_B < \hat{t}_C$, which indicates the highest risk at node A due to the existence of large amounts of this waste at the node.

Potential Environmental Impact of Waste Congestion

We first define here the risk of waste congestion for a given country as

$$R_i := 1 - \hat{t}_i / \max_j \hat{t}_j, \tag{7}$$

where i represents a given country, $\hat{t}_i$ is the congestion time for the country i either by importing or by exporting wastes of a given type. That is, if $t_{1/2}\left(i \leftarrow\right)$ and $t_{1/2}\left(i \rightarrow\right)$ are the times at which country i reaches 50% of congestion by importing and exporting a given type of waste, respectively, then $\hat{t}_i = \min\left[t_{1/2}\left(i \leftarrow\right), t_{1/2}\left(i \rightarrow\right)\right]$. The index R_i is normalized between zero (no risk) and one (maximum risk) of congestion of wastes of a given type.

Due to the socio-economic differences between the countries in the world, the use of R_i along could be of little practical value. For instance, for wastes of type I the Netherlands and Burkina Faso have about the same value of R_i, which is near 0.99. For the same type of wastes Ireland and Côte d'Ivoire also have $R_i \approx 0.89$. The situation is similar for waste of type II, where the first pair of countries have $R_i = 1$ and the second pair have $R_i \approx 0.94$. However, while Netherlands and Ireland are among the richest countries in the world with GDP ranging 578-868 billions USD (Netherlands) and 164-236 billions USD (Ireland), the other two countries are among the poorest with GDPs of 4.7-9.4 billions USD (Burkina Faso) and 15-24 billions USD (Côte d'Ivoire) for the period of time considered here. This obviously gives these countries very different capacities for managing a waste congestion, a situation which is well reflected in the environmental track record of each of these countries. The Environmental Performance Index (EPI), published by the Universities of Yale and Columbia[63], quantifies the performance of every country using sixteen indicators reflecting United Nations' Millennium Development Goals. They are accounted for by six well-established policy categories (see Policymakers' Summary at[63]): Environmental Health, Air Quality, Water Resources, Productive Natural Resources, Biodiversity and Habitat, and Sustainable Energy, such that it covers the following two global goals: (1) reducing environmental stresses on human health, and (2) promoting ecosystem vitality and sound natural resource management. Then, while Netherlands and Ireland are among the top environmental performers in the 2003-2009 period with average EPIs larger than 70 out of 100, Burkina Faso and Côte d'Ivoire are the bottom of the list with average EPIs of 45.2 and 55.9, respectively. We can account the risk of environmental underperformance by an index bounded between zero and one as: $U_i = 1 - EPI\left(i\right)/100$. PEIWC are defined by plotting the waste congestion risk R_i for a given type of waste versus U_i. For the demarcation of the tolerance zone we use here the following. We obtain the linear regression model that best fit U_i as a linear function of R_i. Then, the tolerance zone is defined by the upper and lower 50% prediction bounds for response values associated with this linear regression trend between the two risk indices. The value of 50% is used here as a very conservative definition of the tolerance zone. Widening this zone too much will make that almost no country is at HRIHDW, which does not reflect the reality. On the contrary, narrowing it to much will simply split countries into two classes, which will make difficult to identify those at the highest risk of environmental underperformance due to waste congestion.

CODE AVAILABILITY

Custom MATLAB code is available on GitHub (https://github.com/JohannHM/Fractional-congestion-Dynamics)

METHODS REFERENCES

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

E.E. designed, directed and wrote the manuscript. J.H.M. contributed with extraction, and curation of data. Both J.H.M and E.E. analyzed the results, performed simulations and computations, draw figures and revised the manuscript.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

DATA AVAILABILITY

All raw data of the manuscript and its Supplementary Information was obtained directly from the Basel Convention web page (http://archive.basel.int/natreporting/datasrces/index.html). Extracted set of Export and Import networks available in (https://github.com/JohannHM/Fractional-congestion-Dynamics).

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

Supplementary Information is available for this paper. Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to J.H.M and E.E.

EXTENDED DATA

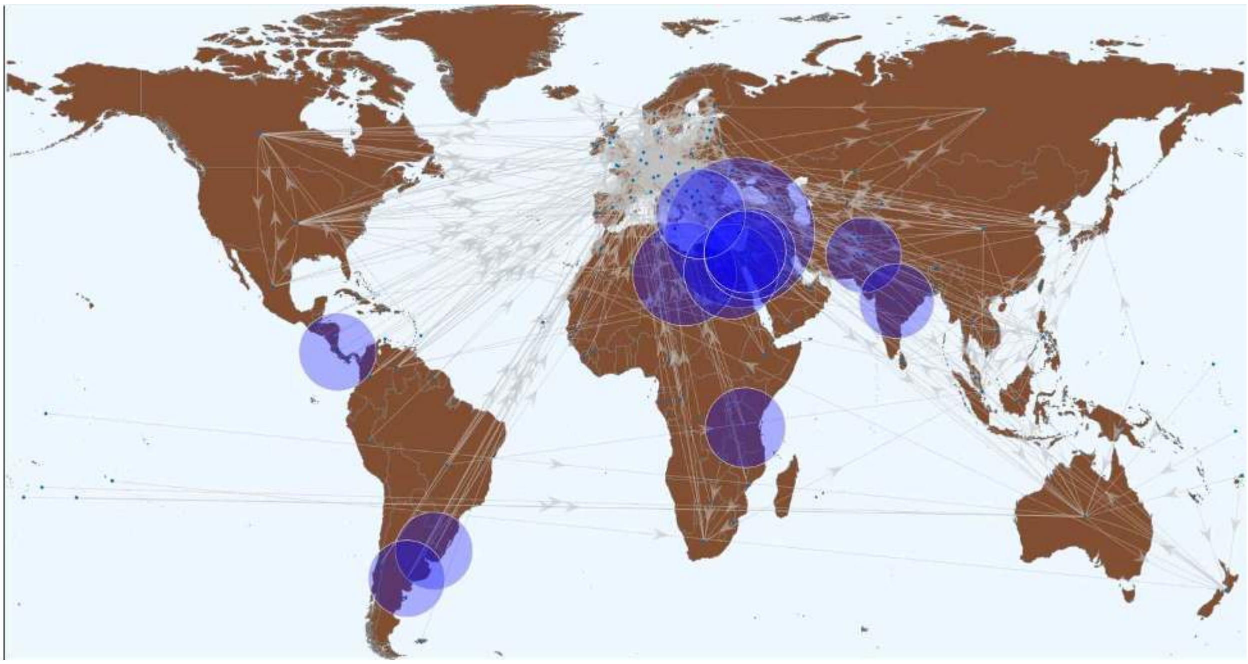


FIG. Extended Data 1. Illustration of the out-closeness of every country in the W4 network of type I waste. The circles have radius proportional to the centrality. Notice that the most central countries are close to the North-South border, particularly between Europe and Africa, pointing out to the traffic between these two continents.

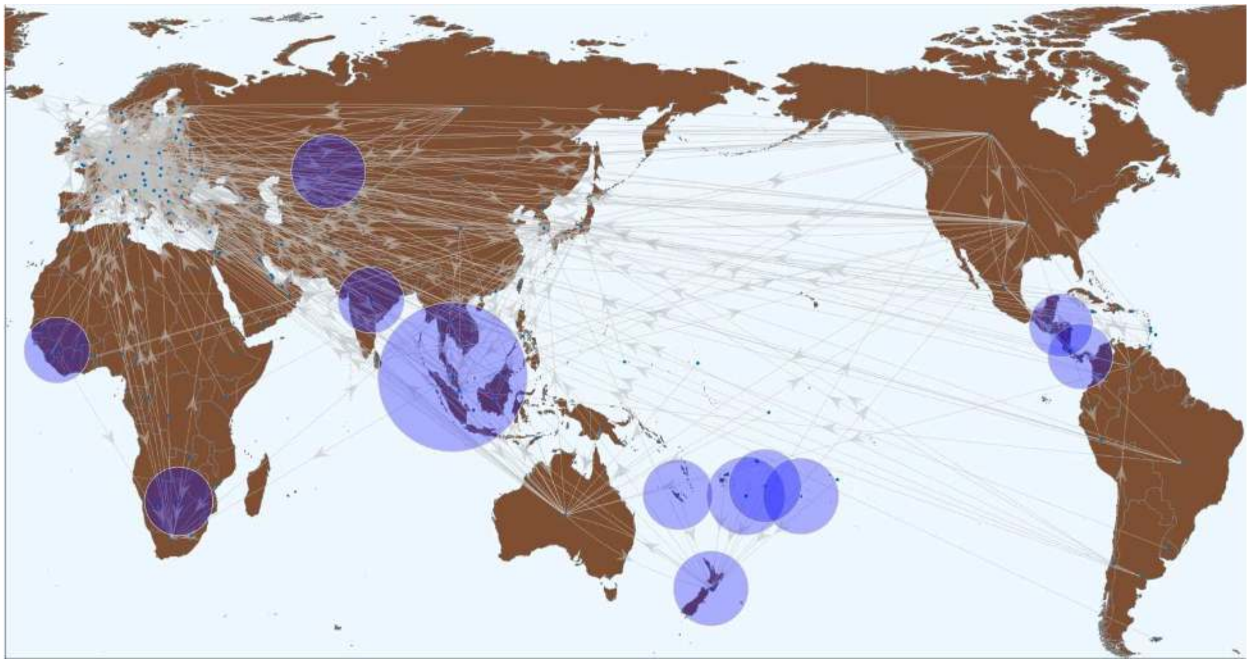


FIG. Extended Data 2. Illustration of the out-closeness of every country in the W4 network of type II waste. The circles have radius proportional to the centrality. Notice that the most central countries are around the Pacific ocean, pointing out to the trans-Pacific traffic of this type of waste.

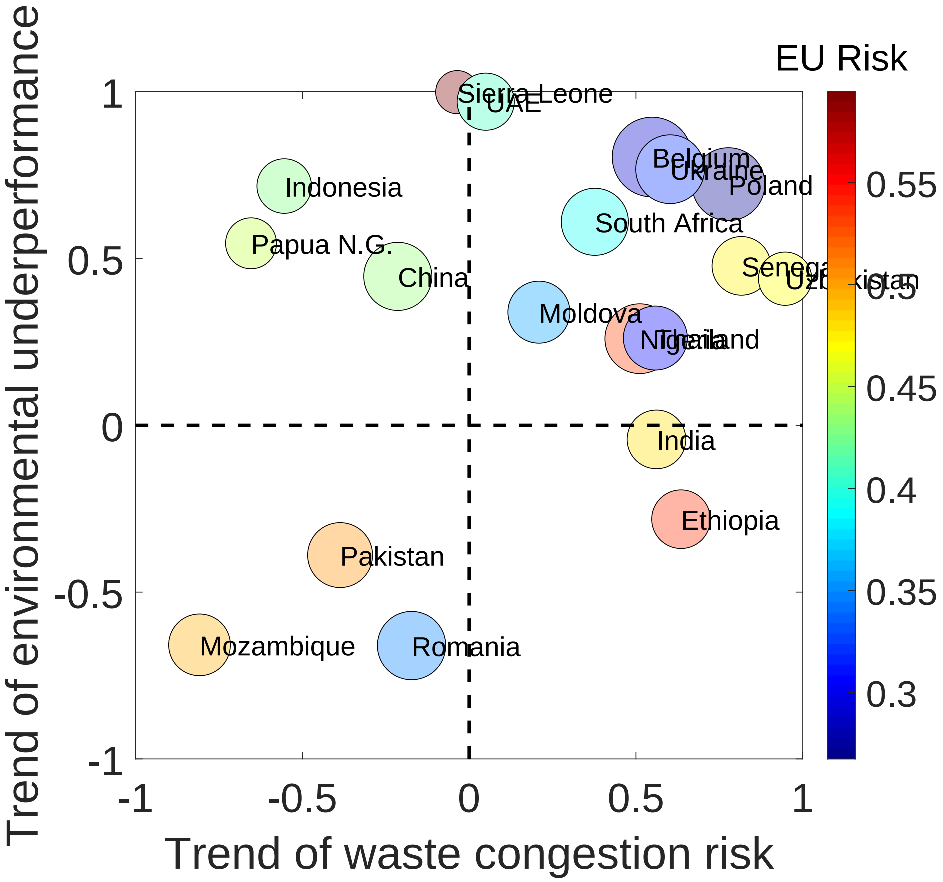


FIG. Extended Data 3. Temporal trend (period 2003-2009) of the waste congestion risk and of the environmental underperformance risk for some countries at HRIHDW. The trend is measured by the Pearson correlation coefficient between the corresponding variable and the years in the period. Bottom-left quarter identifies the countries with a trend to improve both indices. Top-right quarter identified those countries with a trend to deterioration of both indices.

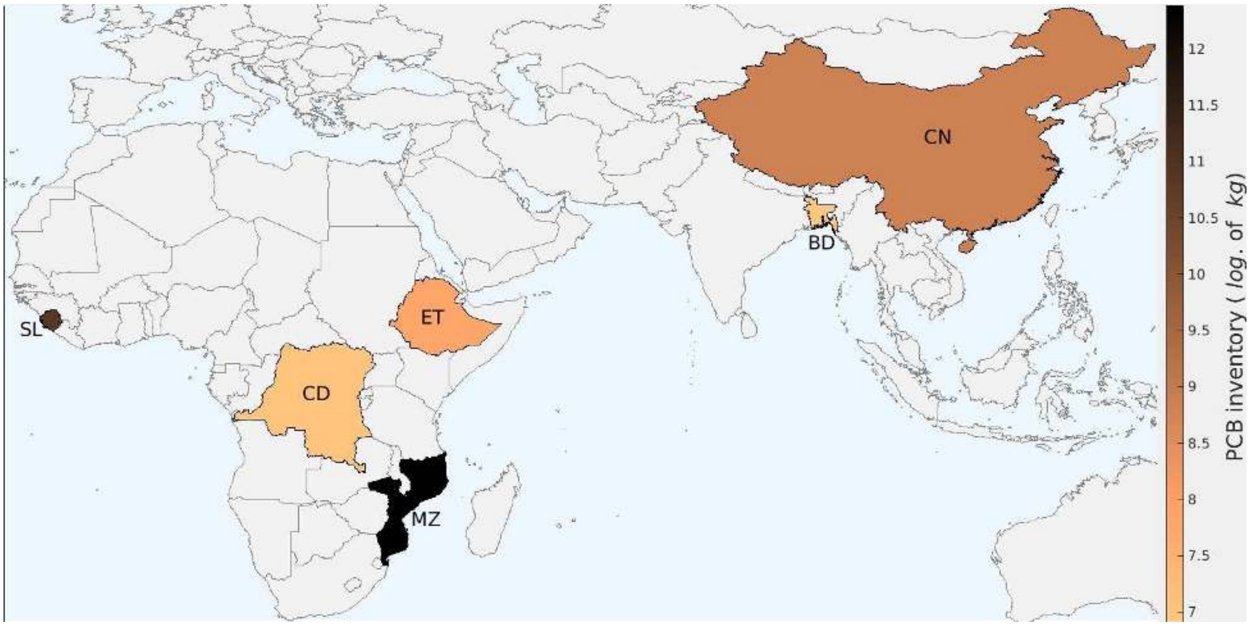


FIG. Extended Data 4. Amounts of PCB stored in some of the countries at HRIHDW identified in this work. The amounts are given in logarithmic scale.

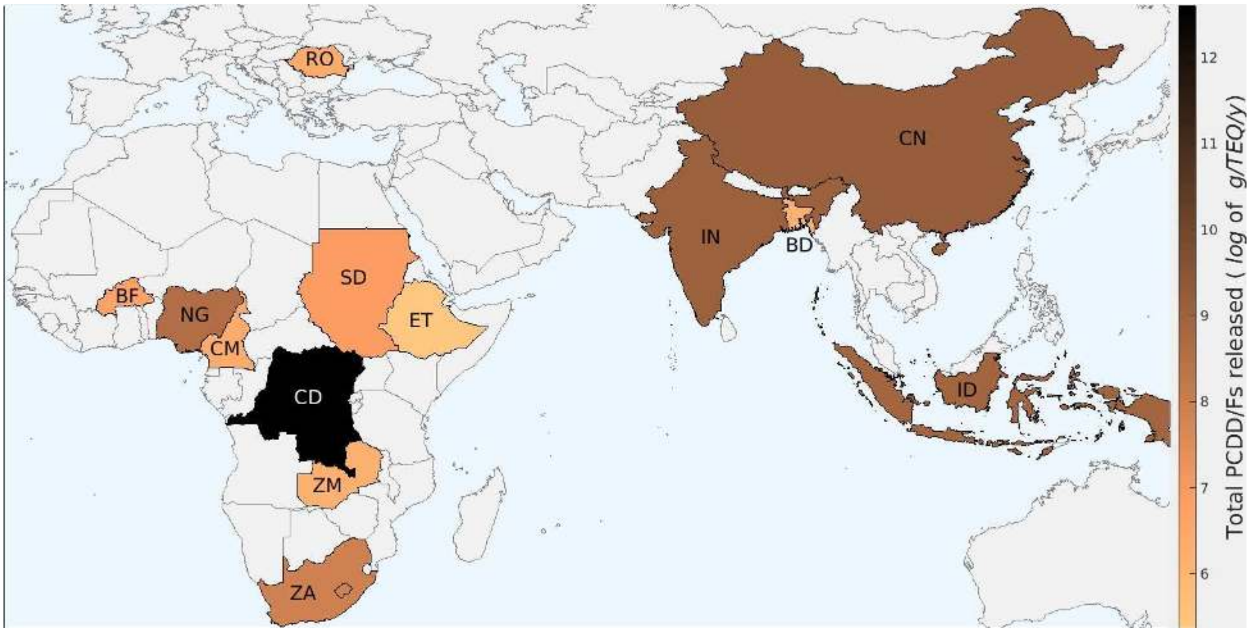
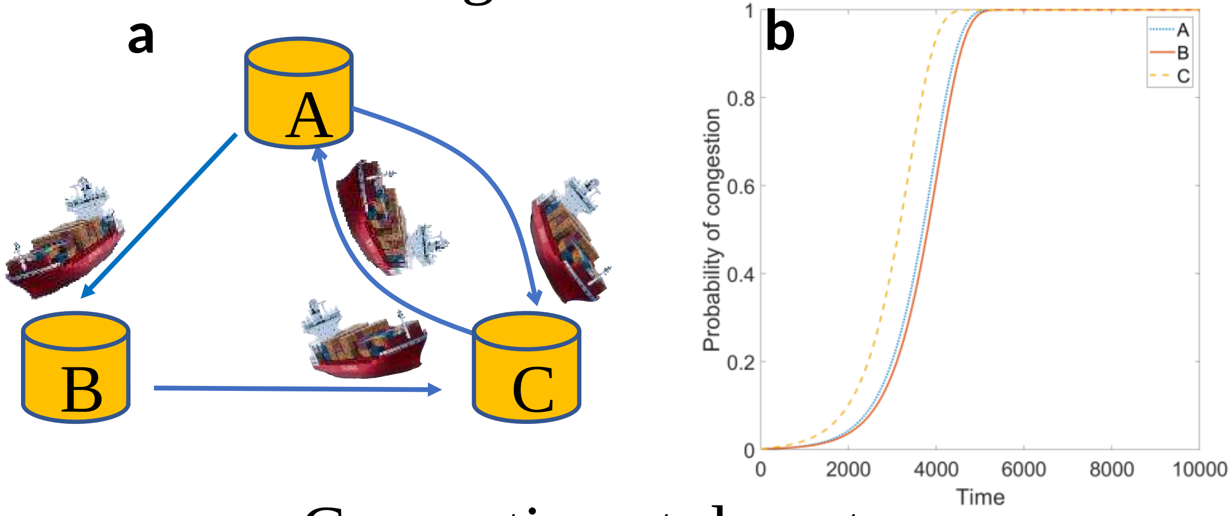


FIG. Extended Data 5. Total amounts of PCDD/Fs released to the environment by some of the countries at HRIHDW identified in this work. The amounts are given in logarithmic scale. The average amount of PCDD/Fs released in the 73 countries not in the list of countries at HRIHDW is 428.1 g/TEQ/y, which in log scale is 6.06.

Congestion at arrival



Congestion at departure

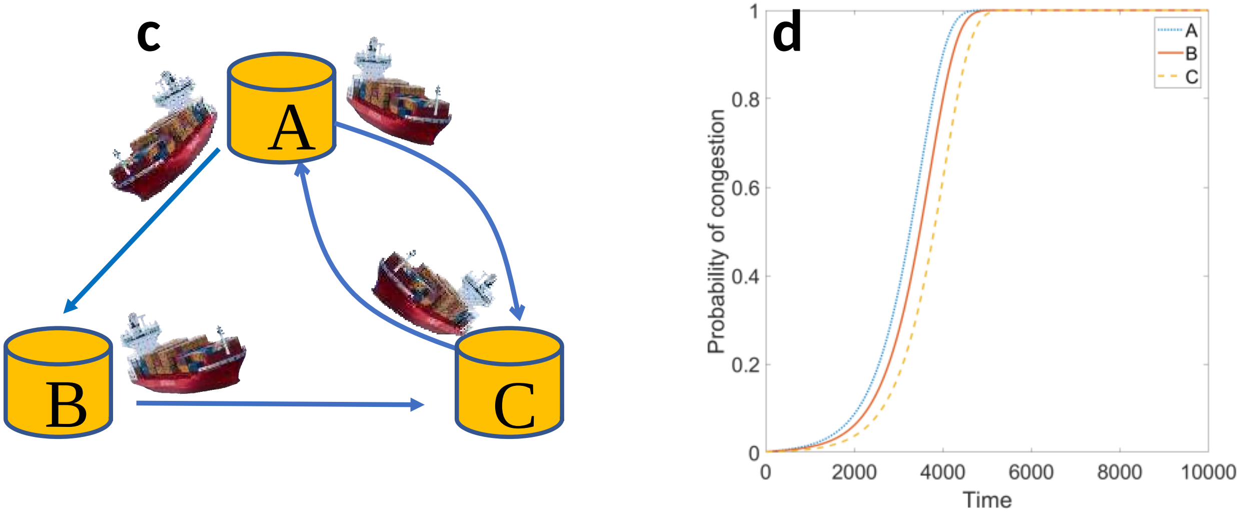


FIG. Extended Data 6. Schematic illustration of the "congestion at arrival" (**a**) and "congestion at departure" (**c**) models and the time-evolution of the congestion propagation through the nodes using these models (**b** and **d**). Notice that in the congestion at arrival (panel **b**), node C reaches 50 % of congestion at a earlier time than A and B. In the congestion at departure (panel **d**), node A reaches 50 % of congestion earlier than B and C. Also notice that the ordering of congestion times at departure and arrival are not simply one the reverse of the other.

Supporting Information

April 14, 2021

This material contains relevant innformation about supplementary dicussion and supplementary mehtods related to the connectivity distribution of the w4 and different types of network centralities; supplementary data, tables and figures with specifications of the chemical fingerprints, as well as for the waste classificacion.

Supplementary information guide

- Degree distributions of W4 networks.
- Chemical fingerprints common in hazardous waste.
- Centrality of countries in the W4 networks.
- Susceptible-waste congested model.
- Chemical fingerprints.
- Countries/territories without EPI.
- Waste categories in types IV-VII. PEIWS analysis of wastes types IV-VII.

Degree distributions of W4 networks

For each of the type I-III we calculated the in- and out-strengths (weighted degrees) of its nodes and tested 17 probability distribution functions: beta, Birnbaum-Saunders, exponential, extreme value, gamma, generalized extreme value, generalized Pareto, inverse Gaussian, logistic, log-logistic, lognormal, Nakagami, normal, Rayleigh, Rician, t-location-scale, and Weibull. The goodness of fit is tested by calculating the following parameters: negative of the log likelihood (NlogL), Bayesian information criterion (BIC), Akaike information criterion (AIC), and AIC with a correction for finite sample sizes (AICc). The results are as follows.

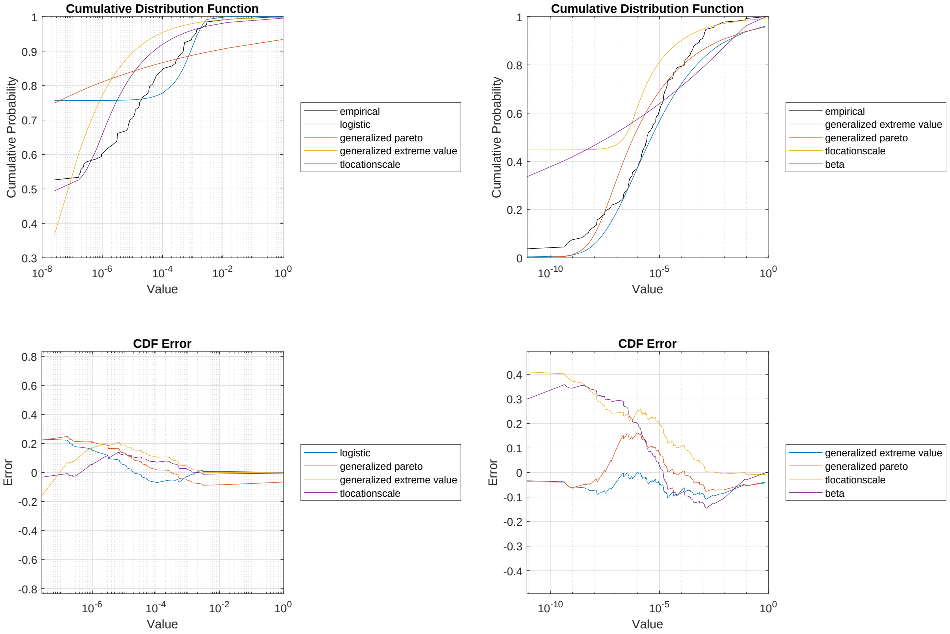
Waste type I

No.	distribution	NlogL	BIC	AIC	AICc
1	logistic	-4293.91	-8578.04	-8583.82	-8583.73
2	generalized pareto	-2516.39	-5018.11	-5026.78	-5026.59
3	generalized extreme value	-1648.86	-3283.06	-3291.73	-3291.54
4	t-location scale	-1303.55	-2592.43	-2601.10	-2600.92
5	exponential	-517.42	-1029.94	-1032.83	-1032.80
6	beta	-228.69	-447.59	-453.38	-453.29
7	normal	-141.47	-273.17	-278.95	-278.86

Table SI. 1: Values of the statistical parameters quantifying the goodness of fit of the distributions fitting the in-strength of the nodes of the W4 network of wastes type I. Only the top seven distributions are shown.

No.	distribution	NlogL	BIC	AIC	AICc
1	generalized extreme value	-1307.44	-2600.20	-2608.87	-2608.69
2	generalized pareto	-1299.41	-2584.16	-2592.83	-2592.64
3	t-location scale	-1176.93	-2339.19	-2347.87	-2347.68
4	beta	-1096.99	-2184.22	-2189.99	-2189.91
5	exponential	-517.42	-1029.94	-1032.83	-1032.80
6	logistic	-341.26	-672.74	-678.52	-678.423
7	normal	-166.82	-323.86	-329.64	-329.54

Table SI. 2: Values of the statistical parameters quantifying the goodness of fit of the distributions fitting the out-strength of the nodes of the W4 network of wastes type I. Only the top seven distributions are shown.



(a) (b)

Figure SI. 1: Cumulative in- (left) and out-degree (right) distributions (top panels) and the corresponding errors (bottom panels) for the W4 of type I wastes. The empirical distribution refers to the data of the W4 network and the others correspond to the best fits using different kinds of distributions, e.g., lognormal, loglogistic, generalized extreme value, etc. The errors are obtained as the differences of the empirical values of the degrees and those estimated by the different kinds of distributions.

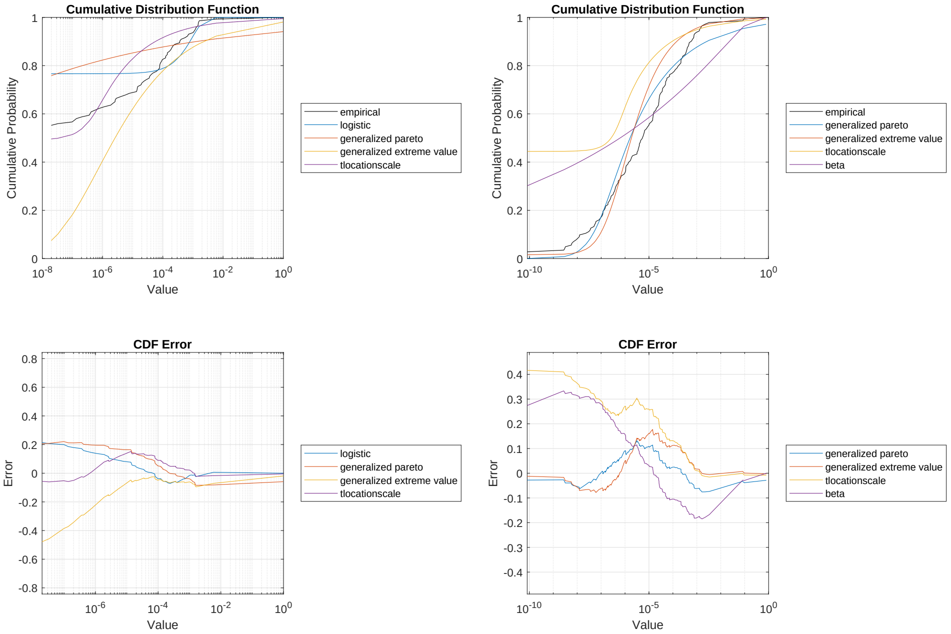
Waste type II

No.	distribution	NlogL	BIC	AIC	AICc
1	logistic	-4493.73	-8977.53	-8983.45	-8983.37
2	generalized pareto	-2786.90	-5558.91	-5567.80	-5567.62
3	generalized extreme value	-1678.73	-3342.57	-3351.46	-3351.29
4	t-location scale	-1401.26	-2787.62	-2796.51	-2796.34
5	exponential	-566.69	-1128.41	-1131.37	-1131.35
6	beta	-213.25	-416.58	-422.51	-422.42
7	normal	-155.66	-301.40	-307.33	-307.24

Table SI. 3: Values of the statistical parameters quantifying the goodness of fit of the distributions fitting the in-strength of the nodes of the W4 network of wastes type II. Only the top seven distributions are shown.

No.	distribution	NlogL	BIC	AIC	AICc
1	generalized pareto	-1340.59	-2666.30	-2675.19	-2675.02
2	generalized extreme value	-1328.14	-2641.40	-2650.29	-2650.11
3	t-location scale	-1226.25	-2437.62	-2446.51	-2446.34
4	beta	-1151.29	-2292.65	-2298.57	-2298.49
5	exponential	-566.69	-1128.41	-1131.37	-1131.35
6	logistic	-375.80	-741.68	-747.60	-747.52
7	normal	-182.89	-355.85	-361.78	-361.69

Table SI. 4: Values of the statistical parameters quantifying the goodness of fit of the distributions fitting the out-strength of the nodes of the W4 network of wastes type II. Only the top seven distributions are shown.



(a)

(b)

Figure SI. 2: Cumulative in- (left) and out-degree (right) distributions (top panels) and the corresponding errors (bottom panels) for the W4 of type II wastes. The empirical distribution refers to the data of the W4 network and the others correspond to the best fits using different kinds of distributions, e.g., lognormal, loglogistic, generalized extreme value, etc. The errors are obtained as the differences of the empirical values of the degrees and those estimated by the different kinds of distributions.

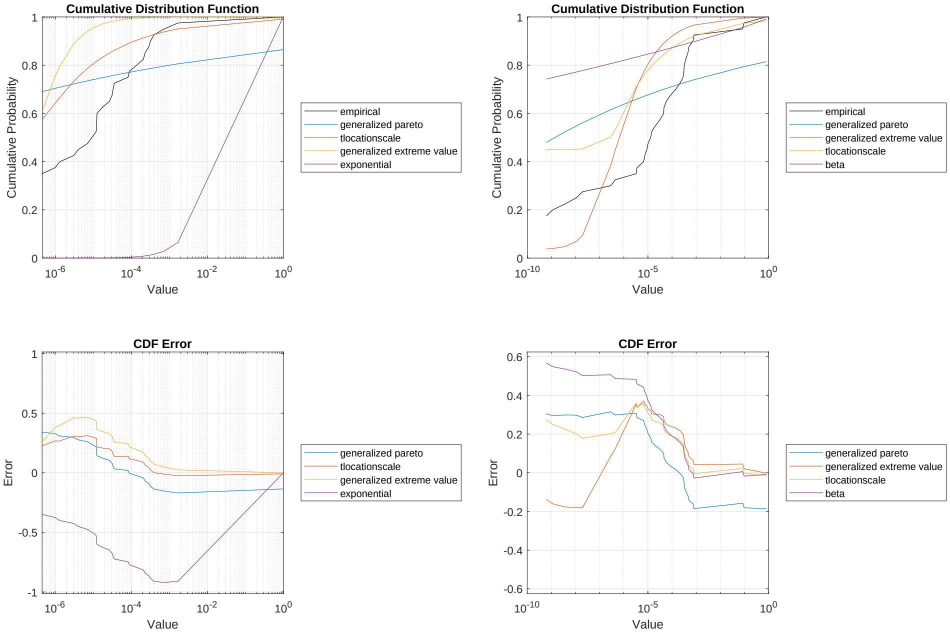
Waste type III

No.	distribution	NlogL	BIC	AIC	AICc
1	generalized pareto	-551.73	-1092.40	-1097.47	-1096.80
2	t-location scale	-338.81	-666.56	-671.62	-670.96
3	generalized extreme value	-337.24	-663.42	-668.49	-667.82
4	exponential	-107.56	-211.42	-213.11	-213.01
5	beta	-106.42	-205.46	-208.84	-208.52
6	logistic	-53.69	-100.01	-103.39	-103.06
7	normal	-17.70	-28.02	-31.40	-31.08

Table SI. 5: Values of the statistical parameters quantifying the goodness of fit of the distributions fitting the in-strength of the nodes of the W4 network of wastes type III. Only the top seven distributions are shown.

No.	distribution	NlogL	BIC	AIC	AICc
1	generalized pareto	-405.41	-799.76	-804.83	-804.16
2	generalized extreme value	-331.18	-651.30	-656.37	-655.70
3	t-location scale	-298.60	-586.14	-591.21	-590.54
4	beta	-186.04	-364.69	-368.07	-367.75
5	exponential	-107.56	-211.42	-213.11	-213.01
6	logistic	-56.58	-105.78	-109.16	-108.83
7	normal	-25.49	-43.60	-46.98	-46.66

Table SI. 6: Values of the statistical parameters quantifying the goodness of fit of the distributions fitting the out-strength of the nodes of the W4 network of wastes type III. Only the top seven distributions are shown.



(a) (b)

Figure SI. 3: Cumulative in- (left) and out-degree (right) distributions (top panels) and the corresponding errors (bottom panels) for the W4 of type III wastes. The empirical distribution refers to the data of the W4 network and the others correspond to the best fits using different kinds of distributions, e.g., lognormal, loglogistic, generalized extreme value, etc. The errors are obtained as the differences of the empirical values of the degrees and those estimated by the different kinds of distributions.

Chemical fingerprints common in hazardous waste

It has been argued that all chemical substances which are outside their usual environments or at concentrations above normal represent a contaminant and that they become pollutants when accumulations are sufficient to affect the environment or living organisms.[1] The sources of these chemicals may be very diverse, but some of the top contaminants emerge from waste. These are the cases of heavy metals, such as arsenic, lead, mercury, hexavalent chromium, and cadmium; volatile organic compounds like vinylchloride, benzene, hexachlorobutadiene or persistent organic pollutants like polycyclic aromatic compounds, polychlorinated biphenyls and dioxins.[1] The distribution of contaminants across the world is very unequal with a bigger impact on low and middle-income countries.[2] In these countries there are serious problems with the disposal of waste, which is poorly managed, regulated or controlled,[2] and obsolete techniques are applied for their processing, which together with the lack of governmental infrastructure makes the situation critical.[2] The substantial inform "Chemical Pollution in Low and Middle-Income Countries"[2] has identified many of the problems emerging in these countries due to the chemical pollution in spite of the many internationally existing legislation, such as the Stockholm, Basel, and Rotterdam Conventions, and the Strategic Approach to International Chemicals Management (SAICM).

Generally, the term "hazardous" waste (HW) is used to define waste with potential threats to public health[3] and the environment. It includes waste electrical and electronic equipment, commonly designated as e-waste, which has become the fastest-growing component of the solid-waste streams in the world.[4] E-waste disposal and its informal management generates highly toxic heavy metals, brominated flame retardants, non-dioxin-like polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins (PCDD), polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PBDF) and dioxin-like polychlorinated biphenyls (DL-PCB). These compounds are endocrine disrupters, and most are neuro- and immune-toxic as well. Another important source of chemical contamination is the clinical and medical waste.[5–7] Some attention has been given to the cases of infection transmission due to the inappropriate disposal and handling of this type of waste,[5–7] but less is known about the chemical traces left by medical waste on the environment and human populations. Another growing source of chemical contaminants is municipal solid waste, which tripled from 1965 to 2015.[8]

Waste problems in developing countries is aggravated by the transboundary trade of HW, which increases their burden of certain kinds of waste in those countries.[9–13] The problem should be analyzed from a wide perspective. Namely, we do not claim here that waste trade is the source of all the environmental and human health problems that waste produces. We claim that in those countries with a large burden due to bad practices and poor resources for waste management, importing any amount of waste will only aggravate their situation. This is illustrated by the fact that in Africa there are significant levels of soil pollution due to agricultural activities, mining, roadside emissions, auto-mechanic workshops, their own refuse dumps and e-waste.[14] Then, when poor African countries like Nigeria, become a dumping ground for HW imported from abroad,[15] the situation become of a very high risk. In Africa there are 67,740 health-care facilities which generate 56,100-487,100 tonnes of medical waste per year. These global amounts are not exaggeratedly large, but the risk is very high considering that medical waste is rarely sorted which makes the amounts of HW much higher than in other parts of the world.[16,17] Then, when these countries receive large amounts of e-waste from abroad they do not have resources for dealing with its recycling. The consequences are elevated levels of e-waste pollutants in water, air, soil, dust, fish, vegetable, and human blood, urine, breast milk, producing headache, cough and chest pain, stomach discomfort, miscarriage, abnormal thyroid and reproductive function, reduction of gonadal hormone, and cancer in those involved with the processing of e-waste.[18]

In Table SI. 7 we report the chemical fingerprints left by different types of waste according to an intensive bibliographic search carried out in this work.

In Tables SI. 8, SI. 9 and SI. 10 we then report every individual waste category reported by the Basel Convention, which are on the types I-III considered in this work. We report the chemical fingerprints left by these waste based on the specific report on their contents at the Basel Convention web page.

fingerprint	wastes	ref.
HM	pesticides, paints and pigments, enamel, varnishes, dyes, catalysts, batteries, accumulators, printing products, e-waste, metal products, asbestos, anticorrosive, technical oils, sewage sludge, waste incineration products, waste from plastic production, PVC plastics, colored glass, glues, ash of coal, metalurgical slag, galvanic waste, waste of nonferrous metallurgy, waste of leather industry, agriculture waste, waste of medicines, medical/clinical waste	[19–26]
VOC	solvents, wastes from petroleum refining, synthetic resin, textile dyeing and printing, leather manufacturing, the pharmaceutical industry, pesticide manufacturing, coating, printing ink, adhesive manufacturing, spraying, printing, e-waste, plastic solid waste recycling, municipal solid waste, agricultural waste burning	[21, 22, 27–33]
POP	municipal solid waste, medical waste, sewage sludge, and hazardous waste incinerations; informal recycling of e-waste; drilling wastes; PCB-containing additives in rubber, resins, carbonless copy paper, inks, hydraulic fluids, heat-transfer fluids, plasticizers, and lubricants; PCB-containing transformers, capacitors; PCB-containing wastes from coating of papers, sealants of cars, coloring of China glassware, color television parts, the effect extension agents of agricultural chemicals, oil additive agents	[21, 22, 25, 34–38]

Table SI. 7: Chemical fingerprints left by waste in the environment and/or human health. The fingerprints are classified as heavy metals (HM), volatile organic compounds (VOC) and persistent organic pollutants (POP).

Waste categories in types I-III

category	description	fingerprints
Y1	Clinical wastes from medical care in hospitals, medical centers and clinics	HM, VOC, POP
Y2	Wastes from the production and preparation of pharmaceutical products	HM, VOC, POP
Y3	Waste pharmaceuticals, drugs and medicines	HM, VOC, POP
Y4	Wastes from the production, formulation and use of biocides and phytopharmaceuticals	HM, VOC, POP
Y5	Wastes from the manufacture, formulation and use of wood preserving chemicals	HM, VOC, POP
Y6	Wastes from the production, formulation and use of organic solvents	VOC
Y7	Wastes from heat treatment and tempering operations containing cyanides	VOC
Y8	Waste mineral oils unfit for their originally intended use	VOC, POP
Y9	Waste oils/water, hydrocarbons/water mixtures, emulsions	VOC, POP
Y10	Waste substances and articles containing or contaminated with polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and/or polychlorinated terphenyls (PCTs) and/or polybrominated biphenyls (PBBs)	POP
Y11	Waste tarry residues arising from refining, distillation and any pyrolytic treatment	HM, VOC, POP
Y12	Wastes from production, formulation and use of inks, dyes, pigments, paints, lacquers, varnish	VOC, POP
Y13	Wastes from production, formulation and use of resins, latex, plasticizers, glues/adhesives	VOC, POP
Y14	Waste chemical substances arising from research and development or teaching activities which are not identified and/or are new and whose effects on man and/or the environment are not known	HM, VOC, POP
Y15	Wastes of an explosive nature not subject to other legislation	VOC
Y16	Wastes from production, formulation and use of photographic chemicals and processing materials	HM, VOC, POP
Y17	Wastes resulting from surface treatment of metals and plastics	VOC, POP
Y18	Residues arising from industrial waste disposal operations	HM, VOC, POP

Table SI. 8: Waste categories included in the Basel Convention which are grouped in the type I of wastes and the chemical fingerprints (CF) left by them in the environment and/or human health: heavy metals (HM), volatile organic compounds (VOC) and persistent organic pollutants (POP).

category	description	fingerprints
Y19	Metal carbonyls	HM, VOC
Y20	Beryllium; beryllium compounds	HM
Y21	Hexavalent chromium compounds	HM
Y22	Copper compounds	HM, VOC, POP
Y23	Zinc compounds	HM
Y24	Arsenic; arsenic compounds	HM
Y25	Selenium; selenium compounds	HM
Y26	Cadmium; cadmium compounds	HM
Y27	Antimony; antimony compounds	HM
Y28	Tellurium; tellurium compounds	HM
Y29	Mercury; mercury compounds	HM
Y30	Thallium; thallium compounds	HM
Y31	Lead; lead compounds	HM
Y32	Inorganic fluorine compounds excluding calcium fluoride	HM
Y33	Inorganic cyanides	VOC
Y34	Acidic solutions or acids in solid form	VOC, POP
Y35	Basic solutions or bases in solid form	VOC, POP
Y36	Asbestos (dust and fibres)	
Y37	Organic phosphorus compounds	VOC, POP
Y38	Organic cyanides	VOC
Y39	Phenols; phenol compounds including chlorophenols	VOC
Y40	Ethers	VOC
Y41	Halogenated organic solvents	VOC, POP
Y42	Organic solvents excluding halogenated solvents	VOC
Y43	Any congenor of polychlorinated dibenzo-furan	POP
Y44	Any congenor of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin	POP
Y45	Organohalogen compounds other than substances referred to in this Annex (e.g. Y39, Y41, Y42, Y43, Y44)	HM, VOC, POP

Table SI. 9: Waste categories included in the Basel Convention which are grouped in the type II of wastes and the chemical fingerprints (CF) left by them in the environment and/or human health: heavy metals (HM), volatile organic compounds (VOC) and persistent organic pollutants (POP).

category	description	fingerprints
Y46	Wastes collected from households	HM, VOC, POP
Y47	Residues arising from the incineration of household wastes	HM, VOC, POP

Table SI. 10: Waste categories included in the Basel Convention which are grouped in the type III of wastes and the chemical fingerprints (CF) left by them in the environment and/or human health: heavy metals (HM), volatile organic compounds (VOC) and persistent organic pollutants (POP).

Centrality of countries in the W4 networks

Here we introduce other networks metrics for waste types I, II, and III. Fig. SI. 4 depicts the in-/out-strengths. Fig. SI. 5 shows the betweenness centrality, and Fig. SI. 6 introduces the in-closeness for types I, II, III; and the out-closeness for type III (the other network metrics are shown in the main manuscript as Extended figures).

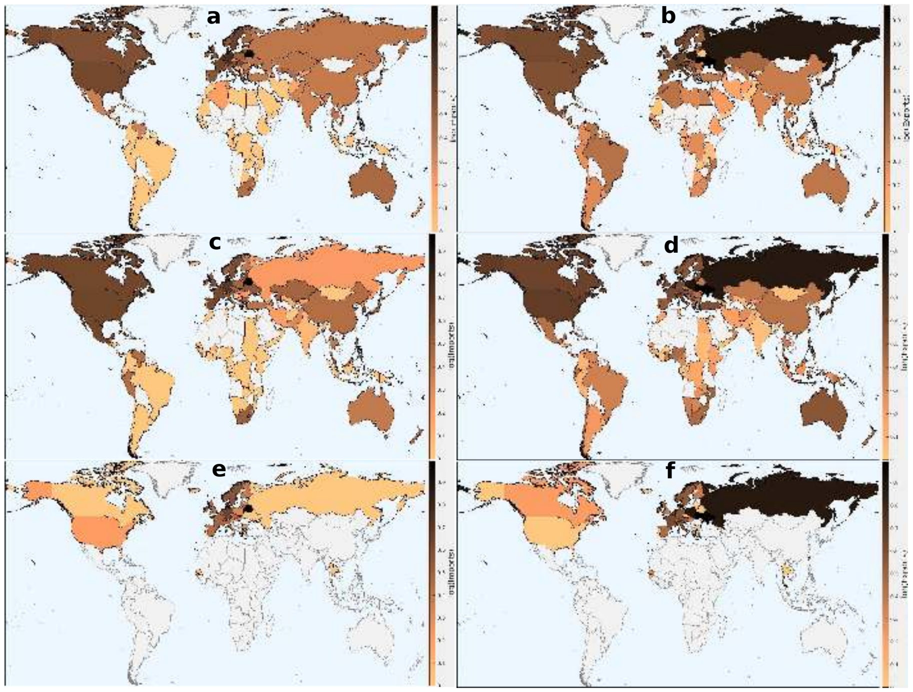


Figure SI. 4: Main importers (left panels) and exporters (right panels) for wastes of types I (a, b), II (c, d) and III (e, f). These values correspond to the in- and out-strengths (weighted degrees) of the corresponding countries in the respective W4 networks.

Susceptible-waste congested model

We consider that a country in the W4 is susceptible to get congested of waste from any of its nearest neighbors, which is already congested. This is basically a susceptible-infected (SI) model, in which instead of an infection it is waste congestion what is spread across the network. Then, if β is the rate at which congestion is transmitted between countries, and if $s_i(t)$ and $x_i(t)$ are the probabilities that the country i is susceptible or get congested at time t, respectively, we can write the dynamics as

$$\frac{ds_i(t)}{dt} = -\beta s_i(t)\, x_i(t)\,, \tag{0.1}$$

$$\frac{dx_i(t)}{dt} = \beta s_i(t)\, x_i(t)\,. \tag{0.2}$$

Because the countries can only be in the states "susceptible" or "congested" we have that $s_i(t) + x_i(t) = 1$, such that we can write

$$\frac{dx_i(t)}{dt} = \beta\left(1 - x_i(t)\right) x_i(t)\,, \tag{0.3}$$

or in the case of countries connected through a W4 network we have:[39]

$$\frac{dx_i(t)}{dt} = \beta\left(1 - x_i(t)\right) \sum_{j\in\mathcal{N}} A_{ij} x_j(t)\,, t \geq t_0, \tag{0.4}$$

where A_{ij} are the entries of the adjacency matrix of the W4 for the pair of countries i and j, and $\mathcal{N}$ is the set of nearest neighbors of j. In matrix-vector form it becomes:

$$\frac{dx(t)}{dt} = \beta\left[I_N - \operatorname{diag}\left(x(t)\right)\right] Ax(t)\,, \tag{0.5}$$

with initial condition $x(0) = x_0$. This model can be rewritten as

$$\frac{1}{1 - x_i(t)} \frac{dx_i(t)}{dt} = \beta \sum_{j\in\mathcal{N}} A_{ij} \left(1 - e^{-(-\log(1 - x_j(t)))}\right), \tag{0.6}$$

which is equivalent to

$$\frac{dy_i(t)}{dt} = \beta \sum_{j\in\mathcal{N}} A_{ij} f\left(y_j(t)\right), \tag{0.7}$$

where $y_i(t) \coloneqq g\left(x_i(t)\right) = -\log\left(1 - x_i(t)\right) \in [0, \infty]$, $f(y) \coloneqq 1 - e^{-y} = g^{-1}(y)$.

We now consider that the transmission of waste congestion from one country to another is not instantaneous, but there is a "residence" time of wastes at the exporting country before exporting them and a waiting time in the importing country before they properly enter it. As these residence times are different for different countries and because they are unknown in the general case we

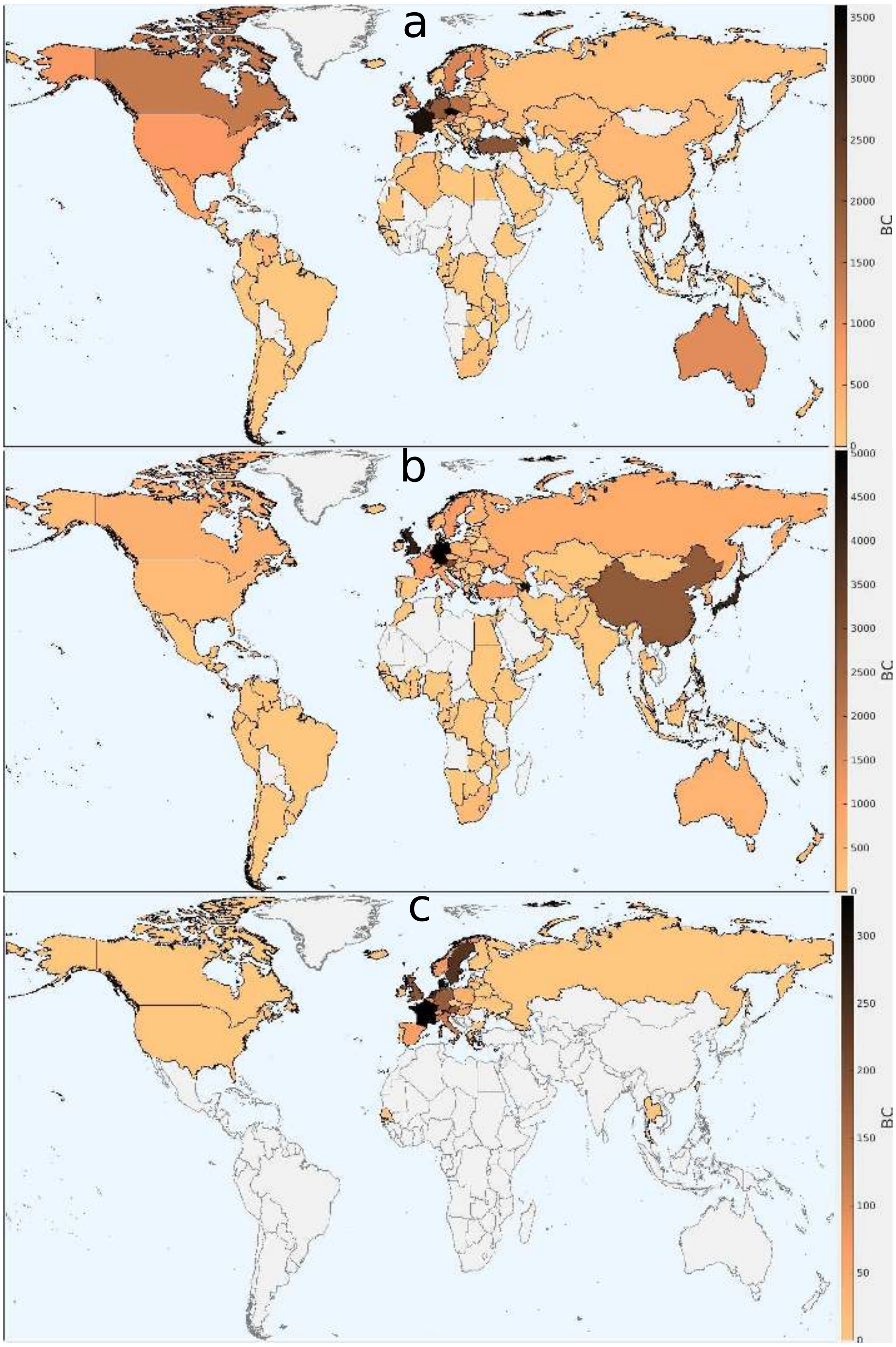


Figure SI. 5: Main countries to which more flux of wastes pass through them for types I (a), II (b) and III (c). These values correspond to the betweenness centrality of the corresponding countries in the respective W4 networks.

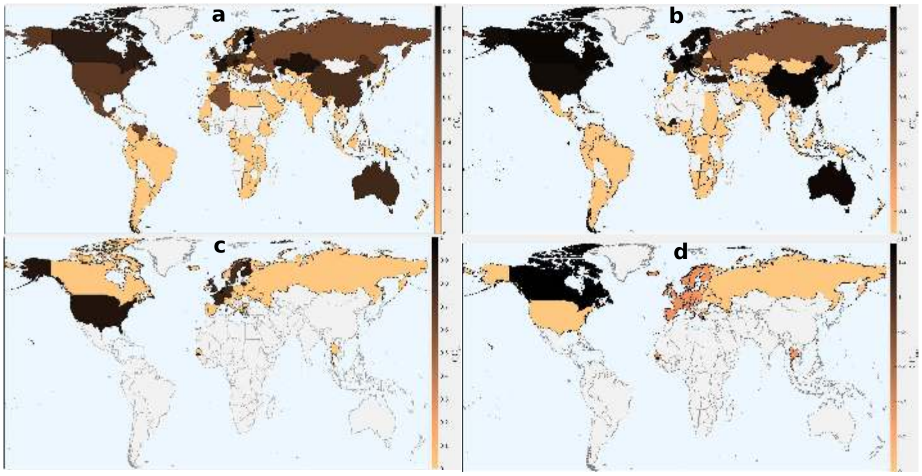


Figure SI. 6: Main countries to which the traffic of the network is closer from all other territories in the network. Values correspond to In-closeness centrality for type I (a), II (b), II (c). Main countries which are closer to all countries/territories in the waste network for out-closeness centrality of type III (c).

transform (0.1) and (0.2) to their fractional analogues to cope with these time delays. Let $0 < \alpha < 1$, then

$$\begin{cases} \displaystyle\int_0^t g_{1-\alpha}(t-\tau)\frac{s_i'(\tau)}{x_i(\tau)}d\tau = -\beta^\alpha s_i(t), \\ \displaystyle\int_0^t g_{1-\alpha}(t-\tau)\frac{x_i'(\tau)}{s_i(\tau)}d\tau = \beta^\alpha x_i(t). \end{cases}$$

Assuming again that $s_i(t) + x_i(t) = 1$, we have

$$\int_0^t g_{1-\alpha}(t-\tau)\frac{x_i'(\tau)}{1-x_i(\tau)}d\tau = \beta^\alpha x_i(t), \tag{0.8}$$

which for the case of a network is written as

$$\int_0^t g_{1-\alpha}(t-\tau)\frac{x_i'(\tau)}{1-x_i(\tau)}d\tau = \beta^\alpha \sum_{j\in\mathcal{N}} A_{ij}x_j, \quad i\in\mathcal{N}, t>0, x_i(0)\in[0,1]. \tag{0.9}$$

We can rewrite (0.9) in a matrix-vector form:

$$D_t^\alpha(-\log(1-x))(t) = \beta^\alpha Ax(t), \tag{0.10}$$

with initial condition $x(0) = x_0$.

In order to solve analytically the previous equation we apply the Lee-Tenneti-Eun (LTE) transformation[40] which produces the following linearized equation

$$D_t^\alpha \hat{y}(t) = \beta^\alpha A\mathrm{diag}(1-x_0)\hat{y}(t) + \beta^\alpha Ab(x(0)), \tag{0.11}$$

where $\hat{x}(t) = f(\hat{y}(t))$ in which $\hat{x}(t)$ is an approximate solution to the fractional SI model, $\hat{y}$ is the solution of (0.11) with initial condition $\hat{y}(0) = g(x(0))$ and $b(x) := x + (1-x)\log(1-x)$. For convenience, we write $\Omega := \operatorname{diag}(1-x_0)$, and $\hat{A} = A\Omega$. Then, we have proved that this approximate solution $\hat{x}(t)$ is a non-divergent upper bound to the exact solution $x(t)$.

Theorem 1. *For any $t \geq 0$, we have*

$$x(t) \preceq \hat{x}(t) = f(\hat{y}(t)),$$

under the same initial conditions $x_0 := x(0) = \hat{x}(0)$, where the solution $\hat{y}$ of (0.11) is given by

$$\hat{y}(t) = E_{\alpha,1}\left((\beta t)^{\alpha}\hat{A}\right) g(x_0) + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\beta t)^{\alpha(n+1)}\hat{A}^n A b(x_0)}{\Gamma(\alpha(n+1)+1)}. \tag{0.12}$$

Furthermore, $\|\hat{x}(t) - x(t)\| \to 0$ and $\|\tilde{x}(t) - x(t)\| \to \infty$ as t goes to infinity.

We also proved that when all values of the initial condition are smaller than one, i.e., $x_0 \preceq 1$, which means that at the starting point of the simulation no country is completely congested of waste, the solution of the fractional susceptible-waste congested model is

$$\hat{y}(t) = g(x_0) + \left[E_{\alpha,1}\left((\beta t)^{\alpha}\hat{A}\right) - I\right]\Omega^{-1}x(0). \tag{0.13}$$

This is important because if we consider the plausible case that the probability of getting congested at $t = 0$ is the same fr every country, which mathematically is written as: $x_0 = \frac{c}{N}$ where $c \in \mathbb{R}^{+}$, we have that

$$\hat{y}(t) = \left(\frac{1-\gamma}{\gamma}\right) E_{\alpha,1}\left(t^{\alpha}\beta^{\alpha}\gamma A\right)\vec{1} - \left(\frac{1-\gamma}{\gamma} + \log\gamma\right)\vec{1}, \tag{0.14}$$

where $\gamma = 1 - x_0$ and we have used the fact that $\operatorname{diag}(1 - x(0)) = \gamma I$, where I is the identity matrix.

The Mittag-Leffler function $E_{\alpha,1}\left(\zeta A\right)$ with $\zeta = (\beta t)^{1/2}\gamma$, which appears in the approximate solution of the fractional susceptible-waste congested model, belongs to the class of matrix functions of the adjacency matrix.[41] In general, it can be written as[42–45]

$$E_{\alpha,\nu}\left(\zeta A\right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\zeta A)^k}{\Gamma(\alpha k + \nu)}, \alpha > 0, \nu \in \mathbb{C}. \tag{0.15}$$

Chemical fingerprints

country	fingerprints	observations	Ref.
AE	HM, VOC, POP	Learning disorder related to blood concentration of heavy metals in children; pollution by polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) along the coast; diseases attributed to anthropogenic air pollution; pollution by volatile organic compounds (VOC) from tank farms.	46–49
BH	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metals contamination in coastal and marine environments; unavailability of suitable treatment and disposal of hazardous medical wastes; pollution by heavy metals, PAHs and a suite of organohalogen compounds in the coast; elevated toulene/benzene ratios in ambient air.	50–53
YE	VOC, POP	Contamination with POP, mainly PAHs, and significant VOC emissions.	54–57
KW	HM	Heavy metals detected at municipal wastewater and sludges	58
PL	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metal pollution in sewage sludge from municipal wastewater, at sediments and at solid waste landfill; volatile organohalogen compounds in urban precipitation; high BTEX concentrations in urban areas.	59–64
RO	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metal pollution in the soils; potential pollution by persistent organic pollutants (POP); existing problems with household waste management; significant levels of VOC in urban area.	65–69
UZ	HM, VOC, POP	Pollution by heavy metals with impact on human health; contamination of soils with POP, particularly by PAHs.	70–72
UA	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metal polution of forests.	73
BD	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metal contamination of fruits, vegetables, fish and ther foodstuffs with risk for human health; serious mismanagement of medical waste in the capital with serious risk of human health; Heavy pollution with POP, particularly polychlorinated byphenyls (PCB).	74–81

CN	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metals, VOC and POP pollution due to e-waste disposal and mismanagement with serious thread for human health; high contamination levels of PCB from equipments; emission and speciation of VOC from anthropogenic sources, ncluding high levels of BTEX; high levels of pollution from medical wastes and their incineration.	82–94
IN	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metals contamination due to diverse wastes, including e-waste, with serious thread for human health; high levels of VOC from waste dumps, including high levels of BTEX; problems with dumping and informal recycling of medical waste with important human health problems.	95–106
PK	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metals pollution from diverse waste sources, including e-waste, recognized as an emerging problem and medical waste incineration; high levels of VOC, including BTEX in urban atmosphere; public health problems from hospital solid waste mismanagement.	107–114
BN	HM, POP	Heavy metals contamination from anthropogenic sources in the Brunei Bay.	115, 116
ID	HM, POP	Serious human health problems due to heavy metals from informal e-waste recycling, which represents a major problem; human health problems in dumpsite waste pickers and due to mismanagement of medical wastes.	117–120
PG	HM, POP	Heavy metal water pollution in Depapre waters.	121
KP	HM		
BW	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metals contamination of soils and waters; pollution by organohalogen contaminants.	122–124
CD	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metals and POP contamination in river, estuary, and marine sediments from Atlantic Coast; impact of heavy metals on human health in children and adult populations; contamination of water resources and food chain by POP.	125–128
CG	HM, VOC, POP		
ZA	HM, VOC, POP	Heavy metals pollution and health effects associated with e-waste exposure; VOC pollution, including BTEX, with cardiovascular risk in women; PCBs in air, soil and milk in industrialized and urban areas; health problems due to mismanagamenet of medical care wastes by informal waste pickers.	129–133

ET	HM, VOC, POP	Problems with uncontrolled waste disposal and heavy metals contamination of soils and waters in Addis Ababa; contamination by VOC in urban environment; high levels of pollution by POP, specially PCB and dioxins at different lcatins and levels of the trophic chain; seriuos problems of mismanagement of medical wastes with reported cases of hepatitis B and C directly related to them.	134–144
GN	HM, POP	Heavy metals contamination in the Gulf of Guinea.	145
MZ	HM, POP	Heavy metals and organic chemicals, including pharmaceuticals, in soils and waters.	146–148
SL	HM, POP	Heavy metals and POP contamination due to e-waste recycling; high levels of exposition to dioxins and furans; mismanagement of solid waste depositions with environmental and human health risk.	149–151
LY	POP	Pollution by POP mainly dioxins and PAHs from solid waste; mismanagement of medical wastes with reported cases of hepatis B and C in medical waste handlers.	152–155
MR	POP	Contamination by POP like PAHs in Atlantic coast of Mauritania (Levrier Bay Zone); high levels of PCB contamination in marine ecosystems front of the coast of Mauritania.	156–158
BF	HM	Heavy metals contamination of soils from informal settlements, peri-urban agriculture and unregulated waste dumping; problems with waste management producing heavy metals contamination and with impact on human health.	159–162
NG	HM	Heavy metals contamination and ecological risks from municipal central dumpsite; contamination by heavy metals, VOC and POP due to informal e-waste recycling.	163, 164
SD	HM	Heavy metals pollution in Sudanese harbours along the Red Sea Coast.	165
ZM	HM	Heavy metal contamination of soil and sediment; potential heavy metals, VOC and POP from e-wastes	166, 167
CM	POP	Heavy metals contamination of surface soil and potential VOC and POP environmental pollution due to e-waste recycling; problems with medical wastes management and soil pollution by heavy metals due to their incineration.	168–170

Countries/territories without EPI

Type I			Type II			Type III	
country	R_i		country	R_i		country	R_i
Hong Kong	0.502		Andorra	0.565		Monaco	0.755
Isle of Man	0.487		Puerto Rico	0.517		Andorra	0.659
San Marino	0.462		Hong Kong	0.499		San Marino	0.638
Afghanistan	0.457		Isle of Man	0.493		Faroe Islands	0.543
Andorra	0.452		Afghanistan	0.486			
Falkland Islands	0.442		Liechtenstein	0.474			
Guernsey	0.440		Monaco	0.465			
Monaco	0.439		Kiribati	0.449			
Jersey	0.438		Guernsey	0.446			
Liechtenstein	0.438		Barbados	0.435			
Aruba	0.426		Jersey	0.435			
Cape Verde	0.324		San Marino	0.434			
French Polynesia	0.261		Falkland Islands	0.433			
New Caledonia	0.189		Samoa	0.419			
Tonga	0.170		Marshall Islands	0.411			
Micronesia	0.169		Solomon Islands	0.384			
Cook Islands	0.166		French Polynesia	0.381			
Marshall Islands	0.143		Timor-Leste	0.380			
Niue	0.094		New Caledonia	0.361			
Tuvalu	0.079		Niue	0.350			
Kiribati	0.071		St. Lucia	0.349			
Barbados	0.024		Cook Islands	0.336			
			Tonga	0.318			
			Gibraltar	0.314			
			Lesotho	0.308			
			Micronesia	0.306			
			Martinique	0.296			
			Togo	0.145			

Table SI. 12: Values of the risk of congestion R_i of waste types I-III for countries/territories for which EPI are not reported. Therefore, we cannot built the PEIWC for these countries/territories although they can be at relatively HRIHDW.

Waste categories in types IV-VII

Waste of types IV-VII represents less than 0.001% of the total volume of waste traded in the world in the period 2003-2009. However, in volume it still represents 2866.79 tonnes of waste traded across the world: 821.92 tonnes (type IV), 295.90 tonnes (type V), 756.15 tonnes (type VI) and 992.83 tonnes (type VII). The different categories of the Basel Convention included in these four types are described in Tables SI. 13, SI. 14, SI. 15, and SI. 16, respectively.

category	description
A1010	Metal wastes and waste consisting of alloys of any of the following: Antimony, Arsenic, Beryllium, Cadmium, Lead, Mercury, Selenium, Tellurium, Thallium.
A1020	Waste having as constituents or contaminants, excluding metal waste in massive form, any of the following: Antimony; antimony compounds, Beryllium; beryllium compounds, Cadmium; cadmium compounds, Lead; lead compounds, Selenium; selenium compounds, Tellurium; tellurium compounds
A1030	Wastes having as constituents or contaminants any of the following: Arsenic; arsenic compounds, Mercury; mercury compounds, Thallium; thallium compounds
A1040	Wastes having as constituents any of the following: Metal carbonyls, hexavalent chromium compounds
A1050	Galvanic sludges
A1060	Waste liquors from the pickling of metals
A1070	Leaching residues from zinc processing, dust and sludges, such as jarosite, hematite, etc.
A1080	Waste zinc residues, containing lead and cadmium in concentrations sufficient to exhibit Annex III characteristics
A1090	Ashes from the incineration of insulated copper wire
A1100	Dusts and residues from gas cleaning systems of copper smelters
A1110	Spent electrolytic solutions from copper electrorefining and electrowinning operations
A1120	Waste sludges, excluding anode slimes, from electrolyte purification systems in copper electrorefining and electrowinning operations
A1130	Spent etching solutions containing dissolved copper
A1140	Waste cupric chloride and copper cyanide catalysts
A1150	Precious metal ash from incineration of printed circuit boards
A1160	Waste lead-acid batteries, whole or crushed
A1170	Unsorted waste batteries. Waste batteries containing Annex I constituents to an extent to render them hazardous
A1180	Waste electrical and electronic assemblies or scrap containing components such as accumulators and other batteries included on list A, mercury-switches, glass from cathode-ray tubes and other activated glass and PCB capacitors, or contaminated with Annex I constituents (e.g., cadmium, mercury, lead, polychlorinated biphenyl) to an extent that they possess any of the characteristics contained in Annex III
A1190	Waste metal cables coated or insulated with plastics containing or contaminated with coal tar, PCB, lead, cadmium, other organohalogen compounds or other Annex I constituents to an extent that they exhibit Annex III characteristics.

Table SI. 13: Waste categories included in the Basel Convention which are grouped in the type IV of wastes.

category	description
A2010	Glass waste from cathode-ray tubes and other activated glasses
A2020	Waste inorganic fluorine compounds in the form of liquids or sludges
A2030	Waste catalysts
A2040	Waste gypsum arising from chemical industry processes, when containing Annex I constituents to the extent that it exhibits an Annex III hazardous characteristic
A2050	Waste asbestos (dusts and fibres)
A2060	Coal-fired power plant fly-ash containing Annex I substances in concentrations sufficient to exhibit Annex III characteristics

Table SI. 14: Waste categories included in the Basel Convention which are grouped in the type V of wastes.

category	description
A3010	Waste from the production or processing of petroleum coke and bitumen
A3020	Waste mineral oils unfit for their originally intended use
A3030	Wastes that contain, consist of or are contaminated with leaded anti-knock compound sludges
A3040	Waste thermal (heat transfer) fluids
A3050	Wastes from production, formulation and use of resins, latex, plasticizers, glues/adhesives
A3060	Waste nitrocellulose
A3070	Waste phenols, phenol compounds including chlorophenol in the form of liquids or sludges
A3080	Waste ethers
A3090	Waste leather dust, ash, sludges and flours when containing hexavalent chromium compounds or biocides
A3100	Waste paring and other waste of leather or of composition leather not suitable for the manufacture of leather articles containing hexavalent chromium compounds or biocides
A3110	Fellmongery wastes containing hexavalent chromium compounds or biocides or infectious substances
A3120	Fluff-light fraction from shredding
A3130	Waste organic phosphorous compounds
A3140	Waste non-halogenated organic solvents
A3150	Waste halogenated organic solvents
A3160	Waste halogenated or unhalogenated non-aqueous distillation residues arising from organic solvent recovery operations
A3170	Wastes arising from the production of aliphatic halogenated hydrocarbons (such as chloromethane, dichloro-ethane, vinyl chloride, vinylidene chloride, allyl chloride and epichlorhydrin)
A3180	Wastes, substances and articles containing, consisting of or contaminated with polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB), polychlorinated terphenyl (PCT), polychlorinated naphthalene (PCN) or Polybrominated biphenyl (PBB), or any other polybrominated analogues of these compounds, at a concentration level of 50 mg/kg or more
A3190	Waste tarry residues (excluding asphalt cements) arising from refining, distillation and any pyrolitic treatment of organic materials
A3200	Bituminous material (asphalt waste) from road construction and maintenance, containing tar

Table SI. 15: Waste categories included in the Basel Convention which are grouped in the type VI of wastes.

category	description
A4010	Wastes from the production, preparation and use of pharmaceutical products
A4020	Clinical and related wastes; that is wastes arising from medical, nursing, dental, veterinary, or similar practices, and wastes generated in hospitals or other facilities during the investigation or treatment of patients, or research projects
A4030	Wastes from the production, formulation and use of biocides and phytopharmaceuticals, including waste pesticides and herbicides which are off-specification, outdated, or unfit for their originally intended use
A4040	Wastes from the manufacture, formulation and use of wood preserving chemicals
A4050	Wastes that contain, consist of or are contaminated with any of the following: Inorganic cyanides, excepting precious-metal-bearing, residues in solid form containing traces of inorganic cyanides, organic cyanides
A4060	Waste oils/water, hydrocarbons/water mixtures, emulsions
A4070	Wastes from the production, formulation and use of inks, dyes, pigments, paints, lacquers, varnish
A4080	Wastes of an explosive nature
A4090	Waste acidic or basic solutions
A4100	Wastes from industrial pollution control devices for cleaning of industrial off-gases
A4110	Wastes that contain, consist of or are contaminated with any of the following: Any congenor of polychlorinated dibenzo-furan; Any congenor of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxin
A4120	Wastes that contain, consist of or are contaminated with peroxides
A4130	Waste packages and containers containing Annex I substances in concentrations sufficient to exhibit Annex III hazard characteristics
A4140	Waste consisting of or containing off specification or outdated chemicals corresponding to Annex I categories and exhibiting Annex III hazard characteristics
A4150	Waste chemical substances arising from research and development or teaching activities which are not identified and/or are new and whose effects on human health and/or the environment are not known
A4160	Spent activated carbon

Table SI. 16: Waste categories included in the Basel Convention which are grouped in the type VII of wastes.

PEIWS analysis of wastes types IV-VII

Following the same procedure described in Methods we build the PEIWS of the four types of waste IV-VII, which are illustrated in Fig. SI. 7. Using the same approach as for the waste types I-III we identify these countries at HRIHDW. In total in the four types of waste there are 29 countries at HRIHDW, 22 of which coincide with countries previously identified at HRIHDW for waste types I-III. The new countries at HRIHDW, i.e., not identified for types I-III, are Kazakhstan, Mongolia, Côte d'Ivoire, Saudi Arabia, Tanzania, Kenya and Oman. Wastes of types IV and VI are the ones with the largest number of countries at HRIHDW with 15 and 12, respectively, while types V and VII have 8 and 9 countries at HRIHDW, respectively. By continents, Africa is again the one having more countries at HRIHDW with 12, followed by Asia (9) and then Middle East and Europe with 4 each.

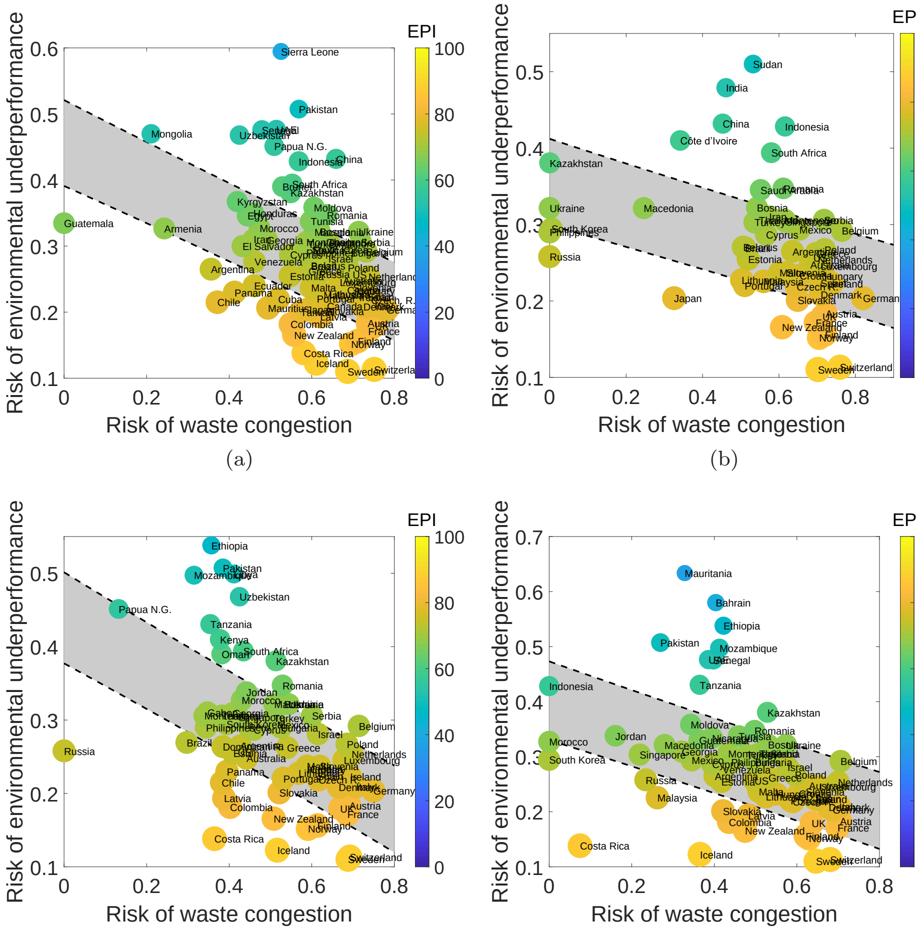


Figure SI. 7: **PEIWC of wastes types IV-VII**. (a)-(e) Illustration of the PEIWC for wastes of types IV-VII, respectively. The risks of waste congestion are calculated from the simulated dynamics using a fractional susceptible-congested model described in Methods. The index of risk of environmental underperformance is obtained from the of Yale University environmental performance index (EPI). Nodes representing countries are colored by their EPIs.

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