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1 Business models for the reuse of construction and demolition waste

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5 Abstract

6 The construction sector is the largest contributor to waste in Europe. Approximately one-third of
7 all waste originates from construction and demolition. In Europe, most construction and
8 demolition waste (CDW) is recycled as backfilling and only limited amounts of construction
9 materials are reused for their original purpose. There is a current policy push by the European
10 Commission (EC), as well as several EU member states, focused on lifting waste up the European
11 waste hierarchy from recycling to reuse to help preserve resources and reduce the environmental
12 impacts of CDW, which is considered a priority waste stream. This article explores the potential
13 and the barriers to the increased reuse of CDW and describes several business models for reuse
14 based around the intersection between public authorities, waste companies and private
15 companies involved in the construction and demolition sector. The article is empirically based on a
16 study of various reuse schemes operated by waste companies, municipalities and private waste
17 operators in Denmark. Using a mixed-methods approach, in which survey methods are combined
18 with company visits and qualitative interviews, the article analyzes the potential and the barriers
19 to the creation of direct reuse schemes for CDW. Based on the findings from these, four generic
20 business models for the direct reuse and recycling of CDW are synthesized specifically targeting
21 the CDW fractions that are waste managed at public recycling stations. Finally, the article

22 discusses how market conditions, environmental issues and quality can influence emerging reuse
23 schemes.

24 Keywords: Business models, waste, construction, demolition, recycling

25 1 Introduction

26 The demands of modern society for materials and energy, with ever-increasing consumption and
27 production, are having significant negative impacts on the global environment. Increasing
28 industrialization, urbanization, economic growth, and population growth, etc. are leading to a
29 range of environmental issues, including climate change, acidification of the ocean, loss of
30 biodiversity, land degradation and resource scarcity. According to the UN's International Resource
31 Panel (IRP), global resource consumption increased from 26.7 billion tonnes per year to 75.6
32 billion tonnes per year in the period from 1970 to 2010 (Bringezu et al., 2017). In 2005, the
33 construction industry alone used approximately 23 billion tonnes of raw materials (Haas et al.,
34 2015), and construction and demolition waste (CDW) is the largest waste stream in the EU in
35 terms of mass, with 374 million tonnes generated in 2016 (EEA, 2019). Furthermore, the building
36 industry accounted for 39% of global energy and process-related greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions
37 in 2018 (GlobalABC et al., 2019). Over the last decades, the increasing implementation of energy
38 efficiency measures (e.g. in renovations) has significantly improved the environmental footprint of
39 buildings, with energy savings of 50%–90% achieved in many existing buildings worldwide (Lucon
40 et al., 2014). Moreover, many new technologies have been introduced, improving the energy
41 intensity and reducing the total energy used in heating, lighting and appliances (GlobalABC et al.,
42 2019). However, while the energy efficiency of buildings has generally improved, cities worldwide

43 are rapidly expanding, thus increasing the demand for virgin materials and energy. Such a scenario
44 is not sustainable and thus there is a need to also consider material resource efficiency.

45 As a major user of resources and a major waste producer, the construction sector has a key role to
46 play in improving material resource efficiency and there is clearly a need to rethink the current
47 construction and demolition practices to reduce the generation of waste and the consumption of
48 virgin resources. In this regard, extending the lifespan of buildings and introducing secondary
49 materials in new buildings and renovations are key strategies. However, the application of
50 secondary materials is not straightforward and faces a number of challenges. Nußholz et al. (2019)
51 found that access to quality secondary materials in the current industry set-up is insufficient and
52 the market is dominated by a few market actors with low incentives for cooperation. Furthermore,
53 the current waste management infrastructure and separate collection is inefficient (Kabirifar et al.,
54 2020). These conditions make it difficult to increase sales and market share to promote circular
55 business cases (Nußholz et al., 2019). To fully enable business model innovation, buildings should
56 be designed for deconstruction with an aim to lower the end-of-life demolition operation costs
57 and increase the quality of the possible resource output that can be recovered (Salama, 2017).

58 This can be promoted by introducing Design for Disassembly (DfD) principles, thus rethinking the
59 practices applied for the documentation, design and construction methods used for constructing
60 buildings to facilitate their end-of-life demolition and the recovery of materials and systems, while
61 supporting better labour practices, productivity and safety (Rios et al., 2015). It is also essential
62 that the number of companies engaged in the promotion of secondary material use should be
63 increased, e.g. by improving certification schemes, or by making management plans for CDW
64 obligatory to improve the sorting, collection and treatment of such waste (Nußholz et al., 2019).

65 Selective demolition has been presented as an alternative to conventional demolition, focusing on
66 optimizing the reuse and recycling of building materials in the demolition process (Christensen et
67 al., 2022). By the systematic deconstruction of a building, it would be possible to sort out the
68 resources and thereby maximize their reuse and recycling (Gálvez-Martos et al., 2018). However,
69 while this process would increase the environmental performance of the building, the economic
70 feasibility will vary depending on several factors, such as labour costs, market prices and tipping
71 fees (Ghisellini et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2017). In a comparative study of demolition methods,
72 Hoang et al. (2022) demonstrated that the higher costs for labour, machinery and hazardous
73 abatement must be accommodated by the resale value of the recovered, reused and recycled
74 materials. When a building is dismantled, waste management should focus on sorting materials
75 based on their nature and characteristics (Christensen et al., 2022). Materials should moreover be
76 categorized in different classes to match the quality requirements of aggregates and the grade of
77 application (Silva et al., 2017). The certification of recycled aggregates could be supported by
78 setting up common rules and standards for producers, thereby systematizing and improving the
79 methods for sorting and providing a measure of quality control in the production of aggregates.
80 Assuring the quality of aggregates would increase the confidence of users, and hence support a
81 maturing market for secondary materials (Gálvez-Martos et al., 2018; Silva et al., 2017). Overall,
82 there is a critical need to establish effective practices for demolition, processing, design and
83 logistics that could secure the quality, purity and traceability of materials to prepare for their
84 reintegration into the value chain through reuse or recycling (Nussholz & Milios, 2017; Wahlström
85 et al., 2020).

86 Therefore, the promotion of circular economic practices in construction and demolition calls for
87 systemic innovation throughout the value chain (Ness & Xing, 2017) and collaboration among the
88 various value chain actors. To achieve environmental and social value creation while ensuring
89 economic benefits, such innovation needs to be embedded in proven business models. Thus, to
90 create value for a network of stakeholders not relying on an increased flow of resources, the
91 current business models need to be redesigned (Leising et al., 2018).

92 1.1 Sustainable business model innovation

93 A business model is a conceptual tool that illustrates how a firm does business by describing how
94 all elements of the business as a system work together, linking the firm's strategy to its activities.
95 A business model can thereby also provide feedback from every activity for managers to make
96 conscious decisions in how they operate their business (Magretta, 2002; Osterwalder et al., 2005).

97 To describe a model of a firm and its functioning, Richardson (2008) condensed the business into a
98 system with three main components: i) value proposition, which describes what the firm will
99 deliver to its targeted customers and why the customers will value the offering. In sustainable
100 business models, value proposition focuses on balancing economic, social and ecological values
101 (Boons et al., 2013); ii) value creation and delivery, which are the processes for putting the
102 proposed offering into action. These describe and link all the activities involved in creating,
103 producing, selling and delivering the firm's offering. It illustrates the structure of the organization,
104 including the capabilities and resources within the firm, and moreover the key partners and
105 channels for creating and delivering value. In sustainable business models, value creation is
106 broadened out to not only focus on aspects within the firm but also on the firm as part of a larger

107 system (Boons et al., 2013) and how it can also create value in its supply chain relations and for
108 customers and the public (Lüdeke-Freund, 2010); iii) value capture, which concerns how the firm
109 can produce revenue from the value that it has created and delivered, while also considering the
110 cost structure in terms of how it can achieve a profit margin while recovering its costs. Sustainable
111 business models also require a balance in costs and revenue for all actors involved (Boons et al.,
112 2013) but may challenge traditional value chain relations, e.g. by introducing concepts like
113 product-service-system (PSS) models, in which value capture is focused on delivering a service
114 rather than ownership of a product (Bocken et al., 2014).

115 According to Schaltegger et al. (2012), some firms may react to sustainability concerns by adopting
116 a defensive strategy, focusing on regulatory compliance, to protect the firm against costs and risks
117 or proactively by integrating sustainability in the firm. When addressing sustainable innovation
118 within a firm, the scope can vary from incremental optimization, like operational efficiency
119 schemes, to a fundamental shift in the purpose of the firm, thus also addressing organizational
120 change and the search for new market opportunities by creating shared value (Adams et al.,
121 2016). The concept of shared value recognizes a move in defining markets from internal economic
122 incentives to societal needs. This requires internal actions, such as integrating sustainability in the
123 definition of the mission of a firm and in its decision-making, and external ones, such as taking
124 part in new forms of collaboration with stakeholders (Porter & Kramer, 2011). Furthermore,
125 Stubbs and Cocklin (2008) emphasized the importance of addressing both structural (e.g.
126 processes, structures and practices) and cultural (e.g. norms and values) attributes.

127 1.2 Circular business models for CDW

128 As a subcategory of sustainable business models (Geissdoerfer et al., 2018), circular business
129 models embed circular economy principles in the core business strategy. Bocken et al. (2016)
130 proposed a typology distinguishing circular strategies that target slowing-, closing-, or narrowing
131 resource flows. Strategies that target narrowing resource flows aim at using fewer resources per
132 product, which in this paper are recognized as efficiency-targeted schemes. This type of strategy
133 usually does not imply a fundamental shift in business purpose, and thereby neither challenges
134 business as usual nor promotes radical innovation in construction and demolition. Business
135 models to slow resource loops focus on extending product use by extending the life of a product,
136 such as through PSS, refurbishment, improved durability and repair, and by encouraging
137 sufficiency and designs for long-life products. Business models for closing resource loops involve
138 activities like collecting and sourcing, establishing take-back systems, industrial symbiosis, and
139 design for cycling and reassembly. The target is to address innovation that promotes recycling and
140 thereby can secure a circular flow of resources.

141 As circular strategies in construction and demolition often require an implementation in multiple
142 phases, usually involving several stakeholders, along the project life (Nussholz & Milios, 2017), a
143 multi stakeholder approach is usually essential to successfully recirculate building materials.
144 Furthermore, Nussholz and Milios (2017) discovered in a case study that developing new
145 resources and capabilities within firms is essential for circular business model innovation. To apply
146 circularity, they found that some firms had developed certification schemes to assure quality,
147 gained knowledge in reuse and recycling solutions, and had developed a new customer base and

148 supplier network to gain access to materials. They also discovered that some of firms acted
149 beyond their traditional position in the value chain, e.g. as retailers, to also operate in demolition.
150 Circular business models in construction and demolition can be embedded at various stages of a
151 building lifecycle, targeting different phases of the value chain, including i) material production, ii)
152 design, iii) construction, iv) use and v) end-of-life (Adams et al., 2017; Wahlström et al., 2020). The
153 current practice in Europe is for most CDW to be used as backfilling (EEA, 2019). It is therefore
154 crucial for the transformation to a circular economy to develop business models that can assist the
155 looping of CDW back into the construction of new buildings rather than simply using as backfilling.
156 There exist only a few academic articles about circular business models for CDW (e.g. Nussholz &
157 Milios, 2017), and this article hopes to deepen the academic understanding of how such business
158 models can be organized. The business models presented in this paper therefore mainly represent
159 the end-of-life phase, focusing on the intersection between waste management and
160 transformation, albeit innovation in the material production phase is also partly targeted, as some
161 of the business cases seek to integrate a high amount of recycled content in material production.
162 As described in this paper, innovation in the end-of-life phase must target both demolition, waste
163 management and the transformation of resources, hence presenting the following value chain
164 (Figure 1):

Material production Design Construction Use End of life



165

166

Figure 1 Illustration of the construction and demolition value chain based on Adams et al. (2017) and Wahlström et al. (2020),

167

elaborating the end-of-life phase that is the focus of this study.

168

Based on empirical data obtained from a mixed methods study performed in Denmark, this article

169

analyzes a number of circular business models for CDW.

170

2 Research Question and Methods

171

This article explores a number of business models for the reuse of CDW considering the

172

intersection between public authorities, publicly owned waste companies and private businesses

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in the construction and demolition sector. The article investigates existing schemes for the direct

174

reuse of CDW, synthesizes generic business models based on findings from the investigated

175

schemes, and finally discusses the key barriers to further promote the market for secondary

176

construction materials. As a basis for the study, three key research questions were posed:

177

Research questions:

178

1. What types of business models exist for the direct reuse of CDW and how do they operate?

179

2. How could one develop a typology for business models for the direct reuse of CDW?

180

3. What are the main factors that could promote the direct reuse of CDW?

181

The three research questions were analyzed using a mixed-methods approach (Johnson et al.,

182

2007), in which a social survey research design is combined with site visits and semi-structured

183 interviews (Bryman & Bell, 2011). A pre-structured qualitative survey was thus conducted (Jansen,
184 2010) to be carried out by telephone interviews, to explore the diversity of the business model
185 characteristics in emerging reuse schemes for CDW among the study cohort, followed up by semi-
186 structured interviews for more in-depth discussions.

187 The study cohort comprised municipalities, public waste companies and private businesses
188 operating in Denmark, which were selected after a screening of the Danish waste sector and were
189 identified as companies and municipalities with systems for the direct reuse of CDW. Through a
190 web search, 18 companies were initially identified. Next, those with either no or too immature a
191 scheme, or who were not interested in participating in the study were excluded, leaving a total of
192 11 organizations, comprising six waste companies (owned by municipalities), three municipalities
193 and two commercial companies operating in the waste sector. An overview of the 11 respondents
194 is illustrated in Table 1.

195 *Table 1 Overview of the respondents based on the type of organization.*

Municipalities	Waste companies	Private companies
Albertslund	AVV	Solum
Bornholm	RenoDjurs	GenByg
Hedensted	ARWOS	
	Sønderborg Forsyning	
	ARC	
	AffaldPlus	

196

197 In the survey, a representative from each of the 11 organizations was interviewed over the
198 telephone and a short summary note of the interview was completed. The data from the
199 interviews were later codified and the results compiled in a table. Some of the 11 municipalities

200 and waste companies were additionally contacted by email afterwards and asked to clarify
201 potential misunderstandings and to supply additional data. The survey covered how their reuse
202 schemes were organized, the type of CDW covered by the scheme, the main suppliers and buyers
203 of the CDW, the economic transactions involved with the scheme, the quality of the CDW, the
204 environmental aspects associated with the handling of the CDW, and finally the capacity of the
205 reuse scheme. The findings from this survey were then used to synthesize four generic business
206 models for different modes of operation.

207 After the survey phase was completed, field visits were organized to five of the waste
208 companies/municipalities (Argo, Solum, Genbyg, AffaldPlus, and Albertslund recycling station).
209 The field visits were conducted to gain first-hand impressions of the types, quality and quantity of
210 the CDW collected and handled for reuse and the physical organization of the reuse systems.
211 Photos and notes were taken during the field visits. Also, during some of the field visits (Solum,
212 Genbyg, AffaldPlus and Albertslund recycling station), qualitative interviews were conducted with
213 key personnel involved in the direct reuse schemes. The qualitative interviews focused on
214 understanding why and how the systems had been established and what the key barriers had
215 been in terms of the legal aspects, market conditions (supply and demand), quality and
216 environmental issues, as well as more practical and organizational aspects of their established
217 business models. The research approach is summarized in Figure 2.

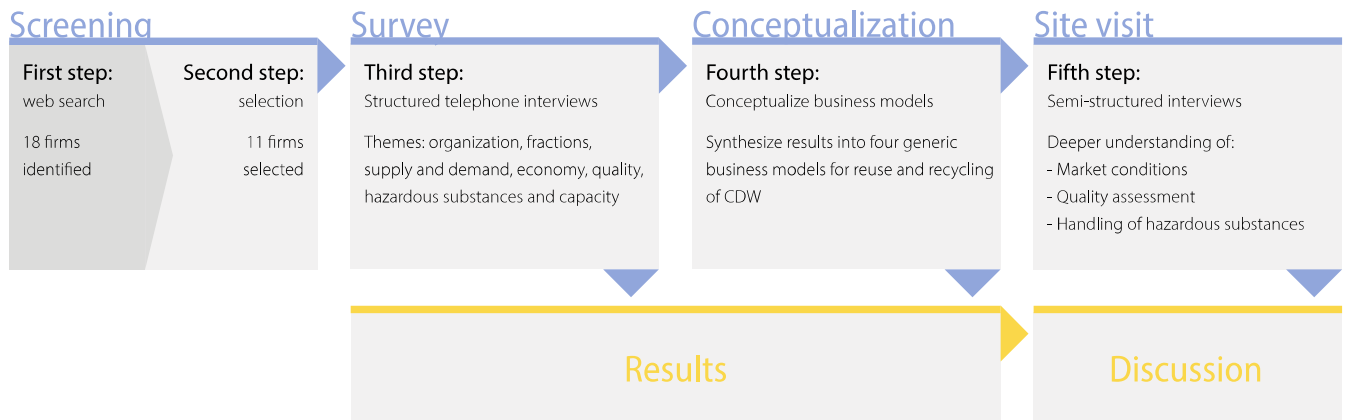


Figure 2 Overview of the study methodology.

218

219

220 3 Current Danish Waste Management System

221 In Denmark, CDW accounted for approximately 40% of all waste in 2019, amounting to a total of 5
 222 million tonnes (Danish Environmental Protection Agency, 2020); of which, 5% of the CDW was
 223 deposited at landfills, 7% was incinerated, 36% was recycled and 52% was used as backfilling.

224 Although Denmark complies with the objective of the EU Waste Framework Directive
 225 (2008/98/EC) by reaching at least 70% recycling by 2020, the current recycling practice implies
 226 that the majority of CDW is downcycled and used as road base and filling material (i.e. backfilling),
 227 instead of being reused for its original purpose in the construction of new buildings – similar
 228 practices can be found in most European countries.

229 The legal Danish framework for handling CDW is based on the EU Waste Framework Directive
 230 (WFD), which includes the so-called waste hierarchy, which indicates the preferred way to prevent
 231 and handle all types of waste. The hierarchy is divided into five levels based on priority: 1)
 232 prevention, 2) preparation for reuse, 3) recycling, 4) other recovery, including energy recovery,
 233 and 5) disposal, including landfill.

234 For this study, it was essential to clearly distinguish between levels 2 and 3, i.e. preparation for
235 reuse and recycling. Preparation for reuse according to the WFD includes activities such as
236 checking, cleaning and doing minor repairs to construction materials to enable their reuse without
237 further processing, where reuse is defined in this context as a process in which the construction
238 material is utilized for the same purpose for which it was originally created. Recycling, as level 3,
239 includes processes where construction materials are processed into new products, materials or
240 substances that can be used for the purpose they were originally intended or for other purposes.

241 The responsibility for waste management in Denmark is split between several levels of
242 government. The national government is responsible for waste prevention, while the 98
243 municipalities in Denmark are responsible for waste management. Source-separated industrial
244 waste is liberalized in the sense that private companies, for example in construction, can choose a
245 private waste contractor to handle their CDW. The government's Executive Order on Waste (BEK
246 nr 2159 af 09/12/2020) determines that construction projects generating less than 1 tonne of
247 waste can use municipal recycling stations without the waste needing to be reported to the local
248 authority. This allows small-scale contractors in the construction sector (e.g. carpenters,
249 bricklayers and plumbing companies) to use public recycling stations, whereas large-scale
250 construction companies typically must use private contractors instead.

251 In Denmark, there are around 400 recycling stations, where citizens and private companies can
252 hand in bulky waste for recycling. The recycling stations vary in size and design and in the number
253 of fractions they handle and how they handle those waste fractions. Most of the waste managed
254 at the recycling stations is recycled, while a smaller part is incinerated, and a minor part is

255 deposited at landfill sites. Only very limited amounts of the waste at recycling stations are reused
256 (Winkler & Nyborg, 2021).

257 The quality (understood as the ability for the materials to be reused or recycled without adding
258 significant amounts of labour and energy) of these fractions varies, but it is likely that some part of
259 these waste materials will have the potential for reuse. Moving waste from recycling to reuse,
260 however, often requires different waste handling processes, including its preparation for reuse
261 (Dalhammar et al., 2021). Recently, several Danish recycling stations have established reuse
262 schemes for CDW, but so far only limited knowledge about these systems has been compiled
263 (Miliotis & Dalhammar, 2020; Moalem et al., 2022). The Danish government reached political
264 agreement for a plan covering also the structure of the future Danish waste management system
265 in June 2020 and as part of this, all recycling stations must implement reuse schemes (Danish
266 Government, 2020).

267 4 Results from the Survey and Interviews

268 The following section presents the results of the study following some general qualitative
269 considerations from the respondents surveyed in the study. These considerations cover the
270 collected fractions, their potential and how they are handled, as well as some reflections on how
271 the different reuse schemes are organized. The data from the survey is summarized in Table 2.

272

Table 2. Overview of the analyzed data organized by organization, type of scheme and investigated themes.

Organization	Albertslund Municipality	RenoDjurs	ARWOS	AffaldPlus	Sønderborg Utilities	AVV	Bornholm Regional Municipality	Genbyg	Hedensted Municipality	Solum	ARC
Type (1–4)	Swap system (1)	Swap system (1)	Retailing at waste company (2)	Retailing at waste company (2)	Retailing at waste company (2)	Retailing at waste company (2) /commercial retailer (3)	Reuse through commercial retailer (3)	Reuse through commercial retailer (3)	Reuse through commercial retailer (3)	Reuse through commercial retailer (3)	Recycling via the material's producer (4)
Waste fractions	Insulation materials, wood products, doors, roofing tiles, vapour barriers	Paving stones, doors, windows, wood products	Paving tiles, stones, wood products, sanitation, interior doors, insulation materials	Wood products, paving stones, windows, doors, sanitation, insulation materials, metal products	Wood products, windows, doors, insulation materials	Wood products, tools, paving tiles, tiles, windows, interior doors, sanitation, furniture	Wood products, bricks	Doors, windows, lamps, electrical items, wood products, flooring, tiles, paving tiles, bricks roofing tiles, sanitation	Wood products	Interim wood	Wood products, luminaires, concrete
Suppliers	Private users (primary) and SMEs (minor)	Private users (primary) and SMEs (minor)	Private users (primary) and SMEs (minor)	Private users (primary) and SMEs (minor)	Private users (primary) and SMEs (minor)	Private users (primary), SMEs (minor) and bricks from demolition contractors	Demolition contractors	Demolition contractors	Demolition contractors	Contractors	Demolition contractors
Buyers	Consumers	Consumers	Consumers	Consumers	Consumers	Consumers (bricks to business)	Businesses (start-up phase)	Consumers and SMEs (minor)	SMEs	Consumers and businesses	Businesses (internal experiment)
Organizational structure	Managed by the municipality without extra employees	Managed by RenoDjurs without extra employees	Managed by ARWOS w/ separate account and employees	Managed by AffaldPlus w/ separate account and 14 employees	Managed by SF w/ separate account and 2–3 employees	Managed by AVV w/ separate account. Social enterprise for bricks	Storage at the recycling station. Establishing value chain	Contractor managing store and webshop with 12–14 employees	Facilities and storage for entrepreneurs managed by the municipality	Distribution and sales by retailer. Sorting and packing by Solum.	Project managed by ARC
Economy	Financed through waste fees (no sales)	Financed through waste fees (no sales)	Financed through sales. Generates savings from reduced treatment fees	Financed through sales. Generates savings from reduced treatment fees. Profit used to balance waste fees	Financed through sales	Financed through sales. Generates savings from reduced treatment fees. Profit used for new initiatives	Projects not yet commercialized	Free access to materials via soft stripping	Financed by the municipality and entrepreneurs	Value capture shared between the value chain partners	Projects not yet commercialized
Fees	Private users: public fee. For businesses: €31/vehicle	Private users: public fee. For businesses: €27/visit	Private users: public fee. For businesses: €30/visit	Private users: public fee. For businesses: fee exemption for reuse	Private users; public fee. For businesses: €27/visit	Private users: public fee. For businesses: depends on yearly visits	not relevant	not relevant	not relevant	not relevant	not relevant
Quality	No special assessment	No special assessment	No special assessment	No special assessment	No special assessment	CE-certified bricks	Resource screening	No special assessment	No special assessment	No special assessment	Concrete class assessment
Environment	Pragmatic assessment	Pragmatic assessment	Pragmatic assessment	Pragmatic assessment	Pragmatic assessment	Pragmatic assessment	Mandatory screening	Mandatory screening	Mandatory screening	Visual screening	Mandatory screening
Capacity	Small barn allocated at the recycling station	5 open shipping containers	Small extension to secondhand store at the recycling station	1000 sqm decentralized store	Store at the recycling station	180 sqm store at recycling station	3 shipping containers at the recycling station	6000 sqm total in store and decentralized storage	1000 sqm facilities and storage	National retailers central storage	not relevant

274 SF: Sønderborg Forsyning; w/: with; w/o: without. SME: small and medium-sized enterprise. CE: Conformité Européenne

275 4.1 Waste fractions

276 The CDW collected by recycling stations can be divided into two main flows: 1) new and unused
277 construction materials that become waste during construction projects and 2) used construction
278 materials that typically result from demolition processes or are generated as a by-product from
279 construction or renovation processes. Construction materials submitted at the recycling stations
280 must be source separated, but the specific fractions differ between recycling stations. In
281 Copenhagen Municipality, for example, CDW for recycling must be sorted into 14 different
282 fractions (Copenhagen Municipality, 2022).

283 CDW handed in at recycling stations owned by waste companies are typically recycled at private
284 companies for the production of new materials and products. The usability and economic value of
285 the fractions vary significantly. Establishing a scheme for reuse therefore depends on which
286 fractions potential users assign value to. The respondents in the study mainly pointed to wood
287 products as the type of materials with the highest demand and value potential. Typically, wood
288 products include different types of planks, laths and plywood that originate both from
289 construction projects and demolition projects. Some recycling stations remove nails and the like
290 from wood products to increase the value of the waste, but such procedures can require
291 substantial effort and labour. Based on the survey, the following CDW materials were identified as
292 the main products that would be most likely suitable for reuse:

- 293 • Wood products
- 294 • Insulation materials
- 295 • Newer windows and interior doors

296 • Tiles, paving stones and bricks

297 • Sanitation products

298 The selection and prioritization of CDW fractions vary between the surveyed waste companies. For
299 example, the reuse scheme established by AffaldPlus receives both new and used construction
300 materials, while in Albertslund Municipality, a swap scheme (without sales) has been established,
301 focusing mainly on unused construction materials that have been turned in as waste at the
302 recycling station.

303 Most of the studied reuse schemes receive construction materials from private enterprises
304 involved in the construction sector. Five of the surveyed systems receive CDW for reuse from
305 larger demolitions, but in most cases, this is done on a project basis and they have not yet
306 developed sustainable business models to cover such flows. The Solum and Genbyg cases are the
307 only ones in the surveyed schemes where formal agreements have been made with several
308 construction and demolition companies.

309 4.2 Organization

310 The surveyed reuse schemes are organized in different ways, with some using shop facilities, swap
311 schemes or systems based on a collaboration between waste companies and private retailers
312 and/or private material producers. Among the 11 companies surveyed, two have organized reuse
313 schemes based on a swap system. For example, the waste company RenoDjurs has set up five
314 shipping containers at the recycling station and designed a special area dedicated to reusing
315 building materials, furniture and the like. Meanwhile, 4 of the 11 surveyed schemes have
316 organized shop facilities for reuse. In this type of scheme, a shop is set up at the recycling station.

317 At the waste company AVV, a warehouse has been established to host a 180 sqm reuse shop
318 facility. Meanwhile, the waste company AffaldPlus invested in the renovation of an old
319 commercial property to host a 1,000 sqm construction market (including furniture sales and
320 workshop facilities). The property also hosts a facility for textile recycling, where textiles are
321 sorted and packed. In total, 8 of the 11 surveyed systems have established (or are in the process of
322 establishing) schemes for the reuse of construction materials handed in as waste.

323 The survey also identified some reuse schemes exclusively organized by private waste companies.
324 The private construction goods retailer Stark and the waste company Solum have entered into a
325 collaboration for the reuse of interim wood. Interim wood is used at construction sites for various
326 purposes, such as railings, shields, stairs. Often wood products come in standardized sizes and
327 quality. In this collaborative scheme, Stark organizes the transport and sales, while Solum is
328 responsible for the sorting and packaging to ensure a uniform quality.

329 The waste company Amager Resource Center (ARC) is working on several projects focused on the
330 recycling of CDW in collaboration with private material producers. These activities include projects
331 for the recycling of crushed concrete, where, after an environmental and quality screening
332 procedure, the concrete is transferred to the producer, via a waste handling company, where the
333 recycled concrete is treated, to then be used in the production of new concrete.

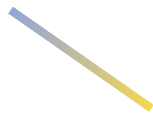
334 5 Business Models for the Direct Reuse of CDW

335 The previous section presented some general considerations according to the organization of
336 different types of schemes for the direct reuse and recycling of building materials. It was
337 concluded that these schemes can be organized in many ways. Based on the analysis of the

338 surveyed reuse schemes, we synthesized the findings into four generic business models for the
339 direct reuse or recycling of construction materials. By synthesizing the data presented in Table 1 in
340 accordance with Richardson's (2008) representation of a business model, the four generic models
341 illustrate how the proposed value can be distributed and captured in the value chain, what
342 resources and capabilities are needed to establish and run the business models, and what societal
343 value can be gained through the schemes.

344 5.1 Model #1: Swap system

345 The first business model covers the direct reuse of construction and demolition materials as
346 organized at recycling stations through non-sale swap schemes. This business model is typically
347 organized as an integrated part of the conventional recycling station, as illustrated in Figure 3. It is
348 designed in such a way that users supply construction and demolition materials they consider
349 reusable and other users/customers can take the materials free of charge. This type of scheme is
350 typically financed by the municipal waste fee and does not require additional staffing. Thus, the
351 schemes can be operated by the existing staff at the recycling station. The staff guide users at the
352 recycling stations and carry out a simple quality control primarily aimed at avoiding the diffusion
353 of hazardous substances that may be in some construction materials placed in the swap system.
354 Signs at the recycling station guide users to the swap system, while the staff also encourage the
355 recycling station users with reusable construction and demolition materials to offer the materials
356 in the swap system instead of placing them in the otherwise designated recycling containers.



Reuse

Value

357

358 *Figure 3 Illustration of business model #1 "Swap system", including the organizational resources, value capture, suppliers and*
359 *buyers, and the potential societal value.*

360 The construction and demolition materials in this business model are typically supplied by private
361 users and smaller private companies that deliver volumes less than 1 ton, thus constituting
362 construction and demolition waste which is not subject to notification under the Danish Executive
363 Order on Waste (BEK nr 2159 af 09/12/2020). The smaller quantities of materials at these schemes
364 also mean that it is primarily the private users of the recycling stations that take construction
365 materials back that are targeted. Commercial projects require strict quality documentation in line
366 with the Construction Product Regulation (305/2011) standards, which the organizations
367 operating swap schemes typically cannot provide. Thus, only a limited number of businesses can
368 use this scheme, usually for small renovations. Customized IT systems are rarely used in
369 connection with the swap schemes (ideally, such IT systems could be developed in the future),
370 although the schemes are typically communicated through social media (primarily Facebook).
371 Example of model #1: The main flow of waste is handed in for either recycling or energy recovery.
372 Operated as a side activity, materials for reuse are voluntarily placed by users in a reserved area

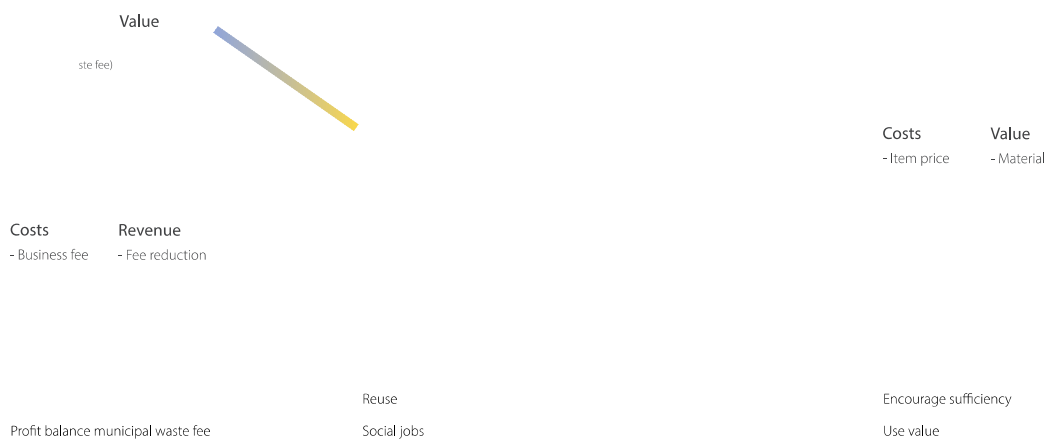
373 and are sporadically assessed by the recycling station personnel – mainly for the removal of
374 suspected contaminated materials (e.g. lead in paint or polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) in varnish
375 or grout). Thus, the personnel should receive some, even minor, training in pragmatic
376 environmental assessment. Private users have unlimited access to the recycling station included in
377 the basic waste management fee, while business users are charged approximately €30/visit.
378 Products for reuse are collected by users with no check carried out by personnel. Materials for
379 reuse are exempted the waste treatment fee for the waste company.

380 5.2 Model #2: Retailing at the waste company

381 This type of scheme is shown in [Figure 4](#) and has been established in connection with some
382 recycling stations, but is primarily aimed at establishing a store for the commercial sale of
383 construction materials. Thus, retailing waste companies operating this system require a higher
384 degree of organization and logistics compared to the case with operating a simpler swap system
385 (Model #1).

386 The economic costs of running the shops for the reuse of construction and demolition materials
387 are covered by the income generated from sales in the shops and therefore no waste fee is
388 included for the operation of the stores. Additional staff are typically hired specifically to operate
389 the stores, which in some cases creates social jobs. The number of additional staff varies, between
390 2–3 to 14 employees in our survey sample (Table 2), and some staff training is generally needed;
391 AffaldPlus spent €185 on training staff in 2019 (AffaldPlus, 2020). The stores are not really aimed
392 at generating profit, and any potential profit is utilized to stabilize existing waste fees or
393 reinvested in the scheme. To attract private businesses to supply CDW for reuse in the shops,

394 some of the systems offer 24/7 opening hours and free of charge disposal for private businesses to
 395 encourage them to supply reusable construction and demolition materials to the shop. This
 396 provides private companies a combined economic and practical incentive to engage with the
 397 scheme, as the companies would otherwise have to use the fee-based, conventional recycling
 398 option, which is also only open during office hours.



399

400 *Figure 4. Illustration of business model #2 "Retailing at the waste company", including the organizational resources, value capture,*
 401 *suppliers and buyers, and the potential societal value.*

402 To the waste companies that operate the recycling stations, there are additional indirect economic
 403 benefits associated with the reuse shops, as the abated recycling costs decrease. The
 404 establishment of reuse shops are in some cases also supported indirectly by the municipalities
 405 financing the buildings hosting the shops. As the sale of reusable construction materials through
 406 stores requires a higher degree of logistics compared to the swap schemes (Model #1), some of
 407 these schemes have an integrated IT system, where private companies are even offered a pick-up
 408 service for reusable materials.

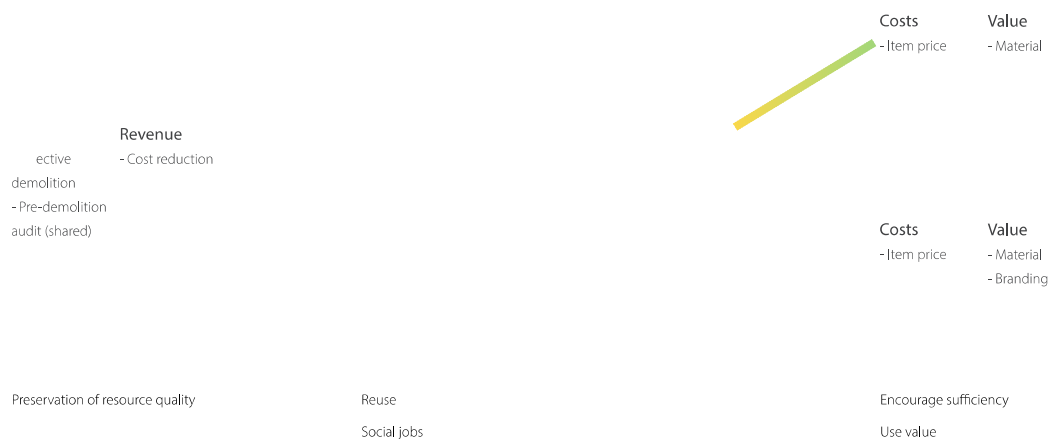
409 The primary customers in the shops are private citizens and to a lesser degree small-scale
410 companies in the construction sector. The fluctuating inventories and uncertainty of supply
411 considering also the material quality are still considered barriers to a larger scale business-to-
412 business model.

413 Example of model #2: Like in model 1, the main flow of waste is handed in for recycling or energy
414 recovery. In 2019, AffaldPlus managed a total amount of approximately 194000 tonnes of waste,
415 of which 152000 tonnes were processed for recycling and 1800 tonnes were sold for reuse
416 (AffaldPlus, 2020). Operating as a store with a separate account, all products are handed in and
417 assessed by personnel for quality and pragmatically for preventing the diffusion of hazardous
418 substances before they can be placed in the store. Some materials require minor preparation for
419 reuse (e.g. the removal of nails). The separate store makes it possible for some schemes to offer
420 fee exemption to business users for reusable items and besides, the sales profit from the reused
421 materials also results in reduced treatment costs (e.g. Arwos saved approximately €90000 in
422 2019).

423 5.3 Model #3: Reuse through commercial retailers

424 Model 3 describes a business model where a system is established to loop targeted materials from
425 construction and demolition projects back into the construction sector via privately owned
426 retailers. The main difference between Models #2 and #3, as illustrated in Figure 5, is that Model
427 #2 is organized by the waste utility companies (typically owned by municipalities) and organized in
428 relation to the recycling stations, whereas Model #3 is operated by private retailers with no
429 affiliation to the recycling stations.

430 The empirical data for this article suggest there are two main approaches to establishing reuse
431 through a commercial retailer: a) a broad strategy focused on items generated from the soft-
432 stripping phase of demolition projects (e.g. items taken out of buildings prior to demolition, such
433 as doors, windows, electrical equipment or sanitation) and b) a strategy focused on one specific
434 fraction. The first approach typically involves items that are considered easily marketable among
435 private consumers. This type of building materials is usually relatively difficult to include in
436 standardized quality control systems due to the large variety in design, quality and function (doors
437 and windows for example often differ in design, shape, and material composition, etc.). Businesses
438 in the construction sector therefore tend to prefer new construction products, which are covered
439 by standardized quality control systems, over these types of reused items. Value capture across
440 the value chain is secured indirectly for the demolition contractor through a cost reduction
441 associated with the soft stripping, while at the same time providing free access to materials for the
442 retailer. The retailer generates profit through sales.



443

444 *Figure 5. Illustration of business model #3 “Reuse through commercial retailers”, including the organizational resources, value*
 445 *capture, suppliers and buyers, and the potential societal value.*

446 The second approach is most often used in relation to a specific type of material, such as bricks,
 447 construction wood or interim wood. Focusing on a specific (and simpler) material simplifies quality
 448 assessment and makes it possible to apply standardized quality control systems and associated
 449 labelling systems (such as CE). CE certification has, for example, been used in association with the
 450 reuse of bricks. By building a quality control system (e.g. factory production control, FPC) for
 451 reused bricks, it is possible to prepare an European Technical Assessment (ETA) and an European
 452 Assessment Document (EAD) to describe the overall technical specifications (for example, for
 453 documentation of the product’s performance) for enabling them to achieve CE certification. This
 454 makes it easier for private businesses in the construction sector to apply such bricks in the
 455 construction of new buildings where certification is needed.

456 Most of the surveyed companies who market construction and demolition materials through a
457 commercial retailer do not screen for environmentally hazardous substances themselves, but use
458 data from the legal statutory environmental screening conducted during pre-demolition.

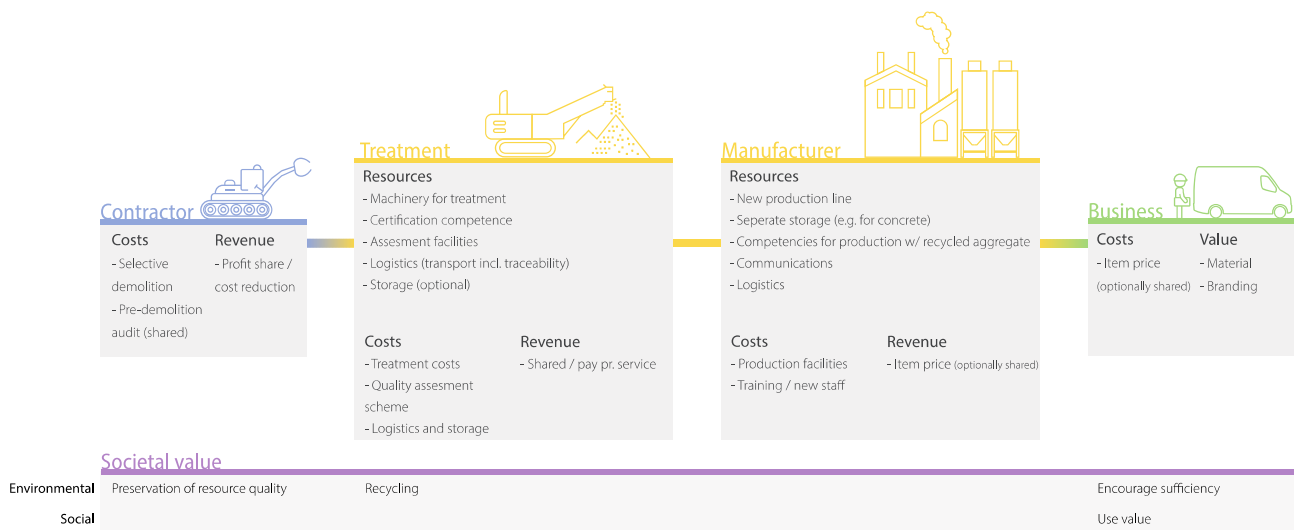
459 Example of model #3 based on the flow of bricks: In the second approach, to preserve the quality
460 of materials during demolition, the contractor performs a pre-demolition audit identifying the
461 quantities, qualities and possible hazardous substances prior to a selective demolition (European
462 Commission, 2016). Hoang et al. (2022) identified the combined cost for labour and machinery for
463 dismantling such materials with a sorter grab to be approximately \$10/tonne more than in a
464 conventional demolition process; however, the potential resale value increases by almost the
465 same amount – some materials even have a potential profit factor of two times, e.g. bricks
466 (Christensen et al., 2022). To ensure quality, the bricks are manually cleansed for removing excess
467 mortar and assessed at an ETA approved facility for CE certification before they can be sold at the
468 store.

469 5.4 Model #4: Recycling via the material producers

470 The fourth business model targets the large quantities of construction materials generated from
471 demolition projects (such as steel or concrete) that are typically unsuited for direct reuse.

472 Covering recycling processes (as opposed to Model #3 that covers reuse processes), this business
473 model focuses on demolition materials that can be recirculated back into new constructions
474 through a private material producer, such as a concrete producer. To ensure quality in this type of
475 business model, it is imperative that a proven practice is established, including well-defined
476 workflows for selective demolition. This process can be strengthened and secured through

477 certification. In a report from the Danish Environmental Protection Agency, Dansk Byggeri's
 478 Demolition Section suggests that an ISO 9001 certification can support quality management in
 479 relation to selective demolition (Golder Associates A/S et al., 2017). High quality in recycling
 480 processes may, however, not always be achieved and recycling processes therefore need to be
 481 evaluated and differentiated according to the end-use requirements.



482

483 *Figure 6. Illustration of business model #4 :Recycling via the material producers”, including the organizational resources, value*
 484 *capture, suppliers and buyers, and the potential societal value.*

485 The flow of materials and logistics can be organized in several ways, e.g. off-site through
 486 stationary recycling stations or mobile stations operated onsite. On a general level, Silva et al.
 487 (2017) found that stationary recycling stations tend to ensure the highest quality. However, the
 488 stationary recycling of, for example, concrete often implies more transportation, making it more
 489 complicated to ensure and guarantee the quality when the concrete is moved and more partners
 490 are involved at several sites. For this type of business model, it is crucial to secure close
 491 collaboration between the actors, as illustrated in Figure 6, and so value capture as well as risk
 492 management must be clearly negotiated. This can be organized through forming a consortium

493 between the contractor, treatment company and manufacturer in the tender offer. The business
494 represented in Figure 6 is in this case the construction client. Considering the case of the flow of
495 concrete: Like in model #3, the concrete is first demolished and crushed either on site or at a
496 facility, screened for soil and then separated into fractions by grain size to secure clean aggregate
497 fractions for application (fine grain for sand aggregates and coarse for stone and gravel). The
498 concrete is assessed to provide a performance declaration for CE certification based on drill tests
499 prior to demolition, aggregate tests prior to manufacturing and sample tests after manufacturing
500 (Kellermann et al., 2021). The recycled concrete must be purchased before manufacturing and
501 matched for the right type of application in terms of the quality. Thus, the recycling of concrete is
502 still performed on a project-to-project basis.

503 6 Discussion

504 As presented in the four business models, several factors must be addressed to successfully
505 operate the reuse and recycling schemes, including the development of new organizational
506 resources. To further scale circular business models for CDW, it is crucial to engage the supply and
507 demand conditions, quality assurance and control of hazardous substances. These factors are
508 discussed in the following.

509 6.1 Market conditions: supply and demand

510 CDW for reuse covers many different categories and inventories at the reuse schemes, with
511 significant fluctuations. The goods in the reuse markets can therefore change, and the reuse shops
512 are thus unable to offer the same stability as conventional construction markets. These
513 fluctuations in supply make the reuse schemes in their present form less attractive to commercial

514 buyers. The majority of the surveyed reuse schemes are owned and operated by municipalities.
515 They are not allowed to earn a profit but only aim to cover the costs to operate the scheme;
516 hence, the fluctuating flows of different construction and demolition materials are not considered
517 an economic barrier to operate such a scheme. However, based on the data from the survey, it
518 can be concluded that the fluctuating flow of materials has a negative influence on the shops
519 ability to attract commercial customers, who would prefer conventional construction markets with
520 more stable supply and inventories. Thus, to increase B2B sales, it is necessary to establish a more
521 stable flow of construction materials, as private companies will otherwise not find it worth their
522 effort to drive to the reuse shops at the recycling stations. In addition, a web-based marketing
523 system would likely create a better overview of the assortment available, and create more security
524 for business customers according to the availability of goods.

525 Some of the waste companies have implemented a fee exemption for business customers at the
526 recycling stations to encourage them to use the reuse scheme instead of the recycling scheme.
527 This economic carrot is intended to discourage companies from throwing CDW in large containers
528 and instead encourage them to use the slightly more labour-intensive reuse scheme. However,
529 this type of reuse scheme requires additional staffing at the recycling stations to manage the
530 incoming materials. The waste company RenoDjurs operates a swap scheme and points out that
531 fee exemption can risk compromising the quality of the materials submitted in the reuse scheme,
532 since companies will have an incentive to hand in all materials regardless of its quality. The study
533 therefore finds that fee exemption is best paired with a business model based on commercial
534 retailing, since this model can generate income, which can pay for additional staff to monitor and
535 select materials for the reuse scheme based on quality.

536 6.2 Quality assurance

537 Of the 11 surveyed schemes, 8 responded that they performed no special quality assessment of
538 the construction materials, and that it is up to the customers themselves to assess the quality of
539 the materials. Quality assurance is to an extent less vital for private citizens, but this is considered
540 critical for the sale of used building materials to commercial customers. As Gálvez-Martosa et al.
541 (2018) points out, quality assessment and the classification of materials is a factor that can
542 increase the confidence in used building materials, by creating transparency and providing the
543 possibility for them to comply with market standards. Professionals are obligated to comply with
544 the standards laid down in the Construction Product Regulation (305/2011), hence quality
545 assurance creates an incentive for the industry to utilize reuse schemes. Bornholm's Regional
546 Municipality has established systems for the quality screening of building materials, as their
547 project aims to establish a value chain based on commercial customers; however, the municipality
548 does not guarantee the quality of the reused construction materials in strictly legal terms.
549 To establish a market for secondary materials, it is important to address the risks in legally
550 guaranteeing material quality. This requires new agreements between the value chain actors,
551 preferably early on in the process, specifically in terms of who guarantees the material quality
552 (supported by CE certification) and how the risks are shared (Lauritzen, 2018; Wahlström et al.,
553 2020).

554 6.3 Environmentally hazardous substances

555 A wide variety of construction materials contain environmentally hazardous substances, such as
556 PCBs, asbestos, chlorine paraffins, lead and other metals. Materials considered a risk are

557 separated from the other reused materials at the recycling stations to avoid the diffusion of
558 environmentally hazardous substances. At most of the surveyed schemes that include recycling
559 stations, the environmental assessment is based on a pragmatic assessment performed by an
560 employee at the recycling station.

561 Formal environmental screening for hazardous substances is exclusively carried out in cases where
562 the material supply comes from demolition projects, as environmental screening is mandatory in
563 that case. For example, Bornholm's Regional Municipality aims to establish a value chain for
564 reused/recycled construction materials through a series of demolition projects, by creating a
565 network of actors from the construction sector (Christensen, 2021). During the demolition
566 projects, samples are taken to test them for potential environmentally hazardous substances and
567 resource mapping is performed to assess the quantity and quality of the materials prior to
568 demolition.

569 Regarding the environmental assessment of direct reuse materials, generally no special training
570 for personnel is undertaken beyond the general qualification, but at AVV, for example, simple
571 environmental screening principles have been developed in relation to the risk of PCBs, mercury,
572 etc.

573 7 Conclusion

574 The majority of CDW is presently recycled as backfilling, but since construction materials often are
575 energy intensive to produce in the first place, there are potentially substantial environmental
576 benefits associated with efforts to push materials up in the waste hierarchy. The present study
577 analyzed the potentials and barriers in different business models based on the reuse and recycling

578 of CDW, and identified the main barriers related to the economy, organization, quality and
579 environmental issues.

580 Based on a survey of reuse schemes established in Denmark, the study identified diverse ways to
581 organize closed-loop systems for CDW. Based on these diverse experiences, four generic types of
582 business models for the reuse and recycling of CDW were synthesized: 1) Swap system, 2)
583 Retailing at the waste company, 3) Reuse through commercial retailers and 4) Recycling via the
584 material producers.

585 The study identified the main elements of the business models for end-of-life CDW and the four
586 proposed business models illustrated in abstract terms the resources needed and the cost
587 incentives needed to establish reuse and recycling schemes for CDW. Moreover, the study
588 contributes to an identification of the main challenges to scale-up business models for the reuse
589 and recycling of CDW for future research, including market engagement and value chain
590 collaboration, quality and environmental assessment, and the relation between the waste sector
591 and the construction sector.

592 The direct reuse of construction materials is a relatively new area for municipalities and waste
593 companies. The current reuse schemes in municipalities and waste companies typically cover a
594 high diversity of fractions, but only cover a small proportion of the total accumulated waste from
595 construction and demolition, since the larger companies in the Danish waste sector typically use
596 private contractors for handling and recycling their CDW. Based on the findings in this study, some
597 perspectives for future research can be provided in terms of meeting the discussed barriers and
598 further developing elements of the presented business models.

599 The study finds that a vital precondition for upscaling the studied schemes is an improved
600 collaboration between private and public partners. Five of the studied schemes engaged in
601 dialogue with demolition companies to increase the purity and quality of materials, including the
602 development of selective demolition procedures. Additionally, collaboration across the value chain
603 is a necessary condition for the development of the supply and demand for reused and recycled
604 CDW. Future research on value chain collaboration related to risk assessment, the distribution of
605 responsibilities and the development of organizational resources is crucial to commercialize
606 secondary construction materials.

607 The studied schemes primarily target private costumers (private citizens who reuse CDW) and a
608 further upscaling of the schemes to cover companies in the established construction industry
609 would require the development of standardized quality systems and certification schemes. Future
610 research on how to develop systems for the quality assessment of secondary construction
611 materials is important. This would likely necessitate a targeted strategy for selected waste
612 fractions as quality assessment procedures and certification are time consuming and economically
613 expensive. Furthermore, research on the relation between the waste sector and the construction
614 sector regarding legislation, and the key actors and processes is urged with an aim to transform
615 the waste sector into a resource sector. A framework condition to comply with the quality criteria
616 in the Construction Product Regulation (305/2011) is to develop national or international
617 standards for End-of-waste criteria (2008/98/EC).

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