

Circular Economy and Sustainable Innovation



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CIRCULAR ECONOMY AND SUSTAINABLE INNOVATION

Abstract

This essay examines the circular economy as a systemic response to the environmental, economic, and social limits of the linear “take-make-use-dispose” model. It argues that circular economy and sustainable innovation are mutually reinforcing: circularity provides the strategic direction for reducing material throughput, preventing waste, and retaining value, while sustainable innovation provides the technological, organizational, and business-model capabilities needed to make that transition operational. The essay situates the circular economy within current global pressures, including rising resource extraction, mounting waste generation, climate mitigation needs, and growing concern over supply security and industrial resilience. It emphasizes that circularity is not reducible to recycling alone; rather, it involves product durability, reparability, reuse, remanufacturing, resource recovery, circular supply, and new service-based models that change how value is created and retained over time. The essay also shows that circular transition is not merely a corporate sustainability exercise, but a broader development agenda involving public policy, standards, labor markets, urban systems, consumer rights, and digital traceability. Particular attention is given to the role of product design, data systems, international standards, and policy frameworks such as ecodesign and right-to-repair measures. The essay concludes that circular economy has become strategically important because it links climate goals, competitiveness, waste

reduction, and resilience; however, its promise will only be realized if sustainable innovation scales beyond pilot projects and is supported by coherent institutions, credible measurement, inclusive employment pathways, and enabling policy frameworks. Recent international assessments underline the urgency of this transition by showing that global resource extraction and waste volumes are still rising sharply, even as circularity remains far from dominant. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

Keywords

Circular economy; sustainable innovation; resource efficiency; waste prevention; circular business models; product life extension; resource recovery; ecodesign; right to repair; industrial resilience.

Circular Economy and Sustainable Innovation

Introduction

The idea of the circular economy has moved from the margins of environmental debate into the center of business strategy, industrial policy, and development thinking. This shift has not happened by accident. It reflects a growing recognition that the dominant linear model of “take, make, use, and dispose” is colliding with material limits, environmental degradation, climate pressure, and mounting waste costs. UNEP’s *Global Resources Outlook 2024* warns that, without urgent and coordinated action, global resource extraction could rise by 60% from 2020 levels by 2060. UNEP also notes that resource extraction has effectively tripled over the past five decades, intensifying the “triple planetary crisis” of climate change, biodiversity loss, and pollution. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

At the same time, the waste problem is becoming harder to ignore. UNEP's *Global Waste Management Outlook 2024* estimates that municipal solid waste generation could rise from 2.1 billion tonnes in 2023 to 3.8 billion tonnes by 2050. The report further estimates that the direct global cost of waste management was about USD 252 billion in 2020, but once hidden costs from pollution, poor health, and climate impacts are included, the total rises to USD 361 billion; without urgent action, that annual cost could nearly double by 2050. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

These trends explain why the circular economy is no longer discussed only as a desirable environmental philosophy. It is increasingly treated as an economic necessity and a strategic innovation agenda. OECD defines a circular economy as one in which the value of materials is maximized and maintained for as long as possible, material inputs and consumption are minimized, waste generation is prevented, and negative environmental impacts are reduced throughout the life cycle of materials. This definition is important because it moves the conversation beyond recycling alone. Circularity is about redesigning systems so that resources circulate longer, products last longer, and waste is prevented at the source. ([OECD](#))

Sustainable innovation is the other half of this transformation. Circularity cannot be achieved merely by asking people to recycle more conscientiously. It requires innovation in product design, materials, logistics, business models, digital traceability, industrial organization, and consumer engagement. It demands that firms and societies rethink how value is created, delivered, retained, and recovered. In this sense, circular economy and sustainable innovation are deeply intertwined: circularity supplies the strategic direction, while innovation supplies the practical means. ([OECD](#))

This essay argues that the circular economy should be understood not as a narrow waste-management agenda, but as a systemic economic

transformation grounded in sustainable innovation. It has implications for business competitiveness, climate mitigation, industrial modernization, employment, urban development, trade, and social inclusion. Yet its promise should not be romanticized. Circularity remains far from dominant, its market penetration is still limited in many sectors, and successful transition requires standards, policy alignment, investment, institutional capacity, and public trust. A serious assessment therefore must hold two truths together: circular economy is one of the most promising routes toward sustainable development, but it only becomes meaningful when translated into real innovation, not slogans.

([OECD](#))

From the Linear Economy to the Circular Economy

The linear economy became historically dominant because it matched the logic of industrial expansion: extract cheap resources, standardize production, stimulate consumption, and treat waste as an acceptable externality. For a long time, this model appeared efficient because prices rarely reflected ecological degradation, future scarcity, or the social costs of disposal. But what once looked efficient is increasingly revealed as fragile and wasteful. Resource-intensive growth creates vulnerability to supply disruptions, price volatility, ecological damage, and rising regulatory pressure. OECD explicitly notes that circular economy policies are often pursued not only for environmental reasons, but also to improve material and energy security and raise resource efficiency in production and consumption. ([OECD](#))

The circular economy emerges as a response to this fragility. At its core, it aims to keep products, components, and materials in use at their highest value for as long as possible. It does so by slowing resource loops, narrowing resource loops, and closing resource loops. In practical terms, this means designing more durable products, reducing unnecessary material throughput, repairing rather than discarding, reusing rather than replacing, remanufacturing rather than downgrading,

and recycling only when higher-value options are no longer feasible. OECD's monitoring framework and OECD's business-model analysis both emphasize that circularity is fundamentally about altering product and material flows through the economy. (OECD)

This distinction matters because public discussion often collapses circular economy into recycling. Recycling is important, but it sits relatively low in the hierarchy of value retention. A product that can be repaired, upgraded, shared, or remanufactured usually preserves more value than one that is simply shredded and reprocessed. This is why circularity starts with design. If products are made from mixed materials that cannot be separated, contain hazardous substances, or are intentionally difficult to repair, downstream recovery will remain limited no matter how enthusiastic consumers or recyclers become. The logic of circularity therefore begins upstream, not at the bin. (OECD)

The urgency of this redesign becomes clearer when material use is linked to climate and pollution. OECD notes that circular-economy policies are often justified as tools to address climate change and other environmental pressures. OECD also highlighted in 2025 that around 60% of global greenhouse gas emissions were associated with materials such as iron and steel, cement, and plastic, and that material-efficiency measures can sharply reduce emissions from hard-to-abate sectors. That point is decisive: climate policy cannot rely only on cleaner energy if the material metabolism of the economy remains wasteful and extractive. (OECD)

UNEP's 2025 remarks on circularity make the same issue starker. UNEP noted that world circularity is still only about 8%, while material consumption increased rather than declined in recent years. UNEP also reiterated, drawing on the International Resource Panel, that high-income countries consume six times more materials and contribute ten times more to climate impacts than low-income countries. This underscores that the circular economy is not just an efficiency agenda; it

is also a question of fairness in global consumption patterns. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

Why Circular Economy Has Become a Business Imperative

From a business perspective, circularity is no longer only about corporate social responsibility. It is becoming central to competitiveness, resilience, and innovation. Natural resources remain the physical basis of all economic activity, and OECD notes that recent decades have seen unprecedented growth in demand for those resources. When materials become more expensive, more volatile, or more geopolitically sensitive, businesses that depend on virgin resource extraction become more vulnerable. Circular strategies can reduce exposure by lowering raw-material dependence, improving recovery of secondary materials, extending product lifetimes, and creating new sources of value from underused assets. ([OECD](#))

Yet circularity is not only defensive. It is also an opportunity to rethink revenue models. OECD identifies five major circular business models: circular supply, resource recovery, product life extension, sharing, and product-service systems. Each modifies the pattern of material flows in the economy. Circular supply reduces dependence on virgin materials through renewable or recovered inputs. Resource recovery turns waste into secondary raw materials. Product life extension keeps products in use longer through repair, refurbishment, or remanufacturing. Sharing models increase the utilization of underused assets. Product-service systems shift the business focus from selling ownership to delivering performance or service. ([OECD](#))

This typology is especially useful because it shows that circularity is not one business model but a family of strategic options. A manufacturer may innovate through remanufacturing. A fashion company may move toward resale, repair, or fiber recovery. A mobility firm may rely on shared use rather than product ownership. A technology firm may create subscription-based access combined with maintenance and take-back. A

construction company may design for disassembly and reuse. Each pathway changes incentives for design, maintenance, customer relationships, and end-of-life recovery. Sustainable innovation, in this sense, is not merely technological; it is organizational and commercial. (OECD)

Still, optimism should be tempered by realism. OECD also finds that the market penetration of circular business models remains limited in many sectors, typically no more than 5–10% in economic terms, and often concentrated in niches. This is a critical point. The circular economy is strategically significant, but it is not yet dominant. Much of today's economy still operates on linear assumptions about cheap throughput, short product cycles, and disposal. The challenge is therefore not only to prove that circular business models can work, but to scale them beyond isolated experiments. (OECD)

This is where sustainable innovation becomes crucial. Firms cannot scale circularity through rhetoric alone. They need new materials, modular design, reverse logistics, customer data, repair ecosystems, predictive maintenance, interoperable standards, procurement reform, and financing structures that support longer asset life rather than rapid replacement. UNIDO's work on national circular-economy roadmaps explicitly points to innovation funds, innovation vouchers, technical centers, platforms for data dissemination, communities of practice, and knowledge-sharing as enabling infrastructure. That is a reminder that circular transition does not happen automatically through market sentiment; it requires an innovation system around it.

Sustainable Innovation: More Than Green Technology

Sustainable innovation is often reduced to cleaner technologies, but that is too narrow for a circular transition. Technology matters, yet circularity frequently depends just as much on system redesign. A more efficient machine is helpful, but a product that remains unreparable, a supply chain that lacks take-back capability, or a market that rewards planned

obsolescence will still produce waste. Sustainable innovation therefore has at least four layers: product innovation, process innovation, business-model innovation, and systems innovation. ([OECD](#))

Product innovation concerns what is being made. It includes durability, modularity, reparability, material substitution, disassembly, non-toxic composition, and upgradeability. Product design is foundational because it determines much of what becomes possible later in the value chain. The European Commission's circular economy policy makes this explicit. It identifies sustainable product policy as the cornerstone of its approach and notes that the Ecodesign for Sustainable Products Regulation entered into force in July 2024. The Commission also links the policy to more information on product durability and reparability, a right to repair, and measures across packaging, textiles, batteries, and waste shipments. ([Environment](#))

Process innovation concerns how things are made and recovered. This includes energy efficiency, material efficiency, industrial symbiosis, cleaner production, waste valorization, process digitalization, and reverse logistics. In a circular logic, production is no longer judged only by how much output it can create, but also by how intelligently it handles materials over time. This is why industrial ecology and industrial symbiosis are increasingly relevant. Waste heat, by-products, and scrap from one process can become inputs for another. Such innovations often save money and reduce environmental pressure at once, but they require coordination across firms and sectors rather than isolated optimization. ([UNIDO](#))

Business-model innovation concerns how value is captured. In linear systems, firms often profit most when customers buy frequently and replace quickly. In circular systems, firms may earn more through maintenance, access, upgrades, recovery, and repeated use. This requires different incentives. A company that retains ownership through a service model has stronger motivation to design products that last, are easy to

repair, and can be recovered efficiently. A resale platform or remanufacturing service turns durability from a cost into an asset. Sustainable innovation therefore changes what firms are rewarded for. It shifts the logic from volume of sales to value over time. (OECD)

Systems innovation concerns the wider ecosystem in which circularity must function. This includes standards, data infrastructure, public procurement, consumer law, urban planning, waste collection systems, workforce skills, and financing instruments. A repairable product is of limited value if spare parts are unavailable. A recyclable package is of limited value if collection and sorting systems do not exist. A product-service model may struggle if tax systems or accounting rules favor ownership-based sales. In other words, sustainable innovation succeeds when the surrounding system supports it. That is why circular economy is best seen as a transition in socio-technical systems, not merely a portfolio of eco-friendly products. (OECD)

Circular Economy as a Climate and Competitiveness Strategy

One reason circular economy has become more prominent is that it helps connect several policy goals that were once treated separately: climate mitigation, waste reduction, industrial competitiveness, and supply security. OECD's monitoring framework notes that circular-economy objectives are often embedded in broader policy agendas, including national reform programs and innovation strategies. The point is not simply that circularity is environmentally attractive; it is that it can serve as a strategic response to intertwined pressures on industry and society. (OECD)

This integrated role becomes clearer in hard-to-abate sectors. Energy transition is vital, but materials still matter enormously. OECD reported in 2025 that about 60% of global greenhouse gas emissions were generated by materials such as iron and steel, cement, and plastic. Material-efficiency measures can substantially reduce these emissions, especially where process emissions are otherwise difficult to eliminate.

That means circularity is not secondary to climate strategy. It is part of climate strategy itself. ([OECD](#))

The same argument applies to waste. UNEP's *Global Waste Management Outlook 2024* shows that a circular economy pathway could move the global waste system from rising net costs toward a net annual gain by 2050, if waste prevention, sustainable business practices, and full waste management are pursued seriously. This is important because it reframes waste not as a purely fiscal burden, but as a field for innovation and value recovery. In a circular system, avoided waste is not merely an environmental win; it is evidence of better economic design. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

There is also a geopolitical dimension. Heavy dependence on virgin materials can expose firms and economies to supply shocks, trade restrictions, and price instability. Secondary materials, local repair ecosystems, and resource recovery can improve resilience. OECD explicitly links circular-economy policy to supply security of materials and energy. In an era of volatile commodity chains and strategic competition over critical materials, circularity becomes a way to reduce strategic dependence while strengthening industrial adaptability. ([OECD](#))

However, competitiveness gains are not automatic. If circularity is implemented superficially, firms may incur compliance costs without systemic benefit. If product redesign is disconnected from recovery infrastructure, or if repairability exists only on paper, business performance may not improve. Sustainable innovation is therefore what converts circular intent into actual competitiveness. It is the difference between circular economy as a slogan and circular economy as productive capability. ([OECD](#))

Sectoral Illustrations of Circular and Sustainable Innovation

Manufacturing and industrial production

Manufacturing is a natural arena for circular innovation because it concentrates material use, design power, and process control. Here circularity can mean replacing virgin inputs with recovered or bio-based ones, redesigning products for modularity, recovering industrial scrap, remanufacturing components, and building reverse logistics into supply chains. OECD's business-model typology is especially relevant in manufacturing because all five models can appear there, from circular supply to product-service systems. ([OECD](#))

Industrial innovation also depends on cross-firm collaboration. Many circular opportunities emerge only when by-products from one firm become feedstocks for another. Industrial symbiosis, shared recovery platforms, and sector-based standards can unlock efficiencies that individual firms cannot create alone. UNIDO's roadmap guidance points to technical centers, communities of practice, business support, and data platforms as enablers precisely because circular manufacturing is often a collective, not purely firm-level, achievement.

Cities, buildings, and construction

Cities are central to circular transition because they concentrate people, materials, waste, and infrastructure. OECD notes that cities consume almost two-thirds of global energy, produce up to 80% of greenhouse gas emissions, and generate 50% of global waste. That concentration makes cities both a major source of environmental pressure and a strategic platform for circular transformation. ([OECD](#))

In the built environment, circular innovation includes design for disassembly, reuse of construction materials, modular building systems, circular procurement, and better management of demolition waste. This matters because construction is one of the most material-intensive sectors in the economy. A circular approach in cities can also connect waste, water, mobility, housing, and local industry rather than treating them as separate silos. OECD's work on cities and regions emphasizes

that circularity can reduce waste, lower emissions, enhance resource efficiency, support local businesses, and reduce health risks. ([OECD](#))

Plastics, packaging, and consumer goods

Plastics have become emblematic of the linear economy because they combine convenience, low cost, and severe waste leakage. Circular innovation here involves redesign for reuse, reduction of unnecessary packaging, improved sorting and recycling, alternative materials where appropriate, and extended producer responsibility. The European Commission's recent packaging regulation and broader circular-economy package illustrate how policy is increasingly pushing firms toward such redesign. ([Environment](#))

Yet plastics also reveal a cautionary lesson: circularity cannot be assumed just because recycling exists in principle. Contamination, mixed materials, and poor collection systems often undermine real recovery. This is why design, traceability, and system infrastructure must advance together. UNEP's regional initiatives around plastic circularity explicitly focus on catalyzing innovation across value chains, not just downstream collection. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

Textiles and fashion

Fashion and textiles show the social and environmental contradictions of linear consumption particularly clearly. UNEP highlighted in 2025 that the sector's linear model of overproduction and overconsumption is aggravating climate change, nature loss, pollution, and waste. A circular approach in fashion emphasizes durability, reuse, repair, resale, fiber recovery, and slower consumption patterns. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

But textiles also show that circularity can be blocked by chemicals and design choices. The European Environment Agency noted in 2024 that PFAS in textiles are a barrier to circularity because they complicate longer use, reuse, and recycling and increase contamination risks. This is

a powerful reminder that sustainable innovation must be holistic. A product is not truly circular if hazardous design choices make safe recirculation impossible. ([European Environment Agency](#))

Waste, recycling, and secondary materials

Waste management remains indispensable, but circularity asks that it be upgraded from end-of-pipe handling to resource management. UNEP's 2024 waste outlook shows that better prevention and circular management could produce net economic gains compared with business-as-usual. At the same time, the ILO notes that recycling already employs at least 6.9 million workers worldwide, many in the informal sector, and has the potential to create millions more jobs as circular systems expand. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

This employment dimension matters because circular economy is often discussed in engineering terms while neglecting labor. In reality, reuse, repair, sorting, remanufacturing, refurbishment, and recycling are deeply human activities even when supported by automation. A socially responsible circular transition therefore requires attention to working conditions, formalization, inclusion, and skills, especially where informal waste workers already perform essential recovery functions.

([International Labour Organization](#))

Digitalization, Data, and the New Infrastructure of Circularity

Digitalization is becoming one of the most important enablers of sustainable innovation in circular systems. Circularity depends on knowing what a product contains, where it has been, how it was used, whether it can be repaired, and what should happen to it at end of life. That kind of intelligence is difficult to achieve without digital tools. UNIDO's 2025 work on circular economy and digitalization explains that blockchain can strengthen traceability by creating a digital record of a product's history and that AI can improve sorting and recycling by identifying materials and maximizing resource recovery. ([UNIDO](#))

These tools matter because circular systems are information-intensive. Linear systems can function with relatively poor visibility: once sold, products disappear from the producer's strategic concern. Circular systems require visibility across the full life cycle. A repair economy needs spare-part data. A remanufacturing system needs product histories. A high-quality recycling system needs material composition information. A sharing model needs usage data. Sustainable innovation increasingly depends not only on better materials, but on better information. ([UNIDO](#))

Policy is beginning to reflect this reality. The European circular-economy framework links the Ecodesign for Sustainable Products Regulation with new information rights for consumers, right-to-repair measures, and product-level sustainability requirements. The European Environment Agency also notes that the 2024 Ecodesign for Sustainable Products Regulation introduces the concept of a Digital Product Passport for a broader range of goods. Such measures can make circular claims more verifiable and circular operations more practical. ([Environment](#))

International standards are also evolving. ISO's new 59000 family includes ISO 59004:2024 on circular-economy vocabulary, principles, and guidance for implementation, ISO 59010:2024 on business-oriented implementation, and ISO 59020:2024 on measuring and assessing circularity performance. The significance of these standards is not merely technical. They help build a common language for firms, regulators, auditors, and investors. In a field where "circular" is often used loosely, standardized concepts and measurement frameworks can reduce confusion and greenwashing. ([ISO](#))

Still, digitalization should not be romanticized. Better data do not automatically produce better outcomes. Traceability systems can be costly, fragmented, and unevenly accessible across supply chains. Small firms may struggle to comply if digital requirements are imposed without support. Data quality, interoperability, and governance also

matter. Digital circularity works when it simplifies recovery and accountability, not when it becomes a new layer of bureaucracy detached from material reality. ([UNIDO](#))

Policy, Standards, and the Public Architecture of Circular Innovation

The circular economy cannot rely on voluntary corporate action alone. It needs public architecture: standards, incentives, procurement rules, product policy, infrastructure, innovation support, and enforcement. OECD emphasizes that many countries have now developed strategies, roadmaps, and policy packages for resource efficiency and circularity, and that circular-economy objectives increasingly appear in national reform programs and innovation strategies. This matters because circularity is not just about what firms choose to do individually; it is about the rules and signals that shape markets. ([OECD](#))

Europe offers one of the most visible current examples of policy-driven circular transition. The European Commission reports that most legal acts under the second Circular Economy Action Plan have now been adopted and entered into force. These include the Ecodesign for Sustainable Products Regulation, right-to-repair legislation, a packaging regulation, new waste-shipment rules, batteries regulation, and action on textiles and consumer information. Collectively, these policies push circularity upstream into product design and downstream into reuse, repair, recycling, and responsible waste handling. ([Environment](#))

The policy lesson is broader than Europe. Markets often fail to reward circularity on their own because the environmental and social costs of linear production are not fully priced. Cheap disposal can undermine repair. Virgin materials can undercut recycled inputs when externalities are ignored. Consumers may lack reliable information on durability and reparability. Innovation can be blocked by fragmented standards. Public policy helps correct these failures by changing incentives and building enabling conditions. OECD's 2025 report on economic instruments for a resource-efficient circular economy reflects exactly this logic. ([OECD](#))

UNIDO's guidance on national circular-economy roadmaps adds another key insight: policy must go beyond regulation to include innovation ecosystems. Roadmaps can include innovation funds, technical advisory centers, business support, awareness campaigns, data systems, and communities of practice. In other words, circular policy works best when it is developmental, not merely restrictive. It should help firms and regions build capability, not only punish them for lagging.

Society, Employment, and Inclusion

A circular economy that works only for large firms and affluent consumers would not be genuinely sustainable. Circular transition has social consequences, and those consequences need to be faced directly. The ILO highlights that recycling alone already supports millions of jobs, many in the informal sector, and that circular transition could create millions more. But the quality of those jobs matters as much as the quantity. If circularity expands through unsafe work, precarious labor, or exclusion of existing workers from formal value chains, then its social promise will remain unfulfilled. ([International Labour Organization](#))

This is especially important in lower-income settings, where repair, reuse, and informal recovery have long existed as survival practices rather than premium sustainability niches. Circular economy discourse sometimes forgets that many communities were "circular" out of necessity long before the concept was fashionable. The challenge is not to romanticize informality, but to recognize and upgrade existing practices with better conditions, infrastructure, recognition, and income opportunities. A socially intelligent circular economy should formalize value without erasing livelihoods. ([International Labour Organization](#))

The same point applies to consumers. Circularity often requires behavioral change, but behavior is shaped by affordability and convenience. People are more likely to repair if products are repairable, parts are available, and repair is economically reasonable. They are more likely to buy durable products if reliable information exists. They are

more likely to participate in reuse if logistics are simple and trust is high. This is why the European rules on product information, reparability, and right to repair matter socially as well as environmentally. They make circular choices easier rather than merely preaching responsibility.

[\(Environment\)](#)

There is also a global justice dimension. UNEP's 2025 remarks, echoing the International Resource Panel, stress that high-income countries consume far more materials and generate far greater climate impacts than low-income countries. That means the circular transition cannot be framed only as a universal call for everyone to do slightly better. For heavily consuming societies, circularity must involve real reductions in material footprint and overconsumption. For lower-income societies, it may involve building better systems without reproducing the wasteful path of older industrialization. [\(UNEP - UN Environment Programme\)](#)

The Main Barriers to Circular and Sustainable Innovation

If the circular economy is so promising, why is progress still limited? One reason is economic lock-in. Linear systems are deeply embedded in infrastructure, contracts, procurement habits, pricing structures, and consumer expectations. Firms may know that a circular redesign is desirable, but still find that suppliers, customers, logistics providers, and financiers are oriented toward linear turnover. Circular transition therefore often collides with the inertia of existing systems. [\(OECD\)](#)

A second barrier is measurement and credibility. "Circular" is often used loosely in marketing and policy language. Without robust standards and indicators, firms can overstate progress, compare incomparable practices, or focus on minor recycling initiatives while leaving core material intensity unchanged. OECD's work on monitoring and ISO's new standards are responses to exactly this problem: circularity needs clearer definitions and more consistent ways to assess performance. [\(OECD\)](#)

A third barrier is financing. Circular business models may require higher up-front investment, longer payback periods, reverse-logistics systems, design changes, and new partnerships. Traditional finance often favors familiar linear revenue streams over service-based or recovery-based models. UNIDO's recommendation for innovation funds and vouchers reflects the need to reduce this gap. If capital markets and public finance do not adapt, circular innovation may remain a niche pursued mainly by unusually patient firms.

A fourth barrier is consumer culture. Modern economies often reward novelty, speed, and disposability. Repair can be stigmatized, second-hand can be treated as inferior, and short product cycles can be normalized through marketing. Sustainable innovation therefore is not purely technical; it is cultural. Circularity requires a shift from an economy of accelerated replacement to one of maintained value. That shift is difficult because it challenges not only how firms produce, but how societies define convenience, status, and progress. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

Finally, there are trade-offs and unintended consequences. A sharing model may reduce product demand in one context but increase transport emissions in another. Recycled materials may contain contamination if chemical safety is poorly governed. Product-service systems may create new data-governance issues. OECD explicitly notes that circular business models can have risks and unintended consequences alongside environmental potential. This is why sustainable innovation must remain evidence-based and life-cycle aware rather than assuming all circular activity is automatically beneficial. ([OECD](#))

Toward a More Strategic View of Circular Transition

The most useful way to think about circular economy and sustainable innovation is not as a single program, but as a new development logic. In the old logic, growth was pursued mainly by increasing throughput: more extraction, more production, more disposal. In the emerging logic,

growth and prosperity depend increasingly on how intelligently societies manage value already in circulation. That means designing for durability, preserving embedded value, recovering materials, regenerating systems, and using innovation to reduce dependence on virgin throughput.

[\(OECD\)](#)

For business, this means rethinking strategy. The strongest firms in a circular future may not be the ones that merely sell the greatest volume of short-lived goods. They may be the ones that combine material intelligence, design excellence, customer trust, digital traceability, and recovery capability. In other words, they will treat sustainability not as a cost center but as a source of productive sophistication. Product quality, after-sales service, repair ecosystems, and material stewardship become part of competitive advantage. [\(OECD\)](#)

For governments, the implication is equally significant. Circular policy should not be confined to environment ministries. It belongs also to industrial policy, innovation policy, urban policy, labor policy, consumer policy, and trade strategy. OECD's work, UNIDO's roadmaps, and the European policy package all illustrate this cross-sectoral character. Circularity succeeds when policy coherence replaces fragmentation.

[\(OECD\)](#)

For society, the challenge is to ensure that circular transition remains socially meaningful. If circularity becomes merely a branding exercise for affluent markets, it will lose legitimacy. If it creates good jobs, improves affordability through longer-lasting goods, reduces pollution, and supports local enterprise, it can become a more inclusive model of development. The ILO's emphasis on employment, the EU's emphasis on repair rights and consumer information, and UNEP's attention to zero-waste and circularity in sectors such as textiles all point toward a broader social economy of circular transition. [\(International Labour Organization\)](#)

Conclusion

Circular economy and sustainable innovation have become central because the linear model is proving environmentally destructive, economically risky, and socially shortsighted. UNEP's recent resource and waste outlooks show a world still moving in the wrong direction: rising extraction, rising waste, rising hidden costs. OECD's analysis shows that circularity offers a coherent alternative in which materials are kept in use longer, waste is prevented, and environmental impacts are reduced across life cycles. But the circular economy is not self-executing. It depends on sustainable innovation in products, processes, business models, and systems. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

The business case for circularity is increasingly strong. It can reduce material dependence, open new revenue models, improve resilience, support climate goals, and stimulate industrial modernization. Yet OECD also reminds us that circular business models still have limited penetration in most sectors. This means the real task is not to celebrate circularity in principle, but to scale it in practice. That requires design reform, digital traceability, standards, reverse logistics, financing, public policy, and organizational learning. ([OECD](#))

The social case is equally important. Circular transition can create jobs, improve repair and reuse systems, reduce pollution, and strengthen local economies, but only if it is designed with labor, inclusion, and justice in mind. The ILO's employment findings and UNEP's emphasis on unequal material consumption make clear that circularity is not only a technical challenge but a distributive one. It must decide whose waste is reduced, whose materials are recovered, whose jobs are upgraded, and whose consumption patterns are transformed. ([International Labour Organization](#))

In the end, circular economy is best understood as a new grammar of economic intelligence. It asks businesses and societies to stop treating waste as inevitable, resources as endlessly available, and innovation as valuable only when it accelerates consumption. Sustainable innovation

points in another direction: toward durability, regeneration, stewardship, and better use of what already exists. That direction is not a minor adjustment to the current model. It is a redefinition of what progress should mean in an age of ecological constraint. ([OECD](#))

Glossary

Circular economy

An economic system that aims to maintain the value of materials, products, and resources for as long as possible, minimize material inputs and consumption, prevent waste generation, and reduce environmental pressures across the life cycle. ([OECD](#))

Linear economy

A production-and-consumption model based on extraction, manufacture, use, and disposal, which ISO contrasts with circular approaches because it contributes to resource depletion, climate pressure, and biodiversity loss. ([ISO](#))

Sustainable innovation

Innovation in products, processes, business models, and systems that supports long-term environmental sustainability while improving how organizations create, deliver, and preserve value within resource limits. This meaning is reflected in OECD's discussion of circular business models and UNIDO's emphasis on innovation systems, digital tools, and roadmap-based transition support. ([OECD](#))

Resource efficiency

The more effective and productive use of materials and resources in

ways that reduce environmental pressure while maintaining economic value. OECD treats resource efficiency as a core objective of circular-economy policy and monitoring. ([OECD](#))

Waste prevention

Measures that avoid waste generation before it occurs, rather than relying mainly on downstream management. UNEP's waste outlook presents waste prevention as central to zero-waste and circular-economy pathways. ([UNEP - UN Environment Programme](#))

Circular business models

Business models that alter product and material flows so as to reduce dependence on virgin inputs and lower environmental pressure. OECD identifies five main types: circular supply, resource recovery, product life extension, sharing, and product-service systems. ([OECD](#))

Circular supply

A model in which virgin-resource inputs are replaced by renewable, bio-based, or recovered materials, thereby reducing pressure on primary extraction. ([OECD](#))

Resource recovery

The conversion of waste streams into secondary raw materials or other useful outputs so that value is recovered instead of lost through disposal. ([OECD](#))

Product life extension

A circular strategy that lengthens the useful life of products through repair, refurbishment, remanufacturing, upgrading, or reuse, thereby slowing material flows and reducing waste. ([OECD](#))

Product-service system

A business model in which firms provide access, performance, or service rather than relying only on product ownership, creating stronger incentives for durability, maintenance, and efficient product use. ([OECD](#))

Ecodesign

A regulatory and design approach that embeds sustainability and circularity requirements into products from the outset, especially regarding durability, reparability, and life-cycle performance. The European Commission identifies the Ecodesign for Sustainable Products Regulation as the cornerstone of its circular-product policy framework.

[\(Environment\)](#)

Right to repair

A policy principle that strengthens consumers' ability to repair goods by improving access to information, repair options, and product durability support. The European Commission notes that the EU directive on repair of goods entered into force in July 2024. [\(Environment\)](#)

Circular standards

Formal frameworks that harmonize language, principles, implementation guidance, and measurement for circular economy practice. ISO 59004:2024 is part of the ISO 59000 family and provides vocabulary, principles, and implementation guidance for organizations. [\(ISO\)](#)

Circular jobs

Employment created or sustained through activities such as repair, reuse, recycling, and other circular-economy functions. The ILO highlights circularity as a job-creating pathway and notes major employment opportunities linked to recycling and broader circular transition.

[\(International Labour Organization\)](#)

APA 7 References

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