

1 **Improving Knowledge and Practices of Mitigating Green House Gas Emission**  
2 **through Waste Recycling in a Community, Ibadan, Nigeria**

3 **Hammed Taiwo B.<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Shem O. Wandiga<sup>2</sup>, Yacob Mulugetta<sup>3</sup> and Sridhar M.K.C.<sup>1</sup>**

4 <sup>1</sup>Department of Environmental Health Sciences, Faculty of Public Health, College of  
5 Medicine, University of Ibadan, Ibadan, Nigeria.

6 <sup>2</sup>Institute for Climate Change and Adaptation, University of Nairobi, Kenya.

7 <sup>3</sup>Department of Science, Technology, Engineering & Public Policy (STePP), University  
8 College London, United Kingdom.

9 \*Telephone: +234-08054718224 (Nigeria) & +254-737068801 (Kenya)

10 \*E-mail: hammetab2003@yahoo.co.uk

11 \*Mailing Address: P. O. Box 20593 UI HO, Ibadan

12 Fax: 234-2-8103043

13 **Abstract**

14 Throughout the world, waste sector has been implicated in significant contribution to  
15 anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Involving communities in recycling  
16 their solid waste would ensure climate change effect mitigation and resilience. This study  
17 was carried out to improve waste management practices through a community-led  
18 intervention at Kube-Atenda community in Ibadan, Nigeria. The study adopted a quasi-  
19 experimental design, comprising mixed method of data collection such as semi-  
20 structured questionnaire and a life-cycle-based model for calculating greenhouse gas  
21 generation potentials of various waste management practices in the area. A systematic  
22 random sampling was used to select sixty (60) households for a survey on knowledge,  
23 attitude and practices of waste management through Recovery, Reduction, Reuse and  
24 Recycling (4Rs) before and after the training intervention. Data collected were  
25 summarised using descriptive statistics, chi-square test, t-test and ANOVA at  $p= 0.05$ .  
26 The mean age of the respondent was  $49.7 \pm 16.7$  and 68.3 % were females. Respondents'  
27 knowledge scores before and after the intervention were significantly different:  $7.07 \pm$   
28  $1.48$  and  $11.6 \pm 1.6$  while attitude scores were:  $8.2 \pm 2.3$  and  $13.5 \pm 0.8$ . There were  
29 significant differences in the major waste disposal practices in the community before and  
30 after the intervention. All (100 %) the participants were willing to participate in waste  
31 recycling business and the model predicted that adoption of 4Rs strategy had a great  
32 potential in saving greenhouse gas emissions in the community. The behaviour of the  
33 community people has changed towards waste management that promote climate change  
34 mitigation and adaptation through waste reduction, reuse, and resource recovery.

35 **Keywords:** Greenhouse gas, Life-cycle-based model, Waste management practices,  
36 Behavioural change, Climate change mitigation, Community people

## 37 **1.0 Introduction**

38 In Nigeria, as well as other countries of the world, the health and environmental effects of  
39 municipal solid waste have been extensively explored [1-13]. According to  
40 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), waste sector significantly  
41 contributed to anthropogenic greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions, accounting for  
42 approximately 5% of the global greenhouse budget [14]. This 5% consists of methane  
43 (CH<sub>4</sub>) emission from anaerobic decomposition and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) from aerobic  
44 decomposition of solid waste. It has been reported that developing countries and  
45 emerging economies could reduce their national GHG emissions by 5% through adoption  
46 of municipal waste management systems that have focus on waste recycling [15]. Also,  
47 by establishing what is called "closed loop waste management", German waste  
48 management activities was able to reduce about 20% of the overall GHG over the period  
49 1990 to 2005 [16]. The IPCC calculations take into account only end-of-pipe solid waste  
50 management strategies such as: landfill/waste dumping, composting, waste incineration  
51 and sewage disposal while the positive impacts of waste recovery, reduction, reuse and  
52 recycling (4R's) on GHG emission are directly accounted for in the GHG inventories  
53 reported to the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC)  
54 under the Kyoto Protocol [15].

55 Accordingly, a number of studies have specifically focused on GHG emissions, their  
56 associated global warming potentials and climate change from waste management  
57 activities in Nigeria [17-20] and European countries [21-23]. However, a successful  
58 waste management approach for Nigeria and the African continent requires not only  
59 identifying solid waste related problems but providing practical solutions to the problems.  
60 This has to do with community-action-oriented projects on all aspects of waste  
61 management, including adoption of the 4Rs concept, changing people behaviour through  
62 sensitisation and awareness creation on the ill effects of poor waste management,  
63 identifying the most environmentally friendly and economically viable alternative to the  
64 current waste management practices, using life-cycle assessment (LCA) approach and  
65 building community people's capacity in resource and energy recovery from the waste.  
66 Lagos municipal authorities have failed to achieve proper practices of waste storage and  
67 segregation at source owing to lack of community participation [24]. Improving the  
68 public general knowledge and awareness creation in the form of education and technical  
69 training [25] is therefore important in making waste recycling a huge success. As  
70 demonstrated in a study conducted by Lilliana et al. [26], citizens that received  
71 information about the benefits of recycling were more likely to participate in recycling  
72 campaigns.

73 Life-cycle assessment of waste management practises has proven to be a suitable tool for  
74 providing a reliable comparison between waste management technologies and analysing  
75 the related benefits and drawbacks [21]. As such, several studies in the last years assessed

76 the beneficial environmental aspects of waste management using LCA-based approach  
77 [27, 28]. Soares and Martins [29] identified socio-political-economic barriers to the  
78 process implementing alternative and complementary technologies for generating  
79 electricity from MSW in São Paulo, Brazil, using LCA. Ogundipe and Jimoh [19] used  
80 LCA methodology to determine municipal solid waste (MSW) management strategy for  
81 Minna, Niger State, Nigeria. Mohammad and Kenneth [30] utilised Solid Waste  
82 Management Greenhouse Gas (SWM-GHG) calculator to compare four scenarios  
83 representing the current and suggested technologies in Jordan and observed reduction of  
84 GHG emission of about 63 175 tonne CO<sub>2</sub>-eq/year in a scenario where all the organic  
85 waste was recovered. However, it should be noted that a comprehensive LCA study  
86 should include other environmental impacts apart from climate change such as  
87 acidification potential, eutrophication potential and human toxicity [28].

88 The failure of the current end-of-pipe approach, based on solid waste collection and  
89 disposal, to mitigate climate change effects such as flooding in Nigeria is quite visible.  
90 This situation puts an urgent need for introducing an integrated and holistic approach that  
91 will not only protect the environment but build people's capacity in wealth creation from  
92 waste for poverty reduction, climate change resilience, improved health and self-esteem.  
93 The current study was therefore aimed at assessing the effects of a community-led waste  
94 recycling sensitisation and training intervention on knowledge, attitude and practices of  
95 community people and a life-cycle- based environmental impacts of various waste  
96 management practices for reducing greenhouse gas emissions in the community.

## 97 **2.0 Material and methods**

98 **2.1 Study area**

99 Ibadan is located in the south-western part of Nigeria on Longitude 3<sup>0</sup> 53' East of  
100 Greenwich meridian and Latitude 7<sup>0</sup> 34' North of the Equator. The city is the second  
101 largest in Africa and fourth most populated in Nigeria with an estimated population of  
102 about four million people [31]. It is in 128 km northeast of Lagos and 345 km southwest  
103 of Abuja, the federal capital. The city comprises eleven contiguous local government  
104 areas with sub-division into five (5) urban areas- Ibadan North, Ibadan North-West,  
105 Ibadan South-West, Ibadan South-East and Ibadan North-East and six (6) peri-urban  
106 (Ibadan less city) consisting of Egbeda, Akinyele, Moniya, Ona-Ara, Lagelu, Oluyole and  
107 Ido. Like many other urban centers in Nigeria, Ibadan grew naturally without any form of  
108 master planning. Kube Atenda community (Figure 1) that was purposively selected for  
109 this study based on its location in high density area with poor waste management problem  
110 (Figure 2) is located in Ibadan Northeast local government area. The community is over  
111 populated (10,000 people) with low-income people due to its closeness to major  
112 commercial centres in the city which has impacted waste generation and management in  
113 the area.

114 **FIGURE 1 HERE**

115 **FIGURE 2 HERE**

116 **2.2 Study design and sampling techniques**

117 This study adopted community-based quasi-experimental study design and the sample  
118 size was calculated using a simplified form of comparison between two proportions (Eq.  
119 1) thus:

$$n = \frac{(Z_{\alpha} + Z_{\beta})^2 [P_1(1-P_1) + P_2(1-P_2)]}{(P_1 - P_2)^2} \dots\dots\dots \text{Eq. 1.}$$

120 Where n = minimum sample size,  $Z_{\alpha} = 1.96$  (95% level of confidence),  $Z_{\beta} = 0.84$  (80%  
121 power),  $P_1 = 0.25$  (baseline prevalence- on assumption),  $P_2 = 0.50$  (anticipated 25%  
122 increase). From equation 1,  $n = 55 \infty 60$ . A systematic random sampling was used to  
123 select sixty (60) respondents (household heads) for the survey and training. However, 5  
124 people were dropped out between pre- and post-intervention.

125 **2.3 Procedures for data collection**

126 Mixed method (quantitative and qualitative) approach was adopted for data collection.  
127 This included: interviewer- administered and semi-structured questionnaire, Focus Group  
128 Discussion (FGD) guide, observational checklist for waste characterisation and SWM-  
129 GHG calculator developed by Institute for Energy and Environmental Research (IFEU)  
130 for assessing GHG emission potentials of waste management practices in the community.  
131 The questionnaire was used to collect information on socioeconomic status, social  
132 environment/infrastructure status, ethnic relations, perceived health issues and knowledge  
133 attitude and practices of waste management before and after the intervention.  
134 A total of 12 questions were used to assess respondents' knowledge and practices of the  
135 respondents were assessed with 14 questions. Correct response to each of these questions  
136 was given one score while a wrong response was given zero score. Half of the total

137 correct scores, which is 6 (for knowledge) and 7 (for practices) were set as a cut-of mark  
138 so that respondents that scored the cut-of marks and above had good knowledge or good  
139 practice and those scored below the cut-of marks had poor knowledge or poor practices,  
140 as the case may be. Mean knowledge scores was calculated by finding the average of all  
141 the respondent's correct marks. That is, summation of individual correct scores divided  
142 by the total number of respondents.

143 . Two focus group discussion sessions were organised for male and female respondents  
144 separately in the community with eight members in each group. The information obtained  
145 was used to design the questionnaire. Physical characterisation of waste generated in the  
146 community was carried out for consecutive three weeks, using simplified tools such as  
147 picker, rake, weighing scale and refuse bags. Waste generation rate was computed thus  
148 (Eq. 2.):

$$\text{Waste generation rate} \left( \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{cap}} \right)_{\text{yr}} = \frac{\text{MSW}_T \times 365}{N} \dots\dots\dots \text{Eq. 2.}$$

149 Where  $\text{MSW}_T$  = total waste generated per day in the community,  $N$  = total population  
150 (10,000) of the community and 365 = total of days in a year.

151 The calculation method used in the SWM-GHG calculator follows the life-cycle  
152 assessment method [15]. It was used to compare the different waste management  
153 strategies by calculating the GHG emissions of the different recyclables (typically glass,  
154 paper and cardboard, plastics, metals, organic waste in CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents) and waste  
155 fractions disposed of over their whole life cycle – from "cradle to grave". This method  
156 corresponds to the "Tier 1" approach described in IPCC [14]. The tool sums up the  
157 emissions of all residual waste or recycling streams and calculates the total GHG  
158 emissions in CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents. To achieve this, effects of waste management activities on



159 greenhouse gas emissions at four situations were assessed with the calculator. The  
160 situations comprised pre- and post-intervention and two alternative waste management  
161 scenarios suggested for community (scenario 1 and scenario 2). In the situation at pre-  
162 intervention (base line), the waste management practices were characterised by mere  
163 disposal under difficult health conditions such as dumping on ground and stream, open  
164 burning and without regular waste collection services by the municipality. Under this  
165 situation, almost half of the scattered waste is burned in open fires to produce extreme air  
166 pollution in the community. The situation at post-intervention involved solid waste  
167 recycling and reuse to some extent, including composting of organic waste. The  
168 remaining residual waste that could not be recycled was disposed of to some designated  
169 dumpsites through registered private waste collectors in Ibadan. Small quantity of solid  
170 waste was still scattered, burned or dumped into the stream.

171 For the two alternative scenarios proposed for the future outlook of the waste  
172 management in the community, the scenario 1 assumed an increased efficiency in the  
173 separate collection of waste, high recycling rates for the recyclables and composting of  
174 organic waste. Similar to situation in post-intervention, some quantity of solid waste is  
175 still scattered but no longer burned or dumped into the stream. The scenario 2 represents  
176 the most advanced solid waste management strategy. Here the remaining residual waste  
177 is pre-treated before being discarded via mechanical-biological and/or mechanical-  
178 physical stabilisation producing a refuse derived fuel. It is the resulting fraction of  
179 impurity that will be sent to the dumpsites to minimise greenhouse gas emissions and  
180 waste scattering in the community no longer occurs.

181 In addition, there was a two month training intervention comprising a community  
182 sensitisation workshop and capacity building on composting operation at household level,  
183 smokeless charcoal production from dry agro-allied waste (Figure 3), biogas production  
184 form organic waste, and segregation of recyclables such as pet bottles, plastics, paper,  
185 glass, and metal for revenue generation through community sorting centres and buy-back  
186 arrangement (Figure 3). Attendants at the sorting centre, who are members of the  
187 community, would transport the recyclables into waste recycling industries in the city for  
188 sale and money accrued from this arrangement would be used to pay attendants' salaries  
189 and maintain the centre. The data collected at pre- and post- intervention were compared  
190 using chi-square test, analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-test at 5% level of  
191 significance to establish the effect of the intervention in the community. Logistic  
192 regression model was also used to identify the strength of categorical variable  
193 association.

194 **FIGURE 3 HERE**

## 195 **3.0 Results and Discussion**

### 196 **3.1 Questionnaire administration**

197 Results of socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table1. The  
198 mean age of the respondents was  $49.7 \pm 16.7$  years, 68.3 % were female and more than a  
199 third (31.7 %) had primary education. The mean number of households found in houses  
200 and people occupying households were  $3.7 \pm 2.0$  and  $5.6 \pm 3.4$ , respectively. In addition,  
201 51.7 % were owners and 48.3 %were tenants. Several respondents (36.7 %) had been  
202 living in the community between one and ten years while half of them (50.0 %) earned  
203 below 20, 000.0 naira (56.0 USD) per month.

204 **TABLE 1 HERE**

205 Table 2 and Figure 4 show the results of the respondents' knowledge of waste and waste  
206 management before and after the intervention. There was significant difference in the  
207 mean knowledge scores at pre-intervention ( $7.1 \pm 1.5$ ) and post- intervention ( $11.6 \pm 1.6$ ).  
208 Half of the respondents (50.0 %) were aware about waste recycling at pre-intervention  
209 against 100.0 % at post-intervention. None of them (0.0 %) knew anything about biogas  
210 and smokeless charcoal production from waste at pre-intervention against 100.0 % at  
211 post-intervention. Discussion at FGD sessions showed that many of the participants had  
212 heard about biogas before but could not understand the concept while almost all of them  
213 were hearing smokeless charcoal for the first time. The results of the respondents'  
214 attitude towards waste management in the community before and after the intervention  
215 are shown in Table 3 while Figure 5 depicts the category attitudinal scores. The mean  
216 knowledge scores - at post-intervention ( $13.5 \pm 0.84$ ) was significantly higher than that of  
217 pre- intervention ( $8.2 \pm 2.3$ ).

218 **TABLE 2 HERE**

219 **FIGURE 4 HERE**

220 **TABLE 3 HERE**

221 **FIGURE 5 HERE**

222 As shown in Table 4, majority of the respondents disposed their waste every day and very  
223 early in the morning, even at post-intervention. Women were more responsible for waste  
224 disposal than any other member of the family at pre-intervention (41.7 %) and post-  
225 intervention (43.6 %). None of the respondent (0.0 %) separated waste before disposal at  
226 the pre-intervention while more than half of them (67.3 %) carried out the separation at  
227 post- intervention. A previous study has revealed that the materials recycled could be  
228 increased by 33.5% if the waste separation was applied at the source of generation [28].  
229 The reason for not separating waste majorly included: not knowing about it (73.3 %) and  
230 not having time to do so (88.9 %) at pre- and- post intervention respectively. Also, the  
231 responses on who separated waste in households were similar at both periods of data  
232 collection: children (16.2 %), my wife/my husband (35.1 %) or myself (48.6 %). The  
233 proportion obtained for those that separated their waste (0.0 %) in this study at the pre-

234 intervention is close to that observed in a previous study [32] where 4.4% of respondent  
235 separated their waste. The higher proportion noticed at post intervention (67.3 %) is a  
236 clear indication that community members have started to realize value in waste as a result  
237 of the intervention. It also showed the effect of their capacity building in converting  
238 waste to wealth as willingness to separate their wastes at source for recycling would  
239 depend on their ability to gain financially from such exercise. Only very few respondents  
240 (11.7 %) recycled their waste at pre-intervention against 63.6 % at post-intervention  
241 which is more than those that were practicing waste recycling in Lagos, Nigeria (37.8 %),  
242 in line with a finding by Tunmise [24].

243 **TABLE 4 HERE**

244 Waste disposal practices in the community are shown in Figure 6. Burning was more  
245 rampant at pre-intervention (35.0 %) while almost all respondents at post-intervention  
246 adopted private waste collectors (92.7 %). The proportion of respondents that dumped  
247 their waste indiscriminately at pre-intervention (30.0%) is lower than 66.3 % found by  
248 Nabegu [2]. Participants at the FGD sessions said that they disposed of waste through  
249 stream dumping and open burning. According to one of them, *'waste is also buried into*  
250 *pits, waste collectors have tried in the past and failed owing to our inability to pay their*  
251 *charges'*. The also said that it was very difficult to burn waste during rainy season and so,  
252 *'there is no challenge once there is rain fall which will carry the waste but once there is*  
253 *no more rain fall, the waste remains in the stream to create odour'* as put by another  
254 female discussant. However, there was sharp reduction in the proportion of respondents

255 that practiced inappropriate waste disposal at post-intervention: burning (35.0 % Vs 1.8  
256 %), open dumping (30.0 % Vs 5.5 %) and stream dumping (26.7 % Vs 0.0 %) at pre- and  
257 post-intervention, respectively. The reason for the improvement may be due to the impact  
258 of the intervention on the community people.

259 Almost all respondents (98.3 %) did not patronise private waste collector at pre-  
260 intervention as 55.9 % said that waste collectors had not come to meet them (while all  
261 (100 %) that patronised the private waste collectors rated their performances as being  
262 poor. At post-intervention, respondents' practices of waste disposal was shifted to private  
263 waste collectors (92.7 %) probably due to their increase in awareness of ill-effects  
264 associated with improper handling of waste and lack of recycling facilities. Reasons for  
265 choosing waste disposal method by the respondents were: convenience (46.7 % Vs 38.2  
266 %), being the cheapest method (15.0 % Vs 9.1 %), environmentally friendliness (18.3 %  
267 Vs 27.3 %) and only available means (20.0 % Vs 25.5 %) at the pre- and post-  
268 intervention respectively. Plastics (57.1 % Vs 42.9%) and paper (42.9 % Vs 17.1 % )  
269 were major components of waste removed for recycling or reuse at pre- and post-  
270 intervention respectively (Figure 7). There was reduction in the quantities of plastics and  
271 paper removed for recycling at post-intervention due to the fact that the respondents have  
272 realised values in other waste components and started to focus on other components that  
273 can earn them more financially such as aluminium cans. That is, apart from plastic and  
274 paper components, respondents recycled and reused other components such as food and  
275 yard waste, metal, rubber and leather due to the new knowledge and skills acquired  
276 during the training intervention.

277 **FIGURE 6 HERE**

278 **FIGURE 7 HERE**

279 In terms of respondents' willingness of participating in waste recycling programmes in  
280 the community, all the respondents at post-intervention (55, 100.0) were ready to  
281 participate. The reasons for participation included: environmental protection (43.6 %),  
282 financial benefits (38.2 %) and personal interest (18.2 %). In addition, when the  
283 respondents were asked about their suggestions for promoting waste segregation and  
284 recycling activities in the community, the responses were: community people should be  
285 educated about waste recycling (40.0 %), community members should be encouraged  
286 financially (23.3 %), refuse bins should be given to members to segregate the waste for  
287 recycling and resource recovery (7, 11.7%), among others. Similarly, 63.6 % of the  
288 respondents at post-intervention said that they needed more training or seminar on waste  
289 segregation and recycling to sustain the waste recycling enterprises in the community.  
290 Participants at the FGD session also suggested more sensitisation and proper follow up of  
291 proper waste management activity in the community as well as provision of facilities to  
292 recycle their waste.

293 There was no correlation between monthly income and respondents' attitude score with  
294 all the variable on waste management practices such as: how often did they dispose their  
295 waste, where did they store their waste before disposal, which method of waste disposal  
296 did they adopt and so on. Meanwhile, there were positive correlations between

297 respondents knowledge score and respondents attitude score ( $p= 0.026$ ) and whether the  
298 respondents remove part of their waste components ( $p=0. 027$ ). No correlations also  
299 existed between the monthly income, number of households in a house, number of people  
300 in each household and the quantity of waste generated. At post-intervention, positive  
301 correlations were found between respondents' monthly income and patronisation of  
302 private waste collectors in the community ( $p= 0.024$ ); waste component removal for  
303 reuse as well as waste separation before disposal (Table 5). The respondents could  
304 patronized private waste collector at post intervention as they sold part of their waste to  
305 complement their monthly income. At the end of the follow-up, logistic regression model  
306 revealed that respondents with good knowledge were three times more likely to be  
307 willing to participate in waste recycling business ( $OR=3.4$ ;  $C.I=2.0-6.7$ ); five times more  
308 likely ready to segregate their waste at source ( $OR= 5.7$ ;  $C.I= 1.6-9.8$ ): six time more  
309 likely to remove part of your waste component for reuse and recycling ( $OR= 6.7$ ;  $C.I=$   
310  $1.2-9.1$ ) than the respondents with poor knowledge. This is in agreement with findings of  
311 a study [33] which revealed that respondents with higher level of education possessed  
312 good knowledge of the impact of improper waste management on health than those with  
313 lower level of education. The result is however not in consonance with finding of  
314 Tunmise [24] who showed that educational levels of respondents had no significant effect  
315 on willingness to recycle their waste.

316 **TABLE 5 HERE**

### 317 **3.2 Waste characterisation into different components**



318 Figure 8 shows results of physical characterisation of waste in the community. Nylon  
319 accounted for 32.6 % of the total waste characterised. Organic contents in the form of  
320 food and yard waste accounted for 19.7 % while glass bottle and textiles were found in  
321 very small proportions. These results is not in agreement with the finding of Sha'Ato *et*  
322 *al.* [34] who assessed solid waste composition in a rapidly growing urban area in central  
323 Nigeria and observed more organic content (57.5 %) than the plastic content (6.10 %).  
324 The assessment revealed 675.77 kg for a total of waste generated per day in the  
325 community and a waste generation rate of 24.67 kg/cap/yr (or 0.068 kg/cap/day). The  
326 0.068 kg/cap/day is lower than 1.2 kg/capita/day generated by world cities with about 1.3  
327 billion tons of solid waste per year and an average of 1.1 kg/capita/day generated by the  
328 Middle East and North Africa region's urban population with 63 million tons of MSW  
329 annually as reported by the World Bank [35]. It was also lower than 0.5–1.0 kg reported  
330 for inhabitants of Kano, Nigeria, metropolitan area [7] and 0.5- 0.9 kg/cap/day calculated  
331 for middle income earner and 0.4- 0.6 kg/cap/day for low income earner in Ilorin city,  
332 Nigeria [17]. The very low waste generation rate may not necessarily be an indication  
333 that inhabitants of the study area were majorly low in-come earners, but that majority of  
334 residents did not stay at home during the day due to various business activities. This  
335 explains why many of the respondents could only be met at home very early in the  
336 morning for the questionnaire administration.

337

338 **FIGURE 8 HERE**

339 **3.3 Greenhouse emission potential of waste management practices in the**  
340 **community**

341 The GHG emission balance comparison for different waste management options in the  
342 community are shown in Figures 9- 17. These include: the quantity of waste removed for  
343 recycling or reuse and waste disposal activities, GHG emission balance for waste  
344 management activities and the waste mass flows, and the GHG emissions for recycling  
345 activities at pre- and post-intervention situations (Figure 9-14). The figures show the  
346 results separately for recycling and for disposal activities and also as the sum of both  
347 components "Total MSW" (Figures 10 and 13). The first bars in these figures indicate the  
348 GHG emissions caused by recycling (Debits as positive values). The second bars  
349 represent the emission savings by recycling (Credits as negative values). The third bars  
350 show the net effects, that is the differences between debits and credits (Net). Figures 15-  
351 17 depict all four situations assessed when taking pre-and post-intervention situations in  
352 comparison with other alternative scenarios (scenario 1 and 2). The first four bars show  
353 the debits from recycling in the four situations and the second four bars the credits from  
354 recycling in the four situations. The next section shows the same for disposal of waste. In  
355 the final section, debits, credits and net results are shown for the total MSW treatment in  
356 each case for the four situations.

357 Generally, it can be seen that more GHS emissions are saved in order of pre-intervention  
358 to the more advanced scenario 2. In similar studies [8, 36], it was concluded that a  
359 “recycling society” still needs thermo-chemical treatments of waste, which would  
360 provide a sustainable recovery of energy and materials as an added advantage to waste

361 management. As open burning is prominent in the pre-intervention, other situations are  
362 characterised by controlled sanitary landfill. Results of a study conducted by Mahdi et al.  
363 [28] showed that improving the current SWM with 72% of sanitary landfills with energy  
364 recovery and 28% of dry recyclable materials was the best scenario in terms of  
365 environmental impacts and economic cost. From Figure 17, the debits incurred in the  
366 post-intervention situation is more than that of pre-intervention. The resident has stopped  
367 dumping organic waste in the stream again but rather kept it for the private waste  
368 collector. Anaerobic decomposition of the organic waste into methane during the storage  
369 might have accounted for the higher debits. However, it is good to note that the far higher  
370 credits in the post-intervention placed it in vantage position comparing to the pre-  
371 intervention situation. Also in her study, Kofoworola [20] observed that material  
372 recycling and energy recovery had reductions in GHG emissions of between 22.0 – 67.0  
373 %.

374 **FIGURE 9 HERE**

375 **FIGURE 10 HERE**

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381 **FIGURE 16 HERE**

382 **FIGURE 17 HERE**

383 **Conclusion**

384 The training intervention including waste management sensitisation workshop and  
385 capacity building on energy and resource recovery from waste has significantly improved  
386 knowledge, attitude and practices of waste management in the community. Community  
387 members have started to separate their waste at source for recycling, reuse and sale at the  
388 community buy-back centre, realising values in waste and ability to gain financially from  
389 its recycling. Knowledge is a predictor of community willingness to segregate their waste  
390 at source and participate in waste recycling business. The community people are now  
391 willing to participate in waste recycling programmes in the community so as to avoid  
392 open burning, stream dumping and other waste management practices that can aggravate  
393 climate change effects. Also, inhabitants are low in-come earners that need community  
394 development programmes such as entrepreneurship in waste recycling for their good  
395 livelihood and well-being. Women were at the forefront of managing waste at household  
396 level as they were more responsible for waste disposal than any other member of the  
397 family. The adoption of waste recovery, reduction reuse and recycling strategy has a  
398 great potential in saving greenhouse gas emissions in the community. Continuing  
399 education and training on energy and resource recovery from waste is therefore  
400 recommended, especially for men, to maintain and sustain proper waste management  
401 practices in the community.

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