**Urban Households Solid Waste Generated and Characteristics:**

**The case of Shah Alam City Hall, Selangor.**

Nor Eeda Haji Ali1, Norainah Abdul Rahman2, Halmi Zainol3, Kamariah Abdullah4, Alia Abdullah Saleh5

*Faculty of Architecture, Planning and Surveying, Universiti Teknologi MARA,*

*Perak Branch, Seri Iskandar Campus, Perak, Malaysia.*

*(noree038@uitm.edu.my)*

***ABSTRACT***

The world's population growth, increasing urbanization and rising standards of living are some of the factors influencing waste generation in Malaysia. A self-administered questionnaire was used to collect primary data of the randomly selected 100 households. These households were provided with five (5) polythene bags to separate their daily wastes during the period of fourteen (14) days. The researcher visits each household in the evening to collect the polythene bags. A sample size, adequate to estimate the value with adequate precision was calculated from three residential neighbourhoods (low, medium and high cost). The rate of waste generated from recyclable items are 45.51% (1,201.61 kg), followed by food wastes with 33.98% (897.18 kg) and non-recyclable items with 20.51% (541.54 kg). Therefore, the aim of this paper is to understand the waste generation and waste composition in relation to the willingness of the households and the objective are (i) to establish the nature of the waste generation and composition per/day; and (ii) to identify the current stakeholders involved in a recycling material. The results clearly show that 96% of respondents are willing to participate in any program for waste minimisation. This also indirectly indicates the lifestyle of the household.

***Keywords:***Solid Waste Generated, Solid Waste Composition, Socioeconomic, Households.

**1.0 INTRODUCTION**

Wastes are rejected or undesirable materials arising from human and animal activities. Waste can be categorized as solid and liquid wastes. Solid waste is any solid garbage that can be classified in terms of organic, inorganic wastes, special wastes and hazardous wastes. On the other hand, liquid waste is any unused water (UNICEF, 2006). Wastes generation are the amount/weight/volume of materials or products that enter a waste stream before recycling, composting, incinerating and landfilling. Waste generation is associated with our day-to-day activities because of rapid population growth, increasing urbanisation, fast development of infrastructure, changing lifestyle and economic conditions. Solid waste management of these waste generated is a main problem for the concerned authorities all over the world.

Solid waste minimisation is one way or effort to reduce waste generation. Each country tries to minimise the amount of waste going to the landfill due to environmental, health, financial, and lack of available land issues. Most developed countries have succeeded in applying this method, while many developing countries are moving towards it. Waste minimisation is the process of reducing the amount of waste produced by humans (person or a society) and animals. The waste minimisation hierarchy is fundamental to any waste minimisation methodology. Solid Waste Management (SWM) is a serious problem or challenge to local government authorities in many countries. The total quantity of municipal solid waste generated in Malaysia will increase from 12.8 million tonnes of waste per year in 2015 to 15.6 million tonnes in year 2020, (Harian Metro, 2016). Currently, generation of solid waste per capita in Malaysia is about 1.1 kg/day, (Kamaruddin, M. A., 2017). Therefore, this study attempts to identify the waste generation and wastes composition of household level in Shah Alam City Hall, Selangor. This study provides new insights on the role of various socioeconomic parameters on waste generation and composition to improve the solid waste systems.

**2.0 SOLID WASTE GENERATED & COMPOSITION**

Solid waste is the term used to refer to materials that have been rejected and need to be removed; this is an unavoidable daily routine. However, solid waste management is a major issue in the world, and the need to increase solid waste minimisation has become a challenge to both governments and local authorities. Municipal solid waste (MSW) is usually considered to include all solid wastes generated by the households with the exclusion of agricultural and industrial wastes (Tchobanoglous et al., 1993). MSW, also known as urban solid waste, refers to waste that comprises primarily waste from residential or domestic sources (EPA, 2002) with the addition of commercial wastes, construction and demolition debris, and waste from streets collected by a municipality (see Table 2.1). The most basic features to be noted in SWM studies are the solid waste generated, the sources of wastes, and the SWM systems. If the SWM fails to be implemented, especially in SWM systems and solid waste minimisation, therefore, it will be more difficult to achieve a good quality of environment and health. The sources of MSW are as follows:-

**Table 2.1:** Sources of Solid Waste Generation

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **No** | **Sources of Waste** | **Typical Waste Generators** | **Types of Solid Waste** |
| 1. | Domestic sources  a. Residential/  Household  b. Commercial | Single and multi-family homes, apartments, bungalow, terrace, semi-detached, cluster house, etc.  Shop house, shop office, hotels, restaurants, shopping complex, office buildings, stores, markets, private schools. | Organic wastes, organic wastes, special wastes and hazardous wastes. |
| 2. | Institutional | Universities, schools, prisons, government centres, hospitals, etc. | Organic waste, special waste and hazardous waste. |
| 3. | Municipal | Landscaping, open spaces, playgrounds, alleys, street cleaning, beaches, parks, water and wastewater treatment plant sites, roadside litter, vacant lots, treatment plant sites, other recreational areas, etc. | Street cleaning, garden waste (landscape and tree trimmings), general waste from parks, beaches and other recreational areas. |
| 4. | Agricultural | Farms, orchards, field and row crops, feedlots, vineyards, dairies, etc. | Organic waste (spoil food wastes), garden waste (agricultural waste), hazardous waste (pesticides) |
| 5. | Construction &  Demolition | Renovation sites, broken pavements, new construction sites, demolition of buildings, road repair, etc. | Organic waste (wood), special waste (metal and inert material). |
| 6. | Industrial | Construction sites, refineries, manufacturing, fabrication, mineral extraction and processing, power and chemical plants. | Industrial process wastes, scrap materials, off-specification products, slay tailings. |

*Source:* Compiled from Kreith and Tchobanoglous (2002), Soncuya and Viloria (1992), Pichtel (2005), EASUR (1999).

Focus of this study is primarily on household wastes that are generated in residential areas within multi-family and single-family houses. Household waste is generally defined as the waste generated from household activities (Dahlen and Lagerkvist, 2010), and it includes four types: kitchen waste, garden waste, bulky waste, and hazardous waste (Christensen, 2011). However, F. Kreith & G.Tchobanoglous, (2002); Soncuya & Viloria, (1992); K. Sasikumar & S. G. Krishna, (2009); J. Pichtel, (2005) stated that household wastes also can be categorized into organic wastes, inorganic wastes, special wastes and hazardous wastes.

In the municipal solid waste stream, paper and paperboard are the largest component after organic and food wastes. The rest of the components are plastic, glass, rubber, aluminium, metals and others. The details of the waste characteristics at residential area are given in Table 2.2.

**Table 2.2**: Characteristics of Wastes at Housing Area in Municipal Solid Waste Stream

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **No** | **Types of Waste** | **Wastes Component** |
| **a)** | **Organic wastes** | |
| i. | Composting/Biodegradable waste | |
| 1 | Food | Vegetables and fruit discards and peeling, egg shells, spoiled food and bread, meat and fish bones, etc. |
| ii. | Recyclable/non-biodegradable waste | |
| 1 | Paper | Newspapers, books, comics, magazines, office papers directories, wrapping paper, paper bags, paper towels, writing paper, cigarette packages, paper plates and cups and other non-packaging paper. |
| 2 | Plastic | Trash bags, plastic plates and cups, toys, wraps, sacks, other plastic packaging, bottle etc. |
| 3 | Rubber and leather | Rubber tyres, leather shoes, handbags, carpets etc. |
| 4 | Textiles | Clothes, rags, carpets, hats, other fabrics |
| 5 | Wood | Lumber, plywood boxes, furniture and cabinets, toys, tree branches, coal, coke, etc. |
| 6 | Yard wastes | Grass clippings, flowers, plants, leaves, tree and brush trimmings, etc. |
| iii. | Non-Recyclable/residual waste | |
| 1 | Plastic | Sanitary napkins, disposable diapers. |
| **b)** | **Inorganic wastes** | |
| i. | Recyclable/non-biodegradable waste | |
| 1 | Glass | Bottles, jars, broken glass, beer and soft drinks, food products etc. |
| 2 | Aluminium cans | Soft drink cans, food and other aluminium cans. |
| 3 | Bulky wastes | Furniture, refrigerators, stoves (can use any part of it),etc. |
| **c)** | **Special wastes** | |
| 1 | Petroleum products | Oil, grease, etc |
| 2 | Metals | Wire, auto parts, iron, steel, etc |
| 3 | Inert material | Rocks, stones, ceramics, bricks, sand, dirt, ashes, cinder. |
| **d)** | **Hazardous wastes** | |
| 1 | Hazardous wastes | Batteries, chemicals, pesticides, paints, thinners, spray canisters, tires, worn-out/broken radios, stereos, and TV, etc. |

*Source :* F. Kreith & G. Tchobanoglous, (2002); Soncuya & Viloria, (1992); K. Sasikumar & S. G. Krishna, (2009); J. Pichtel, (2005).

The quantity of waste generated in Selangor has been increasing every year because of the increase in the population and urban urbanisation. Table 2.3 shows that Selangor generated the highest amount of solid waste. According to MHLG (2010), Selangor state showed the greatest increase as the quantity of municipal solid waste increased from 2,827 tons per day in 2000 up to 3,904 tons per day in 2009.

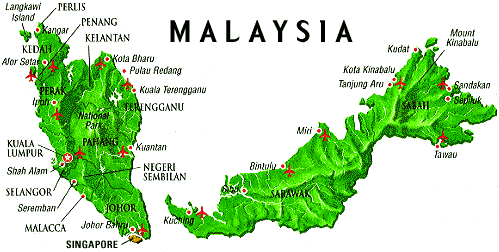
**Table 2.3:** Solid Waste Generation in Peninsular Malaysia

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **States** | **Solid waste generated (tons/ day)** | | | | | |
| **2000** | **2002** | **2004** | **2006** | **2008** | **2009** |
| Johor | 1,915 | 2,093 | 2,255 | 2,430 | 2,578 | 2,655 |
| Kedah | 1,324 | 1,447 | 1,559 | 1,680 | 1,782 | 1,835 |
| Kelantan | 1,034 | 1,131 | 1,213 | 1,302 | 1,382 | 1,423 |
| Melaka | 515 | 563 | 605 | 650 | 690 | 711 |
| N. Sembilan | 757 | 828 | 890 | 957 | 1,015 | 1,046 |
| Pahang | 957 | 1,046 | 1,125 | 1,210 | 1,284 | 1,322 |
| Perak | 1,527 | 1,669 | 1,795 | 1,930 | 2,048 | 2,109 |
| Perlis | 196 | 214 | 230 | 247 | 262 | 270 |
| Pulau Pinang | 1,088 | 1,189 | 1,278 | 1,375 | 1,458 | 1,502 |
| **Selangor** | **2,827** | **3,090** | **3,322** | **3,573** | **3,790** | **3,904** |
| Terengganu | 883 | 965 | 1,038 | 1,116 | 1184 | 1,219 |
| Kuala Lumpur | 2,520 | 2,755 | 3,025 | 3322 | 3,525 | 3,631 |
| Malaysia | 15,587 | 21,452 | 23,073 | 24,969 | 26,489 | 27,284 |

*Source:* Compiled from Ministry of Housing and Local Government (2010); Agamuthu and Hamid (2011); Johari et al. (2014).

Thus, Selangor generated the highest amount of solid waste among of all states in Malaysia, and Shah Alam City is an urban area and is actively developing. Sections 1 – 14 are the Central Zone in Shah Alam and represent a residential area within the city. These areas have various facilities and a variety of housing types (low, medium, high cost) and so were considered a suitable area for study to achieve the objectives of the research. Therefore, study of the solid waste generation and solid waste composition is necessary to give policy makers and every sector involved in environmental management a better view of the state in Shah Alam, Malaysian.

**3.0 METHODOLOGY**

Shah Alam City is the capital state of Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia. Shah Alam City becomes the fastest growing district in Selangor. The city is the seventh city of Malaysia that has been inaugurated in 2000. Shah Alam is also the nearest city to Kuala Lumpur city. 100 households were chosen to participate in the household waste generation and composition analysis. These households were provided with five (5) polythene bags to separate their daily wastes during the period of fourteen (14) days. The researcher visits each household in the evening to collect the polythene bags. A token gift was given to all respondents to encourage household participation. A sample size, adequate to estimate the value with adequate precision was calculated from three residential neighbourhoods (low, medium and high cost). In each of the neighbourhoods, around 33 to 34 households were surveyed.

The respondent for the survey were selected by probability sampling method (Wayne, 1978) assuming 50 percent probability of community awareness and participation with 95 percent confidence interval and a margin error of 5 percent. Daily measurement of waste generated per household was recorded in a form. Mode of solid waste disposal at the household level is primarily discussed among the variables. Although the study covered solid waste generation and composition, focusing on households. The limitation of this study is covering the small sample size and one-time sampling of households may provide an inaccurate average value on waste generation and composition for Shah Alam City Hall, Selangor. The data on waste quantities were analysed using Microsoft Spreadsheet EXCEL to determine trends, averages, median values, and overall quantities for the households. Due to the small nature of the sample set, no extensive statistical analyses were undertaken.

**4.0 RESULTS & DISCUSSIONS**

All the respondents were adults with mean age of 49.8 years and male to female ratio of was 0.86 :1.14. In all, 7 which indicates more availability of man in and around their houses. Most (96 percent) of the respondents were either married, single father and mother with an average family size of about 4.00 percent. Among the respondents, 60 and 20 percent were Malay followers, respectively, while 20 percent were Chinese and Indian. Respondents were categorized as professional, semi-professional, labourer, self-employment, housewife and not working with the proportion of 35, 36, 1, 12, 4 and 12 percent, respectively. Majority of the respondents (41 percent) reported their monthly income up to RM 5,000.

**Table 4.1:** Socio-Demographic Information of Respondents

**Socio-demographic Characteristics Number Percentage**

**Gender (*n* = 100)**

Male 57 57.00

Female 43 43.00

**Age (*n* = 100)**

35 - 44 years old 21 21.00

45 - 54 years old 60 60.00

> 55 years old 19 19.00

**Race (*n* = 100)**

Malay 60 60.00

Chinese 20 20.00

Indian 20 20.00

**Marriage Status (*n* = 100)**

Married 96 96.00

Single Mother or Father 4 4.00

**Occupation (*n* = 100)**

Professional 35 35.00

Semi-Professional 36 36.00

Labourer 1 1.00

Self-Employed 12 12.00

Housewife 4 4.00

Not Working 12 12.00

**Household Total Income (*n* = 100)**

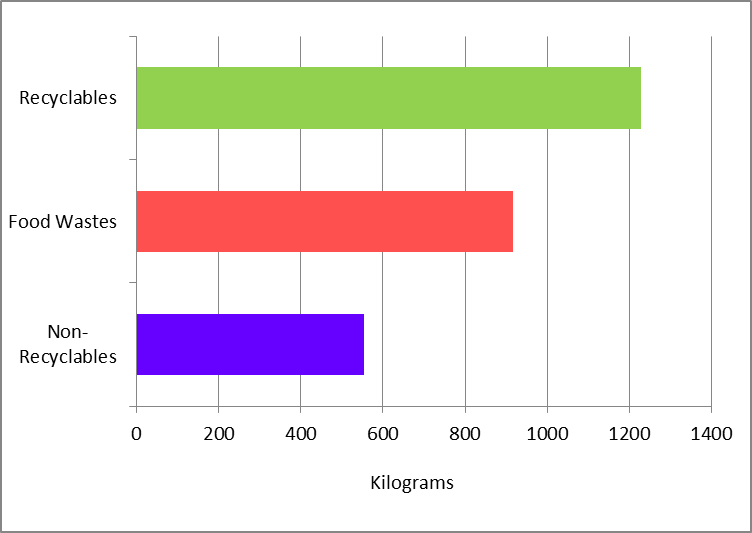
RM 999 or less 12 12.00

RM 1,000 - RM 2,499 20 20.00

RM 2,500 - RM 4,999 27 27.00

RM 5,000 and above 41 41.00

The wastes generation rate was found in the present study which may be due to the lifestyle, economic status and habits of respondents and the development of the area. Waste generation further depends upon population density, economic development, proportion of urban population and consumption pattern (Vesilind et al., 2002). According to the Town Planning Department (MBSA) 2013 report, the estimated population of Shah Alam is 866,832 people. The waste generation rate in this city shows about 1.89 kg per household or 0.43 kg per capita per day respectively. In other words, about 372,737.76 kg of solid wastes are generated daily within the entire Shah Alam City region. The wastes are classified into three groups; recyclable materials 45.51% (1,201.61 kg), food wastes 33.98% (897.18 kg) and non-recyclable materials 20.51% (541.54 kg). Figure 4.1 shows the separation activity will increase solid waste minimisation because 80 percent of the waste materials can be recycled and composted. The government must take the initiative to increase solid waste minimisation in order to decrease the disposal site.  The product designs that enable reusing, repairing or re-manufacturing will result in fewer products entering the waste stream.

****

**45.51%**

1,201.61 kg

**33.98%**

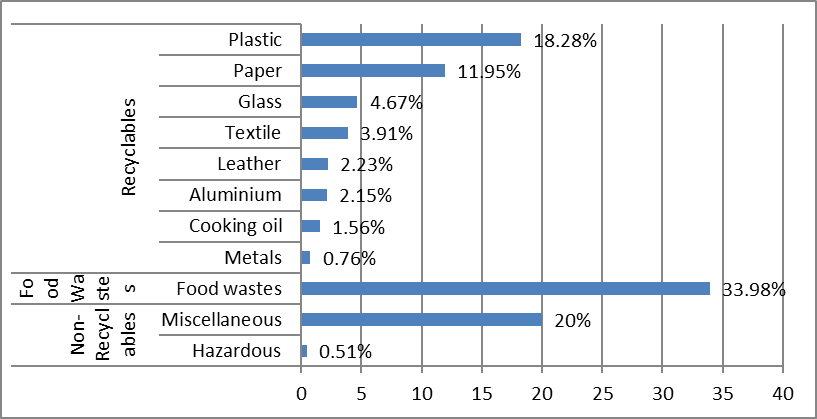
897.18kg

**20.51%**

541.54 kg

**Figure 4.1:** Solid Waste Generation

For the waste composition, the results in Figure 4.2 show that plastic (18.28%) is the main constituent among recyclable items, followed by paper (11.95%), glass (4.67%), textiles (3.91%), leather (2.23%), aluminum (2.15%), cooking oil (1.56%), and metal (0.76%). Non-recyclable or hazardous items constitute less than 0.51% while miscellaneous wastes accounted for about 20%. In this study, food wastes constitute about 33.98% of the total waste generated per household. According to Tchobanoglous *et al.,* (1993) large portion of solid wastes in developing countries is food waste. Likewise, wastes from urban areas in developing countries have a much higher percentage of food waste in their overall refuse mix (Neuman, K., 1982). In contrast, study area showed only 33.98% of generated food wastes and highly significant percentage of generated recyclables materials (45.51%) compared to the previous studies. The results of the waste composition are shown in Figure 4.2.



**Food wastes**

**Non-recyclables**

**wastes**

**Figure 4.2:** Percentage of Solid Waste Compositions

Whether the households deliver wastes to “drop-off” centers (recycling bins) or receive deposit money when bottles and cans are returned to junkshops or itinerant waste buyers, chances are that the households have already begun recycling. Instead, they separate plastics, aluminum and other metals, papers, glasses, and even appliances. They take these materials to recovery facilities to begin the recycling process. There is a direct link between increased recycling and the creation of jobs in the local economy. Table 4.2 shows the categories of recyclable materials of eleven materials namely plastic, paper, glass, metals, leather, rubber, textile, aluminum, cooking oil, computer parts and car battery. However, not all of the recyclable materials will be collected by stakeholders as leather and rubber. Paper (100%), aluminum (86%), metals (71%), and plastic (57%) are in high demand from recycling stakeholders than the others. When being asked for the reasons, several junk shops and itinerant waste buyers stated that;

*"These materials (textiles, leather and rubber) do not have any economic value because the recycling plants do not demand for such materials."*

All stakeholders must take part in the creation of the complementary system. The household is the major roles in decision-making and waste management system, since the attainment of solid waste minimization is dependent on them.

**Table 4.2:** Recycling Materials Participation by Stakeholders

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Waste**  **Buyers/**  **Stakeholders** | **Recyclable materials** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Plastic** | **Paper** | **Glass** | **Metals** | **Leather** | **Rubber** | **Textile** | **Aluminum** | **Cooking Oil** | **Computer Parts** | **Car Battery** |
| Waste pickers |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Welfare  Organizations |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Dump pickers |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Recycling bins |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Junkshops |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Itinerant waste buyers |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Waste collectors |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NGO's |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| ***Total take part by waste buyers*** | ***57%*** | ***100%*** | ***43%*** | ***71%*** | ***-*** | ***-*** | ***29%*** | ***86%*** | ***29%*** | ***29%*** | ***29%*** |

**None of the stakeholders are taking part**

**Only a small number of stakeholders commit on collection**

Generally, most respondents showed concern about solid waste generation issues, and all respondents (100%) were concerned about the environmental related issues such as improper waste storage and disposal of waste. Results clearly show that 96% of respondents are willing to participate in any programs which aimed at reducing, recycling, or composting of domestic garbage’s. The respondents’ view on the actions taken by local authority with respect to waste minimisation was sought during the field survey. Results show that about 36% of the respondents agreed that the local authority has been creating awareness on waste minimisation in the neighbourhood, while 26% stated otherwise, and 38% do not know.

Another aspect of the respondents’ view on local authority's involvement in waste minimisation is the provision of facilities. Half of the respondents (57%) stated that the facilities provided by the local authority for waste minimisation in their neighbourhood are adequate, while 43% said the facilities are inadequate. When being further asked about the lacking of facilities in their neighbourhood, they mentioned that the recycle bins in their neighbourhood have damaged and have not yet been replaced. They also want a collection schedule and the strategically located collection points in the neighbourhood so that people will have good access to the waste bins.

There are few suggestions from respondents regarding ways to manage the waste. These include more enlightenment campaigns by the local authority on waste minimisation (30%), more recycling bins provision (18%), proper waste collection schedule (13%), and advocating the need for organic and inorganic wastes separation before their final disposal (12%). Other suggestions made by the respondents include: cooperation of various stakeholders involved in waste management, enforcement by government and taking cue from other countries that have been successfully implemented waste minimisation activity.

**5.0 CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATION**

Based on the solid waste’s generation and characterisation in site area, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Compared to household, the waste generation rate among households is quite high, 1.89 kg per household or 0.43 kg per capita per day respectively;
2. Major component of the waste stream from the households are organics, 33.98% (897.18 kg) which can be used as source of compost to fertilize the landscape in study area; and
3. Shah Alam City Hall waste stream consists of many recyclables 45.51% (1,201.61 kg), which can either be sold to any stakeholders for additional income.

This study has been able to provide an idea about urban solid waste minimisation in Shah Alam City Hall, Selangor. People in Shah Alam area would like to cooperate and participate in a proper waste management system. Therefore, their involvement in the development and implementation of waste management system should be encouraged by local authority. Also, it was found that further commitment of the government is required in implementing more proper facilities and sensitisation of the public in the area. Furthermore, it will be very effective if the private sector collaborates with the government to identify ways of achieving a sustainable waste minimisation strategy. This could be done by injecting new ideas into the whole process of waste management, starting from the phase of collection, separation, recycling up to final disposal.

**REFERENCES**

Agamuthu, P. and Hamid, F.S. (2011). *Challenges and Issues in Moving towards Sustainable Landfilling in a Transitory Country-Malaysia*, Journal of Waste Management and Resources, 29(1), 13-19.

Aretha Aprilia, Tetsuo Tezuka & Gert Spaargaren, (2011), *Municipal Solid Waste Management with Citizen Participation in Jakarta*, Indonesia, Springer 2011.

Benjamin Bolaane, (2005), *Constraints to promoting people centred approaches in recycling*, 30 (2006) 731–740.

Christensen, T.H. (2011). *Solid Waste Technology and Management*, United Kingdom: West Sussex: A. John Wiley and Sons.

Dahlen, L. and Lagerkvist, A. (2010). *Pay as you throw Strengths and Weaknesses of Weight-Based Billing in Household Waste Collection Systems in Sweden*, Journal of Waste Management, 30, 23-31.

EASUR (Urban Development Sector Unit East Asia and Pacific Region) (1999). *What a Waste: Solid Waste Management in Asia and Pacific Region*. United States of America: World Bank.

EPA (Environmental Protection Agency). (2002). *National Emissions Inventory Data & Documentation, Technology Transfer Network Clearing House for Inventories & Emissions Factors*. United States: Environmental Protection Agency.

Ezeah, C., and Roberts, C. L. (2012). *Analysis of Barriers and Success Factors Affecting the Adoption of Sustainable Management of Municipal Solid Waste in Nigeria.* Journal of Environmental Management, 103, 9-14.

Ezeah, C., Roberts, C. L., Watkin, G. D, Philips, P. S., and Odunfa, A. (2009). *Analysis of Barriers Affecting the Adoption on a Sustainable Municipal Solid Waste Management System in Nigeria*. In the Proceedings of the 24th International Conference on Solid Waste Technology and Management, March 12-15, 2009. Widener University, Philadelphia, USA.

Frank Kreith and George Tchobanoglous. (2002). *Handbook of Solid Waste Management*. Handbook of Solid Waste Management, McGraw Hill.

Harian Metro. 2016. 7986.47 Tan Sehari. http://www.pressreader.com. Accessed On 19 November 2017.

Johari, A., Alkali, H., Hashim, H., Ahmed, S. and Mat, R. (2014). *Municipal Solid Waste Management and Potential Revenue from Recycling in Malaysia.* Journal of Modern Applied Science, 8(4), 29-36.

John Pichtel. (2005). *Waste Management Practices, Municipal, Hazardous and Industrial,* Taylor and Francis, CRC Press.

Majlis Bandaraya Shah Alam (MBSA), (2013) *Laporan Tahunan 2013*. MBSA.

Matthew Franchetti. (2009). *The Solid Waste analysis and minimization research project-a collaborative economic stimulus and environmental protection initiative in northwest Ohio, USA*, Journal of Solid Waste Technology and Management, 35, 121-132.

MHLG (Ministry of Housing and Local Government) (2010). *Strategic Solid Waste Management: The Malaysian Approach. Malaysia:* National Solid Waste Management Department.

Neuman, K. (1982). *Personal Values and Commitment to Energy Conservation*, Journal of Environment and Behaviour, 18, 53-74.

Kamaruddin, M. A., Yusoff, M. S., Rui, L. M., Isa, A. M., Zawawi, M. H., & Alrozi, R. (2017). *An overview of municipal solid waste management and landfill leachate treatment: Malaysia and Asian perspectives.* Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 24(35), 26988-27020. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-017-0303-9

K. Sasikumar, Sanoop Gopi Krishna. (2009). *Solid Waste Management,* PHI Learning Private Limited.

Pretz, T., Nikou, N., and Kontos, C. (2001). *The effects of the European Directives 94/62 and 99/31 to the waste management sector in Greece.* Proceedings of Environmental Science and Technology (CEST), 5-7 September, 2011, Athens, Greece.

Price, J. L., and Joseph, J. B. (2000*). Demand Management - A Basis for Waste Policy: A Critical Review of the Applicability of the Waste Hierarchy in Terms of Achieving Sustainable Waste Management*. Journal of Sustainable Development, 8(2), 96–105.

Qu, X., Li, Z., Xie, X., Sui, Y., Yang, L., and Chen, Y. (2009). *Survey of Composition and Generation Rate of Household Wastes in Beijing, China.* Journal of Waste Management, 29, 2618-2624.

Schall, J. (1992). *Does the Solid Waste Management Hierarchy, Make Sense? A Technical, Economic and Environmental Justification for the Priority of Source Reduction and Recycling*, Solid Waste Management Project Working Paper, School of Forestry and Environmental Studies.

Soncuya, F., and Viloria, V. (1992), In K. Sasikumar, Sanoop Gopi Krishna, (2009), *Solid Waste Management*, PHI Learning Private Limited.

Tchobanoglous, G., Theisen, H. and Vigil, S. A. (1993). *Integrated Solid Waste Management: Engineering Principles and Management Issues*. 2nd Edn., McGraw-Hill International: New York, USA.

Thogersen, J. (1994*). A Model of Recycling Behavior, with Evidence form Danish Source Separation Programs*. Journal of Research in Marketing, 11, 145 -163.

Troschinetz, A. M., and Mihelcic, J. R. (2009). *Sustainable Recycling of Municipal Solid Waste in Developing Countries*. Journal of Waste Management, 29(2), 915-923.

UNICEF (United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund). (2006). *Solid and Liquid Waste Management in Rural Areas.* A Technical Note.

Van, K. A., and Anschutz, J. (2001), *Integrated Sustainable Waste Management - The Concept. Tools for Decision-makers.* Retrieved on January 06, 2013, from:http://www.eawag.ch.

Vesilind, P. A., Worrell, W. A., and Reinhart, D. R. (2002). *Solid Waste Engineering*, Brooks/Cole-Thomson Learning, Pacific Grove, CA.

Wahid, M., and Chamhuri, S. (2007). *Waste Management and Recycling Practices of The Urban Poor: a case study in Kuala Lumpur city, Malaysia*, Journal of Waste Management and Research, 25. 45-53.

Wayne A. Fuller, (1978), *Sampling Statistic*, A John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Publication, Iowa State University.

Wilson, D. C. (2007). *Development Drivers for Solid Waste Management.* Journal of Waste Management and Research, 25(3), 155-164.

Yiing, C. M., and L. Abd Manaf, (2014). *Overview of Household Solid Waste Recycling Policy Status and Challenges in Malaysia,* Journal of Resources, Conservation and Recycling, 82, 50-61.

Yong, R. (2000). *Japanese Approaches to Environmental Management: Structural and Institutional Features*, Journal of International Review for Environmental Strategies, 1(1), 79-96.

Zurbrugg, C., Gfrerer, M., Ashadi, H., Brenner, W., and Kuper, D. (2011). *Determinants of sustainability in solid waste management - The Gianyar Waste Recovery Project in Indonesia*, Journal of Waste Management, 32, 2126-2133.