

# Solid Waste Management: From Generation to Disposal

Manpreet Kaur Chahal and Gurpreet Singh

Bhai Gurdas Degree College, Sangrur, Punjab, India

\*Corresponding Author: 1410kaurmanpreet@gmail.com

## Abstract

Solid waste management involves the complete process of handling waste, from its generation to disposal. This includes storage, collection, transportation, treatment, and final disposal of unwanted materials resulting from everyday activities and civic events. A country's economic growth, influenced by factors like industrial development and available resources, significantly impacts its waste management strategies. Developed nations typically have more advanced technologies and resources for effective waste management compared to developing countries. However, the terms "developed" and "industrialized" are often used interchangeably, which may overlook regional disparities within countries. Solid waste management practices can differ widely within a nation; for instance, urban areas often have more sophisticated systems than rural regions. The challenges of managing solid waste are not confined to developing nations; they also affect transitioning and advanced economies. As population growth and resource consumption rise, concerns about surpassing the planet's capacity to support human activities become increasingly critical. This highlights the necessity for sustainable waste management practices and the integration of technology across various sectors. Overall, the importance of adopting effective strategies for solid waste management is crucial for promoting environmental sustainability and addressing the challenges posed by increasing waste generation.

Keywords: Industrialization, Prosperity, Recession, Solid garbage, Waste management, landfill and Environment.

#### **Introduction**

In today's world, protecting human civilization from the adverse effects of manmade waste is a pressing issue. Waste is primarily composed of the remnants of raw materials that become unwanted after their initial use. Among various types, solid waste is generated through a range of human activities, influenced by factors such as population density, education level, and income [1]. Studies by Giusti and Guerrero [2&3] indicate that in India, rapid population growth and urbanization contribute significantly to the increase in solid waste. Municipal solid waste, which consists of household and commercial refuse, is a major component of this issue [4]. Giusti [2] also noted that inadequate solid waste management adversely impacts public health and the environment, making it a critical concern in the twenty-first century. Hazardous solid waste [5] can be classified as organic, reusable, or recyclable, with various sources including village, agricultural, municipal, and hospital waste. Village waste typically contains a high proportion of decomposable and recyclable materials [6], while agricultural waste can lead to groundwater contamination and soil infertility [7].

OPEN ACCESS

#### **CITATION**

*Review*

Chahal, M.K. and Singh, G. Solid Waste Management: From Generation to Disposal. *AgriSustain-an International Journal,* 2024, 02(2), 01-06.

#### ARTICLE INFORMATION

Received: May 2024 Revised: June 2024 Accepted: July 2024

#### **DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.14576366**

#### **COPYRIGHT**

© 2024 by the authors. Submitted for possible open access publication under the terms and conditions of the [Creative Commons Attribution](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/)  [license \(CC BY\).](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/)



In municipalities, solid waste generation can reach thousands of tons daily, comprising hazardous, non-hazardous, and organic materials, with some being compostable. Research indicates that municipal solid waste generation in India averages 0.2–0.5 kg per capita daily, largely consisting of organic matter (51%), recyclables (17.5%), and inert material (31%) [8]. The release of toxic substances from municipal solid waste can contaminate soil and groundwater, posing risks to the food chain and ecosystem [9]. The primary goals of solid waste management are to implement efficient collection and disposal techniques that protect both the environment and human health [10]. Developed countries, such as Italy, Japan, the USA, and the UK, are adopting zero waste strategies and emphasizing the principles of reduce, reuse, and recycle [11&12]. However, improper solid waste management continues to be a source of pollution, leading to significant environmental impacts and health risks [13]. In urban areas of developing nations, the challenge is exacerbated by ongoing industrial growth and economic development.

## Depending upon sources, solid waste is categorized in different types which needs more priority for discussion:

*Municipal Solid Waste (MSW):* Population growth and ongoing industrialization are significant factors driving migration and resulting in large quantities of municipal solid waste (MSW), which includes biodegradable waste, recyclable materials, inert waste, composite waste, hazardous waste, toxic waste, and construction debris [14]. MSW primarily consists of organic matter, with smaller proportions of ash, fine earth, paper, and plastics, while glass and metals are present in minimal amounts. In countries experiencing rapid development and increasing gross domestic product (GDP), the rate of MSW generation is rising sharply [15]. For instance, in India, the rate of MSW generation has surged to eight times its 1947 levels, with approximately 48 million tonnes produced annually, including 7.2 million tonnes of industrial waste and 1.5 million tonnes of plastic waste [16]. Projections indicate that by 2030, MSW generation rates in China may reach 1.8 kg per day per capita, reflecting the ongoing challenges associated with waste management in rapidly developing economies.

*Radioactive Solid Waste:* Nuclear power plants are the foremost and upcoming power source to compensate the demand of power for this increasing population. Nuclear weapon production for defense programme and research reactors also contributes to a greater extent [2]. In USA, 95% of total volume of radioactive waste is generated by the defense research programme in which only 9% accounts for total radioactivity [17]. Ewing also concluded that in USA, 95% of total volume of radioactive waste is generated by the defense research programme in which only 9% accounts for total radioactivity. Giusti [2] examined that uranium and plutonium are major contents with some other heavy metals like cerium and strontium in radioactive solid waste. These heavy metals emit radiation which has drastic effect on human health and environment. Some major accidents like Chernobyl disaster in Ukraine, Soviet Union (USSR) in 1986 and Fukushima Daiichi nuclear disaster in Japan in 2011 reveals high thyroid cancer, birth defects, and tumours [2] were speeded up in epidemic rate which haunted victims. Moreover as an artefact, soil are also contaminated with heavy metals [2]. Through food chain heavy metals are consumed by humans. After Chernobyl disaster, such type of metal pollutant like strontium-90 was found in root of plants and also in cow's milk. Consuming these as food, results in weakening of the bone and bone marrow which can cause bone cancer in humans.

Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment: The term e-waste or waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) includes entire electrical or electronic devices which are loosely discarded, surplus, obsolete, broken at the end of their lifetime [18&19]. Concomitantly fast-growing change in new technology with life-style the life span of earlier technology becomes reduced and obsoleted. These obsoleted products are enriching e-waste day by day [20&21]. For example, in 1992 the average lifetime of a computer is 4.5 years which is in certainly decreasing to 2 years and continuously decreasing resulting in major content in e-waste [22]. Due to the rigorous exploitation of electronic goods with every passing day, the generation of e-waste is unavoidable. From 1998, only use of household electric appliance increases by 53.1% in 2002 [18]. These cause around 41.8 million tons (Mt) of e-waste only by 4 billion people up to 2014 which further increase to 49.8 Mt in 2018 around the world [20].

*Agricultural Waste:* Agriculture waste mainly covers the waste generated from agriculture fields, firms, hatcheries and woods. These wastes are highly enriched with biomass and reusable biodegrading materials [23]. Wastage from agriculture field is the supplier of toxic compounds towards groundwater and surface water contamination [7]. This wastage is coming from the excess use of fertilizer on fields where Nitrogen (N) and Phosphorus (P) are results of eutrophication of surface water. Eutrophication results allege boom and damage the ecological system of aquatic body. Thus, it increases the growth of aquatic weed and decreases the oxygen level which can cause death of flora and fauna. Excess use of pesticide may come in contact with living society which results in several health hazardous effects [24]. Poultry firm wastage is also contaminating the groundwater and surface water by generating heavy metals, pesticides and pathogens to soils. Most importantly, poultry waste contains nitric nitrogen (NO3–N) which is responsible for 'blue baby' syndrome of human infants. In which bacterial reduction of NO3- converts to nitrite NO2 which oxidizes iron in hemoglobin and results in the formation of methaemoglobin. Methaemoglobin choked the oxygen transport function which is called 'methemoglobinemia'. It increases the acidity in an adequate level for many bacterial functions in human stomach [23].

*Hospital or Biomedical Solid Waste (HSW or BSW):* The institutions like hospital and other healthcare centers are the places which provide treatment and assurance of public health irrespective of social and economic background. In the healthcare processing, these institutions may generate infectious waste which may be responsible for spreading diseases. These healthcare facilities are origin of vast wastes which are specifying as hospital waste. Hospital waste is also known as biomedical waste which can be defined as 'any waste which is generated during diagnosis, treatment or immunization of human being or animals, or in research activities pertaining thereto, or in the production or testing of biological product [1]. Total hospital waste is generated from a health care establishment, research facilities, laboratories, and emergency relief donations. Generally, hospital waste is major content of non-hazardous and combustible materials. Remaining part is consisting of infectious and non-infectious wastes [5]. Infectious wastes have hazardous effect on public health and environment. Where depending upon total amount of hospital waste in India, the percentage of infectious waste may vary from 15 to 35%; in USA the amount is \*15% [10]. Primary source of hospital waste are hospitals (Govt. hospitals/private hospitals/ nursing home), veterinary hospitals (including research centers), clinics, Primary health centers dispensaries, Medical colleges and research centers/paramedic services, Blood banks, mortuaries, autopsy centers, slaughter houses, Blood donation camps, Vaccination centers [10]. Infectious waste mainly generates from the material and equipment in contact with infected patient, body parts, discharge, blood, or fluid. Infectious wastes contain pathogens (i.e. fungi, bacteria, virus, parasite) which generates from pathological laboratories can be considered as pathological waste. Human and animal body parts are also recognized as anatomical waste [1]. In India, on basis of per bed/day HSW generation varies on type of hospital and its localization as government hospital generates 5–7 kg and private hospitals produce 2–4 kg in southern India. In the western India, the HSW is around 1– 3 kg/bed/day for west India [1]. Only in Delhi, 65 tons of HSW is generating out of 6500 metric tons of total solid waste [25].

#### Solid Waste Management (SWM) Process

Globally, solid waste generation is growing day by day with the increasing population. Only in India, it is ranging around 0.2–0.6 kg/capita in cities which is generating 42 million tonnes of total solid every year, and these figures will cross 260 million tonnes in 2047 [20]. Therefore, for healthy environment proper integrated solid waste management (ISWM) is essential rather than conventional SWM which only involves waste collection, treatment and disposal. But ISWM focused on the reduction of waste at source, reuse of recovered resource and recycle of residue. With economic efficacy, reduction on environmental impact and ensuring multi-stakeholders participation the ISWM are more advantageous to the conventional waste management. The complete cycle of SWM contains waste collection, separation, storage, transportation, treatment and disposal [15]. Solid are waste are collected from various source and characterized upon there category like recyclability, combustibility, reusability, disposability and accordingly accumulate in corresponding places. As an example, hospital wastes are collected in different bins according to their colour code [10]. Lack of awareness and modern facilities of proper waste management can cause serious health issues and environmental impact. The elementary level of waste management is not properly mentioned as an example during the production and collection of different categories (recyclable with hazardous) wastes are mixed. Furthermore, It is transported in inadequate manner like in tricycle, open truck using poor containers [26]. Rag pickers are responsible for recycle and reuse of this wastage with their bare hands [15]. After that, it goes for disposal in open land (dumping yard), incineration, combustion which liberates hazardous material that have various chronic effects on ecosystem. Some of the treatment technology and disposal methodology are very usual and some are too specific for classified wastes (like hospital solid waste, municipal solid waste). With limitation and advantage the main technologies in solid waste disposal and treatments are landfilling, composting, vermi-composting, bio methanation are the Mechanical Biological Treatment methods and some thermal treatments like incineration, gasification and pyrolysis, plasma pyrolysis, production of Refuse-Derived Fuel are the main technologies in solid waste disposal and treatment. RDF is also known as palettization which is notable for municipal solid waste [27].

#### Mechanical Biological Treatment

Mechanical Biological Treatment technologies are pre-treatment technologies for any waste treatment. Basically, it provides a diversion of solid waste from direct exposure of waste.

*Landfilling:* Landfilling is the most general and ultimate way of waste disposal though it ranked lowest in quality of waste management. All types of inert, remaining and residual part of waste treatment, organic waste, and mixed waste are dumped in lands which are the major source of greenhouse gases (CO2, CH4) [27]. Some heavy metals and organic material are responsible for groundwater contamination which results in lead, mercury, cadmium toxicity and other diseases [11]. Landfilling sites are breading house of insects, vermin which can spread malaria, cholera, etc., and rag pickers are searching this site for their daily income, as a result but they are most exposed to, tetanus, respiratory problem, neural disorder [2]. People live around or downwind; these sites are also suffering from respiratory problem, headache and irritation due its odour [2].

## Advantage of landfilling [2]

- No need of highly skilled employees.
- Low cost for waste treatment.
- Highly potential for gas recovery which can use as source of energy.
- Through burying organic waste leads net gain for environment.

#### Limitation of landfilling

- Costly transportation to dumping land sites.
- Choke the drainage system and can contaminate both the groundwater and surface water.
- Major source of greenhouse gases.
- Need a large area of land for dumping.
- Birthplace for vermin, insect and may be origin of various diseases.

*Composting:* Farmers have been composting compostable organic material (cow dung, agro-waste) from the immoral time [27]. Micro-organism plays the main role in this technology for decomposition in various environments like warm, moist, aerobic and anaerobic [14]. This technology is simple and commercially viable, and it is effectively applied in agricultural lands, fruit orchards, farmland, tea gardens, also in parks, gardens, etc. [27]. Some plants are established in Baroda, Mumbai, Solid Waste Management in India: A Brief Review 1043 Calcutta, Delhi, Jaipur and Kanpur with capacities ranging from 150 to 300 tons per day during 1975–1980[14].

# *Advantage of composting:*

- Augmentation in micronutrient deficiencies and improvement in soil texture.
- It maintains the soil health through increasing moisture-holding capacity and recycling nutrients into soil.
- It is very much straightforward and simple as well as cost-effective.
- Reduce the dependency on chemical fertilizer in agriculture field.

#### Limitation of composting

- Not suitable for all types of waste.
- Large open land required.
- Composting plants emits methane, odour and flies.
- Soil can contaminate with entering toxic materials.
- Lack of awareness and proper marketing of compost material [14].

*Vermi-Composting:* Vermi-composting is a process where biodegradable part of solid waste which is composted with the assistance of earthworms [14]. Resultant part of vermi-composting is very much nutrient-rich, and further it can use for fertilization of agriculture field. *Pheretima* sp., *Eisenia* sp., *Perionyx excavates* sp., these worm species only survive in 20–40 °C and moisture ranges from 20 to 80% and responsible for generation of 50 MT of solid waste per day in town and cities. These worms consume waste five time more than their body weight [14]. Largest vermi-composting plant with capacity of 100 MT/day is situated in Bangalore, India [27]. Some plants in Hyderabad, Bangalore, Mumbai and Faridabad are established for vermi-composting. Introduction of toxic materials in waste can kill these earthworms and the process requires a large area of land composting.

*Anaerobic Digestion and Bio methanation:* In recent time, this technology is less expensive for disinfection and stabilization of waste like farmland residue, industrial sludge and animal slurries [27]. The main objective of this process is generation of biogas which contains 50–60% of methane through composting of organic waste [14]. Production of biogas can source of power generation. The value-added part of this process is that the residual part is enriched with nutrients and could be as composting fertilizer which results in environmental a net gain. Efficiency and energy recovery of bio methanation are better than composting [14]. In India, BARC has developed this technology which commercialized as Nisarguna Biogas Plant. Earlier A 5 MW power plant was established in Lucknow, India. Unfortunately, due inadequate supply of waste it was close down. A few small-scale power plants are still actively working in Vijayawada.

## Thermal Treatment

The main aim of this technology is to minimize the release of toxic waste and treatment residual part, and principle technologies are incineration, gasification and pyrolysis.

*Incineration:* Incineration is subjected to disposal of solid waste through hightemperature combustion in control with proper way [27]. The incineration temperature belongs within the range 980 to 2000  $°C$  [14]. At this high temperature, wastes are converted into ash as a residual part with emission of gaseous product gas. This process leads to destructions of toxic material as well as recovery of energy. Incineration reduces volume up to 80–90% of the total volume of combustible waste [14]. This feature can be developed with enough high temperature, and it reduces up to 5% of its original volume. Additionally, this process is noise free, odorless and hygienic [14]. These thermal plants can be constructed nearer to the source of the waste which will minimize the transportation cost. Flipping other side, incineration may cause potential emission of pollutant like dioxins, furans and PAHs [2]. Among these persistent organic compounds more specifically polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins, (PCDDs), polychlorinated dibenzofurans (PCDFs) and polychlorinated biphenyl (PCBs). PCDDs and PCDFs are the mostly coming out due to incomplete combustion of municipal waste, medical waste and household waste. SOx, NOx are also emitted by this process [26]. It needs large operation and high maintenance cost with skilled personnel. In 1987 at Timarpur, Delhi an incineration plant installed Miljotecknik volunteer, Denmark, with a cost of Rs. 250 million for Delhi Municipal Corporation [14]. This plant has capacity of 300 tonnes per day and 3.75 mw of power generation. But due to its low performance and high maintenance charge, it was forcedly shut down. Solid wastes are high content of organic waste, inert material, moisture and wet containing wastes; this is why incineration is not a well-practiced scenario in Indian methodology [27]. In small cities, this method is used in lesser extent only for hospitals and institution like BARC has constructed a plant in Trombay, Mumbai, for their institutional waste [14].

*Pyrolysis:* A substance when thermally degraded without oxygen that process is called pyrolysis. In pyrolysis, required temperature ranges is in between 300 and 850 °C and for thus a continuous external heat source is continuously required [28]. Synthetic gas and char are the products of pyrolysis of waste material. Carbon and non-combustible materials are the main constitution of char, wherein syngas like methane, carbon mono oxide, hydrogen are major content [28]. These gases further can be used for fuel oil generation and condensed for wax and tar preparation [27].

*Gasification:* Gasification is a partial oxidation process of substance with insufficient oxygen and resulted in a process between the combustion and pyrolysis. The operating temperatures are typically above 650 °C of this exothermic reaction [28]. Before application wastes are required to be dried and then segregated. During the operation the syngas so generated comprises of hydrogen, carbon monoxide and methane [27]. This syngas can be used instead of natural gas as fuel gas and energy recovery could be possible with this method. In compared to incineration, gasification does not emit any toxic gas like SOx, NOx because of insufficient oxygen [27]. This process needs high amount of financial support and power source, and the efficiency can be affected by the presence of high moisture and inert content in waste [14]. After gasification, the solid non-combustible residual part needs proper handling and disposal. In plasma gasification technology high temperature (electric arc) is applied to the waste material thereby converting it to an inert residue (ash). This result in vitrification of the inert material accompanied with cracking of the tar component that eventually leads to emission of clean syngas [28].

*Refuse-Derived Fuel (RDF):* This method is useful for producing improvised solid fuel or pellets which can further use in industrial furnace from mixed municipal solid waste [27]. As gasification, RDF is also capable of reduction of pollution and more in recovery of energy through producing power [8]. RDF is much prominent fuel when it is mixed with coal or that type of conventional fuel. Although this expensive method requires well trained expertise to operate, however, owing to its efficiency in energy recovery process developing countries are applying this technique in large number [27]. A RDF plant near Golconda dumping yard in Hyderabad, India, is constructed in 1996 with a capacity of 1000 tons waste feeding per day. This used to produce about 6.6 MW of power with 210 tonnes of pellets per day [14]. Another large-scale RDF plant is in installed Deonar, Mumbai, that operates by Excel India. In Bangalore the amount of production is about 5 tons of fuel pellets for domestic and industrial purpose by compacting 50 tons of MSW per day. A same type of plant is constructed by M/s Shriram Energy Systems Ltd. at Vijayawada which is operational since November 2003 [27].

Methods of Recycling and Reuse of Solid Wastes

*Crushed Solid Wastes and Powders:* The utilization of various forms crushed solid waste in the reengineering of soil, concrete, wastewater and pavements has been made possible by the ball mill crushing of solid waste to obtain crushed waste plastics, crushed waste ceramics, crushed waste glasses, crushed oyster shell powder, etc. The selected solid waste materials are collected from dumpsites, sorted, washed and sundried. They are thereafter crushed with the ball mill to different sizes and texture. Characterization of these crushed powder materials is also done by particle size analysis (PSA) and UV-Vis Spectrophotometer analysis (UV-VSA). In more advanced technologies, the Canning Electron Microscopy (SEM), X-ray Fluorescent (XRF) or the X-ray Diffractometer (XRD) is used to determine through the plotted diffract graph, the micro properties and gradation behavior of the crushed materials. This also indicates the overall performance of the materials in blends with soil, concrete or asphalt. These crushed derivatives of solid waste have proven through experimentation to be good binders and fillers and modifiers in soil stabilization, concrete production and asphalt production respectively [29]. These materials have been added in varying percentages by weight of treated homogenous mixture (soil. Concrete or asphalt) to improve their engineering properties. This has been possible because these materials were discovered to possess pozzolanic properties that enhance cementation processes [30]. Their ability to form compounds responsible for strengthening was as a result of high content of aluminosilicates, which makes it possible to calcium silicate hydrates (C-S-H) and calcium aluminate hydrates (C-A-H) with the treated mass or mixture.

*Burnt Solid Wastes and Ashes:* The greatest amount of ash materials utilized in soil stabilization, concrete production, asphalt modification and the synthesis of geopolymer cements (GPC) are derived through direct combustion in welldesigned incinerators [31]. In most cases, this combustion exercise is uncontrolled. This by implication poses the greatest danger of CO and CO2 emission to the environment. Like in the case of crushed solid wastes, the selected wastes are collected, sorted and burnt in an incinerator for a controlled combustion. In this case, a model of the incinerator has been designed to ensure that the CO and CO2 released through the firing smoke is entrapped. This mechanism is to ensure that the whole essence of an eco-friendly operation in civil engineering works is not defeated. The utilization of ash or its forms in constructions and as geomaterials for the replacement of ordinary Portland cement is to reduce to zero those construction practices that release oxides of carbon into the atmosphere to ensure an environmentally friendly activity. But the production of ash by combustion is against this aim. What has been done was to use the caustic soda-incinerator model to trap volatile gases released during the combustion process.

*Activated Coupled Solid Waste Derivatives and Geopolymer Cements:* Environmentally friendly Geopolymer cements are coupled binders synthesized by coupled-blending of solid waste ash or crushed waste ash under the activation influence of alkali activators. These are developed to attend to the urgent need for eco-friendly and coefficient binders and to totally or partially replace conventional cements (OPC) in all the civil engineering works to save our planet from the hazards of CO/CO2 emission. The alkali activators are produced under the laboratory conditions with Sodium Hydroxide (NaOH) and Sodium Silicate (Na2SiO3) as activators with a NaOH molar concentration of 12 M for an ecofriendly material [32]. A proportion of 4.8% by weight activator is used to blend the selected ashes. Research results have shown that various forms of geopolymer cements have been synthesized from this operation which included quarry dust based geopolymer cement, crushed waste ceramics geopolymer cement, crushed waste glasses geopolymer cement, palm bunch ash based geopolymer cement, bagasse ash based geopolymer cement, etc.[33]. These forms of GPC have shown to possess similar properties in terms of performance and behaviour in their utilization as alternative or supplementary binders. The utilization of the GPC has shown to produce infrastructures with certain special properties [34]. Results

have shown that GPCs possess high potentials to resist sulphate attacks, moisture attacks in hydraulically bound environments, heat and high temperature, volume changes in soft clay and expansive soils, cracking in concrete structures, lateral displacement in asphalt pavement, capillary action, sorption and suction in subgrade materials and generally to improve the durability of civil infrastructures. In the run, the ecoefficiency of the facilities from these ecofriendly materials and geomaterials.

Optimal environmental solid waste management and recycling strategies focus on minimizing waste generation, maximizing recycling rates, and reducing environmental impact. Here are key strategies:

*Source Reduction and Minimization:* Encourage businesses and consumers to reduce packaging and waste at the source. Support the adoption of reusable products to minimize environmental impact. Promote alternatives to single-use items for a more sustainable future.

*Recycling Programs:* Establish comprehensive recycling programs that cover a wide range of materials. Ensure the availability of convenient recycling bins to encourage participation. Provide education on what can and cannot be recycled to improve efficiency.

*Composting:* Promote composting of organic waste, such as food scraps and yard waste, to reduce landfill disposal. Provide composting bins for households and businesses to encourage participation. Establish community composting facilities to support larger-scale composting efforts.

*Waste Separation and Collection:* Implement efficient waste separation systems at households and businesses to streamline recycling and disposal processes. Ensure regular and reliable waste collection services to maintain cleanliness and support waste management efforts. Provide guidance and resources to promote proper waste sorting practices.

*Public Awareness and Education:* Educate the public on proper waste disposal and recycling practices to promote responsible behavior. Raise awareness about the environmental benefits of recycling and waste reduction to encourage sustainable habits. Provide workshops, campaigns, and resources to support community engagement.

*Incentives and Legislation:* Offer incentives for businesses to reduce waste and increase recycling efforts. Implement policies and regulations that promote recycling practices and penalize improper waste disposal. Encourage sustainable business operations through rewards and compliance measures.

*Waste-to-Energy and Advanced Technologies:* Explore waste-to-energy technologies to manage non-recyclable waste effectively. Invest in research and development of advanced recycling technologies to enhance waste management systems. Support innovation to create sustainable solutions for waste reduction and resource recovery.

*Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR):* Hold manufacturers accountable for the entire life cycle of their products, including proper disposal and recycling. Encourage eco-design practices that prioritize sustainability and reduce environmental impact. Promote product stewardship to ensure responsible production, usage, and end-of-life management.

*Collaboration and Partnerships:* Foster partnerships between government, businesses, NGOs, and communities to enhance waste management efforts. Facilitate collaboration to share best practices and resources for effective waste reduction and recycling. Promote collective action to build sustainable and efficient waste management systems.

*Monitoring and Evaluation:* Regularly monitor waste generation, recycling rates, and environmental impacts to track progress. Adjust strategies based on data and feedback to improve efficiency and effectiveness. Use insights to refine policies and practices for continuous improvement in waste management.

By implementing these strategies in a coordinated and integrated manner, communities and governments can achieve optimal environmental solid waste management and recycling outcomes, contributing to sustainability and resource conservation goals.

#### **CONCLUSION**

Unorganized planning and non-availability of scientific techniques is major concern in developing countries like India in which the waste generation is increasing at rapid rate and poor waste disposal is adding more problems to the environment. Most of the waste is disposed to the landfills without any proper sorting and segregation of the waste. Passing only laws for waste management and disposal without strict implementation is increasing the generation of the waste in India. Composting facility at the source of the waste generation is helpful in reducing the volume of the waste and help to produce valuable product which can have multiple uses in the field. Recycling is also the best tool for the management of waste as it saves material, reduces the need to landfill and incinerate, cuts down pollution, and helps to protect the environment. Recycling also helps to create jobs and also help to conserve resource as well as the environment. It is important to take help from developed countries which are using innovative techniques from waste collection to waste processing in order to solve the waste accumulation menace.

#### References

- 1. Himabindu, P., Udayashankara, T.H., & Madhukar, M.A. Critical review on biomedical waste and effect of mismanagement. *International Journal of Engineering Research & Technology*, 2015, 4(03): 0181-2278. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=1.%09Himabindu%2C+P.%2C+Udayashankara%2C+T.H.%2C+%26+Madhukar%2C+M.A.+Critical+review+on+biomedical+waste+and+effect+of+mismanagement.+International+Journal+of+Engineering+Research+%26+Technology%2C+2015%2C+4%2803%29%3A+0181-2278.+&btnG=)
- 2. Giusti, L. A review of waste management practices and their impact on human health. *Waste Management*, 2009, 29, 2227-2239. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=2.%09Giusti%2C+L.+A+review+of+waste+management+practices+and+their+impact+on+human+health.+Waste+Man-agement%2C+2009%2C+29%2C+2227-2239.+&btnG=)
- 3. Guerrero, L.A., Maas, G., & Hogland, W. Solid waste management challenges for cities in developing countries. *Waste Management*, 2013, 33(1): 220-232. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=3.%09Guerrero%2C+L.A.%2C+Maas%2C+G.%2C+%26+Hogland%2C+W.+Solid+waste+management+challenges+for+cities+in+developing+countries.+Waste+Management%2C+2013%2C+33%281%29%3A+220-232.+&btnG=)
- 4. Rajkumar, N., Subramani, T., & Elango, L. Groundwater contamination due to municipal solid waste diposal - a GIS based study in Erode City. *International Journal of Environmental Science*, 2010, 1(1): 39-55. [\[Research Gate\]](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/286273444_Groundwater_Contamination_due_to_municipal_solid_waste_disposal_-_A_GIS_based_study_in_Erode_city)
- 5. Singh, H., Rehman, R., & Bumb, S.S. Management of biomedical waste: A review. *Journal of Dental and Medical Research*, 2014, 1(1): 14-20. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=5.%09Singh%2C+H.%2C+Rehman%2C+R.%2C+%26+Bumb%2C+S.S.+Management+of+biomedical+waste%3A+A+review.+Journal+of+Dental+and+Medical+Research%2C+2014%2C+1%281%29%3A+14-20.++&btnG=)
- 6. Gowda, M.C., Raghavan, G.S.V., Ranganna, B., & Barrington, S. (1995). Rural waste management in a South Indian Village a case study. *Bioresource Technology*, 1995, 53: 157-164. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=6.%09Gowda%2C+M.C.%2C+Raghavan%2C+G.S.V.%2C+Ranganna%2C+B.%2C+%26+Barrington%2C+S.+%281995%29.+Rural+waste+management+in+a+South+Indian+Village+a+case+study.+Bioresource+Technology%2C+1995%2C+53%3A+157-164.+&btnG=)
- 7. Sims, J.T., & Wolf, D.C. (1990). Poultry waste management: Agricultural and environmental issues. *Academic Press*. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=7.%09Sims%2C+J.T.%2C+%26+Wolf%2C+D.C.+%281990%29.+Poultry+waste+management%3A+Agricultural+and+environmental+issues.+Academic+Press.+&btnG=)
- 8. Annepu, R.K. (2012). Sustainable Solid Waste Management in India (M.Sc. Thesis). Earth Engineering Center, Columbia University, New York, NY. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=8.%09Annepu%2C+R.K.+%282012%29.+Sustainable+Solid+Waste+Management+in+India+%28M.Sc.+Thesis%29.+Earth+Engineering+Center%2C+Columbia+University%2C+New+York%2C+NY.+&btnG=)
- 9. Marshall, R.E., &Farahbakhsh, K. Systems approaches to integrated solid waste management in developing countries. *Waste Management*, 2013, 33: 988-1003. [\[Research Gate\]](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/235382145_Systems_approaches_to_integrated_solid_waste_management_in_developing_countries)
- 10. Nandan, A., Yadav, B.P., Baksi, S., & Bose, D. Recent Scenario of Solid Waste Management in India. *World Scientific News*, 2017, 66: 56-74. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=10.%09Nandan%2C+A.%2C+Yadav%2C+B.P.%2C+Baksi%2C+S.%2C+%26+Bose%2C+D.+Recent+Scenario+of+Solid+Waste+Management+in+India.+World+Scientific+News%2C+2017%2C+66%3A+56-74.+&btnG=)
- 11. Mickael, D. Categorization and Sorting for Waste Management. *International Journal of Waste Resources*, 2016, 6(2): [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=11.%09Mickael%2C+D.+Categorization+and+Sorting+for+Waste+Management.+International+Journal+of+Waste+Re-sources%2C+2016%2C+6%282%29%3A+&btnG=)
- 12. Jones, A., & Harrison, R. Emission of ultrafine particles from the incineration of municipal solid waste: A review. *Atmospheric Environment*, 2016, 140: 519-528. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=12.%09Jones%2C+A.%2C+%26+Harrison%2C+R.+Emission+of+ultrafine+particles+from+the+incineration+of+municipal+solid+waste%3A+A+review.+Atmospheric+Environment%2C+2016%2C+140%3A+519-528.+&btnG=)
- 13. Mohanty, C.R., Mishra, U., & Beuria, P.R. Municipal solid waste management in Bhubaneswar, India a review. *International Journal of Latest Trends in Engineering & Technology*, 2014, 3(3): 303-312. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=13.%09Mohanty%2C+C.R.%2C+Mishra%2C+U.%2C+%26+Beuria%2C+P.R.+Municipal+solid+waste+management+in+Bhubaneswar%2C+India+-+a+review.+International+Journal+of+Latest+Trends+in+Engineering+%26+Technology%2C+2014%2C+3%283%29%3A+303-312.+&btnG=)
- 14. Sharholy, M., Ahmad, K., Mahmood, G., & Trivedi, R.C. Municipal solid waste management in Indian cities-A review. *Waste Management*, 2008, 28: 459-467. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=14.%09Sharholy%2C+M.%2C+Ahmad%2C+K.%2C+Mahmood%2C+G.%2C+%26+Trivedi%2C+R.C.+Municipal+solid+waste+management+in+Indian+cities-A+review.+Waste+Management%2C+2008%2C+28%3A+459-467.+&btnG=)
- 15. Shanghai manual-A guide for sustainable urban development in the 21st century (Chapter 5) 2010.
- 16. Research Unit (Larrdis) Rajya Sabha Secretariat. (2011). E-waste in India Report, New Delhi. [google [scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=15.%09Shanghai+manual-A+guide+for+sustainable+urban+development+in+the+21st+century+%28Chapter+5%29+2010.++16.%09Research+Unit+%28Larrdis%29+Rajya+Sabha+Secretariat.+%282011%29.+E-waste+in+India+Report%2C+New+Delhi.+&btnG=)
- 17. Ewing, R.C., Webert, W.J., & Clinard, F.W. Radiation effects in nuclear waste forms for a high-level. *Radioactive Waste Progress in Nuclear Energy*, 1995, 29(2): 63-121. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=17.%09Ewing%2C+R.C.%2C+Webert%2C+W.J.%2C+%26+Clinard%2C+F.W.+Radiation+effects+in+nuclear+waste+forms+for+a+high-level.+Radioactive+Waste+Progress+in+Nuclear+Energy%2C+1995%2C+29%282%29%3A+63-121.+&btnG=)
- 18. Monika, K.J. E-waste management: As a challenge to public health in India. *Indian Journal of Community Medicine*, 2010, 35(3): 382-385. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=18.%09Monika%2C+K.J.+E-waste+management%3A+As+a+challenge+to+public+health+in+India.+Indian+Journal+of+Com-munity+Medicine%2C+2010%2C+35%283%29%3A+382-385&btnG=)
- 19. Bhutta, M.K.S., Omar, A., & Yang, X. Electronic waste: A growing concern in today's environment. *Economics Research International*, 2011 (Article ID 474230). https:// doi.org/10.1155/2011/474230. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=19.%09Bhutta%2C+M.K.S.%2C+Omar%2C+A.%2C+%26+Yang%2C+X.+Electronic+waste%3A+A+growing+concern+in+today%E2%80%99s+environment.+Economics+Research+International%2C+2011+%28Article+ID+474230%29.+https%3A%2F%2F+doi.org%2F10.1155%2F2011%2F474230.+&btnG=)
- 20. Baldé, C.P., Wang, F., Kuehr, R., Huisman, J. (2015). The global e-waste monitor-2014, United Nations University, IAS-SCYCLE, Bonn, Germany. ISBN: 978-92-808-4555-6. [\[Research Gate\]](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/275152363_The_Global_E-waste_Monitor_-_2014)
- 21. Gaidajis, G., Angelakoglou, K., & Aktsoglou, D. E-waste: Environmental problems and current management. *Journal of Engineering Science and Technology Review*, 2010, 3(1): 193-199. [\[google](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=21.%09Gaidajis%2C+G.%2C+Angelakoglou%2C+K.%2C+%26+Aktsoglou%2C+D.+E-waste%3A+Environmental+problems+and+current+man-agement.+Journal+of+Engineering+Science+and+Technology+Review%2C+2010%2C+3%281%29%3A+193-199.+&btnG=)  [scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=21.%09Gaidajis%2C+G.%2C+Angelakoglou%2C+K.%2C+%26+Aktsoglou%2C+D.+E-waste%3A+Environmental+problems+and+current+man-agement.+Journal+of+Engineering+Science+and+Technology+Review%2C+2010%2C+3%281%29%3A+193-199.+&btnG=)
- 22. Kiddee, P., Naidu, R., & Wong, M.H. Electronic waste management approaches: An overview. *Waste Management*, 2013, 33: 1237-1250. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=22.%09Kiddee%2C+P.%2C+Naidu%2C+R.%2C+%26+Wong%2C+M.H.+Electronic+waste+management+approaches%3A+An+overview.+Waste+Management%2C+2013%2C+33%3A+1237-1250.+&btnG=)
- 23. Loehr, R. C. Hazardous solid waste from agriculture. *Environmental Health Perspectives*, 1978, 27: 261-273. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=23.%09Loehr%2C+R.+C.+Hazardous+solid+waste+from+agriculture.+Environmental+Health+Perspectives%2C+1978%2C++27%3A+261-273.+&btnG=)
- 24. Lu, C., Fenske, R.A., Simcox, N.J., & Kalman, D. Pesticide exposure of children in an agricultural community: Evidence of household proximity to farmland and take-home exposure pathways. *Environmental Research Section A*, 2000, 84: 290-302. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=24.%09Lu%2C+C.%2C+Fenske%2C+R.A.%2C+Simcox%2C+N.J.%2C+%26+Kalman%2C+D.+Pesticide+exposure+of+children+in+an+agricultural+community%3A+Evidence+of+household+proximity+to+farmland+and+take-home+exposure+pathways.+En-vironmental+Research+Section+A%2C+2000%2C+84%3A+290-302.+&btnG=)
- 25. Ramesh Babu, B., Parande, A.K., Rajalakshmi, R., Suriyakala, P., & Volga, M. Management of biomedical waste in India and other countries: A review. *Journal of International Environmental Application & Science*, 2009, 4(1): 65-78. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=25.%09Ramesh+Babu%2C+B.%2C+Parande%2C+A.K.%2C+Rajalakshmi%2C+R.%2C+Suriyakala%2C+P.%2C+%26+Volga%2C+M.+Management+of+biomedical+waste+in+India+and+other+countries%3A+A+review.+Journal+of+International+Environmental+Application+%26+Science%2C+2009%2C+4%281%29%3A+65-78.+&btnG=)
- 26. Gupta, S., Mohan, K., Prasad, R., Gupta, S., & Kansal, A. Solid waste management in India: Options and opportunities. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 1998, 24: 137-154. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=26.%09Gupta%2C+S.%2C+Mohan%2C+K.%2C+Prasad%2C+R.%2C+Gupta%2C+S.%2C+%26+Kansal%2C+A.+Solid+waste+management+in+India%3A+Options+and+opportunities.+Resources%2C+Conservation+and+Recycling%2C+1998%2C+24%3A+137-154.+&btnG=)
- 27. Asnani, P.U. (2006). Solid waste management. India: India Infrastructure Report. [\[Link\]](https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=53197125b7711f77e746509d29defabf367d5f70)
- 28. http://www.defra.gov.uk/Advanced thermal treatment of municipal solid waste, February 2013.
- 29. Muhammad I.S., Eberemu A.O. & Kundiri A.M. Remediation techniques for contaminated soils: a review. *Univ Maiduguri FacEng Sem Ser* 2018, 9:5 2-61. [\[Research Gate\]](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/362583323_Remediation_Techniques_for_contaminated_Soils_A_Review)
- 30. Eberemu, A.O., Osinubi K.J. & Ijimdiya T.S. Cement kiln dust: locust bean waste ash blend stabilization of tropical black clay for road construction. *International Journal of Geotechnical Engineering* 2018. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10706- 018-00794-w. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?q=30.+Eberemu,+A.O.,+Osinubi+K.J.+%26+Ijimdiya+T.S.+Cement+kiln+dust:+locust+bean+waste+ash+blend+stabilization+of+tropical+black+clay+for+road+construction.+International+Journal+of+Geotechnical+Engineering+2018.+https://doi.org/10.1007/s10706-+018-00794-w.+&hl=en&as_sdt=0,5)
- 31. Osinubi, K.J., Oluremi J.R. & Eberemu A.O. Interaction of landfill leachate with compacted lateritic soil–waste wood ash mixture. *Proc Inst Civil Eng Waste Resource Management* 2017, 170: 128-38. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=31.%09Osinubi%2C+K.J.%2C+Oluremi+J.R.+%26+Eberemu+A.O.+Interaction+of+landfill+leachate+with+compacted+lateritic+soil%E2%80%93waste+wood+ash+mixture.+Proc+Inst+Civil+Eng+Waste+Resource+Management+2017%2C+170%3A+128-38.+&btnG=)
- 32. Onyelowe, K.C., Bui Van D. Predicting subgrade stiffness of nanostructured palm bunch ash stabilized lateritic soil for transport geotechnics purposes. *Journal of GeoEng Taiwan Geotech Soc,* 2018, 13: 59-67. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=32.%09Onyelowe%2C+K.C.%2C+Bui+Van+D.+Predicting+subgrade+stiffness+of+nanostructured+palm+bunch+ash+stabilized+lateritic+soil+for+transport+geotechnics+purposes.+Journal+of+GeoEng+Taiwan+Geotech+Soc%2C+2018%2C+13%3A+59-67.+http%3A%2F%2F140.118.105.174%2Fjge%2F+article.php%3Fv%3D20%26i%3D72%26volume%3D13%26issue%3D2.+&btnG=)
- 33. Eberemu, A.O., Afolayan, J.O. & Abubakar. I. Reliability Evaluation of Compacted Lateritic Soil Treated With Bagasse Ash as Material for Waste Land Fill Barrier. *Geo-Congress 2014 Technical Papers, GSP* 2014, 234: 911-920. [\[google scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=33.%09Eberemu%2C+A.O.%2C+Afolayan%2C+J.O.+%26+Abubakar.+I.+Reliability+Evaluation+of+Compacted+Lateritic+Soil+Treated+With+Bagasse+Ash+as+Material+for+Waste+Land+Fill+Barrier.+Geo-Congress+2014+Technical+Papers%2C+GSP+2014%2C+234%3A+911-920.+&btnG=)
- 34. Arulrajah, A., Kua, T.A. & Horpibulsuk, S. Strength and microstructure evaluation of recycled glassfly ash geopolymer as low-carbon masonry units. *Constr Build Mater* 2016, 114: 400-6. [\[google](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=34.%09Arulrajah%2C+A.%2C+Kua%2C+T.A.+%26+Horpibulsuk%2C+S.+Strength+and+microstructure+evaluation+of+recycled+glass-fly+ash+geopolymer+as+low-carbon+masonry+units.+Constr+Build+Mater+2016%2C+114%3A+400-6.+&btnG=)  [scholar\]](https://scholar.google.com/scholar?hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5&q=34.%09Arulrajah%2C+A.%2C+Kua%2C+T.A.+%26+Horpibulsuk%2C+S.+Strength+and+microstructure+evaluation+of+recycled+glass-fly+ash+geopolymer+as+low-carbon+masonry+units.+Constr+Build+Mater+2016%2C+114%3A+400-6.+&btnG=)