

# African Institute for Science Policy and Innovation International Biennial Conference



VOLUME 1

1st AISPI International Biennial Conference on Science, Technology and Innovation for Sustainable Development, 2019

# E-Waste Estimates and Disposal Methods among Households in Selected Local Government Areas in Southwestern Nigeria

## B. A. Aodu<sup>1\*</sup> M. O. Jegede<sup>2</sup> and M. O. Ilori<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>National Centre for Technology Management (NACETEM), Ile-Ife, Nigeria
<sup>2</sup> African Institute for Science Policy and Innovation (AISPI), Ile-Ife, Nigeria
\*Corresponding author's email address: aodutunde@yahoo.com

## Abstract

This study evaluated e-waste management methods among households in Southwestern Nigeria using selected local government areas. It estimated the quantity of specific e-waste category disposed of by the households, and examined the methods used by them in the disposal of the e-waste. These were with a view to providing reliable data that would guide decision making process towards sustainable e-waste management, particularly at the local level. The study covered the target populations' (that is household) operations between 2013 and 2018. This research employed survey method using both primary and secondary data. The primary data were sourced using a set of questionnaire. Secondary data such as population density of the study area and average weight of some e-waste items were sourced from the National Population Commission (NPC) report and literature, respectively. The questionnaire was administered on 300 households, selected through a multi-stage sampling technique. Data obtained were analysed. The results showed that a total estimated quantity of 32.1 metric tons (Mt) of e-wastes were disposed of by the households between 2013 and 2018. The total e-waste estimate comprised 21.6 Mt (67.7%), 2.6Mt (8.2%), 5.2Mt (16.3%) and 2.2Mt (6.9%) of large household e-waste, small household e-waste, consumer e-waste and IT/Telecommunications e-waste. The result of the study also revealed that the flow/destination of the e-waste category were largely uncontrolled and informal.

## Keywords: Disposal, e-waste, Household, Management, Technique, Method

Copyright ©: African Institute for Science Policy and Innovation (ASIPI). Published 2024 by Koozakar LLC. Selected and peer-reviewed by ASIPI, Obafemi Awolowo University, Ile-Ife, Nigeria. https://doi.org/10.69798/07470954

#### **INTRODUCTION**

E-waste or waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) is a generic term for all electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) (in whole or part) that are no more in use, obsolete, intended to be discarded (or discarded). It refers to electrical/electronic equipment, as well as their components that are unwanted by their owners, without the intent of re-use (Solving the E-waste Problem-StEP, 2014). In fact, these products no longer satisfy the need of its owner (Peralta and Fontanos, 2006); thus, discarded.

Globally, electronic industry is the largest and fastest growing manufacturing industry (Radha, 2002; Department of Information Technology-DIT, 2003); thus, increasing electrical/electronic product consumption. Consequently, e-waste generation may not be unconnected from the expansion of this industry particularly in relation to meeting up with growing insatiable consumers demand and preferences for the products (including Information Technology-IT devices). High technology obsolescence rate of electrical/electronic equipment coupled with the general attitude of consumers to drop old electrical/electronic devices for new ones also exacerbate global e-waste generation issues. Consumers often replace usable electronic equipment with new ones available in the market (Kahhat and Williams, 2009); thus, a contributing factor to growing e-waste volume. Furthermore, globalization in the developing country context also influences individuals' desire to do away with old electrical/electronic technologies for newer and/or more efficient ones.

E-waste is ubiquitous in nature as evidenced in the growing market for electrical/electronic products in different regions of the world (Babu *et al.*, 2007); consequently, growing e-waste volume occasioned by rapid product obsolescence, particularly in the 21<sup>st</sup> century characterised by rapid technological innovation and global competitiveness. Nonetheless, e-waste is a potential pollutant source (as it contains toxic chemical components) with significant environmental and public health implications (Zhao *et al.*, 2010; Eguchi *et al.*, 2012; Asante *et al.*, 2012). Electrical/electronic waste components/parts also contain precious metals. E-waste is a rich source of resourceful and recoverable materials (Ongodo *et al.*, 2011; Lau *et al.*, 2013 and Menad *et al.*, 2013); thus making it of a potential socio-economic relevance.

In view of the inherent challenges and socio-economic implications of e-waste, concerted and coordinated effort is required (at all levels) in its sustainable management. However, sufficient knowledge regarding volumes of e-waste, specific composition and destination of the waste is fundamental to developing requisite e-waste infrastructural need (Scott *et al.*, 2014). In fact, accurate and sufficient data on current ewaste management conditions is pivotal to successful implementation of e-waste management plan vis–a-viz collection, transportation, storage and recycling. The information will guide and enhance decision making on the effective and efficient management of e-waste.

In spite of various estimated volumes of e-waste generated annually at the global level, there is still lack of accurate information regarding e-waste data (Scott *et al.*, 2014), particularly in majority of developing countries including Nigeria. In fact, the current quantities of e-waste are grossly underestimated (Ongondo *et.al.*, 2011) and this may present a barrier to its sustainable management in Nigeria; especially at this time that the Nigerian government is making concerted efforts (as evidenced in the growing number of government-approved recycling companies) towards minimizing environmental/public health threat of e-waste and harnessing the economic value of the waste, through recycling. Arguably, the success of already established (e-waste) recycling companies (and even forthcoming ones) largely depends on accurate e-waste information (such as composition, quantity/volume and disposal methods) available at local or national level. Such information, to a very large extent, may determine the 'modus operandi' and further guide operations of the recycling companies. Decision making on sustainable e-waste management policy in Nigeria is also a function of availability of data/information on e-waste management among respective stakeholders.

This study estimated the quantity of specific e-waste category disposed of among households and examined the methods used by the households in the disposal of the e-waste category. These were with a view to recommending appropriate measures that will enhance appropriate e-waste management in the study area.

#### E-waste Challenges and Opportunities in Developing Country Context

The growing rate of e-waste is nearly three times faster than total municipal waste flow (Arensman, 2000), with an annual increase of 4-5% (Baldé *et al.*, 2017). The waste accounted for more than 5% of the total municipal solid waste stream (UNEP, 2005) and constituted 1-3% of total solid waste worldwide (Robinson, 2009; UNEP, 2007a). Annually, about 50 million tonnes of e-waste is generated around the world (Huisman, 2012). Estimated e-waste volume of 41.8 million metric tonnes (5.9 kg/inhabitant) and 44.7 million metric tonnes (Mt) (6.1 kg/inhabitant) were generated in 2014 and 2016 respectively (Baldé *et al.*, 2015; Baldé *et al.*, 2017). Projection for 2021 is 52.2 million metric tonnes (6.8 kg/Inhabitant); the incessant and growing e-waste volume is a serious source of global concern.

Although, the developed countries including USA and Europe contribute a larger share to the total global estimate (Robinson, 2009); however, there are indications that developing countries including China, India, South Africa, Egypt and Nigeria are at more risk of the growing volume. Developing countries are the largest recipient (more than 80%) of e-waste generated from the developed countries (Hicks *et al.*, 2005). The waste is being imported as Used Electrical and Electronic Equipment (UEEE). Specifically, the European Union member states were the origin of around 77% of UEEE imported into Nigeria (Baldé *et al.*, 2017). Annual estimated volume of 640,000 tonnes of WEEE enters Nigeria through importation from developed countries (Nnorom and Osibanjo, 2008). In the Nigeria case, about 50% of the imported e-wastes are in deplorable condition (Nnorom and Osibanjo, 2008).

In Africa, Nigeria is a leading destination of e-waste imports as well as producer of such (at domestic/national level); consequently, contributing an estimated volume of 1.1 million metric tons to the total e-waste volume in Africa (Nnorom and Osibanjo, 2008). However, the estimated e-waste import in Nigeria may not be accurate, taking into consideration countless numbers and porosity of the Nigerian borders. In actual fact, 35.8 million Mt (80%) of global e-waste generated is not documented and out of which the destination of 34.1 million Mt (76%) of the waste is unknown (Baldé *et al.*, 2017), particularly in majority of the developing countries. The current quantities of e-waste are grossly underestimated (Ongondo *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, there is an urgent need for accurate and reliable e-waste inventory data in Nigeria.

Furthermore, e-waste is quite different from other forms of waste stream. The waste is characterised by different product spectra with varying physical and chemical constituents. The constituent of e-waste is usually a function of the product design and specification. For instance, heavy e-waste items such as refrigerators, freezers, washing machine, dish washer, cloth dryers are chiefly made up of steel with lesser toxic pollutants while IT/telecommunications e-waste items such as mobile phones and laptop computer contains relatively higher concentration of hazardous chemicals and heavy metals (Robinson, 2009). E-wastes are potential pollutant sources that are inimical to environment and public health. About 1,000 toxic substances have been associated with e-waste (Puckett and Smith, 2002); predominantly heavy metals and Persistent Organic Pollutants (POPs) (Saphores and Milovantseva, 2011; Kiddee *et al.*, 2013). Nonetheless, virtually all e-waste categories have socio-economic implications as they contain economically valuable metals including Gold (Au), Silver (Ag) and Aluminum (Al), which can be harnessed (through recycling) for re-use in future production value chain. The recoverable materials value in e-waste was estimated at 48 billion euros (Baldé *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, it is imperative that government, academia and policy makers in Nigeria (a major e-waste junk of developed countries) harness resources and proffer specific e-waste policy intervention towards effective and sustainable e-waste management in the country.

Moreover, poor management of e-waste through indiscriminate disposal is harmful to the ecosystem and immediate environment, thus, a potential source of food contamination (Lincoln *et al.*, 2007; Robinson, 2009; Zhao *et al.*, 2010). Resultant environmental and public health implications of improper e-waste management including haphazard disposal and treatment practices in developing countries have been sufficiently reported (Chan *et al.*, 2007; Huo *et al.*, 2007; Qu *et al.*, 2007; Wang *et al.*, 2009b; Xing *et al.*, 2009; Zhao *et al.*, 2008; Zheng *et al.*, 2008; Ha *et al.*, 2009; Eguchi *et al.*, 2012; Asante *et al.*, 2012). Logically, poor management including disposal and treatment of e-waste can be detrimental. In fact, the socio-economic

value of the waste might be technically impossible to achieve in conditions where e-wastes are being disposed indiscriminately and processed through primitive techniques. In view of these facts, research findings on the quantity, composition and disposal (flow pattern) of e-waste emanating from various sources will not only reinforce decision making on e-waste management but also provide sustainable path towards implementation.

#### Scope of the Study

This study only took into cognizance, e-waste generated (that is disposed of) at household level in Southwestern Nigeria between 2013 and 2018. Furthermore, e-waste category (items) considered for this study were: large household e-waste (freezer, refrigerator, air conditioner and washing machine), small household e-waste (iron, kettle, microwave, toaster and hair dryer), consumer e-waste (radio, VCR player, DVD player, CRT television and flat panel display television) and IT/Telecommunication e-waste (laptop, mobile phones, CRT monitor and flat panel display monitor). The study focused on e-waste assessment using an assessment methodology and its validation in the study area.

#### E-waste Assessment Methodology: A Literature Review

Due to the rapid growth in e-waste generation and associated problems, assessment tools are being used for informed decision making on sustainable management of e-waste. The tools have proved invaluable in estimating e-waste generation and its environmental impact assessment. Life Cycle Assessment (LCA), Material Flow Analysis (MFA) and survey instrument (i.e. questionnaire) have found immense applications in e-waste management study. Generally, MFA and questionnaire (used in combination or separately) are a major assessment tools used in estimation and quantification of e-waste flow within a defined geographical boundary.

Material Flow Analysis (MFA) is a decision support tool for environmental and waste management (Brunner and Rechberger, 2004) which has also found applicability in e-waste management. MFA has been used to determine the quantity and flow of e-waste; hence, environmental and socio-economic assessment of e-waste can as well be examined.

Shinkuma and Nguyen Thi Minh (2009) used MFA to investigate the flow of e-waste in Asia. They found that secondhand electronic devices from Japan are reused in Southeast Asia (e.g., Vietnam and Cambodia) while most of the e-waste is recycled in Guangdong Province, China, where improper recycling methods were being used. In addition, Yoshida *et al.* (2009) found that the proportion of personal computers sent for domestic disposal and recycling decreased to 37% in fiscal year 2004, while the proportion of domestic reuse and exports increased to 37% and 26%, respectively in Japan.

MFA in combination with other methods have also been used to estimate possible quantity of e-waste generated in a specific geographical boundary. Liu *et al.* (2006a), Jain and Sareen (2006), Osibanjo and Nnorom (2008) and Steubing *et al.* (2010) have investigated e-waste generation using MFA. Liu *et al.* (2006a) and Jain and Sareen (2006) applied market supply method using the average lifetime of electronic product and regional production and sales data for e-waste generation. Steubing *et al.* (2010) used the MFA and survey method to estimate e-waste generation in Chile.

Due to lack of data on sales and consumption of electric and electronic equipment in Nigeria, Osibanjo and Nnorom (2008) used questionnaire surveys to estimate quantities of e-waste in Nigeria. They found that in near futures, e-waste generation will increase in China, India, Nigeria and Chile (Osibanjo and Nnorom, 2008). Liu *et al.* (2009) has also reported (using MFA and questionnaire) that the quantity of e-waste will double from 2005 to 2010 and increase by 70% for obsolete devices by 2020. The volume of e-waste will increase four to five times during 2010–2019 in Chile (Steubing *et al.*, 2010).

Yoshida *et al.* (2009) analyzed the flow of used PCs in Japan using the MFA. The authors developed a method to estimate the material flow of used PCs and reported that 3.92 million and 4.88 million used PCs were discarded in 2000 and 2001 respectively. Chung *et al.* (2011) also used the MFA and questionnaire to investigate the quantity of some e-waste categories generation in Hong Kong. The authors reported that a total quantity of 80,433 tons (11.5 kg/capital) of the e-waste categories was generated in 2011.

Taghipour *et al.* (2012) has also used the MFA tool to investigate e-waste generation and disposal pattern in Tehran and Tabriz cities of Iran between the periods of 2008-2010. The authors' finding revealed that 115,286, 112,914, and 115,151 metric tons of e-waste in 2008, 2009 and 2010, respectively were generated in the study area.

Alavi *et al.* (2015) applied the use and consumption method and questionnaire survey to investigate the quantity of e-waste generation, disposal and collection pattern among 400 households in Ahraz (a major city in Southwestern Iran). The result of their study revealed that 2,157,742 units (9952.25 metric tons per year) of e-waste were disposed of among households in the study area.

Literature has sufficiently shown various e-waste estimations using different assessment methodology, however, not in the Nigerian context and in particularly as it concerns estimating e-waste generated at household level. So far, there is little or no reliable information on e-waste quantity disposed of, and as well methods used in the disposal of the e-waste at household level. This study utilized questionnaire survey only because of the lack of data on sales and consumption of electrical and electronic products in Nigeria.

## **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

The study utilized primary and secondary data. Primary data were collected using a set of structured questionnaire designed to collect information at household level. Oral guided interview was also conducted in the course of questionnaire administration. The questionnaire was administered on 300 households, selected through a multi-stage sampling technique. In the first stage, two states - Lagos and Oyo States were purposively selected from the six states in Southwestern Nigeria - being the two most populated states and major commercial/business hub in the region. In the second stage, stratified sampling technique was used to divide the twenty (20) and thirty three (33) local government areas (LGAs) in Lagos and Oyo States, respectively into existing senatorial districts - three per state; then an LGA with the highest population density was purposively selected from each stratum per state. A total of six (6) LGAs comprising three (3) LGAs from each of the states were used for this study. Fifty (50) households were randomly selected from the six (6) LGAs, making 300 housing units. The questionnaire elicited information on the socio-demographic background of the households, quantity of specific e-waste category disposed of and methods employed by the households in the disposal of the e-waste category. Secondary data such as population density of the study area and average weight of some e-waste item were sourced from the National Population Commission (NPC) report and literature, respectively. Data obtained were analyzed using descriptive statistics and calculations based on average weight of e-waste item and quantity disposed.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

## Distribution of Respondents in the Study Area

The distribution of household respondents by state is presented in Table 1. Three hundred questionnaires were randomly and equally administered among households in the selected LGAs in Lagos and Oyo States. A total of two hundred and forty-two (242) questionnaires were retrieved, representing 80.67% of the total (300) administered.

## Socio-demographic Characteristics of Households Representatives for the Study

The socio-demographic characteristics of household representatives are presented in Table 2. The gender distribution of the respondents in the two states (that is the study area) showed that 58.7% were males; an indication that the household representative for this study is male dominant. The age distribution of respondents revealed that the largest shares of total household respondents' age group were within the age of 31-40 years, constituting 42.4% and the least being respondents above 60 years (3.4%).

Aodu et al. (2019) / Koozakar Proceedings, vol. 1, 62 – 74

S/N	Sample Areas	No of Questionnaires Administered (%)	No of Questionnaires Retrieved (%)
i)	<sup>a</sup> Alimosho L.G.A	50 (16.66)	42 (17.3)
ii)	<sup>a</sup> Surulere L.G.A	50 (16.66)	35 (14.5)
iii)	<sup>a</sup> Kosofe L.G.A	50 (16.66)	44 (18.2)
iv)	<sup>b</sup> Egbeda L.G.A	50 (16.66)	42 (17.3)
v)	<sup>b</sup> Saki West L.G.A	50 (16.66)	37 (15.4)
vi)	<sup>b</sup> Ibadan North East L.G.A	50 (16.66)	42 (17.3)

**Table 1:** Distribution of Respondents by States

<sup>a</sup> Selected L.G.A. in Lagos State Senatorial Districts; <sup>b</sup> Selected L.G.A. in Oyo State Senatorial Districts

Variables	Frequency (%)	
Gender		
Male	142 (58.7)	
Female	100 (41.3)	
Total	242	
Age Group		
< 20yrs	10(4.2)	
20-30yrs	41(17.4)	
31-40yrs	100(42.4)	
41-50yrs	50(21.2)	
51-60yrs	27(11.4)	
>60yrs	8(3.4)	
Total	236	
Highest Qualifications		
No formal Education	1(0.4)	
Junior Secondary	2(0.8)	
Senior Secondary	31(13.1)	
OND/HND/B.Sc.	130(55.1)	
M.Sc. / M. Phil/PhD	72(30.5)	
Total	236	
Household Role		
Husband	108(46.4)	
Housewife	73(31.3)	
Others	52(22.3)	
Total	233	

 Table 2: Socio Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The literacy level of the representatives (measured by highest educational attainment) in the study area indicated that 85.7% of them had post-secondary school education; an indication that a substantial share of the respondents had requisite knowledge base, in diverse fields of study. About 55.1% and 30.5% of the total respondents had OND/HND/B. Sc. and M. Sc. / M.Phil/PhD qualifications, respectively. The household role of respondent distribution in the study area showed that 46.4% of households' representatives were husbands.

This sub-section discusses the background characteristics of household distribution in the study area and is as shown in Table 3. The Table revealed that the household size distributions were dominated with a family size of 4 constituting 32.3% and the least being household size of more than 7 which constituted 3.2% of total household respondents. Furthermore, the table also shows that 68% of the total household respondents have either 1 or 2 household members in active job. This constituted the largest share of this distribution and the least share was 5%, representing more than four household members in active job.

Variables	Frequency (%)
Household size	
1	12(5.5)
2	19(8.8)
3	20(9.2)
4	7032.3)
5	41(18.9)
6	28(12.9)
7	20(9.2)
>7	7(3.2)
Total	217
No of Household Workers	
1 or 2	149(68.0)
3 or 4	59(27.9)
>4	11(5.0)
Total	219
Total Occupation Density	
Civil Servant	201(44.5)
Self Employed	138(30.5)
Private/Non-profit org.	92(20.4)
Retired	21(4.6)
Total	452
Monthly Income	
<50,000	13(5.5)
50,000-100,000	38(16.1)
100,000-150,000	65(27.5)
150,001-200,000	68(28.8)
200,001-250,000	34(14.4)
250,001-300,000	7(3.0)
300,001-350,000	9(3.8)
300,001-350,000	2(0.8)
Total	236

**Table 3:** Socio Demographic Characteristics of Households

Moreover, the total occupation distribution (in terms of the number of counts per occupation category) reveals that 44.5% of the total household members in active job were civil servants, which constituted the largest share of households' member occupational background, and the least share was 4.6%, representing retirees.

The monthly household income (that is aggregate) distribution also showed that 28.8% of the total household respondents earned between #150,000-200,000 and this represented the largest share of the household monthly income group. The lowest percentage was 0.8%, representing household monthly income group of 300,001-350,000.

#### Estimated (in metric tons) E-waste Categories Disposed of by Households in the Study Area

This section discusses investigation into the total estimates (in metric tons-Mt) of e-waste categories disposed of in the study area between 2013 and 2018. Table 4 showed that a total estimated quantity of 31.6 Mt of ewaste was disposed of by households in the study area. This constituted 68.4%, 8.2%, 16.5% and 6.9% of large household e-waste, small household e-waste, consumer e-waste and IT/Telecommunication e-waste respectively.

#### E-waste Disposal Methods among Households in the Study Area (2013-2018)

This section discusses the methods used by households in the study area to dispose of e-waste, and expressed as a percentage of total household respondents (N=242) (as shown in Table 5). Discussion in this section is explicitly on the choices of disposal methods for each e-waste category, among households in the study area.

The table reveals that the second hand market was the most predominant choice of e-waste disposal method among household in the study area. The table also shows that 64.1%, 44.6%, 62.4% and 74% of the total household respondents (N= 242) disposed of their large household, small household, consumers' and IT/Telecommunications, respectively by selling to designated domestic e-waste markets as UEEE.

Estimated E-waste (metric tons) E-waste Category	Total Estimate (%)
*Large Household	21.6 (68.4%)
*Small Household	2.6 (8.2%)
*Consumer	5.2 (16.5%)
*IT/Telecommunication	2.2 (6.9%)
Total/State (%)	31.6 (100)

Table 4. Estimated a westa astagonias by State

\*Refer to Appendix I for the breakdown

Moreover, e-waste trade at individual/family level also accounts for a sizeable percentage of households' choice of disposal. About 28.1%, 24.8%, 25.6% and 48.8% of the total households sold their large household, small household, consumers' and IT/Telecommunications e-waste categories, respectively to individuals/family friends.

Moreover, 32.6% and 25.2% of households in the study area disposed of their small household and consumer e-waste categories with household wastes compared to a percentage share of 6.6% and 9.5% for large household and IT/Telecommunications e-waste categories respectively. E-waste categories/items disposed with household wastes are either irreparable or condemned (Osibanjo and Nnorom, 2008). However, the disparity in the percentage of e-waste category that ends up being disposed of with household waste could

	Number of Households (%)			
Methods	Large Household	Small Household	Consumers	IT/Telecom
А	16 (6.6%)	79 (32.6%)	61 (25.2%)	23 (9.5%)
В	155(64.1%)	108 (44.6%)	151(62.4%)	179 (74.0%)
С	65 (26.9%)	106 (43.8%)	143(59.1%)	37 (15.3%)
D	13 (5.4%)	31 (12.8%)	26 (10.7%)	10 (4.1%)
E	3 (1.2%)	32 (13.2%)	45 (18.6%)	8 (3.3%)
F	68 (28.1%)	60 (24.8%)	62 (25.6%)	118 (48.8%)
G	30 (12.4%)	26 (10.7%)	34 (14.0%)	23 (9.5%)
Н	39 (16.1%)	50 (20.7%)	54 (22.3%)	15 (6.2%)

**Table 5:** Household percentage share per disposal method per e-waste category in the study area

A (with household waste); B (sold to second hand market); C (given/sold to scrap dealers); D (handover to formal e-waste collectors); E (thrown into dumpsite); F (sold to individual); G (donation) and H (store/keep at home).

be caused by relatively large sizes/weight and salvage (end of life) value of large household and IT/telecommunication e-waste, respectively. Large household e-waste items are generally weightier and as such difficult to transport to dumpsite.

Furthermore, a share of households in the study area adopted scrap dealers/scavengers as the choice of e-waste disposal method. Thus 26.9%, 43.8%, 59.1% and 15.3% of the households disposed of large household, small household, consumers and IT/Telecommunications e-waste categories respectively by either giving or selling to scrap dealers/scavengers. The locally made carrier (that is cart) used by the scrap dealers/scavengers enhanced the flow and movement of these e-waste categories (irrespective of sizes/weight). In this case, the monetary value of the e-waste category at the end of useful life may account for the high percentage share of households that adopted this e-waste disposal means.

Another 5.4%, 12.8%, 10.7% and 4.1% of total household respondents used formal e-waste collectors (government or private) to dispose of large household, small household, consumer and IT/Telecommunication e-waste categories, respectively. However, 16.1%, 20.7%, 22.3% and 6.2% of total household respondents respectively had large household, small household, consumer and IT/Telecommunication e-waste categories stored/kept at home.

## CONCLUSION

The study concluded that a substantial amount of e-waste volumes were generated in the study area during the period (2013-2018). However, in terms of the relative weight (Mt) of the e-waste categories considered for the study, large household e-waste constituted the largest share. IT/Telecommunication e-waste category constituted the largest units of the share of e-waste category generated in the study area. In any case, this has implication for sustainable e-waste management plan in the study area particularly as it concerns storage, transportation and recycling. Generally, large volumes of the e-waste categories generated in the study area were disposed through informal methods.

#### Recommendations

- i. Adequate measures should be put in place towards achieving households' co-operation and willingness to dispose e-waste items through formal method.
- ii. Households, particularly at local levels should be oriented and sensitized on the socio-economic and environmental implications of informal e-waste disposal methods.

## REFERENCES

- Arensman, R. (2000): "Ready for Recycling?" Electronic Business. The Management Magazine for the Electronic Industry.26: 108–115.
- Asante, K. A., Agusa, T., Biney, C. A., Agyekum, W. A., Bello, M., Otsuka, M., Itai, T., Takahashi, S., and Tanabe, S. (2012): Multi-trace element levels and arsenic speciation in urine of e-waste recycling workers from Agbogbloshie, Accra in Ghana. Science of the Total Environment, 424: 63–73.
- Babu, B. R., Parande, A. K., and Basha, C., A. (2007): Electrical and electronic waste: a global Environmental problem. Waste Management & Research, 25(4): 307-318
- Baldé, C. P., Forti V., Gray, V., Kuehr, R., and Stegmann, P. (2017): The Global E-waste Monitor –United Nations University (UNU), International Telecommunication Union (ITU) & International Solid Waste Association (ISWA), Bonn/Geneva/Vienna. ISBN Electronic Version: 978-92-808-9054-9. ISSN 2522-7033.
- Baldé, C. P., Wang, F., Kuehr, R., and Huisman, J. (2015): The global e-waste monitor 2014, United Nations University, IAS SCYCLE, Bonn, Germany. ISBN Electronic Version: 978-92-808-4556-3.
- Brunner, P., and Rechberger, H. (2004): Practical handbook of material flow analysis. The International Journal of Life Cycle Assessment 9, 337–338.
- Chan, J. K. Y., Xing, G. H., Xu, Y., Liang, Y., Chen, L. X., Wu, S. C., Wong, C. K. C., Leung, C. K. M., and Wong, M. H. (2007): Body loadings and health risk assessment of polychlorinated dibenzo-p-dioxins and dibenzofurans at an intensive electronic waste recycling site in China. Environmental Science & Technology 41, 7668–7674.
- Chung, S. -s., K. -y. Lau, and C. Zhang. (2011): Generation of and control measures for, e-waste in Hong Kong. Waste Manage. 31:544–554. doi:10.1016/j.wasman.2010.10.003.
- Department of Information Technology-DIT (2003). Environmental management for Information Technology industry in India, Department of Information Technology, Government of India, pp.122-124.
- Eguchi, A., Nomiyama, K., Devanathan, G., Subramanian, A., Bulbule, K.A., Parthasarathy, P., Takahashi, S., and Tanabe, S. (2012): Different profiles of anthropogenic and naturally produced organohalogen compounds in serum from residents living near a coastal area and e-waste recycling workers in India. Environment International 47, 8–16.
- Ha, N. N., Agusa, T., Ramu, K., Tu, N. P. C., Murata, S., Bulbule, K. A., Parthasaraty, P., Takahashi, S., Subramanian, A., and Tanabe, S. (2009): Contamination by trace elements at e-waste recycling sites in Bangalore, India. Chemosphere 76, 9–15.
- Hicks, C., Dietmar, R., and Eugster, M. (2005): The recycling and disposal of electrical and electronic waste in China-legislative and market responses. Environmental Impact Assessment Review 25: 459–471.
- Huisman, J., 2012. Eco-efficiency evaluation of WEEE take-back systems. In: Goodship, V., Stevels, A. (Eds.), Part 1 in Waste electrical and Electronic Equipment (WEEE) Handbook. Woodhead Publishing Ltd., Cambridge, the United Kingdom, 9780857090898.
- Huo, X., Peng, L., Xu, X., Zheng, L., Qui, B., Qi, Z., Zhang, B., Han, D., and Piao, Z. (2007): Elevated blood lead levels of children in Guiyu, an electronic waste recycling town in China. Environmental Health Perspectives 115: 1113–1117.

- Jain, A., and Sareen, R. (2006): E-waste assessment methodology and validation in India. Material Cycles and Waste Management 8: 40–45.
- Kahhat, R., and Williams E. (2009): Product or waste? Importation and end-of life processing of computers in Peru. Environ. Sci. Technol. 43:6010–6016. doi:10.1021/es8035835
- Lau, W. K., S. S. Chung, and C. Zhang (2013): A material flow analysis on current electrical and electronic waste disposal from Hong Kong households. Waste Manage. 33:714–721. doi:10.1016/j.wasman. 2012.09.007
- Lincoln, J. D., Ogunseitan O. A., and Shapiro A. A. (2007): Leaching assessments of hazardous materials in cellular telephones. Environ Sci. Technol.:41(7):2572-8.
- Liu, Q., Li, Q. K., Zhao, H., Li, G., and Fan, Y. F. (2009): The global challenge of electronic waste management. Environmental science and pollution research international, 16(3):248–249.
- Liu, X., Tanaka, M., and Matsui, Y., (2006a): Generation amount prediction and material flow analysis of electronic waste: a case study in Beijing, China. Waste Management & Research 24: 434–445.
- Menad, N., S. Guignot, and J. A. van Houwelingen. (2013): New characterization method of electrical and electronic equipment wastes (WEEE). Waste Manage. 33:706–713. doi:10.1016/j.wasman.2012.04.007
- Nadali Alavi, Mohammad Shirmardi, AliakbarBabaei, AfshinTakdastan and NastaranBagheri (2015): Waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) estimation: A case study of Ahvaz City, Iran, Journal of the Air & Waste Management Association, 65 (3): 298-305, DOI: 10.1080/10962247.2014.976297.
- Nnorom, I.C., and Osibanjo, O., (2008): Overview of electronic waste (e-waste) management practices and legislations, and their poor applications in the developing countries. Resources, Conservation and Recycling 52: 843–858.
- Ongondo, F. O., I. D. Williams, and T. J. Cherrett. (2011): How are WEEE doing? A global review of the management of electrical and electronic wastes. Waste Manage. 31:714–730. doi:10.1016/j.wasman.2010.10.023
- Peeranart Kiddee, Ravi Naidu and Ming H. Wong. (2013): Electronic Waste management: An overview. Elsevier Journal of Waste Management (33): 1237-1250.
- Peralta, G. L. and Fontanos, P. M. (2006): E-waste issues and Measures in the Philippines. Journal of Material Cycles and Waste Management, 8 (1): 34 39.
- Puckett, J., and Smith, T. (2002): Exporting harm the high-tech trashing of Asia. In: Coalition, S.V.T. (Ed.).
- Qu, W., Bi, X., Sheng, G., Lu, S., Fu, J., Yuan, J., and Li, L. (2007): Exposure to polybrominated diphenyl ethers among workers at an electronic waste dismantling region in Guangdong, China. Environment International 33: 1029–1034.
- Radha, G. (2002): A Study of the Performance of the Indian IT Sector' at www.nautilus.org accessed on 21st June 2018.
- Richard E. Scott, Palacious M and Maturana T. (2014): Electronic Waste A Growing Concern for the Health Sector. GoldBook. InovacaoTecnologicaEmEducacao e Saude.
- Robinson, B.H. (2009): E-waste: an assessment of global production and environmental impacts. Science of the Total Environment 408: 183–191.
- Saphores, J. D., and Milovantseva N. (2011): e-Waste and the Digital Transition: Results from a Survey of US Households. Journal of the Minerals, Metals, and Materials Society; 63(8):14-17.
- Shinkuma, T., and Nguyen Thi Minh, H. (2009): The flow of e-waste material in the Asian region and a reconsideration of international trade policies on e-waste. Environmental Impact Assessment Review 29: 25–31.
- Solve the e-waste problem-StEP Initiative, (2014): Solving the E-Waste Problem (Step) White Paper, One Global Definition of E-waste. Bonn, Germany.
- Steubing, B., Boni, H., Schluep, M., Silva, U., and Ludwig, C. (2010): Assessing computer waste generation in Chile using material flow analysis. Waste Management 30: 473–482.

- Taghipour, H., P. Nowrouz, M. A., Jafarabadi, J., Nazari, A. A., Hashemi, M. Mosaferi, and R. Dehghanzadeh (2012): E-waste management challenges in Iran: Presenting some strategies for improvement of current conditions. Waste Manage. Res. 30:1138–1144. doi:10.1177/0734242x11420328
- UNEP, (2005): E-waste the hidden side of IT equipment's manufacturing and use. Environment Alert Bulletin 5, January 2005, United Nation Environmental Program, Nairobi, Kenya.
- UNEP, (2007a): E-Waste: Volume I Inventory Assessment Manual. United Nations Environment Protection" 123 pp.
- Wang, T., Fu, J., Wang, Y., Liao, C., Tao, Y., and Jiang, G. (2009b): Use of scalp hair as indicator of human exposure to heavy metals in an electronic waste recycling area. Environmental Pollution 157: 2445–2451.
- Xing, G. H., Chan, J. K. Y., Leung, A. O. W., Wu, S. C., and Wong, M. H. (2009): Environmental impact and human exposure to PCBs in Guiyu, an electronic waste recycling site in China. Environment International 35: 76–82.
- Yoshida, A., T. Tasaki, and A. Terazono. (2009): Material flow analysis of used personal computers in Japan. Waste Manage.29:1602–1614. doi:10.1016/j. wasman.2008.10.021
- Zhao, G., Wang, Z., Dong, M. H., Rao, K., Luo, J., Wang, D., Zha, J., Huang, S., Xu, Y., and Ma, M. (2008): PBBs, PBDEs, and PCBs levels in hair of residents around e-waste disassembly sites in Zhejiang Province, China, and their potential sources. Science of the Total Environment 397: 46–57.
- Zhao, G., Zhou, H., and Wang Z. (2010): Concentrations of selected heavy metals in food from four e-waste disassembly localities and daily intake by local residents, Journal of Environmental Science and Health, Part A: Toxic/Hazardous Substances and Environmental Engineering.45(7):824-835.
- Zheng, L., Wu, K., Li, Y., Qi, Z., Han, D., Zhang, B., Gu, C., Chen, G., Liu, J., Chen, S., Xu, X., and Huo, X. (2008): Blood lead and cadmium levels and relevant factors among children from an e-waste recycling town in China. Environmental Research 108: 15–20.

#### **APPENDIX I**

## Estimations for Large Household E-waste Items in the Study Area

E-waste Unit /Qty in ton disposed (%)*		
Items (Av. Wt. in kg) <sup>b</sup>	Unit Qty (%)	
Refrigerator (35)	98/3.4 (15.7)	
Air Conditioner (55)	139/7.7 (35.6)	
Washing Machine (65)	102/6.6 (30.6)	
Freezer (35)	111 / 3.9 (18.1)	
Total	450 / 21.6	
Adapted from Cobbing	2000	

Adapted from Cobbing, 2008

# Estimations for Small Household E-waste Items in the Study Area

Items (Av. Wt. in kg) <sup>b</sup>	Total Unit Qty (%)
Iron (1)	270/ 0.27 (10.4)
Kettle (1)	154 /0.15 (5.8)
Microwave (15)	132/1.98 (76.2)
Toaster (1)	138 /0.138 (5.3)
Hair Dryer (1)	53/0.053 (2.0)
Total	747/2.6

Adapted from Cobbing, 2008

#### Estimations for Consumer E-waste Items in the Study Area

Items (Av. Wt. in kg) <sup>b, c</sup>	<sup>c</sup> Total Unit Qty (%) <sup>**</sup>
CRT Television (31.8) <sup>c</sup>	62/1.97 (37.5)
Radio (2) <sup>b</sup>	202 / 0.40 (7.6)
VCR Player (5) <sup>b</sup>	127/0.64 (12.2)
DVD Player (5) <sup>b</sup>	219/1.1 (20.9)
Flat Pane TV (12.6) <sup>c</sup>	92/1.16 (22.1)
Total	702 / 5.2
	accoh in rr

Adapted from Cobbing, 2008<sup>b</sup> and F. Wang et al., 2013<sup>c</sup>.

# **Estimations for IT/Telecommunication E-waste Items** in the Study Area

Items (Av. Wt. in kg) <sup>b, c</sup>	Total Unit Qty (%) **	
Laptop (3.7) <sup>c</sup>	219 /0.82 (38.1)	
Mobile phone $(0.1)^{b}$	747/0.0747 (3.5)	
CRT Monitor (19.4) <sup>c</sup>	44/0.85 (39.5)	
Flat Panel Monitor (6.5) <sup>c</sup>	62/0.40 (18.6)	
Total	1072/2.2	
a 11 16 a	11: accob 15 11 1 actor	

Source: Adapted from Cobbing, 2008<sup>b</sup> and F. Wang et al., 2013<sup>c</sup>