

ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT • OPEN ACCESS

## Factors influencing household-level positive and negative solid waste management practices in rapidly urbanizing cities: insights from Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Bolivia

To cite this article before publication: Denise Patricia Lozano Lazo *et al* 2021 *Environ. Res.: Infrastruct. Sustain.* in press  
<https://doi.org/10.1088/2634-4505/ac44da>

### Manuscript version: Accepted Manuscript

Accepted Manuscript is “the version of the article accepted for publication including all changes made as a result of the peer review process, and which may also include the addition to the article by IOP Publishing of a header, an article ID, a cover sheet and/or an ‘Accepted Manuscript’ watermark, but excluding any other editing, typesetting or other changes made by IOP Publishing and/or its licensors”

This Accepted Manuscript is © 2021 The Author(s). Published by IOP Publishing Ltd.

As the Version of Record of this article is going to be / has been published on a gold open access basis under a CC BY 3.0 licence, this Accepted Manuscript is available for reuse under a CC BY 3.0 licence immediately.

Everyone is permitted to use all or part of the original content in this article, provided that they adhere to all the terms of the licence  
<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/3.0>

Although reasonable endeavours have been taken to obtain all necessary permissions from third parties to include their copyrighted content within this article, their full citation and copyright line may not be present in this Accepted Manuscript version. Before using any content from this article, please refer to the Version of Record on IOPscience once published for full citation and copyright details, as permissions may be required. All third party content is fully copyright protected and is not published on a gold open access basis under a CC BY licence, unless that is specifically stated in the figure caption in the Version of Record.

View the [article online](#) for updates and enhancements.

# Factors influencing household-level positive and negative solid waste management practices in rapidly urbanizing cities: insights from Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Bolivia

Denise P. Lozano Lazo <sup>a\*</sup>, Alexandros Gasparatos <sup>b,c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Graduate Program in Sustainability Science–Global Leadership Initiative (GPSS-GLI),

University of Tokyo, Building of Environmental Studies, 5-1-5 Kashiwanoha, Kashiwa City

277-8563, Japan. E-mail: lozano.denise@gmail.com

<sup>b</sup> Institute for Future Initiatives (IFI), University of Tokyo, 7-3-1 Hongo, 113-8654, Tokyo,

Japan. E-mail: gasparatos.alex@gmail.com

<sup>c</sup> Institute for the Advanced Study of Sustainability (UNU-IAS), United Nations University, 5-

53-70 Jingumae, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150-8925, Japan. E-mail: gasparatos.alex@gmail.com

\* Correspondence: lozano.denise@gmail.com

**Acknowledgements:** We acknowledge the institutional support of Universidad Autónoma Gabriel René Moreno for the conduction of the household survey. D.P.L.L. is supported by a Monbukagakusho scholarship offered by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) through the Graduate Program in Sustainability Science–Global Leadership Initiative (GPSS-GLI), at the University of Tokyo.

**Funding:** This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

**Ethical statement:** During the development of the research protocol, we followed best practices proposed by different organizations. All participants were provided extensive explanation about the research (and how the results would be used), oral consent was required to be part of the study, and it was clear that participants could decline to be part of the study at any point.

Furthermore, the information was anonymized in order to prevent the location of the households.

## Abstract

Household solid waste management (HSWM) practices are a critical aspect of municipal solid waste management (MSWM) systems. Despite efforts to implement source separation and recycling at the household level in developing countries, negative practices such as illegal dumping and backyard burning remain ubiquitous, particularly in rapidly urbanizing cities. Source separation and recycling behaviors have been rarely studied in such cities. Moreover, studies on illegal dumping and backyard burning using robust tools and frameworks are practically non-existent. This study aims to (a) estimate the prevalence of “negative” and “positive” behaviors for different HSWM practices, and (b) identify their observable and non-observable influencing factors. The focus is Santa Cruz, a rapidly urbanizing city of Bolivia. Household surveys (n=305) are used to establish the connections between latent constructs (e.g. awareness, satisfaction), and observable variables (e.g. location, socio-demographic characteristics) with each behavior. This is achieved through the combination of exploratory factor analysis to validate the constructs to be included in the analysis, and structural equation modeling to identify the most influential factors. Two causal models are developed, one for the positive behaviors (i.e. source separation, recyclables donation, recyclables selling, and use of drop-off facilities), and the other for the negative behaviors (i.e. illegal dumping and backyard burning). Results indicate that, satisfaction with the MSWM service has a negative and significant influence on the prevalence of illegal dumping and backyard burning behaviors, while the remoteness of the household (i.e. distance to the city center) has a positive significant effect on the prevalence of these behaviors. Source separation and recyclable donation are influenced positively by latent constructs such as attitudes, knowledge, and awareness. For recyclables

1  
2  
3 selling and use of drop-off stations, income and location are the most relevant factors, although  
4  
5 with smaller effects.  
6  
7

8 **Keywords:** illegal dumping; backyard burning; source separation; recycling; municipal solid  
9  
10 waste management; developing countries  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15

## 16 **1 Introduction**

17  
18

19 At the global level, municipal solid waste management (MSWM) has been shifting its focus  
20  
21 from managing waste to managing resources, emphasizing the importance of upstream activities  
22  
23 (e.g. waste reduction, product design) and the implementation of circular economy approaches  
24  
25 (Bartl, 2015; Wilson et al., 2015). However, this paradigm change has been challenging to  
26  
27 implement effectively in developing countries, which in most cases are still struggling with basic  
28  
29 service provision aspects such as waste collection coverage, collection quality and  
30  
31 environmentally controlled disposal (Brunner and Fellner, 2007; Guerrero et al., 2013).  
32  
33  
34  
35

36 This observed underperformance has been associated to a combination of problems in both the  
37  
38 “hard” (e.g. machinery, equipment, facilities) and “soft” elements (e.g. policies, regulation,  
39  
40 institutions) of the MSWM system (Savino et al., 2018). However, while the hard elements used  
41  
42 to be considered as the priority, the soft elements and particularly aspects related to community  
43  
44 involvement, have started gaining more attention recently (JICA, 2005; Ma and Hipel, 2016;  
45  
46 Rodić and Wilson, 2017). In this sense, many gaps have been identified in the relevant research  
47  
48 on the social dimension of MSWM systems, seeking to understand the factors affecting solid  
49  
50 waste management (SWM) individual participation, particularly related to attitudes and  
51  
52 behaviors (Ma and Hipel, 2016).  
53  
54  
55  
56

1  
2  
3 Negative household SWM practices such as backyard burning and illegal dumping are still  
4 relatively common in many developing cities (Karija and Lukaw, 2013; Tadesse et al., 2008).  
5  
6 Such practices have negative impacts on the environment and human health, generating also  
7  
8 additional costs for municipalities (Estrellan and Iino, 2010; Reyna-Bensusan et al., 2018). The  
9  
10 prevalence of backyard burning has been estimated through household surveys (Reyna-Bensusan  
11  
12 et al., 2018) and observation following transect sampling (Nagpure et al., 2015), respectively  
13  
14 providing estimates of the proportion of households engaging in backyard burning or the number  
15  
16 of incidents per area. For example, studies have estimated that the proportion of households  
17  
18 practicing backyard burning can range between 5% and 70% in urban and peri-urban areas of  
19  
20 various cities (Adzawla et al., 2019; Akpinar-Elci et al., 2015; Israel, 2010; Reyna-Bensusan et  
21  
22 al., 2018; Tadesse et al., 2008). Similar studies for illegal dumping have estimated the proportion  
23  
24 of households to range from around 4% to 46% (Adzawla et al., 2019; Babayemi and Dauda,  
25  
26 2010; Sekito et al., 2013; Sujauddin et al., 2008). However, these statistics are not comparable in  
27  
28 most cases, or might underestimate the ubiquity of these practices by considering household  
29  
30 SWM practices (e.g. discharge to collection service, container use, backyard burning, illegal  
31  
32 dumping) to be mutually exclusive, when in fact, households usually combine two or more of  
33  
34 them.  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42

43 Conversely some of the positive household SWM practices such as source separation and  
44  
45 recycling have increased in developing countries in recent decades to improve environmental  
46  
47 management. This is mainly due to the implementation of recycling programs and the emergence  
48  
49 of an informal sector dedicated to the recovery of recyclable material for income generation  
50  
51 (Majeed et al., 2017; Wilson et al., 2009). Studies have found that the proportion of households  
52  
53 engaging in source separation ranges between 17% and 76% across cities (Babayemi and Dauda,  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

2010; Padilla and Trujillo, 2018; Tadesse, 2009; Vassanadumrongdee and Kittipongvises, 2018). Other studies have found that approximately 24-61% of households can engage in recyclable selling, and 22-33% in recyclables donation (Nguyen et al., 2015; Vassanadumrongdee and Kittipongvises, 2018). Few studies have also explored the participation in drop-off recycling programs, but mostly in developed countries (Dahlén and Lagerkvist, 2010; Sidique et al., 2010).

Factors influencing separation and recycling behaviors – as a whole – have been mostly studied in industrialized countries (Amini et al., 2014; Desa et al., 2011; Mamady, 2016; Oztekin et al., 2017), however factors influencing negative behaviors such as waste burning, and dumping have not received much attention (Tadesse et al., 2008) or have focused predominantly on rural areas (Wang et al., 2018).

Studies analyzing the factors influencing either positive or negative household SWM behaviors have used different theoretical frameworks such as the List of Value (LOV) (McCarty and Shrum, 1994), the Theory of Reasoned Action (Amini et al., 2014; Park et al., 1998), the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Oztekin et al., 2017; Pakpour et al., 2014; Ramayah et al., 2012), and the “Knowledge, Attitudes, Practices” (KAP) (Babaei et al., 2015; Mamady, 2016; Tatlonghari and Jamias, 2010). Such theoretical frameworks have been directly applied or expanded with additional elements to formulate hypotheses regarding the possible latent constructs (i.e. non-observable variables) influencing recycling or source separation behaviors. However, to the best of our knowledge, no study has used such frameworks to explore negative SWM behaviors such as backyard burning and illegal waste dumping. Furthermore, most studies using these frameworks have focused on developed countries, with robust studies in developing contexts being rather scarce (Heidari et al., 2018; Vassanadumrongdee and Kittipongvises, 2018; Zhang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2016).

1  
2  
3 Some of the studies on positive and negative behaviors towards SWM practices have focused  
4 solely on observable variables such as socio-economic characteristics (e.g. household education,  
5 income, size, and distance to facilities) (Padilla and Trujillo, 2018; Tadesse et al., 2008). The  
6 most common data analysis methods in such studies have included descriptive statistics and  
7 correlations (Sekito et al., 2013), regression analysis (Padilla and Trujillo, 2018; Tadesse et al.,  
8 2008; Wang et al., 2018) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) (Loan et al., 2017; Mosler et  
9 al., 2008; Ramayah et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2017).

10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20 The aim of this study is to determine (a) the prevalence of different SWM practices at the  
21 household level, (b) identify the observable and non-observable factors influencing these  
22 practices. This includes “negative” (e.g. waste dumping and burning) and “positive” behaviors  
23 (e.g. source separation), as well as the factors influencing engagement in each type of behavior.  
24 To achieve this, we combine the Theory of Planned Behavior, Exploratory Factor Analysis  
25 (EFA) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), focusing on Santa Cruz de la Sierra, which is  
26 the largest city of Bolivia. The city is characterized by rapid/unplanned growth that has  
27 influenced negative SWM behaviors and a lack of resources/capacity that has precluded the wide  
28 implementation of sustainable SWM practices in large parts of the city (Lozano and Gasparatos,  
29 2019).

30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44 Overall, this study seeks to contribute to closing three major knowledge gaps in the current  
45 literature: (a) identify factors affecting negative solid waste management behaviors, which are  
46 quite prevalent in many developing cities, (b) provide further evidence about factors affecting  
47 positive behaviors (i.e. recycling) in developing cities, (c) comprehensively address similar but  
48 different recycling behaviors, which should be analyzed separately in order to be adequately  
49 understood. All of these are major gaps in the academic literature concerning positive and  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 negative household waste management behaviors, especially in rapidly urbanizing developing  
4 contexts.  
5  
6

7  
8 Section 2 outlines the research framework, study site, and data collection and analysis methods.  
9  
10 Section 3 presents the results about the prevalence of positive/negative behaviors (and the factors  
11 affecting them), while Section 4 synthesizes and discusses the main findings and implications for  
12 environmental management.  
13  
14  
15  
16

## 17 18 **2 Methodology**

### 19 20 21 **2.1 Research Approach**

22  
23  
24 This study combines the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) as the guiding conceptual  
25 framework to understand the aspects dictating SWM behaviors, with Structural Equation  
26 Modeling (SEM) to establish the connections between reflective indicators (i.e. latent constructs),  
27 formative indicators (i.e. observable variables) and the MSW behaviors themselves. The TPB  
28 framework is essentially the base for the research design, which is then validated and analyzed  
29 through an approach that combines Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Structural Equation  
30 Modeling (SEM). We investigate six SWM behaviors, namely backyard burning, illegal  
31 dumping, source separation, recyclables donation, recyclables selling and use of drop-off stations,  
32 all of which occur at the household level, which is considered the unit of analysis for this study.  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44

45 The TPB is one of the most utilized frameworks in behavioral studies (Zhang et al., 2016), and  
46 assumes that there are three main abstract constructs influencing behavioral intentions, namely:  
47 (a) attitudes (i.e. degree of positive or negative opinion about a given behavior), (b) subjective  
48 norms (i.e. perceived social pressure to engage or not in a given behavior), and (c) perceived  
49 behavioral control (i.e. ease or difficulty in engaging in a given behavior). The latter of these  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 abstract constructs has an additional effect in the materialization of the intention into the actual  
4 behavior (Ajzen, 1991).  
5  
6

7  
8 Various studies have applied the TPB framework in the waste management field and have had  
9 mixed outcomes. For example some studies have successfully identified relevant factors  
10 influencing source separation and recycling practices at the household level (Oztekin et al., 2017;  
11 Pakpour et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2017), while others could not establish the  
12 hypothesized connections (Wu et al., 2017) or established a weak influence (Knussen et al.,  
13 2004; Tonglet et al., 2004). Studies have addressed some of the limitations of the TPB,  
14 suggesting possible reasons for the failing to establish the significant influence of some  
15 constructs, and the need to consider additional variables when explaining the behaviors (Soltani  
16 et al., 2015; Stoeva and Alriksson, 2017).  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28

29  
30 Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) has been one of the preferred analytical techniques to deal  
31 with abstract constructs, due to its capacity to model complex interactions between multiple  
32 dependent and independent variables in more powerful ways compared to conventional  
33 regression analysis (Rahman et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015). SEM consists of two stages: a  
34 measurement model and a structural model. The measurement model, also referred to as  
35 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA), tests the validity of the indicators (i.e. items/questions)  
36 that are expected to reflect a latent abstract construct. Following the measurement model, the  
37 structural model is used to estimate the effects of constructs and observed variables on the  
38 dependent variables of the model in a similar manner to multivariate analysis techniques  
39 (Schumacker and Lomax, 2016; Wu et al., 2017).  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 When using SEM in factor analysis studies, it has been suggested testing the measurement  
4 validity of new data capturing instruments (i.e. questionnaires) or even existing instruments  
5 when applied in new contexts (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Mardani et al., 2017). This validation  
6 process can be performed through an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), which is carried out  
7 prior to the SEM (Rahman et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016). The EFA seeks to identify latent  
8 structures by “grouping” similar items through iterative statistical processes, which would  
9 become the groups that are subsequently included in the SEM. During this process those items  
10 considered to not be sufficiently related to the various latent constructs, are discarded in order to  
11 have a “cleaner” dataset for the SEM analysis (Nikolaou et al., 2020).  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23

24 In this study, we investigate two negative SWM behaviors: (a) backyard burning, and (b) illegal  
25 dumping. The backyard burning behavior refers to the act of burning any type of waste generated  
26 by the household, whether it occurs inside the dwelling or outside (e.g. on the curbside). For this  
27 study, “illegal dumping” will refer to the act of taking any type of household waste to any place  
28 that is not the household curbside or waste deposit, where it is collected by a waste collection  
29 service (depending on the geographical context). Common types of household waste illegal  
30 dumping include discharging the waste to other neighbors’ waste containers (Guitard, 2015),  
31 abandoned fields (Boadi and Kuitunen, 2003; Buenrostro et al., 2001), green spaces (Girma et al.,  
32 2019), or water canals (Boadi and Kuitunen, 2003; Zapata Campos and Zapata, 2013).  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46 The positive SWM behaviors investigated in this paper include (a) source separation, (b)  
47 recyclables donation, (c) recyclables selling, and (d) recyclables drop-off. “Source separation”  
48 refers to the act of separating at least some types of materials from the waste, regardless of the  
49 posterior use of this material. Households can engage in this behavior to use the materials  
50 themselves, to deliver the recyclable materials to the separate collection service, to donate the  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 material to stakeholders that can process it (e.g. informal waste pickers) or just to deliver it in  
4 separate bags to the regular collection service. In this sense, households engaging in “recyclables  
5 donation” purposefully give away the recyclable material to any stakeholder engaging in waste  
6 recovery activities. “Recyclables selling” refers to those households engaging in the separation  
7 of recyclables from their waste, as a means of generating household income. Households that  
8 “use drop-off stations” essentially give away their recyclables in any of the drop-off stations  
9 existing in the city.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18

## 19 20 **2.2 Study site**

21  
22  
23 Santa Cruz de la Sierra (hereinafter called Santa Cruz) is the largest city in Bolivia, and its  
24 economic center. After being a small town for centuries, with a population below 50,000 until  
25 the 1950s, due fossil fuels exploitation and commercial agriculture, the city received an  
26 important inflow of foreign and domestic migrants, surpassing the 1 million inhabitants before  
27 the end of the 90s decade (UNDP, 2015). Currently, the city has an approximate population of  
28 1.7 million inhabitants in the city (INE, 2012) and around 2.3 million including neighboring  
29 urban areas of the metropolitan region (Canedo Velasco, 2018; Suarez Subirana, 2018).  
30 Similarly, the area of the city increased from 47 km<sup>2</sup> in 1969 (Mazoni, 2005), to 428 km<sup>2</sup> in  
31 2018 (Suarez Subirana, 2018). This rapid growth was mostly unplanned, leading to the deficient  
32 provision of public services in the outskirts of the city (Lozano Lazo and Gasparatos, 2019).  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44

45  
46 Waste burning and dumping practices in the city have not been quantified properly, except for  
47 some modest attempts through a couple of questions included in the national census and relevant  
48 surveys. However, according to the public perception both practices have intensified in the past  
49 years. This has generated public criticism and calls for the municipality to implement emergency  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55

1  
2  
3 collection activities, as a means of eliminating illegal dumpsters and establish sanctions for waste  
4 burning. However, the effective implementation of these sanctions is questionable, due to the  
5 limited regulation enforcement capacities of the local government (Lozano Lazo and Gasparatos,  
6 2019).  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11

12  
13 Source separation has been formally implemented in Santa Cruz in the past only as pilot  
14 programs with limited duration. In the last few years, it has also been implemented through a  
15 separate collection service in specific neighborhoods of the city, which collects only the  
16 recyclable material. However, even within the limited scope of these programs, various  
17 stakeholders have questioned their effectiveness. Conversely, a large number of informal waste  
18 pickers operate in the city, independently or in small associations, using recyclables collection  
19 from the unsorted waste to generate income. Additionally, the municipality has implemented two  
20 “eco-points” or “eco-stations” in the city, where residents can drop-off the recyclable materials  
21 on their own (Lozano Lazo and Gasparatos, 2019).  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33

## 34 **2.3 Data Collection**

### 35 **2.3.1 Survey design**

36  
37  
38 The questionnaire seeking to capture positive/negative SWM behaviors and the factors affecting  
39 them was designed based on a literature review of similar studies (Section 1), the constituents of  
40 the TPB framework (see below), and the researchers’ knowledge of the local context. Due to the  
41 possible limitations of TPB (Section 2.1), we included items for measuring additional constructs  
42 related to knowledge, satisfaction, and habits (Table S1, Supplementary Electronic Material), as  
43 well as observable variables related to socio-economic aspects of the household and  
44 characteristics of the neighborhood.  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55

1  
2  
3 It is expected that the positive (i.e. source separation, recycling, use of drop-off facilities) and  
4 negative behaviors (i.e. dumping, burning) would be affected by common factors. For this reason,  
5 we conducted the analysis separately for these two groups of behaviors (Section 2.4): (a) Group  
6 1 (Negative Behaviors), (b) Group 2 (Positive Behaviors).  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11

12 The variables related to the latent constructs were measured through a 6-point Likert type scale  
13 (range from 1 = “Strongly disagree” to 6 = “Strongly agree”), with the exception of six items  
14 relating to knowledge and attitudes. For these six items it is more sensible to use a dichotomous  
15 scale (i.e. Yes/No). Although enumerators were instructed to avoid its use as much as possible,  
16 an option of “No Response/Non applicable” was contemplated in case it was needed during the  
17 application of the questionnaire.  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25

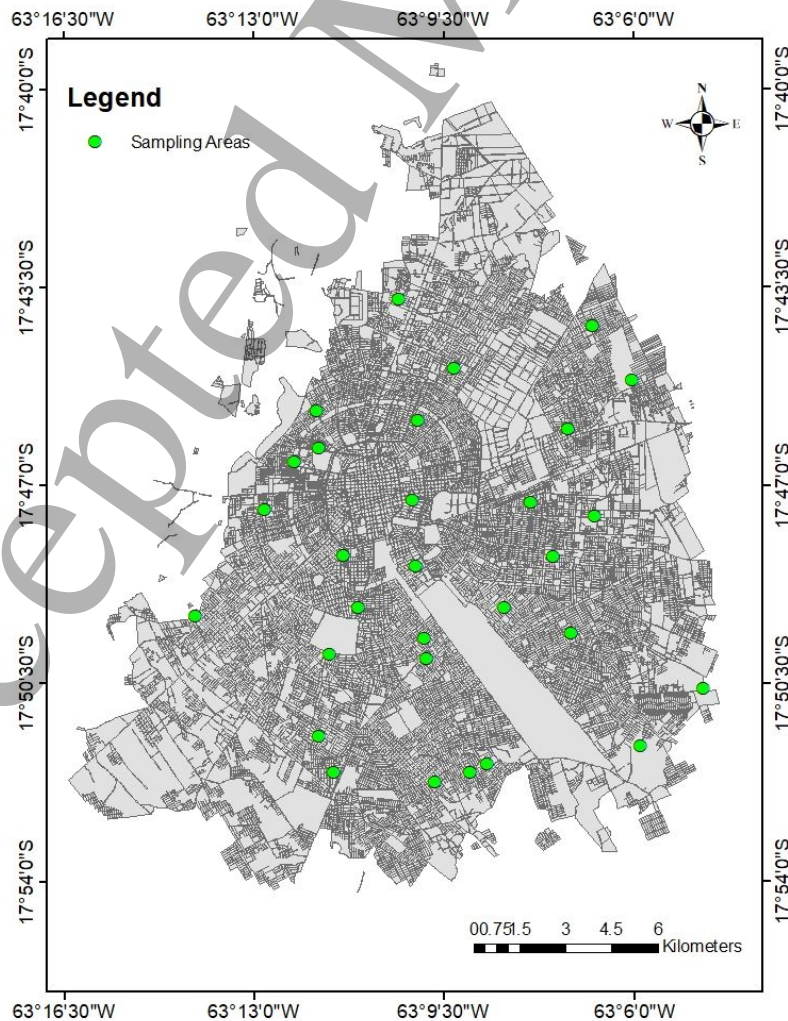
### 26 **2.3.2 Sampling**

27  
28 As outlined in multiple other studies, it is expected that further to the latent constructs, the SWM  
29 behaviors are influenced by observable factors such as socio-economic (e.g. education, income)  
30 and geographical characteristics (e.g. household location, neighborhood characteristics) (Chung  
31 and Lo, 2004; Struk, 2017; Tadesse et al., 2008). As a result, when conducting such studies, it is  
32 important to adopt a sampling approach that allows for a high degree of randomization and  
33 geographical representation, in order to avoid potential biases.  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44

45 In this study we adopt a systematic sampling consisting of (a) 30 randomly generated points  
46 throughout the city (through ArcGIS), and (b) at least 10 households per point randomly selected  
47 through a systematic rule (Figure 1). Following this approach, a total of 348 households were  
48 surveyed between August and September 2019 by trained enumerators using tablets to capture  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 the data. In each household, the household head or spouse were the preferred respondent,  
4 although other adult members with knowledge about SWM practices were also accepted.  
5  
6

7  
8 Thirty-eight respondents did not accept to participate in the survey or argued lack of sufficient  
9 knowledge about the household SWM practices. Following data screening, five households were  
10 discarded due to a high proportion of unanswered questions, resulting in a final sample of 305  
11 households with valid answers. This sample size is considered to be appropriate for the EFA-  
12 SEM methodological approach (Section 2.3.3), which is usually estimated to be above 200  
13 participants (Weston & Gore, 2006) or at least 5 subjects per variable (Musil, Jones, & Warner,  
14 1998).  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29



1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24 Figure 1. Locations of sampling areas across Santa Cruz de la Sierra  
25

## 26 **2.4 Data Analysis**

27  
28  
29 During the data screening, each item was checked to confirm the level of missing data, which  
30 was below 5% for more than 90% of the items. For the remaining 10% of items, the missing data  
31 was below 30%, which is considered common in behavioral studies (Dong and Peng, 2013). For  
32 the factor analysis, it has been suggested that if less than 30% of data is missing, there is no need  
33 for the use of advanced imputation methods such as linear trends (Chen et al., 2012; Dong and  
34 Peng, 2013; Enders, 2003). Therefore, in this study we follow a simpler approach, which entails  
35 the substitution of missing values in the dataset with (a) the sample mean for continuous  
36 variables, and (b) sample median for categorical and dichotomous variables (Huang and Zhu,  
37 2002; Jönsson and Wohlin, 2006).  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49

50  
51 As mentioned in Section 2.1, the EFA is used to confirm the validity of the measurement  
52 instrument and, if necessary, discard those items that might not be adequately reflecting the  
53  
54  
55

1  
2  
3 latent constructs. In order to achieve that, we analyze separately the items for each group of  
4 behaviors (Section 2.3.1) in SPSS, using the factor analysis tool. The Principal Axis Factoring is  
5 used as the extraction method, as it is one of the most widely used such methods (Hinkin, 1998),  
6 due its flexibility for application in any type of sample distribution and the lower probability of  
7 producing distorted results in case of non-normality (Fabrigar et al., 1999). Varimax is the  
8 adopted rotation method, which is the preferred type of rotation in applied social sciences  
9 research, due to its simplicity for the interpretation of the results (Brown, 2015; Fabrigar et al.,  
10 1999).

11  
12 The process to determine the factors is iterative, providing a number of factors (latent constructs)  
13 after each iteration, and classifying each item ideally in only one factor. Each item presents a  
14 “loading factor” (which should be  $>0.3$  or  $>0.4$  depending on the literature), representing the  
15 “correlation strength” with the factor (Brown, 2015; Watkins, 2018). Additionally, overall  
16 indicators of adequacy such as  $KMO > 0.5$  suggest that the factor analysis is suitable for all the  
17 items included (Nikolaou et al., 2020). Variables below the cut-off value should be removed  
18 from the analysis, and the number of factors should be adjusted accordingly before starting a new  
19 iteration. This procedure is continued until all of the variables included in each factor are above  
20 the cut-off value (Brown, 2015; Hinkin, 1998). Once the final factor structure is achieved, then  
21 the internal reliability is validated. In this study we use the Cronbach’s Alpha test as the  
22 validation test, which according to literature should result in values ideally  $>0.7$  (Bonett and  
23 Wright, 2015; Stoeva and Alriksson, 2017). Dependent variables such as intention and behavior  
24 were analyzed separately due to the possibility of results’ distortion, considering the expected  
25 strong relation between items measuring these variables with influencing factors (Brown, 2015).



1  
2  
3 During the EFA analysis, it was found that the measurement instrument did not reflect  
4 completely and adequately all of the TPB constructs for either of the two groups of behaviors.  
5  
6  
7 For this reason, there was a need to modify the original approach in order to use factors that  
8 reflect more appropriately the empirical outcome of the EFA (see (Helfrich et al., 2007; Ruslan  
9 et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2011) for similar modifications). Additionally,  
10 considering that the recyclables donation, recyclables selling, and use of drop-off facilities  
11 behaviors were detached from the separation behavior, and that each of them is only measured  
12 by one item, they were not considered for the first stage of SEM. Thus, they are just included  
13 directly in the second part (see below).  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23

24 Following the constructs measurements validation through the EFA, the SEM analysis is done to  
25 estimate the effect of the reflective indicators (i.e. latent constructs), and formative indicators (i.e.  
26 observable variables) on behaviors. The first part of SEM consists of the measurement model  
27 (Section 2.1) and serves to confirm the results obtained in the previous step through the use of  
28 more advanced statistical tools. For this analysis, the data from SPSS is directly imported to the  
29 AMOS module. During this stage, various indices are estimated to confirm the model fit,  
30 convergent validity, and composite reliability for both groups (Tables S3-S4, Supplementary  
31 Electronic Material).  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42

43 For the second part of the SEM, we create a causal model that includes the latent variables and  
44 the observable variables in order to test possible influences in the behavior variables previously  
45 mentioned. Table 1 shows the observable variables included in this last step. For each variable  
46 we establish the hypothesized influences in the model, which is then run to estimate the  
47 standardized coefficients for each of the variables and verify the model fitness indices. As long  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

as acceptable fitness is not achieved, the non-significant paths are deleted, and ultimately the variables that do not have any significant path (Gallagher et al., 2008; Weston and Gore, 2006).

Table 1: Observable variables

Variable	Description	Group 1	Group 2
Income per capita	Monthly per capita income (BOB/person)	✓	✓
Household head education	Number of years of education of the household head (Years)	✓	✓
Distance to the city center	Concentric ring location of the household (dummy values from 1 to 9)	✓	✓
Stray animals prevalence	Prevalence of stray animals in the neighborhood [1= No stray animals observed, 2 = Some stray animals observed (1-3 daily); 3= Many stray animals observed (>3 daily)]	✓	
Collection frequency	Number of days per week that the collection truck passes by the neighborhood (Days)	✓	
Household collection service	Door-to-door waste collection (1=Yes; 0=No)	✓	
Separate Collection	Separate waste collection service in the neighborhood (1=Yes; 0=No)		✓
Waste pickers frequency	Frequency of wastepickers visits in the neighborhood (1 =Never; 2=Every 2 months; 3=Once per month; 4=Once per week; 5=Few times per week; 6=Many times per week)		✓

### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Sample characteristics

Most of the respondents are women and household heads (Table S2, Supplementary Material). The education level of the household head reflects the generally low education levels in Santa Cruz (INE, 2013), with approximately 40% of respondents not having finished high school. Income per capita is quite low, with at least 66% of households reporting below 1800 BOB/capita, which is lower than the national minimum wage (2122 BOB = ~300USD). However, income was the socio-economic variable with the highest rate of not answer (19%), presumably due to suspicions over the use of this information, as is common in the context of developing countries (Hoang et al., 2017; Parizeau et al., 2006).

Figure 2a) displays some of the most relevant neighborhood characteristics. According to the results, 67% of the households are located in a paved street, 96% of the households have a waste collection service in the neighborhood, and 18% have the separate collection service in the neighborhood. Approximately 46% of the households have some type of waste container in their curbside, with the rest of the households depositing it directly on the ground. Furthermore 72% of the households mentioned that waste pickers regularly visit their neighborhood.

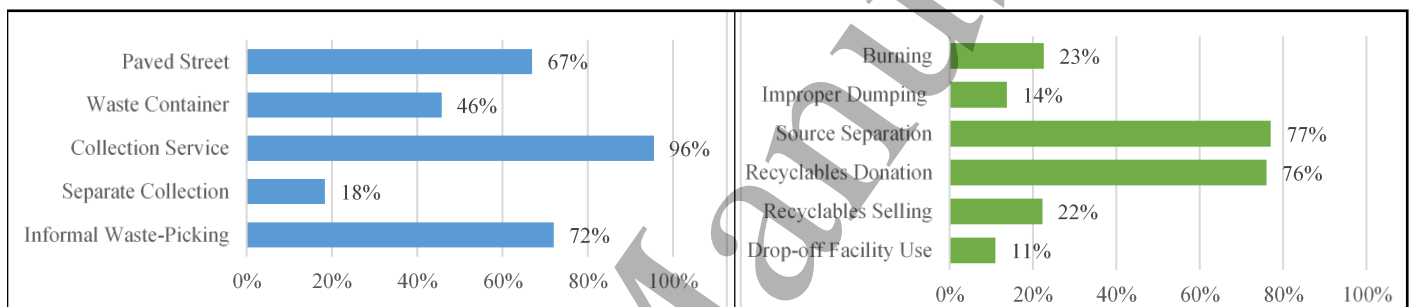


Figure 2: General neighborhood characteristics (a), and prevalence of waste management practices (b)

In terms of the investigated negative SWM behaviors (Figure 2b), 23% engage in waste burning and 14% in inappropriate dumping practices, to some extent. In terms of positive behaviors, approximately 77% of the households conduct some type of waste separation, 76% donate some of the materials recovered to other stakeholders (that re-use it or commercialize it in the recyclable market), 11% use a recyclables drop-off facility, and 22% sell the recyclables they gathered from their own waste.

### 3.2 Latent constructs in solid waste management behaviors

Table 2 contains the factors identified after the EFA for both positive and negative behaviors. In the case of negative behaviors (i.e. backyard burning, inappropriate dumping), five factors were

1  
2  
3 identified, and the Chronbach's Alpha test conducted for each construct. The results are within  
4 the recommended value of  $>0.7$  (Section 2.4), which suggests satisfactory internal reliability for  
5 all constructs.  
6  
7  
8

9  
10 Based on the items included in each factor, the factors are denominated as "general awareness",  
11 "general satisfaction", "dumping impact awareness" and "burning impacts awareness". General  
12 awareness refers to the knowledge and perception of the importance of good SWM practices, and  
13 the possible impacts of inadequate practices. General satisfaction refers to the satisfaction with  
14 the various aspects of the municipal waste management service in the city, and particularly for  
15 the collection service. Dumping impacts awareness and burning impact awareness refer to the  
16 knowledge and perception of the possible impacts of dumping practices and burning practices,  
17 respectively. The burning behaviors and dumping behaviors are factored together (but separately  
18 from other constructs) and are analyzed separately following the results of EFA.  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29

30  
31 Regarding the factors tested for positive SWM behaviors, eight factors were identified after the  
32 EFA. General awareness refers to the knowledge and perception of the importance of source  
33 separation and recycling in various positive impacts. General satisfaction has a similar definition  
34 to the one used above for negative behaviors, but here we also include satisfaction with recycling  
35 initiatives. Local context knowledge refers to the knowledge about existing activities related to  
36 formal and informal recycling. Satisfaction with the education and communication of waste  
37 management services includes items such as the communication of changes in collection service,  
38 and satisfaction with educational campaigns on SWM conducted either by the municipality or  
39 the private cleansing company. Attitude refers to positive or negative perceptions/feelings  
40 associated to the behavior itself. Facilities knowledge and concrete knowledge refer to the  
41 specific knowledge required to use the drop-off facilities and conduct the source separation,  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

respectively. Separation intention refers to the willingness to engage in the respective behavior in the future, regardless of the current behavior. Each behavior is measured through only one item, in which case the factor loading and Cronbach's alpha are not applicable.

As Table 2 shows, constructs related to attitudes and knowledge about facilities are slightly below the recommended cut-off values for the reliability test (0.59) (Section 2.4). However, it was decided to include them to further explore their influence during the next stage of the analysis. This is because the literature highlights that there is no universal acceptable minimum value for Cronbach's alpha, with researchers judging the pertinence of allowing values as low as 0.5, particularly for exploratory research (Bonett and Wright, 2015; Brown, 2015; Gallagher et al., 2008).

Table 2: Constructs for behaviors after the EFA

Group	Item	Factor Loading	$\alpha$
	<b>General Awareness</b>		0.81
	Inadequate SWM practices cause pollution	0.84	
	Inadequate SWM practices cause health problems	0.87	
	Importance to take out the garbage only in the designated days and times	0.52	
	<b>General Satisfaction</b>		0.76
	Satisfaction with collection frequency	0.80	
	Satisfaction with SWM infrastructure	0.77	
	Satisfaction with SWM quality	0.56	
	General satisfaction with the SWM in the city	0.51	
	<b>Dumping Impacts Awareness</b>		0.78
<b>Group 1 –</b>	Illegal dumping practices affects neighborhood's aesthetics	0.73	
<b>Negative</b>	Illegal dumping practices contribute to urban flooding	0.64	
	Illegal dumping practices contributes to pollution	0.78	
<b>Behaviors</b>	<b>Burning Impacts Awareness</b>		0.75
	Backyard burning contributes to pollution	0.66	
	Backyard burning can cause health problems	0.84	
	<b>Satisfaction with Education and Communication</b>		0.85
	Satisfaction with received education about SWM activities	0.91	
	Satisfaction with communication about SWM activities	0.65	
	<b>Burning Behavior</b>		0.86
	Household engages in waste burning practices	0.95	
	Household has burnt waste frequently this year	0.90	
	Household has traditionally engaged in waste burning practices	0.59	
	<b>Dumping Behavior</b>		0.81
	Household engages in illegal dumping practices	0.94	

	Household has dumped waste frequently this year	0.96	
	Household has traditionally engaged in waste dumping practices	0.43	
	<b>General Awareness</b>		0.85
	Source separation improves wastepickers' working conditions	0.69	
	Source separation can reduce pollution	0.91	
	Source separation reduces the amount of waste landfilled	0.89	
	Recycling is important	0.50	
	<b>General Satisfaction</b>		0.78
	Satisfaction with collection frequency	0.78	
	Satisfaction with SWM infrastructure	0.74	
	Satisfaction with SWM quality	0.56	
	Satisfaction with formal recycling initiatives	0.51	
	General Satisfaction with SWM in the city	0.61	
	<b>Local Context Knowledge</b>		0.78
	Knowledge about existence of recycling industry in the city	0.61	
	Knowledge about existence of informal waste picking sector in the city	0.97	
	<b>Educ. and Comm. Satisfaction</b>		0.75
	Satisfaction with education about SWM received	0.75	
	Satisfaction with communication about SWM activities	0.70	
	<b>Attitude</b>		0.59
	Ease to carry out source separation	0.38	
	Time to carry out source separation (R)	0.44	
	Source separation is a waste of time (R)	0.45	
	Family thinks source separation is not necessary (R)	0.56	
	Family does not care much about recycling (R)	0.48	
	<b>Facilities Knowledge</b>		0.59
<b>Group 2 –</b>	Knowledge about recyclables dropping point existence in the city	0.95	
	Knowledge about materials accepted in dropping points	0.49	
<b>Positive</b>	<b>Concrete Knowledge</b>		0.72
	General knowledge about waste types (organic/inorganic)	0.74	
<b>Behaviors</b>	Knowledge about materials that can be recycled	0.64	
	<b>Separation Intention</b>		0.90
	Willingness to carry out full source separation	0.89	
	Willingness to separate at least some recyclable materials	0.92	
	<b>Separation Behavior</b>		0.73
	Household engages in source separation practice	0.76	
	Household has never engaged in source separation (R)	0.76	
	<b>Recyclables Donation Behavior</b>		NA
	I usually give away recyclable material	NA	
	<b>Recyclables Selling Behavior</b>		NA
	I usually sell recyclable material	NA	
	<b>Use of Drop-off Facilities Behavior</b>		NA
	I usually take recyclable material to the drop-off facilities	NA	

Note: (R) = Reversed Scale; NA = Non Applicable

After the EFA, the CFA was run in AMOS software (Section 2.4). In the positive behaviors model, the factors related to attitudes and knowledge about facilities, continued to interfere with the model fitness. For this reason, we discard the entire factor related to the knowledge of facilities, and one item from the attitudes factor. Following these changes, the fitness of both the

1  
2  
3 positive behavior model and the negative behaviors model (which did not require modifications)  
4 was judged to be good across multiple indices (Table S3, Supplementary Electronic Material).  
5  
6

7  
8 Besides the model fit, the literature also recommends testing the composite reliability (CR), as  
9 well as the convergent validity through the average variance extracted (AVE) of all model  
10 constructs (Raykov and Grayson, 2003; Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2015). The former  
11 relates to the internal consistency of constructs, with values  $>0.6$  considered acceptable (Bagozzi  
12 and Yi, 1988; Wang et al., 2016), while the latter refers to the amount of variation explained by  
13 the model, with recommended values  $>0.5$ , although values as low as 0.4 have been accepted if  
14 good reliability indexes exist (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Thus, this test  
15 present acceptable results for all the constructs, except for “Attitude”, which displays an AVE of  
16 only 0.25 (Table S4, Supplementary Electronic Material).  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29

### 30 **3.3 Factors affecting waste management behaviors**

31  
32 The second part of the SEM identifies the factors affecting the behaviors, by adding the selected  
33 observable variables to the latent constructs and making the necessary changes to run the causal  
34 model (Section 2.4). During this process, the constructs models for the negative behavior  
35 remained unchanged, while for the positive behavior we dropped the separation intention for not  
36 presenting any significant path. Dropping this construct contributed to the improvement of the  
37 model fitness (Table 4). The graphical representation of both models can be found in Figure S1,  
38 in the Supplementary Electronic Material.  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48

49 The latent construct that affects the most burning and dumping behaviors is the satisfaction with  
50 SWM services in the city (Table 3). However, for waste burning, observable variables such as  
51 the education of the household head and the location of the household play more important roles.  
52  
53  
54  
55

For the waste dumping practices, some constructs such as the impact awareness, and the satisfaction with education and communication – and the observable variable related to the collection frequency – seem to have counterintuitive effects, displaying a small but positive and significant influence on the dumping behavior. While there is no clear explanation for these results, in the case of the satisfaction with education and communication, this could imply that people that engage more on dumping practices have lower expectations regarding education and communication activities, leading to higher satisfaction levels. Regarding the collection frequency, its positive effect on dumping could be related to a vicious cycle occurring from implementation of additional collection rounds in areas with significant dumping levels (pers. commun.: Project Officer, Empresa Municipal de Aseo Urbano Santa Cruz). In these cases, additional rounds do not always reach all households but rather focus on collecting dumped waste in specific areas of the neighborhood, which would encourage households to continue dumping in these areas instead of waiting for the door to door collection.

The latent constructs that seem to play the most important role for the positive behaviors are concrete knowledge (for separation) and attitudes (for the separation and recyclables donation). However, these results should be considered carefully, given the issues presented in the attitudes factor during previous stages of the analysis. For the recyclables selling and use of drop-off stations, it is observable variables such as income and location that are more important, although with smaller effects in both cases.

Table 3: Effects on behaviors in causal model

Group	Outcome	Predictor	Estimate	Sig.
Group 1 – Negative	Backyard	Distance to city center	0.358	***
		Household head education	-0.12	*
Negative	Burning	General Satisfaction	-0.114	†
		Educ. and Comm. Satisfaction	0.085	



		Household collection service	-0.072	
		Income per capita	-0.067	
		Collection frequency	0.061	
		Burning Impacts Awareness	-0.001	
		General Awareness	-0.01	
		General Satisfaction	-0.333	***
		Distance city center	0.255	***
		Dumping Impacts Awareness	0.197	***
		Collection frequency	0.151	**
	Illegal Dumping	Educ. and Comm. Satisfaction	0.135	*
		General Awareness	-0.119	†
		Household head education	-0.077	
		Household collection service	-0.067	
		Stray animals prevalence	-0.053	
		Income per capita	-0.036	
		Concrete Knowledge	0.568	***
		Attitude	0.566	***
		Local Context Knowledge	0.329	***
	Separation	General Awareness	0.195	***
		General Satisfaction	0.116	***
	Behavior	Distance city center	0.017	
		Separate Collection	0.011	
		Educ. and Comm. Satisfaction	-0.059	***
		Income per capita	-0.012	
		Waste pickers frequency	-0.006	
		Attitude	0.357	***
		General Awareness	0.216	***
	Recyclables	Local Context Knowledge	0.143	**
		Waste pickers frequency	0.141	**
	Donation	Educ. and Comm. Satisfaction	0.079	
		Satisfaction	-0.078	
		Distance city center	-0.057	
		Separate Collection	0.054	
	Recyclables	Distance city center	0.162	**
		Income per capita	-0.137	*
	Selling	Waste pickers frequency	-0.089	
		Separate Collection	0.081	
		Attitude	-0.066	
		Educ. and Comm. Satisfaction	0.169	**
	Use of drop-off	Waste pickers frequency	-0.118	*
		Distance city center	0.112	†
	station	Attitude	0.11	†
		Income per capita	0.097	†
		Local Context Knowledge	-0.072	

Note: \*\*\* p<0.001; \*\* p<0.01; \* p<0.05; † p<0.1

Table 4 displays the model fit statistics for both positive and negative behaviors, with a good fit in both cases. It includes the various statistical tests used to assess the model fitness, and their comparison with minimum recommended values from the literature. The Standardized Root Mean Square (SRMR) represents a summary of the difference between the observed data and the

model, with smaller values indicating better fit. The Root Mean Square of Error Approximation (RMSEA) reflects the model's complexity, meaning that when different models explain the observed data equally well, a simpler model will have a better RMSEA value (Weston and Gore, 2006). While a RMSEA of 0.08–0.1 is considered acceptable, values of 0.06 or less suggest good fit (Brown, 2015). The Probability of Close Fit (PCLOSE) represents RMSEA's p-value.  $\chi^2/df$ , and the Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), and Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI) are measures of absolute fitness, indicating how well the model fits the data. While  $\chi^2/df$  has been criticized by being excessively affected by sample size, the GFI and AGFI are considered to be less sensitive to this aspect (Gallagher et al., 2008). The Normed Fit Index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and Comparative Fit Index (CFI) assess the model in comparison to a baseline or “null” model. While sample size affects the first, the others perform rather well even with small samples (Gallagher et al., 2008; Weston and Gore, 2006).

Table 4: Fit statistics for the causal model

Fit Statistics	Description	Value	Recommended fit	Negative Behaviors Model	Positive Behaviors Model
			Reference		
$\chi^2/df$	Minimum Discrepancy	<3.0	(Gallagher et al., 2008)	1.04	1.61
RMSEA	Root Mean Square of Error Approximation	< 0.06	(Brown, 2015)	0.01	0.05
PCLOSE	Probability of Close Fit	>0.5	(Brown, 2015)	0.66	0.58
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index	>0.9	(Weston and Gore, 2006)	1.00	0.99
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Square	0.0 - 1.0	(Brown, 2015; Weston and Gore, 2006)	0.01	0.02
AGFI	Adjusted Goodness of Fit	>0.85	(Gallagher et al., 2008)	0.95	0.92
CFI	Comparative Fit Index	>0.9	(Brown, 2015; Gallagher et al., 2008)	1.00	0.99
TLI	Tucker-Lewis Index	>0.9	(Brown, 2015; Gallagher et al., 2008)	1.00	0.96
NFI	Normed Fit Index	>0.9	(Gallagher et al., 2008)	1.00	0.98

## 4 Discussion

#### 4.1 Applicability of theory of planned behavior for household waste management practices

Our study identified the factors influencing various positive and negative behaviors related to household SWM in Santa Cruz, Bolivia. We used the TPB framework as the basis of the questionnaire design and analysis, but mindful of its limitations we took various precautions to adapt it, and better explain the empirical results, both in the questionnaire design and the EFA (Section 2.1).

The EFA found that items related to subjective norms and perceived behavioral control were not reflecting adequately the constructs in either of the two models (Group 1 and Group 2), resulting in their complete removal or integration into other constructs. Attitudes and intention constructs were also discarded during this stage in the model for Group 1 (Section 3.2), while in the case of Group 2 the intention construct was discarded during the SEM stage, remaining only the attitudes construct (Section 3.3).

The failure of one or more of the TPB constructs to predict behaviors has been discussed in multiple studies (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Knussen, Yule, MacKenzie, & Wells, 2004; Sniehotta, Presseau, & Araújo-Soares, 2014; Wu, Yu, & Shen, 2017). For example, Wu, Yu & Sen (2017) used the TPB as the basis for a theoretical model to investigate the determinants of construction waste dumping in China. Similar to our results, the SEM process conducted in their study rendered a final model that did not include any of the TPB constructs initially theorized, which was attributed to issues in applying the framework to explain the “collective behavior” (instead of an individual behavior) of construction companies. Similarly, Knusen et al (2004) found that subjective norms did not influence recycling behaviors in Scotland. Similar to other

1  
2  
3 scholars they have attributed this to issues in understanding the ways in which respondents  
4 identify themselves with the normative groups (i.e. family, neighbors, colleagues) in the context  
5 of the study (Armitage and Conner, 2001; Knussen et al., 2004; Terry et al., 1999). Furthermore,  
6 they suggested that in contexts where the norms that are supposed to influence the behavior are  
7 not sufficiently established within the normative groups, then the pressures to engage in a given  
8 behavior are not strong enough to account for any effect (Knussen et al., 2004).  
9

10  
11 When it comes to the perceived behavioral control construct some studies have found that it has  
12 an insignificant effect on behaviors, attributing this to (a) issues related to the construct's  
13 measurement or (b) the behavior's characteristics and context (Davies, Foxall, & Pallister, 2002;  
14 Tonglet, Phillips, & Read, 2004; Warner & Åberg, 2006; Zhou, Romero, & Qin, 2016). For  
15 instance, Tonglet et al (2004) and Davies et al (2002) investigated the determinants of recycling  
16 behavior in UK, attributing the differences in the accounted effects to the choice of using  
17 "perceived control variables" (e.g. ease, opportunity) or "facilitating/inhibiting variables" (e.g.  
18 knowledge, resources) to measure this construct, with the latter being the preferred option  
19 according to their research. Conversely, studies have pointed to characteristics of the practice  
20 that would make the "control" aspect irrelevant in the act of engaging in the behavior, as possible  
21 reasons for the insignificant effect of the construct (e.g. people living in areas with long-standing  
22 recycling schemes in the determination of recycling behavior; able-bodied people in the  
23 determination of pedestrian crossing violation behavior) (Tonglet et al., 2004; Zhou et al., 2016).  
24

25  
26 Davies et al (2002) suggest eliminating the intention construct, arguing that it is not a significant  
27 predictor (in the case of recycling behavior), but rather a mere indication of support to the  
28 practice. Instead, they suggest including other constructs such as "affective evaluation", and  
29 finding ways to measure behavior choices between different alternatives within the framework.  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Other scholars assessing the overall validity and utility of the construct (in any field) share  
4 similar concerns by highlighting issues of (a) “inclined abstention” where individuals who form  
5 an intention actually fail to act accordingly (Sniehotta et al., 2014), and (b) a failure of the  
6 measures to reflect the construct properly when participants suspect the way in which they are  
7 supposed to respond according to the framework, and fall into inconsistencies (Trafimow, 2015).  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15 The latter issue has also been discussed for the attitudes construct (Trafimow, 2015)  
16

17  
18 The multiple issues discussed above could have influenced the results of our study in Santa Cruz.  
19  
20 Currently, the city lacks comprehensive approaches to address illegal dumping and backyard  
21 burning, although the local government has attempted to implement punitive initiatives in the  
22 past. In this sense, for the case of subjective norms for negative behaviors, participants might  
23 have feared possible sanctions for them or their normative groups (i.e. family, friends, neighbors),  
24 leading to inconsistent answers. Indeed, during the data collection activities we identified that  
25 some respondents seemed to be distrustful and reluctant to reply, possibly due to this fear  
26 (Section 2.2). These issues have been observed in other studies dealing with negative behaviors  
27 such as texting while driving, and excessive food waste generation (Bazargan-Hejazi et al., 2017;  
28 Visschers, Wickli, & Siegrist, 2016), and this is possibly reflected by the fact that some of the  
29 items related to subjective norms for negative behaviors have the largest proportion of missing  
30 data (Section 2.4).  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46 Conversely, positive behaviors such as source separation and all types of recycling are still not  
47 included in formal policies or programs in Santa Cruz (Lozano and Gasparatos, 2019) (Section  
48 2.2). Thus, while some respondents might be aware of their importance, these SWM practices are  
49 probably not normally discussed within their normative groups, further contributing to  
50 inconsistent replies among respondents on the perceptions of these groups.  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 It is also worth discussing the specific issues regarding the perceived behavioral control  
4 construct in our study. Earlier in this section, we described how issues related to the construct's  
5 measurement and the behavior's characteristics have led to insignificant effects in other studies.  
6  
7 In our study, and particularly for negative behaviors, the expected "control" over them might not  
8 have been clear enough for participants. For instance, one of our questions for this construct  
9  
10 addressed the "ease/difficulty to take out the garbage bags only during the designated days and  
11 times" (Table S1, Supplementary Material). However, if the local MSWM system does not  
12 provide the sufficient information to guarantee that the waste collection schedule is clear to the  
13 households, this could have contributed to inconsistencies in the answers. Conversely, for  
14 positive behaviors, the EFA demonstrated that the questions reflected the construct appropriately,  
15 but suggested to divide it into a few subcomponents. For this reason, we decided to substitute the  
16 "perceived behavioral control" by a few constructs related to different types of "knowledge"  
17 (Table 2).  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32

33 Overall, in our study the negative behaviors model was more challenging in terms of  
34 applicability of the TPB framework compared to the positive behavior model. As mentioned in  
35 Section 1, to the best of our knowledge no study has used the TPB framework (or other  
36 behavioral frameworks) to determine backyard burning or household illegal dumping, so it is  
37 difficult to infer the general applicability of the TPB framework for negative household waste  
38 management behaviors. However, we suspect that the issues discussed above might be related, at  
39 least partially, to the already mentioned wariness of respondents to openly admit that they (or  
40 their normative groups) engage in these negative behaviors, as it has been identified in other  
41 studies of negative behaviors unrelated to waste management (Bazargan-Hejazi et al., 2017;  
42 Zhou et al., 2016).  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55

## 4.2 Household waste management practices and their influencing factors

According to our results, the socio-economic and location characteristics are the most influential factors for negative SWM behaviors. Household location has a moderate positive effect both for backyard burning (0.358) and illegal waste dumping (0.255), while the education of the household head has a weak negative effect only for backyard burning (-0.12). The strongest predictor of waste dumping behavior is the general satisfaction with the waste management services, which has a moderate negative effect (-0.333) (Table 3). In other words, the lower the satisfaction with the waste management services and the more remote the location of the household, the higher is the prevalence of these negative SWM behaviors. Other studies focusing only on socio-economic characteristics through the use of regressions, have found that higher levels of education of the household head (Adzawla et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2018) and the location in more urbanized areas (Adzawla et al., 2019) reduce waste burning and dumping. As mentioned in Section 1, to the best of our knowledge no studies have explored the influence of service satisfaction on negative SWM behaviors. However, some studies have found a moderate (but not significant) influence on SWM satisfaction and willingness to conduct separation (Sekito et al., 2013), and that the lack of satisfaction with waste management services decreases the willingness to pay for the service (Babaei et al., 2015). The results of this study suggest that regardless of socio-economic conditions, efforts to increase the satisfaction of the urban residents with waste management could motivate them to improve their SWM practices. Additionally, it provides evidence on the importance of adequately addressing the SWM needs of residents in the outskirts of the city, who might not be adequately served under the current SWM system.

For the positive SWM behaviors, in general, the latent constructs had a stronger influence than socio-economic variables. The strongest predictors were identified for the separation behavior,

1  
2  
3 and include a positive influence from the concrete knowledge to conduct waste separation  
4 (0.568), positive attitudes towards waste separation (0.566), and knowledge of the local context  
5 (0.329) (Table 3). For recyclable donations, the strongest predictor is a positive attitude towards  
6 the behavior (0.357), followed by general awareness (0.216) and knowledge of the local context  
7 (0.143) (Table 3). Other studies have found that different types of knowledge and convenience  
8 for recycling are some of the most relevant factors influencing waste separation and recycling  
9 behaviors (Barr et al., 2001). Regarding convenience, an interesting finding from our study is  
10 that the frequency of wastepickers' activities has a significant effect on recyclable donation that  
11 is higher (0.141) than the existence of separate waste collection in the neighborhood (0.054)  
12 (Table 3).  
13  
14

15  
16  
17 For recyclables selling, the estimated factors have a relatively weaker effect compared to the  
18 other SWM behaviors, with income and household location being the main influencing factors  
19 (portraying income generation as a driver of the behavior). Finally, for the use of drop-off  
20 facilities, it seems logical that the satisfaction with education and communication activities is  
21 positively related to engagement in this SWM practice (0.169). This suggests that the  
22 respondents exposed to more educational campaigns are probably more aware of the existence of  
23 these facilities, which are relatively new in the city (Lozano and Gasparatos, 2019). It also seems  
24 reasonable that respondents in areas with more frequent wastepicker operations prefer to give  
25 them the recyclable material, instead of taking it to the drop-off facility, resulting thus in a  
26 negative effect for this predictor (-0.118).  
27  
28

29  
30  
31 As suggested by our results, in the positive behaviors group there are considerable differences  
32 among the factors identified for each behavior (Table 3), which demonstrates the need of  
33 distinguishing between them during the analysis. As indicated by Knussen et al (2004), issues  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 might arise when combining various behaviors with similar but different characteristics into a  
4 single variable (e.g. the act of separating the waste vs. the act of delivering it to a recycling  
5 point).  
6  
7  
8  
9

### 10 11 12 13 **4.3 Implications and future research**

14  
15 Our study has various implications for policy and practice, both for Santa Cruz, as well as other  
16 rapidly urbanizing cities of the developing world. First, this study is an important step towards  
17 identifying the prevalence of positive and negative SWM behaviors, and their influencing factors.  
18 The combination of EFA and SEM in our study tested the validity of the instrument to reflect the  
19 theorized constructs, and identified the influencing factors through a tool (i.e. SEM) which is  
20 considered to be more robust than other commonly used methodologies such as regression  
21 analysis (Musil et al., 1998; Nusair & Hua, 2010).  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30

31  
32 Through the EFA we identified issues in the measurement of the initially theorized constructs,  
33 and conducted the necessary changes to assure a proper factor identification through the SEM.  
34 Although relatively few studies have followed this comprehensive approach in the past, recent  
35 literature highlights the benefits of following this procedure to improve the quality of results  
36 (Asparouhov & Muthén, 2009; Liu, Zhao, Zhou, & Tang, 2018).  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43

44  
45 Furthermore, the results suggest that negative SWM behaviors might be more influenced by a  
46 “motivational” aspect related to dissatisfaction with the SWM services, than by other commonly  
47 attributed factors such as awareness, income, and education (Adzawla, Tahidu, Mustapha, &  
48 Azumah, 2019; Chung & Lo, 2004). Furthermore, the strong effect of the household location  
49 (regardless of income or education) suggests that there are unobserved factors related to this  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 aspect, despite our best attempts to account for them in the survey (e.g. prevalence of stray  
4 animals). Nevertheless, these findings indicate that municipal cleansing companies or local  
5 governments should find ways and invest effort and resources in (a) improving the relationship  
6 with local communities, and (b) identifying the unattended SWM needs from communities in  
7 peri-urban areas. Both of the above seem to be contributing to the pervasiveness of these  
8 negative behaviors, and point to the need to find adequate solutions.  
9

10  
11 For positive waste management behaviors, the results provide further support to already  
12 established ideas regarding the importance of awareness, knowledge, and attitudes for  
13 reinforcing recycling behaviors (Almasi et al., 2019; Bhawal Mukherji, Sekiyama, Mino, &  
14 Chaturvedi, 2016). Furthermore, the results provide evidence about additional factors influencing  
15 each of the behaviors such as (a) the role of convenience (i.e. effect of waste picking frequency)  
16 in the recyclable donation and use of drop-off facilities; and (b) the economic motivations (i.e.  
17 effect of income) for recyclables selling. Similar to the negative behaviors discussed above, these  
18 results can provide some guidance for local government initiatives in Santa Cruz and other  
19 rapidly urbanizing cities. In particular they point to the need to carefully consider the actual  
20 location of drop-off stations or establish community-based recycling initiatives in areas where  
21 economic motivations can affect positively recycling behavior.  
22  
23

24  
25 Finally, the study points to multiple avenues for future research. First, the analysis showed that  
26 the use of TPB might present several challenges in the context of solid waste management  
27 behaviors, at least in the context of our research. However, given the lack of consensus in the  
28 existing literature about the causes and solutions for the challenges outlined in Section 4.1  
29 (Sniehotta et al., 2014; Trafimow, 2015), it is still valuable to extract some of the lessons learnt  
30 from our study. While the sample size of our study is considered sufficient for our  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 methodological approach, and the sampling procedure guaranteed that the characteristics of the  
4 different areas of the city are well represented, it is important to conduct similar studies to  
5 contrast the results obtained in our research both in Santa Cruz and other developing cities with  
6 similar characteristics. Furthermore, as household location was found to be an important  
7 determinant for negative behaviors, future studies should expand the number of variables  
8 associated to household location, to identify the specific mechanisms that lead to these outcomes.  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19

## 20 **5 Conclusions**

21  
22  
23 This study estimated the prevalence of different SWM practices at the household level, including  
24 various “negative” and “positive” behaviors, as well as the factors influencing each of these  
25 behaviors in Santa Cruz, Bolivia. The studied negative SWM behaviors consisted of illegal  
26 dumping and backyard burning, while the positive behaviors included source separation,  
27 recyclables donation, recyclables selling and use of drop-off facilities. The tested factors  
28 included very diverse observable (i.e. location, socio-demographic characteristics) and non-  
29 observable (latent constructs) variables analyzed through a combination of EFA-SEM.  
30 Collectively the results bridge many gaps for SWM practices in developing countries, and are  
31 particularly novel for the research on negative household waste management practices, as no  
32 study has currently explored these behaviors through robust approaches as the one we present in  
33 this research. As such they can provide very useful insights to guide environmental management  
34 in the waste sector in rapidly urbanizing contexts of the developing world.  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50

51 The results indicate that factors such as the level of satisfaction with the waste management  
52 service and the distant location of the household from the city center have the greatest influence  
53  
54  
55

1  
2  
3 for both negative SWM behaviors, with the level of education also influencing backyard burning  
4 behaviors. For positive SWM behaviors, waste separation and recyclable donation are mostly  
5 influenced by latent constructs such as attitudes, knowledge, and awareness. The most relevant  
6 predictors for recyclables selling and the use of drop-off stations are observable variables such as  
7 income and location, although with smaller effects in both cases. Such findings can contribute to  
8 the development and implementation of more effective policies by the local government to  
9 reduce negative and promote positive SWM practices.  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22

## 23 **6 References**

- 24  
25 Adzawla, W., Tahidu, A., Mustapha, S., Azumah, S.B., 2019. Do socioeconomic factors  
26 influence households' solid waste disposal systems? Evidence from Ghana. *Waste Manag.*  
27 *Res.* 37, 51–57. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242X18817717>  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33 Ajzen, I., 1991. The theory of planned behavior. *Organ. Behav. Hum. Decis. Process.* 50, 179–  
34 211.  
35  
36  
37  
38 Akpinar-Elci, M., Coomansingh, K., Blando, J., Mark, L., 2015. Household bush burning  
39 practice and related respiratory symptoms in Grenada, the Caribbean. *J. Air Waste Manag.*  
40 *Assoc.* 65, 1148–1152. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10962247.2015.1070773>  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45 Almasi, A., Mohammadi, M., Azizi, A., Berizi, Z., Shamsi, K., Shahbazi, A., & Mosavi, S. A.  
46 (2019). Assessing the knowledge, attitude and practice of the kermanshahi women towards  
47 reducing, recycling and reusing of municipal solid waste. *Resources, Conservation and*  
48 *Recycling*, 141, 329–338. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.RESCONREC.2018.10.017>  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55

- 1  
2  
3 Amini, F., Ahmad, J., Ambali, A.R., 2014. The Influence of Reward and Penalty on Households'  
4 Recycling Intention. APCBEE Procedia 10, 187–192.  
5  
6 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcbee.2014.10.036>  
7  
8  
9  
10 Armitage, C.J., Conner, M., 2001. Efficacy of the Theory of Planned Behaviour : A Meta-  
11 Analytic Review E Y cacy of the Theory of Planned Behaviour : A meta-analytic review  
12  
13 471–499. <https://doi.org/10.1348/014466601164939>  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18 Asparouhov, T., & Muthén, B. (2009). *Exploratory structural equation modeling. Structural*  
19 *Equation Modeling* (Vol. 16). <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705510903008204>  
20  
21  
22  
23 Babaei, A.A., Alavi, N., Goudarzi, G., Teymouri, P., Ahmadi, K., Rafiee, M., 2015. Household  
24 recycling knowledge, attitudes and practices towards solid waste management. Resour.  
25  
26 Conserv. Recycl. 102, 94–100. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2015.06.014>  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31 Babayemi, J., Dauda, K., 2010. Evaluation of Solid Waste Generation, Categories and Disposal  
32 Options in Developing Countries: A Case Study of Nigeria. J. Appl. Sci. Environ. Manag.  
33  
34 13. <https://doi.org/10.4314/jasem.v13i3.55370>  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39 Bagozzi, R.P., Yi, Y., 1988. On the evaluation of structural equation models. J. Acad. Mark. Sci.  
40  
41 16, 74–94. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02723327>  
42  
43  
44  
45 Barr, S., 2007. Factors Influencing Environmental Attitudes and Behaviors. Environ. Behav. 39,  
46  
47 435–473. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013916505283421>  
48  
49  
50 Barr, S., Gilg, A.W., Ford, N.J., 2001. A conceptual framework for understanding and analysing  
51 attitudes towards household-waste management. Environ. Plan. A 33, 2025–2048.  
52  
53  
54 <https://doi.org/10.1068/a33225>  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Bartl, A., 2015. Circular Economy: Cycles, Loops and Cascades. *Int. Solid Waste Assoc.* 1–48.  
4  
5  
6 Bazargan-Hejazi, S., Teruya, S., Pan, D., Lin, J., Gordon, D., Krochalk, P.C., Bazargan, M.,  
7  
8 2017. The theory of planned behavior (TPB) and texting while driving behavior in college  
9  
10 students. *Traffic Inj. Prev.* 18, 56–62. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15389588.2016.1172703>  
11  
12  
13 Bhawal Mukherji, S., Sekiyama, M., Mino, T., Chaturvedi, B., 2016. Resident Knowledge and  
14  
15 Willingness to Engage in Waste Management in Delhi, India. *Sustainability* 8, 1065.  
16  
17 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su8101065>  
18  
19  
20  
21 Boadi, K.O., Kuitunen, M., 2003. Municipal Solid Waste Management in the Accra Metropolitan  
22  
23 Area, Ghana. *Environmentalist* 23, 211–218.  
24  
25 <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:ENVR.0000017283.09117.20>  
26  
27  
28  
29 Bonett, D.G., Wright, T.A., 2015. Cronbach's alpha reliability: Interval estimation, hypothesis  
30  
31 testing, and sample size planning. *J. Organ. Behav.* 36, 3–15.  
32  
33 <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1960>  
34  
35  
36  
37 Brown, T.A., 2015. *Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Applied Research*, Second. ed. The  
38  
39 Guilford Press, New York.  
40  
41  
42 Brunner, P.H., Fellner, J., 2007. Setting priorities for waste management strategies in developing  
43  
44 countries. *Waste Manag. Res.* 25, 234–240. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242X07078296>  
45  
46  
47 Buenrostro, O., Bocco, G., Bernache, G., 2001. Urban solid waste generation and disposal in  
48  
49 Mexico: A case study. *Waste Manag. Res.* 19, 169–176.  
50  
51 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242x0101900208>  
52  
53  
54  
55 Canedo Velasco, M.C., 2018. *Diagnóstico: Región Metropolitana de Santa Cruz*. La Paz.

- 1  
2  
3 Chen, S.F., Wang, S., Chen, C.Y., 2012. A simulation study using EFA and CFA programs  
4 based the impact of missing data on test dimensionality. *Expert Syst. Appl.* 39, 4026–4031.  
5  
6 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2011.09.085>  
7  
8  
9  
10 Chung, S.S., Lo, C.W.H., 2004. Waste management in Guangdong Cities: The waste  
11 management literacy and waste reduction preferences of domestic waste generators.  
12  
13 *Environ. Manage.* 33, 692–711. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00267-004-0020-2>  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18 Dahlén, L., Lagerkvist, A., 2010. Evaluation of recycling programmes in household waste  
19 collection systems. *Waste Manag. Res.* 28, 577–586.  
20  
21 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242X09341193>  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26 Davies, J., Foxall, G.R., Pallister, J., 2002. Beyond the intention-behaviour mythology: An  
27 integrated model of recycling. *Mark. Theory* 2, 29–113.  
28  
29 <https://doi.org/10.1177/1470593102002001645>  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34 Desa, A., Ba'yah Abd Kadir, N., Yusoooff, F., 2011. A study on the knowledge, attitudes,  
35 awareness status and behaviour concerning solid waste management. *Procedia - Soc. Behav.*  
36 *Sci.* 18, 643–648. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.05.095>  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42 Dong, Y., Peng, C.Y.J., 2013. Principled missing data methods for researchers. *Springerplus* 2,  
43 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1186/2193-1801-2-222>  
44  
45  
46  
47 Enders, C.K., 2003. Using the Expectation Maximization Algorithm to Estimate Coefficient  
48 Alpha for Scales with Item-Level Missing Data. *Psychol. Methods* 8, 322–337.  
49  
50 <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.8.3.322>  
51  
52  
53  
54 Estrellan, C.R., Iino, F., 2010. Toxic emissions from open burning. *Chemosphere* 80, 193–207.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2010.03.057>  
4  
5

6 Fabrigar, L.R., MacCallum, R.C., Wegener, D.T., Strahan, E.J., 1999. Evaluating the use of  
7 exploratory factor analysis in psychological research. *Psychol. Methods* 4, 272–299.  
8  
9

10 <https://doi.org/10.1037/1082-989X.4.3.272>  
11  
12

13 Fornell, C., Larcker, D.F., 1981. Evaluating Structural Equation Models with Unobservable  
14 Variables and Measurement Error. *J. Mark. Res.* 18, 39. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3151312>  
15  
16

17 Gallagher, D., Ting, L., Palmer, A., 2008. A journey into the unknown; taking the fear out of  
18 structural equation modeling with AMOS for the first-time user. *Mark. Rev.* 8, 255–275.  
19  
20

21 <https://doi.org/10.1362/146934708x337672>  
22  
23

24  
25  
26 Girma, Y., Terefe, H., Pauleit, S., 2019. Urban green spaces use and management in rapidly  
27 urbanizing countries:-The case of emerging towns of Oromia special zone surrounding  
28 Finfinne, Ethiopia. *Urban For. Urban Green.* 43, 126357.  
29  
30

31 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ufug.2019.05.019>  
32  
33

34  
35  
36 Guerrero, L.A., Maas, G., Hogland, W., 2013. Solid waste management challenges for cities in  
37 developing countries. *Waste Manag.* 33, 220–232.  
38  
39

40 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2012.09.008>  
41  
42

43  
44 Guitard, E., 2015. “Is this your dump ?”: Manipulation of Urban Household Waste and Control  
45 over Collective Spaces in Garoua , Cameroon. *Ethnol. Fr.* 153, 455–466.  
46  
47

48  
49 Heidari, A., Kolahi, M., Behraves, N., Ghorbanyon, M., Ehsanmansh, F., Hashemolhosini, N.,  
50 Zanganeh, F., 2018. Youth and sustainable waste management: a SEM approach and  
51 extended theory of planned behavior. *J. Mater. Cycles Waste Manag.* 20, 2041–2053.  
52  
53  
54  
55



1  
2  
3 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10163-018-0754-1>  
4  
5

6 Helfrich, C.D., Li, Y.F., Mohr, D.C., Meterko, M., Sales, A.E., 2007. Assessing an  
7  
8 organizational culture instrument based on the Competing Values Framework: Exploratory  
9  
10 and confirmatory factor analyses. *Implement. Sci.* 2. [https://doi.org/10.1186/1748-5908-2-](https://doi.org/10.1186/1748-5908-2-13)  
11  
12  
13 13  
14  
15

16 Hinkin, T.R., 1998. A brief tutorial on the development of measures for use in survey  
17  
18 questionnaires. *Organ. Res. Methods* 1, 104–121.  
19

20 <https://doi.org/10.1177/109442819800100106>  
21  
22

23 Hoang, M.G., Fujiwara, T., Pham Phu, S.T., Thi, K.T.N., 2017. Predicting waste generation  
24  
25 using Bayesian model averaging. *Glob. J. Environ. Sci. Manag.* 3, 385–402.  
26  
27

28 <https://doi.org/10.22034/gjesm.2017.03.04.005>  
29  
30

31 Huang, X., Zhu, Q., 2002. A pseudo-nearest-neighbor approach for missing data recovery on  
32  
33 Gaussian random data sets. *Pattern Recognit. Lett.* 23, 1613–1622.  
34

35 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8655\(02\)00125-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0167-8655(02)00125-3)  
36  
37

38 INE, 2013. Ficha Resumen Censo de Población y Vivienda 2012 [WWW Document]. URL  
39

40 [http://censosbolivia.ine.gob.bo/censofichacomunidad/c\\_listadof/listar\\_comunidades](http://censosbolivia.ine.gob.bo/censofichacomunidad/c_listadof/listar_comunidades)  
41  
42

43 (accessed 5.10.20).  
44  
45

46 Isa, M.H., Asaari, F.A.H., Ramli, N.A., Ahmad, S., Siew, T.S., 2005. Solid waste collection and  
47  
48 recycling in Nibong Tebal, Penang, Malaysia: A case study. *Waste Manag. Res.* 23, 565–  
49

50 570. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734242X05059803>  
51  
52

53 Israel, P., 2010. People's awareness on effects of open burning of household waste in Kinondoni  
54  
55

Municipality, Dar-es-Salaam. Dar Es Salaam Med. Students' J. 15, 19–22.

<https://doi.org/10.4314/dmsj.v15i1.52494>

JICA, 2005. Supporting Capacity Development in Solid Waste Management in Developing Countries; Towards Improving Solid Waste Management Capacity of Entire Society.

Jönsson, P., Wohlin, C., 2006. Benchmarking k-nearest neighbour imputation with homogeneous Likert data. *Empir. Softw. Eng.* 11, 463–489. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10664-006-9001-9>

Karija, M.K., Lukaw, Y.S., 2013. The Impact of Poor Municipal Solid Waste Management Practices and Sanitation Status on Water Quality and Public Health in Cities of the Least Developed Countries: the Case of Juba, South Sudan. *Int. J. Appl. Sci. Technol.* 3, 87–99.

Karimy, M., Zareban, I., Araban, M., Montazeri, A., 2015. An extended theory of planned behavior (TPB) used to predict smoking behavior among a sample of Iranian medical students. *Int. J. High Risk Behav. Addict.* 4, 1–7. <https://doi.org/10.5812/ijhrba.24715>

Knussen, C., Yule, F., MacKenzie, J., Wells, M., 2004. An analysis of intentions to recycle household waste: The roles of past behaviour, perceived habit, and perceived lack of facilities. *J. Environ. Psychol.* 24, 237–246. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2003.12.001>

Liu, W., Zhao, T., Zhou, W., & Tang, J. (2018). Safety risk factors of metro tunnel construction in China: An integrated study with EFA and SEM. *Safety Science*, 105, 98–113.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/J.SSCI.2018.01.009>

Loan, L.T.T., Nomura, H., Takahashi, Y., Yabe, M., 2017. Psychological driving forces behind households' behaviors toward municipal organic waste separation at source in Vietnam: a structural equation modeling approach. *J. Mater. Cycles Waste Manag.* 19, 1052–1060.

1  
2  
3 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10163-017-0587-3>  
4  
5

6 Lozano Lazo, D.P., Gasparatos, A., 2019. Sustainability Transitions in the Municipal Solid  
7 Waste Management Systems of Bolivian Cities: Evidence from La Paz and Santa Cruz de la  
8 Sierra. *Sustainability* 11, 4582. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11174582>  
9  
10  
11  
12

13 Ma, J., Hipel, K.W., 2016. Exploring social dimensions of municipal solid waste management  
14 around the globe – A systematic literature review. *Waste Manag.* 56, 3–12.  
15  
16  
17  
18 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2016.06.041>  
19  
20

21 Majeed, A., Batool, S.A., Chaudhry, M.N., 2017. Informal Waste Management in the  
22 Developing World: Economic Contribution Through Integration With the Formal Sector.  
23 *Waste and Biomass Valorization* 8, 679–694. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12649-016-9648-4>  
24  
25  
26  
27

28 Mamady, K., 2016. Factors influencing attitude, safety behavior, and knowledge regarding  
29 household waste management in Guinea: A cross-sectional study. *J. Environ. Public Health*  
30 2016. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2016/9305768>  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35

36 Mardani, A., Streimikiene, D., Zavadskas, E.K., Cavallaro, F., Nilashi, M., Jusoh, A., Zare, H.,  
37 2017. Application of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) to solve environmental  
38 sustainability problems: A comprehensive review and meta-analysis. *Sustain.* 9.  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su9101814>  
44  
45

46 Mazoni, M., 2005. Santa Cruz De La Sierra , Una Ciudad Que Busca Su Espacio Santa Cruz De  
47 La Sierra , a City That Searches for Its Own Space. *Ciudades* 9, 135–160.  
48  
49  
50

51 McCarty, J.A., Shrum, L.J., 1994. The recycling of solid wastes: Personal values, value  
52 orientations, and attitudes about recycling as antecedents of recycling behavior. *J. Bus. Res.*  
53  
54  
55

1  
2  
3 30, 53–62.  
4

5  
6 Mosler, H.J., Tamas, A., Tobias, R., Rodríguez, T.C., Miranda, O.G., 2008. Deriving  
7  
8 interventions on the basis of factors influencing behavioral intentions for waste recycling,  
9  
10 composting, and reuse in Cuba. *Environ. Behav.* 40, 522–544.  
11  
12 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013916507300114>  
13  
14

15  
16 Musil, C. M., Jones, S. L., & Warner, C. D. (1998). Structural Equation Modeling and Its  
17  
18 Relationship to Multiple Regression and Factor Analysis. *Research in Nursing and Health*,  
19  
20 21(3), 271–281. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1098-240X\(199806\)21:3<271::AID-](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-240X(199806)21:3<271::AID-)  
21  
22 [NUR10>3.0.CO;2-G](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-240X(199806)21:3<271::AID-NUR10>3.0.CO;2-G)  
23  
24

25  
26 Nagpure, A.S., Ramaswami, A., Russell, A., 2015. Characterizing the Spatial and Temporal  
27  
28 Patterns of Open Burning of Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) in Indian Cities. *Environ. Sci.*  
29  
30 *Technol.* 49, 12911–12912. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.5b03243>  
31  
32

33  
34 Nguyen, T.T.P., Zhu, D., Le, N.P., 2015. Factors influencing waste separation intention of  
35  
36 residential households in a developing country: Evidence from Hanoi, Vietnam. *Habitat Int.*  
37  
38 48, 169–176. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.habitatint.2015.03.013>  
39  
40

41  
42 Nikolaou, P., Basbas, S., Politis, I., 2020. Trip and Personal Characteristics towards the Intention  
43  
44 to Cycle in Larnaca , Cyprus : An EFA-SEM Approach.  
45

46  
47 Nusair, K., & Hua, N. (2010). Comparative assessment of structural equation modeling and  
48  
49 multiple regression research methodologies: E-commerce context. *Tourism Management*,  
50  
51 31(3), 314–324. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2009.03.010>  
52  
53

54  
55 Oztekin, C., Teksöz, G., Pamuk, S., Sahin, E., Kilic, D.S., 2017. Gender perspective on the  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 factors predicting recycling behavior: Implications from the theory of planned behavior.  
4  
5 Waste Manag. 62, 290–302. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2016.12.036>  
6  
7  
8  
9 Padilla, A.J., Trujillo, J.C., 2018. Waste disposal and households' heterogeneity. Identifying  
10 factors shaping attitudes towards source-separated recycling in Bogotá, Colombia. Waste  
11 Manag. 74, 16–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2017.11.052>  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16 Pakpour, A.H., Zeidi, I.M., Emamjomeh, M.M., Asefzadeh, S., Pearson, H., 2014. Household  
17 waste behaviours among a community sample in Iran: An application of the theory of  
18 planned behaviour. Waste Manag. 34, 980–986.  
19  
20  
21  
22 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2013.10.028>  
23  
24  
25  
26 Parizeau, K., Maclaren, V., Chanthy, L., 2006. Waste characterization as an element of waste  
27 management planning: Lessons learned from a study in Siem Reap, Cambodia. Resour.  
28 Conserv. Recycl. 49, 110–128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2006.03.006>  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33 Park, H.S., Levine, T.R., Sharkey, W.F., 1998. The theory of reasoned action and self-construals:  
34 Understanding recycling in hawai'i. Commun. Stud. 49, 196–208.  
35  
36  
37 <https://doi.org/10.1080/10510979809368531>  
38  
39  
40  
41 Rahman, M.Z., Siwar, C., Begum, R.A., 2017. Achieving Sustainable Livelihood Through Solid  
42 Waste Management in Dhaka City. Int. J. GEOMATE 12, 19–27.  
43  
44  
45 <https://doi.org/10.21660/2017.30.160618>  
46  
47  
48  
49 Ramayah, T., Lee, J.W.C., Lim, S., 2012. Sustaining the environment through recycling: An  
50 empirical study. J. Environ. Manage. 102, 141–147.  
51  
52  
53 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2012.02.025>  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3 Raykov, T., Grayson, D., 2003. Multivariate behavioral a test for change of composite reliability  
4 in scale development. *Multivar. Behav. Res.* 38, 143–159.  
5  
6 <https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327906MBR3802>  
7  
8  
9  
10 Reyna-Bensusan, N., Wilson, D.C., Smith, S.R., 2018. Uncontrolled burning of solid waste by  
11 households in Mexico is a significant contributor to climate change in the country. *Environ.*  
12 *Res.* 163, 280–288. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2018.01.042>  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18 Rodić, L., Wilson, D.C., 2017. Resolving governance issues to achieve priority sustainable  
19 development goals related to solid waste management in developing countries. *Sustain.* 9.  
20  
21 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su9030404>  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26 Ruslan, N.H., Yasin, S.M., Isa, M.R., Nasir, N.M., Ahing, T., Rajikin, M.H., 2018. Reliability  
27 and construct validity of the Malay Version of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) for  
28 smoking cessation. *Asian Pacific J. Cancer Prev.* 19, 2815–2820.  
29  
30 <https://doi.org/10.22034/APJCP.2018.19.10.2815>  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36 Savino, A., Solorzano, G., Quispe, C., Correal, M.C., 2018. Waste Management Outlook for  
37 Latin America and the Caribbean.  
38  
39  
40  
41 Schumacker, R.E., Lomax, R.G., 2016. *A Beginner's Guide to Structural Equation Modeling*, 1st  
42 ed. Routledge, New York.  
43  
44  
45  
46 Sekito, T., Prayogo, T.B., Dote, Y., Yoshitake, T., Bagus, I., 2013. Influence of a community-  
47 based waste management system on people's behavior and waste reduction. *Resour.*  
48 *Conserv. Recycl.* 72, 84–90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2013.01.001>  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54 Shrestha, S.K., Burns, R.C., 2016. Integrating Constraints to the Theory of Planned Behavior in  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Predicting Deer Hunting Participation. *Hum. Dimens. Wildl.* 21, 445–459.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/10871209.2016.1187779>

Sidique, S.F., Lupi, F., Joshi, S. V., 2010. The effects of behavior and attitudes on drop-off recycling activities. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 54, 163–170.

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2009.07.012>

Sniehotta, F. F., Presseau, J., & Araújo-Soares, V. (2014). Time to retire the theory of planned behaviour. *Health Psychology Review*, 8(1), 1–7.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/17437199.2013.869710>

Soltani, A., Hewage, K., Reza, B., Sadiq, R., 2015. Multiple stakeholders in multi-criteria decision-making in the context of municipal solid waste management: A review. *Waste*

*Manag.* 35, 318–328. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2014.09.010>

Stoeva, K., Alriksson, S., 2017. Influence of recycling programmes on waste separation behaviour. *Waste Manag.* 68, 732–741. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2017.06.005>

Struk, M., 2017. Distance and incentives matter: The separation of recyclable municipal waste. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 122, 155–162. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2017.01.023>

Strydom, W.F., 2018. Applying the theory of planned behavior to recycling behavior in South Africa. *Recycling* 3. <https://doi.org/10.3390/recycling3030043>

Suarez Subirana, R.Y., 2018. EL RÍO COMO EJE VERTEBRADOR ECOSOCIAL

METROPOLITANO: El río Piraí de la ciudad de Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Bolivia.

Universitat Politecnica de Catalunya.

Sujaiddin, M., Huda, S.M.S., Hoque, A.T.M.R., 2008. Household solid waste characteristics and

- 1  
2  
3 management in Chittagong, Bangladesh. *Waste Manag.* 28, 1688–1695.  
4  
5 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2007.06.013>  
6  
7  
8 Tadesse, T., 2009. Environmental concern and its implication to household waste separation and  
9 disposal: Evidence from Mekelle, Ethiopia. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 53, 183–191.  
10  
11 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2008.11.009>  
12  
13  
14 Tadesse, T., Ruijs, A., Hagos, F., 2008. Household waste disposal in Mekelle city, Northern  
15 Ethiopia. *Waste Manag.* 28, 2003–2012. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2007.08.015>  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21 Tatlonghari, R. V, Jamias, S.B., 2010. Village-Level Knowledge , Attitudes and Practices on  
22 Solid Waste Management in Sta . Rosa City , Laguna , Philippines 13, 35–51.  
23  
24  
25  
26 Terry, D.J., Hogg, M.A., White, K.M., 1999. The theory of planned behaviour : Self- Identity,  
27 social identity and group norms. *Br. J. Soc. Psychol.* 38, 225–244.  
28  
29  
30  
31 <https://doi.org/10.1348/014466699164149>  
32  
33  
34 Tonglet, M., Phillips, P.S., Read, A.D., 2004. Using the Theory of Planned Behaviour to  
35 investigate the determinants of recycling behaviour: A case study from Brixworth, UK.  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
- Trafimow, D. (2015). On retiring the TRA/TPB without retiring the lessons learned: a  
commentary on Sniehotta, Pesseau and Araújo-Soares. *Health Psychology Review*, 9(2),  
168–171. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17437199.2014.884932>
- Vassanadumrongdee, S., Kittipongvises, S., 2018. Factors influencing source separation  
intention and willingness to pay for improving waste management in Bangkok, Thailand.  
*Sustain. Environ. Res.* 28, 90–99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.serj.2017.11.003>



- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60
- Vischers, V.H.M., Wickli, N., Siegrist, M., 2016. Sorting out food waste behaviour: A survey on the motivators and barriers of self-reported amounts of food waste in households. *J. Environ. Psychol.* 45, 66–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2015.11.007>
- Wang, Cheng, Z., Reisner, A., Liu, Y., 2018. Compliance with household solid waste management in rural villages in developing countries. *J. Clean. Prod.* 202, 293–298. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2018.08.135>
- Wang, Z., Guo, D., Wang, X., 2016. Determinants of residents' e-waste recycling behaviour intentions: Evidence from China. *J. Clean. Prod.* 137, 850–860. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.07.155>
- Warner, H. W., & Åberg, L. (2006). Drivers' decision to speed: A study inspired by the theory of planned behavior. *Transportation Research Part F: Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, 9(6), 427–433. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2006.03.004>
- Watkins, M.W., 2018. Exploratory Factor Analysis: A Guide to Best Practice. *J. Black Psychol.* 44, 219–246. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798418771807>
- Weston, R., Gore, P.A., 2006. A Brief Guide to Structural Equation Modeling. *Couns. Psychol.* 34, 719–751. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0011000006286345>
- Wilson, D.C., Araba, A.O., Chinwah, K., Cheeseman, C.R., 2009. Building recycling rates through the informal sector. *Waste Manag.* 29, 629–635. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2008.06.016>
- Wilson, D.C., Rodic, L., Modak, P., Soos, R., Carpinterio Rogero, A., Velis, C., Iyer, M., Simonett, O., 2015. Global Waste Management Outlook.

- 1  
2  
3 Wu, Z., Yu, A.T.W., Shen, L., 2017. Investigating the determinants of contractor's construction  
4 and demolition waste management behavior in Mainland China. *Waste Manag.* 60, 290–300.  
5  
6 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2016.09.001>  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11 Xu, L., Ling, M., Lu, Y., Shen, M., 2017. Understanding household waste separation behaviour:  
12 Testing the roles of moral, past experience, and perceived policy effectiveness within the  
13 theory of planned behaviour. *Sustain.* 9. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su9040625>  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18 Zapata Campos, M.J., Zapata, P., 2013. Switching Managua on! Connecting informal settlements  
19 to the formal city through household waste collection. *Environ. Urban.* 25, 225–242.  
20  
21 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956247812468404>  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26 Zhang, D., Huang, G., Yin, X., Gong, Q., 2015. Residents' waste separation behaviors at the  
27 source: Using SEM with the theory of planned behavior in Guangzhou, China. *Int. J.*  
28 *Environ. Res. Public Health* 12, 9475–9491. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph120809475>  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33 Zhang, S., Zhang, M., Yu, X., Ren, H., 2016. What keeps Chinese from recycling: Accessibility  
34 of recycling facilities and the behavior. *Resour. Conserv. Recycl.* 109, 176–186.  
35  
36 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.resconrec.2016.02.008>  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41 Zheng, R., Cheok, A., Khoo, E., 2011. Singaporean adolescents' perceptions of online social  
42 communication: An exploratory factor analysis. *J. Educ. Comput. Res.* 45, 203–221.  
43  
44 <https://doi.org/10.2190/EC.45.2.e>  
45  
46  
47  
48 Zhou, H., Romero, S.B., Qin, X., 2016. An extension of the theory of planned behavior to predict  
49 pedestrians' violating crossing behavior using structural equation modeling. *Accid. Anal.*  
50 *Prev.* 95, 417–424. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aap.2015.09.009>  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60