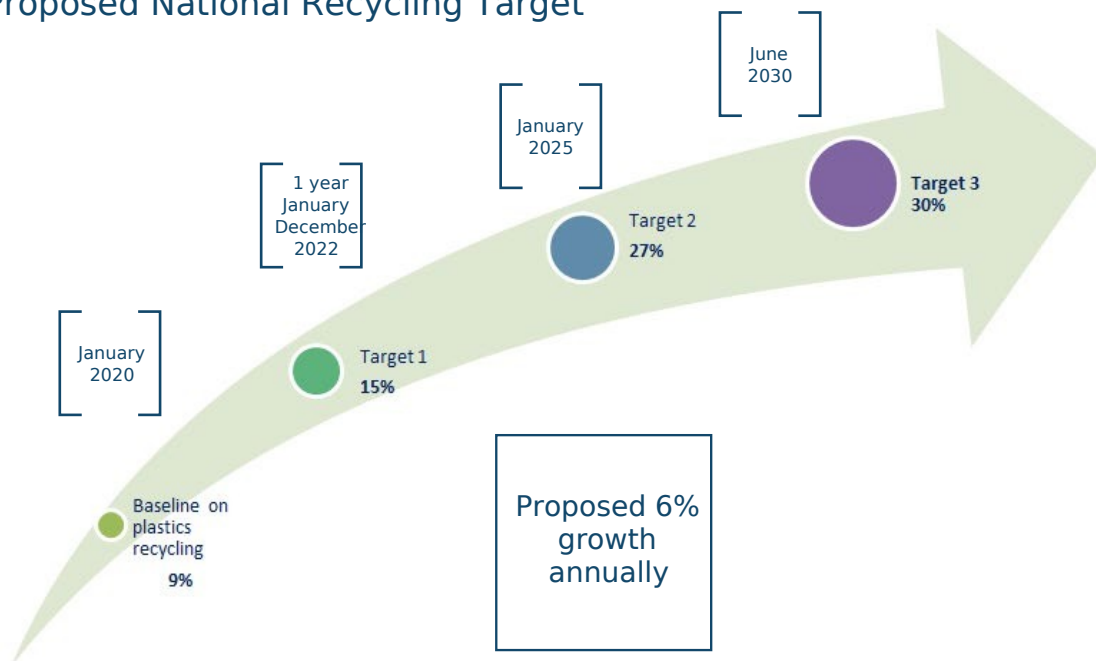




Accelerating a Circular Economy in Kenya

November 2019

a) Proposed National Recycling Target



b) Three Year Plan to operationalize producer responsibility organizations for all plastics stream

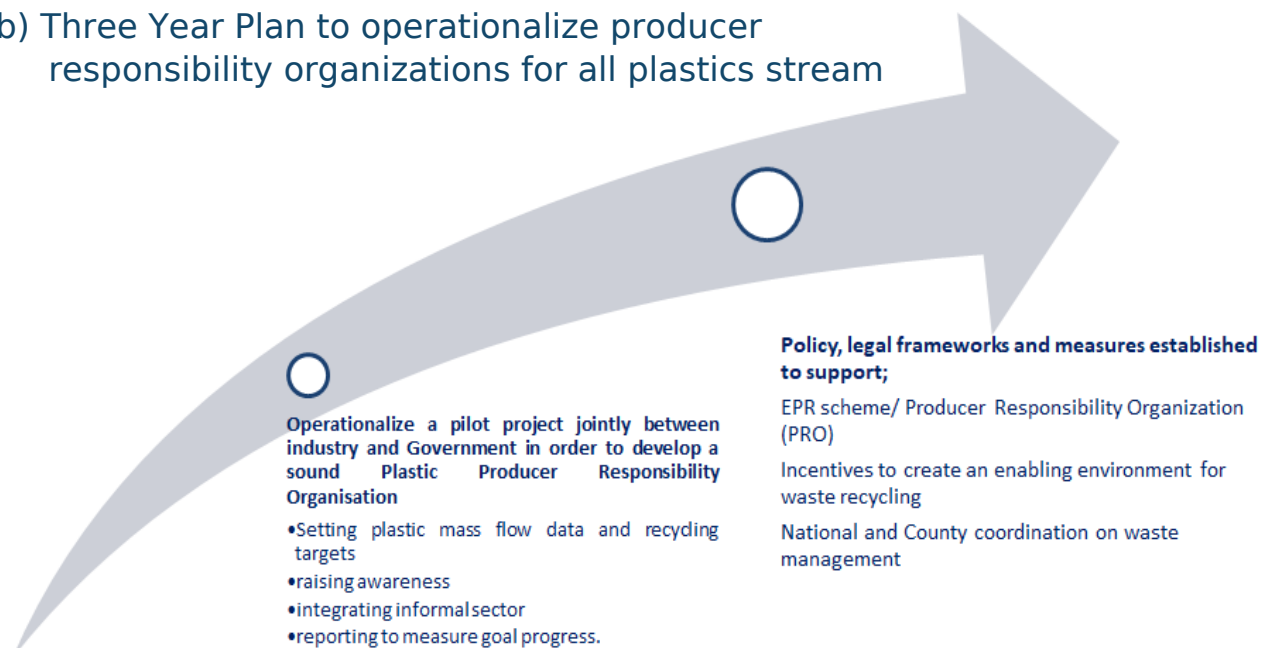


Table of contents

| | |
|---|-----------|
| ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS | 1 |
| ACKNOWLEDGMENT | 2 |
| FOREWORD | 3 |
| EXECUTIVE SUMMARY | 4 |
| 1 INTRODUCTION | 8 |
| 2 PLASTIC WASTE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES | 11 |
| 2.1 Plastics consumption and waste generation on a global scale | 11 |
| 2.2 Recycling Plastics | 14 |
| 2.3 The Circular Economy Concept | 15 |
| 2.3.1 Introduction | 15 |
| 2.3.2 Plastics in a Circular Economy | 17 |
| 2.3.3 Global Circular Economy Examples | 18 |
| 2.3.4 African Circular Economy Examples | 21 |
| 2.3.5 Alternatives to Plastics | 26 |
| 2.4 Kenyan Plastic Mass Flow | 27 |
| 2.4.1 Quantification of plastic volumes | 27 |
| 2.4.2 Collection Systems | 32 |
| 2.4.3 Recycling Infrastructure | 34 |
| 2.4.4 Disposal Practices | 36 |
| 2.4.5 Challenges for Plastic Recycling in the Waste Management system | 38 |
| 3 LEGAL AND REGULATORY FRAMEWORKS AFFECTING THE PLASTICS SECTOR | 41 |
| 3.1 Review of Kenyan (regional, national and county) legislation formulation on plastic and waste management | 41 |
| 3.2 Discussion of the existing regulatory gaps | 44 |
| 4 SWOT ANALYSIS OF THE KENYAN PLASTICS VALUE CHAIN | 47 |
| 5 PROPOSED MEASURES AND INITIATIVES FOR THE ACTION PLAN | 50 |
| 5.1 Establishing a Financial and Organisational Basis | 50 |
| 5.1.1 Tax incentives | 50 |
| 5.1.2 Extended Producer Responsibility | 51 |
| 5.1.3 Comparing tax incentives and EPR | 63 |
| 5.2 Action Measures | 64 |
| 5.2.1 Recycling and/or End of Life Options | 64 |
| 5.2.2 Segregation at source as best practice and waste collection | 66 |
| 5.2.3 Product Design for enhanced recycling | 69 |
| 5.2.4 Consumer awareness – communication and education | 71 |
| 5.2.5 Biodegradable plastics | 73 |
| 5.2.6 Integration informal sector | 74 |

Table of contents

| | | |
|----------|--|------------|
| 6 | IMPLEMENTING THE ACTION PLAN | 76 |
| | 6.1 Implementing the EPR system | 76 |
| | 6.2 Implementing voluntary measures | 86 |
| | 6.3 Implementation Matrix | 90 |
| 7 | REFERENCES | 96 |
| 8 | ANNEXES | 105 |
| | 8.1 Annex 1: Background to Plastics | 105 |
| | 8.2 Annex 2: The polymer types | 107 |
| | 8.3 Annex 3: Recycling the different polymer types | 109 |
| | 8.4 Annex 4: Recyclate usage | 110 |
| | 8.5 Annex 5: The circular economy concept in detail | 112 |
| | 8.6 Annex 6: Global trends | 114 |
| | 8.7 Annex 7: Questionnaire for online survey | 120 |
| | 8.8 Annex 8: Circular Economy and The Big4 Agenda | 121 |
| | 8.9 Annex 9: Alternatives to plastics | 121 |
| | 8.10 Annex 10: Global examples of education and awareness programmes | 141 |
| | 8.11 Annex 11: Flow chart for determining the recyclability | 142 |



List of tables

| | | | |
|-----------|--|-----|------|
| Table 1 | Quantities of recycled plastics and plastic packaging acc. to [Eunomia, 2018] | 30 | frac |
| Table 2: | Roles and responsibilities in an EPR system | 57 | |
| Table 3: | EPR fees and green taxes in comparison | 63 | |
| Table 4: | Collection structures for packaging for the individual material countries with EPR systems | 66 | frac |
| Table 5: | Plastic packaging fees in EU-28 EPR schemes [Watkins et al., 2011] | 81 | 201 |
| Table 6: | Role of each stakeholder within the proposed Kenyan EPR system | 85 | |
| Table 7: | Integration of the informal sector as employees | 88 | |
| Table 8: | Integration of the informal sector as business partners | 89 | |
| Table 9: | Establishing a legal basis for a mandatory EPR system | 92 | |
| Table 10: | Establishing a pre-organisation on a voluntary basis | 93 | |
| Table 11: | Improving an optimising mechanism when the mandatory EPR system | 94 | |
| Table 12: | Quantities of produced primary plastics and generated waste acc. to [Geyer et al., 2017] | 106 | |
| Table 13: | Quantities of produced plastics and generated waste acc. to [Geyer et al., 2017] | 108 | pol |
| Table 14: | Global Warming Potential for different raw materials | 122 | |
| Table 15: | Ranking of different water bottles related to selected environmental | 124 | |
| Table 16: | Ranking of different beverage packaging for immediate consumption environmental criteria [Schonert et al., 2002] | 124 | |
| Table 17: | Phase depending negative effects for different beverage packaging environmental criteria [Kauertz et al., 2011] | 125 | rela |
| Table 18: | Masses of different packaging types | 126 | |
| Table 19: | GWP of different packaging types relating to different disposal | 126 | |
| Table 20: | Comparison of PET-bottles with glass-bottles according to [Stich, 2007] | 127 | Sin |
| Table 21: | Comparison of different materials for bottles for water | 128 | |
| Table 22: | Comparison of different materials for carrier bags | 134 | |
| Table 23: | Selected GWP100 for construction pipes | 136 | |
| Table 24: | Phase-Dependent and Total GWP per km of 30.5 cm (12 in.) dia Materials [Du et al., 2013] | 138 | dia |
| Table 25: | General advantages and disadvantages of plastic, concrete and | 139 | and |
| Table 26: | Comparison of different materials for construction pipes | 139 | |

List of figures

| | | |
|---|-----|--|
| Figure 1: Locations of on-site interviews | 09 | |
| Figure 2: Global plastics consumption per capita per day [Jambeck et al., 2015] | 12 | |
| Figure 3: Primary plastics production by industrial sector, 2015, [Geyer et al., 2017] | 13 | |
| Figure 4: Plastics waste generation by industrial sector, 2015, [Geyer et al., 2017] | 13 | |
| Figure 5: Waste hierarchy | 14 | |
| Figure 6: Circular economy conceptualisation [Green Growth, 2014] | 16 | |
| Figure 7: Expected development of the plastic and plastic recycling market | 17 | |
| Figure 8: The Danish Plastic Action Plan | 19 | |
| Figure 9: Waste sorting at Taka Taka | 21 | |
| Figure 10: The Business of Taka Taka | 21 | |
| Figure 11: Business of Mr. Green Africa | 22 | |
| Figure 12: Awareness rising in schools | 22 | |
| Figure 13: Mass flow of plastics material within Kenya | 27 | |
| Figure 14: Composition of waste generated in Nairobi [JICA, 2010] | 32 | |
| Figure 15: The hierarchy of the plastic waste recycling chain | 35 | |
| Figure 16: Dandora dumpsite | 37 | |
| Figure 17: Basic idea of an EPR system | 52 | |
| Figure 18: Basic scheme of an EPR system based on a collective responsibility | 52 | |
| Figure 19: Comparison of collective and individual EPR system | 53 | |
| Figure 20: The different set-up conditions of the PRO | 55 | |
| Figure 21: Operationalised EPR scheme | 58 | |
| Figure 22: Waste segregation and collection in Germany (upper left) and Spain (upper right) Japan (bottom left) and Shanghai (bottom right) | 67 | |
| Figure 23: Waste collection in Palermo (left) and Tunis (right) | 68 | |
| Figure 24: Container designs | 68 | |
| Figure 25: PET substitution | 70 | |
| Figure 26: Attached lids on bottles | 70 | |
| Figure 27: Interface for determining the obliged companies | 80 | |
| Figure 28: Distribution of the global plastics production, 2017 [PlasticsEurope, 2018] | 85 | |
| Figure 29: Recyclate use according to polymer fraction [based on EuCP, 2017] | 110 | |
| Figure 30: Recyclate use according sectors [based on EuCP, 2017] | 110 | |
| Figure 31: Three principles and ten corresponding strategies towards circular economy | 113 | |
| Figure 32: G7 Ocean Plastic Charter | 114 | |
| Figure 33: The 17 SDGs of the UN | 115 | |
| Figure 34: GWP for 1 m of installed plain wall sewerage and drainage | 137 | |
| Figure 35: NRED for 1 m of installed plain wall sewerage and drainage | 137 | |

Definition of terms

| | |
|---|--|
| Bio- based plastics | Plastics which are manufactured from renewable sources; sugar cane (as opposed to fossil-based plastics, which use fossil fuels). The term bio-based doesn't necessarily imply |
| Biodegradable plastics | Plastics which can be degraded or composted by specific, environmental conditions. Biodegradable plastics are both of bio-based as well as fossil-based plastics. |
| Circular economy | The circular economy is defined as an economic system like plastics are used more efficiently through the of "reduce, reuse and recycle" to close the loop. It has economical as well as social and environmental reduced import dependency, employment creation, reduced resource extraction as well as improved human health. |
| Deposit-refund system (DRS) | A surcharge which is placed on certain products. When consumers return quantities of the products, the surcharge is refunded. |
| Disposal | Refers to any operation which is not defined as the operation later results in a secondary consequence of substances or energy. |
| Energy recovery | A process in which energy (heat, electricity, fuel) is recovered from the primary treatment of waste. The most common is incineration. It is not material recycling. |
| Extended producer responsibility (EPR) | An environmental policy approach in which a producer is responsible for a product throughout its life cycle, i.e. when a product turns into waste. Already during sale (and export), producers are responsible for disposal. Producers/importers pay a fee for later disposal of their products when their packed goods are placed on the market. This fee is used for collecting, recycling and disposing of waste and other costs arising from maintaining the system. It is a contribution to the general public budget of a country. |
| Feedstock recycling | The process of breaking down collected plastics into basic chemical elements. These monomers can be used as alternatives in manufacturing new polymers. Particularly for plastics which are difficult to recycle – due to their nature or low economic value. |
| Free riders | Producers/manufacturers and importers that enjoy the benefits of the EPR system without paying the corresponding costs or under-declare their volumes. |
| Material recycling | Describes a recycling process in which waste materials are reprocessed into products, materials or substances with similar properties – also referred to as closed-loop recycling. It requires lower properties. |
| Manufacturer / converter | Companies which produce plastic packaging or other plastic items from raw material. |
| Landfill | A location where most generated municipal solid waste is disposed. In the Kenyan context, there are no sanitary landfills. Precautionary measures like wastewater treatment and site sealing. In many cases, it cannot be distinguished whether a site is a landfill or a dumpsite. |

| | |
|---|--|
| Life cycle analysis | Life cycle analysis (also called Life-cycle assessment or to assess environmental impacts associated with all the lifespan (from raw material extraction through the manufacture, distribution, use, repair and maintenance, to recycling). |
| Obliged companies | Companies which are obliged to pay a fee within |
| Oxo-fragmentable plastics | Plastics which quickly fragment into micro-particles in warmth, light and oxygen but do not degrade becoming a source of environmental pollution in |
| Packaging | The materials in which a product is wrapped before being sold or transported. |
| (Packaging) user | Companies that use packaging for their products when market. In literature, often referred to as “prod |
| (Packaging) filler | Companies that fill empty packaging with their products the market. |
| Polluter pays principle | The waste producer or owner is the potential polluter (including financially). The “polluter pays” principle creates incentives for environmentally-friendly conduct and the |
| Producer | See “(Packaging) user”. |
| Waste prevention | Measures taken before a substance, material or product which reduces quantities of waste and also includes and the extension of the lifespan of products. hazardous substances being used and the adverse impact waste on the environment and human health. |
| Producer responsibility organisation (PRO) | The central element for the organisation of all tasks EPR system. Allows producers/users to assume responsibility for their efforts and jointly managing the arising waste through their responsibility. The PRO is the most important stakeholder and is responsible for setting up, developing and maintaining as well as the take-back obligations of the obliged |
| Recovery | Describes any operation in which waste serves a useful other materials or using its material properties (including reuse, recycling as material or feedstock recycling |
| Recyclables | Materials that still have useful physical or chemical their original purpose and therefore can be re-made of positive economic value as well (e.g. rigid PE, |
| Recyclates | A product which has passed through a life recycling process, which means it is made from used regranules). |
| Recycler | Companies that recycle pre-processed waste streams (plastics) by washing, flaking, agglomerating and actions, an economically marketable output product is |
| Reducing | The practice of using less material and energy to generated waste and preserve natural resources. Includes materials from becoming waste before they reach the recycling includes re-using products. |

Definition of terms

| | |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| Re-use | The repeated use of a product in the same purpose. In this case, the product does not become waste. |
| Rigid plastics items | Plastic items that are stable in form, e.g. PET-bottles, PP containers, etc. (in contrast to flexible plastic items such as film). |
| Single-use plastics products | Are used only once and then thrown away, includes cutlery, straws or coffee stirrers. |
| Solid waste management (SWM) | The storage, collection, transportation and disposal describes a practice by which several waste management techniques are used to manage and dispose of specific waste management techniques include avoidance, reduction, recovery and disposal. |
| Source separation | The segregation of specific materials at the source. |
| Waste hierarchy | Describes a ranking of waste management options best for the environment. It gives top priority to the waste generated, the priorities lie within preparing for recovery and lastly for final disposal. |
| Waste management | The term waste management describes characteristic activities (a) collection, transport, treatment and disposal of waste, (b) monitoring and regulation of the production, collection, and disposal of waste and (c) prevention of waste process modifications, reuse and recycling. |

Abbreviations & Acronyms

| | |
|-------|--|
| BMO | Business Membership Organization |
| CGK | Clean Green Kenya |
| DRS | Deposit Refund System |
| EMF | Ellen MacArthur Foundation |
| EOL | End-of-Life |
| EPR | Extended Producer Responsibility |
| EPS | Expanded Polystyrene |
| GWP | Global Warming Potential |
| HDPE | High Density Polyethylene |
| JICA | Japan International Cooperation Agency |
| KAM | Kenya Association of Manufacturers |
| KEBS | Kenya Bureau of Standards |
| KEPSA | Kenya PrivateSector Alliance |
| KPAP | Kenya Plastic Action Plan |
| LCA | Life Cycle Analysis |
| LDPE | Low density Polyethylene |
| MSW | Municipal Solid Waste |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organisation |
| NRED | Non-Renewable EnergyDemand |
| OECD | Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development |
| PE | Polyethylene |
| PET | Polyethylene Terephthalate |
| PP | Polypropylene |
| PRO | Producer Responsibility Organisation |
| PS | Polystyrene |
| PVC | Polyvinyl Chloride |
| SDGs | Sustainable Development Goals |
| SUP | Single Use Plastic |
| TOC | Total Organic Carbon |
| WEEE | Waste Electrical and Electronic Equipment |

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Waste is a fact of human life. How we handle of our most critical natural resources; or, enhance our humanity.

As the world's dynamism continues, time is in the world will stop long enough to allow greatest, most perfect solution, to any problem complex as that of waste. It is upon with innovative agile thinking, collaborative efforts and, create a better world.

The Kenya Plastics Action Plan is a giant step arrest the problem of plastic waste management, turning an environmental and economic solution. This initiative aims to be a catalyst for the term, progressive and revolutionary measures to tackle management holistically.

As we begin this journey, we need to enhance the collaborative frameworks bringing onboard actors that will ensure that the spirit of this initiative is discourse for the short-term and long-term. For instance, how do we make our national consciousness, so that the ethos of every home, school, institution anchored on leaving the planet better than we found it? How can we ensure restoration as a personal, institutional and organizational responsibility? How do

The Kenya Plastics Action Plan, with all its main actors that is, Industry and together the answers to the questions above at a primary level. It Economy for plastic use and waste management in the country. It looks at Extended Producer Responsibility schemes and establishment of re-cycling value

As we do this we are conscious that we have just started to lay we must we must equip ourselves with innovation, technology, progressive regulations to advance the solutions in step with the needs of our country, and

I speak for the Association in saying that we are committed, and are at of a circular economy, towards sustainably managing waste, and conserving

Sachen Gudka
KAM Chairman

Executive Summary



Context

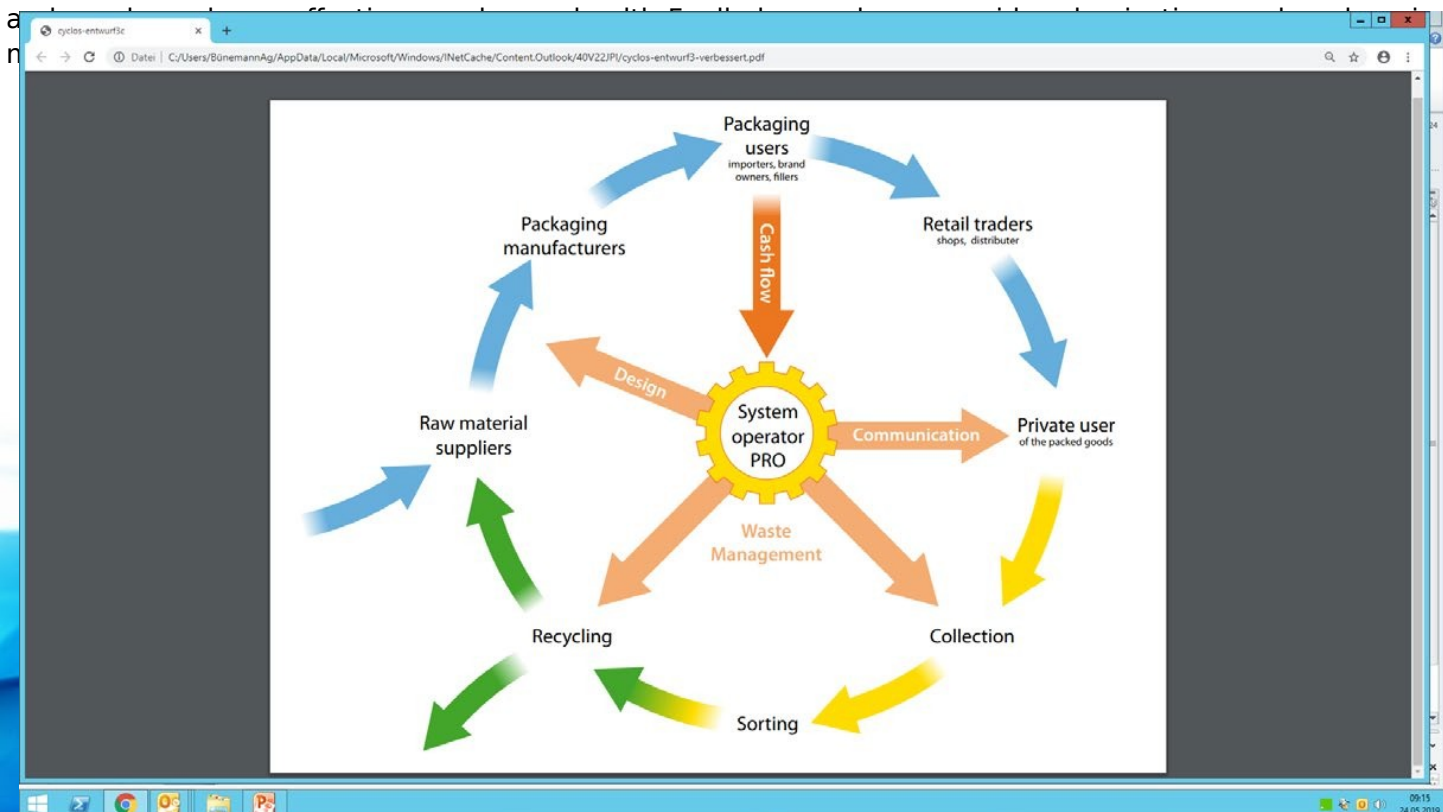
The government, through the Ministry of Environment and Forestry, has shown a strong commitment to stop the environment which is particularly worsened by waste management. This commitment is marked by the use, importation and manufacture of plastic carrying both commercial and household packaging. Following the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA) its intentions to extend the ban to plastic. The Ministry of Environment and Forestry has indicated to encourage manufacturers to develop plans to

The private sector, through the Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM), embraced the initiative to come up with solutions to curb plastic waste. The Kenya Plastic Action Plan is a private sector-driven initiative to tackle management gaps and other challenges faced by the plastic industry.

The aim is to involve policy makers, the general public and the industry to work together to pave the way to a green economy in Kenya.

The Kenya Plastic Action Plan was written to foster concepts of circular economy, to involve all stakeholders and the people. It proposes the creation of a model of Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) model, which establishes an independent Producer Responsibility Organization (PRO), that is financed by mandatory membership fees from all manufacturers and importers of plastic packaging within the Kenyan market. It utilizes the circular economy management strategies which ensure that plastic waste is managed appropriately - from collection to recycling, moving towards a circular economy.

Currently, the waste management structures fail to address the magnitude of plastic waste generated in rural and urban areas. In the capital region of Nairobi, roughly 1,000 metric tons per day is recovered for recycling. Around four fifths of this is burnt onsite or disposed of at dumpsites, which have by far exceeded their capacities to safely dispose of the waste.



The Kenya Plastic Action Plan outlines measures and proposes concrete actions existing waste management problems. Taking the best examples worldwide into cons existing value chains and pioneering actors within the country, the measures not towards a clean and healthy environment, but also showcase how the circu growth and welfare. All plastics that are consumed and processed in Kenya Therefore, the responsibility to manage them properly must be taken jointly by the market, including both local and international companies.

Objective of the Study

By building an understanding of the Kenyan context regarding waste regulatory framework, the Kenya Plastic Action Plan provides in-depth research into It incorporates the entire plastics value chain, spanning from imports of raw to uses and subsequent recycling of different plastic fractions.

The study followed a qualitative approach and included a literature review interviews throughout the whole country, focus group discussions and a stakeholder supported by the extensive local and international experience of the consultancy Plastic Action Plan aims to document local plastics waste management practices, high for extended producer responsibility as well as sketch a unified private sector posi to the Kenyan context. Most importantly, this report is meant to inform the sustainable policy framework on plastics in Kenya.

Summary of strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities for private sector engagement in tackling waste management challenges

| Strengths | Weaknesses |
|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Private sector commitment to manage plastic waste Strong support for need an EPR expressed by tradition and of waste se Functioning recycling value chains for certain plastics waste collection Product design decisions made within the country waste management infrastructure Most consumer products processed domestically | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Plastic waste spread throughout the country Practically no formalized waste collection Slow growth in formalized waste management infrastructure Gaps in regulations and laws on pl |
| Opportunities | Threats |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Government tax incentives to recycling (15% Corporate Tax for the first 5 years and VAT exemption on services offered to plastic waste management of pl Exemption on machinery and equipment used in measures on plastic waste manage Construction of the plants Rising awareness among the population on plastic waste highly price competitive Affordable labour cost and high need for employment Improvement on International standards on plastic waste management | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Investors in plastic framework to plastics Disjointed efforts in the country Voluntary measures on plastic waste management of pl Market waste highly price competitive |

Key Findings

The research revealed that the regulatory framework concerning plastics in Kenya is under development. Tax incentives discussed by the National Government showcase a commitment of the public sector to improve on private sector engagement in Kenya. Within the given framework, existing recycling companies have shown to be unable to meet the requirements for proper plastic waste management. Three areas have been identified as requiring regulatory intervention.

- 1) Recycling infrastructure – consisting of grassroots businesses as well as the whole country. Visionary enterprises and committed individuals offer an important role, also in the further development of a stringent framework. As the informal players – who played a significant role in the successes of the sector – are not incorporated as well.
- 2) Awareness campaigns amongst citizens need to be further developed. This is a matter of their social and economic status, are able to embrace better waste management practices accordingly. Particular focus needs to be placed on better segregation practices, generation and enhancing recyclability. Therefore, the need for environmental education to be instilled from an early age onwards.
- 3) The evident challenges of existing waste management practices in Kenya require a strong private sector dedicated to taking this action, Kenya is in a position to lead through coordinated action from both the public and private sector. The key element is the Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) framework.

Proposed Measures

In order to tackle the challenges highlighted above, the researchers recommended the following measures:

- An Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) model led by the private sector should be established with an independent Producer Responsibility Organization (PRO) as its focal actor.
- The Government should support the private sector to take responsibility for managing plastic waste. The PRO should therefore be a private sector entity enshrined in an appropriate regulatory framework.
- Membership of the PRO should be compulsory by law – for all companies operating in the Kenyan market, be it from imports or domestic production.
- Within the legislative and regulatory framework, provisions should be set to ensure the PRO is effective. This may include tax incentives as well as set quota for recycling.
- PRO members should pay a fee based on the volume and type of waste they generate and associated waste management costs.
- Non-members of the PRO such as informal businesses, should participate in the PRO and be surcharged at the last interface with the formal sector, e.g. when liaising with the formal sector.
- The PRO collaborates with waste management operators in building incentives for better waste collection and recycling quotas.
- Existing waste management structures, including the informal sector, are involved in the current waste management. There is a need to scale up to increase their role in the growing circular economy.
- The PRO builds a forum connecting all involved stakeholders – government, producers, distributors, consumers, collectors, aggregators, recyclers, converters, etc.
- Activities of the PRO should include awareness and capacity building to improve waste management practices.

Phyllis Wakiaga
KAM Chief Executive



1. Introduction

Plastics are one of the most versatile materials of our modern society. Their inert properties and high durability gives them an essential role in most economic sectors, including construction, automotives, food and beverages, agriculture, health and pharmaceuticals. Plastics have become a material used for niche applications in the first half of the 20th century, but they have since become an essential element of our global economy [Plastikatlas, 2019]. Represented in numbers, the use of plastics has increased from 2 million mt (metric tonnes) in 1950 to 381 million mt in 2015, with a projected increase to 7.8 billion mt of plastics by 2050 [Geyer et al., 2017].

However, concerns about negative impacts caused by plastic waste leakages into our environment are rising globally. Improper forms of waste handling, which are happening worldwide, are becoming a ubiquitous part of our environment, often taking places far off from any human settlement. This waste in the environment is highly problematic; not only because of the multiple harmful, often irreversible impacts, but also because of the multiple harmful, often irreversible impacts, such as entanglement, digestion of plastics and release of hundreds of hazardous chemicals found in litter [Geyer et al., 2015; Rochman, 2015].

The Kenya Plastic Action Plan proposes measures favouring the implementation of circular economy for the environment, sustainable use and management of plastics in Kenya, to catalyse action tailored to Kenyan conditions.

As most of these negative externalities eventually result from a poor, improper and damaging waste management, creating sustainable waste management for plastics is the key to solve this issue. However, as the sustainable use of plastics requires more than just a ban, a more holistic approach is the most suitable solution.

Objective of the study

As a means to reduce plastic degradation and pollution in Kenya, the Ministry of Environment, Urban and Planning has initiated "the use, manufacture and importation of all plastic bags used for commercial and proposed to expand this ban to PET bottles. Nevertheless, the Ministry has also proposed that they would encourage manufacturers to propose plans to recycle and reuse plastic bags and bottles.

Thus the Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM), as the representative of manufacturers, has commissioned the present report to document local plastic waste management practices and propose a unified position on managing plastic waste, as well as to articulate a suitable and sustainable policy framework. In particular, this Action Plan incorporates policy suggestions and sustainable funding mechanisms for the implementation of the plan. The plan pursues three main goals:

- i) To offer inclusive and broad stakeholder engagement,
- ii) To propose policy recommendations to catalyse the transition towards sustainable development levels, and
- iii) To deliver achievable and relevant actions leading to tangible results, including increased investment and more effective circular economy financing mechanisms.

Methodology

To address this objective systemically, a qualitative case study methodology is used to explore the situation and its possibilities from several possible angles. This approach allows for a detailed examination of the case and its respective problems.. Thus, literature research, an online questionnaire, and face interviews are chosen as suitable methods. Together, they serve to

As a first step, a literature review was undertaken to gain familiarity with the existing regulatory frameworks, as well as conditions and practices of plastic waste management in the selected countries. Special emphasis is given to the distribution of responsibilities and on the one hand and the devolved functions carried out by the Counties on the other.

Secondly, the theoretical part has been complemented by empirical insights from the focus group discussions and the stakeholders' meeting. The interviews and discussions explore the legal and regulatory framework on the plastic sector value chain, the plastic waste management as well as opportunities of a circular economy applied to the plastic sector (from the environmental and social dimension) were conducted through personal meetings with representatives of Services Eastern Africa Ltd. All on-site interviews were attended by two interviewers.

Interviews were conducted in Kisumu, Nakuru, Naivasha, Eldoret, Mombasa and Thika/Kiambu and Athi River/ Machakos. In addition to the interviews, a stakeholders' meeting covered key informants mainly from the Greater Nairobi Area. Interviewees and participants in the focus group discussions and stakeholders' meeting were selected from all levels of the plastics value chain. Additionally, an online survey to gain a plastic mass flow in Kenya was conducted.

The interviews, the focus group discussions and the stakeholders' meeting, together with the desk research, form the basis for the Kenya Plastic Action Plan and the proposed policy framework: the Kenya Plastic Action Plan allows the Action Plan to be tailored to the present situation in Kenya. The Action Plan thereby entails an inclusive, holistic and broad private sector-led road map for the plastic sector across the whole plastics supply chain.

Figure 1 : Locations of on-site interviews





2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

The following chapter briefly introduces plastics as material and its recycling. Plastic consumption and waste generation on a global scale, with particular reference to Kenya, can be found within the annexes. Concepts on how to handle plastic recycling and of different circular economy implementations are also outlined there.

2.1 Plastics consumption and waste generation on a global scale

The term 'plastics' describes a huge group of materials that form the backbone of modern society. They enable the creation of various products with different characteristics for a vast range of applications.

The most commonly used materials for plastic packaging are a group of diverse materials that melt when heated and solidify when cooled in a reversible manner. Polymers of these materials, such as polyethylene (PE; widely used in the form of either low-density polyethylene (LDPE) or "high density" polyethylene (HDPE)), polypropylene (PP), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), and polyethylene terephthalate (PET).

For manufacturing any plastic material, so-called monomers are produced through separating the hydrocarbon chains from fossil sources like natural gas, petroleum or biomass (called bio-based plastics). These monomers form the basis for the polymers.

Due to its suitability for a vast range of applications, plastic has become a global network. Looking at the African continent, the daily plastic consumption ranges between 0 to 0.2 kg per person; Kenya's daily plastics consumption is 0.03 kg per person (Figure 2), which is at the lower end of the range and represents a tenth of the total municipal solid waste volume [Jambeck et al., 2015].

'Plastics' is an umbrella term for a wide range of different materials with very different properties. They can originate from both fossil-based as well as bio-based sources.

Generally, all plastics consist of polymer chains, which vary in their composition and structure. There are two major groups: the thermoplastics that can be reversibly heated, melted and cooled down, and the thermosets which cannot be re-melted once they have cooled down.

This distinction has important implications for the recycling of plastics.

As plastics are used across all kind of sectors, the plastics economy has become a global business. However, the plastics usage by sector and the plastic waste generation by sector vary significantly and is rooted in the different in-use phases of the product. As packaging has the shortest in-use phase, it is the biggest contributor to plastic waste.

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

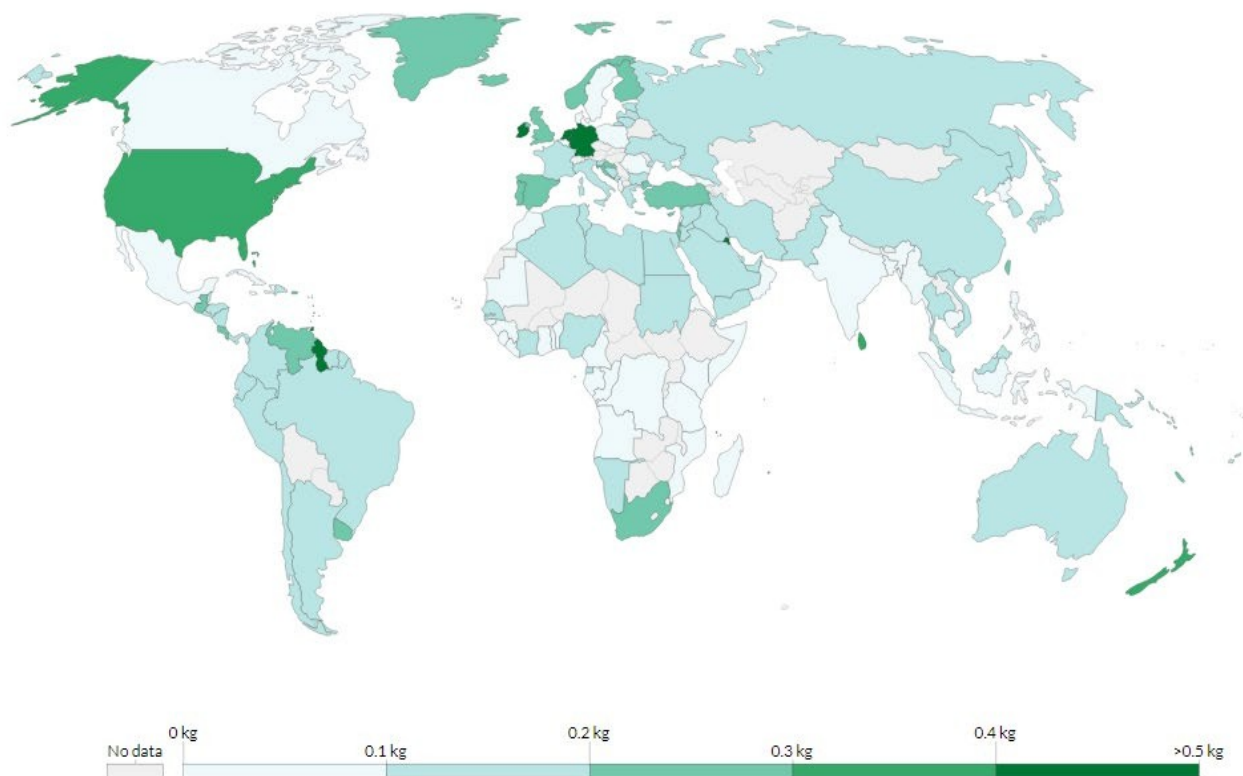


Figure 2: Global plastics consumption per capita per day [Jambeck et al., 2015]

Examining the plastics production on a deeper level by looking at p emerges (Figure3): in 2015, the highest proportion (36 %) of all p while building and construction were ranked second with 16 %.

When it comes to plastics, many terms are used in a vague manner. To clarify the following definitions are used in this report:

Plastics products is the umbrella term for any items which consist of one of several plastic types regardless of purpose, properties and duration of in-use phase. **Packaging** refers to products made from any materials for the reception, protection, handling, delivery and presentation of goods. It may range from raw material to processed product and which are passed on by the manufacturer to the user or consumer.

Single-use plastics (SUP) - often also referred to as disposable plastics - are items which are intended to be used only once before they are thrown away or recycled. This includes plastic packaging, bottles and containers but is not limited to packaging. Other items are grocery bags, straws, cutlery, among others.

However, plastic production does not directly reflect plastic waste generation, as the end product (Figure4) by the polymer type and the lifetime of the end product (Figure4) use' phase of, on average, six months, also constitutes the biggest share of the generated waste. Building and construction are responsible for 4 % of the generated waste. Total annual waste generation equals approx. 75 % of the annual plastics production.

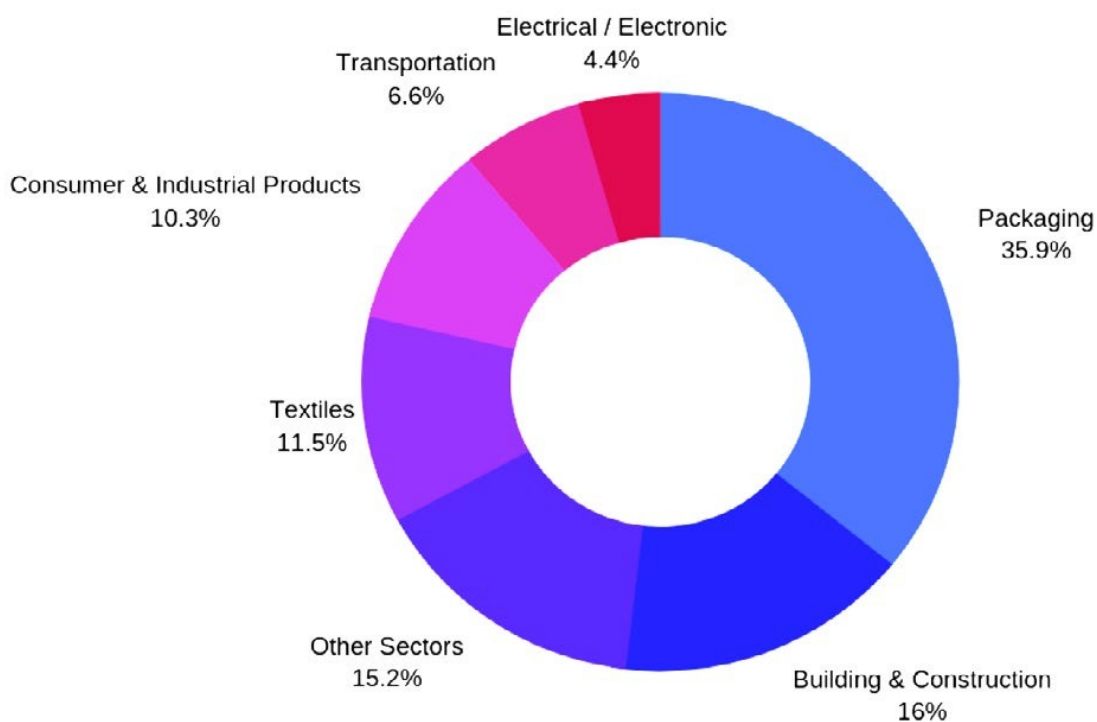


Figure 3: Primary plastics production by industrial sector, 2015, [Geyer et al., 2017]

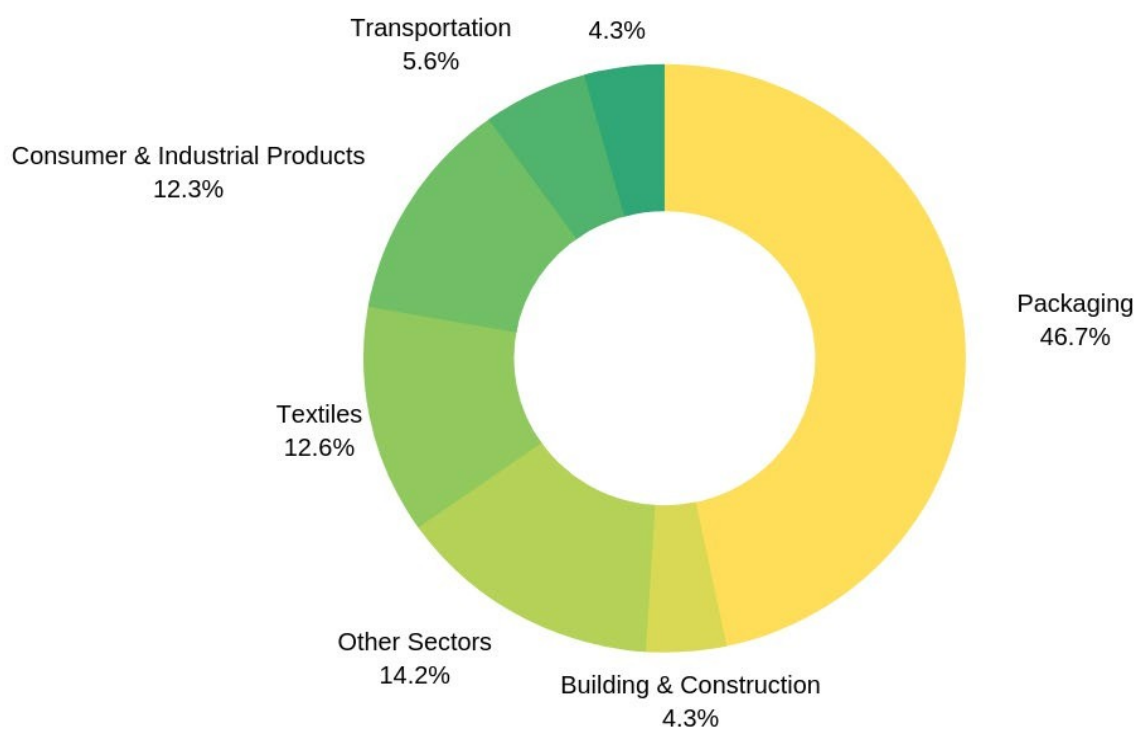


Figure 4: Plastics waste generation by industrial sector, 2015, [Geyer et al., 2017]

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

2.2 Recycling Plastics

To improve the waste management situation, basic concepts and definitions are as definitions of waste, recycling, recovery are a crucial prerequisite for waste and becomes a secondary raw material (so called end-of-waste criteria), waste and by-products.

The central concept for proper waste management and recycling is the waste hierarchy European Waste Framework Directive (Figure 5): It is a set of priorities for waste treatment listing the most preferred to least preferred option starting with a product becomes waste), preparation for reuse, recycling, energy recovery hierarchy is to ensure that waste management takes place at the highest level.

Recycling means any recovery operation by which waste materials are reprocessed into products or substances, whether for their original or other purposes. There are two main types of recycling: mechanical recycling describes recycling processes in which waste is mechanically reprocessed into a product of equivalent or lower properties. Feedstock recycling refers to recycling processes in which the material is transformed into its original building blocks.

Recycling includes the reprocessing of organic material but does not include energy recovery. As it is not possible for all plastics waste, energy recovery is still a suitable and appropriate waste treatment form for many plastics waste items.

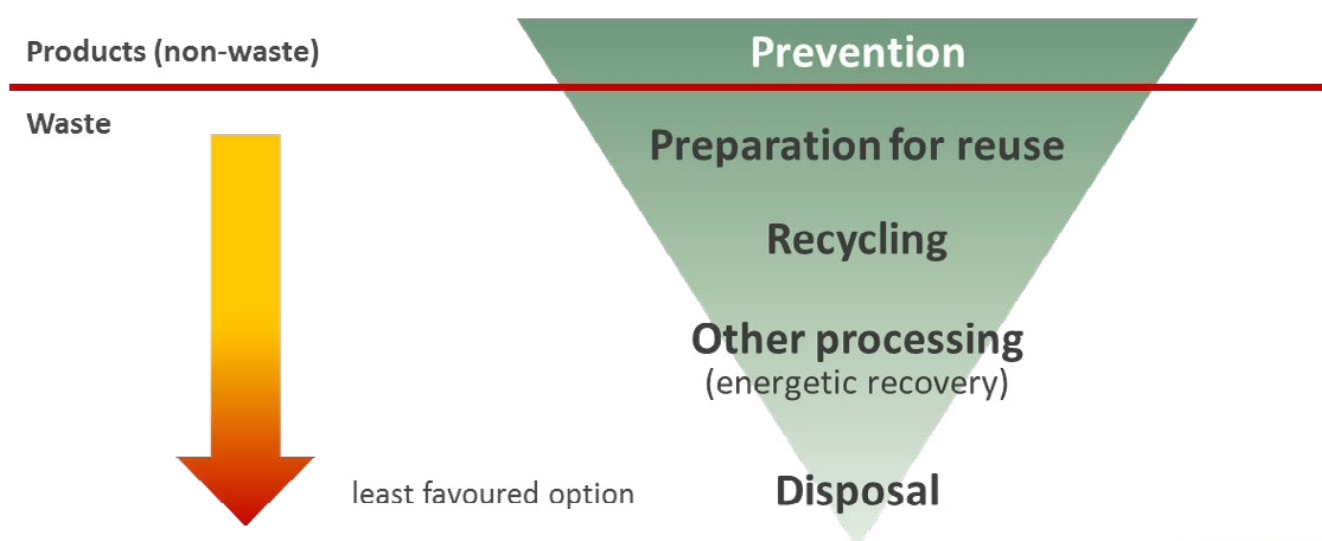


Figure 5: Waste hierarchy

Recycling requires a specific definition, as there are often different definitions about which processes are considered recycling and which are not. Generally, recycling is defined as the process of using recovered material to manufacture a new product. This definition includes both material and feedstock recycling.

Material recycling describes recycling processes in which waste is mechanically reprocessed into a product of equivalent properties - also referred to as closed-loop recycling - or into a product of lower properties.

Feedstock recycling describes the de-polymerisation of plastics into their chemical building blocks [European Commission, 2019]. Following the definition of the European Waste Framework Directive, energy recovery is not a recycling process.

Recycling plastic polymers is highly dependent on the purity of the waste polymer. The presence of contaminants from other waste materials and other polymer types as not suited to creating recyclates.

If a plastics product or good is truly recyclable is eventually determined by two criteria: the composition quality of the object and the real recycling options after usage. In practice, recycling is only possible if there is corresponding, appropriate infrastructure. Otherwise, the product or packaging is only “ready for recycling”. To turn it into a recyclable product or packaging, a comprehensive expansion and the development of collection systems and recycling processes are prerequisites – defining general requirements for a product design. These processes aim at enabling the product to be recycled after use.

Recycling plastics is also emphasised in the EU as a crucial part of the plastic sector and the usage of recyclates fulfil a central role in the transition. Increasing recycle usage is rather a ‘quality’ instead of ‘quantity’ problem.

- i) difficulty to meet the required quality and
- ii) difficulty to have a consistent, reliable supply of high-quality recyclates [1]

From a circular economy perspective, plastic recycling is recognised as a key problem, it is not yet used to its fullest potential. To overcome this infrastructure, incentives as well as suitable legal and regulatory frameworks are needed.

2.3 The Circular Economy Concept

2.3.1 Introduction

The ‘circular economy’ is a theoretical concept that stands in contrast to the ‘linear economy’. Contrary to the traditional model in which resources are extracted, distributed, consumed, and eventually disposed, the circular economy concept aims to keep resources within the economic system. Instead of disposing of waste, it is reintegrated into the production stage, thereby closing the loop. Thus, in a circular economy the material flows are closed [Ghisellini et al., 2015; Wilts, 2016]. According to the Ellen MacArthur Foundation, the circular economy is based on the principles of designing out waste and pollution, keeping products and materials in use, and regenerating natural systems” [EMF, 2017a]. Applying elements of the circular economy to plastic waste management and the associated negative externalities.

Due to this circulating character, the circular economy offers a more efficient and sustainable use of resources, environmental, and social benefits. The circular economy concept is based on the principles of reduce, reuse, and recycle [Ghisellini et al., 2015; Wilts, 2016]. As the name implies, the goal is to achieve a maximum reduction of raw material and energy demand. It aims to minimise waste and emissions as well as waste incurring at the point of consumption. The reuse principle of products that are not waste should be reused again, or – if they have reached their end of life – for reuse [Ghisellini et al., 2015].

The circular economy is defined as an economic model within which resources like plastics are used in a more efficient manner through the three guiding principles of reduce, reuse and recycle to close the loop. Shifting to such a system has economic as well as social and environmental benefits through reduced import dependence, employment creation, reduced litter, less resource extraction and improved human health. Putting the circular economy principle into practice requires measures, which need to be taken at all level of the supply chain. Thus, a good collaboration among the different stakeholders to align measures is crucial.

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

This offers especially environmental benefits as it decreases the resource energy demand since the product is not newly manufactured [Castellani et al., 2009]. principle, refers to any process in which waste is recovered through re-constituents, thereby making it available for new manufacturing processes.

Taking circular economy concepts into consideration for all steps of the product measures cover a broader field than just operationalised at different scales – ideal fashion (Figure 6). However, this is initiatives, despite often being promising, remain measures across scales are often poorly aligned [WEF, 2016].

Shifting towards circular economy concepts creates more revenue and thereby also more jobs in fields of designing circular products, collecting and sorting, all crucial for reusing and most recycling. This requires both high-skilled as well as low-skilled labour.



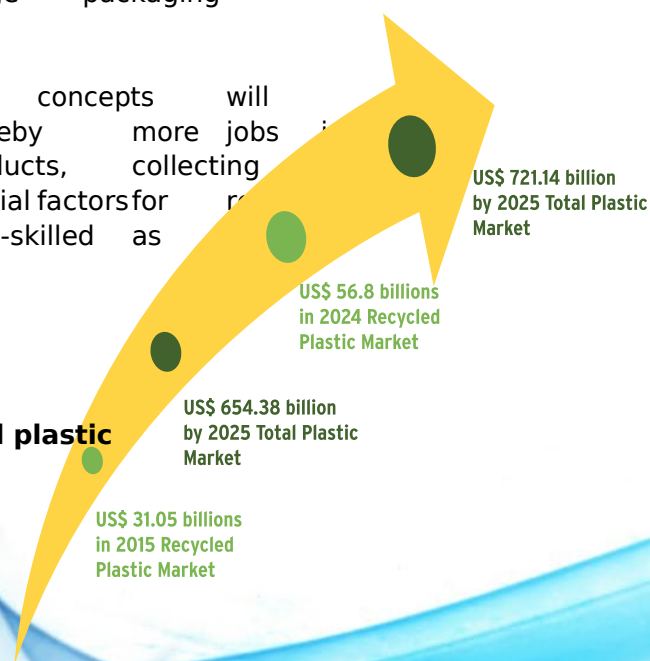
Figure 6: Circular economy conceptualisation

As mentioned, plastics as material have part or our daily life due to their versatility. plastics waste has also become pervasive concerns and discussions about the multiple the improperly managed and littered plast globally. Shifting towards a circular current situation would focus on closingthe amount of plastics that are recycled.

Reducing the overall amount of plastics used while increasing the reuse and recycling of the generate plastic quantities are the key element for transitioning the plastics economy into a circular one.

Moreover, implementing the circular economy for plastic waste opens the door to employment creation:

- Hence, incorporating circular economy concepts will generate more revenue and thereby more jobs in the fields of designing circular products, collecting sorting; all of which are crucial factors for recycling and recycling. This requires high-skilled as well as low-skilled labour.



2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

2.3.3 Global Circular Economy Examples

Worldwide, several countries have initiated shifts towards a circular economy. While their approaches have several similarities, they also exhibit noticeable differences in the respective country.

To push circular economy also on a global scale, there are several global practices as well as private sector initiatives to transit to a waste-free circular economy. This section is presented in annex 8.5.

Belgium

In Belgium, waste management is a devolved responsibility which is organised in three regions: Flanders, Wallonia, and Brussels-Capital in charge. In 1992, a waste collection system and a respective EPR system, the three regions passed a law to establish a strong legal basis. Since then, Belgium has developed a system for the whole country, which is reflected in the high recycling and recovery rates across the whole European Union (EU) [Eurostat, 2019].

Additionally, to increase recycling rates, Belgium is addressing the issue of plastic waste through comprehensive waste strategies that contain dedicated policy instruments [Eurostat, 2019].

The Producer Responsibility Organization (PRO) of the Belgian EPR system is called Fost Plus; it operates as a private sector. Fost Plus was founded in Belgium as a private sector. Although there are no other PROs, only one PRO has been created so far, creating an operational monopoly. It comprises approximately 100 companies, each paying participation fees. Today, there is a law that compels every company putting more than 10 kg of packaging annually on to the Belgian market (in Belgium) effectively to become a member of Fost Plus. These companies are obliged to pay for the recycling of packaging that is brought to the recycling responsible for all packaging sales according to a catalogue and publishes a respective criteria catalogue. Packaging from online sales also fall under the funding of waste management, Fost Plus uses the budget for education and awareness campaigns focusing on litter.

From a circular economy perspective, the Belgian system is overall running well. The Belgian system started with only separately collected valuable materials like plastic containers and bottles beside metals. Other packaging like flexible films and mixed plastics were collected together with mixed municipal solid waste for later incineration. Due to the increase of recycling quotas set by the EU, Belgium is now expanding its separate collection to all packaging for subsequent sorting and recycling.

The results of this system are good in terms of collection, sorting and recycling. Packaging is not collected within this system throughout most of Belgium. From 2017, the system has been extended to cover all other packaging materials. By 2022, 90 % of packaging in the region of Flanders is meant to be collected and recycled. A target for packaging waste is set to be recycled. By 2030, the government aims to recycle all plastics packaging waste. These quantitative targets are laid down in the

Denmark

In January 2018, the EU introduced its European strategy for plastics including goals to make all plastics packaging to reduce single-use plastics where applicable and use of micro-plastics. Moreover, binding which oblige manufacturers to use a certain in their products and obliges Member their plastic packaging by 2025 and 55 %

Despite extensive waste management frameworks in place, the majority of Danish municipal waste is still incinerated. In Denmark, it is assumed that per 1,000 metres of recycled – not incinerated – plastic waste, three to four permanent jobs and an economic value of roughly US\$ 900,000 can be created.

The current waste management system comprehensive waste collection infrastructure. However, to a study by the Danish Ministry of the majority of this waste, 63 %, is incinerated while only 30 % of all plastics and only 18 % of all plastics packaging are recycled. new strategy to transition to a more circular economy and meet the Action Plan (Figure 8), the Danish government portrays a holistic approach with measures chain. In particular, they highlight six focus areas and 27 reinforcing action measures a more sustainable, more circular economy. The six focus areas are:

- To strengthen enterprises as a driving force for circular transition
- To support the circular economy through data and digitalisation
- To promote circular economy through design
- To change consumption patterns through circular economy
- To create a proper functioning market for waste and recycled materials
- To increase recycling of material used in buildings and biomass



All stakeholders in the value chain of plastic packaging in these actions. To increase recycling of plastic a standardised waste collection is planned, as well as an EPR system. Also, better plastics waste handling is planned to transition into a more circular economy. The government encouraged to develop sustainable plastics solutions, reuse, recycling, circular business models and reuse.

Embracing a more circular approach also offers great benefits as it is estimated that for every 1,000 metres of waste (which are not incinerated), three to four jobs are created along with additional revenue of 6 million Danish kroner (approx. US\$ 900,000). The Danish government has spent 16 million to implement these initiatives [MFVM, 2018].

Figure 8: The Danish Plastic Action Plan

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices



Chile Pushed by an OECD report of 2016 that listed Chile alongside Turkey at the top of the list with regard to recycling quotas, the country has initiated a change in measures. One of the key factors driving this change is the establishment of a new waste management law entered the congress and has been officially enacted. Extended Producer Responsibility and Recycling Incentives Bill' [Ley N°20.920, 2016]

This bill defined clear goals and requirements for several circular economy systems for six product categories: lubricant oils, waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE), automotive, etc.

Through this law, an instrument for producer responsibility was created, which will gradually deliver proof of ta categories to create Producer Responsibility Organisations (PROs) or register has already been established. This law will gradually st producer regulations and targets (collection and recovery rates) are defined and p [dated June 2019] to tailor them to local conditions. Moreover, most of the C areas, while vast parts of the rural areas are only scarcely populated. As a and collection of the recyclables will first be introduced in urban centres w areas. The advantage of this approach is that the first quantities will a infrastructure, like accessible roads, will be built later.

As another key factor, the law considers the inclusion of the informal sector through a formalisation as accredited waste operators once they obtain the co N°20.920, 2016]. Collection and recycling have to be tendered separately a are treated with preference by the PRO. Through including and formalisi inclusive approach rather than taking away the livelihood of the workers, w the circular economy approach [Ministerio del Medio Ambiente, 2019].

Comparing these three countries, it appears that the following are requirements for success:

- Sound legal basis
- Holistic approach with measures all across the value chain
- Inclusive approach which integrates all actors (including the informal sector)
- Focus on comprehensive and extensive waste collection and sorting to increase recycling
- Establishment of an EPR system as a sustainable financing basis

2.3.4 African Circular Economy Examples

Complementing to the global examples, there are also examples of circular implemented in African countries.

Kenya

TakaTaka Solutions is one of the prominent examples of companies active in waste collection and recycling space in Kenya. As a leader in waste collection in Nairobi and on a smaller scale in neighbouring cities, it is successfully collecting and sorting waste from major waste sources like notable hotels and malls as well as national and international institutions (Figure 9).

To reduce the amount of waste ending up in dumpsites, TakaTaka recycles 95 % of the waste it collects; this is partly undertaken by themselves or, predominantly, by one of the numerous recyclers and converters that feed sorted and pre-treated fractions from TakaTaka into their production processes. Waste is sorted into more than 45 fractions within their two sorting sites in Nairobi.

As part of its recycling strategy (Figure 10), the company makes composts out of their separated organic waste, which is sold to farmers.



Figure 9: Waste sorting at Taka Taka



Figure 10: The Business of Taka Taka

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

Mr. Green Africa is another example of an innovative business model and concepts in Kenya. The company works with informal waste collectors (pickers) in its value chain. The company collaborates with these informal waste pickers and a network of 25 trading points, predominantly set up in Nairobi's low income areas. Green measures and keeps a record of each of its suppliers. Through this, the company ensures transparent prices paid to its suppliers by giving fair and consistent prices.

Mr. Green focuses on the collection of plastics, specifically HDPE, PP as well as papers like cartons. The plastics are sold as locally and internationally. This awareness plays an important role in Mr. Green's model. Continuing their social and environmental approach, Mr. Green Africa partnered with the international consumer goods company Unilever to promote plastics recycling in primary schools. The initiative entices children to become environmentally friendly and to help lead societal behavioural change (see Figure 12).



Figure 11: The Business of Mr Green Africa



Figure 12: Awareness rising in schools



Rwanda

Rwanda is a pioneer in Africa in terms of maintaining a clean environment. It has a policy for litter, which is still a problem in other parts of Eastern Africa.

For over ten years now, the country's economy has been running with an understanding and learn from this example, Rwanda has:

- i) Banned the use of single use plastic bags in 2008
- ii) Put in place a heavy fine on the banned items
- iii) Made it easy to package stuff with paper, which are available in shops and markets
- iv) Invested in education and awareness
- v) Drafted a bill on the ban of all single-use plastics in the country

Rwanda has successfully managed to promote awareness amongst its population in environment related topics. As one measure, the Rwanda Environment Management Authority initiated a Greening Schools Programme [REMA, 2019]. In addition to the programme, the authority has been visiting school grounds, using improved handwashing facilities to make children aware of the importance of the environment. The country has managed to promote awareness on the importance of a clean living environment.

Within the framework of the UN Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) programme, two local organisations with the support of the British development agency, DFID, have been working around the topic of the environment through the development of Eco-School Rwanda. The project is to promote environmental education in the country starting using education to help reduce poverty levels, as well as develop environmental mitigation knowledge amongst the children [Foundation Saint Dominique Savio, 2014].

Rwanda has been successfully able to keep its streets clean with help of the government. It put in place once the plastic bag ban was implemented. Rwanda has one of the lowest levels of litter in the world on this in place, which all people living in Rwanda adhere to. It ensures that the capital Kigali and beyond.

Compliance with authority is a culture in Rwanda. Therefore, regulations put in place are adopted by the population. The way the citizens have adopted the policy is a success story for the country.

Early 2019, the country also drafted a law to ban all single-use plastics. If this passed as legislation, companies affected will have to adapt to this.

The country's infrastructure still remains inadequate as the population is fast growing. The country has to develop further the city's infrastructure and residential buildings. The country has to construct high density buildings by 2040, by multiplying the medium rise apartments by more than three times the number (State of the Environment and 2015).

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

Even though streets and roads in Rwanda are clean, recycling remains a problem. Some categories of waste cannot be recycled in the country due to the lack of infrastructure. The number of companies in the sector is insufficient and therefore the recycling industry is not entirely developed.

With the increase of the population in the City of Kigali, there has been a rise in solid and liquid waste (SLW) on a daily basis. Solid and liquid waste (SLW) are collected from households and businesses. The volume of waste is around 300 tonnes per day and only 2% of solid waste is recycled through a waste segregation system.

Just as it is the case in many developing countries, a dumpsite was closed down in Nyanza and is now operating the State Finances, 2016].

As much as the country has an efficient way of ensuring the streets are free of waste, the final handling of the waste is still a challenge. In addition to the regulatory framework helps to keep the streets clean, still needs to be improved in order to apply more circular practices in the waste management sector.

Tunisia

In 2004, Tunisia set up several systems for the collection, treatment waste, such as ECO-Lef. To foster the development of the sector, the Tunisian creation of microenterprises by awarding contracts together with the mun

The system was financed by an eco-tax, although it was labelled 5.1.1). A fee of 5 % on the net added value has to be paid for raw materials. For the import of already packaged goods, no tax needed

The funds collected via the eco-taxes were (partially) used to;

- Finance the ECO-Lef system,
- Cover part of the operational fees of the municipal and hazardous waste in
- Cover part of the functional costs of the National Agency for Waste M

ECO-Lef is a public system for the recovery and recycling of pack local authorities. It includes the collection of packaging waste and recycling conditions set by the National Agency for Waste Management. The Eco-Lef types, namely PET bottles, milk bottles made of HDPE, plastic films and bags mad - cardboard packaging is excluded.

The collection of recyclable materials is done by approved and authorised companies can also buy material from informal collectors, which play a major in Tunisia. In turn, the collections companies (can) sell their collected quan mandatory. Eventually, the material is sold to recyclers. Despite their grea the informal sector is not visible in the ECO-Lef system.

After an initial success, which peaked in 2008 with collection of 15,700mt gradually but significantly decreased to 5,400 mt of collected packaging waste significant decline was rooted in the mismatch between funds generated from packaging waste quantities and the lack of adequate steering function of recycling infrastructure. This was exacerbated by further structural weaknesses, as the of certain parts of the system was diminished due to the decrease in poor outcomes include a lack proper control, complaints over the quality of non-approved recycling companies, long transport distances connected to relatively not least, limited domestic recycling value chains.

To improve their system, the National Agency for Waste Management is it into an actual EPR system.

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

2.3.5 Alternatives to Plastics

In light of the growing wealth and consumption and therefore also increase in this growth, efficient and effective waste management has become more in a central role for nature and resource conservation.

As part of the reduction pillar of the circular economy, it is in the substitution of plastic material with other materials in packaging and in the following chapters, there is currently no comprehensive waste management for waste in general and plastics in particular in Kenya. In light of (predominantly landfill, low recycling structure for glass and plastic, no resources, for instance in the form of packaging, should be reduced as resource losses and unordered deposits with the associated ecological consequences.

Against this background, it is important to compare plastics vis-à-vis and impacts in regards to a multitude of impact categories. Such a part of the research and is presented in annex 8.9. In particular:

- carbon emissions (expressed through the global warming potential (GWP)) and indicators
- health, safety, collection and recycling situation as economic indicators

These comparisons are based on Life Cycle Analyses, which compared different materials for a purpose at item level. Life Cycle Analysis (LCA) is a technique to assess all the stages of a product's lifespan (from raw material extraction through distribution, use, repair and maintenance, to disposal or recycling). In each case, conditions in each case are considered. LCAs indicate the product's impact on global warming potential, acidification, photo-oxidant formation, ozone depletion potential, aquatic eutrophication, particulate matter, total primary energy, non-renewable water use (related to water input).

Generally, it is not possible to derive a general rule stating that a statement is always item-specific and dependent on a multitude of characteristics of a proper waste management system. Thus, from a resource conservation point of view, an orderly and comprehensive recycling structure is the preferred alternative for the foreseeable future, substitution will largely not be able to replace the specific attributes of plastics.

¹Aquatic eutrophication describes the process when an aquatic body becomes over-enriched in excessive algal blooms, potentially leading to oxygen depletion and a shift in detrimental effects on the aquatic ecosystem [Chislock et al., 2013]. Terrestrial eutrophication process and outcomes, although the enrichment of nutrients caused by air pollution.

2.4 Kenyan Plastic Mass Flow

2.4.1 Quantification of plastic volumes

To quantify the flow of the various finished goods import, use and export, consumption in Kenya, the plastics material value chain have to be verified. The approach that plastic material is introduced in Kenya

The researchers conducted a mass flow analysis by combining: modelling of national data sets on plastics and plastic packaging consumption from 2016 inflated to 2017 with a survey of Kenyan recyclers regarding the quantities of recycled plastics and plastic packaging waste

- i) imported raw material for plastic packaging (raw material for resins and products)
- ii) imported packaging material as well as plastic goods, or already as products
- iii) waste material

Within Kenya, the raw material for plastics is converted into plastic packaging together with the imported packaging and products – are sold to consumers and become waste. This waste is subsequently prepared for reuse, recycled, disposed of through informal channels, or potentially even exported to other countries. Other flows of the country are through the export of plastic packaging and plastic products and the export of raw materials.

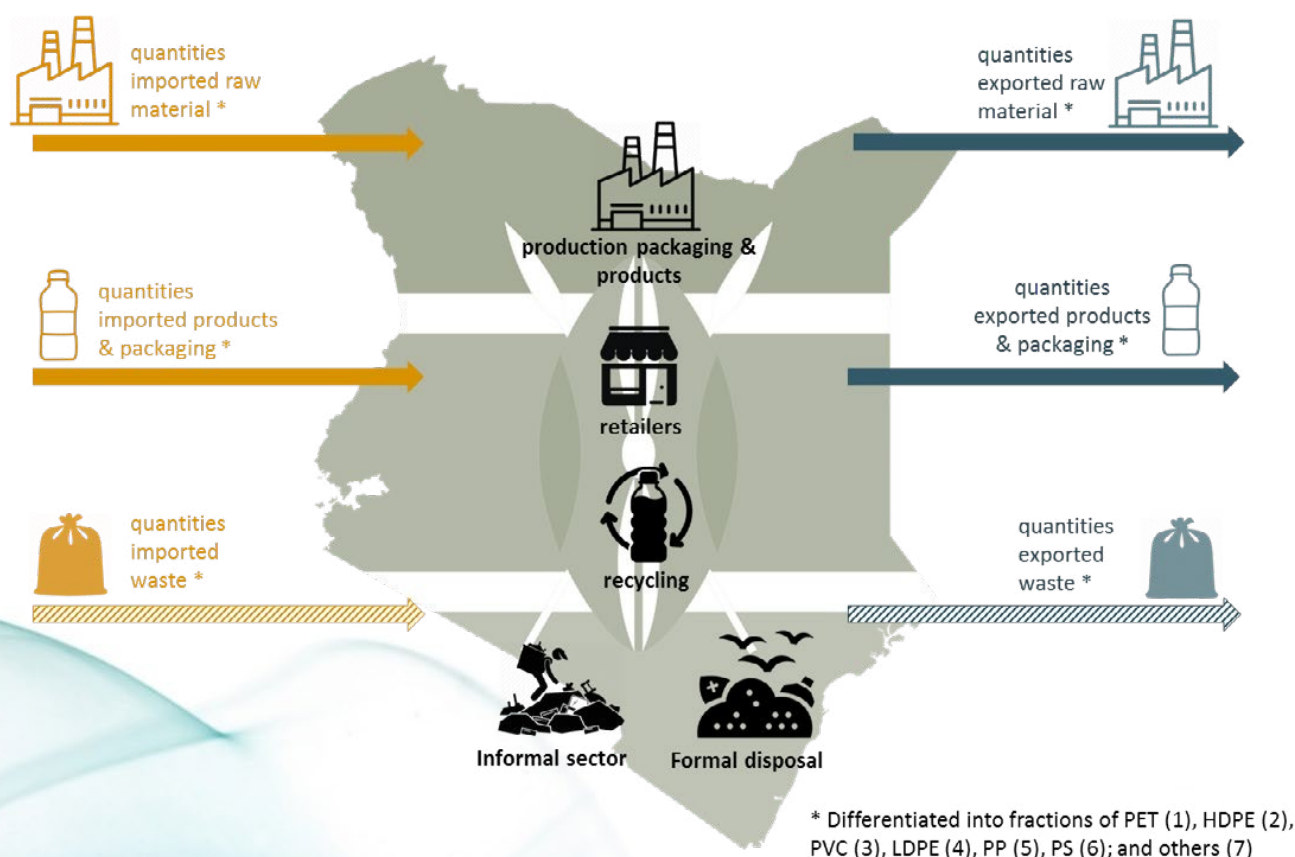


Figure 13: Mass flow of plastics material within Kenya

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

To identify the flow of plastic material at every step of the export process, a study was conducted via KAM with relevant actors from all steps along the value chain. Participants were asked to indicate their activities in relation to plastic use and from coded fractions (see annex 8.2), the respective volumes purchased and potential

This is complemented by insights derived from the key informant interviews and the Action Plan's research.

The results of the online questionnaires have been compared and complemented with the data generated in this field to increase the accuracy of conclusions. In previous studies, a study undertaken by Eunomia [2018] identified the quantity of waste generated in Kenya. Eunomia's research is based on the assumption that the quantity of waste generated, due to the volume of packaging it has to be considered that this assumption is not fully accurate in the context of Kenya. It is reused either for the same purpose or for a different one. The main research method is interviews of different stakeholders in the value chain. It can therefore rather be considered estimates. The second important study conducted by Ipsos [2019] with focus on PET bottles: within the course of the market analysis, the material in Kenya was also conducted, based on data from 2017.

Import of plastics

Although Kenya possesses crude oil, there are no plans to set up a refinery. Domestic crude oil is therefore not (yet) used for the generation of plastic products and/or product must have been imported to Kenya at some point (including for resins). This assumption matches with the approach of the other studies in quantifying this interface is the most relevant one.

According to Eunomia [2018], an estimated 557,000 mt of primary and non-primary plastics was imported into Kenya in 2017. The study reports 453,781 mt of imported plastics in 2016 (and 469,400 mt in 2016). Due to local production, it is assumed that this number represents the total plastic imports in the form of granulates, resins, and film, empty containers and other plastic products. In 2017, the plastic industry processed around 240,000 mt of primary plastics with the balance, roughly half the total imported volumes, accounted for by the import of plastics in the form of already packed goods. The numbers of the two studies are not fully congruent, they are generally close to each other indicating a scale of 450,000 to 570,000 mt of primary and non-primary plastic imports in 2017. The different nature of the data, as one is an estimated value, based on market developments. Moreover, it also shows the uncertainty of the market with regard to plastic imports into perspective that Eunomia also includes packed/made products in its estimates of all goods consumed in Kenya, the gap shrinks – making both approaches more comparable.

The main countries from which the material is imported are China, India and the USA. In instance, 86 % of imported PET originates from China and India alone [Ipsos 2019].

The interviews revealed that sorted plastics fractions are also occasionally imported into Tanzania, to be recycled in Kenya as the prices for waste material are relatively low compared to other countries [Kenya Plastic Action Plan Interviews, 2019]. These amounts seem to be related to the domestic volume flows, although no exact quantities could be assessed, was the illegal import of plastics in any form. Thus, the magnitude of the problem is significant.

Domestic processing of plastics and production of packaging

As the domestic production of plastics material and products is dependent on the availability of raw materials, the material flows from the previous step to this one are important for the verification of the mass flow.

As briefly mentioned in the previous section, the domestic production of plastics material is non-existent; the whole demand is met by imports. Around half (equalling 240,000 mt) of the plastics imports are processed domestically. These local processors have to compete with oftentimes cheaper imports from China and the UAE, for example [Ipsos, 2019]. The survey display, particularly raw material for PVC, shows that a significant amount is imported, while the quantities for PVC are relatively minor (see below 'Wastemanagement and recycling').

The numbers on imported plastics of the two reviewed studies are not fully congruent, but they are generally close to each other indicating a scale of 450,000 to 570,000 mt of primary and non-primary plastics for 2017.

In Kenya, the domestic packaging, supposedly linked to domestic production, is mostly composed of imported packed/made goods. According to Eunomia [2018], around four fifths of the packaging material is used locally from imported packaging, imported virgin material (processed into packaging material) and to a lesser extent, domestically recycled materials. Only around a fifth of the packaging material is made of packed/made products. The Kenyan private sector comprises a diversified structure of small and medium-sized enterprises and multinational consumer goods companies that serve Kenya and surrounding markets. With production and packaging operations on site, they together consume a significant amount of packaging material consumed in Kenya [Kenya Plastic Action Plan Interviews, 2019].

Export

Just as with the import group, this group is an umbrella for three different categories of materials (both made virgin materials as well as recycles as secondary materials). The export of plastics including packaging, and the export of waste. Regarding the export of raw materials, Eunomia [2018] reported that around 51,000 mt of plastics have been exported. Exported plastics at 51,000 mt for 2017 [Eunomia, 2018; Ipsos, 2019]. The primary source of export data does not clearly distinguish between all packaged products and plastic goods. Information about exports of plastic waste could not be identified.

Around 80 % of packaging material volume is used locally from imported packaging, imported virgin material processed into packaging domestically and domestically recycled materials.

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

Waste management: recycling quota

To analyse the quantities of the plastic fractions which have been consumed, exported raw materials (only primary, not secondary) and exported products of plastics introduced on the market (either imported or produced locally).

As presented by the Eunomia study, a total of 36,193mt of plastic waste was processed in 2017, meaning processing plastic waste through washing, flaking, shredding, granulation, etc. recycled plastics in the production of new products. The volume of plastic waste processed was 36,193mt, indicating that only parts of the recovered materials met the criteria for recycling. The amount of plastic packaging recycled was 23,006mt. The remainder, 13,907mt, was recycled for other purposes. Whereas practically all PET was recycled, significant percentages of other recycled fractions HDPE, PP and LDPE were used for other purposes. Differentiated according to the seven plastic fractions, the numbers are as follows:

Table 1 : Quantities of recycled plastics and plastic packaging acc. to fraction in 2017 [Eunomia]

| | Plastic waste forwarded to recyclers (mt / year) | Amount of plastics recycled (mt / year) | Amount of plastic packaging recycled (mt / year) |
|--------------|--|---|--|
| PET | Specific data not available | 5,778 | 5,778 |
| HDPE | | 10,943 | 4,407 |
| PVC | | 177 | 0 |
| LDPE | | 8,091 | 4,998 |
| PP | | 6,806 | 4,873 |
| PS | | 0 | 0 |
| Others | | 4,398 | 2,950 |
| Total | 42,950 | 36,193 | 23,006 |

Reflecting on all steps of the mass flow and the plastics consumption in the different plastic fractions vary significantly: On the one hand, the in-use phases based on the sectoral uses, as e.g. in construction, for instance, are utilized for longer periods, e.g. in construction, waste yet. On the other hand, it is also based on the differently developed recycling infrastructure in Kenya; for instance, no PS recycling infrastructure has been identified, in the recycling loop.

Overall, **the quota for recycled plastics equals 7 % according to the data of the Eunomia study**, coupled with export data from the Ipsos Study [2019]. Putting these two sources together, the recycling quota is based on the following calculation:

$$\frac{36,193 \text{ mt plastics recycled}}{(567,000 \text{ mt plastics imported} - 51,000 \text{ mt plastic products exported})} = 7\%$$

The underlying data shows certain amounts of uncertainty. Therefore, utilizing a different recycling quota varies. Nevertheless, even taking into account different data, that the recycling quota for plastics in Kenya stands at less than 10 %.

However, different to the above, the quota by analysing the generated waste. According to Estimates for plastics used in Kenya range from around 500,000 to 800,000 mt per year. Less than 10 % of these plastics are currently recycled. every Kenyan generates 0.39 kg of waste for the whole of Kenya. The percentage ranges from 9 % for low income to 15% for high income households. Nairobi [UN Habitat 2019]. Data obtained by JICA [2010] assumes the portion of plastic at the lower end of this, with 9.5 % of the

Taking a total population of approx. 50.2 million inhabitants in 2017 [World Bank], each person generates 0.39 kg municipal solid waste per day [World Bank, 2018], the of almost 20,000mt of waste generated daily; and around 7 million mt annually. that 11.8 % of the municipal waste streams are composed of plastics plastic waste are generated annually in Kenya. This estimate is significantly high [2018]; amounts of imported plastics are supposed to be higher using rate would thus be significantly lower.

Closing the gap related to recycling and a circular economy depends on current waste management practices, recycling possibilities and demand for recycling and legal framework.

Waste Management in Kenya

Kenya counts a population of around 50 million people. The metropolitan area around Nairobi includes neighbouring counties Kiambu and Machakos and comprises a population of around 4.6 million inhabitants [UN Habitat, 2019]. The city of Nairobi itself houses around 4.6 million inhabitants and forms another major economic and logistic hub. It is apparent in its role as the main harbour for several countries in the region. Eldoret and Nakuru exist in the more densely inhabited highlands towards the western part of the country. Especially in the agriculturally productive highlands and a narrow stretch along the borders of South Sudan, Ethiopia and Somalia, are scarcely populated. Kenya's characteristics as a rapidly developing country are also present

0.39 kg of waste per capita occur daily, compared to 2.7 kg per capita in Germany.

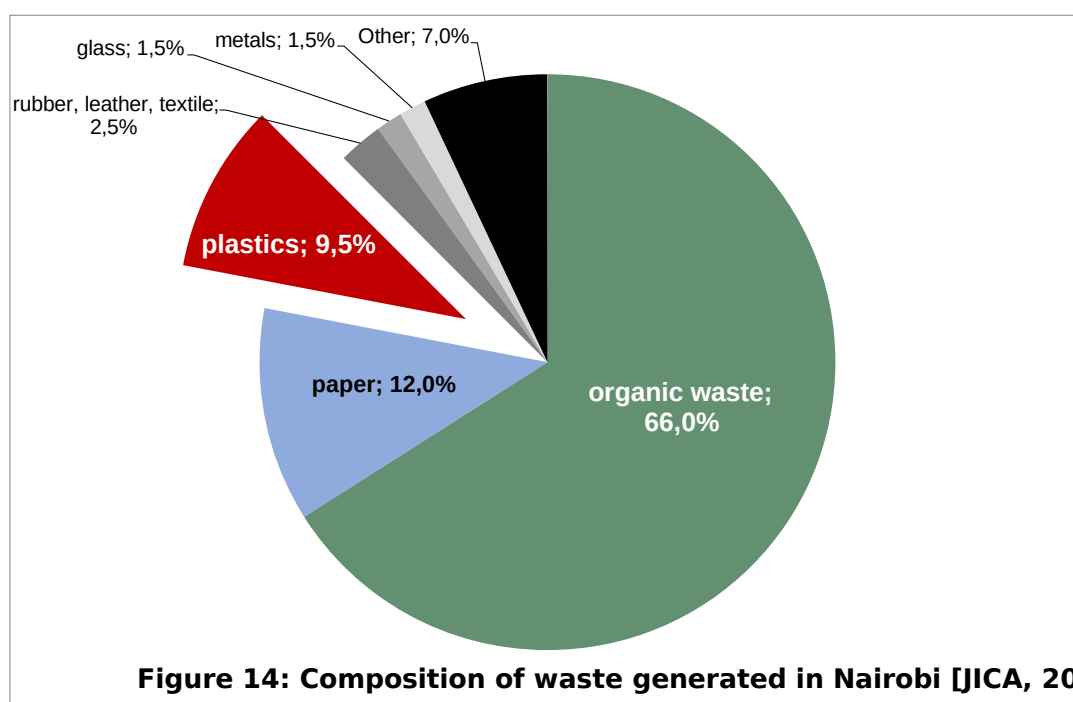
In the Greater Nairobi areas, Kenya's political and economic hub, 3,000 mt or 0.64 kg per capita of waste occur daily from residential areas, industry and other private companies as well as from commercial areas [UN Habitat 2019], a slight increase since the estimates by JICA [2010]. All plus minor amounts of glass, paper, metal and others. According to JICA [2010], 9.5 %. Recent data collection carried out by UN Habitat [2019] assumes plastic waste to be 11.8 %, specified as per different income levels in Nairobi; countrywide data

Roughly a tenth of municipal waste volume in Kenya comes from plastic, mainly packaging material.

count relatively lower volumes of plastics on other, high income areas account for the highest volume of absolute volume of plastics in municipal waste. Middle income areas are, by far, the most relevant function as the economic and political hub, Kenya's high-income areas are concentrated in Nairobi.

Putting all these findings together, plastics account for the largest share of municipal waste and paper. These volumes predominantly originate from plastic packaging and manufactured goods [Eunomia, 2018].

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices



2.4.2 Collection Systems

The public sector as a stakeholder steers the general direction of Kenya's actions plans. Institutions like the National Environmental Management Authority operation in the field. Additionally, some rules and regulations are set by the responsible for executing national law by implementing waste management infrastructure County Government Act, 2012]. A detailed overview of relevant legislative provided in chapter 3.

Within its legal boundaries, Nairobi City County is in charge of collecting waste effectively. However, services led to the rise of a domestic group ranging from waste pickers (also called scavengers) to recyclers [UNEP, 2015]. Private collection, recycling happen without restrictions, based on an open competition of buyers and sellers, and is a largely cash-based economy [UNEP, 2015]. Waste collection informal sector also plays a major to dominant role in all other Counties may vary [Kenya Plastic Action Plan Interviews, 2019]. Collection systems, run officially public or private sector, are nevertheless shown to have many irregularities or are still country-wide data is only limited or not available at all [Kenya Plastic Action Plan Interviews, 2019].

In Nairobi, economic activities and services relating to waste management are mainly undertaken by the informal sector.

Thus, systematic waste management infrastructure is lacking. A recently undertaken estimates that around 75 % of Nairobi's waste volume is collected in at best. The remaining roughly 25 % of waste volume ends up being in the neighbourhoods or self-treated, i.e. incinerated on site [JICA, 2010].

To the contrary, some professionals in the waste management value chain assume around 25 % to be more realistic [Kenya Plastic Action Plan Interviews, 2019]. About is collected in high-income areas, whereas it is respectively lower with decline confirmed in both studies, is that collection rates are significantly higher in being true in low income areas. UN Habitat [2019] assumes a collection referring to 13 % of Nairobi's population. The collection rate is estimated income areas, representing around 35 and 52 % of the total population, respectively.

At generation of 'domestic' source, mainly households, but also public and private offices, waste is usually not segregated. Waste segregation at generation of source is generally absent in Kenya is true for waste from streets and public areas. It is picked; hence the informal part of street the environment but results in the collection of valuable waste only. In general in a mixed collection lorry. During transport, casual waste workers segregate materials seem of value for the subsequent recycling chain. When reaching a dumpsite, rigid plastics, PET bottles and glass have been put aside. According to UN Habitat rate before reaching a dumpsite stands at slightly more than 20 % of than 30 % of the collected volume. After this first segregation on the dumpsite, the health of out materials at the dumpsite. Particularly on the dumpsite, the health of as well as the environment in proximity and downstream of the water body collection lorry and on the dumpsite, sorting capacities are limited. This is at source and declining value of dirty and moist materials [JICA, 2010; Kenya Plastic Action Plan 2019]. These secondary recovery activities at the dumpsite barely cover 1 % of 2.5 % of the waste volume that has reached a dumpsite, i.e. roughly dumpsite will never be recovered [UN Habitat 2019].

Putting these numbers into proportion: In Nairobi, around 3,000 mt of municipal waste are collected, 750 mt are directly disposed into rivers or burned recovered either before or on the collection truck and another 40 mt from of almost 3,000 mt. The recycling rate of municipal solid waste in Nairobi is 22 % of the total waste or 30 % of the collected waste volumes.

Aside from the above mentioned "domestic" waste (including private and public offices), on a more industrial scale, usually by private enterprises. Some manufacturing industries waste management by either contracting private companies to collect - whereby usually unknown - or by managing it internally. Small scale baling, shredding production waste back into the loop as raw materials or to sell it to it for secondary use. To a limited extent, incineration is practised as waste. Some industrial steam boilers have the capacity to burn plastics as a exists, however both business models are not realized at scale and are

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

Some companies prove to be especially innovative as they expand to d on their by-product; hence closing materials loop within own operations. The general manufacturing sector has applied proper solid waste management practices in it feeding back most fractions into the production processes and selling remainin recyclers. [Kenya Plastic Action Plan interviews, 2019].

2.4.3 Recycling Infrastructure

Recycling infrastructure in Kenya is composed of private companies that access waste through market mechanism convert it into secondary materials that production processes/be used for a new purp recovered by waste collectors, including waste sold to a waste recycler. After undertaking steps, depending on the material and inclu sorting, washing, shredding, etc., the segre yard is usually undertaken by hand, enabled cost of labour.

Rigid plastic recycling (like recycling of PE bottles, PP cups or PET bottles) new is common with a large number of small-scale recyclers throughout Kenya. In bigger economic hubs recycling infrastructure for HDPE and PP is in place; other areas are yet to attract recycling businesses.

The secondary resources are then resold to material converters that produce of the recycling value chain but are usually not regarded as recyclers th also consists of many companies whose business areas overlap into several

Organic Material

With around two thirds of the volume, organic matter accounts for the v in Kenya. Composting for organic waste is undertaken usually on a small sc horticultural waste, whereas only one industrial composting facility exists in the co in urban areas, most of the collected organic waste is disposed on d animal consumption and especially pigs are fed and bred both in rural areas a Especially pork that is produced in the surrounding of dumpsites is d only limitedly suitable for human consumption.

Paper, Glass and Metal Recycling

For paper recycling, several processing facilities that convert waste paper into carton boxes form value chains that recycle high percentages of waste paper, both from local and from neighbouring countries. A fair number of paper segregators are located in the Greater Nairobi area; one of the converting facilities is mainly concentrated in the Greater Nairobi area; one existing plant in Kisumu/ Western part of Kenya.

Only two companies have the capacity to properly recycle glass bottles. The existing recycling capacity is barely sufficient to supply the two main existing glass; one is located in the capital Nairobi, being run by the market glass is dominated by the second one. Based on the coast, this company country. The glass recycling plant is therefore both a focal point and a and aggregating glass waste. Seen from a closed-loop perspective, the limited recycling connected with the supposedly high inflow of import glass result in poor recycling for subsequent use as e.g. filling material in construction is a commonly

Due to the relatively high value and good recyclability, the scrap metal recycling fulfil its requirements. Metal is used in relatively low quantity for packaging % of household waste in Nairobi [UN Habitat 2019]. The two main applications lower extent, soft drink cans as well as tinned foods with both commanding relationships seems no recycling facility for canned beverages operational in Kenya; recycling directed abroad which due to its value-weight ratio seems to be a feasible is recycled domestically.

Plastic Recycling

Rigid plastic recycling is common with a large number of small-scale recycling companies. Rigid plastic items are stable in form, e.g. PET-bottles, PP cups, plastic pipes (in contrast to flexible plastics such as film) and more easy to collect. For the main fractions, HDPE and LDPE, the waste materials into flakes is in place within the bigger economic hubs and part of the bigger dumpsites. Newly urbanised areas outside the traditional towns are lagging in value chains for the mentioned plastics do exist in e.g. Eldoret, Kisumu Meru and Kisii, among others, have yet to attract recycling businesses and build local of several recycling companies.

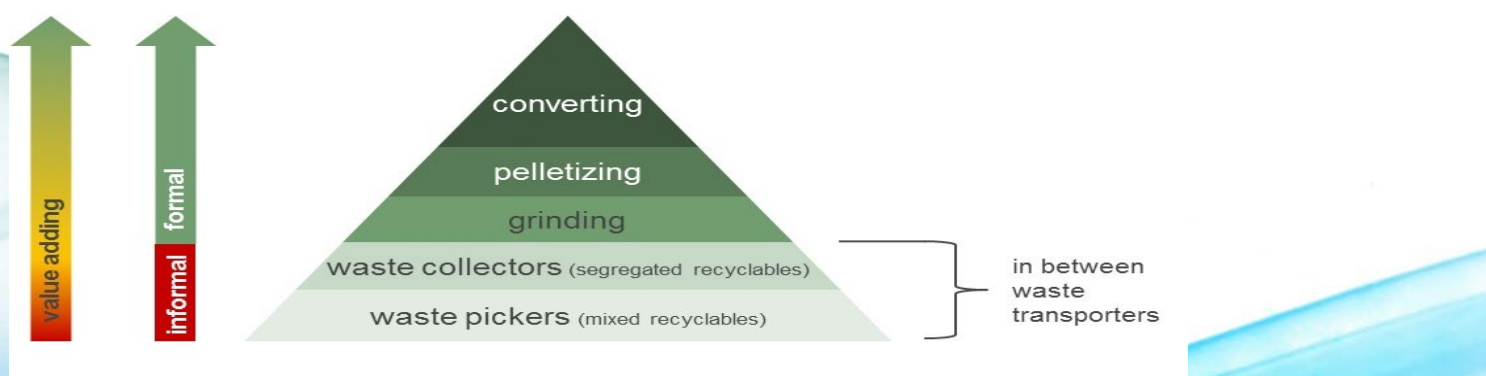


Figure 15: The hierarchy of the plastic waste recycling chain

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

Especially outside of areas with functioning recycling value chains, so-called small businesses by nature, serve as focal points for informal waste pickers. and subsequently send the fractions for recycling into other parts of the co-recycling happens more selectively and recovery rates are lower.

Similar to the above described practices for rigid plastics, recycling is un- namely LDPE. Recycling rates seem to be lower and the recycling value chain mainly due to more logistical challenges in collecting the relatively light a-

Mechanical processes mainly include baling, shredding, washing, flaking and palletizing into new products usually happens after the primary recycling at plastic co- can be mixed with virgin materials to produce rigid plastics, mainly for h- and related products.

PET plastic recycling is done by a small number of companies on fe- recycling sites have been identified in Kisumu, Nairobi and at the C- because of economics of logistics, e.g. lack of decentralized baling facilities with the low volume-value ratio; similar metrics are found for any LDPE (flexible) often exported for fibre production in Asia. Currently, a single project to d- recycling is being undertaken. With newly set up infrastructure, PET is e- Despite scattered existing and upcoming recycling infrastructure, most P- [Kenya Plastic Action Plan interviews, 2019].

Recycling value chains for PVC and PS have not been identified within this a- seem not to be recyclable domestically. They are, however, of less importance the aforementioned materials. Mixed packaging materials, e.g. 'Tetra Pak' but a- specific attributes, e.g. coffee or tea multilayers, lack recycling facilities. C- converting 'Tetra Pak' packaging into building material is underway [Kenya P-

2.4.4 Disposal Practices

The current disposal practices in Kenya are described best by initially Kenya's biggest waste disposal site by volume, the Dandora municipa- dumpsite is located eight kilometres away from Nairobi city centre and spreads It was originally designed as a temporary disposal site, but was d- Dandora's capacity stands at around 500,000 cubic metres. Since the year 2010 with 1.8 million cubic metres estimated in 2016 [JICA, 2016]. Dandora has a li- is unrestricted and all kind of industrial, agricultural, domestic and medical 2010 estimate stated that between 1,200 and 1,500 waste pickers work at D- others organized in still informal, often unethical structures [JICA, 2010]. According operators, 2,000 mt of waste are disposed of at Dandora on a d- picked, collected and transported out of Dandora to recyclers and co- figures from UN Habitat [2019].

Around 70 other smaller dumpsites are spread across Nairobi. None of th- to dispose waste. In addition to dumpsites, dumping of waste on th- more so in low-income residential areas. Already polluted upstream by in- River later flows through Dandora, causing downstream water used for domestic be highly contaminated [UNEP, 2015].

The waste disposal practices in the second biggest city of Mombasa, similarly dysfunctional. Here, the collected volume of around 800 mt of solid waste at a rate of around 68 % [UNEP, 2015]. Semi-formal and informal dumpsites exist throughout the country, particularly in the proximity of urban areas. The problems described for Nairobi are also found in all other urbanized areas, with their respective sizes always being smaller. With an ongoing setup of a new dumpsite in Murang'a County (due to its proximity to the city), no dumpsite in Kenya is operated according to international standards.

All in all, the absence of formal waste management services, insufficient treatment and disposal of waste in an unregulated environment bring severe societal and environmental issues which are yet to be overcome in order to enable an effective waste management system. Organisational, logistical as well as legal terms. The current organisational management, insufficient monitoring, lacking legal enforcement as well as very limited of land zoning fuels conflicts when new residential areas appear close to industry and commercial areas. The collection and transportation system, the formal and informal unorganised and inefficient way. Collection and transportation are usually beyond the capacity of the local governments, hence so far not organised, resulting in illegal dumping scattered parts of the country [JICA, 2010].



Figure 16: Dandora dumpsite

2. Plastic Waste Management Practices

2.4.5 Challenges for Plastic Recycling in the Waste Management Ecosystem

Segregation

Systematic segregation at source, i.e. mainly at the household (and office) level, is a prerequisite for high recycling rates for recyclable materials. Several factors contribute to this finding, among them are limited infrastructure, informal waste collection, regulatory framework and, compared to low plastic waste generation due to low packaged goods due to low income. Organic waste makes the recovery of difficult. Additionally, due to moisture the fractions is lowered further, segregation.

Challenges in the Recycling Value Chain:

- Segregation
- Logistics
- Licencing/ Regulatory Framework
- Product Design
- Secondary Market
- Awareness/ Education

Logistics

The value of the potentially recycled material in its unprocessed form is low due to the costs of collection, segregation and transport, due to the low volume-value ratio. To be transported over far distances to certain hubs to be fed into the recycling process, baling or shredding are missing. Only the areas around Nairobi and, to a limited extent, other urban areas have the possibilities to recycle all main fractions (not to speak of completely unsorted waste) whereas logistics have to be organised in order to ship certain fractions.

Licensing/ Regulatory Framework

The regulations and policies related to solid waste management are outlined in the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA) Act. However, due to the loose, the currently biggest hurdle for the recycling value chain are licences for the processing of secondary materials. The attributed costs and frequent time-delays in the processing of secondary resources of transporting waste. Furthermore, there is limited clarity on whether the processing of secondary resources is a single fraction shipments and a separate activity.

Product Design

With certain criteria taken into consideration when designing product packaging, recycling can be significantly eased. Currently, some products contain an unfavourable mixture of materials (e.g. PET, HDPE, LDPE, PP, PS, PVC, etc.) which makes recycling difficult. Additives like filling chemicals, partially applied in rigid plastic packaging, are not noticed by the collector and likewise the recycler and may only be noticed by the converter). By then, all costs within the recycling value chain have already been incurred. The change of material for a certain packaging, e.g. from HDPE to PET, creates a new value chain as casual collectors and workers are not aware of the respective different colours imply different value; e.g. the recycling value for coloured PET is lower than the already marginal one for clear PET.

A bottler of carbonated drinks in Kenya is currently harmonizing its product labels to utilize PET labels. This is exemplary for a producer's action to create market for recycled PET.

Secondary Market

The current plastic recyclers are by and large small companies processing related waste, thereby usually building the transition point between the informal and subsequently in the value chain, the converters face a number of hindrances recycling. Two main factors are unpredictable and unreliable: mass flows and the quality of recycling. The efficient utilization of fixed assets can only be assured if the input is consistent. The informal collection and aggregation structures that are sensitive to price changes pose a certain risk of not recovering their costs. The oftentimes low quality of input material, sorting practices, unfavourable composition of fractions (e.g. through filling material as the lack of waste segregation at source (dirt, moisture). The use of recycled material has a narrow range of applications that only require low qualities, which is why the sector practises “downcycling” towards end-of-life solutions. Recycled material is therefore not a virgin material – in regards to price, quality and availability. Thus, the vast majority of Kenyan recycling sector are disabled at this moment. This is also proven by the fact that recycled material is often sold at a lower price than virgin material.

Awareness/ Education

Awareness and Education are identified as one of the key hurdles for waste management. Littering in public at a small scale or the irregular disposal of waste spans multiple generations. Some programmes and activities in schools and the drivers of those are non-profit organizations, private companies including those in the public sector. Despite these numerous efforts, education on waste management is still lacking in the school curricula.

Nevertheless, the current lack of a proper recycling infrastructure also creates challenges in managing waste; despite some behavioural changes when it comes to littering, related activities, by and large there are just no best practices in place.



re-use



3. Legal and Regulatory Frameworks affecting the Plastic Sector

Following the previous description of the current waste management situation, the following analysis is based on the underlying legal and institutional framework. The legal analysis includes the identification of gaps which have to be addressed to improve the waste management system. Currently, the analysis identifies directions and goals are stated by the government and plans. Looking at the overall picture, some areas are under-, others rather overregulated.

In Kenya, waste is defined as 'any matter prescribed to be waste and any matter whether liquid, solid, gaseous or radioactive, which is discharged, emitted or deposited in the environment in such volume, composition or manner likely to cause an alteration of the environment' – according to the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA).

3.1 Review of Kenyan (regional, national and county) legislation formulation on plastic waste and waste management

Plans and Strategies

In 2007, Kenya's government published a strategy that described the path to transform Kenya into a middle-income industrial nation by the year 2030 [GoK, Vision 2030, 2007]. The strategy identifies the need for a sustainable waste management system in order to handle industrial waste as one of the pillars. The latter one claims in paragraph 5.4 to realize 'a just and cohesive development in a clean and secure environment.' In particular, the strategy calls for establishing waste management systems through economic incentives. Regulations regarding the management of solid and hazardous products are one of its figurehead projects [AWEMAC et al., 2016]. The medium-term strategy of the Vision 2030, set by the current government after the Big Four Agenda does not state waste management and circular economy in its goals. However, it aims to enable its goals in regards to food, health, manufacturing and housing [GoK, Big Four Agenda, 2017].

The Third Medium Term Plan 2018-2022 (MTP III) and Green Economy Strategy (GESIP) comprise specific reforms, programmes and projects for the realization of the vision. With regards to solid waste management, they call for separation at source, collection, treatment and disposal sites. It includes the development of new collection infrastructure, treatment facilities and disposal sites. It aims to build these in respective areas. The goal for 2030 is a nationwide quotation of recycling and composting. The implementation of extended producer responsibility (EPR) legislation is stated within GESIP. Financial incentives to support functional markets for recycled products shall be established. This relates to the promotion of recovering and utilizing recycled products. Furthermore, the national and County Governments are obliged to implement a total ban of plastic bags [GoK, GESIP, 2016; GoK, MTP III, 2018]. Despite pointing out the need for improved waste management practices in Kenya, the measures outlined in these documents remain vague in setting out implementation measures.

Kenya's plans and strategies on waste management are guided by Vision 2030. Vision 2030 calls for reducing pollution and establishing waste management systems through economic incentives. In light of the pillars of the Big Four Agenda, it will be important that waste is managed in a manner that creates jobs and allows the manufacturing sector to flourish.

The National Environment Policy requires the development of an integrated National Waste Management Strategy with economic incentives for cleaner production, waste recovery, recycling [GoK, 2013]. The Solid Waste Management Strategy of the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA) outlines the need for improved waste management practices in Kenya, the measures outlined in these documents remain vague in setting out implementation measures.

3. Legal and Regulatory Frameworks affecting the Plastic Sector

(NEMA) translates this into the 7R Zero Waste Principle, applicable at the recovery and 20 % landfilling by 2030. The latter strategy links EPR to accountable for their products and end of life. However, it mainly triggers recycling is not specifically mentioned. For medical waste, the National Health Care Waste Management Plan guides the monitoring of waste management across the health sector. Emphasis is placed on safe disposal [Ministry of Health, 2016].

To ensure a holistic, clean and healthy environment, the Kenya Environmental 2016-2030 (KESHP) claims to reduce solid waste and, in particular, to minimize management systems and mechanisms shall be established and enforced by n in every city, municipality and town. Especially the use of plastic bags shall b incentives. The private sector is invited to provide services for realization [C

Another relevant legislative document is the National Climate Change Priority No. 5: Health, Sanitation and Human Settlement, the Plan ca substantially reduce waste generation through prevention, reduction, recycling and re 2019]. By 2023, five waste management plans and regulations shall be developed o NEMA's National Waste Management Strategy 2015 [GoK, NCCAP, 2015]. The la integrated solid waste management system that follows the principle of the w reduction, reuse, recycling, resource recovery, incineration, and landfilling [NEMA,

Laws and Regulations

Kenya's Constitution states that every individual has the right to a clean e generators, transporters, recyclers and institutions that own disposal facilities a not threaten citizens' rights. Refuse removal, refuse dumping and solid waste d governments in order to ensure environmental conservation [GoK, Constitution: Article 42, 2010].

Urban areas and any physical planning need According the Constitution of Kenya every Kenyan has the right to a clean of waste effectively, offer designated sites and environment. for adherence according to the constitution Act, 1996; GoK, Urban Areas and Cities Act, 2011].

The Environmental Management and Coordination Act 1999 (EMCA), with its sp Management Regulation from 2006, sets the applicable rule of law. The act d generate waste to implement mechanisms for reducing and appropriately treating dangerous handling of waste, denies the disposal of any waste in a w responsibility for pollution to its producer. The principle that the polluter exercising jurisdiction [AWEMAC et al., 2019].

Moreover, the transportation of waste and need licences from NEMA, which come with standar Effective from 2017 onwards, a ban was use, manufacture and import of all plastics and household packaging. This ban covers the bags and flat bags made from polyethylene (PE). packaging and garbage bin flat bags are clearance is issued by NEMA. A majority of those interviewed welcome laws and regulations however they would prefer that implementation is phased and predictable. This would allow the industry to be better prepared for changes and plan their strategic if investments accordingly.

3. Legal and Regulatory Frameworks affecting the Plastic Sector

Another draft Environmental Management and Co-ordination (Plastics Bags Control 2018 refers to plastics bag control and management. Every manufacturer and importer packaging has to propose and uphold a recycling plan to support the into the market. The plan can be developed individually or in collaboration submitted to the authority in charge (NEMA) for publishing and documentation. Each manufacturer and importer has to submit a Recycling Program Report to mass flow and treatment activities. Due diligence is required throughout the requires a recycling rate of 30 % for the manufacture of any plastic collection sites shall be published by NEMA. NEMA is also accountable for mentioned and all other facilities that handle any plastic packaging material the Draft Environmental Management and Co-ordination Regulations, Plastic Bags Control and

3.2 Discussion of the existing regulatory gaps

Whereas some forms of EPR such as take-back schemes are already in infrastructure for waste recovery are non-existent. Moreover, several regulatory gaps three framework dimensions, i.e. policy, legal and institutional, that hamper an waste management system in Kenya. The following descriptions are based on in stakeholders along the plastics value chain. Research undertaken by AWEMAC is additionally taken into account. The following collection assesses existing consumer plastic packaging EPR schemes in Kenya.

Policy Framework

Currently, certain provisions in the policy framework are missing. For example, on one hand, bans and use of certain materials have been declared [e.g. Notice No. 2334 & 2356, 2017] whilst on the other hand, the operation of recycling is promoted [e.g. Policy, 2013]. Investments into recycling infrastructure are sinking if respective input materials are not aligned. For instance, different rate targets. Some policies, like the Sustainable EPR schemes. However, roles are not clearly allocated among the plastics and/or physical responsibility in the system lacks definition. Uncertainties, unspecified of the timeline for enacting draft policies, particularly the awaited NEMA Policy, 2019, discourage the private sector from engaging and building value chains that a functional waste management ecosystem.

Currently, a number of political documents are tackling waste management practices. Nevertheless, different policies have little interconnection to each other, resulting in an overall blurry, partly self-contradicting framework.

Legal Framework

The definition of the term 'waste' in Kenya is currently done by NEMA. The concept of transforming waste into secondary resources once value added or further steps in the recycling process, does not exist. This situation comes to transport during the process, as the trucks are subject to the as waste collection transporters (dump trucks).

Waste segregation is mandatory by law, but in reality applies only to the hazardous waste. There are no consumer obligations and regulations to segregate the local authorities fail to provide infrastructure for adequate littering prevention. Waste segregation in any terms is difficult to enforce. A comprehensive e.g. campaigns or insertion into curricula is lacking. Last but not least, waste management at County levels – laws and infrastructure are not harmonized at every county border impose costs that discourage value adding processes and hinder value chains. Putting the mentioned circumstances together makes waste recovery the economics of collection, transporting and processing of waste hardly build viable.

In respect to plastics, first responsibility for the plastic life cycle is allocated to end market goods only; the role of other stakeholders in the plastics sector, importers, retailers, collectors and consumers, among others, remains undefined. Secondary law to set up appropriate recycling plants either individually or jointly. However, directions on how to set up and implement any of those do not exist. Collection and recycling targets for obliged companies hinder monitoring processes.

Regarding the establishment of an EPR system, existing laws and regulations and the potential setup of an overarching EPR system. So far, NEMA guidelines and the Management and Co-Ordination Act on Plastics Bags lay out control and management focused on polythene bags, with other plastics fractions/ product categories Sustainable Waste Management Bill also claims to set up measures and necessary take-back schemes and deposit systems. In reality, it neither gives sufficient be taken, nor does it provide a timeline by when those rules and schemes

Moreover, no measurement in respect of 'how to identify the plastic. The enforcement of a potential EPR is therefore made difficult. Despite monetary incentives are not sufficiently aligned to spur changes. This applies to production and packaging, as well as putting minimum collection rates in laws allow 'cherry picking', and do not properly outline how to increase recycling. Avoiding contributions to a potential EPR throughout the value chain is still therefore imply rising costs and worsening competitiveness for participants/ contributors.

Institutional Framework

Any enforcement and monitoring by the government and the authority in charge (NEMA) is lacking due to institutional mechanisms.

Standards of KEBS for recycling products. The same applies for NEMA guidelines that production patterns, i.e. through labels etc. oblige the manufacturing sector to participate in waste recovery and recycling processes. Counties have capacity to implement waste management practices. For instance, the segregation and responsible waste demanded by law on the one hand. On the other hand, to comply with these regulations is not for consumers nor for the disposal industry. Lack of supervision measures and compliance enforcement considering the double burden from both national and county regulations. This is especially true for licensing requirements and non-harmonized rules, fees and charges.

Within the plastics sector, more so recycling, there are different government agencies in charge for regulations. Harmonization of the enforcement efforts between the different government agencies would greatly benefit the plastics industry. For instance, with no clear standard from KEBS on plastics littering waste, the transition from waste to resource cannot be specifically defined.



4. SWOT analysis of the Kenyan Plastics Value Chain

The following Strengths-Weaknesses-Opportunities-Threats analysis evaluates the state of the plastics value chain.

Strengths

- Strong and well organised private sector which is ambitious to take action on better management practices
- Strong need for an EPR expressed by both public and private sector
- Relatively well working individual recycling value chains for certain fractions, especially for PET
- Plastic packaging value chain does exist in Kenya and can take joint action/product development can be effected within the country

Weaknesses

- Spread of plastic packaging throughout the country/ limited local production
- Consumption paired with high cost of transport/ logistics
- Lack of awareness and culture on proper waste management practices among citizens
- Part of the lower income class living above the poverty line
- Practically no tradition of waste segregation especially in households
- Little experience in formalized waste collection systems
- Insufficient general waste management infrastructure: lack of waste bins, formal collection; poor roads etc.
- Little legislation concerning waste management/many relevant areas not sufficiently covered by legislation
- Enforcement of existing waste management regulations partly deficient
- Lack of clear definitions, responsibilities, roles, etc., leading to different practices across the country

Weaknesses

- Growing industry of local consumer goods manufacturers with continuing reliance on imports
- Strong multinationals with strict internal targets on better managing waste value chain
- Lack of alternatives to plastic packaging for a range of applications/ banning of single use plastics
- More problems than solutions
- Rising awareness of some parts of the population with regards to better waste management
- Low cost of labour/high demand for employment enables business models for informal waste management
- Raising the value of disposed plastics even marginally is a viable business model
- Rates due to high need for even marginally paid employment/ income generation
- Adaptation of circular economy concepts can create "green jobs" while increasing employment
- From currently low rates.
- Waste management is a devolved responsibility, hence allowing pilot projects in different counties
- Through local decision making

4. SWOT analysis of the Kenyan Plastics Value Chain

Threats

- Unpredictable regulatory frameworks
- Risky environment for investment due to uncertainty of coming legislation
- Fragmented opinions within industry on the way forward
- Industry may not find a common voice/ voluntary EPR schemes not
- Voluntary take-back schemes would cause competitive disadvantages due to market
- EPR organization may not be recognized by all relevant stakeholders/might interest with competitive disadvantages and free riders

The insights from the analysis of the Kenyan waste management situation gaps as well as the SWOT analysis are considered for creating tailored in the subsequent Action Plan.



5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Based on the analyses and evaluations in the previous chapters, this chapter outlines initiatives and measures to accelerate Kenya's transition towards a circular economy. It focuses on sustainable use and recycling of plastics. In particular, it focuses on mechanisms to create a sound basis for further actions. Thus, the first part will introduce organisational and financial basis while the second part will introduce sp

5.1 Establishing a Financial and Organisational Basis

Economic instruments are crucial to establish a sound financial and organisational management and recycling. Generally, there are three different types of economic

- Revenue-raising instruments which create a direct income from the industry taxation or charges as, for instance, a landfill tax
- Revenue providing instruments which create an indirect income for industry reduction of charges or subsidies, like tax rebates or variable
- Non-revenue instruments which do not create revenues but motivate the industry to improve their individual waste performance, as it is done for example in chapter 5.1.2 below
- Ideally, instruments from all three categories are implemented in a comprehensive results.

5.1.1 Tax incentives

Generally, taxes can be raised on several products at several steps and to avoid unfair double taxation and use taxes which are complementary to the in the next chapter. Thus, the most important taxes to consider are the payments.

Landfill Charges

Generally, landfill charges are composed of the gate fees imposed by the tax imposed by the authority: The gate fee is charged in order to working order and finance the provided services. The landfill tax is a on a national, but also on a regional or municipal level) for waste tax, the lower the incentive to recycle waste. Thus, there is clear and linear charge and the percentage of recycled waste, i.e. landfill charges are a key

To allow the system and the relevant authority to adapt to raising landfill increased gradually. However, it is crucial to have clear commitments to in municipalities and the (informal) industry time to adapt. From a long-term perspective such as landfill restrictions or bans may be effective in redirecting waste in waste segregation at source and a corresponding collection system.

Refunded virgin payments

Refunded Virgin Payments is a two-part measure: producers of products pay a fee that is used to refund producers whose products consist of a predominately use virgin materials. Producers using more recyclates than their peers become net receivers of the system. Producers using virgin materials become net payers in this system. This is based on recycle usage.

To avoid double payment, this tax should only be applied to plastic products in the system. So far, Refunded Virgin Payments are piloted in Sweden to increase

5.1.2 Extended Producer Responsibility

Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) is an environmental policy approach in which the responsibility for a product is extended to the post-consumer stage of a product's life cycle. In the approach, already during the production and sale (and export), disposal of their packaging. Producers/ importers pay a fee for later disposal of their packaged goods are placed on the market. The contribution/ fee is used for the packaging waste and other costs arising from maintaining the system. It is a general public budget of a state.

The concept of Extended Producer Responsibility and its basic principles

The concept of an extended producer responsibility (EPR) was developed in Kenya based on the idea that the producer responsibility, which e.g. determines that the producer is responsible for their products regarding aspects of safety, health and environmental impacts, from the production stage. 'Producer' in this context describes companies that put plastic goods (products) on the market for consumption, which are usually referred to as 'users' in the Kenyan context.

This means that in the EPR scheme, the producer (or user) is responsible for tasks like collecting, sorting and recycling. Thus, the EPR involves producers in the management of packaging waste and gives them the obligation to assume responsibility for their packaging waste. EPR schemes vary across countries with regard to certain aspects of their set-up, EPR schemes in Kenya focus on the obligation of producers while balancing the mandates of environmental protection and the 'polluter pays' principle. Accordingly, the basics of EPR are almost the same in every country.

- Every obliged company pays a fee when introducing a packaged good on the market.
- The fee serves for the collection and further processing of the packaging waste.
- Collection, sorting, recycling, or energy recovery of packaging waste remains the responsibility of the companies.

This basic concept is illustrated in the Figure 17 on the next page.

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

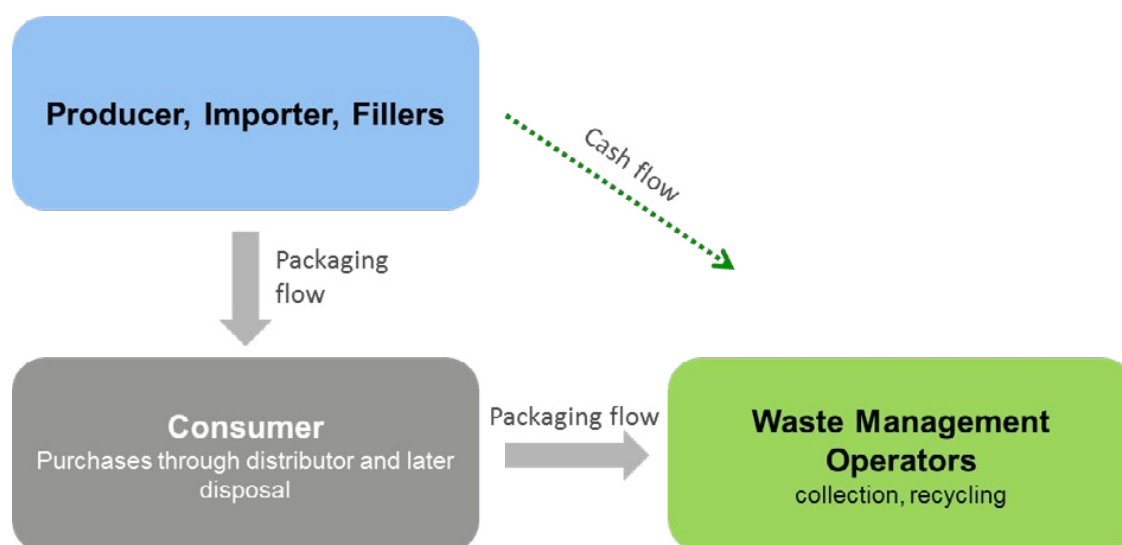


Figure 17: Basic idea of an EPR system

In its simplest form, EPR is rooted in an individual responsibility through importers, fillers and the source of waste generation; meaning that they will do to collect their waste and take it back. This very simple form of EPR is a legislation obliges producers to organise a take-back scheme for the products. It is only practicably applicable to a limited extent as it requires the precise spreading of their packaging and how to access it. Furthermore, for products are distributed in small quantities, still requiring similar logistical infrastructure as applicable with bigger volumes.

Collective responsibility through Producer Responsibility Organisation

As it is, from a practical perspective, not possible for each producer to transition to a collective responsibility is needed. As a key element is needed as a central element. It takes over the take-back responsibility. An organisation is referred to as the Producer Responsibility Organisation (PRO; system operator) as it allows the producers/users to assume responsibility jointly managing the arising waste. Thus, the PRO becomes the central element associated to the EPR system. In particular, this means that

- The PRO is the most important stakeholder (organisation).
- This organisation is responsible for setting up, developing and maintaining the system.
- This organisation is responsible for the take-back obligations of the producers.

As the compliance of the PRO with all its tasks and responsibilities is its responsibility for supervising the PRO in this regard. The following are the tasks of an EPR system with the PRO as central organisation for a collective responsibility.

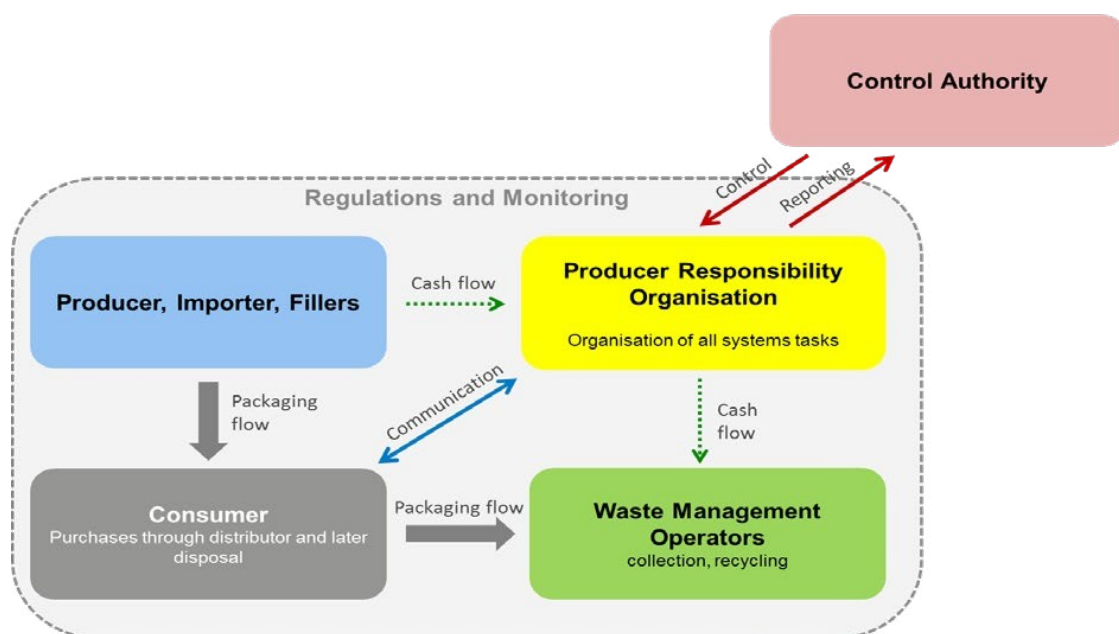


Figure 18: Basic scheme of an EPR system based on a collective responsibility

Figure 19 emphasises the organisational differences between the collective and

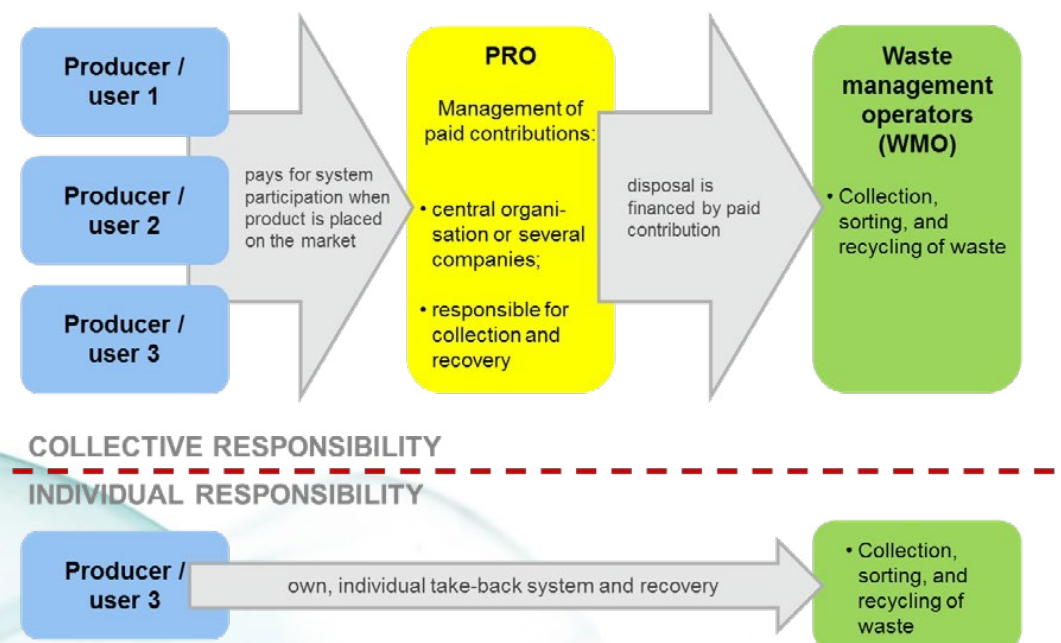


Figure 19: Comparison of collective and individual EPR system

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Another specific form of EPR system is a deposit-refund system collection is based on consumer participation. In a DRS, packaging or by obliging consumers to pay money as deposit when purchasing the it they get back the same amount they paid as deposit. Thus, consumers a take-back stations instead of just disposing them as waste. DRS are sy which reduces littering of these items. Moreover, as the DRS focuses or allow well sorted material fractions to be collected in large quantities. S for high quality recycling of these items. Furthermore, DRS also increase the c such as bottles in supermarkets or cutlery in food stores, thereby contributing to circular economy.

A return of the items takes place at designated take-back stations, such as the consumer receives the reward. In most cases, this reward is monetar The specific product is sold to the consumers with a deposit a instance \$ 1.25) is the sum of the price of the single item (\$ 1 has been returned, the consumer is repaid the deposit amount or a other rewards are also possible, such as vouchers for services.

Creating DRS as form of EPR is limited to specific, easily identifiable items like beverage bottles is not suitable to cover a broad range of plastic items.

Successfully implementing an EPR system requires a system which can b environmentally and socially sustainable as well as guaranteeing a level p unambiguous legislation coupled with a multi-stakeholder cooperation between a value chain. Crucial actors include governments, local authorities, producers organised in organisations (BMOs) and waste management organisations. The legal framework has to responsibilities, enforcement mechanisms and a timeline for implementation c for the PRO.

The Producer Responsibility Organisation

Since the PRO is responsible for operating the entire system, it is th the following:

- Registration of all obliged companies (in cooperation with the supervisory introducing packaged goods onto the market, which are consumed in the needs to be disposed in that respective country (financed by the
- Collection and administration of all funds from all obliged companies
- Tendering and contracting for collection and recycling of packaging waste
- Documentation of collection, sorting and recycling of packaging waste
- Informing all waste producers/ consumers about the importance of separate
- Controlling all services that have been awarded to service providers, fulfilment of collection and recycling by waste management companies
- Financing all tasks with funds provided by the obligated companies
- Documentation and verification to the supervisory authorities: the PRO has fulfilled all its tasks and aims and used the money of the obliged for instance in form of a report, which is verified by a third

Fulfilling these tasks can be achieved through different PRO setups. The setup are based on

- i) whether the PRO is a private organisation or a public authority,
- ii) whether the PRO is a non-profit organisation or a for-profit company
- iii) whether one PRO or several PROs exist in competition (see Figure 20).

Experiences in European countries have shown that there is no singular most success is determined through an effective and efficient organisation, financial of the system.

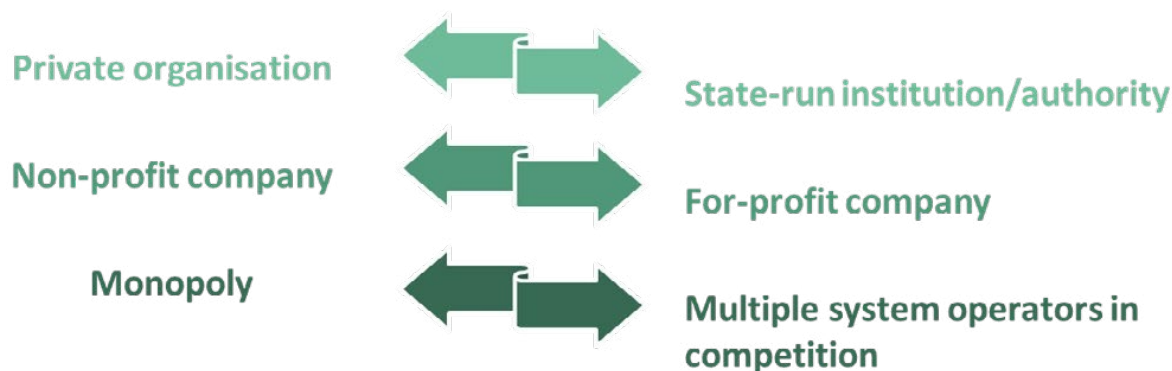


Figure 20: The different set-up conditions of the PRO

The most distinguishing characteristic is whether the PRO is set up as a

- PRO (system operator) as non-profit organisation: Such PROs are in the h industry, as for instance in Belgium, the Czech Republic, Ireland, Portugal and Spain. The obliged industry creates one common non-profit funding.
- PRO (system operator) as for-profit corporation: The legal framework can r several PROs instead of having a single monopolistic PRO. Such models e where the EPR systems have evolved from having a single PRO to competi
- Other distinctions can create the following PRO set-ups:
- Dual model: Industry has full operational and financial responsibility over collection. There is a separate collection system delegated to local authorities b Germany, Sweden).
- Shared model: The responsibility is shared between industry and the local authorities. Municipalities are responsible for collection, packaging waste arising at the municipal level, while industry's financial respons to country (Belgium, Czech Republic, Italy, France, Netherlands, Slovenia, S
- Tradable Credits Model: There is neither a link between industry and municip commercial packaging and packaging arising at the municipal level (UK).
- Competing on the infrastructure: Every PRO offers its own container to i
- Each PRO in a separate district: Each PRO signs up with as many n according to market shares (Poland, Romania, Bulgaria, Slovakia, Malta, L

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Who is obliged to pay?

The fees paid for the EPR participation are to be paid exclusively for the products that are consumed and will become waste within the country. In Kenya the fees only have to be paid for the products that will be consumed in the country. Therefore it includes both domestically produced products as well as imported products. However, products manufactured for export are not included in the fees. This means that products subsequently turned into waste in another country.

To determine who is obliged to pay for the operation of the EPR system, it has to be determined. In most countries, this is the interface where a product enters the country as it will turn into waste in this respective country.

The fees that need to be paid are dependent on several factors, which have to be covered. These factors include:

- Type of collection system
- The waste composition
- Organisational structures
- Contractual constellations
- Financial contributions of the municipalities
- Recycling quotas
- Recovery and disposal infrastructure
- Existence of deposit-refund systems
- Distribution of costs across different material fractions
- Where applicable: modulation of costs reflecting the degree of recyclability (as 'global examples and success stories')

Roles and responsibilities of the involved actors

Although the set-up of the EPR systems and PROs are different in each country, the responsibilities assigned to them are, in principle, the same.

Table 2: Roles and responsibilities in an EPR system

| Stakeholder | Responsibility |
|---|--|
| Raw materials suppliers, manufacturers and converters of plastics | Should enable reuse & ensure recyclability of materials and use secondary raw materials where possible |
| Consumer goods companies (fillers and importers) | Obligated to pay fees for the EPR system proportional to which are covered by the EPR system |
| Distributors/retailers of packaged goods | Can be obliged to take waste back and to ensure that their suppliers are participating in the system |
| Consumers | Have to be informed about strategies for waste reduction and return or disposal of packaging; should buy as many products as possible and reuse packaging as much as possible |
| Waste management operators | Receive funds from the EPR system for their service in managing waste. Should try to recycle packaging according to standards possible to ensure high quality recycling ; include informal sector |
| Government and other public authorities | Legislation & supervision of the EPR system |
| Municipalities or Counties | Linkages between consumers and waste management operators for implementation of EPR on the ground, organizing the collection |

Thus, an operationalised EPR system can be outlined as outlined in

ers/BünemannAg/AppData/Local/Microsoft/Windows/INetCache/Content.Outlook/40V22PI/cyclos-entwurf3-verbessert.pdf



Figure 21: Operationalised EPR scheme

Legal basis

EPR systems can be operated on a voluntary basis only to a the preferred choice in light of effectiveness and efficiency to transition circular economy. A mandatory EPR system in turn requires a stakeholders, which is why a sound legal basis is a crucial element. As EPR system, voluntary systems are, however, a suitable measure commitment.

The legal framework is usually established on the national level through hence, the Ministry of Environment therefore takes a leading role. In down through environmental protection law, a specific packaging law the legal context. To ensure a successful implementation, the process all key stakeholders from the public and private sector as well as from civil

The legal framework should outline clear objectives, responsibilities, enforcement mechanisms for implementation. In particular, the legal frame should determine:

- How to set up a PRO (as aforementioned)
- Which companies are legally obliged to take on responsibility
- Who is responsible for financing and organising the system
- Who registers all legally obliged companies
- Which items should be included in the system
- What are the requirements and quotas for collection and recycling
- What the role of the municipalities is
- How can the informal sector be integrated
- What kind of public supervision is required and how can this be organised

There are also some additional requirements which do not need to be mentioned by the PRO. This includes:

- **Upstream:** modulated fees based on recyclability (see chapter 5.2.1), recycled materials, preferred materials
- **Downstream:** Recycling and recovery processes, quota and how they are collected, collection infrastructure

What can be financed by an EPR system?

First of all, an EPR should cover all costs which will arise in the course of waste management. This also includes efforts for e.g. data management and administrative measures. Complementary measures could also be financed, such as:

- Linking plastic producers to recyclers in terms of design, recyclability, and guidelines
- Coordinating, giving incentives to improve collection and recycling while keeping costs low
- Educating recycling and collection businesses and actors
- Raising awareness, especially in the middle class (above the poverty line)
- Adapting school curricula; technical education at universities
- Running pilot projects (e.g. in certain geographic areas, special sectors like tourism)
- Using labelling on products

The PRO can also contract third parties to carry out certain tasks, like awareness-

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Measurements based on legal frame

The goal is to build an EPR strategy which is proactively discussed with the industry. The EPR system is a corresponding law. Through such a law, the following measures are proposed:

- Fair financial burden for all participants as the EPR fees are proposed to be part of the EPR system. Thereby, the competition on the market is not impacted
- Enabling the implementation of nationwide solutions
- Requirements for a gradual system implementation and recovery targets
- Establishment of control mechanisms and penalties in case of non-compliance

Thus, the setup of a legal frame is the preferred solution for the implementation of the EPR system.

Voluntary measures

In smaller regions, it is possible to establish voluntary initiatives to collect and utilise plastic waste. Aside from geographical boundaries, these pilot projects may focus on different types of packaging, particular points of origins, specific brands and also on different stakeholders. Importers and other stakeholders may work together to implement these voluntary measures. The effectiveness of pilot projects is limited due to the following issues:

- Only a few companies (and not all) will participate in voluntary measures
- The financial contribution of each company is low compared to the costs of an EPR scheme
- Extent of the single activities is small and usually comprises only smaller parts of the total waste
- Impossible to establish a nationwide collection system based on voluntary measures
- No official controlling systems
- Voluntary initiatives may prolong important decisions regarding the setup of the EPR system

Voluntary initiatives should rather be used as a preliminary basis for the setup of the EPR system to help develop the respective legal basis of the system. Voluntary initiatives can be used to gain experiences through pilot projects.

Global examples and success stories

As aforementioned, EPR systems can be implemented in many different ways. In 30 countries that have implemented EPR in their legislation, with the industry and the government. Outside of Europe, such organisations have been established as well, for instance in the USA. Below the systems of Germany, France and the Netherlands are presented, with a focus on the legal framework.

In Germany, the legal framework allows a direct competition between several PROs. Since the PROs are private companies, they are not in the hands of the government. Each obliged company has to contract a PRO of their choice for the collection and recycling of plastic waste. The exact fees are not disclosed. Furthermore, the EPR system exists in parallel to the municipal waste management and municipalities are not part of the EPR system.

This setup has achieved very good results with regards to collection, sorting and requires intense monitoring and supervising due to the complex and part some companies exploit this system to participate inadequately or avoid participation Agency Packaging Regulation' was established after the passing of a new force in January 2019 as a new controlling authority.

In 2003, Germany established a compulsory deposit-refund system by law made from glass, plastics, metals or composite materials. From 2003 to 2006, the built on a direct relationship between consumers and retailers. Empty one-way returned at the original point of sale. After 2006, the deposit-refund system law obliges every retailer to take-back deposited one-way beverage packaging through their own product range. Thereby, Germany implemented a uniform, refund with clearing. As a clearing organisation, the Deutsche Pfandgesellschaft the German Retail Association and the German Food Association. Through emp the producers and importers of deposited beverages receive the record data packaging and reimburse the respective amount to the retailers. The return was 98.4 % in 2015.

In France, Citeo (until 06/2017 named Eco-Emballages) was developed as the exclusively responsible for end consumer packaging. Eco-Emballages was founded industrial parties (manufacturers). A second EPR system, Adelphe, was established industry to meet the take-back obligations for glass bottles. Today, Adelphe to operate as an independent company.

Citeo is a non-profit joint-stock company with approximately 240 shareholders from well as the print, services and related supply chain sectors. In total, Citeo The fees of Citeo are based on the weight of the packaging, a fixed price non-recyclable packaging (e.g. fees for non-recyclable plastics as packaging

The producers finance approx. 80 % of the system and the local municipalities are also responsible for performing disposal services.

The system achieves good results with regards to collection, sorting and recycling plastic foils are not included in the system throughout most areas in France to comprise all types of packaging waste by 2022.

In the Netherlands, the Afvalfonds Verpakkingen (packaging waste fund) was established and importers to fulfil the extended manufacturer responsibilities. It is a managed by a management board, which is itself appointed by producers and the maintenance of the waste management system, collaboration with communities and organise collection, and recycling of packaging. Other tasks are the mitigation and reporting on collection and recycling of packaging materials as well financial contributions from manufacturers and importers.

A noticeable feature is that the tasks of collection, sorting and transportation are done by the municipalities. In turn, Afvalfonds pays compensation for the collection

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Since December 2007, Nedvang, a non-profit organization, acts as mediator between retailers as well as recovery companies, municipalities, and national and international packaging market and the recovery of packaging waste. Nedvang works for the recovery of packaging waste, which is collected and reported to the relevant authorities. Nedvang reviews this information and, following their review, dispatches approval to the relevant authorities.

Overall, this system achieves good results with regards to collection, sorting and recycling rates, which are high compared to other EPR models.

Local examples and success stories

In Kenya, there is no mandatory EPR system. Thus, organisations that operate under the principles of an EPR system for selected materials only. These organisations encourage the participation of their members. In particular, there are PETCO and Clean Green Kenya.

The PET Recycling Company Ltd. (PETCO Kenya) registered in December 2017 and started operations in 2018 with its organisational scope being limited to PET beverage bottles. The company aims to create value for the industry, PETCO aims to create value for post-consumer PET and encourage responsible and industry behaviour towards recycling PET beverage bottles which is a significant employment possibilities in the recycling industry.

Currently, the organisation has 14 active members. The main financial sources are from retailers, plant owners and bottlers. The grants are obtained through the government.

For the PET bottle collection, PETCO has contracted two companies as of November 2018. The plan is that WEECO Limited collects and recycles 4,000 mt annually. Overall, PETCO aims, together with other partners, to recycle 1,000 mt or 300 million PET bottles by 2019. Through its collaboration with retailers and members, PETCO Kenya aims to set up drop-off points to enhance the collection of PET bottles.

To raise awareness and promote consumer education, PETCO targets stakeholders and conducts returns to the consumer awareness programs. Some initiatives aim to encourage recycling initiatives.

Clean Green Kenya (CGK) is also a voluntary system with the set goal of raising awareness of proper waste management to all sectors and becoming a household name. The companies Alternative Energy Systems Limited, RAMCO and King Plastics are the main partners. CGK is an NGO in 2017. The idea of CGK is to establish a platform through which different industries can interact and create synergies.

Key activities include the collection of funds through a monthly 'EPR levy' on waste management capacities. CGK also aims to secure collectors' supply chains based on incentivises the collection of post-consumer waste. The organisation currently has a voluntary basis. These include manufacturers, recyclers and end consumers. A monthly levy which is calculated based on their monthly plastics production for collection and sorting of waste plastics (done at dumping sites), pre-processing, cleaning and compacting of waste plastics) and educational campaigns and community outreach.

5.1.3 Comparing tax incentives and EPR

In many cases, measures are referred to and published under the label of introduction of an EPR scheme, these are mostly green taxes and environmental charges. Environmental taxes or import duties are charged on raw materials and goods. In most cases, they usually flow into the general public budget, so there is no producer responsibility system.

The following table compares the fees paid within an EPR system by the producer and environmental charges.

Table 3: EPR fees and green taxes in comparison

| EPR fees for packaging | Green taxes / environmental charge |
|---|---|
| The fees are determined by the for-profit corporations - negotiated with the PRO. | PRO or tax is obliged in defined case of law or through regulations and acts. |
| The PRO receives the fee. | The responsible public agencies receive the fee. |
| EPR describes extending the producer responsibility: Those who introduce certain goods into the market are also responsible for the management and disposal of the waste. | Eco-taxes can be charged without being related to a specific responsibility of the producer through payments. |
| The fees are precisely related to the EPR scheme, which is introduced by the market of the respective country and will also turn into waste. | Eco-taxes do not have to be related to the products introduced in the country. For instance, they can also be related to raw materials. |
| There is a direct relation between the quantities of arising waste in the country and the EPR fee. | There is no relation between the quantities of arising waste in the country and the EPR fee. |
| The EPR fees are meant to be collected, sorting and recycling of waste and also includes a corresponding public awareness work. | Eco-taxes usually contribute into the general budget. This means there is no 'polluter pays' principle in an EPR system. |

Generally, both EPR fees and green taxes can have a steering function. Green taxes are levied on materials and goods which are newly introduced onto the market; for instance based on ecological criteria such as the recyclability, usage of recyclates, or origin (e.g. low impact).

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

The steering function of EPR fees also covers the part when raw material introduced onto the market, but expands beyond this as EPR fees a system, meaning EPR can finance, amongst other things, infrastructure, co-littering (up- and downstream impact).

Thus, EPR fees – if they can be applied to a specific product steering function.

5.2 Action Measures

5.2.1 Recycling and/or End of Life Options

The End of Life (EoL) options for waste plastics are geared to the waste of priorities for the efficient use of resources and waste treatment, littering option. Based on the waste hierarchy, the following EoL options exist for waste

Prevention refers to measures taken before a substance, material or product reduce the quantity of waste (including through the re-use of products or reduce the adverse impacts of the generated waste on the environment and of hazardous substances in materials and products. **Prevention measures are to waste!** Examples for prevention measures include resource-efficient processing manufactured (thinner wall thickness of bottles, cans) or multiple use a the same or another task and therefore remain within the utilisation phase).

Preparation for re-use describes materials and items which have become waste, and remanufactured for reapplication.

Recycling means any recovery option by which waste materials are reprocessed in substances, whether for the original or for other purposes. It includes does not include energy recovery (which is part of recovery!). Recycling a production of flakes and agglomerates out of plastics.

Other recovery processes, e.g. energy recovery: For this purpose, the energetic co-used to generate heat, cold and/ or electric energy; mostly through incineration

Disposal describes any operation which is not recovery, even where the operation for the reclamation of substances or energy. Thus, disposal does not co-**not mean littering or the landfilling in unsuitable locations.**

Generally, no comprehensive collection and, further, proper waste treatment (hazardous waste) is implemented in Kenya, especially with regards to plastics. Considering the (improper landfilling in terms of organizational and environmental aspects, paper, plastics, no relevant multiple use systems), the usage of resources reduced (prevention) to tackle the challenges (loss of resources, littering, in environmental impacts).

As a recommended, complementary first step, the development of a system This also includes the treatment of plastics which are not recycled at suitable for recycling (see section on recyclability).

Similar to Europe, the long-term goal should be to transfer the current, into a suitable form of treatment through planning and reconstructing (e.g. waterproofing, gas retention, waste water collection and purification).

This should go along with the requirement only to transport pre-treated waste to of 2006, there is a so-called landfill ban in Europe. It states that waste only have a very small amount of total organic carbon (TOC). This is acco

- Waste is already separated and collected at source
- Contained recyclable fractions are sorted
- Remains unsuitable for recycling are used energetically

The latter two points are key elements for a circular economy and should the implementation of an EPR system (see chapter 5.1.2) and measures considered that even with a higher usage of plastic recyclates in production proc virgin materials, which e.g. are obligatory to fulfil certain quality criteria during manufactur

Moreover, the recycling processes should not be limited to Kenya location-wise as not established sufficiently; i.e. export of waste or secondary resources for proc an initial phase, be a viable part of the solution.

For a long-term success, structures outside of recycling need to be treatment for non-recyclable plastics. This generally happens through incin as the best option), as the resulting ashes are landfilled. Alternatively, the and the generation of fuel are conceivable for plastics but still in deve level; also in Europe where packaging waste is managed on a comparably high

The EPR system shall create financial incentives for more plastics recycling, current disposal options such as unsanitary landfills like Dandora or agricultural and protected areas are still the cheaper options compared to

The creation of recycling targets (such as a certain amount of used year) shall result in reduced attractiveness of unsystematic landfills and less The simultaneous implementation of a landfill tax promotes the shift to more chapter 5.1.1).

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

5.2.2 Segregation at source as best practice and waste collection

Segregation at source and the respective waste collection is a central part of recycling. Since segregation and collection systems need to be tailored globally. Even in European countries with established EPR systems, the collection of packaging materials varies as shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4: Collection structures for packaging for the individual material fractions in five different countries with EPR systems

| | Germany | France | Spain | Italy | Netherlands |
|---|-------------------|---------------------|-----------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| Plastic foil (plastic ¹⁾ bags) | X ⁶⁾ | 3) | X ⁵⁾ | 4) | X ⁶⁾ |
| PE and PP | X ⁶⁾ | X ²⁾⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁵⁾ | X ²⁾⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁶⁾ |
| PS | X ⁶⁾ | 3) | X ⁵⁾ | 4) | X ⁶⁾ |
| PET bottles | X ⁶⁾⁷⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁵⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁶⁾ |
| PET non-beverage bottles | X ⁶⁾ | 3) | X ⁵⁾ | 4) | X ⁶⁾ |
| Mixed plastics (rigid) | X ⁶⁾ | X ²⁾⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁵⁾ | X ²⁾⁵⁾ | X ⁶⁾ |
| Mixed plastics (flexible) | X ⁶⁾ | 3) | X ⁵⁾ | 4) | X ⁶⁾ |
| Beverage cartons | X ⁶⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾⁸⁾ | X ⁵⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾⁸⁾ | X ⁶⁾ |
| Tin plate/ferrous metals | X ⁶⁾⁷⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁵⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁶⁾ |
| Aluminium/non-ferrous metals | X ⁶⁾⁷⁾ | X | X ⁵⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁶⁾ |
| Paper and cardboard | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁵⁾ | X ⁵⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ | X ⁵⁾⁶⁾ |

1) The target fraction is narrowed down (size > DIN A4) in order to

2) At the moment: only bottles and/or containers

3) Expected from 2022 onwards

4) It is expected that the collection systems of CONAI (Italy) will be the quotas for 2025 set in the EU packaging directive.

5) Drop off system/'bring it yourself'-system

6) Kerbside collection/pick-up system

7) Deposit system for beverage packaging

8) In France and Italy, beverage cartons are often (estimated 50 % to cardboard and not in the collection system of lightweight packaging

Generally, there are two distinct possibilities to collect waste: either at the collection systems or on the streets through bring banks (also referred to as collection systems). Some examples from four different countries are presented on the

In **Germany**, waste is usually separated into four fractions and collected at the level through a kerbside collection system. Packaging is usually collected through bring banks. The costs arising from collection, sorting and recycling are covered by the PROs. The costs arising from the waste of the "paper, cardboard and carton" fraction are divided between the municipalities and PROs as this fraction includes both paper packaging waste and other printed products for which there is no EPR scheme.

In **Spain**, collection is mainly organised by the household containers banks. Rigid plastic, cars and glass, yellow containers, and paper and cardboard belong to the blue ones. Glass belongs in the yellow and blue ones. The costs of collecting and transporting to collect packaging are very high (very high density). From there, packaging is further segregated into more specific fractions.

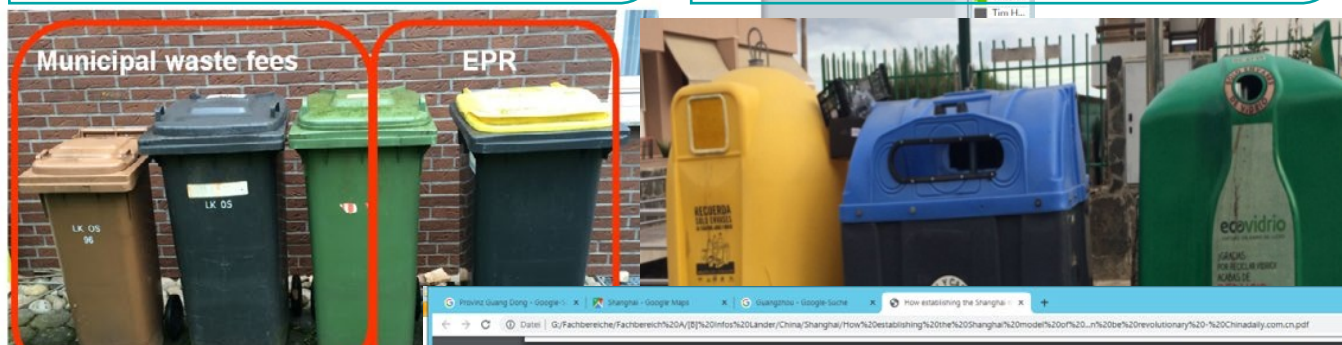


Figure 22: Waste segregation and collection in Germany (upper left) and Spain (upper right), Japan (bottom left) and Shanghai (bottom right)

The prevalent collection system in Japan is a waste segregation system where the waste is sorted in different fractions. Nevertheless, there are also some kerbside collection systems. In several places, the system is complemented by additional collection systems organised by residents. The number of waste fractions, which are collected, vary across Japan.

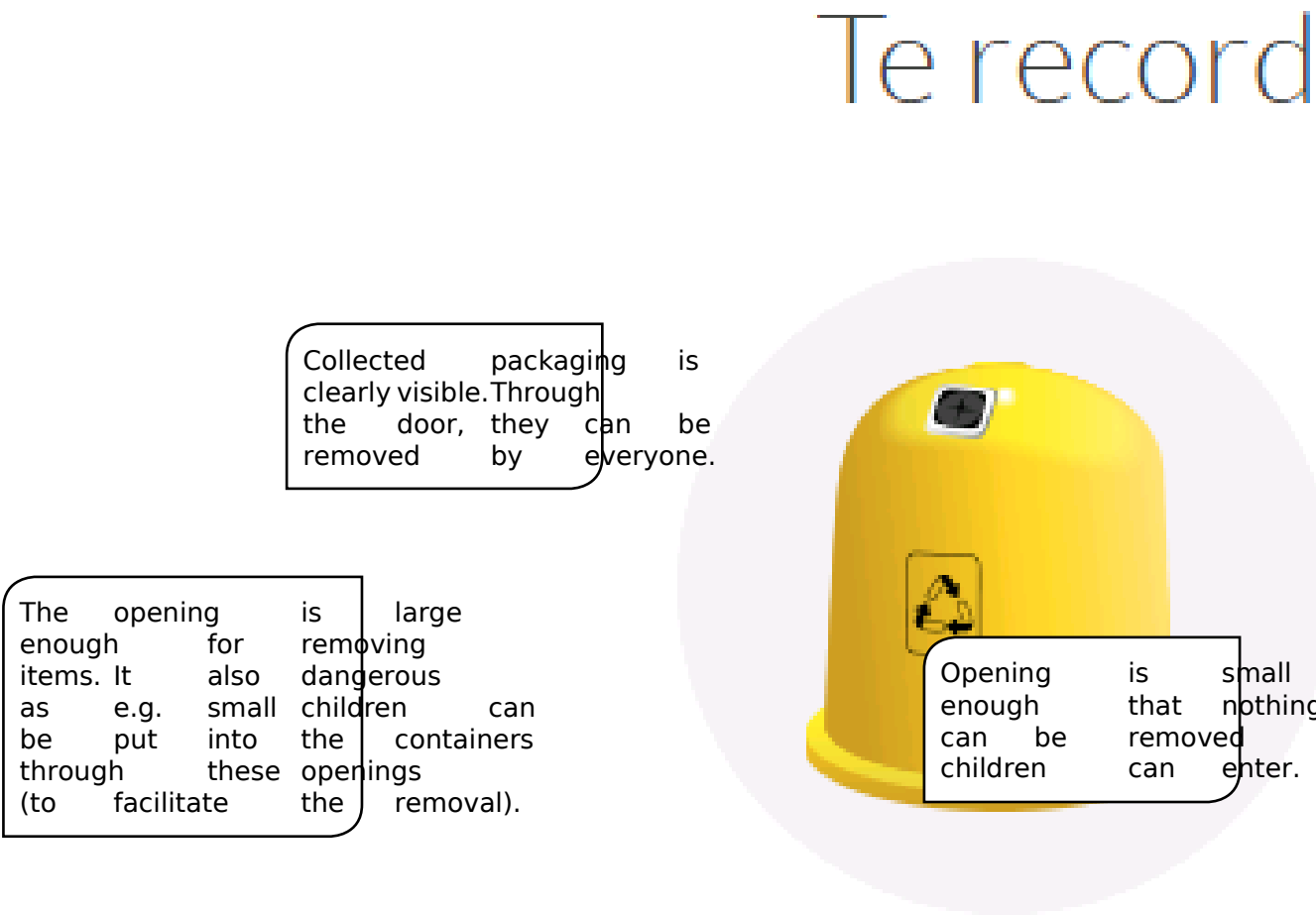
Shanghai, China has a waste segregation system that has been introduced in different fractions. The system is based on segregation at source into four fractions: kitchen waste for composting, recyclables (such as paper, plastic, metal, and glass), hazardous waste, and residual waste. Residents who do not segregate properly will be penalised.

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Problems arise when waste management operators do not fulfil the service shown in the collection points are not appropriately taken care of as shown in the

[/www.ecoembes.com/es/ciudadanos/buscador-de-envases](http://www.ecoembes.com/es/ciudadanos/buscador-de-envases)

Figure 23: Waste collection in Palermo (left) and Tunis (right)



As the collection costs are covered by the PRO, the following disposal for waste collection:

- Establishment of an infrastructure for the collection of packaging waste
- Documentation of the collection
- Regular emptying of the containers
- Cleaning of the collection points
- Maintenance and care of the containers
- Establishment of infrastructure for the sorting and recycling of plastics
- Documentation of recovery and recycling

5.2.3 Product Design for enhanced recycling

Recyclability is the key figure for the qualitative and quantitative behaviour of it determines its respective recycling process chain for primary raw materials possible that the products after use are collectable via existing collection manner. Its reprocessability must enable recirculation.

As aforementioned, the recyclability is determined by two factors:

- i) the composition of the object, and
- ii) the actual existing recycling options after usage, which is why a plastics actual recycling pathways exist. Otherwise, it remains 'ready for recycling'.

However, these two factors have a reciprocal connection since the composition of whether an object can be recycled through the existing recycling path existing recycling option can influence the composition and design of a plastic which need to be considered when designing the product. They are illustrated

The decision about the recyclability is material-dependent - meaning that the applied to each material and the respective item design (bottle or tray).

Based on the prevailing collection and recycling structures in Kenya (see chapter 8.3), recyclables are aggregated on an item basis both through formal collectors as pickers and the subsequent, largely manual sorting.

Thus, technical requirements for plastics packaging as well as non-packaging their suitability for automatic sorting do not need to be considered. Nevertheless trends on the recyclability have been already recognised in the Kenyan context substitution of PE or PP as valuable and well recyclable polyolefin polymers (Figure 25), which cannot be recycled by polyolefin existing recycling companies

Another development leading to reduced recyclability is the usage of fillers the weight, which in turn causes the material to be sorted out as residue separation (a mandatory step in the recycling process annex 8.3). polyolefin; for

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Also, material composites, which are hard to separate, should be avoided as the attached lid on bottles has to be cut off of the bottle and is of being recycled (see Figure 26).

Moreover, the combination of incompatible materials (PET bottles with full sleeves usage of fully coloured (opaque) PET material significantly lowers existing P

Thus, it is recommendable to create recyclable design standards for selected



Figure 25: PET substitution



Figure 26: Attached lids on Bottles

Modulated fees

Incentives for an improved product design for increased recycling can be like taxes or EPR fees. In France and Italy, for instance, the EPR participation recyclability of the plastics packaging, meaning that the fees for non-recyclable higher. Thus, using non-recyclable packaging is significantly more expensive for companies onto the market. The criteria for recyclability and non-recyclability are clearly defined in the case of France, the EPR participation fee for non-recyclable packaging is higher than for plastic packaging.

The approach of modulated fees is being gradually implemented in other European countries. Incentives opposing the trend of non-recyclable packaging design and increase in EPR fees is a powerful instrument for raising awareness among packaging and product designers and recycling, informing them and transferring knowledge about the issue of recycling into the supply chain. A bonus on the EPR levies for recyclable product design is only granted to companies based on their recyclability. Usually, the recyclability is determined and certified by independent organizations and regulations and requirements set by the legal framework or PRO.

Moreover, modulated fees can also be applied for the usage of recycled materials. For example, a bonus lowering the EPR levies is granted. This can roughly be calculated as a percentage of the annual usage of virgin materials and the annual usage of recycled materials.

5.2.4 Consumer awareness - communication and education

Complementary to the actions which need to be taken upstream and downstream, the consumers in the transition to a circular economy have to be educated. Consumer awareness rates is dependent on changing the consumer attitude towards waste. Awareness is a key factor in waste management as well as the adverse effects of an improper waste management. In addition, a lack of awareness of waste, its effects on health and on the environment, leads to mismanagement of waste. From communities to schools and universities, to governments: All of them play a role in building a culture in which effective waste management is the norm. There are various means to raise awareness among consumers, such as:

- Guidelines and signs
- Printed media
- Digital media
- Environmental education programs in schools
- Events and campaigns
- Eco-labelling schemes
- Marketing
- Product fees

Consumer awareness starts on an individual level and can be raised through education. On the best ways to deal with waste and keeping them updated with the latest information to waste and waste management can significantly change the way waste is handled. Global examples are presented in the next section.

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

School education for long-term impact

One of the most powerful tools management are environmental education at schools, as it is easier than that of adults. Children can in the learning process by to their parents, close family, and children from an early age also term impact, because those children the knowledge, then pass it on

Schools can become a main achieve a better waste management: to introduce informative curricula management, and the results of improper of waste, as well as the waste. Integration of waste management different classes such as science helps students to link mismanagement the effects it has on health and also instils in students' minds that from their lives, and that it can treated – a valuable resource applications offering economic and social benefits, such as introducing different careers in the environment and waste management

In addition to curricula, workshops, events, and campaigns are considered children on waste management. Engaging children in activities that combine will enhance their critical thinking and analytic and problem-solving skills informed decisions about waste issues.

Successful examples in other African countries can be found, for instance, in

In Ghana, the NGO Environment360 works with schools through programs that focus on teaching children about the proper segregation of waste source; and introducing them to the green economy and green technology careers. They also collaborate with the Ghana Recycling Incentive Program for Schools (GRIPS) to help schools save money by reducing their waste, and to earn rewards for proper waste segregation.

Moreover, Environment360 runs volunteering programs in which volunteers participate in the initiatives and activities organised by the organisation at schools and communities. An example is the annual Float Your Boat competition where children design and build boats using plastic bottles and then participate in a race in order to raise funds for environmental education programs in coastal and urban regions in Ghana. 'Float Your Boat' also teaches students how to segregate waste and helps them discover exciting ways to reuse their plastic waste, thereby reducing the amount of waste generated.

Product fees as customer incentive for reuse of single use plastics (SUP)

Single use plastics (SUP) are globally recognised as growing problem: demand has been increasing; however, since they are usually only used once and a very short in-life phase and generate significant quantities of waste. Solutions quantities of SUPs are in demand, such as charging a product fee reuse (one of the three key principles of circular economy) over a number usually minimal, it is enough to incentivise the reuse as means to solve countries with price-sensitive consumers.

Generally, it is possible either to increase the price when handing over or give a discount for bringing one's own (reused) SUP (e.g. on coffee-to-go). Kenya introduced a full ban on the use, manufacture and import of a household packaging made of PE (see chapter 3.1). For other carrier bags supermarkets collect a fund from the sale of these bags. Other types of SUP products as single-use coffee cups.

5.2.5 Biodegradable plastics

The term 'biodegradable plastics' is oftentimes (incorrectly) used in reference as biodegradable plastics. However, as described in chapter 2.1, bio-based sources such as sugar cane and processed into plastic polymers like PE. Bio-based like conventional plastics. In contrast, biodegradable plastics are characterised by microorganisms into water, carbon dioxide (or methane) and biomass under biodegradable plastics can be manufactured from both fossil as well as renewable

Biodegradable plastics are used for a wide range of applications, such as waste bags), and agricultural purposes (e.g. as films). They can be foamed into injection-moulded in modified conventional machines.

Different types of fillers can be such as wood flour, lime, clay or the applications for which they are very short in-use phase. For instance, straws and coffee capsules made of plastics available [PlasticsEurope,

To ensure that biological treatment, is a sustainable waste management biodegradability and compostability resulting compost and digestate with the appropriate standards.

The usage of biodegradable plastics does not pose an advantage over conventional plastics, particularly in comparison to sturdy and long-lasting materials such as cotton or thick plastic suitable for reuse which have more advantages. Repeated usage of the material through recycling is more environmentally friendly than the loss of the material through degradation. For their decomposition, biodegradable plastics require certain temperatures, oxygen content and humidity which would be difficult to achieve outside a laboratory.

However, the critical side to biodegradable plastics is that these plastics temperatures, oxygen availability and humidity, and in the presence of cannot be guaranteed either during conventional composting or at landfills. Biodegradable just as much to litter and the existing waste problem as conventional plastic collection, sorting, and recycling or composting infrastructure.

Even in case of a proper waste management chain, there are several critical issues with plastics in composters:

- Most industrial composters are not able to create the specified environmental conditions for biodegradable plastics will not be degraded in them and will instead become microplastics [DUH, 2018]
- The quality of degraded biodegradable plastics does not fulfil the requirements of the European standard EN 13432) leading to contamination [DUH, 2018]
- Biodegradable plastics do not hold many soil substances and merely degrade. Therefore, from an environmental point of view, incineration with heat or electricity is a preferred option [DUH, 2018]
- Inaccurate claims over the compostability of biodegradable plastics might cause them into thinking that littering these plastics is not harmful to the environment which is not the case, as was recently shown in research by the University of Twente. Biodegradable plastic bags were able to hold shopping items even after three years of use in the sea [Williams, 2019]

5. Proposed Measures and Initiatives for the Action Plan

Another term, which is often brought up in relation to biodegradable Oxo-fragmentable plastics are plastics which can be characterized by the fact that, however, they are not decomposable. Therefore, the fragmented plastic particles (microplastics) litter, contributing to environmental degradation.

5.2.6 Integration informal sector

Informal collectors and recyclers are increasingly recognised for creating value and contributing in form of lowering waste quantities, conserving resources, lowering costs and supplying the local value chain with recyclable material.

The same applies for Kenya, where informal waste pickers collect relevant waste and formalised recycling. However, the situation is insufficient both for the quantity and as well as for the effectiveness of the waste management.

The situation for the informal collectors is highly exploitative as;

- their income is irregular,
- their social situation is insecure,
- they are exposed to high health risks,
- they are vulnerable to unfair business practices and
- they lack access to social security systems.
- from a waste management perspective, a mainly informal system is inefficient (only valuable materials will be collected, while invaluable materials remain uncollected (service)),
- collection occurs only in areas with demand for recyclables (in proximity to informal collection),
- formal collection of remaining waste will become more expensive (because of the high cost of collection and separation),
- informal collection and separation often contribute to littering.

This is why informal workers should be integrated or formalised in waste management systems. In this context in Kenya, a few initiatives have already been implemented (e.g. Green Africa and Clean Green Kenya). Their implementation should be evaluated in order to develop mechanisms for expansion all across Kenya. From a social sustainability perspective, it is important that informal workers keep their source of income.



6. Implementing the Action Plan

6.1 Implementing the EPR system

As analysed before, the general waste management structure as well as structure in particular lack organisational and financial resources in Kenya. The implementation of an Extended Producer Responsibility (EPR) system. The systems were introduced in chapter 5.1.2, complemented by a few guidelines for implementing an EPR system in Kenya have already been initiated.

As previously explained, EPR systems allow for a proper and practical solution through their steering function on material usage (upstream) and the operation (downstream), especially collection and recycling. The first and foremost principle of an EPR system for plastic packaging and other specified plastics items is defining the role of each stakeholder in the value chain to create a sound Producer Responsibility Organization (PRO). The subsequent paragraphs of this report will discuss the design of an EPR system in Kenya under the given contextual conditions in order to ensure that the system is effective, efficient, and fair. The subsequent paragraphs of this report will discuss the design of an EPR system in Kenya under the given contextual conditions in order to ensure that the system is effective, efficient, and fair for a policy framework for a transparent and fair system, which ensures that the system is effective, efficient, and fair for management purposes and competition between the stakeholders along the supply chain. For the waste management practice, this implies:

- Transition from picking and collecting valuables to cleanliness as a
- Transition from individual responsibility (take-back schemes) to collective action

These transitions require that the following aspects are defined in d

What are the first important steps for implementing an EPR system in Kenya?

Against the Kenyan background system, it is crucial to establish a

- i) based on an aligned understanding and planning throughout the private
ii) robust enough to work, yet quick and easy to implement. Thus, it is
includes all stakeholders in the supply chain, designates unambiguous rules to
guarantees a level playing field.

As indicated in the name EPR, extending the producer responsibility is in all well-functioning systems, this obligation of the economy is accomplished initiated and implemented by the privatesector. Also in Kenya, the first steps for setup of an EPR system should be initiated by the privatesector, ideally of organizations (BMOs) such as Kenya Association of Manufacturers (KAM) or K (KEPSA), for instance. Moreover, they can ensure that all stakeholders along the process. This applies under the condition that there are external controls in that is the opportunity for the obliged industry not only to reduce local and economically viable conditions.

At the same time, political decision-makers need to be involved in the respective legal framework. As several branches are potentially affected – economics – it is important to include decision-makers from all o

actions need to be put in congruence and existing legislation clarified in providing sufficient details on concrete measures to be taken.

Adapting and passing a legal basis is a process which takes time. Thus PRO, potentially supported by the resources of an existing BMO such as or Kenya Private Sector Alliance in which companies and organisations can organise negotiate with the decision makers about the setup of the mandatory system can be operated in order to gain first experiences. The participation in the the law has entered into force. Simultaneously, additional measures based on

Recommendation on financing the first steps

The first steps are financed through the voluntarily participating companies, which value chain. As the process of establishing an EPR system is complex support the process (implementation of PRO, first measures and pilot projects) through external third parties. Therefore, a project should be initiated which Plan and advances it. Moreover, it is likely to receive funding partly waste issue is currently a topic of high importance. The Kenya Plastic Action Plan for respective funding.

How should the EPR system be set up?

It is required to ensure the highest level of transparency possible for foundation of trust and acceptance. Against this background, it is recommended

- only one EPR system and one PRO or
- one PRO umbrella organisation uniting the existing schemes like PETCO and C

which, in the beginning, exclusively regulates the financing and organisation of complementing economic instruments, such as landfill taxes, should be implemented in treatment of plastics, covering areas that cannot be covered by the EPR

One industry owned PRO can be initiated within the organizational resources organization such as Kenya Association of Manufacturers or Kenya Private Sector Alliance as part of its statutory purpose – a public service mission regarding the plastics waste covered by EPR. In light of transparency issues, this PRO which acts as a superior institution independently from the individual companies

The private industry is widely aligned to establish an EPR system which and a PRO which is run as non-profit organisation; this reflects the idea of fractions equally.

It is also possible to establish different PROs for different plastics of registration, controlling, monitoring and transparency. Moreover, it needs to be joint responsibilities (e.g. awareness-raising and education) and how to balance different plastic fractions. In addition, it needs to be defined how the the disposal of the residue originating from the mixed collection and subsequent disposal are divided between them.

6. Implementing the Action Plan

How are the different stakeholders affiliated with the PRO?

The PRO is the most important stakeholder (organisation) within an EPR system. for setting up and developing the system. In order to transform their in fulfilled in Kenya through the various take-back schemes, to a co and fillers should give a mandate to the industry-owned PRO. Thereby, th fulfilment of all take-back obligations of the obliged companies as th

All stakeholders in the supply chain should participate in the PRO. Thus, they sh new organisation. There should be four different forms of participation:

- i) **Obliged companies (more details below):** producers/ users, fillers, brand owners who packed goods and plastic products onto the Kenyan market. These comp is proportional to the amount in weight of plastic items they introduce finance all waste management services.
- ii) **Members:** Companies which are part of the plastics supply chain. This includ packaging and product converters, designers, manufacturers, retailers and operators for collection and recovery, especially recycling. These companies to the PRO for the operation of the PRO.
- iii) **Affiliated members (advisory board):** This includes offices of the National gover NGOs, and other authorities. None of the affiliated members have to pay and organisations impact the work of the PRO as an advisory board and recent developments, innovations and novelties, as well as similar updates.
- iv) **Management (executive board):** The PRO needs an executive board to mana spending and controlling. This management can consist of one or several by the members or externally appointed. Generally, it is recommend

Which plastic items (packaging/ non-packaging) are covered by the EPR system?

In most cases, EPR systems for plastics are set up for plastic packaging usually not covered by the EPR system. However, as EPR has the b downstream, it is recommended to include both plastic packaging as w in the EPR system to achieve better results in recycling and waste m include all sources of waste generation as it best reflects the K

Thus, it is recommended that all plastic based packaging (food, non-food, in well as composite packaging, which consist of plastics and at least one o how high the plastic content has to be to be obliged to take p suggestions include at least 50 % of the packaging having to be co are also possible. Since packaging items are consumed quickly and thus have a near-time waste generation, the preferred approach is to cover as many p the EPR system. In addition, the collection and recycling structure fo (PET, HDPE, PVC, LDPE, PP, PS, others) will be improved. Generally, it is systems for household waste and non-household waste (i.e. industrial and tr it is done for instance in other countries such as Germany.

In addition to the plastic packaging, other plastic items which can be covered included. This has to be decided on a case-by-case basis by designated particularly plastic items, which are similar to packaging, for instance plastic buckets, bags and single use plastics (SUPs) (see, for instance, the EU SUP Directive), to be clearly outlined in the legal frame.

It is recommended to clearly label plastic packaging and selected plastic items system and take part in it by paying the fees. Once an obliged company to their packaging and/or products (comparable to “Green Dot”).

Thus, companies introducing plastic packaging (sold to private households, agriculture, industry packaging) and/or other plastic items covered by the EPR system on to the legal frame, are obliged to participate (they are ‘the obliged companies’). More applications are excluded from the EPR scope: packaging for hazardous content, materials and plastic items that cannot be covered by the EPR system like components such as pipes.

As mentioned, other non-plastic packaging is currently not included, while in generally all packaging materials are covered. This is meant to keep a materials and thereby avoid undesired, ecologically questionable substitution effects of materials.

Who are the obliged companies that have to pay for the EPR system?

In an EPR system, it has to be legally determined who has to pay these obliged parties can be identified. As aforementioned, the obliged companies of which plastic items (packaging and non-packaging) are covered by the EPR terminating requirement that these plastic items are put on the market in Kenya will become waste in Kenya. Thus, these companies have to finance the operation services. In particular, this includes two groups (see also Figure 27):

- Users (producers)/ fillers for the sale of their packed goods in Kenya for consumption in Kenya
- Importers for the sale of their goods in Kenya for consumption in Kenya

Through which interface can it be ascertained which packaged goods and other non-packaging products are being put on the market in Kenya?

The obliged companies (see definition above) comprise of:

- Plastic packaging which is filled in other countries and is imported to Kenya
- Plastic packaging which is filled in Kenya and consumed in Kenya
- Other non-packaging plastic products which are imported to Kenya
- Other non-packaging plastic products which are produced, sold and consumed in Kenya

To measure the exact amounts of these items, the following criteria can be used (e.g. mass (weight), number of items, filling volume, and area. In most cases, the most practical measurement unit; some countries, such as Spain, also have an area-based fees.

6. Implementing the Action Plan

Figure 27 illustrates the most suitable interface for the steps in the system onto the market.

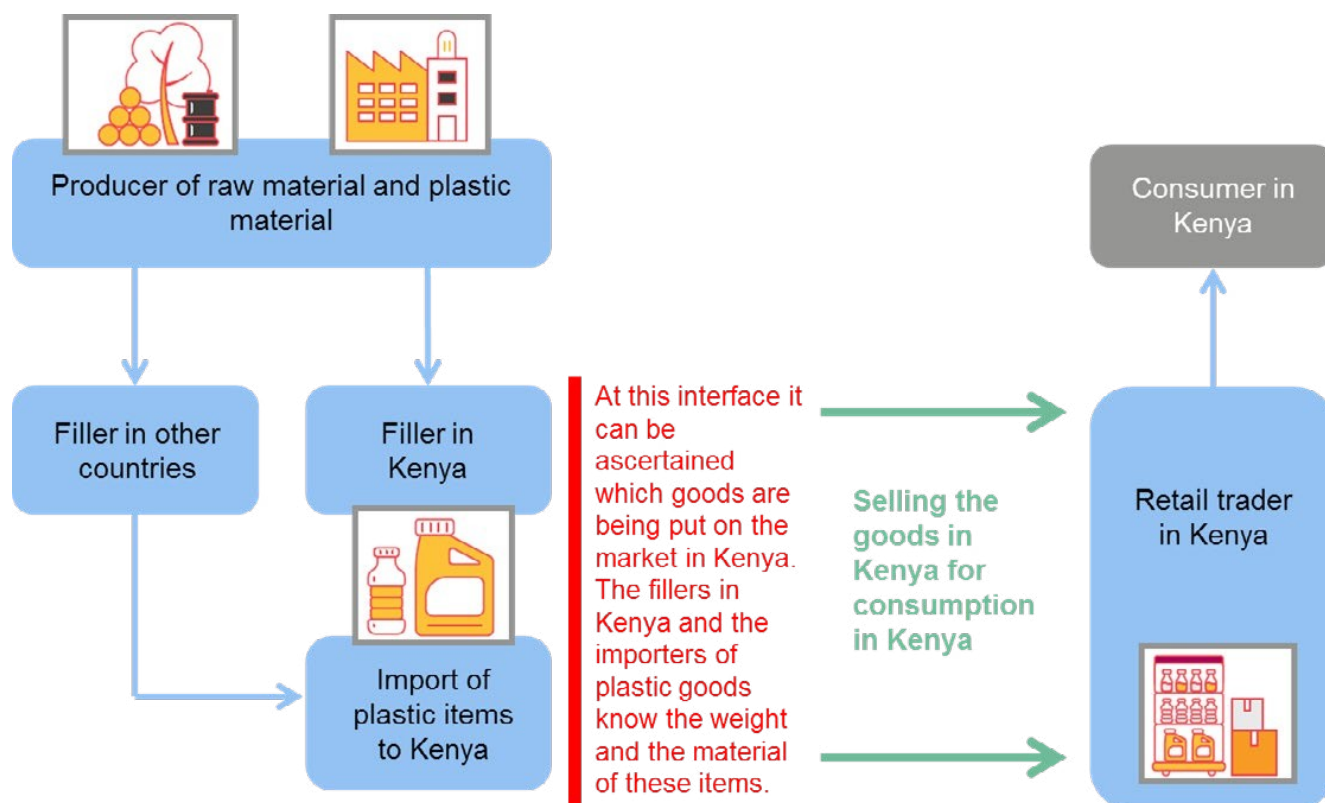


Figure 27: Interface for determining the obliged companies

How to oblige the informal packaging users?

Since the informal sector is not only limited to waste operators but also includes informal packaging users, it is crucial to integrate these informal packaging users into the EPR system. Thus, it is crucial to find a possible approach to integrate these informal packaging users into the EPR system. One possible approach is to require these non-licensed packaging users to pay their levies directly to the EPR system. This should be complemented by a definition of the quantity of packaging material used per year (e.g. 300 kg per year) per user. In turn, the manufacturers should pay a surcharge. This economic incentive will encourage the informal packaging users to integrate themselves into the system in the long run: if a user verifies their participation in the EPR system, no surcharge from the manufacturer will be levied. If users pay their levies directly to the EPR system for the packaging used, the manufacturers will not have to pay a surcharge.

How much should be paid by the obliged companies?

The exact amount that needs to be paid is proportional to the specific of under- or overestimating the costs needed for the waste management task as possible, it is recommended to pursue specific measures as goal. Since the PRO should be set up as a non-profit organisation, the total amount should equal the expenses for all waste management costs. To calculate the cost

- i) the amounts of waste which will arise from the plastics items covered
- ii) the costs needed for the treatment of these amounts of waste.

It is recommended to calculate a defined amount (per material five years and adapted to developments and trends. It is also possible steering function in regards to recyclable product design (see chapter

To provide an idea on the expected costs, an overview of current that the underlying EPR systems are well established and in some cases commercial and industrial (C/I) packaging, as it is also ultimately adapted to the prevailing conditions (including underlying infrastructure costs, organisation and control).

Table 5: Plastic packaging fees in EU-28 EPR schemes [Watkins et al., 2017]

| | Plastic (general unspecified) ^c | | PET/ HDPE | Beverage cartons | | Other/Composite Material | |
|----------------------------------|--|--------|-----------|------------------|--------|--------------------------|--------|
| | H | C/I | H | H | C/I | H | C/I |
| Austria (ARA) | 0.6100 | - | - | 0.5800 | - | 0.6100 | 0.1000 |
| Belgium (FOST-PLUS) | 0.2823 | - | 0.2107 | 0.2455 | - | 0.2823 | - |
| Bulgaria (EcoPack) | 0.0800 | 0.0800 | - | - | - | 0.1000 | 0.1000 |
| Croatia (Eko-Ozra) | - | - | 0.0550 | 0.0550 | 0.0550 | 0.1000 | 0.1000 |
| Cyprus (Green Dot) | - | 0.0380 | 0.1060 | 0.1230 | - | - | - |
| Czech Rep (EKO-KOM) | 0.2060 > 5: 0.1540 | 0.0220 | - | 0.1580 | - | 0.2230 | 0.2230 |
| Estonia (ETO) | 0.4090 | 0.1090 | - | 0.1050 | - | - | - |
| France (Eco-Emballages / CITEO) | 0.3120 | - | - | 0.2470 | - | - | - |
| Greece (HE.R.R.Co) | 0.6600 | 0.6600 | - | 0.5700 | 0.5700 | - | - |
| Hungary (Ökopannon) | 0.1850 | - | - | 0.0620 | - | 0.1850 | - |
| Ireland (Repak) | 0.0892 | 0.0892 | 0.0892 | 0.0758 | - | - | - |
| Latvia (Latvijas Zalais Punkts) | 0.1490 | 0.1490 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Lithuania (Zallasis taskas) | 0.0810 | 0.0810 | 0.0810 | 0.1220 | 0.1220 | 0.1250 | 0.1250 |
| Luxembourg (Valoriux) | - | - | 0.3703 | 0.2835 | 0.2835 | - | - |
| Norway (Gront Punkt) | 0.3876 | 0.3876 | - | 0.1200 | 0.1200 | - | - |
| Poland (Rekopol) | 0.0046 | 0.0046 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Portugal (Sociedade Ponto Verde) | 0.2319 | 0.2319 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Romania (ECO-ROM Ambalaje) | 0.1330 | 0.1330 | 0.1330 | - | - | - | - |
| Slovenia (Slopak) | 0.1340 | 0.1340 | 0.0770 | 0.0100 | 0.0100 | 0.1340 | 0.1340 |
| Spain (Ecoembes) | 0.4720 | - | 0.3770 | - | - | - | - |
| Sweden (FTI) | 0.2440 | 0.2200 | - | - | - | - | - |

H = households; C = commercial; I = industrial; all prices are per kg

6. Implementing the Action Plan

It is recommended to price all plastics that consist mainly of mono m to this could be made for special cases, e.g. PVC from household packaging, si options in place in Kenya. The same applies for opaque PET packaging balance packaging fees for beverages, it is also recommended to d this could lead to unexpected substitution effects.

The price of composite packaging, meaning packaging made of different m that cannot be manually separated and of which none of the used materials total composite packaging weight) should be comparably high. This is due to recyclable, both in quality as well as in quantity.

In an initiating phase of implementing fees, the same prices should be used for additional products as well as plastics packaging and additional products

Recommendation for modulated fees

Modulated fees are not the first step to be taken when implementing an E approach has been in place for only three years. In the Kenyan context, the recycling of plastics. Against this background, a regular forum sh for recyclers and collectors to discuss recent challenges and problems a increase recycling. This step is followed by developing standards for sp followed eventually by modulated fees.

As a recommendation for practice, formalised and informal collectors a identify the problems which they are facing in the daily business in re 5.2.3) and summarise them in a guide as a basis for discussion with th a standard should be developed at a later stage. Please note that modulato for different materials (as the example shows, see Table 5) – modulato incentive to further advance recycling in an already well running a

What are targets of the EPR which should be fulfilled by the PRO?

The overall system of the EPR is the establishment of collecting, se which are covered by the EPR system. To achieving this, several ty

- a) **Quotas (collection quotas, recovery quotas):** These are the most common target systems. In the current Kenyan situation, the challenge arises that as e.g. the absolute size of the marketed quantity is unknown identify. Prospectively, the inclusion of a quota is possible with further population should be linked to a waste collection structure (for exa population must be connected to an infrastructure). Again, it is diffic since a formal collection structure has not been achieved yet in large
- c) **Specific waste management measures:** Alternatively, specific, measurable waste mana can be specified for the abovementioned goals. They can be increased This has the advantage that the costs can be calculated more precisely the PRO), be better controlled and react more flexibly towards unexpected system was initially implemented with such targets.

For Kenya, it is recommended to use c) specific waste management measures. Needs to be noted that some measures need to be reconciled with third party recycling quota or the increase based on the status quo is not recommended. Therefore, determining a specific minimum (e.g. 50,000mt) of annually recycled achieved within a defined period of time, is more suitable (e.g. 3 a).

The establishment of a reliable reporting and controlling system as system is essential. The controlling focuses on three dimensions:

- i) **Fulfilling the operational services of the PRO:** The PRO structure needs to be transparent visibility on potential misconduct of single deciders within the organization and be adapted accordingly (particularly important in the initial phase).
- ii) **Prevention of free riders among the obliged companies:** An effective measure is to companies to report their amounts of plastic packaging and additional plastic in the system. In other states, it has been proven successful to publish the results on a website). This way, free riders can be identified by the authorized controlling. Furthermore, with the published data it is possible to validate plastic amounts with knowledge about the sector and revenues of the single companies.
- iii) **Fulfilment of operational performance by waste management operators:** It is important (collectors, sorters, recyclers) which provide services to the PRO are properly registered and licensed. This also includes a general suitability assessment of the mass flows which are handled by them as part of their operative business.

Who is controlling and which instruments are suitable?

It has to be anchored in law who is responsible for the success of the mechanisms can be distinguished. It is recommended to regard all three elements correspond with the interests of controlling parties:

- i) **Self-assessment:** This control is based on the principle that every deviation from the target (distortion (if one party does not fulfil their responsibilities and duties, a party should bear the resulting disadvantages, e.g. free riders). Thus, registration, data gathering, accounting of the funds should be in the hands of the PRO. The PRO is based on self-interest, which specifically focuses on the prevention of free riders.
- ii) **Control by a public agency (defined by the state):** The responsible controlling agency has to be named in the law and needs to be staffed with knowledge and finances. The fulfilment of the operative task of the PRO with regards to achieving recycling targets. This can be done through both random on-site controls as well as verification of the PRO in terms of the fulfilment of the targets.
- iii) **Public control:** This describes well informed consumers, who can recognise mistakes of the operative management.

For developing a legal framework, only the control by a public agency has authority has to be specifically named. In most cases, a new section responsible for the EPR act. They control and validate e.g. reporting by the PRO to the EPR aim.

6. Implementing the Action Plan

Which taxes/ levies should be implemented additional to the EPR system?

In case of a well-running EPR system, no further taxes or levies in the form of taxes on the production and fillers of packaging as well as for additional plastic products are necessary. The monetary steering function of an EPR system is primarily achieved by the fact that products and packaging items are significantly more expensive.

For economic impacts that currently burden the Kenyan recycling, it is necessary to introduce taxes or levies in the long run. This means limiting the possibilities of cheap land disposal needs to be penalised and the gate fees of existing landfills to be used aimfully for redeveloping measures of landfills and dumpsites in general. This strategy can only lead to successes if illegal dumping is prevented.

How can the Counties/ local authorities be included?

A close partnership between the Counties/ local authorities and the industry-owned EPR organisation is a relevant condition for the success as well as the economic and environmental sustainability of the compliance scheme.

Municipalities/ local authorities have several key roles to play, as they

- i) Help to set up the collection points
- ii) Agree with the EPR organisation on the most appropriate collection system, taking into account particularities and the conformity with national requirements.
- iii) Cooperate with the EPR organisation in regards to:

- local public communication and awareness programmes
- data gathering and monitoring
- controlling the waste management operators and
- tendering for collection services and pilot projects

How can the licences and fees for waste collectors and recyclers be harmonised?

A fair and transparent EPR system requires the equal treatment of all participating stakeholders. This also includes licences and fees for collection, transportation and disposal. The necessary coordination with the competent authority granting these licenses upon EPR in the respective entity is most likely the National Environment Management Authority (NEMA). Different requirements will inevitably lead to imbalances in the waste management system.

At the same time, the already existing registration system for collectors must be integrated into the EPR system. For instance, it is possible that only registered companies are allowed to collect waste. Equal treatment and harmonization as well as countrywide integration and coordination are necessary.

In case different fees apply, they have to depend on legal framework conditions (e.g. number of employees), processed amount and/or turnover. There are possibilities to be discussed with the relevant authorities.

Which responsibility does each stakeholder have in the proposed EPR system?

The following Table 6 summarises the role of all involved stakeholders in

Table 6: Role of each stakeholder within the proposed Kenyan EPR system

| Stakeholder | Role |
|---|---|
| Manufacturers of packaging material or of packaging and additional plastics | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> enable reuse and secondary raw materials where possible exchange (forum) with collectors and recyclers ensure recyclability of packaging and recyclability and standardisation |
| Consumer goods companies (users, fillers and importers) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> obliged to pay fees to the EPR system for material of their packed goods and additional plastic products need to be registered with PRO |
| Distributors/retailers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> can optionally be obliged to take packaging and back and to ensure their proper handling |
| Consumers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> have to be informed about strategies for waste collection (incl. participation in pilot projects) public control |
| Waste management operators | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> receive funds from the EPR system for their services packaging waste need to be registered with PRO/ authority |
| Public institutions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> legislation and supervision of the EPR system registration of waste management operators support pilot projects |
| Counties and municipalities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> support collection and recycling or collect the inform consumers take part in pilot projects |

6. Implementing the Action Plan

6.2 Implementing voluntary measures

As the setup of an EPR system is the central element for creating proposed measures based on chapter 5.2 are connected to the proposed

For stakeholders along the plastic supply chain, especially companies proposed to participate right from the start as this offers them the possibilities to

- i) Actively shape the system which will become mandatory
- ii) Be connected with the public authorities
- iii) Be well prepared instead of only reacting
- iv) Give them an indirect benefit compared to their non-participating competitors

In order to do so effectively, it is recommended to **found an organisation to the PRO (so called PRO pre-organisation). Voluntary participation is, however, not limited to companies** – developing a tailored system should be done by **all companies in the supply chain.**

The following measures should be organised, prepared and financed by the funds are independent from the fees which are paid within a mandatory EPR system

Implementing a pre-organisation is a lengthy process with several tasks. The development of the pre-organisation through international funds should be discussed. The implementation of a suitable legal status of the organisation as well as internal sections and departments.

Which measures on a voluntary basis are recommended?

Prior to the formalised implementation of an EPR system it is recommended to first gain practical experiences on a voluntary basis; these will then be evaluated in regards to whether they are voluntary projects and have to be clearly defined in order to keep them. This is crucial for the voluntarily participating companies. Suitable pilot projects for the improvement of collection, recycling and monitoring, e.g.

- Separate collection and recycling of plastics or recyclables in general (e.g. universities, retailers/malls, eco-tourism etc.) and/or areas (rural touristic areas, inner cities) as a role-model character to scale up nationwide.
- Increase sorting, e.g. through providing technical plants, space and/or favourable conditions.
- Increase of technical equipment and knowledge for the respective operators to optimise transport processes.
- Increase environmental education and communication, e.g. through creating campaigns with a focus on middle income households.

Promote segregation at source as best practice and waste collection

As waste segregation at source is only done to a very limited extent, it is important to start gaining first experiences and introduce the consumers to waste segregation. Such pilot projects can be introduced in various fields, as shown below:

- **Waste segregation in schools and universities:** Schools and universities are ideal places for waste segregation at source as the children and students can be well educated at home and their community, and ensure a long-term impact if educated at schools and universities offer less anonymous environments. Segregation should be initiated, for instance, by collecting all dry recyclables (plastics, paper, metals) and these should have already been initiated in Kenya in several schools (see Mr. Omondi's report). Collected waste at the schools needs to be regularly collected by either the schools or companies and verifications about the collected quantities, sorted and recycled or sold. Simultaneously, a corresponding sorting needs to be developed.
- **Companies, organisations, ministries and other public agencies:** Similar to the set-up at schools, waste segregation projects can also be initiated at companies, organisations, ministries and public agencies, which are willing to become role models in this field and encourage others. Also here, these sites offer less anonymous environments (compared to homes, for instance). Material segregated and collected needs to be regularly collected by either the site or private companies and verifications about the collected quantities, sorted and recycled or sold. Revenues and finances should be considered.
- **Eco-tourism:** In the field of eco-tourism, waste segregation projects can be initiated with an additional focus to reduce plastics as much as possible (where suitable) and to encourage waste and forward it to suitable sorters and recyclers.
- **Waste collection at the household level in urban areas:** It is recommended to initiate waste segregation at source and collection with bring banks, where the containers are set up. It is important to set up these containers in sufficient numbers within a comparably short walking distance for the inhabitants so that separating waste is easy. Moreover, the inhabitants of this district need to be properly informed about waste segregation. Additionally, a few sites for piloting kerbside collection should be identified.
- **Waste collection at the household level in rural areas:** Establishing central point collection, where the waste is collected by trucks and the recyclables directly sorted and sold, is a valuable option.
- **Integration of the informal sector in collection:** It is important to encourage the informal sector (valuable waste) is collected opposing to collecting only the valuable waste (e.g. bottles) while non-valuable waste (e.g. mixed plastics) as well as waste, which is not recyclable (e.g. wrappers), remains littered, i.e. a transition from material picking to formal collection is mainly in the hands of the informal sector, it is important to involve them. For instance, it is possible to divide a certain area/district and assign parts of the collection to the informal sector, which are tasked to collect all littered waste and sort it subsequently after collection. The cleanliness of the area instead of the amounts of recyclables they collect should be equal the revenues they would make from picking valuables. It is important that pilot projects require a very high amount of organisation and controlling.

6. Implementing the Action Plan

In regards to the collection at the household level, it is targeted to establish regular collection through formal collection. Therefore, both the Counties / municipalities as well as collection services need to be included in this.

In case of mixed waste collection, it is important to ensure suitable spaces need to be identified in collaboration with the counties / municipalities. These spaces should be located close to the following treatment steps and equipment. The technical steps of the sorting should be complemented through manual separating particles with a size < 40 mm, which should include mainly organic waste. Magnetic separators for removing the ferrous metals is recommended; however, this should be done. Generally, the sorting should regard the existing recycling and marketing practices to generate a residual waste stream, which contains as less valuables as possible.

To increase the effectiveness of the transportation, baling machines that can be utilized on site. By making use of these, the volume of the waste transported per vehicle. In turn, this requires transport vehicles which are suitable for weight and additional equipment to load the bales up on the vehicles.

Last but not least, collection can become also legal defined target of the collection bins should be set up within a defined period of time in the area.

Recommendation on integrating the informal sector

The informal sector plays an important part in Kenya for the collection and recycling. These pre-recycling activities should be integrated into the EPR system. The workers should not lose their source of income. Furthermore, these workers are experienced and have many possibilities to market the recyclables as well as challenges and problems. Companies that need employees for collection, sorting and/or recycling. The integration in this context should be higher than their revenues from selling recyclables informally. A study should be conducted for this report, their individual revenue marginally exceeds the cost of collection. It is recommended to implement respective pilot projects to gain experience.

As a functioning EPR system offers reliable organizational structures and integrating informal workers into the system offers many benefits. Generally, the informal worker can be integrated: either as an employee (see Table 7) or as a person who remains independent but formally cooperates with the organisations (see Table 8).

Table 7: Integration of the informal sector as employees

| Informal sector | Integration as employees |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| Irregular income | Regular income |
| Insecure social situation | Improvement of the social situation |
| High health risk | Minimisation of health risks |
| Vulnerability to unfair business practices | Reliable and fair business partners |
| Lack of access to social security systems | Access to social security systems |

Table 8: Integration of the informal sector as business partners

| Informal sector | | | Integration as business partners | | |
|-----------------|-------------|---------------|----------------------------------|--------------|----------------|
| Uncertain | commercial | base | Fixed | service | agreements |
| Uncertain | marketing | conditions | Reliable | acceptance | of recyclables |
| Uncertain | situation | for employees | Improvement | of employee | situation |
| High | operational | risks | Risk | minimisation | |
| Vulnerability | to unfair | business | Controlled | business | practices |

Waste collection will become formalised through the implementation of a increase the pressure on informal workers to integrate themselves into they face the risk of having limited access to the waste. Thus, it is crucial to an early point onwards and inform them on possibilities and solutions. In part crucial for the integration:

- Confidence building, trust building and highlighting potential benefits,
- Information and professional support,
- Legal advice,
- Employment contracts for employees,
- Service contracts for business partners

Promote recycling

By increasing the amounts and effectiveness of collection and sorting of plastic quantities of recyclable plastic waste become available for recycling. To support it is possible to apply for grants or support for e.g. equipment (functional applications need to be approved by an independent body and consider use of

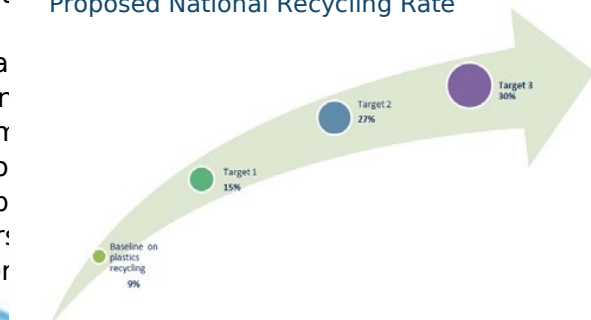
Moreover, it is recommended to identify which plastic converters would use food packaging and other non-food items as food-grade applications for recyclates as recycling capacities for plastic waste are not fully developed within Kenya, it recycling possibilities abroad as an intermediate solution (until the recycling capacity increased). Please note that **it is recommended to only export sorted plastic fractions which are prepared for recycling, but no mixed waste.**

Promote product design for enhanced recycling

In light of the current Kenyan situation, it is recommended as before measures like modulated EPR fees are introduced. Against this background established which offers a platform for exchange between recyclers, aggregators and product designers and converters in order to;

- share insights on recyclable product design,
- discuss current developments a
- jointly develop strategies and solution recycling. Moreover, it is recommended guidelines which entail the insights of These measures should be financed by contact for exchanging with recyclers. The Kenya Association of Waste Recyclers

Proposed National Recycling Rate



6. Implementing the Action Plan

From a mid- and long-term perspective, this should be followed by the product and packaging groups as well as a modulated fee once the E

Recommendation on biodegradable, bio-based and oxo-fragmentable plastics

The usage of biodegradable plastics is seen as problematic and is of purposes including those which are in a direct connection with organic (remaining in the environment). It is crucial to ensure that these biodegradable given climatic conditions within a short timeframe. For all other applications, they are regarded as suitable, as they can only be degraded effectively under la

The usage of bio-based plastics is not affected by this. However, its materials for manufacturing these bio-based plastics competes with farming equal fossil-based plastics in the sense that they are not obstacles to re

Since oxo-fragmentable plastics fragment into plastic particles, which remain in the litter and contribute to environmental degradation, it is highly recommended that plastics for any application; or even enact a ban on them.

Promote consumer awareness

The EPR compliance scheme should involve a strong collaboration with all stakeholders to inhabitants and waste operators – each with a designated role put down in the law that the PRO needs to inform the inhabitants and authorities in a suitable way by using various forms of media and publishing on a regular basis which can be used for promoting consumer awareness, including social media.

It is also possible to initiate campaigns on different scales (national, regional, a national clean-up day or “wasteweek”-campaigns in schools. Waste Week in schools tackle waste and recycling both on campus and in the classroom to comprehensively educate and help students see the difference they can work towards Eco-Schools accreditation (a formal award). The campaign has worked in the classroom and eco-teams – students are informed, inspired and encouraged to change. In 2018, over 1,800 schools took part in international Waste Week. A success;

- 84 % of schools said it helped raise students' awareness of the environment.
- 70 % of teachers said it helped encourage students to take action
- 98 % of Primary students and 91 % of Secondary students

6.3 Implementation Matrix

Specific measures to start action need to be continued based on the action plan of the Kenya Plastic Action Plan. The central element for the implementation is chapter 6.1). This revolves around a complex process in which multiple

Based on the experiences from other countries, it is also a process which orientation. Thus, we recommend starting with a group of stakeholders working the establishment of a legal frame. For participating companies and organisations advantageous as they can actively engage and therefore shape the implementation.

Accordingly, implementation of a mandatory EPR scheme requires three main following tables:

- i) **Establishing a legal basis for a mandatory EPR system** (see Table 9): It is recommended that a system is established through a corresponding law. This requires a competent authorities and the private industry.
- ii) **Establishing a pre-organisation on a voluntary basis** (see Table 10): To initiate this process, a voluntary basis should be established as a pre-organisation for a later mandatory system into force. Although such a voluntary system is limited in performance and scope, it is essential in establishing the organisational and regulatory foundation and control mechanisms. The pre-organisation has to fulfil self-set targets (e.g. annual amount of plastic waste collected). The organisation will conduct essential projects and measures to gain experience and implement measures in a Kenyan context (e.g. in terms of collection and control mechanisms, determining the fees etc.).
- iii) **Improving an optimising mechanism when the mandatory EPR system comes into force** (see Table 11): Even after a legal framework has been established and a mandatory EPR system is in place, it must be taken to ensure that the EPR system and the PRO are continuously being improved.

Short term measures: describe actions that can be taken immediately to improve the waste management system, entail, with respect to the legislative framework, enacting bans and restrictions that can be put into place by the private sector, possible within the current framework, and changing behaviours and business practices. Starting projects, discussions and initiatives that lead to long term measures are also part of this category.

Medium term measures: describe actions that need preparatory time in order to be implemented, such as the set-up of a new institution with its tasks, its organizational structure, its legal framework is included here. It also refers to processes of coordination and responsibilities in between different organizations and institutions.

Long term measures: build on discussions started as short term measures and organizational set-ups initiated as medium term measures. In order to achieve incremental change and

(see Table 11): Even after a legal framework has been established and a mandatory EPR system is in place, it must be taken to ensure that the EPR system and the PRO are continuously being improved.

6. Implementing the Action Plan

Table 9: Establishing a legal basis for a mandatory EPR system

| No. | Objective | Activities | Target | Actor | Time frame |
|-----|-------------------------------|---|--|--|---------------------------------------|
| 1 | Prepare for framework | Present and discuss outcomes of Action Plan with stakeholders supply chain | Align understanding of Kenya Plastic EPR scheme (optional aligned associations) | KAM across other relevant parties (private industry) | Short-term (should start immediately) |
| 2 | Prepare for framework | Present and discuss outcomes of Action Plan and local authorities | Align understanding of Kenya Plastic EPR scheme (optional aligned associations) | KAM across all parties involved | Short-term (after launch of KPAP) |
| 3 | Prepare for framework | Set up order the mandatory | Competent body for control each-competent body | National authority (ideally coordinating with private sector) | Mid-term (initiating) |
| 4 | Prepare for framework | Establish human and resources tent body | knowledge structural of the government | Prepare for EPR force body (being coordinated by private sector) | Mid-term (initiating) |
| 5 | Tailor EPR work to conditions | Define frame-Kenyan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Responsibilities and obliged companies plastics covered by targets - control by competent body - exemptions | Create a mandatory EPR scheme that is practical, clearly defined, substantial and measurable | Competent body in cooperation with private industry | Mid-term |
| 6 | Tailor EPR work to conditions | frame-Kenyan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Coordinate with legislation to avoid double payment - Harmonising existing (environmental) law (e.g. transport) - Use existing laws licensing/registration - Laws to support recycling in general (e.g. landfill tax) - exemptions | parallel to avoid Create a mandatory EPR system that doesn't conflict with existing laws but is supported by laws | Competent body | Mid-term |
| 7 | Tailor EPR work to conditions | frame-Kenyan <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evaluate drafted legal and private - framework on the | Insights on upcoming and potential consequences for its private sector to observe these implementation and act accordingly | Competent body | Mid-term |
| 8 | Roll out EPR framework | Put legal developed force | framework Mandatory EPR | National authority | Long-term |

Table 10: Establishing a pre-organisation on a voluntary basis

| No. | Objective | Activities | Target | Actor | Time frame |
|-----|---|---|--|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1 | Present and discuss a pre-organisation on a voluntary basis | Present and discuss outcomes of Plastic Action Plan with relevant holders of supply chain | Align Kenya understanding of an EPR scheme and KPAP across relevant parties (private industry) | KAPRO (optional aligned association) | Short-term (should start immediately) |
| 2 | Set up a voluntary organisation on basis | Identify, connect and combine relevant stakeholders and obliged companies that are willing to participate Establish parameters for a pre-organisation | Create an organisation that participates in a legal framework (see) | KAM (optional aligned association) | Short-term (should start immediately) |
| 3 | Set up a voluntary organisation on basis | Define - Responsibilities - Targets and membership - membership - reporting | Prepare a pre-organisation that aims to become the PROS | KAM (optional aligned association) | Short-term |
| 4 | Initiate a pre-organisation | Establish human and al resources competent | Prepare a pre-organisation that becomes the PRO | KAM (optional aligned association) | Short-term |
| 5 | Initiate a pre-organisation | Public relations and acquisition members | All companies along the plastic supply chain can become member in the voluntary PRO, not obliged companies. Developing tailored system should be done by all companies and organisations along the plastic supply chain. | KAM (optional aligned association) | Short-term |
| 6 | Start pre-organisation | Establishing out of sation | Implement an organisation that actively in development framework | KAM (optional aligned association) | Mid-Term |
| 7 | Run pre-organisation | Run pilot measures to develop an and proper plastic collection and gathering, of insights | Create a waste management structure that can be implemented through a multi-stakeholder approach and a national | KAM (optional aligned association) | Mid-term |

6. Implementing the Action Plan

| | | | | | |
|---|----------------------|--|--|--|-----------|
| 8 | Run pre-organisation | Run measures pilot projects in to develop a mandatory PRO. This would include: - registering companies - calculating fees and establishing a system to free riders reporting - measures flow validation - raising awareness - integrating informal sector - reporting to measure goal progress | and order sound This obliged their establish necessary mechanisms to provide for a mandatory framework | Pre-organisation together with partners of to supply PRO | Mid-term |
| 9 | start mandatory PRO | Transition from voluntary to PRO | Create a well-prepared mandatory PRO aims of framework | proper, manda- Pre-organisation to the EPR | Long-term |

Table 11: Improving an optimising mechanism when the mandatory EPR system comes into force

| No. | Objective | Activities | Target | Actor | Time frame |
|-----|------------------------|--|--|---------------|---|
| 1 | Run mandatory PRO | - Collect fees - Run registration system - Run waste management by using fees - Run controls - Report regularly - Raise awareness | Fulfil requirements of legal framework | Mandatory PRO | Long term is (after in EPR place) frame |
| 2 | Optimise mandatory PRO | Use modulated incentives to encourage recycling | Fulfil requirements of legal framework, recycling amounts | Mandatory PRO | Long term is (after in EPR place) frame |
| 3 | Optimise mandatory PRO | Raise the demand for recycling incentives (financial and/or amount) | Fulfil requirements of giving legal framework, recycling amounts | Mandatory PRO | Long term is (after in EPR place) frame |
| 4 | Optimise mandatory PRO | Harmonise and formalise schemes and collection for | Fulfil requirements of legal framework, collection amounts | Mandatory PRO | Long term is (after in EPR place) frame |
| 5 | Optimise mandatory PRO | Optimise internal control mechanism. Formalise packaging waste operators | Close financial and organisational gaps and | Mandatory PRO | Long term is (after in EPR place) frame |



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8. Annexes

8.1 Annex 1: Background to Plastics

The term 'plastics' describes a huge group of polymers. The main distinction is between thermoplastics comprising all plastics which will melt when heated and harden when cooled in a certain manner. Polymers of this group are for instance, polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), and polyethylene terephthalate (PET). On the other hand, there are the thermoset plastics which entails all plastics that will change their chemical structures when heated, and thus form a three-dimensional network. This change is irreversible meaning that these plastics cannot be melted again. Examples for thermoset polymers are polyurethane, silicone and epoxy resins.

Through a process called polymerisation the monomers are chained together to form polymers. These are usually very heavy molecules as they are composed of thousands of repeating units. Through a combination of different chemical binding of different elements and compounds to form a specific plastic, additives, and the use of crystallizability yield plastic fractions with different properties. These can be melted to form many different plastic products allowing for this vast range of applications [American Chemical Council, n.y.].

The production of plastics is mainly concentrated in Asia, which accounted for 50.1% of global production in 2017. The Middle East and Africa only accounted for 7.1% (PlasticsEurope, 2018). This is also reflected in Kenya's import of plastics material in 2017, which was strongly dominated by China (Ipsos, 2019).

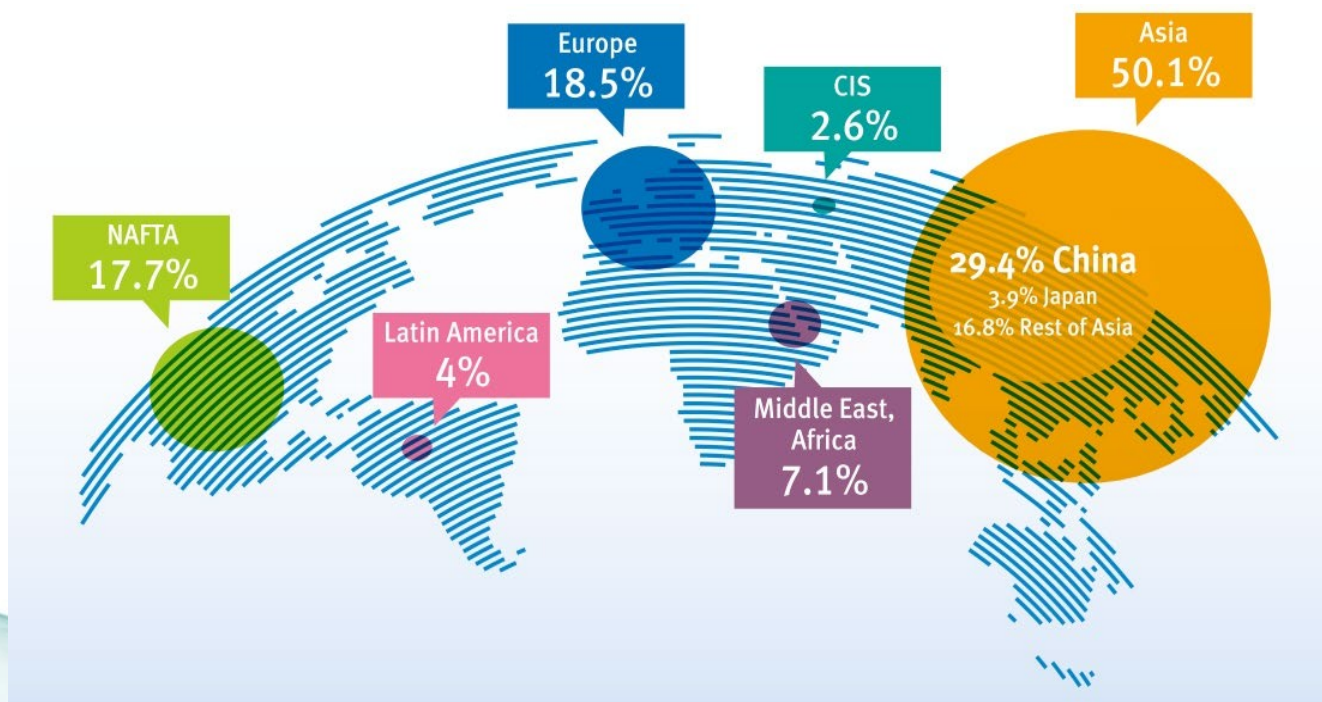


Figure 28: Distribution of the global plastics production, 2017 [PlasticsEurope, 2018]

8. Annexes

However, plastics are not necessarily consumed where they are produced. W manufacturing globally, the consumption ranges between 0 to 0.2 kg p consumption takes place in Germany (0.48 kg per capita per day), Guyana (0 Kuwait(0.69 kg per capita per day).

On a global scale, the produced plastics quantities and the generated w in the research of Geyer at l. [2017]. A visualisation of this ta

Table 12: Quantities of produced primary plastics and generated waste acc. to sector, 2015 [Ge 2017]

| | Produced quantities in 2015 [Mt] | Waste quantities in 2015 [Mt] |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Packaging | 146 | 141 |
| Building and construction | 65 | 13 |
| Other sectors | 62 | 43 |
| Textiles | 47 | 38 |
| Consumer & industrial products | 42 | 37 |
| Transportation | 27 | 17 |
| Electrical/electronic | 18 | 13 |

8.2 Annex 2: The polymer types

Each industrial sector uses several polymer types. In the following, the most presented following the international seven plastic codes.

PET is a thermoplastic polymer, which originates from the group of polyesters. of ethylene glycol with terephthalic acid or dimethyl terephthalate and a substance. Through a moulding process, the eventual PET product is then created, which stands out through properties such as great tensile strength and chemical weight, elasticity, and stability over a wide range of temperatures (-60° to 150°). PET was introduced on the markets as early as in the 1950s. The production of PET started to increase dramatically in the 1970s as it's packaging had been discovered. Today, PET is used as packaging material for drinking water bottles), electronic components and as fibres in clothes [PlasticsEurope, 2017]. The internationally assigned number is 1.

HDPE (high density polyethylene) is a polymer made from PE, which is derived from ethylene (and hydrogen) when heated. Through a subsequent low pressure process, a polymer is formed. Moreover, polyethylene is also the basis for LDPE as ethylene glycol [Posch, 2011]. Due to its lower degree of branching, HDPE produces a stiffer and more chemical resistance in comparison to LDPE. Thus, HDPE is an ideal material for rigid packaging such as bottles for milk and household chemicals. Other common applications include pellets, crates and intermediate bulk containers as well as numerous other applications [Emblem, 2012; Sastri, 2010]. The internationally assigned number is 2.

PVC was one of the earliest plastics discovered and until now is still widely used globally. It is created from vinyl gas, which is derived from salt (57% chlorine and 43% hydrogen). PVC is polymerised through free radicals in suspension, bulk, emulsion or solution. It exists in two forms of PVC: rigid and flexible. PVC is generally very durable, lightweight, and has insulating properties and a low permeability. Through the combination with additives, it can be found in all kinds of sectors. For instance, it is commonly used for floor and wall covering, and linings for tunnels), coatings (such as rainwear and automotive applications, as well as medical products (including blood bags, surgical tubes) [PlasticsEurope, n.y.]. The internationally assigned number is 3.

LDPE (low density polyethylene) is a polymer derived from PE as a result of a low pressure process like HDPE resulting in a product with a higher clarity than HDPE. LDPE as a material is more flexible and has a higher clarity than HDPE. It softens around 100 °C, which makes it unsuitable for cooking. It is attractive to process. Thus, LDPE is widely used for packaging applications such as food and non-food purposes and as a protective film on other materials [Bayer et al., 2017; Sastri, 2010]. The internationally assigned number is 4.

PP is the polymer, which is generated through the catalytic polymerisation of chained polymers of propene. There are two processing methods:

- i) low pressure precipitation polymerisation, and
- ii) gas phase polymerisation, which is the more common one.

As a subsequent step, the powder is processed into granulate. PP is This is due to its ability to replace both conventional materials, like polymers at lower costs. PP has an excellent strength, low surface energy is relatively easy to process. It resembles HDPE in many regards. HDPE exhibits a higher stiffness and resistance to creep as well as high tensile strength a wide range of applications. It is used in films and multilayer applications packaging, labels, stickers, personal hygiene and construction films. Moreover, it represents the single largest use. These fibres are used for instance in carpeting [Massey, 2007; Sastri, 2010]. The internationally assigned number is 5.

PS consists of a monomer styrene, which is a liquid petrochemical. PS is available in two forms: rigid PS and foamed PS. It has an excellent strength but poor barrier properties in regards to moisture vapour and gases, which is why it is called 'breathable' films. Typical applications of PS are packaging, take-away food containers, consumer electronics products, building and construction and medical applications. The internationally assigned number is 6.

Number 7 is given for the group 'others' and comprises all other polymers as for instance nylon, polycarbonates or mixed plastic, which is a mixture of different polymers. Differentiating according to these seven polymer groups, the global primary per polymer in 2015 is as follows (Table 13):

Table 13: Quantities of produced plastics and generated waste acc. to polymer, 2015 [Geyer et al.]

| | Produced quantities in 2015 [Mt] | Waste quantities in 2015 [Mt] | Percentage of waste quantities in regards to production |
|--------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|---|
| PET | 33 | 32 | 97 % |
| HDPE | 52 | 40 | 77 % |
| PVC | 38 | 15 | 39 % |
| LDPE | 64 | 57 | 89 % |
| PP | 68 | 55 | 81 % |
| PS | 25 | 17 | 68 % |
| Others | 127 | 86 | 68 % |

The table above shows that the plastics fraction which are mainly used for packaging have a significantly shorter in-use phase than those which are also used for applications in construction, as for instance seen in PET and LDPE in comparison to PP.

8.3 Annex 3: Recycling the different polymer types

Recycling plastic polymers is highly dependent on the purity of the waste polymer of contaminants from other waste materials as well as other polymer types as compatible to create recyclates. Another important factor for recycling is the and thermoset as **only thermoplastics can be mechanically recycled** due to their ability chapter 2.2, [Hopewell et al., 2009]. The typical steps in mechanical recycling labels), grinding, washing and re-extrusion, in which the material is melted fibres. Moreover, there are often filtration steps in the recycling process to contaminating polymers [Plastic Recyclers Europe, n.y.].

PET is a polymer, which can be well mechanically recycled: the simplest is the re-extrusion in which the PET waste recycled into fibres or granules for fibres in the nonwoven and textiles industry as well as PET bottles. In fact, PET is the only polymer yielding recyclates which can be reused for require specific processes to yield very high-quality recyclates. Feedstock recycling albeit being significant more expensive due to the energy-intensive process of methanolysis or glycolysis [Park & Kim, 2014].

Just as PET, **HDPE, LDPE**, and **PP** are polymers which can be well mechanically recycled to manufacture several typical HDPE applications, such as pipes, films and sheets, applications such as bottles (although not for food-grade packaging) [Garrian et al. is used to produce piping, trash bags, sheeting and films for building and lumber, and other products [Plastic Recyclers Europe, n.y.] while PP recycling for instance battery cables, rakes and bins, bottle caps or auto case batteries. be chemically recycled through a thermal pyrolysis at temperatures >700 recycling of PET, the process is consumes great amounts of energy [Ach

Also **PVC** is a polymer, which can be both mechanically and chemically recycled the building and construction industry, a great share of the PVC waste is hazardous waste, which is why the PVC waste is relatively pure and less contaminated with critical to recycle PVC separate from other polymers as the high chlorine hazardous additives added to the polymer to achieve the desired material recyclates of other polymers. In the mechanical recycling process, PVC is the other polymers. When different kinds of PVC waste are mechanically, it is product's leading to problems as most PVC products require a specific is more suitable for post-industrial waste than for post-consumer waste. For hydrolysis and heating are used to convert the waste into its chemical sodium chloride, calcium chloride, and hydrocarbon products are used to manufacturing processes or as fuel for energy recovery. The advantage is PVC waste. However, chemical recycling is associated to very high costs [Rub

PS - being a thermoplastic- is also recyclable: As many PS products are (EPS) foams, a critical step in the mechanical recycling is the compacting, densification foam contains a significant share of air. After this step, the EPS is filtered (depending on the previous step) and can be used for non-food packaging that at present, it is more economical to produce new EPS foam products currently not recycled in Kenya [Eunomia, 2018].

8. Annexes

As aforementioned, there is a great difference in regards to recycling group 'others' is an umbrella for all other polymers, as well as m regarding the recycling can be made which is applicable for all plastic in

8.4 Annex 4: Recyclate usage

The 'European Plastic Converters' analysed the usage of recyclates across sectors [2017]. Please note that the percentage numbers represent the number of p recyclates (Figure29) as well as the number of plastic converters using a

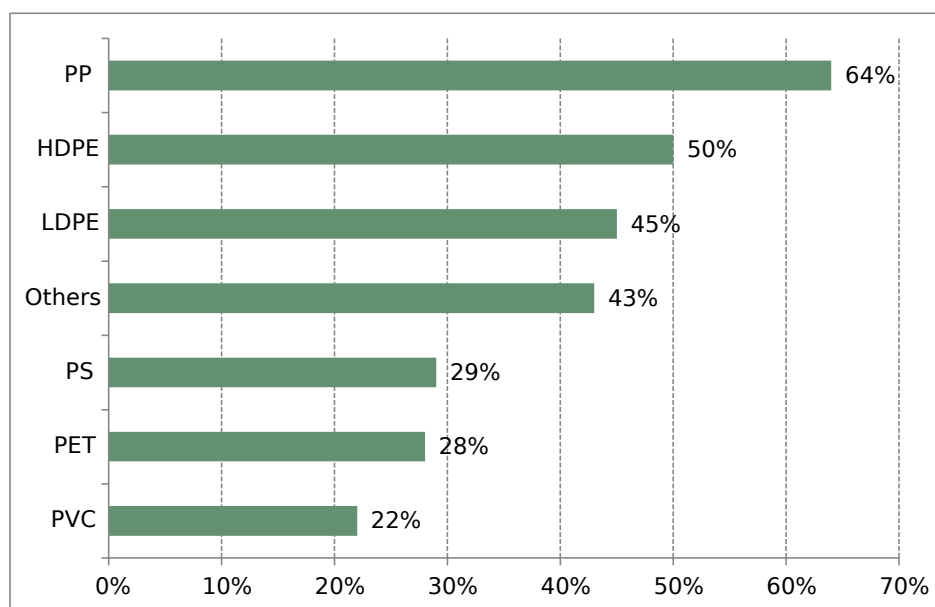


Figure 29: Recyclate use according to polymer fraction [based on EuCP, 2017]

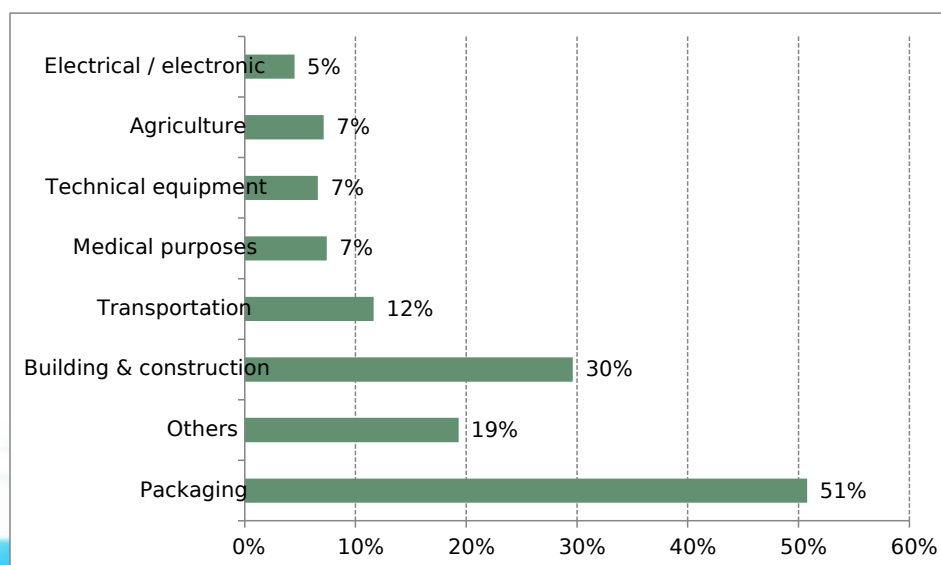


Figure 30: Recyclate use according sectors [based on EuCP, 2017]

Additionally to that, a German study carried out by Hartleber and the German Trade Association (HDE e.V.) in 2018 examines the usage of recyclates, in particular what and with the usage of different types of recyclates stemming from different types in Germany. The study [GVM, 2019] identifies obstructions in five dimensions: availability, ecology.

To identify the overall results of the recyclates, the study assembled a chart where there are no obstructions to the usage of recyclates and 10 meaning that the scores were summarised in five fields: 0-<2 equal no or very little obstructions, 2-<4 4-<7 equal moderate obstructions, 7-<9 mean large obstructions, 9-10 mean very large obstructions.

The results of the study show that packaging segments with the fewest obstructions such as boxes, palettes, plant pots, non-food cans and barrels, transportation packaging segments which provided the largest obstructions were those used in construction such as foam plastics used for food, compound foils, plastic bags, containers and largest obstructions are related to the availability of high-quality recyclates, the in terms of odour or missing transparency, and the insufficient physical and of recyclates currently available [GVM, 2019].

In Germany, approximately 3.2 million tons of plastic packaging are used, of or little obstructions for the usage of recyclates. The rest of the market obstructions (~45 %) and of large to very large obstructions (~45 %) [GVM, 2019].

The study states that plastic recyclates will always provide worse technical characteristics than virgin materials. Requirements such as durability are significant obstructions for plastic. If this is not feasible, only be resolved by mixing recyclates with primary materials. In with new materials will inevitably have a negative impact on the quality of

Political regulations or stakeholder commitments for the usage of recyclates would be intensified through such a procedure. At the same time, however, the rising demand would be intensified through such a procedure. Due to the rising demand the rather favourable material costs will immediately become more expensive. More quality standards, the quality of the material life cycle would diminish [GVM, 2019].

Sustainable improvements for the usage of recyclates would be the introduction of the quickening and de-bureaucratisation of the approval of recyclates being in increase of consumer acceptance of recyclates and the resulting consequences not need to be transparent [GVM, 2019].

As mentioned above, binding regulations and stakeholder commitments could enforce on the market of recyclates. Mandatory quality standards should ensure that recyclates are used so that they may be used on par with new material. Correct labelling of manufacturers and consumers to use recyclates for their packaging and materials. In that sense, it would be recommendable to establish the requirements for the introduction of such regulations. As compound materials are rarely recycled, be made of mono-material.

8.5 Annex 5: The circular economy concept in detail

The circular economy offers a more efficient resource use, which has economic benefits. Economic benefits are the result of the decreased resource demand, less import dependency as well as the creation of employment possibilities. Moreover, the extraction and disposal of waste also offers significant ecological benefits, since the extraction and disposal will be reduced if the cause is removed. Landfilling, as the threat for human health driven by environmental impacts of extraction, is avoided as the need to reintroduce resources into the economic system instead of disposal possibilities [Stahel, 2014; Wilts, 2016].

The circular economy is based on three overarching principles: reduce, reuse, and recycle [Wilts, 2016]. As the name implies, the reduction principle pursues the reduction of energy demand, which are needed for production as well as waste that is generated or consumption. This can be achieved by improving both the production and consumption by developing more efficient technology, downsizing the packaging material or by reuse & Yan, 2007; Su et al., 2013].

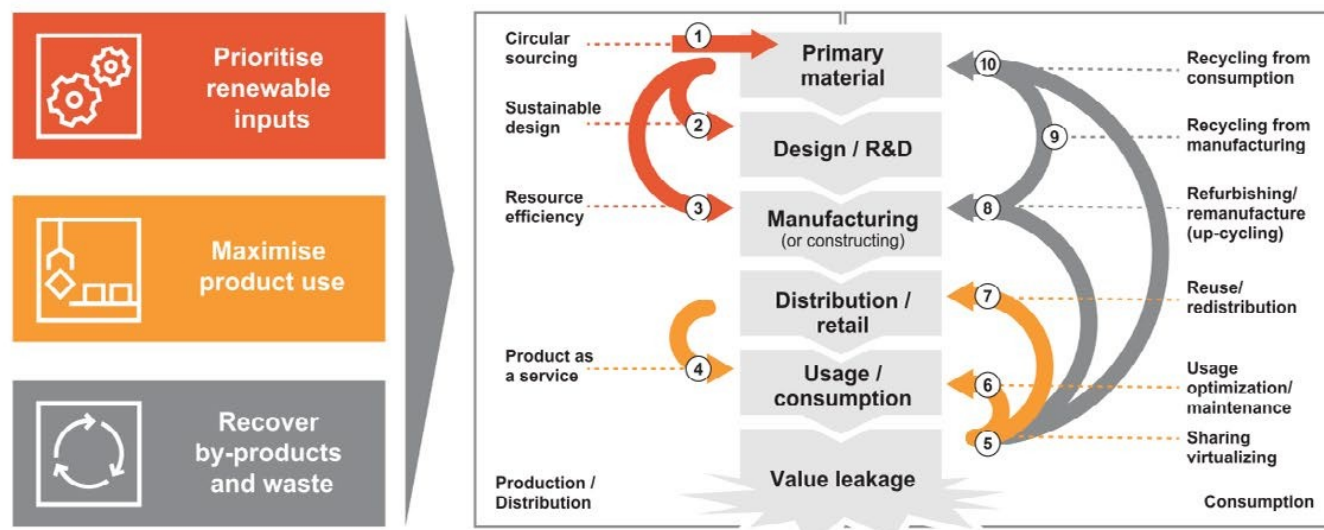
The reuse principle describes that products or components of products, that they have turned into waste - are prepared for reuse [Ghisellini et al., 2015]. The benefits as it decreases the resource and energy demand since the reuse principle [Ghisellini et al., 2015]. The last principle, the recycle principle, refers to any process of reprocessing the material or its chemical constituents thereby making it possible to reuse [Ghisellini et al., 2015; Hopewell et al., 2009].

Shifting to a circular economy as a response to the current challenges by reducing the overall amount of plastics used where possible, e.g. for packaging products, substitution with other materials or banning certain products where materials do not exist, and increasing the recycling and preparing for reuse of the materials and the amount of plastic waste that is disposed and to prevent littering.

A circular economy has important implications for all steps of the value chain. It is a broader field than just waste management measures and are operationalised in a complementing fashion (Figure 6). However, this is usually not the case. Measures across scales are often not well aligned. This, a good coordination and collaboration between the actors of the various sectors is vital. An important prerequisite for that is to align various measures is to involve actors outside the waste management and eventually broadening of the circle of actors from the industry are important to include as e.g. their product design influences the reuse or at least recycled [Silva et al., 2017; Wilts, 2016]. Moreover, a strong influence on circular economy measures is also important as they influence which can be reused or recycled, or not, as well as if and how waste management role if reusing or recycling is even possible [Wilts, 2016]. Thus, a circular economy including and cooperating with multiple actors from all sectors.

The following Figure 31 illustrates the three main principles and ten corresponding strategies towards circular economy

3 Principles & 10 Corresponding Strategies



- Circularity can be centred around three overarching principles, which define ten corresponding strategies.
- The diagram illustrates the continuous flow of resources in both the production/ distribution phase and the consumption phase.
- Circularity in the production/ distribution phase is anchored in four strategies (1-4) that aim to maximise the use of renewables and minimise value leakage across the value chain.

- Circularity in consumption has six strategies (5-10) that reduce value leakage by circulating products and materials at their highest utility through sharing, reuse, repair, remanufacturing, and recycling.
- The end-of life of a product represents value leakage as important by-products are not collected for productive use. Instead of leaking value by discarding products and materials after use, the circular economy stops this value leakage in order to yield more value.

Source: PwC analysis

Figure 31: Three principles and ten corresponding strategies towards circular economy [PWC, 201

8.6 Annex 6: Global trends

To push circular economy also on a global scale, there are several global initiatives as well as private sector initiatives to transit to a waste-free circular plastic economy in this chapter. In particular, emphasis is put on the G7 Oceans Action Plan (SDGs) as well as 'The New Plastics Economy' published by the Ellen MacArthur Foundation.

Government driven initiatives - G7 Ocean Plastic Charter

Marine littering poses a serious threat to the health of our oceans. Based on the urging need to address this global problem, the G7 countries adopted the G7 Ocean Plastic Charter on June 9, 2018 to demonstrate their commitment to solving the marine littering problem by taking concrete actions to eventually solve the issue (Figure 32). Canada, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the UK and the US thereby committed to a new global usage of plastics [Government of Canada, 2018].



Figure 32: G7 Ocean Plastic Charter

As envisioned, the Ocean Plastics Charter builds on existing initiatives such as local governments, businesses and civil rights movements to take action and move towards a more responsible, sustainable plastic economy. To put this into practice, the Charter outlines a series of actions and efficient approaches in the management of plastics:

- 1) **Sustainable design, production and after-use markets** to create 100 % reusable, plastics by 2030, reduce single-use plastics (SUP), creating secondary plastic products through green public procurement, policy measures and international incentives with the industry - reduce microbeads in cosmetics and personal care products
 - 2) **Collection, management and other systems and infrastructure** to significantly increase through collective actions with the industry and local governments, increase to reduce leakages, shift to a whole supply chain approach towards greater efficiency, increase public-private funding and capacity development for waste management in areas including small islands and remote communities
 - 3) **Sustainable lifestyles and education** to support industry lead initiatives and existing alliances and platforms, strengthening preventive measures for marine choices through labelling and promote sustainable consumption particularly among youth a leadership role in this regard
 - 4) **Research, innovation and new technologies** to promote research and development in technologies, design and production methods by the private sectors and innovation
- reducing the plastic leakages at all steps of the value chain,
 - removing plastics and micro plastics from the marine habitat, and
 - assessing the impact on human health, analyse the current plastic consumption by the G7 monitoring methods
- 5) **Coastal and shoreline action** to raise public awareness through campaigns, collect to remove debris from coasts and shorelines, accelerate the implementation and programmes as for instance the 2015 G7 Leaders' Action Plan to Regional Seas Programs [Government of Canada, 2018].

By now, 21 governments, including Kenya, and 63 business and organisations, like 2019] joined the G7 Ocean Plastics Charter.

Additionally in June 2019, the G20 member states declared during their meeting litter and committed to develop a comprehensive approach preventing and the marine habitat. Moreover, they announced to share their best practices with measures are on a voluntary basis [Zeit, 2019].

Government driven initiatives - Sustainable Development Goals

Described by the UN as a 'blueprint to achieve a better and more Development Goals (SDGs) are 17 interconnected goals to address global challenges standards by 2030 [UN, n.y.]. To work towards these identified goals, the conc identified as a centralelement in regards to SDG 7 on energy, cities, SDG 12 on sustainable consumption and production, SDG 13 on climate SDG 15 on life on land. In particular, this means for the respective SDG



Figure 33: The 17 SDGs of the UN



Circular Economy and SDG 7 (Affordable and Clean Energy):

The current production depend on non-renewable resources such as coal, global electricity demand rose by 4 %, which was met to a large extent from coal and gas-fired power plants increased significantly which in turn led to a significant increase in emissions from the sector by 2.5 % [IEA, 2018]. Transforming to a circular economy is a necessary step to reduce emissions and increase the efficiency of the energy sector.

shifting the focus on enhancing and increasing the efficiency of the energy sector, instead of a subsidiary one as well as satisfying the demand with as less waste of energy as possible.



Circular Economy and SDG 8 (Economic Growth):

As mentioned, the linear economic system, currently the dominant economic system, is built on the principle of growth. It grants only limited sustainability since the resource availability is limited and resources are lost after becoming waste. Within a circular economy, this is not the case. The principles of reduce, reuse, and recycle. The circular economy focuses on secondary materials and end-of-life applications, which will create jobs and add to the growth of the economy.

more specialised fields of study and development adding to the growth of the economy.



Circular Economy and SDG 11 (Sustainable Cities):

Industrialized growth has led to a rapid increase in urban population and density as well as the consumption. The development of cities around the world. According to the World Urbanization Prospects, the urbanized population increased from 14 % to 54 % between 1950 and 2018. It is projected to rise to 66 % by 2050, which will put tremendous pressure on the environment. The situation also calls for better ways on how to address the negative effects related to an improper waste management, thus, highlighting the need for a circular economy [WEF, 2018]. This approach will change cities by improving the living conditions (see previous SDG).

the negative effects related to an improper waste management, thus, highlighting the need for a circular economy [WEF, 2018]. This approach will change cities by improving the living conditions (see previous SDG).



Circular Economy and SDG 12 (sustainable consumption and production):

As resources are limited, the current economy will face an inevitable decline in the industrial sector and all related sectors. Circular economy focuses on using secondary materials as resource and less virgin materials by recycling and reusing. Moreover, a circular economy also focuses on managing the value chain, e.g. through design for recycling, longer periods and to avoid waste in production, supply, use, and disposal.

longer periods and to avoid waste in production, supply, use, and disposal. consumption and production [Ministerial Conference Page, 2019].



Circular Economy and SDG 13 (Climate Change):

Climate Change is a global challenge. In earth's temperature due to the greenhouse gas emissions. 62 % of greenhouse gas emissions — excluding those from land use and forestry — are from the industrial sector and manufacturing of goods to serve society's needs through its three principles of reduce, reuse, and recycle, solution to cut down the effects of climate change and emissions through decreasing the need to constantly extract and produce from the natural environment.

emissions through decreasing the need to constantly extract and produce from the natural environment.



of the recycled

Circular Economy and SDG 14 (Life below Water): The UN estimates that 40% of the world's marine life are significantly impacted by human activities, including pollution, overfishing, and habitat destruction. According to the UNESCO, over 220 million tons of plastic waste are generated annually, but inappropriate disposal of plastics is often not addressed as a global problem. Micro-plastics end up in seas and oceans threatening the marine ecosystems. Circular economy is a solution to this problem as leakage of waste from the value chain but also particularly leakages of waste would be dramatically reduced and not lost to the environment.



or other surrounding water sources, and also the ecosystem. This can cause a negative effects on the species that drink the water' [UNEP, n.y.]. Circular economy provides more resources and materials for as long as possible in use. This can be achieved by including increased product durability, reuse and recycling.

Circular Economy and SDG 15 (Life on Land): According to UN, around 1.6 billion people depend directly on forests for their livelihoods, 2.6 billion people depend indirectly on forests [UN, 2017] and until now, there are around 7.7 billion humans living in the world. Circular economy and waste disposal are endangering lives of species living on land and soil as for example plastic and micro-plastic in land and soil can release harmful chemicals into the surrounding soil, which can be absorbed by plants and animals. This can cause a negative effects on the species that drink the water' [UNEP, n.y.]. Circular economy provides more resources and materials for as long as possible in use. This can be achieved by including increased product durability, reuse and recycling.

Private driven initiatives - Ellen MacArthur Foundation (EMF)

In 2010, the EMF was launched as a charity with the mission to accelerate the transition to a circular economy on a global scale. One of their key topics is the so-called 'The New Plastics Economy' in which plastics never becomes waste but remains a resource. The EMF framework consists of six key points through which such a circular economy could be achieved:

- 1) Elimination of problematic or unnecessary plastic packaging through redesign, in which the business model is a priority.
- 2) Reuse models are applied where relevant, reducing the need for single-use plastics.
- 3) All plastic packaging is 100 % reusable, recyclable, or compostable.
- 4) All plastic packaging is reused, recycled, or composted in practice.
- 5) The use of plastic is fully decoupled from the consumption of finite resources.
- 6) All plastic packaging is free of hazardous chemicals, and the health, safety, and environment are respected [EMF, n.y.].

The first report 'The New Plastics Economy - Rethinking the future of plastics' was published in 2016. In light of the question of how to initiate the system effectiveness of the global plastics packaging value chain and material flow - The first report proposes a new mind-set by approaching plastics as an integral part of an effective circular economy principles. As key findings, the report highlights that:

- i) the predominant share of 95 % of plastics is only used once, which equals 1 billion annually, and
- ii) plastic packaging generates severe, negative environmental impacts. This is forecasted that in a business-as-usual scenario 'there may be more plastic than fish in the sea by 2050' (EMF, 2016, p. 29).

8. Annexes

As a conclusion, the report urges to create an effective after-use economy for the environment and decouple plastics from fossil fuels [EMF, 2016].

Following up in this report, 'The New Plastics Economy: Catalysing action' will action plan to transition towards 70 % reuse and recycling of plastic products and innovation for the remaining 30 %. Thereby, this report delivered a captured through five mutually reinforcing building blocks for;

- i) cross value chain cooperation ('Dialogue Mechanism'),
- ii) cross value chain developments for a design shift enhancing the recycling ('Global Plastic Protocol'),
- iii) two innovation challenges for the proposed fundamental redesign ('Innovation Challenges'),
- iv) assessing the socio-economic impact on the marine habitat ('Evidence Based'),
- v) broad stakeholder exchange to accelerate the system shift ('Stakeholder Engagement').

In 2018, the EMF launched the 'Global Commitment' in which more than 400 strong good companies, packaging producers and packaging designers which collectively account for the produced plastic packaging worldwide committed to change how plastics are used. The latest update in June 2019, the report highlights the commitment of consumers to increase the recycled content from 2 % (current global average) to 10 % and reuse scheme in 50 retailer and brands and the publicly reporting production and use, including major consumer packaged goods companies and retailers like Coca Cola Company, Unilever, Carrefour, Colgate Palmolive, Danone, L'Oréal, and others.

Other private sector driven initiatives

In January 2019, 27 companies from all sectors initiated The Alliance to End Plastic Waste, a global initiative to push actions on reducing plastic waste in the environment by combining their expertise, resources and outreach to create a global vision and a respective strategy. In particular, the Alliance aims to:

- i) the infrastructure development for waste collection and proper waste management to reduce plastic waste,
- ii) innovation for waste minimising technology, better plastics recycling and creating new products,
- iii) education and engagement of all stakeholders including governments from all countries, and
- iv) clean-ups of already polluted habitats. In July 2019, the number of clean-ups reached 1000. (Alliance to end Plastic Waste, 2019).



Moreover, there are also several private sector initiatives founded in several circular economy measures in their respective countries. Examples are for

- **PARMS:** The Philippine Alliance for Recycling and Material Sustainability; Philippines, Nestlé Philippines, Pepsi-Cola Products Philippines, Procter & Gamble Philippines [PARMS, n.y.].
- **PRAISE:** The packaging and Recycling Alliance for Indonesia Sustainable E Nestlé Indonesia, Coca-Cola Indonesia, Tetra Pak Indonesia, Unilever Indonesia, T SuksesMakmur [1PRAISE, n.y.].
- **GRIPE:** The Ghana Recycling Initiative by private Enterprises; members include Nestlé Ghana, Coca-Cola Ghana, Unilever Ghana, Voltic, Fan Milk Ghana, Cussons Ghana [GRIPE, n.y.].
- **TIMPSE:** Thailand Institute of Packaging and Recycling Management for a include Nestlé Thailand, Unilever Thailand, Coca-Cola Thailand, Pepsi-Cola T [TIMPSE, n.y.]

Nevertheless, it needs to be acknowledged that the successes of these initiatives who are working voluntarily on this issue, are competing with those companies an initiative in the respective country.

8.7 Annex 7: Questionnaire for online survey



Questionnaire for online survey

1. Plastic Value Chain

Please tick in which part of the value chain your company activity takes place. If you are active on several parts, please tick all of them and indicate clearly what information below relates to which activity.

- Importer of raw materials/ virgin or recycled plastics
- Manufacturing/ processing of plastics
- Plastic used for packaging of locally manufactured or imported goods
- Distributor/ Retailer of goods packed in plastics
- Consumer of goods packed in plastics
- Collection/ Segregation of plastics
- Recycling of secondary plastics
- Other, please specify

2. Briefly describe your company's activity, indicating precisely your plastic usage.

3. Which of the following plastic fractions are you using?

- LDPE
- HDPE
- PP
- PET
- PVC
- PS
- Others

Can you specify on the respective volumes you purchase e.g. per month or per year?

4. Are there challenges faced by industry at county and national level in the implementation of a sustainable waste management practices? Can you briefly describe, if applicable?

5. Has your company put in place a take back scheme for your packaging products? If so, please give a brief description. |

8.8 Annex 8: Circular Economy and The Big4 Agenda

Circular economy represents also a tool which can contribute to achieving expansion in the blue economy, agro-processing, leather and textile industries:

Circular economy and blue economy:

The Blue Economy encourages a better stewardship of the ocean's or 'blue' reduction of environmental risks for and ecological scarcities of the marine n.y.]. Based on a circular economy approach, recycling of plastic waste would economy as plastic litter is a serious threat for the marine habitat.

Circular economy and agro-processing industry:

Food-processing is a sector of the agro-processing industry that includes to transform raw ingredients into food for human consumption. The relationship between sector is complicated: More than 50 % of food waste takes place in households during processing. Plastic packaging contributes in preserving food by preventing damage and extending shelf life, which help reducing food waste. That makes it hard to industry. At the same time, improper disposal of plastic packaging is the environment [Dora & Iacovidou, 2019]. Thus, redesigning plastic packaging that it is (if possible), reusing packaging where possible and a comprehensive collection - or other environmentally sound treatment method if packaging waste cannot a circular economy, is important.

8.9 Annex 9: Alternatives to plastics

Kenya has currently no comprehensive waste collection and treatment infrastructure for plastics in particular. In light of the prevailing waste management conditions structure for glass, plastics and paper, no relevant reusable systems), the form of packaging should be reduced as much as possible in order to deposits with the associated ecological consequences. From a resource conservation development of an orderly and comprehensive recycling structure is the preferred dealing with plastics and plastic waste is developed in the Action Plan. This following alternatives to plastics.

The results for three different material comparisons are based on the insights situation (see chapter 0). The following comparisons have been made:

- i) water bottles (which also apply for cooking oil and yoghurt cups, see Table 2)
- ii) grocery carrier bags (see Table 22), and
- iii) construction pipes (see Table 26).

Plastics are utilised in many areas in which other materials are used to raw materials utilized in the further processing will be compared in regard their production as well as other environmental aspects, if available. The Global Warming Potential (GWP). The GWP is a substance's / material's potential greenhouse effect. This contribution is portrayed as an equivalent in relation For evaluation the figures GWP100 are utilised, which identify the contribution material averaged for a time span of one hundred years. The lower the is the potential impact on global warming and the relating environmental

Table 14: Global Warming Potential for different raw materials

| Category | | | | GWP ₁₀₀ [kg CO ₂ equi.] per kg | Database | | | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|---|--------------------------|-----|-----|---------|-----------|
| Plastics | | | | | | | | | |
| ABS | | | | 3.76 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| ABS | | | | 3.10 | [PlasticsEurope, 2019] | | | | |
| (Expanded) | Polystyrene | | (EPS) | 3.29 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| (Expanded) | Polystyrene | | (EPS) | 2.37 | [PlasticsEurope, 2019] | | | | |
| Polystyrene (PS) | | | | 2.25 | [PlasticsEurope, 2019] | | | | |
| HDPE | | | | 1.93 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| HDPE | | | | 1.80 | [PlasticsEurope, 2014] | | | | |
| Recycled | HDPE | | | 0.93 | [Liebich, 2016] | | | | |
| LDPE | | | | 2.08 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| LDPE | | | | 1.87 | [PlasticsEurope-A, 2014] | | | | |
| Recycled | LDPE | | | 1.41 | [Liebich, 2016] | | | | |
| Polypropylene | | | | 1.63 | [PlasticsEurope, 2019] | | | | |
| PP, | Injection | Moulding | | 4.49 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| PP, | Orientated | Film | | 3.43 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| PP | | | | 1.63 | [PlasticsEurope-B, 2014] | | | | |
| Recycled | PP | | | 0.95 | [Liebich, 2016] | | | | |
| Polycarbonate | | | | 7.62 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| PVC | | | | 3.10 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| PET | | | | 5.56 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Glass | | | | | | | | | |
| PrimaryGlass | | | | 0.91 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Secondary | Glass | | | 0.59 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Aluminium | | | | | | | | | |
| Aluminium | Cast | products | (primary) | 13.10 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Aluminium | Cast | products | (secondary) | 1.45 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Aluminium | Cast | products | (typical) | 9.22 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Aluminium | Extruded | (primary) | | 12.50 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Aluminium | Extruded | (secondary) | | 2.12 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Aluminium | Extruded | (typical) | | 9.08 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Aluminium | Rolled | (primary) | | 12.80 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Aluminium | Rolled | (secondary) | | 1.79 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Aluminium | Rolled | (typical) | | 9.18 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Steel | | | | | | | | | |
| Steel Bar & rod - virgin) | Primary(100% hypothetical) | | | 2.71 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Steel Bar & rod - Secondary | | | | 0.45 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Steel General 39% Recy. | Steel - World Typical - 195d | | | 1.95 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Steel Coil - virgin) | - | Galvanised | (100% hypothetical | 3.01 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Steel Coil - Recy. | - | Galvanised | (typical 35.5 % Redy. | 2.42 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Paper | | | | | | | | | |
| Paper (primary) | | | | 0.96 | [Raschke, 2016] | | | | |
| Paper (primary) | | | | 1.28 | [Ifeu, 2018] | | | | |
| Recycled | Paper | | | 0.68 | [Raschke, 2016] | | | | |
| Recycled | Paper | | | 1.14 | [Ifeu, 2018] | | | | |
| Concrete | | | | | | | | | |
| General | Concrete | | | 0.11 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | Footprint |
| Concrete | - | depending on composition | | 0.10 | Bath | Uni | via | [Carbon | |
| Concrete | (Precast | Mix | 1) | 0.214 | [Marceau et al., 2007] | | | | |
| Reinforced | Concrete | | | 0.204 | [Struble, Godfrey, 2004] | | | | |

Information: These figures serve the purpose of orientation and classification of each result from surveys which do not explicitly consider the Kenyan frame conditions to the basic processing technique, utilised electricity mix. However, these base data portray the contribution to the greenhouse effect, such as aluminium which has compared to plastics or paper.

Table 14 clarifies, that the GWP of;

- Glass ranges within the scope of approximately 1 kg CO₂-equiv. per kg,
- Paper ranges between approximately 1 to 1.3 kg CO₂-equiv. per kg,
- Plastics range from approximately 1.7 to 3.4 kg CO₂-equiv. per kg (depending on type of plastic),
- Steel ranges from approximately 2 kg CO₂-equiv. per kg (for primary material), approximately 2.7 kg CO₂-equiv. per kg (for primary material),
- Aluminium ranges of the scope of about 9 (depending on the portion of recycled material) equiv. per kg (for primary material).

It also becomes evident that the usage of recycled or secondary materials regards to each particular type of material. Furthermore, through a comparison (e.g. pipes) one many take into consideration that the GWP is largely related to the usage of materials (e.g. plastics vs. glass), as well as the user behaviour aligned waste management or recycling opportunities.

Bottles (for water): PET-bottles substituted by glass, aluminium can or liquid packaging board

Beverages like water are generally sold in different types of packaging, among them aluminium cans and drink cartons. Especially usage, as well as the transport and disposal, are part of an environmental performance evaluation.

The manufacture of glass bottles and aluminium cans is energy-intensive, which means a performance evaluation only results positively, if these products are used multiple times (e.g. in a circular system) and are not transported over long distances. This should be considered when making an environmental performance evaluation on item level.

Information: Due to the greatly differing frame conditions, in which the following it is important to illustrate the functional mechanisms which occur in the disposal, as they do not exist in Kenya in such an adequate form. Thus, the insights which may apply to Kenya in a similar manner, so that resulting differences can be distinguished.

This kind of comparison was intensely examined in Germany conducting the 'Getränkeverpackungen II / Phase 2' [Schonert et al., 2002]. Detzel et al., 2002 results. During this examination different scenarios were created, according to the performance evaluations. These also include analysis in relation to transportation and disposal. Specifically, PET bottles (single use incl. recycling) and glass bottles (single-use and multi-use) with a filling volume of 1 l were compared. The following Table 15 shows the results qualitatively next to each other, acc. to which reusable water bottles are compared to one-way PET bottles and one-way glass bottles.

Table 15: Ranking of different water bottles related to selected environmental criteria [Schonert et al., 2002]

| Criteria | Glass multiple use | Glass single-use | PET single-use |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Aquatic eutrophication | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| Terrestrial eutrophication | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| Depletion of resources | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| GWP kg ₂ CO per 1 l | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| Acidification | 1 | 3 | 2 |

A further examination compared PET single-use systems to PET multiple use systems as shown above. The environmental impacts of single-use systems slightly exceed the impacts of multiple use systems.

Glass multiple use bottles provide a better environmental performance compared to PET single-use bottles for a filling volume of 0.5 l (see Table 16) meant for immediate consumption.

Table 16: Ranking of different beverage packaging for immediate consumption related to selected environmental criteria [Schonert et al., 2002]

| Criteria | Glass multiple use | Aluminium can single-use | Steel can |
|--------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------|
| Aquatic eutrophication | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Terrestrial eutrophication | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| Depletion of resources | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| GWP kg ₂ CO per 1 l | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Acidification | 1 | 2 | 3 |

Similar examinations have been done in Austria with the research 'Ökobilanz von Gasepackungen' [Kauertz et al., 2011]. A comparison is possible for different arrangements without the influences of the following chain mechanisms (such as distribution, storage, etc.). Thus, the GWP of the production of a 1 l glass bottle (without caps) is approximately 22 kg CO₂-equiv per 1 l and the GWP of a 1 l PET bottle is approximately 39 kg CO₂-equiv per 1 l.

Acidification and fossil resources depletion resulting of the glass bottle production. If the distribution afterwards is taken into account, the following Table 17 identifies which categories have negative effects.

Table 17: Phase depending negative effects for different beverage packaging relating to selected environmental criteria [Kauertz et al., 2011]

| Criteria | Glass multiple use | PET single-use |
|----------------------------|--|--|
| Global Warming (GWP) | Potential Distribution Filling Hollow-glass production | PET production Distribution Disposal |
| Fossil resources depletion | Distribution Production of labels and caps Filling | PET production Distribution Production of packaging for sale and transport |
| Acidification | Distribution | PET production Distribution |

On closer examination, these two sectors of the functional mechanisms responsible for the system load. The biggest influential factor for the results of the PET single-use packaging is

These studies are widely confirmed by the study 'StudieLife Cycle Assessment of PET bottles and other packaging alternatives' [Schmidt et al., 2000]. During the comparison of potentials, in which credits from the following chain mechanisms for the recycling of that single-use PET bottles 1 l with 123 to 160 kg CO₂-equiv per 1,000 than returnable light glass bottles (70.1 kg CO₂-equiv), or returnable PET bottles (59.1 kg CO₂-equiv) credits for the secondary materials are taken into account as a 'net calculation' examined materials, especially for PET bottles, which continue to provide (98.2 to 120 kg CO₂-equiv per 1,000 l).

The goal of this examination 'The Global Warming Potential analysis of beverage production, transport, packaging production and final disposal). The Paqualino et al., [n.y.] was to evaluate the contribution of packaging to cycle (beverage production, transport, packaging production and final disposal). The are landfilling, incineration and recycling, and the packaging types are aseptic can and PET, and their sizes are from 200 ml to 8 l. Recycling was disposal option for all the packaging alternatives compared, and landfilling was option. The packaging options with the lowest environmental impacts were aseptic (for sizes greater than 1 l). The influence of beverage production on of beverage. Global Warming Potential has been considered as the environmental impact of Caps and lids). The following arrangements were examined, which parallel a filling

- Liquid packaging board (aseptic carton), size 0.2 l (50 g/l) till 1.5 l
- Aluminium can, size 0.33 l (67.9 g/l) till 0.5 l (34.7 g/l)
- Glass brown, size 0.33 l (722.7 g/l) till 1.0 l (468.8 g/l)
- Glass white, size 0.33 l (722.7 g/l) till 1.0 l (492.2 g/l)
- HDPE, size 0.2 l (91.1 g/l) till 1.5 l (32.7 g/l)
- PET, size 0.33 l (42.4 g/l) over 1.5 l (19.3 g/l) till 8.0 l (17.5 g/l)

8. Annexes

Also according to other studies (i.a. [Schmidt et al. 2000], the specific to the following list (Table 18).

Table 18: Masses of different packaging types

| Packaging type | Mass per 1 l |
|------------------|---|
| PET (one way) | Approx. 33 to 46 g |
| Beverage carton | Approx. 35 g (highly depending on size) |
| Aluminium can | Approx. 35 to 68 g (depending on) |
| PET (returnable) | Approx. 71 g |
| Glass (light) | Approx. 470 to 490 g |
| Glass (heavy) | > 700 g |

Contrary to the mentioned studies, this analysis focuses on the (landfill, incineration and recycling):

- Landfill: includes the dump infrastructure, the use of land, the effect to the soil, air and groundwater released by waste disposed of in
- Incineration: covers the incineration plant infrastructure, the incineration process, and the disposal of residual ashes (to landfill). Electrical energy recovery environmental load.
- Recycling: takes into account the recycling plant infrastructure, the sorting products obtained and the wastes generated. The products obtained from to displace virgin raw materials and are thus an avoided load.

The first result is that larger packages always have a lower environmental impact. In Table 19, beverage cartons and plastic packaging (for sizes greater than three disposal methods. Except for glass, the GWP figures of an existing recycling. However, the GWP of disposal of aluminium in a landfill was significant.

Table 19: GWP of different packaging types relating to different disposal scenarios [Paqualino et al.]

| Type | beverage | Landfill | Incineration | Recycling |
|-------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Beverage carton (1.5 l) | Juice 200 ml | 0.057 to 0.105 | 0.091 to 0.169 | 0.010 to 0.074 |
| Glass white (1 l) | Juice (water) | 0.557 to 0.729 | 0.077 to 0.272 | 0.975 to 0.513 |
| PET (8 l) | Water | 0.079 to 0.221 | 0.130 to 0.413 | 0.310 to 0.101 |
| Aluminium can (500 ml) | Beer, also applicable for water | 0.439 to 0.630 | 0.855 to 0.545 | 0.895 to 0.077 |

For India, a comparable LCA for glass and PET bottles was conducted [Stichling, chosen reference scenarios for glass bottles (focus on 100 %), following functional compared (Table 20).

Table 20: Comparison of PET-bottles with glass-bottles according to [Stichling, Singh]

| Criteria | PET-bottle compared with glass-bottle (same functional unit) |
|--|--|
| Acidification Potential [kg SO ₂ -equiv.] | Lower (60 %) |
| Eutrophication Potential [kg PO ₄ -equiv.] | Lower (69 %) |
| GWP100 [kg CO ₂ -equiv.] | Lower (57 %) |
| Human Toxicity [kg DCP-equiv.] | Higher (123 %) |
| Photochem. Ozone Creation Potential [kg Ethene-equiv.] | Higher (136 %) |
| Terrestrial Ecotoxicity Potential [kg DCB-equiv.] | Higher (246 %) |
| Primary energy demand from ren. And non ren resources [MJ] | Lower (34 %) |

The study 'Comparative Life Cycle Assessment of Tetra Pak® carton packages and alternatives for liquid food on the Nordic market' commissioned by Tetra Pak International SA compared with competitive liquid food packaging made of PET and HDPE for the Norwegian market. A considerable role for these generally low environmental impacts of the renewability of their paperboard components and a high use of renewable materials and energies in the production processes. Especially the use of renewable materials and energies in the production processes. Especially the use of renewable materials and energies in the production processes. Especially the use of renewable materials and energies in the production processes.

In general the examined beverage carton systems analysed for these markets impact categories than their competing systems. These impact categories are

- Climate change,
- Acidification,
- Photo-Oxidant Formation,
- Ozone Depletion Potential,
- Terrestrial Eutrophication,
- Aquatic Eutrophication,
- Particulate Matter,
- Total Primary Energy,
- Non-renewable Primary Energy,
- Use of Nature,
- Water use (related to water input).

An exception to this occurs in some categories if the carton contains a bio-based polyethylene, though does not deliver such an unambiguous result. The use of bio-based PE instead of fossil-based material leads to lower results in 'Climate Change' and 'Non-renewable Primary Energy'. The production of this bio-polyethylene, including its agricultural background system, impacts in all the other impact categories regarded.

A comparison of the different material solutions is shown in Table 21.

Table 21: Comparison of different materials for bottles for water

| | Comparison: Bottles for water | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|--|--|---|
| GWP | + Relatively low GWP, returnable, than glass bottles | 0 Right glass bottles have smaller GWP than reusable PET, but | - Highest GWP, compared to PET, glass | 0 Relatively low GWP, compared to glass bottles, depending on whether reusable |
| Water footprint | + smallest as PET resources | - A print of the glass, more manufacture of | - Water is not needed for the manufacture of PET | - - Water is needed for the manufacture of cardboard, which is then coated to liquids |
| Use of renewable resources | - The resource is based; a bio-based plastic, such as corn starch, may compete over land and demand | + In PET, large portions of the resource are made from renewable resources, such as sugarcane, which result in higher water | + One glass bottle can be used for many years, however, found in minerals; finite source | 0 Most large portions of cardboard and paper fibres, which are manufactured from trees, is a |
| Use of secondary material | 0 Although recyclable, often times turned into but the processed purpose | + PET bottles are not being recycled; it is a different | 0 The waste of such materials during the recycling process may be different (down cycling) | 0 It is difficult to recycle different types of packaging, they are no longer used for their original purpose |
| Health aspects | 0 May be used but needs to be fore infest | + Easier to clean, no health hazards can | 0 The cap, should be cleaned, avoid germs leaching into the water | + Manufactured and filled at high temperature, no infestation |
| Safety aspects: handling, usage | + Do not break easily, weight | - By design, also straight from the factory, may cause harm is damaged; heavy weight may be difficult for disabled elderly people to | + Does not break easily, weight, top of storage space | + Does not break easily, lighter weight, compared to glass |

| | | | | |
|------------------------|--|--|---|---|
| Economics (world-wide) | 0 Production requires amount of resources, made from fossil resources, longer, requires more resources, also transportation is more intensive in comparison with PET, aluminium packaging boards, this also counts for collection | -- Production process is longer, requires more resources, also transportation is more intensive in comparison with PET, aluminium packaging boards, this also counts for collection | - Production process is longer, requires more resources, also transportation is more intensive in comparison with PET, aluminium packaging boards, this also counts for collection | - Production process is longer, requires more resources, also transportation is more intensive in comparison with PET, aluminium packaging boards, this also counts for collection |
| Economics (price) | + Usually cheaper than aluminium cans, especially when filling volume, biggest filling volume | - Most expensive, but across many countries PET has | 0 Less expensive than glass, more expensive than PET, considering filling volume | 0 More expensive than PET and glass |
| Consumer aspects | 0 Light weight, thus transport and more difficult to | + Heavy weight, thus more difficult to carry, may look aesthetically pleasing, easier to | 0 Single use, transport, not refilling, small volume, alternative filling as need much space | + Can be disposed in small plastic waste; single-use, heavier weight than PET, but lighter than glass |
| Waste management | 0 Returnable system not available where yet, management needs to be established | 0 Returnable glass bottle system not available yet; adequate waste management needs to be established | 0 Returnable aluminium can system not available everywhere, adequate waste management infrastructure needs to be established | -- Tetra pack technology is recyclable, but only in specific areas where waste management infrastructure is available, therefore waste-paper should be avoided as paper mills cannot process liquid packaging boards; adequate waste management infrastructure needs to be established |

The same principles apply to the comparison for cooking oil (HDPE vs. metal) vs. liquid packaging board and glass).

Carrier bags: LDPE vs. paper, cotton and non-woven PP

As mentioned (see chapter 3), the Kenyan government passed a ban prohibiting importation of all plastic bags for commercial and household packaging, which includes flat bags, to reduce the amount of littered plastic bags as well as the plastics in the environment. However, many concerns have been voiced after that provide are indeed better from an environmental perspective.

The Danish Ministry of Environment and Food published the 'Life Cycle Assessment 2018 [Bisinella, 2018] researching the life cycles and environmental impacts of as well as how many times they needed to be reused to break even with LDPE plastics grocery shopping bag.

The study examined the following types of carrier bags available in stores in

- LDPE, four types: average, soft handle, rigid handle, recycled
- PP, two types: non-woven, woven
- Recycled PET
- Polyester (of virgin PET polymers)
- Starch-complexed biopolymer
- Paper, two types: unbleached, bleached
- Cotton, two types: organic, conventional
- Composite (jute, PP, cotton)

A Life Cycle Assessment (LCA) takes into account the potential environmental impacts which are necessary to produce, use and dispose of the product. The study examines that may occur during the disposal. To assess the carrier bags and their environmental impacts, the materials as shown above were compared to the characteristics of an average Danish supermarket.

End-of-Life scenarios for carrier bags

The study examines three main end-of-life (EOL) scenarios for the different types of carrier bags. The first scenario is incineration of the carrier bag. After serving its primary function (collection of waste for another destination) the bag is disposed of, collected and incinerated. This incineration allows for avoiding the production of electricity and heat from other resources.

The second EOL is recycling of the material. After disposal with secondary resources, the collected waste is sent to material recycling. The recycled material is used to produce the same amount of material from primary sources. The residues from recycling are sent to incineration, which results in the production of electricity and heat, which allows for avoiding electricity from other resources.

The third EOL is the reuse as waste bin bag. After serving its primary function, which is collecting residual waste, this practice allows for avoiding the production of a traditional waste bin bag. The electricity and heat produced during incineration of the same amount of electricity and heat from other resources.

Factors not included in the study

This Life Cycle Assessment does not consider behavioural changes or consequences for retailers and carrier products and services. Also economic consequences for retailers and carrier products and services. Moreover, this report does not include the effects of environmental littering, and decommissioning of capital goods such as infrastructure and machinery, nor do it consider new capacities or new capacities requirements.

Environmental indicators examined in this study

In determining the carrier bag with the smallest environmental impact, the different types in relation to recommended environmental indicators as These indicators were:

- Climate change
- Ozone depletion
- Human toxicity, cancer effects
- Human toxicity, non-cancer effects
- Photochemical ozone formation
- Ionizing radiation
- Particulate matter
- Terrestrial acidification
- Terrestrial eutrophication
- Freshwater eutrophication
- Marine eutrophication
- Ecosystem toxicity
- Resource depletion, fossil
- Resource depletion, abiotic
- Water resource depletion

In the study, the different types of carrier bags were examined in relation shown before. The indicator climate change was also viewed separately for the This indicator includes factors such as global air temperature change or conc

Results of Life Cycle Impact Assessment

In almost all categories, grocery bags made of LDPE provided the lowest environmental impact. Overall, light carrier bags such as LDPE, paper and biopolymer were the provided the lowest environmental impact. Heavier multiple-use carrier bags such obtain the highest environmental impacts across all impact categories. Therefore, many times a type of bag needs to be reused to lower the environmental to values comparable to lighter carrier bags. Thus, the study also calculated how many carrier bags would have to be reused to provide the same environmental performance

- All environmental indicators considered, a recycled LDPE bag would have to be used as a waste bin bag and then disposed of.
- Non-woven PP bags should be reused 52 times, before being recycled.
- Woven PP bags need to be reused 45 times, and then recycled, to break even with LDPE bags, before they are being recycled.
- Polyester PET needs to be reused 35 times and then recycled.
- Considering all indicators, bags made from biopolymers need to be reused 42 times, before they are either used as a waste bin bag or incinerated.
- Unbleached paper bags should be reused 43 times before they are either used as a waste bin bag or incinerated.
- Bleached paper also needs to be reused 43 times, until it is either used as a waste bin bag or incinerated.
- Organic cotton should be reused 20,000 times before it is either used as a waste bin bag or incinerated.
- Conventional cotton needs to be reused 7,100 times, before it is used as a waste bin bag or incinerated.
- Composite bags should be reused 870 times before they are used as waste bin bags or incinerated.

8. Annexes

The comparable study 'Life cycle assessment of supermarket carrier bags: a review of commissioned by the UK Environment Agency and published in 2006 [E] similar conclusions as the 2018 Danish report.

In the Life Cycle Assessment, grocery carrier bags available in UK supermarkets contrary to the 2018 study, the UK Environment Agency then used conventional bags. In the study, they were the average bags being handed out for free in grocery stores. The study was to determine a life cycle inventory of environmental impacts and disposal of lightweight carrier bags. Another goal was to compare the lightweight plastic carriers to those caused by alternatives. In this study, taken into consideration. These include the consequences of carrier bag taxation to and willingness of consumers to change their behaviour, any adverse recycling stream and potential economic impacts on the UK industry.

Environmental impact indicators as used in the research

To determine the environmental impact of the different types of carrier bags, nine environmental indicators:

- Global warming potential
- Abiotic depletion
- Acidification
- Eutrophication
- Human toxicity
- Fresh water and aquatic ecotoxicity
- Marine aquatic ecotoxicity
- Terrestrial ecotoxicity
- Photochemical oxidation

The indicators as shown above are largely comparable to the set of environmental indicators used in their 2018 life cycle assessment report.

Results of life cycle assessment

The study concluded that conventional HDPE bags provided the lowest environmental impact in eight out of nine environmental impact categories.

- LDPE bags need to be reused five times in order to reduce their environmental impact compared to a conventional HDPE bag.
- A paper bag would need to be reused four times to reduce its global warming potential compared to a conventional HDPE bag. However, many reuses are unlikely due to its low strength.
- Cotton bags provided a greater environmental impact than conventional HDPE bags in most categories. 173 reuses are required to reduce the environmental impact of a cotton bag with average secondary reuse impact.

Overall, when compared to a conventional HDPE bag which is disposed of use as, e.g. a waste bin liner, then a paper bag needs to be reused 3 times, a non-woven PP bag should be reused 11 times and a cotton bag needs their environmental impact to that of a conventional HDPE bag.

Both studies that were used as a reference concluded that grocery shopping provided overall lower environmental impacts than paper, cotton and non-woven PP important to consider that factors such as environmental littering were not life cycle assessments as both studies analysed the different materials for angle. A comparison of the different material solutions is shown in Table

Table 22: Comparison of different materials for carrier bags

| Comparison: Grocery carrier bags | | | | |
|----------------------------------|--|---|---|--|
| | LDPE | Paper | Cotton | Non-Woven PP |
| GWP | + Overall best climate change performance | - More impact than non-woven to trees being heavier weight | - LDPE impact than paper and non-woven, PP cut-down, longer production process of cotton fibres, heavier weight | 0 More impact than LDPE but better than paper and cotton |
| Water footprint | + Overall smallest footprint, conventional plastic is fossil-based | - Bigger water footprint than for LDPE, much needed in paper fibres | -- Bigger water footprint than LDPE and water is used for production of yarn and fertilizers | 0 More water is used than paper for LPDE bags, but less than cotton |
| Use of renewable resources | - Resource for plastic is a finite resource, possibly changed based on corn starch, competition over land and demand | 0 Made out of fossil-based resources, but cut fibres, results in deforestation; usage of fertilizers and water demand | 0 Made from renewable resources, but due to demand for fibres and plants; usage of fertilizers and freshwater eutrophication, large amount of water to grow | - Resource for plastic is a finite resource, possibly changed based on corn starch, competition over land and demand |
| Use of secondary material | + Highly eligible for secondary material, ready done in many cases | + Highly eligible for secondary material, ready done in many cases | - Normally no secondary material, many cases | + Highly eligible for secondary material, ready done in many cases |
| Health aspects | - LDPE has slightly more human toxicity | 0 More par with PP, provided human toxicity | -- Cotton provided the most least human toxicity, may become bacteria, mould | 0 On the par with paper, provided human toxicity, fungi and |
| Safety aspects: handling, usage | -- LDPE bags fly easily, littering, dangerous (wildlife), breeding for mosquitoes | 0 Paper bags potentially infected to more space | + Not sanitary, handling difficult, generally plastic is edible, meant for use, washable | + Generally multiple use, meant for washable |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|--|--|--|---|
| Economics (worldwide) | - 0 Bags used worldwide, banned in some places in favour of single-use plastic | 0 Generally available for common use in supermarkets, yet some retailers give free for | - Usually available for purchase, but production requires resources related to manufacture of fibres | 0 for places with bans on single-use plastic bags, they are commonly used, usually available for purchase |
| Economics (price) | ++ Price for cheapest, make profit they sell e.g. 20 ct | 0 More expensive than LDPE bag, cheaper for less durable | - Most expensive compared to non-woven paper bag | + Generally less expensive than LDPE, cotton bag, paper bags |
| Consumer aspects | - 0 Meant for multiple use, lightweight | - Multiple-use is flexible because has low especially recycling easier | 0 Meant for multiple use, durable, when often (attractive design) | 0 Meant for use, multiple use, sturdy, usually large capacity, some stores give one bag |
| Waste management | - Collection of PE, hard to recycle, danger of littering, recyclable | + Can be collected with other plastics, but other materials, pollution, | - Can be collected with waste textiles if proper recycling | N/A with existing recycling |

Construction Pipes: Plastics vs. (galvanised) steel and concrete

Construction pipes are used in areas such as sewerage and drainage or wastewater treatment. For the following examination it is assumed that the pipes, which are made of different materials, are equally suitable for the required utilisation, as they are subject to the same requirements.

The table identifies the GWP100 of the different types of pipes in Table 23. The values lie within a comparable range at a GWP value of 1.94 (steel) to 3.23 (PVC).

Table 23: Selected GWP100 for construction pipes

| Category | GWP ₁₀₀ [kg CO ₂ equi.] per kg | Database | |
|--|---|---|-------------|
| HDPE Pipe | 2.52 | Bath Uni via [Carbon Footprint] | Ltd, |
| PVC Pipe | 3.23 | Bath Uni via [Carbon Footprint] | Ltd, |
| Steel Pipe - World Typical | 1.94 | Bath Uni via [Carbon Footprint] | Ltd, |
| Steel Pipe - Galvanised (typical 35.5 % Recy.) | > 2.12 | Bath Uni via [Carbon Footprint steel coil plus contribution for pipe] | Ltd, constr |

Different surveys examined the environmental performance evaluation of a multitude of possible types of piping system, usually comparable applications as follow: The survey 'Polypropylene Materials for Sewerage & Drainage Pipe Footprints' Wassenaar [2016] compares the environmental impact in terms of GWP demand (NRED) of innovatively produced PP pipes (based on high modulus mineral modified propylene [MD]) with standard block copolymer [B] PP pipes. A study has been conducted according to the international ISO 14020 and 14021 standards. The compliance of the LCA with these standards has been verified by an external independent auditor.

The functional unit is 1 m of installed plain wall pipe with a DN of 250 mm for plastic pipes and the closest equivalent concrete pipe. The results from the functional unit is pivotal for further examination:

- PP-MD (DN 250 mm): 8.0 kg per m
- PP-HM (DN 250 mm): 5.9 kg per m
- PP-B ((DN 250 mm): 6.6 kg per m
- Concrete (DN 225 mm): 225.6 kg per m

It is evident that the specific weight of concrete compared to PP is many times higher (12 to 16 times). If the diameter is bigger, this proportion for plastic pipes and 750 mm for concrete pipes, the proportion ranges at 12 to 16.

In comparison, the following results appear: Concrete pipes have a higher GWP than the raw materials production according to the materials (nearly twice, see Figure 34). Generally, the raw materials production of PP, as well as the related GWP, results in a higher figure for concrete pipe

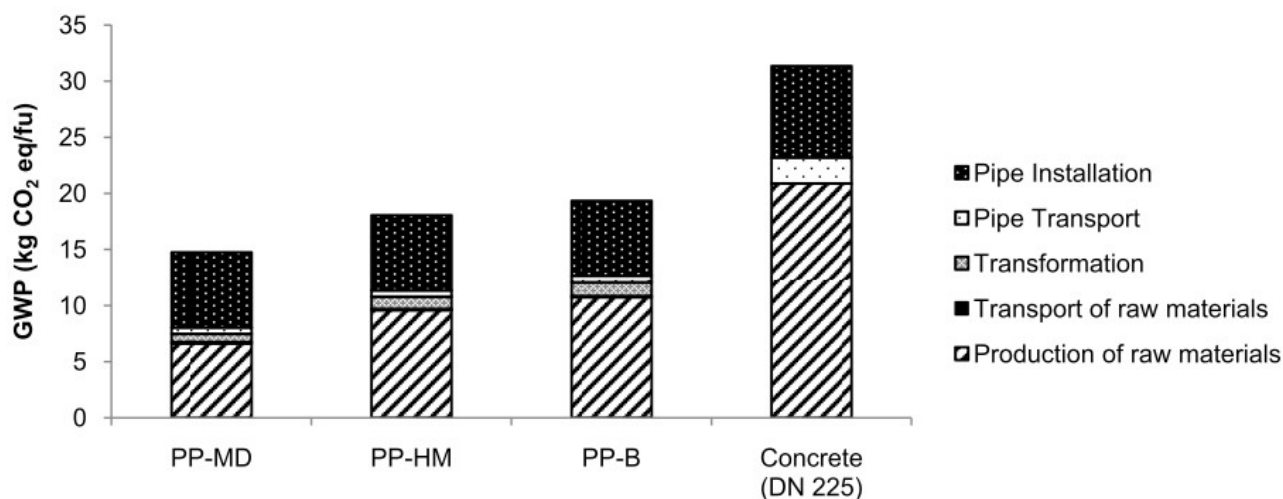


Figure 34: GWP for 1 m of installed plain wall sewerage and drainage pipe [Wassenaar, 2016]

Contrary to that, plastic pipes generally provide a higher NRED due to the contributor to NRED is associated with the internal energy component of the

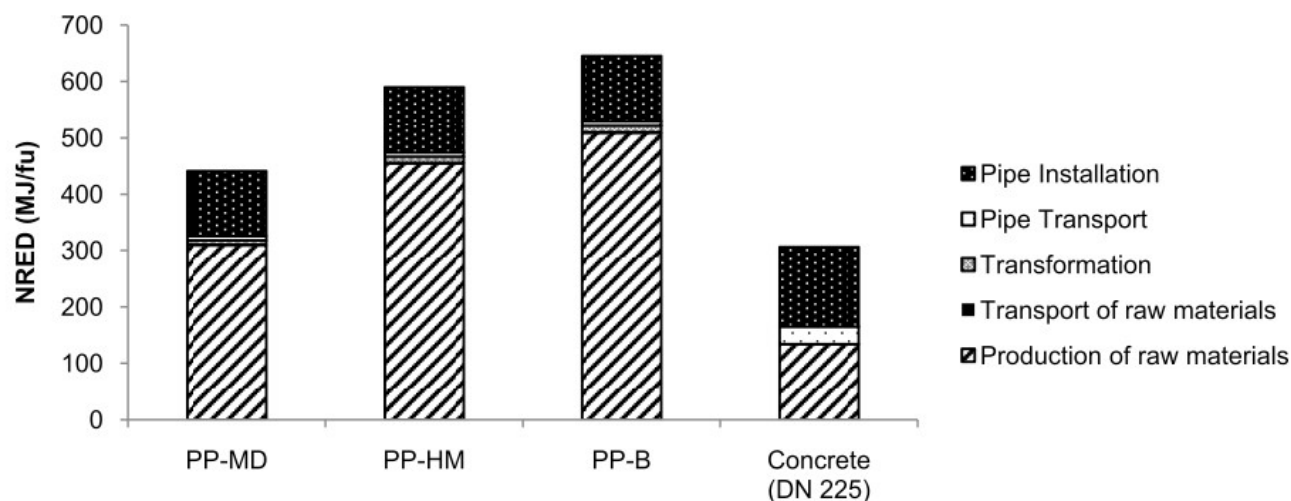


Figure 35: NRED for 1 m of installed plain wall sewerage and drainage pipe [Wassenaar, 2016]

8. Annexes

The survey 'Life Cycle Analysis for Water and Wastewater Pipe Materials' [Due to the damages of six commonly used pipe materials (PVC, ductile iron, cast iron, HDPE) The function unit is a 12-inch pipe (30.5 cm) per km. Table 24 identifies different phases. The installation phase for iron is highest due to the different phase is highest for concrete, due to its weight. Both of these phases because the highest GWP contributions result from the production.

Table 24: Phase-Dependent and Total GWP per km of 30.5 cm (12 in.) diameter pipes for different pipe materials
[Du et al., 2013]

| Pipe materials (12-in. pipe) | Total GWP ^{10³} kg CO ₂ /km) | Production phase (10 ³ kgCO ₂ /km) | Installation phase (10 ³ kgCO ₂ /km) | Transportation phase (10 ³ kg CO ₂ /km) |
|---------------------------------|--|---|---|--|
| PVC | 318 | 315 | 2.81 | 0.26 |
| Ductile iron | 472 | 468 | 3.28 | 0.88 |
| Concrete | 68.3 | 63.1 | 2.91 | 2.26 |
| HDPE | 218 | 215 | 2.81 | 0.17 |
| Reinforced concrete | 152 | 146 | 2.91 | 2.47 |
| Cast iron | 353 | 349 | 3.28 | 0.84 |

For the 12-inch diameter example, iron pipes contributed the greatest in pipe materials compared. Concrete pipe had the lowest GWP, despite the e production. This is contrary to survey of Wassenaar [2016], as mention data was used for the examination of concrete pipes (main reference Marceau [2013]) identifies that PVC yields the greatest GWP per unit pipe length at d seeming anomaly arises from the material-dependent schedule of pipe thickness for plastic water pipes of diameter greater than 61.0 cm (24 in.).

Appropriate to EPA [2000] the different types of pipe systems provide a

Table 25: General advantages and disadvantages of plastic, concrete and steel/iron pipes [EPA, 2000]

| Category | Plastics | Concrete | Steel / iron |
|---------------|--|--|--|
| Advantages | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Very lightweight • Easy to install • Economical • Good corrosion resistance • Smooth surface reduces friction losses • Long pipe sections reduce infiltration potential • Flexible | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good corrosion resistance • Widespread availability • High strength • Good load supporting capacity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Good corrosion resistance when coated • High strength |
| Disadvantages | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Susceptible to chemical attack, particularly by solvents • Strength affected unless UV protected • Requires special bedding | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heavy, requires careful installation to avoid breakage • Susceptible to acid attack when pipes are buried | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heavy cracking and H coated |

A cost comparison identifies that concrete pipes per meter are generally the most expensive, followed by steel pipes. Plastic pipes are usually cheaper than comparable steel pipes [Rafferty, 1998].

A comparison of the different material solutions is shown in Table 26.

Table 26: Comparison of different materials for construction pipes

| Comparison: construction pipes | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|--|--|
| | Plastics | Concrete | Steel / iron |
| GWP | <p>+</p> <p>Provide smallest GWP</p> | <p>-</p> <p>Provide highest impact compared to plastics and also, but not only larger specific weight</p> | <p>0</p> <p>Provide higher impact than plastics, but lower because of steel</p> |
| Water footprint | <p>+</p> <p>Smallest water footprint compared to concrete</p> | <p>-</p> <p>Largest water footprint used in steel manufacture</p> | <p>0</p> <p>Larger water footprint than plastic, but not as large as concrete</p> |

8. Annexes

| | | | |
|---------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Use of resources | - Resource for conventional plastic is fossil-based (resource), can possibly be replaced by bio-based plastics such as corn starch, may result in higher water demand | - Manufacture requires finite energy, sand and clay are changed abundantly | - Manufacture requires energy; one base of resource is available ore, which is |
| Use of material | 0 If made from mono-materials, technically possible otherwise down | 0 Generally recyclable to free cycle of concrete | ++ Generally it high recycling secondary, steel is used in today's steel |
| Health aspects | 0 Do not rust; drinking plastic pipes older than be attacked | 0 Do not rust; water damage | 0 Acidic and alkaline water damages them |
| Safety aspects: handling, usage | ++ Light weight, corrosion resistance; good electric current; repair / replacement reduces strength unless UV protected, special bedding | 0 Heavy weight, corrosion resistance; high strength and easy durability, pipe supposed 50 years sunlight | - Heavy weight; corrosion resistance when coated; high strength, supposedly around 10 years, bending is easy; higher diameter |
| Economics (world-wide) | ++ Easy to install; smooth reduces friction losses; | ++ Widespread availability; flexible load capacity | ++ Relatively heavy as concrete |
| Economics (price) | ++ Generally cheapest steel and concrete | - Pipe generally larger diameter | 0 Cheaper than concrete, expensive than plastic pipe |
| Consumer aspects | ++ Economical, easier to install | - Transportation is difficult compared to plastics because weight | - Longevity may be needed they side, as corrosion |
| Waste management | 0 Industrial waste more mono-materials, recycling is at larger scale, waste management needs to be | 0 Is free of wood or recycled materials, possible manufacture adequate infrastructure established | ++ Steel can be technically recycled without any loss, waste management needs to be established first |

8.10 Annex 10: Global examples of education and awareness programmes

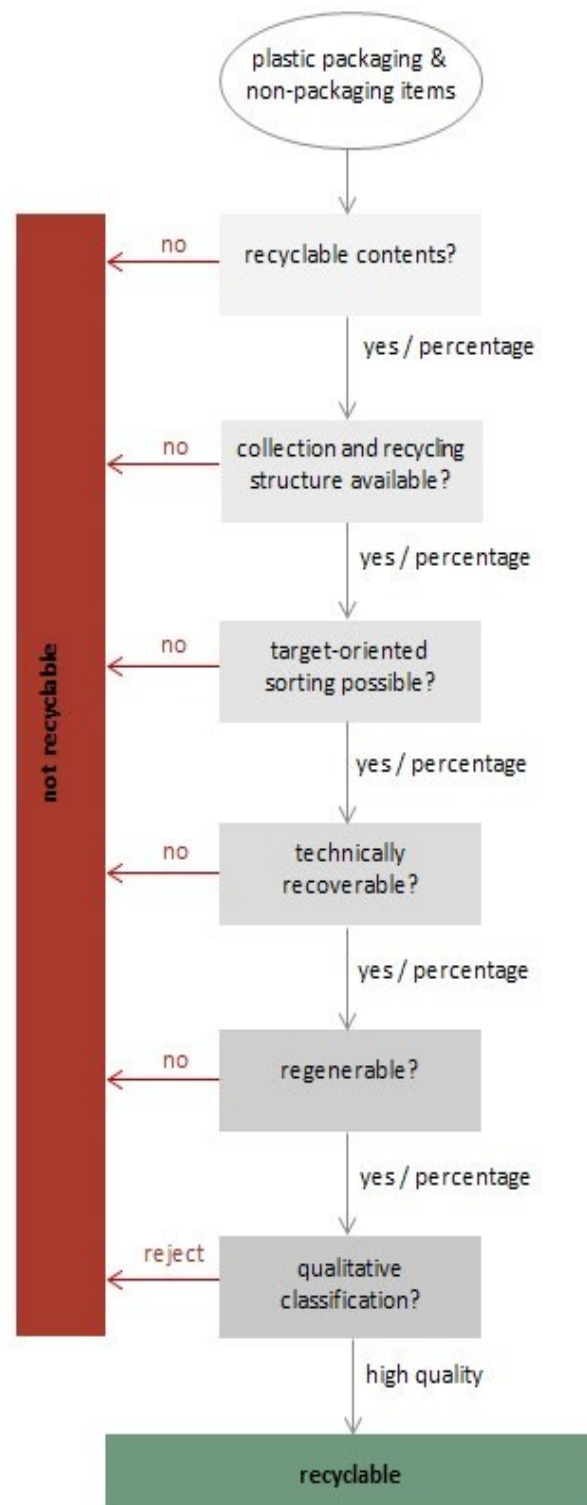
In California, the California Education and the Environment Initiative exists. The (California's Department of Resources Recycling and Recovery) Office of Education programs that aim encourage environmental literacy among all California students at all grade levels. The initiative provides curricula that combine the environment with the subjects such as science, history, English language, and arts. Some of the subjects are about earth and its resources, the history of the impact the human behaviour had on the critical environmental issues the modern world faces [California Education and the

One more example is the 2012 cooperation between the Paper Recycling Association and the Department of Education to incorporate recycling in the maths curriculum. Integrated in the syllabus of grades R through seven. In partnership with curriculum-based educational resources, the recycling-focused lessons are found in on the website. More content has also been developed to integrate recycling and English for Grade one to six, using paper products as examples. Recycling that learners grow up with an awareness of waste and the importance of

Fostplus, Belgium (the Belgian PRO) launched multiple campaigns that target with the support of the Fevia and Comeos sector organisations. Fostplus signed the Walloon and Brussels authorities to tackle the problem through campaigns. Nettoyage de Printemps (Great Spring Clean) campaign in Wallonia in April 2016 cleared plots of land, streets and parks of litter. Another campaign was the 2016. 1,100 shops in Flanders and Wallonia participated in the Retail Clean-Up up the area within a 25 m radius of its premises. A surface area equivalent of more than 1,150 football fields. There are other campaigns launched awareness in communities about the correct way of sorting waste, and to stress the its positive impact on the environment and future [Fostplus, n.y.].

Another example of is the Orange Bin Campaign in Israel: Recycling all of Israel launched the online campaign to raise public awareness about recycling. The campaign used YouTube as a platform to spread its message by combining extreme sport with garbage collection to eliminate the negative video went viral gaining around 900,000 views. And according to a statistic for Environmental Defense and Migal, a Galilee research institute, over 300, and wet waste, representing a 400 % increase in two years (Weißenbacher,

8.11 Annex 11: Flow chart for determining the recyclability





Inner back cover

