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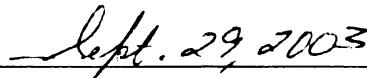
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**AN ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTS OF RECYCLING FOCUSED ON
BOTTLE COLLECTION PROGRAMS IN THE PACKAGING SECTOR**

By

Yongseong Ha

A THESIS

**Submitted to
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ABSTRACT

AN ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTS OF RECYCLING FOCUSED ON BOTTLE COLLECTION PROGRAMS IN THE PACKAGING SECTOR

By

Yongseong Ha

With a variety of efforts, the infrastructure for recovering beverage containers has been well developed. This study investigated the major factors that affected recycling activities during the span of 1989 to 2002.

Bottle collection methods and bottle deposit rates are the main areas of interest. Mandatory bottle deposit laws and curbside collection programs are two major ways to collect for recycling. Currently nine states have bottle deposit laws and California has a redemption system. Deposit amounts vary by state: 2.5 cents, 5 cents and 10 cents. Alternatively, curbside recycling programs are found in most U.S. states.

This study focused on the two main aspects: recycling and bottle deposit systems. First, the relationship between the recycling rate and various socioeconomic variables was examined. Second, the effect of different deposit rates was investigated.

Using multiple regression analysis, this study found that: Waste generation per person shows the highest correlation with recycling activity. The 5 cent system is more associated with high recycling rates among the three deposit rates. And bottle deposit systems contribute to recycling efforts more than curbside programs.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	vi
LIST OF FIGURES	vii
 CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	 1
INTRODUCTION	1
TRENDS IN MUNICIPAL SOLID WASTE DISPOSAL	1
WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES	4
Economic Instruments	4
Characteristics of Packaging Waste	6
MAJOR BOTTLE COLLECTION METHODS	9
Mandatory Deposit Systems	9
Curbside Programs	13
RESEARCH PURPOSES	17
ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH	18
 CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW	 19
INTRODUCTION	19
WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES FOR RECYCLING	19
Determinants of Residential Recycling Decisions	19
Environmental Attributes and Behaviors for Recycling	23
THE EFFECTS OF BOTTLE COLLECTION PROGRAMS	26
CONCLUSION OF LITERATURE REVIEW	29
 CHAPTER 3: METHOD	 31
INTRODUCTION	31
RESEARCH DATA	31
THE MODELING METHOD OF ESTIMATION	35
ESTIMATION FOR FACTORS AFFECTING RECYCLING	35
Hypotheses	35
Regression Model	39
ESTIMATION FOR FACTORS AFFECTING RECYCLING RATE IN THE BOTTLE REFUND STATES	40
Hypothesis	40
Regression Model	41

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS	43
INTRODUCTION	43
RESULTS OF ANALYSIS	43
Estimation for Factors Affecting Recycling	43
Estimation for Factors Affecting Recycling Rate in the	
Bottle Refund States	51
SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH RESULTS	56
 CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION	 58
INTRODUCTION	58
CONCLUSIONS	58
DISCUSSIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	61
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY	63
 APPENDICES	 64
 BIBLIOGRAPHY	 80

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 – Landfill Tipping Fees by States in 2000	2
Table 2 – MSW Generation Rate from 1960 to 2000	6
Table 3 – Packaging Waste by Products in 2000	8
Table 4 – The Summary Statistics of Variables	34
Table 5 – Test of the Factors of Recycling Rate	44
Table 6 – Estimated Correlation Matrix of Variables	45
Table 7 – Breusch-Pagan Test for Overall Recycling Rate	47
Table 8 – The Result of GLS Regression for Overall Recycling Rate	49
Table 9 – The Result of Regression for the Deposit States	52
Table 10 – The Result of Stepwise Regression for the Deposit States	53
Table 11 – VIF Test for Bottle Refund Regression	54
Table 12 – Breusch-Pagan Test for Bottle Refund System	56
Table 13 – Summary of the Research Results	57

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 – Trend of Recycling Rates in the U.S. -----	12
Figure 2 – Number of Curbside Programs -----	15
Figure 3 – Population Served in Curbside Programs -----	16
Figure 4 – Residual vs. Predicted Value for Overall States -----	46
Figure 5 – Residual vs. Predicted Value for Deposit States -----	55

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

The human activities of production and consumption give rise to solid waste because the level of economic activity relates to the level of waste emitted. According to the laws of thermodynamics, it is not possible to convert waste residuals completely into beneficial or even harmless products. Although some amount of solid waste is an inevitable consequence of human activity, it may be possible to minimize the amount of solid waste generated in our environmental system. This introductory chapter reviews the current waste management options and discusses the research problems including the research objectives.

TRENDS IN MUNICIPAL SOLID WASTE DISPOSAL

The handling and disposal of solid waste is one of the major concerns for communities throughout the United States. The current solid waste problem is related to both a waste disposal problem and a waste generation problem. The United States is generating more waste now than ever before. From 1960 to 2000, total U.S. municipal solid waste (MSW) generation increased over 260 percent from 88.1 million tons to 231.9 million tons per year, while per capita generation increased over 170 percent from 2.68 to 4.51 pounds per person per day (EPA, 2002).

To reduce or manage MSW, various methods have been applied. The main components of the waste management policy are source reduction, reuse of products, recycling of materials, and waste combustion and landfilling. Although source reduction

and recycling are EPA's preferred practices, landfilling is the current dominant method of MSW management. According to EPA, 55 percent of MSW generation was landfilled and the rest was handled by recycling (30%) and combustion (15%) in 2000.

In using the landfilling and combustion techniques, however, some restrictions have been made. EPA (2002) reported that there are fewer years of landfill capacity available and most states have less than a decade of capacity left. Besides, landfill tipping fees vary by states. For example, Table 1 shows the landfill tipping fees of eight states. Vermont has the highest fee at \$75 per ton while Colorado has the lowest fee at \$11 per ton. Besides these eight states, Goldstein and Madtes (2001) also reported that fourteen states are in the \$20 to \$30 per ton range and eight states are in the \$30 to \$40 per ton range.

Table1. Landfill Tipping Fees by State in 2000

State	Fee (\$/ton)
Vermont	75.0
Massachusetts	67.0
New Hampshire	66.0
Maine	65.0
Delaware	58.5
New Jersey	55.0
Nevada	20.0
Colorado	11.0

Source: Goldstein and Madtes, 2001

Many states also depend on combustion systems for managing MSW. According to Goldstein and Madtes (2001), the District of Columbia had the highest combustion rate at 79 percent. In Connecticut, 65 percent of MSW was incinerated, followed by Maine (39 percent), Massachusetts (36 percent), and Hawaii (32 percent). In using combustion systems, however, air pollution is caused because some residue reaches the air. To deal with this problem, various emission control systems are used such as settling chambers, cyclones, filtration, electronic precipitators and wet scrubbers. There are also solid residues that generally must be landfilled. EPA (2001) estimated that MSW combustor ash amounts to about 25 percent (dry weight) of unprocessed MSW input.

Under these circumstances, recycling is becoming the more preferred practice to deal with MSW. Recyclable materials must be collected before they are processed and recycled into valuable products. In general, collection of recyclables from residential sources is separate from commercial recyclables collection programs. Most residential recycling is recovered from curbside collection, drop-off centers, buy-back programs, and container deposit systems. On the other hand, the largest quantity of recovered materials in the commercial sector is provided by old corrugated containers (OCC) and office paper. The recovered materials are picked up by a paper dealer or self-delivered to the recycler. In 2002, EPA estimated that residential waste constituted between 55 and 65 percent of total MSW generation and commercial waste was between 35 and 45 percent of MSW.

In 2001, Goldstein and Madtes reported that recycling is considered as a preferred method for managing MSW in the United States. Ten states have mandatory recycling goals for waste reduction, and four states have already attained their recycling goals.

Massachusetts and Rhode Island have the largest recycling goals at 70 percent. In addition, sixteen states aim to reach at least half of their wastes recycled.

WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Economic Instruments

Economic analysis has been used in decision-making in MSW management due mainly to the advantage of economic instruments, which help modify human behavior through the price mechanism. In managing packaging waste generation, it should be defined where in the solid waste generation and disposal system is the optimal point to apply incentive-based policies. In general, incentives applied at the point of disposal (downstream) are considered as more efficient than those applied at the point of purchase or manufacture (upstream).

A variety of economic instruments have been used or considered in waste-related policy. All are attempts to achieve an efficient solution by influencing the wide discretion of producers and consumers. Although it is difficult to decide which option should be used, an incentive must start from the baseline goal that the generation of packaging waste is optimally prevented or that waste generated is treated as efficiently as possible. The following economic instruments can be applied in waste management policy for packaging materials:

- 1) Virgin materials tax; this tax is put on raw materials used for the production of packaging products. As source reduction, it is applied to reduce the use of raw materials.

- 2) **Product charges;** they are added to the price of packaging products as taxes. When products are fully made from recycled materials, they can be exempted, while a lower charge can be imposed if products are partly made from recycled materials. These charges can facilitate reuse and recycling.
- 3) **Waste charge;** payments can be charged when waste is collected or disposed. As a user charge, this system increases the final costs of waste disposal. The charge can be directly related to disposal of packaging, when packaging is a major component of the waste.
- 4) **Recycling credits;** Credits can be paid to those who reuse containers or recycle materials. This method can be used to encourage the diversion of waste from landfill to recycle.
- 5) **Deposit-refund systems;** basically this instrument is a type of product charge since the surcharge is applied to the packaging products. However, it is a refundable surcharge because the surcharge will be returned if the charged products are prevented from final disposal as waste. This system can be applied as either voluntary or mandatory.

Using a legal framework, various economic instruments provide a choice to the consumers or producers to take an action, either “abate and save” or “pollute and pay for it.” The instruments described can be applied in a mixed system, depending on waste management policies. However, charges should be carefully reviewed because they can be double-counted, possibly causing damage to the production and consumption of products. In addition, whatever economic instruments are used for recycling, they should be connected to the whole MSW stream.

Characteristics of Packaging Waste

Table 2 shows that containers and packaging waste is the largest proportion of total MSW generation. In 2000, containers and packaging waste consisted of over 32 percent (74.7 million tons) followed by nondurable goods at 27.5 percent (about 63.7 million tons). As a percentage of MSW, the long term trend of packaging waste generation was higher in 1980 and decreased somewhat in 2000 (EPA 2002). However, the amount of waste generated has increased dramatically for several decades. Despite various efforts to reduce waste generation, the amount of packaging waste is still increasing. To understand the increase in waste, two main motivating factors should be considered. First, manufacturers and sellers of products and packaging usually have no responsibility for handling materials after they are discarded. Second, recycling competes with raw materials in uncertain economic conditions, in which the market price of recycled materials is very changeable.

Table 2. MSW Generation Rate from 1960 to 2000

Products	1960		1980		2000	
	1000 tons	(%)	1000 tons	(%)	1000 tons	(%)
Durable Goods	9920	11.3	21800	14.4	36330	15.7
Nondurable Goods	17330	19.7	34420	22.7	63660	27.5
Containers and PKG	27370	31.1	52670	34.7	74730	32.2
Food Waste	12200	13.8	13000	8.6	25900	11.2
Yard Trimming	20000	22.7	27500	18.1	27730	12.0
Others	1300	1.5	2250	1.5	3500	1.5

Source: EPA, 2002

Table 3 shows generation and recovery of packaging wastes in each product category in 2000. Paper and paperboard comprised the largest fraction of packaging waste generation at over 39 million tons, followed by plastics and glass packaging which were equal at 11.2 million tons. On the recovery side, over 58 percent of steel packaging waste was recovered from the MSW stream and over 56 percent of paper and paperboard packaging waste was also recovered. The recovery rate of plastic packaging wastes was relatively lower than other packaging products, at 9 percent. On the other hand, bottle recovery in each packaging type contributed to increasing the recovery rate of packaging waste. More than half of steel and aluminum cans are recovered from the waste stream and over 30 percent of plastic soft drink bottles are also collected for recycling (EPA 2002).

This trend results from the fact that recyclable beverage containers have relatively higher market value. In particular, aluminum cans have a high recycling value. However, EPA (2002) reports that the recycling amount for plastic beverage bottles stayed constant and recently decreased for glass bottles and aluminum cans.

Table 3. Packaging Waste by Products in 2000

	Generation	Recovery	Recovery Rate
	(1000 tons)	(1000 tons)	(%)
Glass			
Beer and Soft Drink Bottles	5860	1560	26.6
Wine and Liquor Bottles	1970	440	22.3
Food and Other Bottles & Jars	3360	940	28
Total Glass Packaging	11190	2940	26.3
Steel Packaging			
Food and Other Cans	2640	1510	57.2
Other Steel Packaging	240	160	66.7
Total Steel Packaging	2880	1670	58
Aluminum			
Beer and Soft Drink Cans	1520	830	54.6
Other Cans	50	Neg.	Neg.
Foil and Closures	380	40	10.5
Total Aluminum Packaging	1950	870	44.6
Paper and Paperboard			
Corrugated Boxes	30210	21360	70.7
Milk Cartons	490	Neg.	Neg.
Folding Cartons	5580	430	7.7
Other Paperboard Packaging	200	Neg.	Neg.
Bags and Sacks	1550	300	19.4
Other Paper Packaging	1370	Neg.	Neg.
Total Paper & Paperboard Packaging	39400	22090	56.1
Plastics			
Soft Drink Bottles	830	290	34.9
Milk Bottles	690	210	30.4
Other Containers	2630	260	9.9
Bags and Sacks	1650	10	0.6
Wraps	2550	170	6.7
Other Plastic Packaging	2840	90	3.2
Total Plastic Packaging	11190	1030	9.2
Others Misc. Packaging	8120	480	6.1

Neg. is less than 5000 tons or 0.05 percent

Source: EPA, 2002

MAJOR BOTTLE COLLECTION METHODS

To control the generation of packaging waste, various collection methods are operating in the market. Especially, beverage containers such as cans and bottles are the aim at the state level. Typical methods for container collection include deposit systems, curbside programs, drop-off centers and buy-back centers. However, only two collection methods, mandatory deposit systems and curbside recycling programs, are the focus of this discussion because these two programs are widely used.

Mandatory Deposit Systems

Mandatory deposit-refund systems called “bottle bills” have been implemented for a reduction of packaging waste from beverage containers in the United States. In dealing with packaging waste, it may be considered that this system increases return of packaging and diverts recyclable materials from the MSW stream. Current deposits apply to glass, metal, and plastic containers for carbonated soft drinks, beer, wine, and some bottled water and other beverages. Nine states have enacted container deposit systems: Connecticut, Delaware, Iowa, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, New York, Oregon, and Vermont. Except for Michigan, which has a 10 cent deposit, the deposit in the remaining 8 states is the same at 5 cents. In these nine states, consumers have to pay a deposit on beverage containers when they buy the products. The deposit will be redeemed if the empty containers are returned to retailers. This law in most states requires retailers to accept for refunds containers of the same brand and type that they offer for sale. In addition, retailers in most cases are paid a fee to cover the costs of handling returned containers (OECD, 1993). California applies a rather different system in which the

consumer pays no separate deposit, but containers can be redeemed when they are returned to designated redemption centers. In California and Maine, more containers are covered than in other deposit states (Appendix A).

Although bottle deposit laws only aim at beverage containers, the actual amount of these containers accounts for less than 4 percent of total MSW generation. Of this portion, about 35 percent of all recovery of beverage containers comes from the nine deposit states, and another 20 percent comes from California (EPA, 2002).

The rationale for why beverage container wastes have been targeted includes:

- 1) The typical lifetimes of beverage containers are less than one month (Stilwell et al., 1991). This fact indicates that a large volume of packaging waste is disposed of by consumers who just want the product, not the packaging. With little understanding of the benefits of packaging, packaging is treated as a by-product of the purchase, and discarded right after the contents are removed.
- 2) Manufacturers and sellers usually have no responsibility for the environmental impact of their products such as collecting, recycling, or landfilling discarded materials (GRRN, 2000). Therefore, taxpayers are forced to pay for disposal costs in general. This situation may create a free rider problem in handling the packaging wastes because someone can produce more wastes without paying more control costs.

These characteristics imply that in most cases the generation of waste beverage containers is caused by individual people. Consumers have a direct influence on the generation of waste beverage containers. To deal with this characteristic, container deposit systems are introduced because they are focused on modifying consumer

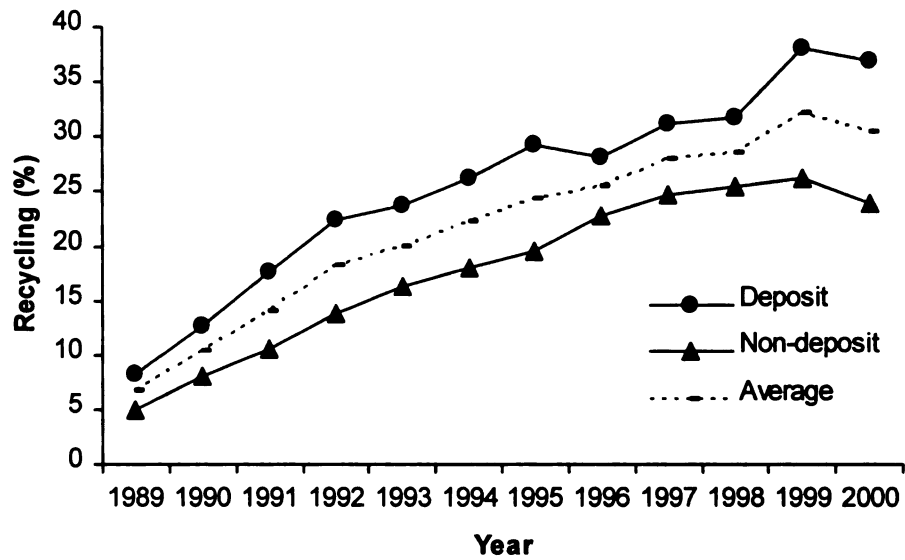
behavior using the polluter pays principle. OECD (1974) explained the principle as the following:

“The polluter should bear the expenses of preventing and controlling pollution ‘to ensure that the environment is in an acceptable state.’ The notion of an ‘acceptable state’ decided by public authorities, implies that through a collective choice and with respect to the limited information available, the advantage of a further reduction in the residual social damage involved is considered as being smaller than the social cost of further prevention and control. In fact the Polluter-Pays Principle is no more than an efficiency principle for allocating costs and does not involve bringing pollution down to an optimum level of any type, although it does not exclude the possibility of doing so.”

The effectiveness of container deposit systems is positively proved in the market. For instance, OECD (1993) assessed the impacts of the container deposit systems and found that return rates of containers were between 72 to 98 percent in the nine deposit states. In addition, reductions of litter and solid waste volumes have been found as a result of the deposit return systems. Additionally, EPA (2002) estimated that about 55 percent of recovered beverage containers come from the nine deposit states and California. Figure 1 shows the effect of recycling efforts between the deposit states and the non-deposit states in the nation. The trend reveals that the deposit states have a higher recycling rate than the non-deposit states in recent decades.

Successful recycling basically depends on collecting high-quality post-consumer materials. BEAR (2002) noted that deposit systems provide the highest quality materials with the highest market values, as mandatory deposit systems avoid cross-contamination of materials at the point of collection and sorting. Therefore, it is considered that mandatory deposit programs have efficiently influenced the recovery of materials of higher quality from the waste stream.

Figure 1. Trend of Recycling Rates in the U.S.



Source: Glenn (1990, 1992, 1998, 1999), Glenn and Riggle (1991), Goldstein (1997, 2000), Goldstein and Madtes (2001), Steuteville (1994, 1995, 1996), Steuteville and Goldstein (1993)

Curbside Programs

Curbside recycling programs are offered to residents and may be operated by local governments or private businesses. These collection programs typically cover most single-family homes and some multi-family residences. In general, curbside participants are asked to place their recyclables in curbside collection bins. When the citizen separates recyclable materials into discrete containers at curbside, collection crews load materials on a specially designed vehicle. If all materials are commingled into one bin, the collection crew sorts the recyclables, or the commingled recyclables are transported to a special facility for separation.

In most cases, recyclables are easily commingled in the process of curbside collection because typically the programs allow households to put recyclables in bins or carts without any sorting. Due to the commingled nature of the collected materials, such programs require materials recovery facilities (MRFs), where commingled materials are sorted into single-stream materials. This recovery system is designed to limit cross-contamination of materials, which results in lower-valued materials or even unmarketable ones. Along with the MRFs, truck-side sorting is an option that is sometimes used.

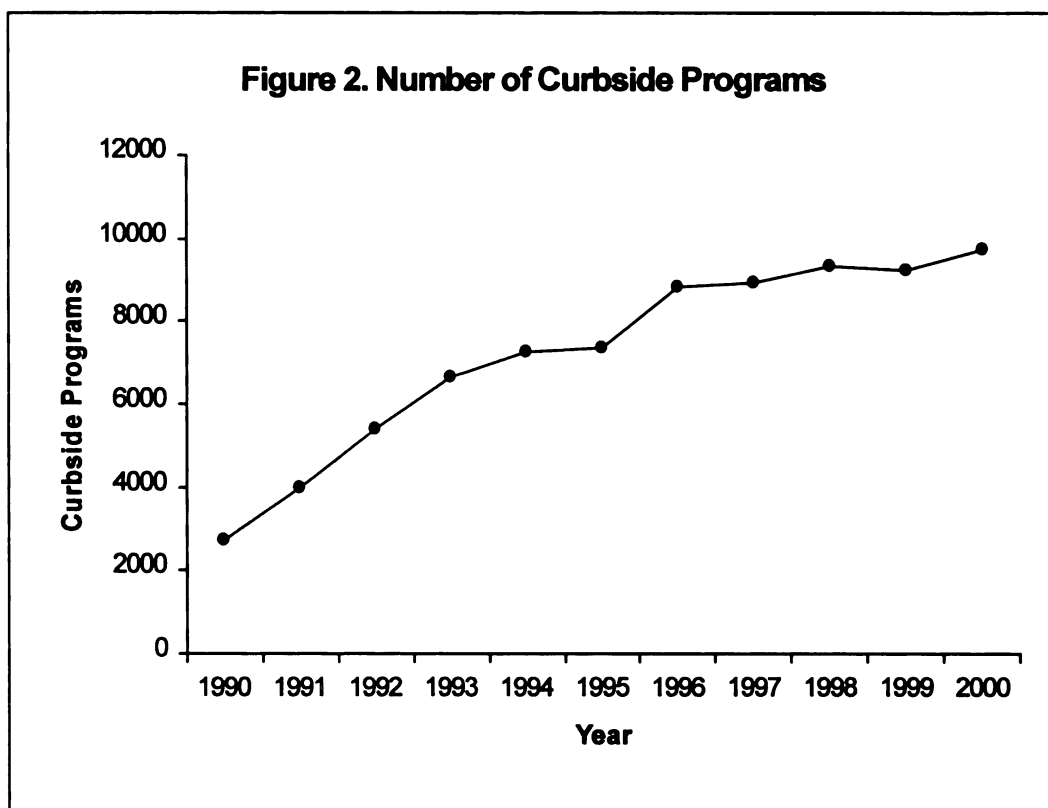
From the economic point of view, constructing MRFs requires a significant financial expense and also results in substantial costs for maintaining and operating the facility. For this reason, MRFs are typically located in large population areas that can manage the significant costs. For instance, Mullins et al. (1997) reported that cities with populations of 250,000 and over typically have two MRFs and the average cost to maintain a MRF is \$643,271. Despite the high cost requirements for MRFs, curbside programs have been rapidly growing for the last decade in the United States. In 2000,

more than 9700 curbside programs were operated (Figure 1) and about 140 million people received curbside recycling services (Figure 2).

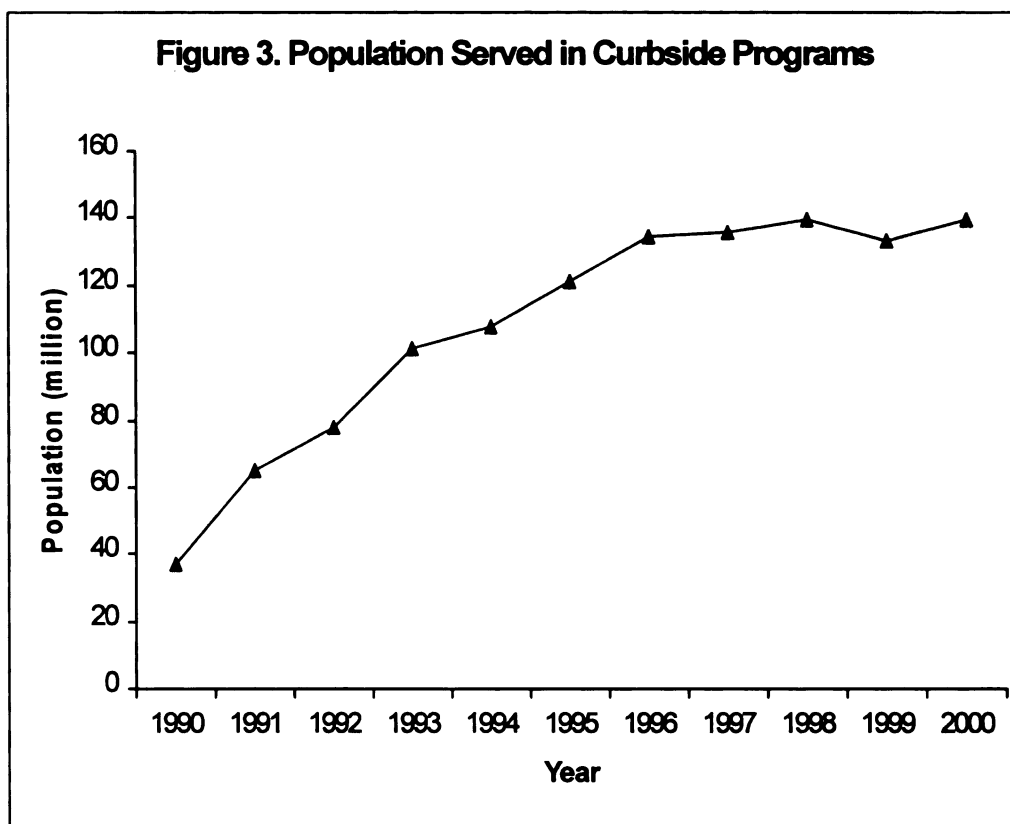
Goldstein and Madtes (2001) reported that New York had 1500 curbside recycling programs in 2000, leading the nation. Pennsylvania was the second with 892 curbside programs, followed by Minnesota (765) and Wisconsin (631). California led the nation with 31.1million people served by this service and New York was the next with 17.2 million people. This report also found that 100 percent of the population had access to a curbside program in Connecticut. New York and New Jersey were at 90 percent or higher, and California, Nevada, Rhode Island and Washington were at over 80 percent. Nationally, about 50 percent of the U. S. population was served by curbside programs in 2000.

Curbside programs are relatively convenient, compared to mandatory deposit systems, because they provide easy access to the collection point for households. In addition, only low capital and operating costs for processing will be necessary if materials are highly sorted (NREL, 1992).

Collection schedules vary from once a week to once a month. The collection frequency can influence the participation rate and the total quantity recycled. The special type of curbside program will be selected as a function of the community's demographics, the availability and reliability of processing facilities, community value, and the type of collection vehicles used (McGrath, 1990). Therefore, all curbside programs are not identical. One program may be poorly run, covering few materials, while another may be well publicized, very convenient, covering many more materials.



Source: Glenn (1992, 1998, 1999), Glenn and Riggle (1991), Goldstein (1997, 2000), Goldstein and Madtes (2001), Steuteville (1994, 1995, 1996), Steuteville and Goldstein (1993)



Source: Glenn (1992, 1998, 1999), Glenn and Riggle (1991), Goldstein (1997, 2000), Goldstein and Madtes (2001), Steuteville (1994, 1995, 1996), Steuteville and Goldstein (1993)

RESEARCH PURPOSES

As discussed, beverage containers are recovered through various collection systems. Beverage container materials maintain a higher market value than other packaging materials. With a variety of efforts, therefore, the infrastructure for recovering beverage containers has been well developed. However, the efforts to reduce beverage container materials in the waste stream vary state by state. As discussed, some states have enacted mandatory deposit systems to recover beverage containers for recycling and others have several collection programs in which residents participate voluntarily. This gives rise to interest in how the different collection systems and different deposit levels are related to the recycling activity in the nation.

This research will investigate and test some major factors that affected consumer attitudes toward recycling practices during the span of 1989 to 2000. Using an economic analysis, this study will present empirical evidence. The findings can be applied in the development of effective and efficient options for waste management policy. The research will focus on two main aspects: recycling and deposit-return systems. First, the research examines the relationship between the recycling rate and various socioeconomic variables. Emphasis will be placed on the examination of the premise that the level of waste generation has a positive impact on recycling efforts. With a set of explanatory variables, this test will show how the recycling activity is affected by the amount of individual's behavior.

Second, this study examines the effect of container deposit legislation. Although this legislation is solely focused on the packaging waste to divert recyclable containers from the MSW stream, bottle deposit laws will be applied to identify how recycling

efforts in the packaging sector affect the overall recycling activity. Currently the nine deposit states and California have enacted bottle bills, but they have different levels of deposit such as 2½ cents, 5 cents, and 10 cents. The effects of this difference will be examined to investigate what level of deposit is most effective. The differences between the bottle-bill states and non bottle-bill states will also be identified. In addition, the effects of curbside collection programs will be evaluated.

ORGANIZATION OF THE RESEARCH

The following chapters of this research are organized as follows: Chapter 2 presents a review of the relevant literature, mainly focusing on recycling programs, mandatory deposit systems and curbside programs, and recycling behaviors. Chapter 3 describes the methods of analysis, data collection methods, research hypotheses and parameter selection. In Chapter 4, the statistical analyses and findings are discussed. Finally, Chapter 5 presents the conclusions of the research. It presents the summary of the empirical findings, policy implications and directions for future research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the research related to the proposed study. Current issues in the solid waste management area will be identified, along with analyzing a variety of relevant studies and previous contributions. It consists of two broad parts: 1) waste management strategies for recycling activities and 2) effects of bottle collection programs. Because collection of commercial solid waste is usually implemented by contract with private firms, the commercial sector will not be emphasized.

WASTE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES FOR RECYCLING

Most waste management strategies start with designing some type of incentive for recycling, and then it is presented to citizens as either a set package or a choice from a number of incentives. In developing solid waste policy, a critical factor is to understand citizen's opinions and whether there are options that make the disposal alternative more attractive to them. As proper and well developed methods are implemented, a better physical and social infrastructure will be provided. Therefore, a variety of recycling programs have been provided to create an incentive for residents to recycle as much as possible and dispose as little as possible.

Determinants of Residential Recycling Decisions

In the past, researchers have examined the factors that influence participation in recycling efforts. Along with these efforts, local officials also desire to initiate or to refine

recycling programs. The main reason for this phenomenon is that if they can manage the factors that are important for achieving a high rate of recycling, the recycling activity can be more easily applied in our society (De Young, 1986; Sundeen, 1988).

To identify significant determinants, the socioeconomic attributes of the residents have been explicitly related to recycling activities. These attributes typically include personal factors such as income, age and education. Many investigations have provided empirical evidence showing that these variables strongly affect environmental behavior, especially recycling.

Using OLS (ordinary least squares) estimation techniques, Richardson and Havlicek (1978) analyzed economic and social factors affecting the generation of household solid wastes. In the empirical model, the household is treated as a production unit generating solid wastes. This study found that the household income is positively related to the waste generation of glass containers, aluminum and other metal products, but not plastics in general. In addition, household size and age (18 to 61 years of age) have a positive correlation in the waste generation. In terms of the effects of income and age variables, this result is consistent with Mohai and Twight (1987), who especially pointed out that the young indicate the greatest level of environmental concerns, while middle-aged people are the most likely to voluntarily engage in recycling programs. As a similar point of view, De Young (1986) found that recyclers are older (mean 42 years of age) than non-recyclers (mean 35 years of age), and recyclers have higher income levels (\$40,000-\$50,000 range) than non-recyclers. In contrast, Sundeen (1988) found that income, homeownership, and age are not related positively to recycling activities.

According to Vining and Ebreo (1990), residents with higher incomes and education are more likely to recycle. They explained this result as due to either better access to information or because they have relatively more materials to recycle than those with lower incomes.

Focusing on a pricing system for waste collection services, Hong et al. (1993) showed that the disposal fee significantly affects households' curbside recycling participation. For example, the participation rate in curbside recycling increases as the disposal fee increases. Due to the same effect, the quantity of non-recyclables decreases as the fee increases. On the other hand, changes in income are not likely to convert household's generation of total solid wastes into curbside recycling. Therefore, they insisted that income is considered as an insignificant factor for the participation decision on curbside recycling through the empirical analysis.

From a somewhat different point of view, Lansana (1992) compared several differences between recyclers and non-recyclers using socioeconomic factors. This study found that age and education are significant factors for recycling. For instance, in a group with the highest recycling average, the age group of recyclers was 40 to 64 while non-recyclers were less than 40 years old. Recyclers also had at least 7 to 12 years of education, which indicates more education than non-recyclers. However, there were no significant differences between the groups on the basis of their income. The age factor was also observed by Lake et al. (1996) who found that households with a middle aged (45 to 64 years of age) head of the household have higher recycling rates. They explained that in this age group, people spend more time engaging in recycling activities.

Lake et al. (1996) also calculated the diversion rate, defined as the quantity of household waste which is diverted from disposal to recycling. According to the analysis, the average diversion rate per individual household (25.1%) exceeds the overall diversion rate (22.9%). This result is explained as houses producing a large amount of waste are recycling a lower percentage of their waste than houses with small total weights. When all those households who recycle less than 10 percent by weight are excluded from the analysis, the overall diversion rate rises to 29 percent and the average individual rate increases to 32 percent as well. This result suggests that the participation of those households who do not now take part in recycling is an important factor in developing waste management policies.

Steuteville (1996) pointed out that recycling has apparently become part of American life and a responsibility of local government. To verify this trend, Mullins et al. (1997) examined changes in local government practices. They surveyed 1071 cities with populations of 5000 or above in the U.S. and found that population size is highly related to waste services. For instance, larger cities (with more than 250,000 people) more frequently offer solid waste pickups for residential waste collection. This study noted that about 67 percent of the 975 local governments that provided information require recycling by state law or local ordinance. In detail, 83 percent of all cities recycle aluminum, 81 percent glass, and 76 percent plastic beverage bottles. For collecting recyclables, 80 percent of surveyed cities offer curbside programs and 69 percent of communities provide drop-off centers. This study also found that localities are not likely to use a single method, otherwise they want to use not only multiple providers for

collecting materials but also multiple methods for disposing of solid waste. However, they only used curbside pickup and drop-off centers as recycling methods.

To induce optimal recycling activity, Dinan (1993) examined several alternative policies for the recovery of old newspapers (ONP). The policies discussed included a virgin material tax, a combination of disposal tax and reuse subsidy, and a combination of disposal tax and reuse subsidy with unit-based pricing, which is a direct method to charge households by the amount of waste that they generate. This article shows that a combined disposal tax and reuse subsidy policy could be an efficient method of reducing waste and is suited to deal with recyclable waste items, while a virgin material tax is not. A particular concern results from the unit-based pricing. Because households pay the same amount for each unit of trash, illegal disposal increased. This study concluded that implementing a combined policy provides more efficient recycling results than using just one policy.

Environmental Attributes and Behaviors for Recycling

A number of recycling studies have focused on two behavioral approaches to understand and explain people's motives for recycling. Most groups emphasized intrinsic motives for recycling behavior, while a few groups investigated the extrinsic motives of recycling incentives. In an extrinsic study, Luyben and Cummings (1981-1982) explained individual recycling behavior and audited the behavior of subjects. They found that the combination of information fliers, lotteries and contest prizes is likely to increase recycling in a dormitory system. In addition, Goldsby (1998) explained the extrinsic motive as the most consistent, strongest influence on behavioral reaction. He considered

convenience as one of the important extrinsic motives and found that 43.5 percent of respondents would like to recycle more if a more convenient system was provided. This study shows the direct effect of extrinsic motives on recycling behavior and also demonstrated that such external factors help to improve recycling.

On the other hand, intrinsic motives are defined as the characteristics inherent within the individual that lead his behavior (Guagnano et al., 1995). Research on intrinsic motivation has suggested that a good deal of human behavior is best explained in terms of goals and rewards that lead participants to maintain recycling activity (Deci, 1975; Eckblad, 1981).

De Young (1985-1986) found that intrinsic motivation and personal satisfaction are the most dominant factors in people's decision to recycle, while monetary reward is not an important reason. Likewise, Resource Recycling (1982) reported that economic rewards have only the slightest effect on people's willingness to recycle. In addition, studies of behavior-change strategies have suggested the importance of attitude change to achieve people's substantial behavior change (Burn and Oskamp, 1986; Katzev and Pardini, 1987-1988). Hopper and Nielsen (1991) insisted that recycling is a form of altruistic behavior and any type of social motivation will substantially increase recycling efforts.

In a comparison study of recyclers and non-recyclers, Vining and Ebreo (1990) presented knowledge, motives, and demographic factors. They found that non-recyclers are more concerned with financial incentives, rewards, and the convenience of recycling, while concerns for the environment are equal between the two groups. De Young (1986) indicated that changes in recycling behavior motivated by monetary incentives do not last

when the reward is removed, suggesting that on-going forms of economic incentives are necessary to make long-term changes in recycling behavior. This study suggested that a waste management policy should be selected to encourage non-recyclers to begin recycling. This study provides the relative importance of different motivational factors; mandatory deposit laws such as beverage container deposit legislation are not considered in the analysis.

To determine characteristics affecting the successful management of different recycling programs, Folz and Hazlett (1991) conducted a national survey. This survey indicated that mandatory recycling programs attain participation and diversion rates twice as high as voluntary programs. Higher participation also occurred in cities that have more expensive waste collection fees, which are used for financing the operating costs of the recycling program. This result suggests that more residents are motivated to recycle due to the higher fees. Unlike previous studies, this study observes that recycling success is not related to socioeconomic parameters but depends more on the policies chosen. Therefore, they insist that policy selection and its implementation are the most important factors for the success of local recycling programs, regardless of the per capita income, education, or any other characteristics. This finding supports the study by Thomas (1990) and the position that citizens are more likely to participate effectively in collection efforts when they have been party to the policy decision.

Lansana (1992) indicated that the attitudes of residents toward the recycling program are significant predictors of their behavior. In particular, the recyclers are willing to recycle additional materials. For instance, overall, 92 percent of recyclers are willing to add new items to be recycled, while 97 percent of the non-recyclers are not

willing to participate in the recycling program. This finding suggests the need for careful planning and implementation of recycling programs when a new strategy is developed. In behavior patterns, recyclers prefer mandatory programs because they assume that the policy will ensure that people in the community recycle. In addition, many households also prefer the use of curbside programs rather than the use of drop-off centers because of easy access to the collection point.

THE EFFECTS OF BOTTLE COLLECTION PROGRAMS

With concern from states about recovering beverage bottles from the waste stream, a number of studies have estimated the effects of bottle deposit laws. As an early study of the impact of mandatory deposits, Porter (1978) estimated the social benefits and costs of mandatory deposits on beer and soft drink containers in Michigan. The social benefits of a change to mandatory deposits were increased control of litter and solid waste and the cost savings. In a similar point of view, Porter (1983) also evaluated the economic efficiency of mandatory deposits in Michigan. This study confirmed the previous study in that solid waste pickup and disposal costs were saved and amenity benefits from litter reduction were positive because of the mandatory deposit legislation. However, these results cannot be generalized to other states since these costs depend mainly on the return rate of deposit containers in each state.

Due to this limited application, Naughton et al. (1990) applied a methodology for analyzing the impacts of bottle bills in California. They found that return value is more important than convenience, while Porter (1983) found that the convenience of return is as important as redemption values. With the same five cent deposit level, they also

indicated that the level of urbanization is one of the key factors. For instance, rural states such as Vermont, Maine, and Oregon have higher return rates than more urban states such as Massachusetts and New York. To estimate the net cost impacts of bottle bills on consumers, three types of redemption values, such as 1 cent, 3 cents and 5 cents, were used. Among the three values, the 5 cent redemption value was recommended to achieve 80 percent recycling. In addition, overall beverage container returns increased from 40 to 57 percent in California. This increase was mainly caused by the refund system, and a decrease in both beverage container litter (by 29 percent) and beverage container solid waste (by 17 percent) also resulted.

In previous studies, general equilibrium models were built to explain household waste generation and disposal (Dinan, 1993; Jenkins, 1991; Morris and Holthausen, 1994). Fullerton and Kinnaman (1995) included illicit burning and dumping in their model, with an assumption of no tax on the garbage. When applying the various parameters, they found that a negative impact caused by garbage can be corrected by a tax on garbage, while a tax on virgin materials is not useful for encouraging recycling. If illicit burning is added as a third option, the tax on garbage turns out to be insignificant. Furthermore, the model shows that the downstream tax system (at the point of disposal) turns out to be the most efficient policy, while the upstream tax (at the point of production) is easier to implement. Finally, this study found that the optimal regulatory structure is a deposit-return system because it is a tax on all output plus a rebate on proper disposal. In this study, a variety of consumption goods are included in the analysis rather than considering beverage bottles as the only item.

As one cost-effective way to encourage household recycling, Reschovsky and Stone (1994) applied market incentives which replaced the common flat-fee pricing for waste disposal with quantity-based pricing. They found that the most effective waste management policy, among eight policy combinations, is the combination of mandatory recycling and curbside pickup. The study suggests that households are more sensitive to the private costs of waste reduction and less sensitive to the costs of waste disposal. This finding is consistent with other studies (Vining and Ebreo, 1990; Markowitz, 1991). In addition, they demonstrated that efforts to encourage recycling by imposing high quantity-based fees or by enforcing mandatory recycling without providing a convenient way to recycle cause households to regard recycling as a meaningless activity. It was also found that curbside programs show the greatest effect on reported recycling behavior when they are coupled with the other programs, such as the combination of mandatory recycling and curbside pickup.

In a recent study, BEAR (Business and Environmentalists Allied for Recycling, 2002) presented a report on beverage container recovery programs, using data from 1999. When various recovery programs are rated, deposit systems show the highest level of recovery. For example, the average redemption rate of deposit states is 78 percent, varying from a high of 95 percent in Michigan to a low of 72 percent in Massachusetts. In a regional comparison of all types of recovery programs, the ten deposit states achieved an overall recovery rate of 71.6 percent, while the recovery rate in non-deposit states was 27.9 percent. This result shows that there is a big difference between those two systems. The second highest level of recovery is curbside programs, and the last is drop-off centers. In deposit states, curbside programs collect 9.5 percent of containers generated in

residences and drop-off centers collect 1.6 percent. These rates increase to 18.5 percent and 4.5 percent, respectively, in non-deposit states because more containers are available than in deposit states.

In terms of the cost issue, Okamoto (1991) pointed out that deposit laws are costly especially in that consumers bear economic costs related to the time required to return containers and collect deposits. In addition to the comparison of recovery programs, BEAR (2002) estimated the costs and revenues associated with recovery programs using the value chain assessment, which includes all entities involved in the production, sale and consumption of beverages and in recovering, processing and recycling beverage containers. As the same trend with the recovery activities, deposit systems have the highest gross cost. Curbside programs are the second highest and the lowest cost is drop-off programs. Gross costs for deposit systems are 3.16 cents per container, and net costs including revenue from material sales are 2.21 cents. Despite the high cost, it is pointed out that deposit systems yield the highest quality containers, providing the highest market values. The redemption system in California has the lowest net operating costs because distributors and retailers do not handle containers and redeemed containers are not sorted by brand.

CONCLUSION OF LITERATURE REVIEW

The review of previous studies shows that there are some options for various economic incentives for recycling activities. Given the range and diversity of people's opinions toward recycling and other waste disposal methods, policy makers should seek proper strategies that will enhance the management of MSW issues in their state or

community. The switch in policies and the creation of programs to develop alternative waste management strategies will fundamentally change the way waste is discarded (EPA, 2001). From this point of view, recycling programs should be efficiently designed to collect the majority of available materials generated in the waste stream. Otherwise, recycling goals will not be achieved and large amounts of recyclables will be introduced to landfills or combustion again.

Optimal recycling programs are likely to vary considerably from community to community; thus results from previous studies cannot be generalized to other communities. Therefore, in most cases, the results are regarded as suggestive and compared to the experience of other communities. Despite various limitations, it is necessary that the level of information is improved to assess the effectiveness of recycling programs. This is mainly because recycling is a feasible part of the waste disposal structure for some materials, especially for beverage containers. Furthermore, this effort can provide substantial influence on recycling activity since as the markets for recyclables mature, other materials will be economically feasible to recycle as well. This research will seek to improve the level of information available by an economic analysis method.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the framework of the data set used in the study and then examines the estimation method, hypotheses and regression models developed and used in the study. First, the estimation method of the study is explained. Second, the hypotheses and associated variables are defined. Finally, the regression models are discussed. Several regression models were constructed to determine the significance and importance of variances of interest. In the first part of the regression models, the factors that influence recycling activities are identified. In the second part, the effects of different deposit incentives imposed on packaging are estimated.

RESEARCH DATA

This study focuses on the macro aspects of recent recycling efforts, from 1989 to 2000. According to EPA (2002), recycling activity was not significant before the 1980s and a rapid increase in the infrastructure for recycling started in the late 1980s. In addition, BioCycle started the annual national survey to deal with solid waste management practices at the state level in 1989. Therefore, the given period of time was used for the study. The analysis was carried out at the state level which includes 50 states and the District of Columbia. Each state has a 12 yearly time periods for the independent variables. Therefore, total observations for a variable are 612 since the matrix of data for one variable is 12 by 51. For the analysis of the study, a statistical program called “Stata version 7” was used. There are some missing values in the variables. For the treatment of

the missing values, cells are left empty in the data. Then Stata will automatically deal with the missing values (Hamilton, 2003).

The main data source for waste-related variables such as recycling rate, MSW generation and curbside programs was BioCycle reports titled “The State of Garbage in America.” The annual report compiles waste stream estimates in the United States. The data for MSW per person is calculated using both MSW generation and population data since no direct data on personal waste generation by state is provided. For the curbside programs, the reported number of programs within the state was selected as the variable.

The BioCycle data are useful to this analysis in two ways: First, as the EPA (1995) pointed out, BioCycle’s data covers more waste streams than EPA’s annual update. Second, data are reported by state, including all states in the United States. In the report, the recycling rate includes all materials generated from the municipal solid waste stream. Finally, there are two reasons for using BioCycle’s recycling rate for this study: First, little other recycling data at the state level is available. Second, the effect of various bottle deposit systems can be easily calculated in terms of how they affect the overall recycling activity.

To measure the population and metropolitan area population, data are used from the annual report of the U.S. Department of Commerce (2001) titled “Statistical Abstract of the United States.” As a dummy variable, metropolitan area population is used as a measure of the extent of urbanization. According to the U.S. Department of Commerce, the average value of metropolitan and consolidated metropolitan area population is about 80 percent for the last decade in the United States. Because precise measures of urbanization of each state are not available, the average value of the metropolitan

population is used as a proxy for urbanization. Therefore, if the percentage of the metropolitan area population in a state surpasses the national average, it is noted as 1, otherwise it is zero. Among the 50 states and the District of Columbia, 19 states are higher than the national average. In addition, data for personal income are from the U.S. Department of Commerce (2001) report titled “Survey of Current Business.”

Several categorical variables are used to measure the differences between the deposit states and non-deposit states and between the five cent system and other deposit systems. The dummy variables describe a shift in the y-intercept or constant. In the regression for overall recycling trend, the dummy is named DEP. DEP equals 1 for deposit states and zero in non-deposit states.

In the comparison among three deposit systems, two systems are treated as dummy variables since one of these will be redundant. If all three dummies are included, Stata will automatically drop one because multicollinearity otherwise makes the calculation impossible (Hamilton, 2003). The dummies are named FIVE and REDEEM. FIVE equals 1 in the 5 cent system and zero in all other deposit systems and REDEEM equals 1 for the redemption system and zero otherwise.

All 5 cent deposit systems are not the same in terms of included containers and deposit amounts for liquor. Despite the difference, all 8 states are classified as 5 cent deposit states in most studies. One of the main reasons for this classification might be that separate data for each container type are not available. In the study, it is assumed that all 5 cent deposit states have the same bottle deposit system.

In California, a variety of deposit items were added after 1998 (Appendix A). Although the alteration may cause a structural change in the recycling activity, it cannot

be included in the analysis because of the lack of data. Therefore, it is assumed that the alteration does not influence the regression analysis of the study.

Except for the categorical variables, the data summary for all variables used in the analysis is presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The Summary Statistics of Variables

Variables	Mean ^a	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
RECYCLE ¹	19.18	12.07	0	59
MSWp ²	1.126	0.349	0.42	2.66
POP ³	5131.78	5680.69	454	33872
CURB ⁴	136.15	224.99	0	1500
INCOME ⁵	22183.85	4938.26	11915	40870

Note: 1: percentage

2: tons per person

3: thousands

4: numbers

5: dollars

a: sample mean

THE MODELING METHOD OF ESTIMATION

To estimate the set of equations proposed in the study, panel data are used. Data are formed by the pooling of observations for the 51 states, including the District of Columbia, over 12 time periods. Since panel data consist of both cross-section and time-series data, there are a variety of benefits for evaluation of the effects of economic programs. For instance, panel data allow us to control for each state's heterogeneity and to construct and test more complicated behavioral models than pure cross-section or pure time-series data (Hsiao, 1985; Solon, 1989). In addition, variables can be more accurately measured because data are usually collected on micro levels (Klevmarken, 1989).

To estimate the values of unknown parameters on the basis of observation, the statistical technique of regression analysis will be applied. In the analysis, it is expected that the data follow the statistical properties of ordinary least squares (OLS) estimates under the normality assumption. Before the regression results are accepted as decision criteria, a diagnostic approach will be conducted to validate the regression analysis. When any potential problems, which cause any reason to distrust the regression results, are found in the initial regression analysis, a specialized regression method will be provided to make the regression results valid.

ESTIMATION FOR FACTORS AFFECTING RECYCLING

Hypotheses

Using various socio-economic variables, previous studies have tried to identify the most important factors for recycling activity. Most of them have attempted to find relationships between waste generation and other variables which are assumed to

influence MSW generation. These studies result in determination of a positive or a negative correlation between factors. In most studies, data were from a random survey of either households or officials who are working in the related area. Only a few studies have focused on the relationship between recycling rates and socio-economic variables.

In the study, an economic analysis is conducted to evaluate the correlation between recycling rate and a set of independent variables which were most often used in other studies. For this analysis, data were collected through a variety of economic and statistical reports. Data used in this study present people's reactions to the country's recycling efforts.

The expected causal relationship between recycling rate and a set of explanatory variables is hypothesized as follows. First, the generation of MSW per person has been considered as one of the most important factors for recycling activity in the country because recycling activity is related to personal behavior, especially in packaging bottle recycling. In this study, it is assumed that the recycling rate increases as personal waste generation goes up. Thus, it can be hypothesized that:

H1: The amount of MSW generation per person will have a positive correlation with the recycling rate.

There are generally four kinds of possible relationships between population and waste generation. First, waste generation increases as population goes up. This effect is common and can be seen in most areas. A related relationship is that waste generation decreases as population goes down. Third, as population increases, waste generation decreases. This indicates that some consumer behavior has changed that affects waste generation. This is a favorable situation since one of the main goals of waste-related

policies is to modify consumer behavior. The last case is that as population decreases, waste generation increases. However, these relationships described above can differ when recycling is considered instead of waste generation. In this study, it is assumed that increased consumption by population growth has not increased recycling rates. Therefore, it is assumed that the recycling rate is not related to the population change although waste generation is positively related to population in general. Thus, the second hypothesis states that:

H2: There is no correlation between population and recycling rate.

Income is related to people's purchasing power. In a review of the interaction between income and demand for products, Varian (1993) explained that:

“In general, when income goes up, the demand for a good could increase more or less rapidly than income increases.”

In addition, according to economic theory, population growth will result in consumption of more products since the entire demand curve shifts, causing the equilibrium price and quantity to rise.

This explanation confirms that income can be positively associated with waste generation. Besides, higher-income people are on average more educated than lower-income people and so they can be expected to be more concerned about environmental issues. With these factors considered, it is expected that higher-income people are more likely to recycle than lower-income ones. Thus the third hypothesis states that:

H3: There will be a positive correlation between income and recycling rate.

The design and management of recycling programs is affected by the total number of residents. Although it cannot be said simply that more populous areas produce more

waste than do less populated areas, an increase in density of the resident population will produce rather different recycling outcomes. To indicate the degree of urbanization of each state, population density is used as an independent variable. In this study, the focus is only on highly populated areas.

Urban areas generally rely on standard methods of MSW pickup and disposal. Even though people who live in populated areas know about the recycling programs in their community, they may be less sensitive about recycling because it is easy to neglect in such crowded areas. In addition, Jenkins (1991) explained that greater urbanization leads to a lot of packaging waste because small quantities were purchased frequently due to easy access to retail stores and little storage space. Thus, the fourth hypothesis states that:

H4: Recycling activity will have a negative association with metropolitan areas where population density is generally higher.

As a waste policy, bottle bills target only packaging products, especially beverage bottles. As explained, this mandatory legislation has a very strong effect on the composition of the MSW stream. Including California, currently 10 states have bottle bills and others have different recycling programs. All bottle deposit systems, including the redemption system, are expected to have a positive impact although they have some different characteristics. Because bottle bills are mandatory legislation, they are expected to directly affect the recycling rate. Thus, the fifth hypothesis states that:

H5: There will be a positive association between bottle deposit laws and the recycling rate.

In general, curbside programs are assumed to be less effective than bottle deposit laws since they are not based on a pecuniary motive and most of them are voluntarily operated in many communities. However, as a substitute for bottle deposit laws, curbside programs are found in most states throughout the country, even in bottle bill states. In addition, it is found that this recycling system has also influenced consumer behavior. Thus, the sixth hypothesis states that:

H6: There will be a positive correlation between the recycling rate and availability of curbside programs.

Regression Model

A simple regression model was constructed to determine the significance and importance of variables of interest for recycling activity. The testable regression model can be presented as follows:

$$\text{RECYCLE} = \alpha + \beta_1 \text{MSW}_p + \beta_2 \text{POP} + \beta_3 \text{INCOME} + \beta_4 \text{METRO} + \beta_5 \text{DEP} + \beta_6 \text{CURB} + e \quad (1)$$

where: MSW_p = MSW generation per person (tons per year)

POP = population of each state (thousands)

INCOME = per capita income (dollar per year)

METRO = dummy variable for the metropolitan population areas

DEP = dummy variable for deposit states

CURB = the number of curbside programs

e = residual

The first independent variable tests the impact of each person's MSW generations. The second variable examines the effect of population differences. The third variable tests the impact of personal income. The fourth variable evaluates the effect of urbanization; it is 1 if a state has more than 80 percent urbanization on average and zero otherwise. The fifth variable examines the effect of implementing bottle deposit laws; it equals 1 if a state has bottle bill laws and zero otherwise. The last variable tests the impact of curbside programs.

ESTIMATION FOR FACTORS AFFECTING RECYCLING RATE IN THE BOTTLE REFUND STATES

Hypothesis

A variety of economic instruments, including variable fees and taxes, have been applied in waste-related policies. To achieve an efficient solution by allowing consumer discretion, various incentives have been introduced. The typical instruments are bottle deposit laws and curbside programs in the packaging sector. In terms of economic measures, the relationships between these two variables are defined in the previous part of the study. In this analysis, in contrast, bottle refund states will be the focus to measure the effect of different refund rates for recycling. Therefore, only data for the 10 bottle refund states will be used for the study.

As described before, currently three deposit rates are used in 10 states: 5 cents, 10 cents and redemption (2.5 cents). Due to the different refund rates, the effect of the refund systems for recycling can be different even though all bottle refund systems are mandatory. From an economic point of view, it is expected that a high deposit rate is

more effective than a low rate because it can induce more consumers to follow the bottle legislation. Therefore, it is assumed that among the three refund systems, the 10 cent refund system is more effective than other refund systems.

To verify the impact, a regression analysis will be applied. In the model, the 5 cent system will be set as a target variable. Since currently many states adopt the 5 cent refund rate, it will be tested as a common method for recycling. Other refund systems are used for the control variable to explain the regression model. Thus, it can be hypothesized that:

H7: The correlation rate with the recycling rate in the 5 cent deposit system will be less than the recycling rate in the 10 cent refund system.

Regression Model

A multiple regression model will be introduced to test hypotheses concerning recycling variation in the 5 cent refund states. Most of the independent variables have been examined and established as important determinants of recycling activity in previous studies. Even though the 5 cent deposit rate is widely accepted as one of the primary deposit systems, the recycling effect of this level has not been extensively examined. By introducing dummy variables, the regression model is expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RECYCLE} = & \alpha + \beta_1 \text{MSW}_p + \beta_2 \text{CURB} + \beta_3 \text{FIVE} + \beta_4 \text{POP} + \beta_5 \text{INCOME} \\ & + \beta_6 \text{METRO} + \beta_7 \text{REDEEM} + e \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

where MSW_p = MSW generation per person (tons)

CURB = the number of curbside programs

FIVE = dummy variable for 5 cent refund states

POP = population (thousands)

INCOME = per capita income (dollar per year)

METRO = dummy variable for the metropolitan population areas

REDEEM = dummy variable for the redemption state

e = residual

The third variable is 1 if the states have the given deposit rate and zero otherwise.

The null hypothesis ($\beta_3 = 0$) implies that the 5 cent deposit system is not significantly different from the 10 cent refund system. Other independent variables are used as control variables and they have the same conditions applied in the first regression (Equation 1). If some of the independent variables become invalid determinants, another regression method will be employed to provide a statistically significant regression analysis.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the results of the research. Each section discusses the empirical analyses that assess the variable characteristics. In each regression analysis, diagnostics will be conducted for model validation. This discussion is followed by a summary of the research findings.

RESULTS OF ANALYSIS

Estimation for Factors Affecting Recycling

A multiple regression model was used in order to test factors that are related to the recycling rate. Empirical results of the regression analysis are reported in Table 5. The proposed regression model explains about 50 percent of the variation in the recycling rate of 51 states. The variables POP and METRO have a negative relationship to the recycling rate while others are positive. In addition, the variables POP and INCOME have an extremely low effect on the dependent variable. Diagnostics will be conducted to verify the result in terms of statistical properties before this result is considered as the final regression model.

Table 6 is the matrix of correlations between variables. This matrix is used to check for the evidence of collinearity between the independent variables. In general, high correlations between pairs of variables indicate possible collinearity problems. The variables CURB and POP are the only pair in which correlation is over 50 percent.

Table 5. Test of the Factors of Recycling Rate

Independent Variables	β Coef.	t	P> t
MSWp	8.8152 (1.1518)	7.65	0.000
POP	-0.0002 (0.0001)	-2.49	0.013
INCOME	0.0010 (0.0001)	11.45	0.000
METRO	-2.9390 (0.9431)	-3.12	0.002
DEP	3.6400 (0.9298)	3.91	0.000
CURB	0.0183 (0.0020)	8.91	0.000
CONSTANT	-14.6054 (1.9467)	-7.50	0.000
R ²		0.50	
F		93.87	

Note: parentheses are standard errors

significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

Prob > F = 0.0000

obs. = 579

Table 6. Estimated Correlation Matrix of Variables

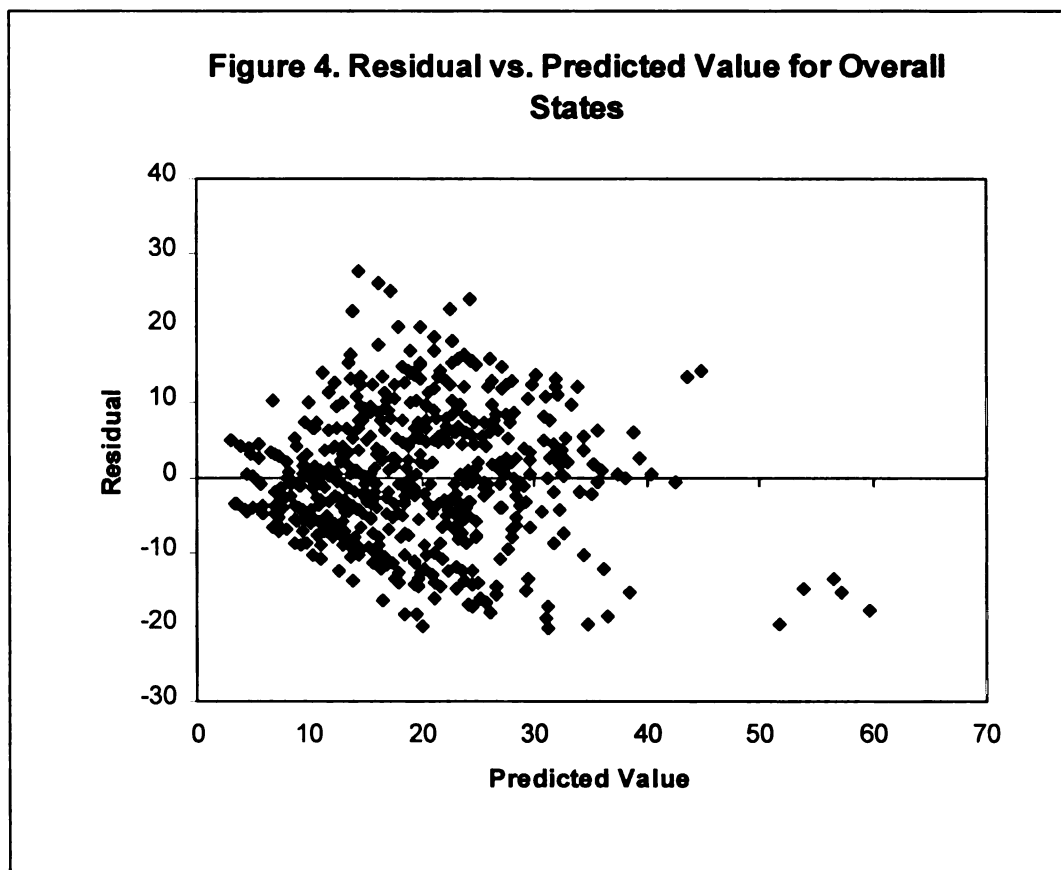
	MSWp	POP	INCOME	METRO	DEP	CURB
MSWp	1.0000					
POP	0.3367	1.0000				
INCOME	0.2789	0.1950	1.0000			
METRO	0.2166	0.4934	0.4555	1.0000		
DEP	0.1326	0.2191	0.2234	0.2239	1.0000	
CURB	0.1292	0.5382	0.3957	0.2913	0.2052	1.0000

High correlation of over 40 percent is presented in the pair of variables METRO and POP and the pair of variables METRO and INCOME.

The correlations imply that the variable POP or METRO might not be a suitable parameter for the regression model. Because in most cases the independent variables are correlated with each other, removing a particular variable from the model will alter the estimated regression coefficients of the remaining variables. Therefore, a stepwise regression, which has been widely used for providing ways to automate the process of model selection, is applied to choose any variable to eliminate. The result of the stepwise regression indicates that no variable should be dropped from the model (Appendix B), thus it is decided that all proposed independent variables will be used for the analysis.

In using cross-sectional data, homoscedasticity or equal variance is one of the most important assumptions since it implies that all independent variables are equally important. To detect heteroscedasticity or unequal variance, the estimated residuals are

plotted against the estimated recycling rate from the regression line (Figure 4). The scattergram shows that the variance of the error term has a systematic pattern. In particular, the estimated recycling rate has a linear association on the lower part of the graph, suggesting a symptom of unequal variance in the data.



Due to the systematic pattern between the variables, the Breusch-Pagan test was also used to confirm whether the presence of the unequal variance was significant (Table 7). The observed chi-square value of 20.85 is significant at the 5% level of significance because it exceeds the critical chi-square value of 3.84 from the chi-square table. Because this result confirms that there is unequal variance in the regression, the data should be transformed in such a manner that in the regression the variance of the residual is equally spread.

Table 7. Breusch-Pagan Test for Overall Recycling Rate

H ₀ : Constant variance			
Chi2(1)	=	20.85	
Prob > chi2	=	0.0000	

The method of generalized least squares (GLS) is applied in the transforming method. GLS is a special case of OLS on the transformed variables that satisfy the general assumptions of the classical model. The difference between GLS and OLS is that equal weight or importance to each observation is assigned in GLS by making the error term a constant (Gujarati, 1995). To use GLS, the method of theoretical change will be introduced from OLS to GLS.

In general, the two-variable model is described as follows:

$$Y_i = \alpha X_{0i} + \beta X_{1i} + e_i \quad (3)$$

where Y_i is the dependent variable, X_{0i} is the explanatory variable for each i , α is the intercept, β is the slope coefficient and e_i is the error term. When the original variables are divided by the variance, Equation 3 can be written as

$$Y_i^* = \alpha^* X_{0i}^* + \beta^* X_{1i}^* + e_i^* \quad (4)$$

where transformed variables are marked by asterisks. Equation 4 indicates that the variance of the error term is homoscedastic or equal variance. Therefore, the estimated β^* is now the unbiased estimator, providing true values.

Because the data used in the study combine all cross-section and time-series units, finally the two-variable model would be:

$$Y_{it} = \alpha + \beta X_{it} + e_{it} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{for } i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N \\ t = 1, 2, 3, \dots, T \end{matrix} \quad (5)$$

where N is the number of cross-section units and T is the number of time periods. With one large pooled data set, the regression is run with NT observations.

The GLS result is presented in Table 8. All values are somewhat changed, compared to the OLS result in Table 5. The p value of the variable METRO is significant at the 0.021 percent level while others are significant at the 0.0001 percent level. The result indicates that the values of the t -statistic lie in the critical region, thus the test statistic is statistically significant.

The first independent variable MSWp tests the effect of the MSW generation per person on recycling rate. The hypothesis, that a positive association exists between the two variables, can be accepted. The estimated parameter of 8.77 indicates that this variable significantly affects the recycling rate among the other independent variables.

Table 8. The Result of GLS Regression for Overall Recycling Rate

Independent Variables	β Coef.	z	P> z
MSWp	8.7745 (1.1725)	7.48	0.000
POP	-0.0003 (0.0001)	-3.53	0.000
INCOME	0.0010 (0.0001)	10.91	0.000
METRO	-2.0891 (0.9025)	-2.31	0.021
DEP	3.8304 (0.8884)	4.31	0.000
CURB	0.0207 (0.0021)	9.78	0.000
CONSTANT	-14.4344 (1.8764)	-7.69	0.000

Note: parentheses are standard errors

significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

z is a transformed t value

P> | z | is a p value for z

obs. = 579

The coefficient value 8.77 implies that by holding other variables constant the recycling rate on average increased by 8.77 percent for every one percent point increase in the MSW generation of each person over the period 1989-2000.

The second independent variable POP tests the effect of the population change. The hypothesis presuming no relationship between population and recycling rate can be accepted. The association of the two variables suggests that population growth will have no effect for recycling over the country but its impact will not be practical significance.

The third independent variable INCOME tests the effects of per capital income on recycling rate. The hypothesis stating a positive association between the two variables can be accepted. However, a 1 percent increase in income causes the recycling rate to increase on average by only 0.001 percent. This result indicates that income is not a significant variable for recycling.

As a dummy variable, the fourth independent variable METRO tests the effect of population density on overall recycling rate. The hypothesis proposing a negative effect can be accepted. This result shows that recycling is less effective in highly urbanized areas.

The fifth and sixth variables DEP and CURB test the effect of different recycling systems. The hypotheses of positive recycling rate can be accepted for both variables. The coefficient of bottle deposit laws is 3.34 and the curbside collection is 0.02. This result suggests that the bottle deposit system is more significant than curbside programs for recycling.

Estimation for Factors Affecting Recycling Rate in the Bottle Refund States

To compare the difference among the three deposit systems, a multiple regression was conducted (Table 9). The regression result shows that the proposed model explains about 61 percent of the variation in the recycling rate. Most variables have a positive association with the recycling rate except for the variables POP and METRO. The variables CURB, POP and REDEEM have relatively higher p values. In addition, the correlation between the independent variables shows that the variables POP and REDEEM are associated over 50 percent with some other variables (Appendix).

The results indicate that it should be decided whether any variable is not necessary for the regression model. The stepwise regression, therefore, is applied to detect unnecessary variables in the model (Table 10). The result reveals that the independent variable POP should be removed from the model. The stepwise regression shows that the p value of the target variable FIVE is reduced to become statistically more significant. However, the variables CURB and REDEEM still have somewhat higher p values. These values are control variables, thus they will be kept in the model unless regression diagnostics show they are not necessary.

Except for the variable METRO, the signs of the independent variables are positive. The variable MSWp is the major factor with the parameter coefficient of 18.3 while the variables CURB and INCOME have extremely small effects on the dependent variable. This trend is the same as shown in the first regression for overall recycling rate.

Table 9. The Result of Regression for the Deposit States

Independent Variables	β Coef.	t	P> t
MSWp	18.3131 (2.3158)	7.91	0.000
CURB	0.0033 (0.0033)	0.99	0.324
FIVE	6.4261 (2.6139)	2.46	0.016
POP	-0.0000 (0.0002)	-0.13	0.894
INCOME	0.0011 (0.0002)	6.36	0.000
METRO	-13.8337 (2.1680)	-6.38	0.000
REDEEM	2.5002 (5.2269)	0.48	0.633
CONSTANT	-21.3088 (4.5363)	-4.70	0.000
	R ²	0.61	
	F	24.94	

Note: parentheses are standard errors
significant at $\alpha = 0.05$
Prob > F = 0.0000
obs. = 119

Table 10. The Result of Stepwise Regression for the Deposit States

Independent Variables	β Coef.	t	P> t
MSWp	18.2993 (2.3033)	7.94	0.000
CURB	0.0030 (0.0023)	1.27	0.207
FIVE	6.5071 (2.5318)	2.57	0.011
INCOME	0.0011 (0.0002)	6.59	0.000
METRO	-13.9782 (1.8724)	-7.47	0.000
REDEEM	1.9236 (2.9517)	0.65	0.516
CONSTANT	-21.4957 (4.2975)	-5.00	0.000
	R ²	0.61	
	F	29.35	

Note: parentheses are standard errors

significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

Prob > F = 0.0000

obs. = 119

Before the stepwise regression is accepted as a final model, diagnostics are done for the stepwise regression to verify the statistical validity. First, the variance inflation factor (VIF) for each of the independent variables is calculated (Table 11). According to the “rule of thumb” given by Chatterjee and Price (1991), there is no strong evidence of multicollinearity since VIF values are smaller than 10 and the mean VIF is not considerably larger than 1.

To detect unequal variance, the estimated residuals are drawn against the estimated dependent variable in Figure 5. The graph shows that the pattern of the residuals is random. No systematic pattern between the two variables suggests that unequal variance is not present in the data. In addition, the Breusch-Pagan Test (Table12) confirms that the observed chi-square value of 2.49 does not exceed the critical value of 3.84 at the 5 percent level. The tests indicate that there is no evidence of significant unequal variance.

Table 11. VIF Test for Bottle Refund Regression

Variable	VIF	1/VIF
FIVE	2.44	0.4094
METRO	2.00	0.5007
REDEEM	1.87	0.5348
INCOME	1.84	0.5436
MSWp	1.58	0.6334
CURB	1.24	0.8034
Mean VIF	1.83	

Figure 5. Residual vs. Predicted Value for Deposit States

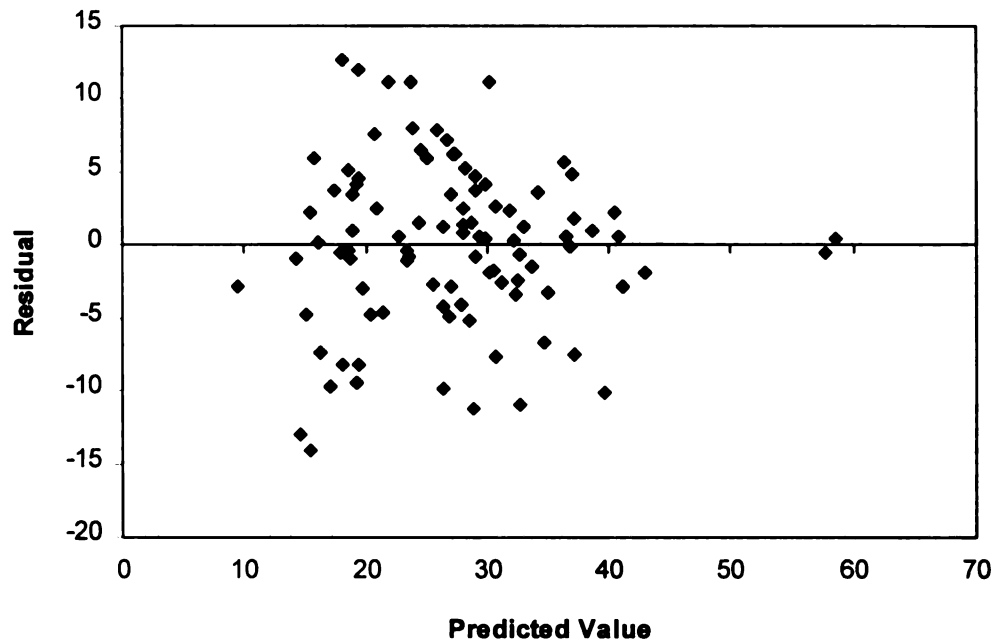


Table 12. Breusch-Pagan Test for Bottle Refund System

H ₀ : Constant variance		
Chi2(1)	=	2.49
Prob > chi2	=	0.1148

In the comparison of the three deposit systems, the 10 cent refund rate is treated as zero. The coefficient of the variable FIVE is 6.5 and it is 1.9 for the variable REDEEM. Since dummy variables are used to account for qualitative factors, this result says that there is a very high correlation between the 5 cent refund system and recycling activity which is about 6 times more association than with the 10 cent deposit system. The next correlation is found in redemption which shows about 2 times more association than the 10 cent system. Thus, the hypothesis of more effectiveness of the 10 cent refund system cannot be verified. This is presumably because the proposed independent variables may be insufficient to prove the effectiveness of the 10 cent deposit system.

SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH RESULTS

The results of various analysis presented in this chapter generally supported most research hypotheses, in spite of minor exceptions. Among the independent variables, it was confirmed that the variable MSWp was the primary factor for recycling while the variable METRO affected most negatively. Although expected hypotheses were mostly confirmed in the variables POP and INCOME, the values of these parameter estimates were turned out to be insignificant. In particular, the variable POP was deleted in the regression model for deposit states. Only the assumption of difference between the bottle

deposit systems was not confirmed by the regression model. Table 13 shows the major research hypotheses and results.

Table 13. Summary of the Research Results

Subject	Hypothesis	Result
MSW Generation Per Person	Positive	Confirmed
Population	No Effect	Mostly Confirmed
Income	Positive	Mostly Confirmed
Urbanization	Negative	Confirmed
Bottle Deposit Laws	Positive	Confirmed
Curbside Programs	Positive	Confirmed
5 Cent System	Less Correlation	Not Confirmed

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the contribution of the research. First, implications of the study's findings are discussed. The discussions and limitations of the study will be presented and the recommendations for future research will then be discussed.

CONCLUSIONS

Recycling has been developed as a major technology for taking care of the nation's waste. Every state of the United States has maintained various recycling programs to deal with the MSW generation. For instance, anti-littering and recycling laws, beverage industry recycling programs, Keep America Beautiful systems and other recycling programs are used in the 41 non-deposit states (FDL, 1989). In this study, the recycling rate was explained by several socio-economic factors. As major recycling programs, curbside collections and bottle refund laws were compared.

Multiple regression analysis identified a significant association between the recycling rate and the MSW generation per person. The relationship indicates that the waste generation of an individual is the major factor for recycling. In particular, the coefficient of the variable MSWp is much larger in the regression for bottle refund states than in the regression for the overall states. From the finding, it can be assumed that people living with a bottle refund system participate in recycle activities more than those who live with other recycling systems.

In determining the recycling rate, demographic variables such as population and metropolitan area population were negatively associated with recycling efforts. In particular, the negative correlation between the recycling rate and urbanization was higher in the 10 bottle refund states. As previous studies have shown, the finding suggests that an increase in population or the total number of residents may cause more waste but it cannot guarantee the participation of people in recycling programs. Therefore, it is concluded that recycling effectiveness may not be increased by these demographic variables.

As an economic variable, the effect of income turned out to be extremely small in both regression models. The finding indicates that people of high income tend to recycle somewhat more than those with less income, but there is no practical significance. The result concerning income is consistent with some of the previous studies in the literature.

Recycling in the packaging sector has become a major component of MSW management plans because packaging is directly implicated in two outcomes: litter and solid waste. Due to this nature, packaging materials are frequently criticized as being a main source of solid waste. In addition, many products are designed to be easily thrown away for convenience of customers in these days. To minimize the environmental impact of packaging and reduce waste generation, reducing MSW often means reducing packaging materials. From this perspective, mandatory deposit legislation (or beverage container deposit laws) has been adopted in nine states and California has used a redemption system.

In the comparison of different deposit rates, it was confirmed that the three bottle refunds have different effects on recycling. To distinguish the possible difference

between the three refund systems, they were separated by two categories, such as 5 cent and redemption system. The coefficient of the 5 cent system is significantly higher than other refund systems. The finding shows that the 5 cent refund system is a more effective method for recycling because of the higher correlation with recycling rate, compared to other deposit systems.

An interesting result, however, is the finding that redemption is the second most effective method although it is the lowest refund rate at 2.5 cent, staying in between the 10 cent and 5 cent refund systems. Recall that California covers more items for deposit than any other state. Thus, one of the possible reasons for the finding is that redemption covers a wider range of containers. However, more descriptive variables that could offer an explanation are needed to verify this finding.

The examination of recycling methods revealed that bottle deposit laws are one of the significant determinants for recycling. In addition, as mentioned, containers collected through deposit systems have high quality, yielding the highest market value, compared to other recycling systems. Therefore, the relative effectiveness of deposit systems will also increase recycling rates for the covered containers. On the contrary, curbside systems prove to be less significant as correlates of recycling efforts. This finding suggests that current bottle deposit systems contribute significantly to recycling activities more than any other recycling methods.

As a result, several factors should be noted: First, an individual's behavior is the primary variable in determining recycling success. Second, bottle refund systems positively affect the individual's recycling activity which can lead people to recycle in the long run. Three, a wider range of deposit items can lead people to recycle more than

an increased monetary valuation on the deposit containers. Four, beverage container deposit laws imposed on the packaging sector turned out to be significantly effective for recycling. Last, as a leading recycling method in the country, the bottle deposit system is more effective than curbside programs.

This study examined the recycling activities in the country focused on the bottle collection methods. The result provides how the recycling rate is affected by various variables and what the difference is between the two bottle deposit methods, mandatory bottle deposit systems and curbside programs. The results can be used for setting a bottle recycling method and they are also used as basic information for waste management approaches.

DISCUSSIONS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

According to BEAR (2002), the redemption rate of recyclable containers in 1998 was 94 percent in Michigan (in 1999), 80 percent on average in 5 cent states and 69 percent in California. This report supports the assumption proposed by the study, which the 10 cent system is highly associated with recycling rate compared to the 5 cent system. However, the difference between the 5 cent and 10 cent system was not confirmed by the proposed regression model. Instead, this study found the opposite result as the 5 cent had a higher correlation with recycling rate.

This result can be explained as follows: First, the different state numbers in bottle deposit systems cause an unexpected influence to the model. As described, only Michigan has the 10 cent rate and California has the redemption system, while the other 8 states have 5 cent systems. If the shortcoming is resolved, the result can be more

acceptable with common knowledge. Second, people in Michigan recycle more of the recyclable bottles but they recycle the total materials at a lower rate than is expected for a deposit state. Therefore, the finding is that additional factors have to be considered in the recycling study. Some factors influencing the lower overall recycling rate might be relatively low landfill costs, lack of government support for recycling programs, a higher reliance on voluntary rather than mandatory curbside programs, and less education and publicity about recycling.

In an empirical study, the analysis is directly subject to the limitations of the data. In particular, the accuracy and precision of data are the most important sources to measure parameter estimation. Therefore, a number of sources can enter into the regression model with uncertainty and error. In the study, one source of a possible error is an inaccuracy in the data for curbside programs and recycling rate. There are some inconsistent measures, and some data are under-reported.

The next possible source of error is that the included variables may be inadequate. For instance, the finding that curbside programs were not as significant as deposit does not necessarily mean that the variable is not a contributor to overall recycling activity. This error can be minimized if the proper measure is used the model because it precisely reflects the contribution of a variable.

A better predictive model would require adding other variables that are significant contributors to recycling. As data for recycling becomes available in future years, the model can be re-examined to reflect the recent recycling activities.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

As an empirical study, this research is an initial attempt to examine some of the causal factors that determine recycling efforts. It focused on several relevant parameters that impact waste generation and collection. Future research can continue evaluations of the recycling-based paradigm and develop the recycling model.

To deal with variability in recycling activities, follow-up research is recommended in these areas:

1. Conduct supplemental analysis for the three deposit systems to assess the recycling effect of these systems to verify which system is most effective.
2. Examine the effect of mandatory deposit systems by comparison between deposit states and non-deposit states.
3. Separate recycling rates by container type to include aluminum, glass, PET, HDPE and other.
4. Assess factors which affect costs and revenue in operating recycling programs.
5. Develop models for assessing the effect of energy savings and litter reduction as substantial benefits from implementation of various recycling systems.
6. Expand the recycling models to include drop-off systems, non-residential programs and buy-back centers.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Table A-1 Summary of Deposit Containers

State	Containers	Deposit Rate
California	soft drinks, beer, carbonated water, non-carbonated water and soda*, wine and distilled spirit coolers*, fruit drinks*, coffee and tea drinks*	2.5 cents < 24 oz 5.0 cents ≥ 24 oz
Connecticut	soft drinks, beer, malt, mineral water	5.0 cents
Delaware	soft drinks, beer, ale, malt, mineral and soda water, Aluminum cans exempt from deposit.	5.0 cents
Iowa	soft drinks, beer, soda and mineral water, wine, liquor, wine coolers	5.0 cents
Maine	soft drinks, beer, water, mineral water, wine, liquor, non-alcoholic carbonated and non-carbonated drinks	5.0 cents 15 cents wine and liquor
Massachusetts	soft drinks, beer, carbonated water	5.0 cents
Michigan	soft drinks, beer, carbonated water, mineral water, wine coolers, canned cocktails	10 cents
New York	soft drinks, beer, malt, mineral water, soda wine, wine coolers	5.0 cents
Oregon	soft drinks, beer, malt, mineral and soda water	5.0 cents
Vermont	soft drinks, beer, malt, soda water, mixed wine drinks, liquor	5.0 cents 15 cents liquor

Note: * added after 1998

Source: BEAR, 2002

APPENDIX B

Table B-1 Result of Stepwise Regression for Overall Recycling

Independent Variables	β Coef.	t	P> t
MSWp	8.8152 (1.1517)	7.65	0.000
POP	-0.0002 (0.0001)	-2.49	0.013
INCOME	0.0010 (0.0001)	11.45	0.000
METRO	-2.9390 (0.9431)	-3.12	0.002
DEP	3.6400 (0.9298)	3.91	0.000
CURB	0.0183 (0.0020)	8.91	0.000
CONSTANT	-14.6054 (1.9467)	-7.50	0.000
	R^2	0.50	
	F	93.87	

Note: parentheses are standard errors

significant at $\alpha = 0.05$

Prob > F = 0.0000

obs = 579

Table B-2 Estimated Correlation Matrix of Variables for Deposit Systems

	MSW _p	CURB	FIVE	POP	INCOME	METRO	REDEEM
MSW _p	1.0000						
CURB	0.2944	1.0000					
FIVE	-0.4441	-0.1245	1.0000				
POP	0.4610	0.5203	-0.6893	1.0000			
INCOME	0.3354	0.3512	0.0525	0.1679	1.0000		
METRO	0.4914	0.1969	-0.4133	0.4962	0.5289	1.0000	
REDEEM	0.3207	0.2244	-0.6663	0.8480	0.0180	0.2754	1.0000

APPENDIX C

Table C-1 Data for the Variable MSWp

STATE	MSW GENERATION per person (tons)											
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Alabama	1.09	1.09	1.10	1.26	1.25	1.25	1.26	1.27	1.28	1.29	1.31	1.01
Alaska	0.82	0.93	0.88	0.85	0.84	0.83	0.83	0.83	0.92	1.10	1.09	1.09
Arizona	0.86	0.85	0.77	1.07	0.90	1.01	1.04	1.10	1.25	1.10	1.09	1.12
Arkansas	0.77	0.85	0.84	0.90	0.89	0.88	0.87	0.93	1.70	1.31	1.59	0.77
California	1.51	1.68	1.48	1.44	1.43	1.44	1.40	1.39	1.40	1.71	1.81	1.95
Colorado	0.61	0.61	0.71	1.01	1.24	0.77	0.80	0.74	0.79	1.28	1.59	1.52
Connecticut	0.88	0.88	0.88	0.89	0.70	0.89	0.93	0.90	0.90	0.93	0.97	0.95
Delaware	0.91	1.31	1.10	1.14	1.50	1.55	1.67	1.36	1.62	1.11	2.66	2.63
Dist. of Columbia	1.19	1.24	1.37	1.57	1.59	1.59	0.46	0.44	0.46	0.48	0.42	0.87
Florida	1.27	1.41	1.41	1.44	1.41	1.69	1.71	1.69	1.61	1.59	1.65	1.55
Georgia	0.69	0.68	0.66	0.89	1.15	1.21	1.18	1.35	1.96	1.41	1.47	1.25
Hawaii	0.91	1.08	1.15	1.13	1.72	1.70	1.69	1.79	1.78	1.63	1.59	1.55
Idaho	0.75	0.84	0.82	0.80	0.81	0.78	0.76	0.75	0.73	0.80	0.63	0.84
Illinois	1.31	1.15	1.27	1.22	1.26	1.27	1.20	1.12	1.12	1.10	1.11	1.22
Indiana	0.81	0.99	1.02	1.49	0.77	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.22	1.00	1.14	2.23
Iowa	0.83	0.83	0.82	0.74	0.81	0.97	1.11	1.14	1.21	0.88	1.22	0.98
Kansas	0.65	0.65	0.96	0.95	1.08	1.37	1.36	1.64	1.63	0.91	1.13	1.12
Kentucky	1.25	1.25	0.94	1.24	0.85	0.98	0.95	0.92	1.13	1.61	1.03	1.08
Louisiana	0.82	0.83	0.83	0.82	0.81	0.77	1.13	1.08	0.89	0.94	1.10	0.75
Maine	0.74	0.75	0.77	1.01	1.01	1.05	1.05	1.04	1.08	1.31	1.30	1.33
Maryland	1.52	1.51	1.05	1.02	1.01	1.04	1.05	1.01	1.05	1.11	1.16	1.18
Massachusetts	1.10	1.66	1.13	1.10	1.12	1.12	1.16	1.18	1.17	1.20	1.32	1.28
Michigan	1.26	1.26	1.25	1.37	1.42	1.43	1.40	1.39	1.38	1.99	1.98	1.88

Table C-1 Data for the Variable MSWp, Continued

Minnesota	0.92	0.96	0.99	0.95	0.97	1.01	1.04	0.99	1.02	1.06	1.14	1.15
Mississippi	0.70	0.70	0.54	0.54	0.68	0.83	0.89	0.89	0.86	1.12	0.82	1.55
Missouri	1.00	1.17	1.45	1.44	1.43	1.06	1.41	1.43	1.46	1.46	1.75	1.84
Montana	0.75	0.75	0.74	0.91	0.89	0.92	0.85	1.03	1.18	1.14	1.23	0.84
Nebraska	0.70	0.70	0.82	0.87	0.81	1.02	1.04	1.21	1.21	1.20	1.09	1.08
Nevada	0.88	0.83	0.78	1.73	1.66	1.66	1.68	2.04	2.36	1.60	1.74	1.68
New Hampshire	0.90	0.90	0.99	1.02	0.99	0.91	0.92	1.07	1.02	0.74	1.07	0.86
New Jersey	1.23	1.81	0.91	0.96	0.93	0.93	1.07	1.16	1.02	0.96	0.96	1.09
New Mexico	0.66	0.79	0.97	0.94	0.95	1.14	1.17	0.82	0.81	1.52	1.70	1.88
New York	1.11	1.22	1.22	1.26	1.39	1.40	1.41	1.48	1.59	1.66	1.63	1.64
North Carolina	0.91	0.90	0.89	1.14	0.99	1.10	1.39	1.36	1.32	1.67	1.70	1.68
North Dakota	0.70	0.70	0.63	0.73	0.78	0.78	0.78	0.78	0.80	0.79	0.79	0.89
Ohio	1.28	1.29	1.44	1.49	1.58	2.03	2.18	1.02	1.10	1.10	1.07	1.26
Oklahoma	0.86	1.14	0.95	0.94	0.90	0.77	0.76	0.76	0.75	1.06	1.06	1.10
Oregon	0.84	0.77	1.13	1.13	1.02	1.05	1.09	1.13	1.18	1.25	1.33	1.33
Pennsylvania	0.78	0.77	0.80	0.75	0.79	0.79	0.75	0.80	0.79	0.77	0.82	0.95
Rhode Island	1.00	1.00	1.20	1.20	1.20	1.07	1.11	0.49	0.48	0.43	0.42	1.49
South Carolina	1.13	0.72	1.12	1.39	1.57	1.39	1.88	2.11	2.21	2.61	2.42	1.12
South Dakota	1.08	0.72	1.13	1.12	1.16	1.15	1.14	1.14	0.69	0.69	0.70	0.68
Tennessee	0.80	1.11	1.01	1.16	1.08	1.16	1.15	1.72	1.77	1.75	1.68	0.91
Texas	1.06	1.06	1.04	0.82	1.36	1.36	1.18	1.15	1.12	1.71	1.70	2.15
Utah	0.64	0.64	0.68	0.82	1.04	1.03	1.47	1.48	1.82	1.66	1.11	1.09
Vermont	0.59	0.62	0.69	0.96	1.22	1.21	1.03	1.02	1.02	0.93	0.62	0.95
Virginia	1.47	1.45	1.43	1.19	1.18	1.22	1.31	1.30	1.34	1.47	1.18	1.51
Washington	1.10	1.15	1.02	1.11	1.16	1.22	1.30	1.20	1.16	1.15	1.15	1.20
West Virginia	1.38	0.95	0.95	0.94	0.94	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.10	0.72	0.83
Wisconsin	0.74	1.43	0.69	0.67	0.99	1.07	1.06	1.05	0.70	1.07	0.76	0.69
Wyoming	1.20	0.66	0.70	0.69	0.68	1.06	1.11	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.10	1.15

Note: Values made from the division of the data of MSW and POP

Table C-2 Data for MSW Generation

STATE	MSW GENERATION (1000 tons)											
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Alabama	4400	4400	4500	5200	5230	5310	5392	5471	5549	5630	5710	4500
Alaska	450	511	500	500	500	500	500	500	560	675	675	686
Arizona	3100	3100	2900	4147	3600	4200	4500	4886	5700	5142	5187	5750
Arkansas	1800	2000	2000	2154	2154	2154	2154	2154	4287	3316	4063	2056
California	44000	50000	45000	44535	44513	45000	44000	44000	45000	56000	60000	66100
Colorado	2000	2000	2400	3500	4400	2800	3000	2811	3084	5085	6455	6535
Connecticut	2900	2900	2900	2900	2301	2905	3041	2951	2950	3047	3168	3234
Delaware	600	875	750	790	1050	1100	1200	987	1189	825	2000	2065
Dist. of Columbia	740	755	815	919	919	900	256	237	246	250	220	500
Florida	16000	18300	18700	19400	19400	23561	24312	24312	23617	23770	24858	24800
Georgia	4400	4400	4400	6000	7900	8500	8500	9872	14645	10745	11420	10236
Hawaii	1000	1200	1300	1300	2000	2000	2000	2130	2125	1950	1884	1884
Idaho	750	850	850	850	886	886	886	886	886	987	794	1086
Illinois	15000	13100	14600	14140	14716	15000	14219	13400	13386	13300	13515	15102
Indiana	4500	5500	5700	8400	4400	5600	5800	5800	7171	5876	6798	13571
Iowa	2300	2300	2300	2088	2280	2744	3163	3237	3462	2518	3500	2866
Kansas	1600	1600	2400	2400	2747	3500	3500	4250	4250	2380	3000	3000
Kentucky	4600	4600	3500	4650	3221	3750	3662	3580	4418	6320	4077	4376
Louisiana	3500	3500	3500	3484	3484	3323	4875	4700	3894	4100	4800	3361
Maine	900	922	950	1246	1246	1293	1293	1293	1339	1635	1635	1696
Maryland	7200	7200	5100	5000	5000	5200	5290	5124	5329	5700	6000	6268
Massachusetts	6600	10000	6800	6800	6750	6750	7050	7160	7160	7360	8142	8141
Michigan	11700	11700	11700	13000	13500	13700	13500	13500	13500	19500	19500	18717
Minnesota	4000	4200	4400	4270	4400	4600	4800	4600	4780	5010	5445	5634
Mississippi	1800	1800	1400	1400	1800	2200	2400	2400	2360	3070	2264	4400
Missouri	5100	6000	7500	7500	7500	5600	7500	7661	7896	7950	9560	10288

Table C-2 Data for MSW Generation, Continued

Montana	600	600	600	744	744	790	737	900	1039	1001	1082	757
Nebraska	1100	1100	1300	1400	1300	1650	1700	2000	2000	2000	1820	1848
Nevada	1000	1000	1000	2300	2300	2420	2566	3267	3955	2800	3153	3356
New Hampshire	1000	1000	1100	1138	1109	1032	1050	1245	1200	880	1284	1068
New Jersey	9500	14000	7100	7513	7300	7400	8500	9320	8200	7800	7800	9200
New Mexico	1000	1200	1500	1487	1542	1880	1966	1396	1400	2640	2966	3418
New York	20000	22000	22000	22800	25200	25400	25500	26800	28800	30200	29650	31100
North Carolina	6000	6000	6000	7788	6891	7754	10000	9929	9843	12575	13000	13500
North Dakota	450	450	400	466	500	500	500	502	510	501	498	573
Ohio	13900	14000	15700	16400	17471	22543	24304	11449	12339	12335	12015	14335
Oklahoma	2700	3600	3000	3000	2900	2500	2500	2500	2500	3545	3545	3787
Oregon	2350	2200	3300	3350	3103	3255	3437	3624	3836	4100	4415	4544
Pennsylvania	9200	9200	9500	8984	9500	9500	9000	9575	9440	9200	9800	11620
Rhode Island	1000	1000	1200	1200	1200	1062	1100	484	477	420	421	1561
South Carolina	3900	2500	4000	5000	5700	5100	6963	7897	8361	10010	9409	4483
South Dakota	750	500	800	800	842	840	840	842	510	510	514	514
Tennessee	3900	5400	5000	5800	5500	6000	6000	9117	9496	9513	9213	5200
Texas	17800	18000	18000	14469	24504	25026	22038	21859	21738	33750	34023	44791
Utah	1100	1100	1200	1500	1947	2000	2926	2996	3760	3490	2362	2433
Vermont	330	350	390	550	700	700	600	600	600	550	367	578
Virginia	9000	9000	9000	7600	7600	8000	8648	8649	9000	10000	8136	10861
Washington	5200	5600	5100	5708	6096	6513	7078	6643	6527	6540	6638	7072
West Virginia	2500	1700	1700	1700	1700	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	1300	1500
Wisconsin	3600	7000	3400	3352	5000	5434	5434	5434	3622	5600	4000	3710
Wyoming	550	300	320	320	320	504	529	530	530	530	530	568

Table C-3 Data for the Variable RECYCLE

STATE	RECYCLE (%)											
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Alabama	5	5	8	12	15	15	15	20	23	23	23	23
Alaska	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	7	7	7	7	8
Arizona	0	5	5	7	10	5	10	14	18	17	26	17
Arkansas	5	5	5	10	12	25	25	36	36	36	45	45
California	12	11	17	11	11	25	25	26	30	33	37	42
Colorado	14	20	16	26	25	18	18	17	18	18	n/a	9
Connecticut	0	0	15	19	21	23	23	23	23	24	24	23
Delaware	4	20	8	16	29	27	33	21	31	22	57	59
Dist. of Columbia	5	8	7	30	30	25	15	8	8	8	15	16
Florida	4	15	21	27	30	36	40	40	40	39	28	28
Georgia	0	8.5	5	12	12	12	n/a	33	33	33	n/a	n/a
Hawaii	4	4	4	4	11	17	20	23	25	24	28	24
Idaho	3	3	8	10	10	10	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Illinois	6	6	12	11	20	19	27	23	28	28	23	28
Indiana	5	5	8	8	8	19	19	23	23	23	32	35
Iowa	8.5	8.5	10	23	16	16	28	30	32	34	37	35
Kansas	5	5	5	5	6	8	8	11	11	13	12	9
Kentucky	0	6.5	10	15	15	15	15	18	28	32	33	30
Louisiana	2	3	10	10	17	8	6	15	14	19	17	17
Maine	6	16	17	30	30	33	33	33	41	42	42	40
Maryland	0	10	10	15	23	26	27	27	29	30	36	37
Massachusetts	7	16	29	30	27	32	31	33	33	34	38	38
Michigan	0	0	25	26	25	20	25	25	25	25	n/a	18
Minnesota	15	22	31	38	41	44	44	46	42	45	41	42
Mississippi	0	0	8	8	10	11	12	12	13	14	14	16
Missouri	7	9	10	13	18	17	18	26	33	30	36	38

Table C-3 Data for the Variable RECYCLE, Continued

Montana	0	6	6	6	5	5	5	6	6	5	6	6	5	5	5	11	n/a
Nebraska	9	11	10	10	10	10	10	10	19	19	26	27	27	29	29	29	23
Nevada	5	5	10	10	10	10	10	15	17	12	12	15	15	14	11	14	14
New Hampshire	5	8	5	5	10	10	10	10	16	8	20	25	25	26	24	21	21
New Jersey	18	39	30	30	34	39	39	39	41	42	43	45	45	43	40	38	38
New Mexico	1	1	5	5	6	8	8	8	9	12	12	12	12	10	10	9	9
New York	10	15	14	14	21	23	23	23	28	32	32	39	39	43	42	42	42
North Carolina	0	5	17	17	4	6	6	6	8	30	22	26	26	32	29	26	26
North Dakota	1	3.5	10	10	17	17	17	17	18	22	27	21	21	26	20	11	11
Ohio	5	9	3	3	19	20	20	20	32	31	15	19	19	17	20	21	21
Oklahoma	2	2	10	10	10	10	10	10	12	12	12	12	12	12	n/a	1	1
Oregon	22	22.5	21	21	23	27	27	27	30	33	29	28	28	30	30	39	39
Pennsylvania	2	4.5	10	10	11	18	18	18	20	17	20	26	26	26	33	33	33
Rhode Island	13	18	15	15	15	21	21	21	24	24	23	23	23	27	28	24	24
South Carolina	8	8	5	5	10	30	30	30	9	16	27	34	34	42	31	31	31
South Dakota	1	1	10	10	10	10	10	10	20	20	38	42	42	42	42	n/a	n/a
Tennessee	0	0	2	2	10	8	8	8	15	n/a	40	40	40	35	n/a	34	34
Texas	8	8	10	10	11	12	12	12	14	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	35	35	35	35
Utah	0	10	10	10	13	13	13	13	13	13	19	19	19	22	20	5	5
Vermont	12	16.5	20	20	25	28	28	28	28	29	30	30	30	30	35	33	33
Virginia	10	10	10	10	24	24	24	24	28	33	35	35	35	40	35	29	29
Washington	29	28	34	34	33	35	35	35	38	38	39	48	48	33	33	35	35
West Virginia	0	7.5	10	10	10	12	12	12	12	13	13	20	20	20	25	25	25
Wisconsin	0	0	17	17	24	24	24	24	28	28	40	36	36	36	n/a	36	36
Wyoming	5	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	n/a	10	10

Table C-4 Data for the Variable POP

STATE	POPULATION (in thousands)											
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Alabama	4030	4040	4090	4138	4192	4239	4270	4291	4322	4352	4370	4447
Alaska	547	550	569	587	597	601	602	605	610	614	620	627
Arizona	3622	3665	3762	3867	3994	4148	4307	4432	4553	4669	4778	5131
Arkansas	2346	2351	2370	2394	2424	2451	2480	2305	2523	2538	2551	2673
California	29218	29786	30393	30854	31124	31295	31472	31762	32182	32667	33145	33872
Colorado	3276	3294	3368	3461	3562	3654	3738	3814	3892	3971	4056	4301
Connecticut	3283	3287	3287	3272	3270	3265	3262	3264	3267	3274	3282	3406
Delaware	658	666	680	690	700	709	719	727	735	744	753	784
Dist. of Columbia	624	607	594	585	577	566	552	540	530	523	519	572
Florida	12638	12938	13290	13502	13712	13954	14180	14425	14677	14916	15111	15982
Georgia	6411	6478	6623	6760	6895	7046	7189	7334	7490	7642	7788	8186
Hawaii	1095	1108	1132	1151	1164	1176	1183	1187	1192	1193	1186	1212
Idaho	994	1007	1039	1066	1100	1134	1164	1186	1209	1229	1252	1294
Illinois	11410	11431	11533	11630	11718	11794	11866	11934	11989	12045	12128	12419
Indiana	5524	5544	5601	5648	5701	5741	5787	5827	5865	5899	5943	6081
Iowa	2771	2777	2791	2807	2821	2829	2841	2849	2854	2862	2869	2926
Kansas	2473	2478	2494	2518	2538	2558	2575	2585	2601	2629	2654	2688
Kentucky	3677	3687	3716	3758	3794	3824	3856	3883	3910	3936	3961	4042
Louisiana	4253	4222	4241	4272	4286	4307	4328	4340	4354	4369	4372	4469
Maine	1220	1228	1235	1234	1236	1235	1233	1238	1242	1244	1253	1275
Maryland	4727	4781	4856	4903	4943	4985	5023	5058	5095	5135	5172	5297
Massachusetts	6016	6016	5997	5982	6008	6027	6058	6083	6114	6147	6175	6349
Michigan	9253	9295	9390	9465	9523	9586	9663	9734	9780	9817	9864	9938
Minnesota	4338	4376	4428	4472	4524	4566	4605	4648	4687	4725	4775	4920
Mississippi	2574	2575	2591	2610	2636	2663	2690	2710	2732	2752	2769	2845
Missouri	5096	5117	5158	5194	5238	5291	5337	5369	5408	5439	5488	5595

Table C-4 Data for the Variable POP, Continued

Montana	800	799	808	822	840	855	868	877	879	880	883	902
Nebraska	1575	1578	1591	1602	1612	1622	1635	1648	1657	1663	1666	1711
Nevada	1137	1202	1285	1333	1382	1458	1528	1600	1679	1747	1809	1998
New Hampshire	1105	1109	1107	1114	1122	1133	1146	1160	1172	1185	1201	1236
New Jersey	7726	7748	7784	7826	7873	7916	7962	8008	8058	8115	8143	8414
New Mexico	1504	1515	1547	1581	1615	1654	1684	1708	1724	1737	1740	1819
New York	17983	17991	18028	18079	18139	18152	18145	18142	18146	18175	18197	18977
North Carolina	6566	6632	6748	6833	6949	7061	7186	7309	7431	7546	7651	8049
North Dakota	646	639	634	635	637	640	641	643	641	638	634	642
Ohio	10829	10847	10931	11003	11063	11100	11138	11170	11193	11208	11257	11353
Oklahoma	3150	3146	3166	3204	3229	3248	3271	3296	3322	3347	3358	3451
Oregon	2791	2842	2919	2974	3035	3087	3141	3195	3243	3282	3316	3421
Pennsylvania	11866	11883	11943	11981	12022	12040	12040	12034	12011	12001	11994	12281
Rhode Island	1001	1003	1004	1000	998	993	989	988	987	988	991	1048
South Carolina	3457	3486	3559	3599	3635	3667	3699	3737	3788	3836	3886	4012
South Dakota	697	696	708	715	723	729	735	737	738	738	733	755
Tennessee	4854	4877	4946	5012	5082	5158	5235	5307	5372	5431	5483	5689
Texas	16807	16986	17349	17662	18009	18348	18694	19033	19386	19760	20044	20852
Utah	1706	1723	1771	1819	1872	1942	1991	2022	2065	2100	2130	2233
Vermont	558	563	567	570	574	579	582	586	589	591	594	609
Virginia	6120	6189	6284	6384	6467	6539	6602	6667	6737	6791	6873	7079
Washington	4746	4867	5015	5143	5249	5336	5433	5519	5614	5689	5756	5894
West Virginia	1807	1793	1798	1806	1817	1819	1822	1820	1815	1811	1807	1808
Wisconsin	4857	4892	4953	5005	5056	5095	5137	5174	5201	5224	5250	5364
Wyoming	458	454	458	464	469	475	478	480	480	481	480	494

Table C-5 Data for the Variable INCOME

STATE	Per Capita Personal Income (\$)											
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Alabama	13967	14903	15612	16863	17482	18271	19524	20133	20891	21913	22706	23460
Alaska	19631	20881	21570	22131	22819	23521	25659	25889	26876	27610	27947	29597
Arizona	15639	16265	16755	17664	18417	19250	20059	20890	21896	23121	23738	24991
Arkansas	13085	13784	14454	15853	16460	17158	18179	18982	19670	20531	21191	21945
California	19620	20654	20877	22246	22532	23024	24374	25409	26555	28277	29818	32225
Colorado	17767	18814	19744	21083	22263	23138	24314	25536	27088	28783	30225	32441
Connecticut	24548	25427	25905	28451	29460	30496	31423	32814	34803	37190	38506	40870
Delaware	18867	19719	20399	23196	23875	24782	24996	26143	26812	28694	29625	31074
DC	22794	24648	25988	28760	30178	31440	31479	32455	33811	35568	36254	38374
Florida	18043	18788	19192	20060	21340	21979	22974	23942	24901	26159	26560	27836
Georgia	16250	17123	17645	18945	19774	20723	21840	23090	23945	25481	26522	27790
Hawaii	19146	20906	21648	23021	23842	24279	25211	25212	25714	26135	26658	27819
Idaho	14321	15301	15836	16658	17792	18264	19419	20091	20525	21622	22387	23640
Illinois	19071	20159	20621	22366	23153	24225	25375	26667	27942	29491	30274	31842
Indiana	15972	16816	17286	18826	19763	20831	21634	22511	23427	24908	25682	26838
Iowa	15647	16684	17091	18441	18592	20077	20991	22469	23503	24531	24945	26376
Kansas	16399	17642	18251	19541	20213	20784	21777	22978	24183	25538	26312	27408
Kentucky	13756	14747	15429	16761	17309	17958	19061	19960	20982	22123	22712	24057
Louisiana	13254	14281	15079	16427	17218	18158	19321	19981	20875	21954	22292	23041
Maine	16467	17039	17304	18085	18606	19311	20102	21118	22091	23352	24220	25399
Maryland	21105	22090	22481	23634	24436	25456	26678	27574	28992	30496	31860	33621
Massachusetts	21688	22247	22764	24644	25524	26591	27711	29188	30799	32748	34482	37710
Michigan	17546	18237	18703	19936	21069	22469	23931	24394	25505	26870	27886	29071
Minnesota	17843	18779	19271	21208	21631	22927	24320	25930	27112	29109	30127	31913
Mississippi	11915	12571	13214	14198	14963	15941	16990	17799	18588	19674	20180	20856
Missouri	16552	17409	18099	19207	19784	20749	21887	22840	23937	25176	25815	27186

Table C-5 Data for the Variable INCOME, Continued

Montana	14152	14741	15772	16618	17709	17709	18588	19165	19909	21235	21511	22541
Nebraska	16050	17379	18023	19230	19843	20471	21908	23672	24146	25558	26663	27658
Nevada	19370	20254	20831	21813	22530	23504	24908	26009	26836	28190	28883	29551
New Hampshire	19977	20227	21023	22348	22918	24282	24775	25751	27254	29297	30690	33042
New Jersey	23114	24182	24745	26875	27678	28532	28881	30296	31757	33646	34666	37112
New Mexico	13388	14213	14817	15809	16652	17221	18435	18963	19610	20520	20920	21883
New York	20983	22321	22928	24903	25550	26394	27190	28594	29694	31522	32620	34502
North Carolina	15233	16275	16802	18299	19263	20027	21476	22361	23478	24667	25314	26842
North Dakota	13735	15321	15572	16917	17137	18240	18890	20908	20506	22785	23053	24780
Ohio	16644	17548	18017	19567	20379	21370	22791	23495	24770	25918	26725	27914
Oklahoma	14187	15119	15653	16888	17510	18064	19174	19876	20771	21966	22576	23582
Oregon	16287	17199	17768	18747	19651	20620	22355	23257	24365	25406	26192	27649
Pennsylvania	17844	18883	19640	21052	21816	22496	23441	24465	25630	27005	27971	29533
Rhode Island	18441	19032	19438	20897	21875	22432	23427	24349	25685	26870	27813	29158
South Carolina	13884	15106	15482	16497	17242	18072	19227	20093	21005	22127	22903	23952
South Dakota	14139	15630	16399	17113	17705	18651	19597	21407	21893	23484	24491	25993
Tennessee	15074	15905	16501	18305	19226	20167	21462	22032	22821	24106	24722	25878
Texas	15695	16749	17450	18925	19681	20360	21239	22197	23777	25426	26266	27722
Utah	13201	14060	14733	15596	16426	17200	18514	19519	20618	21624	22335	23364
Vermont	16891	17442	17822	18987	19581	20356	21147	22029	23037	24557	25514	26904
Virginia	18768	19537	20099	21370	22296	23174	24230	25213	26418	28032	29208	31065
Washington	18085	19265	20168	21515	22168	22806	23658	25007	26457	28287	29783	31129
West Virginia	12926	13967	14666	15735	16403	17029	17882	18528	19342	20235	20720	21767
Wisconsin	16438	17398	17962	19467	20227	21228	22373	23303	24484	26018	26863	28066
Wyoming	15270	16902	18284	18808	19723	20028	21210	21724	23348	24687	25960	27436

Table C-6 Data for the Variable CURB

STATE	Curbside Programs (Numbers)											
	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Alabama	3	6	8	25	30	35	35	35	37	38	39	39
Alaska	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0
Arizona	1	6	13	15	20	27	33	28	33	32	25	27
Arkansas	2	3	2	12	17	20	29	41	41	41	59	n/a
California	103	254	369	446	464	496	503	511	496	511	521	546
Colorado	2	7	20	65	65	70	77	70	70	70	n/a	n/a
Connecticut	47	80	150	169	169	169	169	169	169	169	169	169
Delaware	0	0	n/a	0	1	1	3	4	2	3	2	2
Dist. of Columbia	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
Florida	42	150	200	215	351	366	296	296	300	315	372	299
Georgia	u/a	20	20	80	123	129	122	153	148	179	194	459
Hawaii	0	2	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Idaho	0	1	2	n/a	3	5	5	6	6	6	n/a	20
Illinois	65	175	200	260	435	435	450	450	450	450	474	474
Indiana	9	28	40	54	54	82	97	98	104	169	169	168
Iowa	1	17	35	240	481	500	490	543	569	574	583	608
Kansas	0	5	10	10	12	15	15	70	90	101	99	109
Kentucky	0	10	10	40	55	55	55	30	42	43	35	45
Louisiana	3	10	17	21	28	28	22	40	33	33	23	25
Maine	2	7	16	18	47	64	64	80	84	84	100	34
Maryland	5	37	.	40	79	95	95	100	100	100	100	99
Massachusetts	7	23	82	109	115	141	138	166	155	156	159	159
Michigan	5	40	100	200	123	192	200	200	200	200	264	347
Minnesota	185	381	488	571	651	674	679	717	731	771	758	765
Mississippi	0	12	25	15	15	20	18	16	9	15	15	14
Missouri	8	16	30	40	122	122	129	192	197	197	199	177

Table C-6 Data for the Variable CURB, Continued

Montana	0	4	3	3	3	2	4	4	6	6	2	n/a
Nebraska	2	1	4	4	4	11	11	15	15	15	11	11
Nevada	0	1	2	7	7	7	7	8	8	8	3	3
New Hampshire	2	18	26	25	27	30	33	38	38	38	38	39
New Jersey	452	492	525	515	530	530	530	530	510	510	510	510
New Mexico	0	2	3	7	8	8	31	7	3	3	5	8
New York	n/a	162	200	250	362	399	399	1472	1472	1472	1472	1500
North Carolina	3	25	58	95	128	247	240	250	260	271	279	279
North Dakota	0	2	5	10	12	23	25	24	26	25	50	50
Ohio	26	56	130	144	247	246	288	286	372	372	372	232
Oklahoma	1	8	11	14	8	6	8	9	7	8	9	7
Oregon	106	108	115	118	118	117	123	123	123	122	123	139
Pennsylvania	245	412	603	709	755	761	772	866	873	879	892	892
Rhode Island	8	23	19	20	21	22	27	26	25	26	25	25
South Carolina	2	4	6	27	30	28	32	31	n/a	186	n/a	135
South Dakota	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	3	3	3	3	n/a
Tennessee	0	8	3	29	15	40	45	39	40	35	n/a	n/a
Texas	2	10	10	90	120	120	130	120	140	159	186	160
Utah	0	1	3	13	10	12	12	14	14	14	n/a	7
Vermont	1	8	12	16	25	78	78	80	80	80	94	93
Virginia	15	25	61	62	64	64	81	78	78	79	62	62
Washington	16	34	81	98	100	100	100	100	100	102	100	283
West Virginia	2	14	50	50	30	67	69	75	75	75	51	51
Wisconsin	50	n/a	190	450	590	600	600	600	600	600	600	631
Wyoming	0	1	0	1	1	4	3	2	2	2	n/a	1

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