Solid waste is inextricably related to industrial growth and urbanization. Countries’ economic prosperity rises as they urbanize. Consumption of goods and services rises in tandem with the levels of life and disposable incomes, resulting in an increase in waste generation. According to Karak et al. [1], nearly 1.3 billion tons of Municipal Solid Waste (MSW) are produced globally per year, or 1.2 kg each capita per day. The real per capita figures, on the other hand, are extremely volatile, as waste generation rates vary greatly across nations, cities, and also within cities. Solid waste is traditionally thought of as a ‘urban’ epidemic. Rural people, on average, are wealthier, consume less store-bought goods, and reuse and recycle more. As a result, waste production rates in rural areas are much smaller. More than half of the world’s population now lives in cities, and the pace of urbanization is rapidly growing. By 2050 [2], as many people will live in cities as the population of the whole world in 2000. This will add challenges to waste disposal. People and companies would almost definitely have to take on greater responsibility for waste generation and disposal, especially in terms of product design and waste separation. A stronger focus on ‘urban extraction’ is also expected to arise, as cities are the largest supplier of resources like metal and paper. Tons of waste are created every day, creating a major problem for various cities and municipal authorities due to a lack of landfill capacity to dispose of such waste. Toxic hazard materials in the waste cause health concerns as well as environmental harm. Due to a lack of landfill space and environmental pollution, as well as its economic effects, recycling has become a major problem [3].

The methods from neural networks [4] and other classification methods [5], tree classifier, and quadratic discriminant analysis [3], with optical sensors and controller [6], with image processing software capability [7,8] can provide a promising results for paper and plastic sorting for waste management using artificial intelligence. Hence, for many artificial intelligence methods, the optimized features need to be identified, to ensure correct classification of the mixed waste.

Many interests among researchers published on classification accuracy which discussed on best feature selection [9–11]. Still, to some researchers, the focus also arises on classification accuracy and computational time [12,13]. However, the scope of this work is to show how the reduction of features can contribute to higher classification accuracy of mixed waste classification.
greyscale, segmented greyscale images and binarized image of the captured RGB images using Matlab2019b. Table 1 dataset used for training in each class.

### 2.1.1. Features extraction

From the observation of mixed waste classes which consist of crumble (paper/plastic), flat (paper/plastic), tin can, bottle (plastic/glass), cup (paper/plastic), plastic box and paper box, the following 40 features have been selected for the class of interest as shown in Table 2 which extracted from Figure 1 via image processing method.

#### Table 1 Dataset of classes

| Type of mixed waste                | Dataset |
|------------------------------------|---------|
| Bottle                             | 40      |
| Cup                                | 50      |
| Plastic box                        | 40      |
| Paper box                          | 40      |
| Crumble paper/plastic              | 50      |
| Flat paper/plastic                 | 50      |
| Tin can                            | 50      |
| Total dataset                      | 320     |

#### Table 2 Features list

| Features                  | Source image                                                                 | Formula                                    |
|----------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| F1: Round measure of sample images | Greyscale of segmented sample image (Figure 1) | \( \frac{4\pi A}{P^2} \) (1) |
| F2: Mid-point symmetry      | Computation of white pixel summation array \( C \) (a) Segmentation filter, (b) Graph of white pixel summation array \( C \) (Figure 2) | \( \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} a(y) - 1}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} b(z) - 100} \) (2) |
| F3: Skewness                | Computation of white pixel summation array \( C \) (a) Segmentation filter, (b) Graph of white pixel summation array \( C \) (Figure 2) | \( \frac{E(C - \mu)^3}{\sigma^3} \) (3) |
| F4: Mode                    | Computation of white pixel summation array \( C \) (a) Segmentation filter, (b) Graph of white pixel summation array \( C \) (Figure 2) | \( \frac{E(C - \mu)^4}{\sigma^4} \) (4) |
| F5: Kurtosis                | Computation of white pixel summation array \( C \) (a) Segmentation filter, (b) Graph of white pixel summation array \( C \) (Figure 2) | \( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} C_i \) (5) |
| F6: Mean                    | Computation of white pixel summation array \( C \) (a) Segmentation filter, (b) Graph of white pixel summation array \( C \) (Figure 2) | \( \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (C_i - \mu)^2} \) (6) |
| F7: Standard deviation       | Computation of white pixel summation array \( C \) (a) Segmentation filter, (b) Graph of white pixel summation array \( C \) (Figure 2) | \( \left[ \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma} \right] > 2 \) (7) |
| F8: Zero-scores              | Computation of white pixel summation array \( C \) (a) Segmentation filter, (b) Graph of white pixel summation array \( C \) (Figure 2) |                                                         |

#### 2.1.2. Classifiers used for training

Table 3 shows the types of classifiers used with respect to their specifications. Figure 4 shows the block diagram for training of the developed system.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### 3.1. Features Selections

There are several stages of feature selections carried out from this study. The first stage, all 40 features are used. However, accuracy of the 40 features during training was less than 77.8%. To address the shortcoming, several tests were conducted and number of redundant features which contribute less and reduced the percentage rate of the training were removed from the list.
Table 2 Features list—Continued

| Features | Source image | Formula |
|----------|--------------|---------|
| F9: Quantile | Computation of white pixel summation array C. (a) Segmentation filter. (b) Graph of white pixel summation array C (Figure 2) | \( \max(\text{quantile}(C, p)) \) (8) where \( p = 25 \) |
| F10: Derivative variance | Computation of white pixel summation array C. (a) Segmentation filter. (b) Graph of white pixel summation array C (Figure 2) | \( \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} [C_i - \mu]^2 \) (9) where \( C \) is metric of the white pixel summations of the image with \( N \) number of values greater than 0, and \( \mu \) is the mean of \( C \). |
| F11: Standard deviation | Greyscale of segmented sample image (Figure 3) | \( \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} [C_i - \mu]^2} \) (10) where \( C \) is metric of the greyscale of the segmented image with \( N \) number of values greater than 0, and \( \mu \) is the mean of \( C \). |
| F12: Entropy | Entropy of the segmented grey image. | \( -\sum(p_i \log(2[p_i])) \) (11) where \( p \) contains the normalized histogram counts. Percentage of grey pixels having intensity greater than 40 and less than 111 in the segmented grey image pixel array. |
| F13: Greyscale level ratio range (>40 and <111) | Grey scale of segmented sample image (Figure 3) | Percentage of grey pixels having intensity greater than 110 and less than 181 in the segmented grey image pixel array. |
| F14: Greyscale level ratio range (>110 and <181) | Grey scale of segmented sample image (Figure 3) | Percentage of grey pixels having intensity greater than 180 and less than 255 in the segmented grey image pixel array. |
| F15: Greyscale level ratio range (>180 and <=255) | Grey scale of segmented sample image (Figure 3) | Percentage of grey pixels having intensity greater than 0, and \( L \) is the mean of values greater than 0, and \( L \) is the mean of \( C \). |
| F16: Grey-level co-occurrence matrix (Contrast) | Measure of the intensity contrast between a pixel and its neighbor over the whole image. | \( \sum_{i,j} (p(i,j)) \) (12) where \( p \) contains the normalized histogram counts. \((i,j)\) are position values of pixels. |
| F17: Grey-level co-occurrence matrix (Correlation) | Measure of correlated pixel to its neighbor over the whole image. | \( \sum_{i,j} \frac{(i-\mu)(j-\mu)}{\sigma^2} p(i,j) \) (13) where \((i,j)\) position values of pixels, \( \mu \) is the mean of the pixel at the position \((i,j)\). \( \sigma \) is standard deviation of pixel at the position \((i,j)\). |
| F18: Grey-level co-occurrence matrix (Energy) | Returns the sum of squared elements in the GLCM. | \( \sum_{i,j} p(i,j)^2 \) (14) where \( p \) contains the normalized histogram counts. \((i,j)\) are position values of pixels. |
| F19: Grey-level co-occurrence matrix (Homogeneity) | Returns a value that measures the closeness of the distribution of elements in the GLCM to the GLCM diagonal. | \( \sum_{i,j} \frac{p(i,j)}{1+|i-j|} \) (15) where \( p \) contains the normalized histogram counts. \((i,j)\) are position values of pixels. |
| F20: Entropy | Binarized image of segmentation filter (Figure 2a) Entropy of binary of the segmented image of the samples. | Source image: Grey scale of segmented sample image (Figure 3) \( f = [0, 90, 135, 45] \) \( \lambda = [2.8, 5.65, 11.314, 22.63, 45.25, 90.51] \) |
| F21–F40 | Mean of Gabor filters which were created from segmented grey image, with four different frequencies \( f \), and six different wavelengths \( \lambda \). | |

GLCM, Grey-level co-occurrence matrix.

In the second stage, 20 features were selected from the 40 features. After many features tuning and combination, it was observed that F1–F5, F7, F8, F10, F14, F30–F35, F37–F40 were insignificant and did not contribute to the classification process. These features were removed which then contributed to mean of 79.12%

In the third stage, only 17 features were used which consists of F9, F11–F13, F15–F24, F26–F28. For these 17 features, Q.SVM and C.SVM showed accuracy above 88%.
3.2. Classifiers Training Results

The training accuracy for respective classifiers with respect to 40, 20, 17 and 15 features are shown in Table 4. For Q.SVM, C.SVM, Fine KNN, E. Boosted Trees and E. Bagged Trees have consistent higher accuracy for 17 features. The results verified that the 17 features gave good characteristic of the waste, therefore proves that good features will always provide higher accuracy. The best performance classifier with 17 features was Q.SVM which has accuracy of 90.69%.

3.3. Classification Results of Mixed Waste Classification

Based on the training performance which discussed in Section 3.2, Q.SVM has the highest accuracy of the optimized 17 features. With that confirmation, testing was done using 320 images of mixed waste which consist of crumble (paper/plastic), flat (paper/plastic), tin can, bottle (plastic/glass), cup (paper/plastic), plastic box and paper box. Table 5 shows the summary of the testing accuracy.

In the fourth stage, F9 and F11 were removed. F12, F13, F15–F24, F26–F28 were maintained. However, the accuracy was severely impacted with average results lest than 80%. Figure 5 summed up the performance with respect to features selections stages.

![Figure 2](image1.png)
Figure 2: Computation of white pixel summation array C. (a) Segmentation filter. (b) Graph of white pixel summation array C.

![Figure 3](image2.png)
Figure 3: Greyscale of segmented image.

![Figure 4](image3.png)
Figure 4: Flowchart for classifier training.

![Figure 5](image4.png)
Figure 5: Summary of features selections with respect to each stage.

| Table 3 | Classifiers and specifications |
|---------|--------------------------------|
| No      | Classifiers                      | Specifications                                      |
| 1       | Support Vector Machine – Cubic (C.SVM) | Kernel function: Cubic, \( k = 1 \), One-vs-one method |
| 2       | Support Vector Machine – Quadratic (Q.SVM) | Kernel function: Cubic, \( k = 1 \), One-vs-one method |
| 3       | Ensemble Bagged Trees (E. Bagged Trees) | Maximum no of splits = 342, no of learners = 30, learning rate = 0.1 |
| 4       | k-Nearest Neighbor (Fine.kNN) | \( k = 10 \) |
| 5       | Ensemble Boosted Trees (E. Boosted Trees) | Maximum no of splits = 20, no of learners = 30, learning rate = 0.1 |

| Table 4 | Training accuracy for multiple classifiers for 40, 20, 17 and 15 features |
|---------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Classifiers | Number of features | 40 | 20 | 17 | 15 |
| Q.SVM (%) | Classification accuracy | 78.97 | 81.42 | 90.69 | 81.83 |
| C.SVM (%) | | 79.59 | 81.27 | 88.77 | 81.69 |
| Fine.KNN (%) | | 73.31 | 76.25 | 83.92 | 77.6 |
| E. Boosted Trees (%) | | 78.15 | 77.52 | 86.49 | 77.61 |
| E. Bagged Trees (%) | | 79.01 | 79.13 | 81.21 | 77.55 |
| Mean (%) | | 77.80 | 79.12 | 86.22 | 79.27 |

| Table 5 | Training accuracy for Q.SVM classifiers for 40, 20, 17 and 15 features |
|---------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Type of waste | Number of features | 40 | 20 | 17 | 15 |
| Crumble (paper/plastic) (%) | Q.SVM classification accuracy | 85 | 100 | 100 | 83 |
| Flat (paper/plastic) (%) | | 75 | 89 | 100 | 74 |
| Tin can (%) | | 66 | 95 | 94 | 70 |
| Bottle (plastic/glass) (%) | | 71 | 59 | 76 | 71 |
| Cup (paper/plastic) (%) | | 69 | 71 | 90 | 72 |
| Plastic box (%) | | 80 | 79 | 85 | 82 |
| Paper box (%) | | 85 | 70 | 84 | 86 |
| Mean (%) | | 75.86 | 80.43 | 89.86 | 76.86 |
of Q.SVM classifier which averaged to 89.9% for 17 features. All classes have higher accuracy except for bottle (plastic/glass).

4. CONCLUSION

From this study, it was observed that relevant features and accuracy are good matched to ensure the performance of mixed waste classification. The relevant features were studied stage by stage. In the first stage, even though more features were assigned, the classifiers training showed poor performance. In the second stage, after reduction of features, by experimenting the features and training rate, the redundant features which contributed to low accuracy have been removed. Eventually the classification rate of training increased to average of 79.12%. Further reduction to 17 features, have contributed to higher average accuracy of 86.22%. However, further reduction did not contribute to better classification rate. The selected 17 features with Q.SVM as classifier also proved with higher accuracy for training with 90.69% and testing with 89.9%. In a nutshell, the important of the correct features selection is crucial for mix waste classification. Optimal features selection, proved for contrary, more features not necessarily contributed to higher accuracy.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare they have no conflicts of interest.

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