# The Classification of Tea Leaf Diseases Using Sift Feature Extraction of Learning Vector Quantization Method with Support Vector Machine

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Abstract: Productivity is highly dependent on healthy leaves, which are the main components of the product. However, plants are very susceptible to all kinds of disturbances. One of these disturbances is a pest that causes disease on tea leaves; the pest is helopeltis. is a type of pest that attacks young leaf shoots by piercing the part to be attacked, and then the puncture mark from the razor will show symptoms in the form of irregular spots. Based on the uniqueness of the damage pattern on the tea leaves, this study tested the classification of the types of tea leaf diseases by comparing two methods, namely support vector machine and learning vector quantization, and utilizing SIFT feature extraction. The level of accuracy produced by each method is 98% using the Support Vector Machine method with 99% precision, 98% recall, and 98% F1-Score, and 94% using the Learning Vector Quantization method with 96% precision, 94% recall, and 96% F1-Score.

# **1 INTRODUCTION**

Artificial Neural Network (ANN), i.e., the model used in problem solving to make decisions based on the training provided (Cervantes et al., 2020), The ANN concept is visible in the ANN working model, specifically in the layer results and node output. ANN was created to solve problems such as learning process classification and pattern recognition. Backpropagation (slow training time, fast execution time), Boltzman (slow training and execution time), learning vector quantization (fast training and execution time), and Hopfield are all monitored methods in ANN (fast training time and moderate execution time). Based on this method, it is clear that it has significant advantages over the Learning Vector Quantization (LVQ) method (Chen et al., 2021).

Learning Vector Quantization (LVQ) is a classification method that uses a supervised layer for training. This layer can classify input vectors that are provided automatically. Some of the input vectors have close weight values, so these weights will connect the input layer with the competitive layer, which is the layer that produces classes that are connected to the output layer via the activation function. The LVQ algorithm has two stages of training and testing that will be used as a training and testing process. The initial weight of the input values X1 to Xn is sent to the output layer, which represents all classes, to determine the maximum epoch (MaxEpoch), learning rate parameter (), reduced learning rate (Dec), and minimum error (Eps). During the training stage, the LVQ calculations are used to generate weight values that will be saved and used during the testing phase. During the testing phase, new input data is classified by calculating the value of each weight in the input and selecting the shortest distance between the two stored weights. The class in the input image will be represented by the value with the smallest weight distance (Guo et al., 2023).

SVM is a nonlinear mapping algorithm that transforms the original training data to a higher dimension. In this case, the new dimension will seek a hyperplane to separate linearly, and data from the two classes can always be separated by a hyperplane with a precise nonlinear mapping to a higher dimension (Kasiselvanathan et al., 2020). SVM is used to solve binary classification problems. The goal is to find the best hyperplane, not only by separating the two class labels from the training sample, but also by defining this hyperplane so that it is as far away from the closest members of the two classes as possible (Kour and Arora, 2019). SVM commonly employs linear, radial basic function (RBF), and polynomial kernel functions. The kernel functions and parameters used in SVM analysis have a significant impact on the accu-

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racy that is produced. The kernel function is a function that maps data to a higher-dimensional space in the hope of improving the data's structure and making it easier to separate. Even if the hyperplane is optimally determined in non-separable case training data, the classification obtained may not have high generalizability. As a result, the problem is solved by mapping the input space into a high dimensional dot-product space known as the feature space. Radial Basic Function kernels are one type of kernel that is used (RBF).

The RBF kernel function equation is:

$$k(x,x) = exp - \frac{\|x - x'\|^d}{2\sigma^2}$$
(1)

where d is the kernel degree.

A step in the image processing called feature extraction is used to detect local features (Mokhtar et al., 2015). The scale-invariant feature transform is used in this study (SIFT). The Sift algorithm is skilled at feature selection based on the appearance of an object at a specific point of interest that is not affected by image scale or rotation (Muhathir et al., 2019). The sift algorithm requires two steps: extracting the object's characteristics and calculating its descriptors (detecting the characteristics that most likely represent the object) and placing the matching steps as the method's ultimate goal (Nasution and Syah, 2022).

#### 2 **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Data collection method. Researchers collect data by collecting sample data in the form of jpg images. The images collected are based on the two classes that will be classified: healthy leaves and leaves attacked by the helopeltis pest. The total amount of data used in this study was 1148, which was divided into 533 images of healthy leaf data and 615 images of helopeltis pest-attacked leaves. Image captured with the Samsung Galaxy A10 Smartphone at 13MP resolution. The distance between data collection points is less than 15 cm, and the background is white paper.

#### 2.1 **Data Analysis**

Table 1 lists the 1148 images of healthy and helopeltis diseased leaves that were used in this study. Table 2 shows how the 1148 data will be divided into training and testing during the training and testing process.

Figure 2 depicts a research architecture that depicts the stages of research that will be carried out



Figure 1: Healthy Heaves.



Figure 2: Helopeltis Diseased Leaves.

Table 1: Leaf data sharing.

Class Data	Amount of Data
Healthy Leaves	533
Helopeltis Leaf Disease	615
Total	1148



Figure 3: Research Architecture.

using two processes: training and testing. The training procedure begins with the entry of image data in the form of images from research results on tea leaf images, followed by grayscale conversion using SIFT feature extraction and weight storage (Prabu and Chelliah, 2023). Importing image data in the form of images derived from tea leaf image research, converting the images to grayscale using SIFT feature extraction, and storing the weights. Extraction of grayscale image data from three color spaces, R, G, and B, into one color space, grayscale, and then extraction using SIFT feature extraction results in the data being stored as a pattern model that will be used in the testing process (Saputra, 2020). The second testing procedure involves training matching pattern models using the Learning Vector Quantization and Support Vector Machine classification methods.

Overall Data Sharing	Amount of Data
Training 80%	918
Testing 20%	230

# Table 2: Distribution of training and testing data.

### 2.2 Pre-Processing Data

The leaf image will now be measured by shrinking the pixel size. When I started, the tea leaf image was still 4128 x 3096 pixels. The data will then be cropped to emphasize the main object in the image. The image size is increased to 300 x 400 pixels after cropping to make it more effective for tea leaf image processing. The 1148 tea leaves used in this study were divided into two groups: healthy leaves (533 total images) and helopeltis disease leaves (533 total images) (615 images total).

# **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Data is illustrated as an array. The data that is input and then read by the machine into an array is depicted below.



Figure 4: Illustration of Data.

1. SIFT Feature Extraction Step 1:

$$F(a,b,\sigma) = (G(a,b,,k\sigma)) * 1(a,b) = L(a,b,k\sigma) - L(a,b,\sigma)$$
(2)

Step 2: Get the keypoint Step 3:

$$s(a,b) = \sqrt{(L(a+1,b) - L(a-1,b))2} + \sqrt{(L(a,b+1) - L(a,b-1))2}$$
(3)

$$\theta(a,b) = tan^{-1} \left( \frac{L(a,b-1) - L(a,b-1)}{L(a+1,b) - La - 1,b} \right)$$
(4)

The following is the result of the tea leaf image using feature extraction using SIFT (Scale Invariant Feature Transform). Can be seen in Figures 5 and 6.



Figure 5: Pictures of Helopeltis Leaves.



Figure 6: Pictures of SIFT Extraction Results.

2. Confusion Matrix The following is the result of the confusion matrix from the Learning Vector Quantization and Support Vector Machine methods. Can be seen in Figures 7 and 8.



Figure 7: Results of the confusion matrix from the Learning Vector Quantization Method.

- 3. Evaluation Model
  - a. Learning Vector Quantization LVQ denotes a collection of vector prototypes of S, one or more of which can be assigned to each class. In the feature space, prototype vectors are identified and serve as typical representatives of each class.

$$a = \{a_i, b(a_i)\}_{i=1}^{3}$$
  
b(a\_i) \varepsilon \{1, 2, 3, ..., X\} (5)

Along with a certain distance d(c,a), the

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Figure 8: Results of the confusion matrix from the Support Vector Machine Method.

values make up the classification scheme parameters. The Winner schema takes all values, i.e.: arbitrary input X is assigned to class  $j(a_L)$  of the closest prototype to  $d(c,a_L) \leq d(c,a_i)$  for all i.

The following is a performance evaluation of image classification on tea leaves extracted with the SIFT feature using the LVQ method:

Table 3: Evaluation of Tea Leaf Image Classification Performance Using the LVQ Method.

	Precision	Recall	F1-Score
Helopeltis	0.96	0.94	0.96
Healthy	0.94	0.95	0.94
Accuracy	0.94		

- The results of the research evaluation model using the LVQ algorithm are shown in Table 3. The precision, recall, and F1-score of Helopeltis leaves are all 96%. While healthy leaves have a precision of 94%, a recall of 95%, and an F1-score of 94%, LVQ results in an accuracy of 94% (Wady et al., 2020).
  - b. Support Vector Machine Kernel function used in svm

$$\min \alpha \frac{1}{2} \alpha^{T} C \alpha - e^{T} \alpha$$
  
$$a.t.0 \leq X, i = 1, ..., l$$
  
$$b^{T} \alpha = 0$$
 (6)

The following is an evaluation of performance in image classification on tea leaves that have been extracted with the SIFT feature with SVM:

The results of the research evaluation model using the SVM algorithm are shown in Table 4. Helopeltis leaves have 99% precision, 98% recall, and an F1-score of 98%. While healthy leaves have a precision of 97%, a recall of

Table 4:	Evaluation	of Tea	Leaf	Image	Classification	Per
formance	e Using the	SVM N	/letho	d.		

	Precision	Recall	F1-Score
Helopeltis	0.99	0.98	0.98
Healthy	0.97	0.99	0.98
Accuracy	0.98		

99%, and an F1-score of 98%, SVM results in an accuracy of 98% (Wang et al., 2019).

4. Curve Method The ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic) curve is used to show the results of the research. The ROC curve is made based on the value obtained in the calculation with the confusion matrix, namely between False Positive Rate and True Positive Rate vector prototypes of S, of which one or more prototypes can be assigned to each class. In the feature space, prototype vectors are identified and serve as typical representatives of each class.



Figure 9: Image of LVQ Iteration Curve.

A representation of the LVQ learning curve, specifically the performance of the generated LVQ algorithm. The resulting curve decreases, indicating that the LVQ performance is satisfactory.



Figure 10: ROC Curve Svm Image.

The image above depicts the ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic) curve obtained from SVM classification.

From the ROC curve in figure 9, the results are obtained: ROC AUC : 0.9831 Cross Validate ROC AUC : 0.9986.

## 4 CONCLUSION

This study compares two methods for classifying tea leaf disease, namely Support Vector Machine and Learning Vector Quantization, and employs SIFT feature extraction. Each method achieves 98% precision, 98% recall, and 98% F1-score, while Learning Vector Quantization achieves 96% precision, 94% recall, and 96% F1-score.

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