

36 storage **accounts for** 6%. With the remainder comprising a variety of miscellaneous reasons. Findings
37 varied quite considerably across the three case studies, resulting in the research team being unable to
38 identify any comparative patterns. This is one of the difficulties of estimating construction waste –
39 the variety of construction sites and the difficulty in establishing stable and consistent methodologies
40 for all cases. Additionally, waste quantification relies on manual labour intensive techniques, thus
41 only a small percentage can be accurately sorted and quantified. From these samples data is then
42 extrapolated to arrive at national or regional figures, however they are necessarily highly
43 approximate. **The site** is not the only place **where** waste is estimated. Quantification also takes place
44 at landfill sites and transfer stations. This has similar limitations to construction site case-studies, a
45 reliance on quantifying a small percentage and extrapolating. These methods will be discussed in
46 more detail in Section 2.

47 There is no question the construction sector needs to reduce its waste. As discussed there are a
48 multitude of causes such as off-cuts, packaging damage and storage. Waste is also generated within
49 the supply chain, which is beyond the scope of the literature reviewed. Furthermore waste creation
50 can be a result of design decisions made prior to construction starting. Thus, waste reduction will be
51 through a multitude of strategies that must encompass design, supply chain and construction process.
52 However, there remains the significant problem of how to evaluate these strategies when data is
53 reliant on such a low percentage of observation and such a high degree of approximation.

54

55 *1.1. Surplus in the business model*

56

57 Waste is a result of material being rendered unusable or unwanted. There is another
58 interconnected concept built into the business of construction that is problematic. The concept of
59 surplus, which is the practice of procuring more material than required. This practice may take several
60 forms. Contractors allow for a surplus of material to account for expected damage, during the building
61 process. Suppliers may provide more material than requested to strengthen or build relationships to
62 secure future work. Furthermore contingency sums are built into almost every building contract (Levy
63 et al., 2021). This is usually a percentage of the overall cost, and is an allowance for unforeseen events
64 or mistakes. Although this is not explicitly surplus it is a contractually included sum available to secure
65 more services or material. In many contractual arrangements it can be used at the discretion of the
66 contractor with no oversight (Levy et al., 2021).

67 The culture of oversupply, is not driven exclusively by pragmatic or logistical concerns. It is also
68 part of human behaviour and culture, what anthropologists call the gift economy (Hyde, 1983; Mauss,
69 2002;). This is the phenomenon of giving in the expectation it will encourage reciprocity; in this
70 example in the form of return business. Rather than surplus being seen as problematic it is perceived

71 to be important in the day-to-day running of projects. In the event of something unforeseen this
72 surplus can be moved around projects to maintain progress and ameliorating some of the perceived
73 brittleness in the complexities of the construction process.

74 The cost of material waste and surplus is ultimately passed onto the clients funding the project.
75 Consequently, there is little economic incentive for contractors to redirect and reuse. In fact, salvaging
76 surplus and redirecting waste comes with additional logistical challenges. Some materials are bulky
77 such as timber, and require interim storage space. Some are moisture sensitive like plasterboard and
78 prone to degradation. Others are brittle or delicate like glass, with a high probability of damage during
79 reclamation. Thus, it is simpler for these remaining materials to be discarded rather than reclaimed.

80 In summary the underlying causes of surplus and waste are a combination of normative
81 behaviours, as well as logistical and cultural factors. They are deeply entrenched in the business-as-
82 usual approach to construction, and consequently they are not easily disentangled and addressed.

83 Although there has been a steady focus on productivity—of which waste is a factor—since the
84 1990's. Two influential reports in the UK—the Egan and Latham reports—outlined problems and
85 recommendations to solve some of the problems in construction (Egan, 1998; Latham, 1994). Most
86 notably they propose a contractual innovation now recognized as Alliancing, Public Private
87 Partnerships (PPP) or Early Contractor Involvement (ECI). These contractual innovations were
88 intended to encourage collaborative—and thus more efficient—project. They offered an alternative
89 to traditional contractual approaches based on punitive punishments when a party is in breach (Hinze
90 and Tracey, 1994). However, the main limitation to this form of contract is its limited application to
91 large projects. Which is problematic as 80% of the construction sector is comprised of small to
92 medium sized enterprises (SMEs). As a result, improvements from this contractual approach only
93 extend into a small percentage of projects. More recently we see the emergence of waste champions
94 and an increase in buy-back schemes by material suppliers (Elgizawy et al., 2016). However, project
95 and business size continue to be a determining factor in these cases, limiting [their](#) deployment to only
96 larger scale entities.

97 Additionally there are software solutions to the problem of waste. Bespoke software for waste
98 audits through categorising and quantifying waste have been tested with positive results (McGrath,
99 2001). Utilising BIM for waste minimisation at the design stage has also the subject of research (Liu
100 et al., 2011; Rajendran et al.,2012). However, software solutions to waste minimisation seem to
101 remain predominantly theoretical, with only a few making the transition to into practical operation.
102 They appear most promising when used for auditing and where they are clearly targeted, for example
103 reducing plastic and packaging (Berry et al., 2022; Hernandez et al., 2023, Low et al., 2020).

104 In summary this section has outlined the limits to observing and estimating waste. It is manual,
105 laborious, expensive, time consuming and as such not easily scalable. Additionally, there seems to be

106 limited technology being deployed to assist with this. It has also outlined how surplus and waste are
107 woven into the culture of construction and difficult to systemically change. It raises an important
108 question whether the construction site is the best place to study and reduce waste? Addressing waste
109 further back through the supply chain has its merits. However, the aggregation of waste on site and
110 at landfill or transfer stations make them suitable locations for obtaining accurate measurements of
111 its composition.

112

113 **2. Methodologies**

114

115 Section 3 conducts an analysis of existing methodologies for quantifying the composition of
116 landfill. This is to better understand the state of the sector and current best practice for estimating
117 waste. The review of current waste quantification methodologies took the form of a desktop literature
118 review. Three geographical regions—North America, Europe and Oceania—were targeted, with
119 governmental and regional council websites being the primary corpus for accessing official and
120 approved methodologies for handling and estimating waste. The literature review of existing research
121 focused on the Scopus corpus. Data was sampled and collected using a keyword search, and the data
122 was analysed using manual thematic analysis techniques. Section 4 reports on an original research
123 project to fill gaps in quantification and composition revealed in section 3.

124

125 **3. Results of review**

126

127 *3.1. Current waste quantification methodologies*

128

129 This section reports on methodologies for estimating the composition of landfill. Approaches
130 to measuring waste vary significantly from country to country, even within a country they may be
131 determined—and differ—at regional levels. It proved difficult to find authoritative and
132 comprehensive documents in both Europe and North America. This was a consequence of
133 complexities and differences at regional levels, and broken links to key documents. Methodology
134 documentation can be contained deep within policy documents, which—in turn—can be widely
135 distributed across different branches of government and their websites. Additionally, construction
136 and demolition (C&D) waste can be exempt from measurement and quantification in some regions,
137 making the aggregation of any data gathered unreliable. Thus, even where methodologies exist, when
138 research reports on C&D waste it is highly approximate.

139

140 Due to difficulty in finding comprehensive waste management methodologies in North America
and Europe, this section will focus on Oceania, specifically New Zealand. It was chosen as the focus

141 for a number of reasons. As an island it is a geographically isolated country which has a single waste
142 management approach. This policy is published online, with relevant appendix linked and available.
143 Thus, for the purposes of illustrating limitations within typical waste quantification policy New
144 Zealand’s approach is used here as an example. The Ministry for the Environment (MfE) clearly
145 defines and publishes its methodology (New Zealand MfE, 2008). It is comprised of two distinct
146 techniques:

- 147 • Sorting and categorizing. A small quantity of landfill waste is separated, categorized and
148 weighed. This is then used as a basis for estimating the composition of larger quantities without
149 additional measurement.
- 150 • Visual inspection. Categorization and composition is based on visual observation.

151 The table below is an excerpt from a case study and it serves to illustrate how small a percentage
152 of waste is actually accurately measured (New Zealand MfE, 2002). Over a specific time period the
153 total number of cars, trucks and trailers entering a municipal landfill were counted. The percentage
154 of these inspected using one of the two methods was also calculated. The results are in Table 1.
155 Additionally, C&D waste is singled out in the case-study as being highly problematic, with assessors
156 failing to find ‘a satisfactory, practical method for obtaining a random subsample of such a load
157 without introducing bias’ (New Zealand MfE, 2008).

158

159 **Table 1.** Total quantity of vehicles and percentage inspected

160

	<i>Cars</i>	<i>Trailers</i>	<i>Trucks</i>
Quantity	2939	5349	1513
Percentage quantified	0.2	0.9	2.4

161

162 The table illustrates the small percentage of landfill inspected. Furthermore, within this small
163 percentage of waste quantified there is additional room for error. First, method one relies heavily on
164 the sample quantified being representative. This is virtually impossible with C&D waste as its
165 composition changes throughout construction projects. There are significant Health and Safety (H&S)
166 challenges with manual sorting and weighting. These factors limit the extent to which this method
167 can be scaled. The main limitation of method two is observational bias. This is the tendency of an
168 observer to inadvertently overlook some types of waste while being highly sensitized to notice others.

169 This section illustrates why the quantification of landfills and waste is highly approximated.
170 Existing methods are manual, labour intensive and restricted to a very small percentage of overall
171 waste. They are also not scalable in any meaningful way without a dramatic increase in labour cost
172 and an increase in H&S risk. Where waste is sorted and quantified there is inherent observational bias

173 as well as inaccuracies if the sub-sample measured is atypical. These methods are not suited to the
 174 granular quantification required to achieve higher accuracy. Fundamentally, the construction sector
 175 needs to dramatically reduce its waste and accurate measurement—not estimation—is necessary to
 176 assess if waste reduction measures are working.

177
 178 *3.2. Literature review of current research improving landfill estimation*
 179

180 This section reports on a literature review intended to ascertain how work in the current research
 181 landscape is advancing more accurate quantification of landfill and C&D waste. This reviewed
 182 focused on the Scopus corpus using the search parameters: *landfill AND methodology AND*
 183 *composition AND quantification AND measuring*. Of the 608 results returned the terms *leachate* and
 184 *emissions* featured frequently. That research pertains to CO2 emissions and unwanted discharge from
 185 landfill and not concerned with composition. Consequently, the search term was amended to also
 186 include *NOT leachate NOT emissions*. This returned eighty-six results with the key themes, frequency
 187 and domain illustrated in Table 2 below.

188
 189 **Table 2.** Summary of literature review themes and domains
 190

<i>Theme</i>	<i>Freq</i>	<i>Domains</i>
Waste Management / waste	29	Waste Management / Sustainability / Resources / Smart City / Env Science
Recycling	17	Waste Management / Resources / Env Science / Food tech
Solid waste	10	Chemistry / Land development / Waste management
Food waste	9	Chemistry / Waste Management / Sustainability
Chromatography	12	Chemistry
Concentration	8	Chemistry

191
 192 There are two predominant methodologies within the 608 papers, extensive reviews of existing
 193 literature and novel experiments to quantify or audit waste. The main drawback apparent within the
 194 research being context differs significantly from paper to paper, consequently no one approach
 195 appears to be generally applicable. The unique context calls for unique contextual experiments which
 196 in many cases do not find application beyond the research. Within these results twenty-six specific

197 articles made reference to estimation, construction or methodology, of these only six (illustrated in
198 Table 3) focused on quantifying landfill composition.

200 **Table 3.** Breakdown of subject and number of results
201

<i>Subject</i>	<i>No of papers</i>	<i>Reference</i>
Stakeholder management of C&D waste	1	Frempong-Jnr et al. (2023)
Estimation within BIM / software	2	Akinade et al. (2016) Covián et al. (2010)
On-site case-study	2	Forsythe et al. (2018) Huang et al. (2022)
Landfill analysis	1	Aurpa et al. (2022)

202
203 The remainder of the papers were focused on waste reduction through topics such as design,
204 logistics or other novel interventions for case-study. This literature review reveals a very limited
205 percentage of current waste research is concerned with improving the accuracy of waste
206 quantification. Additionally four of the six papers use labour intensive case-studies, analysis or
207 questionnaires. Which returns us to the central problem inherent within waste quantification, that
208 existing methodologies are predominantly manual, not automated in any way and will be difficult to
209 scale. When combined with findings from the previous section—that current methodologies are
210 resulting in highly approximate data—it is possible to state the following:

211 • Absence of consistent methodologies makes national aggregation of data difficult and
212 unreliable. Even where there are clear methodologies (such as New Zealand) the data is highly
213 approximate.

214 • Monitoring the effect of waste mitigation activities at all levels (site, regional, national)
215 will be difficult to validate without accurate data.

216 • Currently techniques are not scalable to achieve the accuracy required.

217 Any significant change in C&D waste will require a variety of interventions. This may be
218 legislative, local council policy or implementation of performance indicators for construction
219 companies. In all cases detailed data will be required to assess efficacy of these interventions. The
220 review has demonstrated existing practices cannot be relied upon for more accurate estimation. This
221 section has shown no significant current research that would result in the step change required to
222 quantify waste more effectively.

223

224 **4. Original research: AI and waste quantification**

225

226 This section documents our original research in developing an artificial intelligence (AI) to
227 recognise waste. The last decade has seen significant advances in AI. Several text-based AI's—
228 OpenAI's ChatGPT and Microsoft's Bard—have come to centre stage. They are trained on a corpus
229 that encompasses much of the information available on the internet. They can engage in text
230 conversation, distil information from the internet and complete reasonably sophisticated tasks.
231 Additionally, there are AI based around imagery. DALL-E and Midjourney are most accessible and
232 by inputting a combination of text and images these AI can generate original images. These AI
233 systems and the models they use are becoming highly sophisticated and specialised.

234 Whereas existing image recognition technologies are limited to explicitly recognising and
235 identifying features from images, AI offers additional knowledge and case-based predictive
236 capabilities. For example, using data from previous examples to more accurately make predictions
237 from the limited data available from a current case. Models have been trained specifically to review
238 and summarise legal documents (Zhong et al., 2019). Essa et al. have developed a use-case using AI
239 to identify specific flaws within a specific image (2020). Indeed, there is promising research
240 demonstrating successful categorisation of municipal waste (Malik et al., 2022). From this
241 preliminary investigation it appears highly likely that this research can be extended to not only
242 categorise but also to quantify waste from images.

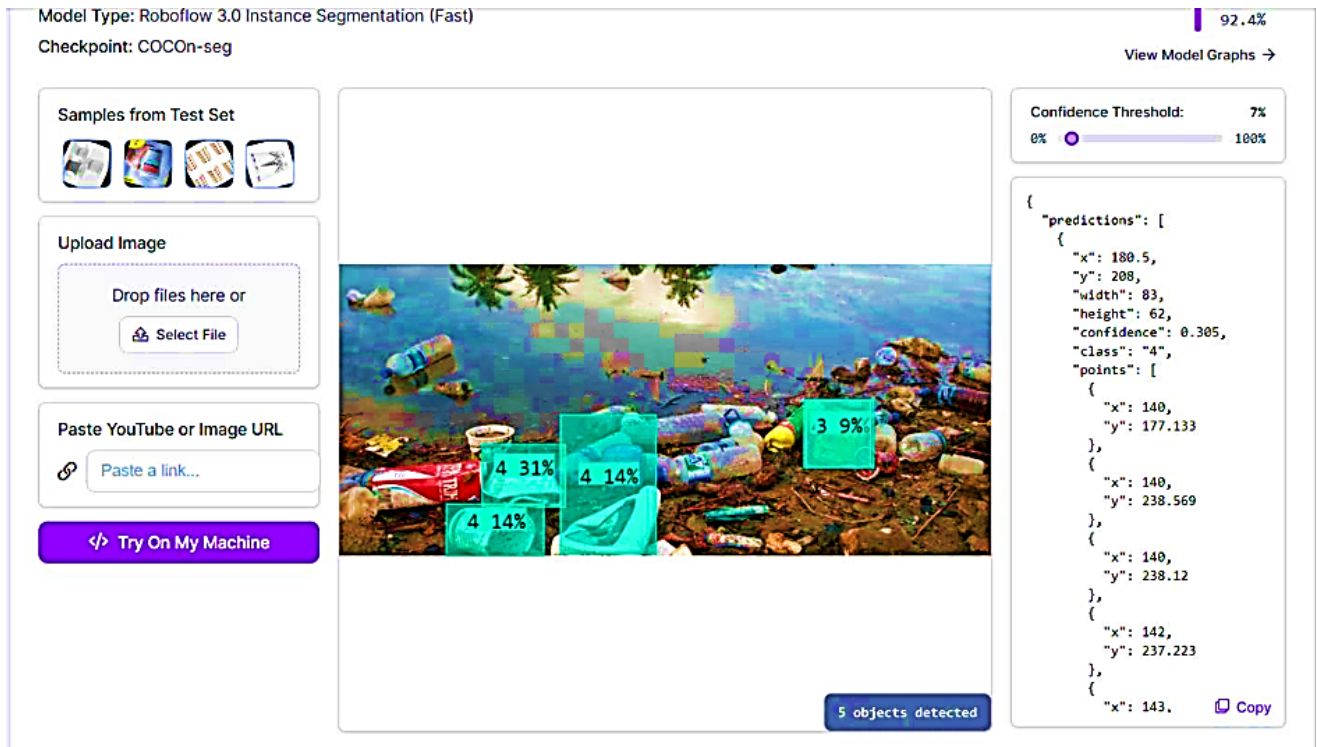
243

244 *4.1. Training an AI model to recognise and quantify waste*

245

246 A variety of freely available online AI tools were initially explored, eventually settling on the
247 user-friendly Roboflow. A freely available data set of waste images was used for training a model
248 specifically to recognise rubbish (Fig. 1).

249



250
 251 **Fig. 1.** Preliminary test of recognising rubbish from an image
 252

253 In an initial test of the model pre-trained with this data set the AI was able to perform three key
 254 tasks: identification, categorisation and quantification.

255 • Identification: Indicated by the areas highlighted by boxes in Fig. 1. This is the
 256 identification task required.

257 • Categorisation: The first number (3 or 4 in this case) in each box in Fig. 1 represents the
 258 machines attempt to categorise the object. The second number—a percentage—in each box represents
 259 the AI systems *confidence* in its categorisation of each object in the image.

260 • Quantification: On the right hand side of the image you can see it is also returning
 261 coordinates from the image creating the bounding box of the object. This can be used to calculate the
 262 overall area of the image that each type of waste accounts for. While this is highly approximate this
 263 is the third key task, it offers the possibility of quantification of the identified objects in the image.
 264

265 *4.2. Training an AI model to recognise and construction specific waste*
 266

267 The next phase was to train this AI on images that were specific to construction waste. The
 268 previous phase used generic images of waste. In the images that can be seen in Fig. 1 the items of
 269 waste are relatively spread out and clearly visible. While some are distorted out of shape, they are
 270 still readily recognisable. This phase will focus on the system's ability to identify waste that is mixed

271 in skips as illustrated in Fig. 2., as skips are the most common collection method on construction
272 sites.



273
274 **Fig. 2.** AI recognizing mixed waste in a skip

275
276 A similar methodology was used, a set of images was used to train the AI model with specific
277 itemised categories of waste. Then a second set of original images of skips filled with rubbish were
278 fed into the AI for identification. The AI then attempts to recognise those specific categories of waste
279 in the new image. Fig. 2 is an example of the results, the AI continues to generate boxes and values
280 attributed to those boxes indicating a numeric *category* and a percentage *confidence* weighting. While
281 the AI was somewhat successful in this task, in the next session we will discuss the limitations and
282 implications of this method for categorising and quantifying waste.

283 284 **5. Discussions**

285
286 This research has shown the complexity of trying to accurately quantify waste. Section 3
287 discussed domestic waste being relatively specific and consistent. Arriving at municipal landfill in
288 plastic bags makes it relatively straightforward to unpack, categorise and weigh. It relies heavily on
289 manual labour and extrapolating the overall quantity from a relatively small sample set. By contrast
290 C&D waste arrives to landfill in skips or lorries. Unpacking and categorizing this type of waste at
291 this volume is unsafe and impractical and estimation is based on visual inspection techniques.
292 However, a very small percentage is visible and this technique suffers from observational bias. Visual
293 inspection is recognized as being less accurate than unpacking and categorizing. Thus, any
294 quantification using these techniques will be highly approximate. Furthermore, attempts to compare

295 and contrast existing literature different national and regional approaches to waste estimation and
296 quantification were problematic. As discussed the approved methodologies can be buried within a
297 myriad of legislation and documentation. C&D waste specifically can be subject to esoteric caveats,
298 and as a result it may be exempt to legislation or excluded from official calculations and
299 quantifications. Consequently the ability to compare and the value of comparison was significantly
300 diminished. However, using the relatively robust case of New Zealand we were able to outline some
301 of the ubiquitous issues that are common within typical approaches to waste estimation.

302 The review of current research in section 4 suggests this will not change in the immediate future.
303 Ongoing research into waste reduction is not specifically targeting better methods for quantification.
304 When the literature was analysed the research was concerned with stakeholder management and
305 software estimations (Akinade et al., 2016; Covián et al., 2010; Frempong-Jnr et al., 2023).
306 Furthermore predominant methodologies utilised manual case-studies and analysis (Aurpa et al.,
307 2022; Forsythe et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2022). The issues of how to automate and scale
308 quantification and estimation do not feature in any significant quantity in the main body of literature.
309 The review does reveal the breadth of the problem and the manifold areas which require significant
310 research to solve this problem. Waste reduction is being tackled through design strategies,
311 implementing novel site logistics and educating for behavioural change. However, without accurate
312 data assessing the efficacy of these changes at a broader national level will be highly problematic.

313 The proof-of-concept AI system developed and discussed in section 5 was rudimentary but
314 successful to some degree. This system continues to rely on identifying waste from images, and these
315 images have a limited percentage of the skip visible. This also results in an unknown quantity of
316 waste. Different methods could be adopted for capturing images, alternatively predictive AI
317 capability could be used. Where AI differs from simple image recognition is its ability to make
318 predictions based on previous case data. Thus based on what can be identified, the type of project and
319 the phase of construction is can make predictions based of similar projects which have been
320 completed and fully categorised and quantified.

321 Predictive AI's are emerging and in testing finding some success in both vaccine development
322 and cancer treatment (Bagabir et al., 2022; Thomas et al., 2022). In both these instances large accurate
323 datasets are required. For example, an AI is trained on a dataset of successful vaccines to then shortlist
324 potentially successful vaccine designs from a selection of possible vaccine designs. Or a dataset of
325 cancer diagnosis, treatment and outcomes are used to assist decision-making for new cases. However,
326 these predictive examples need to be trained on a large body of accurate data. Once again returning
327 to the underlying problem, it appears that accurate and representative datasets will be required
328 automate and accurately measure C&D waste. These datasets are consistently present in research
329 from other domains (Essa et al., 2020; Malik et al., 2022; Zhong et al., 2019).

330 There are a number of limitations to this research. First, limited time and resources resulted in
331 a failure to obtain comparative waste management policy from Europe and North America. This
332 proved more difficult than anticipated, as a result the paper focused on the most readily available
333 policy which was New Zealand. Second, a very specific and narrow keyword search was necessary
334 for effective manual analysis of the results. A computationally assisted reviewed of a wider search
335 terminology would likely provide additional insights. Finally, the original research project
336 demonstrated a proof-of-concept only. It would be valuable to conduct a more empirical experiment
337 to assess the precision of such methods on construction sites.

338

339 **6. Conclusions**

340

341 What goes into landfill is important, as it can result in leachate, emissions and reactions if
342 unexpected chemicals come into contact. Current estimation methodologies are good, but highly
343 approximate and not scalable without large increases in labour cost and health and safety risks.
344 Additionally, at an governmental level accurate estimation is key to assessing if actions (policy,
345 legislation, taxation or training) are working. Initial research experiments reveal computer vision
346 systems and AI are not a panacea however, they hold the possibility of scaling and increasing data
347 gathering. They offer the possibility of providing a detailed inventory of what is going into our landfill
348 that is as yet completely out of reach.

349

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351

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