

1      DEFECTRA: ROAD DEFECT SEVERITY ASSESSMENT  
2      AND CLASSIFICATION

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12                  BELEBER, Benz Vrianne  
13                  CATALAN, Perserose  
14                  SENCIL, Kristian Lyle

15                  Francis DIMZON  
16                  Adviser  
17                  Jumar CADONDON  
18                  Co-Adviser

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## Abstract

21 From 150 to 200 words of short, direct and complete sentences, the abstract should  
22 be informative enough to serve as a substitute for reading the entire SP document  
23 itself. It states the rationale and the objectives of the research. In the final Special  
24 Problem document (i.e., the document you'll submit for your final defense), the  
25 abstract should also contain a description of your research results, findings, and  
26 contribution(s).

27 Suggested keywords based on ACM Computing Classification system can be  
28 found at [https://dl.acm.org/ccs/ccs\\_flat.cfm](https://dl.acm.org/ccs/ccs_flat.cfm)

29 **Keywords:** Keyword 1, keyword 2, keyword 3, keyword 4, etc.

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<sup>90</sup> **Chapter 1**

<sup>91</sup> **Introduction**

<sup>92</sup> **1.1 Overview**

<sup>93</sup> According to the National Road Length by Classification, Surface Type, and Con-  
<sup>94</sup> dition of the Department of Public Works and Highways (DPWH), as of October  
<sup>95</sup> 2022 approximately 98.97% of roads in the Philippines is paved which is either  
<sup>96</sup> made of concrete or asphalt (DPWH, 2022). Since the DPWH is an institution  
<sup>97</sup> under the government, it is paramount to maintain such roads in order to avoid  
<sup>98</sup> accidents and congested traffic situations especially in heavily urbanized areas  
<sup>99</sup> where there are a lot of vehicles.

<sup>100</sup> In an interview with the Road Board of DPWH Region 6 it was stated that  
<sup>101</sup> road condition assessments are mostly done manually with heavy reliance on en-  
<sup>102</sup> gineering judgment. In addition, manual assessment of roads is also time con-  
<sup>103</sup> suming which leaves maintenance operations to wait for lengthy assessments (J.  
<sup>104</sup> Chua, Personal Interview. 16 September 2024). In a study conducted by (Ramos,  
<sup>105</sup> Dacanay, & Bronuela-Ambrocio, 2023), it was found that the Philippines' current  
<sup>106</sup> method of manual pavement surveying is considered as a gap since it takes an  
<sup>107</sup> average of 2-3 months to cover a 250 km road as opposed to a 1 day duration  
<sup>108</sup> in the Australian Road Research Board for the same road length. Ramos et al.  
<sup>109</sup> (2022) recommended that to significantly improve efficiency of surveying methods  
<sup>110</sup> and data gathering processes, automated survey tools are to be employed. It was  
<sup>111</sup> also added that use of such automated, surveying tools can also guarantee the  
<sup>112</sup> safety of road surveyors (Ramos et al., 2023).

<sup>113</sup> If the process of assessment on the severity of road defects can be automated  
<sup>114</sup> then the whole process of assessing the quality of roads can be hastened up which

115 can also enable maintenance operations to commence as soon as possible if nec-  
116 essary. If not automated, the delay of assessments will continue and roads that  
117 are supposedly needing maintenance may not be properly maintained which can  
118 affect the general public that is utilizing public roads daily.

119 Existing studies involving road defects such as potholes mainly focus on the  
120 detection of potholes using deep learning models and almost not considering the  
121 severity of detected potholes or did not incorporate any depth information from  
122 potholes (Ha, Kim, & Kim, 2022; Kumar, 2024; Bibi et al., 2021). In addition,  
123 for studies that include severity assessment on potholes, the main goal of the  
124 study is not directed towards road maintenance automation but other factors such  
125 as improvement of ride quality for the vehicle. Another issue found in existing  
126 solutions is the lack of incorporation to the context of Philippine roads. With  
127 these issues in mind, the study aims to utilize stereo vision from StereoPi V2  
128 in order to obtain multi-perspective views of detected potholes to be used in  
129 severity assessment by focusing on estimating the depth of individual potholes  
130 for automated road condition monitoring.

## 131 **1.2 Problem Statement**

132 Roads support almost every aspect of daily life, from providing a way to transport  
133 goods and services to allowing people to stay connected with their communities.  
134 However, road defects such as cracks and potholes damage roads over time, and  
135 they can increase accident risks and affect the overall transportation. The current  
136 way of inspecting the roads for maintenance is often slow as it is done manually,  
137 which makes it harder to detect and fix defects early. The delay in addressing these  
138 problems can lead to even worse road conditions (J. Chua, Personal Interview. 16  
139 September 2024). There are several research studies into automated road defect  
140 classification that have advanced in recent years but most of them focus on iden-  
141 tifying the types of defects rather than assessing their severity or characteristics  
142 like depth. Without reliable data on the depth of the defect, road maintenance  
143 authorities may underestimate the severity of certain defects. To address these  
144 challenges, advancements are needed across various areas. An effective solution  
145 should not only detect and classify road defects but also measure their severity  
146 to better prioritize repairs. Failing to address this problem will require more ex-  
147 tensive repairs for damaged roads, which raises the cost and strains the budget.  
148 Additionally, road maintenance would still be slow and cause disruptions in daily  
149 activities. Using an automated system that accurately assess the severity of road  
150 defects by incorporating depth is necessary to efficiently monitor road quality.

## <sup>151</sup> 1.3 Research Objectives

### <sup>152</sup> 1.3.1 General Objective

<sup>153</sup> This special problem aims to develop a system that accurately estimates the depth  
<sup>154</sup> of potholes on road surfaces by using image analysis, depth measurement tech-  
<sup>155</sup> nologies, and computer vision techniques. The system will focus specifically on  
<sup>156</sup> measuring the depth of potholes to assess their severity, enabling faster and more  
<sup>157</sup> accurate road maintenance decisions, and there are no current practices in the  
<sup>158</sup> Philippines involving depth information of potholes in assessing their severity. In  
<sup>159</sup> accordance with the Department of Public Works and Highways Region 6's man-  
<sup>160</sup> ual for road maintenance, the study will classify potholes into different severity  
<sup>161</sup> levels such as low, medium, and high, which will be primarily based on their  
<sup>162</sup> depth. In order to measure the system's accuracy, linear regression in order to  
<sup>163</sup> represent the difference between the depth calculated from the disparity and the  
<sup>164</sup> actual depth of the pothole from ground truth data.

### <sup>165</sup> 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

<sup>166</sup> Specifically, this special problem aims:

- <sup>167</sup> 1. To collect high-quality images of road surfaces that capture potholes includ-  
<sup>168</sup> ing their depth in various lighting, camera distance and orientation.
- <sup>169</sup> 2. To measure the accuracy of the system by comparing the depth measure-  
<sup>170</sup> ments against ground truth data collected from actual road inspections and  
<sup>171</sup> to utilize linear regression as a metric for evaluation.
- <sup>172</sup> 3. To develop a prototype system that can detect and measure road potholes  
<sup>173</sup> from image input, analyze their depth, and assess their severity.

## <sup>174</sup> 1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Research

<sup>175</sup> This system focuses solely on detecting and assessing the severity of potholes  
<sup>176</sup> through image analysis and depth measurement technologies. The scope includes  
<sup>177</sup> the collection of pothole images using cameras and depth-sensing tools under a  
<sup>178</sup> favorable weather condition.

179     Depth-sensing tools, such as stereo cameras, will be used to record the depth  
180    of potholes specifically. The system will not address other road defects like cracks  
181    or other surface deformations; therefore, it will detect and analyze only potholes.  
182    Additionally, only accessible potholes will be measured, meaning those that are  
183    filled with water or obscured by debris may not be accurately assessed.

184     The system developed focuses exclusively on detecting potholes and assessing  
185    their severity through depth measurement. The accuracy of the system's depth  
186    measurements is evaluated by comparing them against data collected from actual  
187    field inspections. However, this comparison is limited to selected sample sites,  
188    as collecting field data over a large area can be time-consuming and resource-  
189    intensive.

190     Environmental factors such as lighting, road surface texture, and weather con-  
191    ditions may impact the system's performance. The accuracy and reliability of  
192    the system will depend on the quality of camera calibration and disparity map  
193    finetuning. Its ability to measure the depth of pothole images needs careful vali-  
194    dation.

## 195    **1.5 Significance of the Research**

196    This special problem aims to be significant to the following:

197     *Computer Science Community.* This system can contribute to advancements  
198    in computer vision and machine learning by using both visual and depth data to  
199    assess the severity of road defects. It introduces a more comprehensive approach  
200    compared to the usual image-only or manual inspection methods. This combina-  
201    tion can be applied to other fields that need both visual and depth analysis like  
202    medical imaging.

203     *Concerned Government Agencies.* This system offers a valuable tool for road  
204    safety and maintenance. Not only can this detect and classify anomalies, it can  
205    also assess the defect's severity which allows them to prioritize repairs, optimal  
206    project expenditures, and better overall road safety and quality.

207     *Field Engineers.* In the scorching heat, field engineers are no longer required  
208    to be on foot unless it requires their engineering judgement when surveying a road  
209    segment. It can hasten the overall assessment process.

210     *Future Researchers.* The special problem may serve as a baseline and guide of  
211    researchers with the aim to pursue special problems similar or related to this.

<sup>212</sup> **Chapter 2**

<sup>213</sup> **Review of Related Literature**

<sup>214</sup> **2.1 Frameworks**

<sup>215</sup> This section of the chapter presents related literature that is considered essential  
<sup>216</sup> for the development of this special problem.

<sup>217</sup> **2.1.1 Depth Estimation**

<sup>218</sup> Depth estimation as defined by Sanz, Mezcua, and Pena (2012) as a set of processes  
<sup>219</sup> that aims to extract a representation of a certain scene's spatial composition.  
<sup>220</sup> Stereo vision is stated to be among the depth estimation strategies (Sanz et al.,  
<sup>221</sup> 2012).

<sup>222</sup> **2.1.2 Image and Video Processing**

<sup>223</sup> Kumar (2024) defines image processing as a process of turning an image into its  
<sup>224</sup> digital form and extracting data from it through certain functions and operations.  
<sup>225</sup> Usual processes are considered to treat images as 2D signals wherein different  
<sup>226</sup> processing methods utilize these signals. Like image processing, Resources (2020)  
<sup>227</sup> defines video processing as being able to extract information and data from video  
<sup>228</sup> footage through signal processing methods. However, in video processing due to  
<sup>229</sup> the diversity of video formats, compression and decompression methods are often  
<sup>230</sup> expected to be performed on videos before processing methods to either increase  
<sup>231</sup> or decrease bitrate.

### **2.1.3 Stereo Vision**

MathWorks (n.d.) defines stereo vision as a process of utilizing multiple 2D perspectives in order to extract information in 3D. In addition, most uses of stereo vision involve estimating an objects distance from an observer or camera. The 3D information is stated to be extracted with stereo pairs or pair of images through estimation of relative depth of points in a scene which are then represented through a stereo map that is made through the matching of the pair's corresponding points.

## **2.2 Related Studies**

This section of the chapter presents related studies conducted by other researchers wherein the methodology and technologies used may serve as basis in the development of this special problem.

### **2.2.1 Deep Learning Studies**

#### **2.2.1.1 Automated Detection and Classification of Road Anomalies in VANET Using Deep Learning**

In the study of Bibi et al. (2021) it was noted that identification of active road defects are critical in maintaining smooth and safe flow of traffic. Detection and subsequent repair of such defects in roads are crucial in keeping vehicles using such roads away from mechanical failures. The study also emphasized the growth in use of autonomous vehicles in research data gathering which is what the researchers utilized in data gathering procedures. With the presence of autonomous vehicles, this allowed the researchers to use a combination of sensors and deep neural networks in deploying artificial intelligence. The study aimed to allow autonomous vehicles to avoid critical road defects that can possibly lead to dangerous situations. Researchers used Resnet-18 and VGG-11 in automatic detection and classification of road defects. Researchers concluded that the trained model was able to perform better than other techniques for road defect detection (Bibi et al., 2021). The study is able to provide the effectiveness of using deep learning models in training artificial intelligence for road defect detection and classification. However, the study lacks findings regarding the severity of detected defects and incorporation of pothole depth in their model which are both crucial in automating manual procedures of road surveying in the Philippines.

263 **2.2.1.2 Road Anomaly Detection through Deep Learning Approaches**

264 The study of Luo, Lu, and Guo (2020) aimed to utilize deep learning models in  
265 classifying road anomalies. The researchers used three deep learning approaches  
266 namely Convolutional Neural Network, Deep Feedforward Network, and Recurrent  
267 Neural Network from data collected through the sensors in the vehicle's suspension  
268 system. In comparing the performance of the three deep learning approaches, the  
269 researchers fixed some hyperparameters. Results revealed that the RNN model  
270 was the most stable among the three and in the case of the CNN and DFN  
271 models, the researchers suggested the use of wheel speed signals to ensure accuracy.  
272 And lastly, the researchers concluded that the RNN model was best due to high  
273 prediction performance with small set parameters (Luo et al., 2020). However,  
274 proper severity assessment through depth information was not stated to be utilized  
275 in any of the three approaches used in the study.

276 **2.2.1.3 Assessing Severity of Road Cracks Using Deep Learning-Based  
277 Segmentation and Detection**

278 In the study of Ha et al. (2022), it was argued that the detection, classification,  
279 and severity assessment of road cracks should be automated due to the bottleneck  
280 it causes during the entire process of surveying. For the study, the researchers  
281 utilized SqueezeNet, U-Net, and MobileNet-SSD models for crack classification and  
282 severity assessment. Furthermore, the researchers also employed separate U-nets  
283 for linear and area cracking cases. For crack detection, the researchers followed  
284 the process of pre-processing, detection, classification. During preprocessing im-  
285 ages were smoothed out using image processing techniques. The researchers also  
286 utilized YOLOv5 object detection models for classification of pavement cracking  
287 wherein the YOLOv51 model recorded the highest accuracy. The researchers how-  
288 ever stated images used for the study are only 2D images which may have allowed  
289 higher accuracy rates. Furthermore, the researchers suggest incorporating depth  
290 information in the models to further enhance results.

291 **2.2.1.4 Roadway pavement anomaly classification utilizing smartphones  
292 and artificial intelligence**

293 The study of Kyriakou, Christodoulou, and Dimitriou (2016) presented what is  
294 considered as a low-cost technology which was the use of Artificial Neural Net-  
295 works in training a model for road anomaly detection from data gathered by  
296 smartphone sensors. The researchers were able to collect case study data us-

297 ing two-dimensional indicators of the smartphone's roll and pitch values. In the  
298 study's discussion, the data collected displayed some complexity due to acceleration  
299 and vehicle speed which lead to detected anomalies being not as conclusive as  
300 planned. The researchers also added that the plots are unable to show parameters  
301 that could verify the data's correctness and accuracy. Despite the setbacks, the  
302 researchers still fed the data into the Artificial Neural Network that was expected  
303 to produce two outputs which were "no defect" and "defect." The method still  
304 yielded above 90% accuracy but due to the limited number of possible outcomes  
305 in the data processing the researchers still needed to test the methodology with  
306 larger data sets and roads with higher volumes of anomalies.

### 307 **2.2.2 Machine Learning Studies**

#### 308 **2.2.2.1 Smartphones as Sensors for Road Surface Monitoring**

309 In their study, Sattar, Li, and Chapman (2018) noted the rise of sensing capabili-  
310 ties of smartphones which they utilized in monitoring road surface to detect and  
311 identify anomalies. The researchers considered different approaches in detecting  
312 road surface anomalies using smartphone sensors. One of which are threshold-  
313 based approaches which was determined to be quite difficult due to several factors  
314 that are affecting the process of determining the interval length of a window  
315 function in spectral analysis (Sattar et al., 2018). The researchers also utilized  
316 a machine learning approach adapted from another study. It was stated that k-  
317 means was used in classifying sensor data and in training the SVM algorithm. Due  
318 to the requirement of training a supervised algorithm using a labeled sample data  
319 was required before classifying data from sensors, the approach was considered to  
320 be impractical for real-time situations (Sattar et al., 2018). In addition, Sattar  
321 et al. (2018) also noted various challenges when utilizing smartphones as sensors  
322 for data gathering such as sensors being dependent on the device's placement and  
323 orientation, smoothness of captured data, and the speed of the vehicle it is being  
324 mounted on. Lastly, it was also concluded that the accuracy and performance of  
325 using smartphone sensors is challenging to compare due to the limited data sets  
326 and reported algorithms.

#### 327 **2.2.2.2 Road Surface Quality Monitoring Using Machine Learning Al-** 328 **gorithms**

329 The study of Singh, Bansal, Kamal, and Kumar (2021) aimed to utilize machine  
330 learning algorithms in classifying road defects as well as predict their locations.

331 Another implication of the study was to provide useful information to commuters  
332 and maintenance data for authorities regarding road conditions. The researchers  
333 gathered data using various methods such as smartphone GPS, gyroscopes, and  
334 accelerometers. (Singh et al., 2021) also argued that early existing road monitoring  
335 models are unable to predict locations of road defects and are dependent on fixed  
336 roads and static vehicle speed. Neural and deep neural networks were utilized in  
337 the classification of anomalies which was concluded by the researchers to yield  
338 accurate results and are applicable on a larger scale of data (Singh et al., 2021).  
339 The study of Singh et al. (2021) can be considered as an effective method in  
340 gathering data about road conditions. However, it was stated in the study that  
341 relevant authorities will be provided with maintenance operation and there is no  
342 presence of any severity assessment in the study. This may cause confusion due  
343 to a lack of assessment on what is the road condition that will require extensive  
344 maintenance or repair.

### 345 **2.2.3 Computer Vision Studies**

#### 346 **2.2.3.1 Stereo Vision Based Pothole Detection System for Improved 347 Ride Quality**

348 In the study of Ramaiah and Kundu (2021) it was stated that stereo vision has  
349 been earning attention due to its reliable obstacle detection and recognition. Fur-  
350 thermore, the study also discussed that such technology would be useful in improv-  
351 ing ride quality in automated vehicles by integrating it in a predictive suspension  
352 control system. The proposed study was to develop a novel stereo vision based  
353 pothole detection system which also calculates the depth accurately. However,  
354 the study focused on improving ride quality by using the 3D information from  
355 detected potholes in controlling the damping coefficient of the suspension system.  
356 Overall, the pothole detection system was able to achieve 84% accuracy and is  
357 able to detect potholes that are deeper than 5 cm. The researchers concluded  
358 that such system can be utilized in commercial applications. However, it is also  
359 worth noting that despite the system being able to detect potholes and measure  
360 its depth, the overall severity of the pothole and road condition was not addressed.

## <sup>361</sup> 2.3 Chapter Summary

- <sup>362</sup> The reviewed literature involved various techniques and approaches in road anomaly detection and classification. These approaches are discussed and summarized below along with their limitations and research gaps.

Study	Technology/ Techniques Used	Key Findings	Limitations
Automated Detection and Classification of Road Anomalies in VANET Using Deep Learning	Resnet-18 and VGG-11	Trained model is able to provide the effectiveness of using deep learning models in training artificial intelligence for road defect detection and classification.	Lacks findings regarding the severity of detected defects.
Smartphones as sensors for Road surface monitoring	Machine Learning, Smartphones	Approach was considered impractical for real-life applications.	Sensors are dependent on device's placement and orientation, smoothness of data, and speed of vehicle it is mounted on. Accuracy of results is difficult to compare.
Road Anomaly Detection through Deep Learning Approaches	Convolutional Neural Network, Deep Feedforward Network, and Recurrent Neural Network	Identified that RNN was the best deep learning approach due to high prediction performance.	Data collection is considered too difficult and complicated to execute due to sensors being mounted on an integral part of the vehicle.
Assessing Severity of Road Cracks Using Deep Learning-Based Segmentation and Detection	SqueezeNet, U-Net, YOLOv5, and MobileNet-SSD models	YOLOv5 model recorded the highest accuracy.	Only 2D images are used for the study which may have allowed higher accuracy rates, and the study also lacked depth information.
Stereo Vision Based Pothole Detection System for Improved Ride Quality	Pair of stereo images captured by a stereo camera	System was able to achieve 84% accuracy and is able to detect potholes that are deeper than 5 cm.	Overall severity of the pothole and road condition was not addressed.

Table 2.1: Comparison of Related Studies on Road Anomaly Detection using Deep Learning Techniques and Stereo Vision

<sup>365</sup> **Chapter 3**

<sup>366</sup> **Methodology**

<sup>367</sup> This chapter outlines the systematic approach that were taken to address the  
<sup>368</sup> problem of pothole depth estimation using StereoPi V2. The methodology is  
<sup>369</sup> divided into key phases: data collection, algorithm selection, design, testing and  
<sup>370</sup> experimentation, and challenges and limitations. Each phase will play a crucial  
<sup>371</sup> role in accurately classifying and assessing road defects. Each phase is essential  
<sup>372</sup> for accurately estimating the depth of potholes using StereoPi V2.

<sup>373</sup> **3.1 Research Activities**

<sup>374</sup> **3.1.1 Data Collection**

<sup>375</sup> The researchers conducted initial inquiries to understand the problem domain and  
<sup>376</sup> existing road maintenance practices. This phase included consulting the engineers  
<sup>377</sup> under the Road Maintenance Department of the government agency Department  
<sup>378</sup> of Public Works and Highways (DPWH). An interview with Engr. Jane Chua pro-  
<sup>379</sup> vided a comprehensive overview of the DPWH's road maintenance manual, which  
<sup>380</sup> was crucial in aligning this project with existing standards. This collaboration  
<sup>381</sup> with DPWH provided insights into road pothole classification standards, ensuring  
<sup>382</sup> that the collected data will align with industry standards. The DPWH manual  
<sup>383</sup> primarily focuses on the volume of detected potholes within a road segment as  
<sup>384</sup> a measure of severity. However, since depth is not explicitly measured in their  
<sup>385</sup> current procedures, the study will supplement this by referencing international  
<sup>386</sup> standards such as the Long-Term Pavement Performance (LTPP) classification  
<sup>387</sup> used in the United States. The LTPP categorizes potholes based on depth thresh-

olds, which will be integrated with DPWH's volume-based assessment to provide a more comprehensive severity classification framework. The data collection involved capturing around 130 images of potholes from various locations within the UP Visayas Campus. Ground truth data of pothole depth were collected by the researchers by measuring the depth of different points in an individual pothole and then solving for its average depth. The aforementioned process was validated by Engr. Benjamin Javellana, Assistant Director of DPWH Region 6. In order to individually locate or determine each pothole where the ground truth data is collected, images taken were labeled with their corresponding coordinates, street names, and nearby landmarks.

#### 3.1.1.1 Data Collection (Ground Truth Data)

The researchers collected depth information from 130 potholes around the University of the Philippines Visayas Miagao Campus. During data collection, the researchers are equipped with safety vests and an early warning device to give caution to incoming vehicles. To measure the depth of each pothole, the researchers recorded four depth points within the pothole and calculated their average.

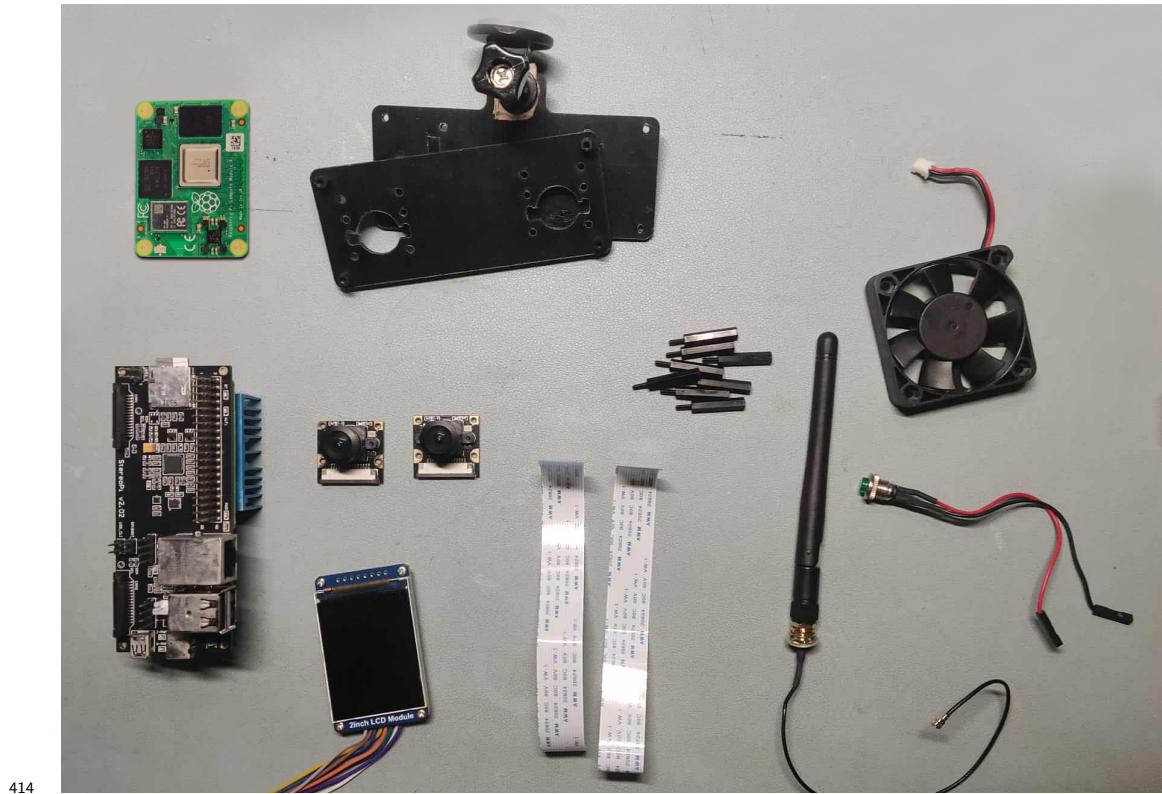
#### 3.1.2 Algorithm Selection

Potential solutions, algorithms, and system architectures were discussed by the researchers and the special problem adviser in this phase. These sessions, conducted in class and virtually via Zoom, helped narrow down the overview of the system, leading to the selection of the main architecture Epipolar Spatio-Temporal Networks (ESTN) for depth estimation.

#### 3.1.3 Design, Testing, and Experimentation

This section outlines both the design and testing of the system, as well as the experimentation process to validate the selected methodologies.

413    **3.1.3.1 Materials and Equipment**



414

Figure 3.1: Components used in the prototype development.

415    The prototype system was constructed using the following materials and com-  
416    ponents:

- 417        • StereoPi V2 Board
- 418        • Raspberry Pi Compute Module 4 (CM4)
- 419        • Dual RaspberryPi Camera Modules with Fisheye Lens
- 420        • 3D Printed Custom Housing
- 421        • 2-inch LCD Module
- 422        • Micro SD Card
- 423        • Antenna
- 424        • Momentary Push Button

425    **3.1.3.2   Prototype Building**

426    The prototype involved the StereoPi V2 Kit which was acquired through an official  
427    international distributor. After assembling the camera, it was further modified to  
428    address the it's heating by incorporating a heat sink and a small computer fan to  
429    make it suitable for outdoor use.

430

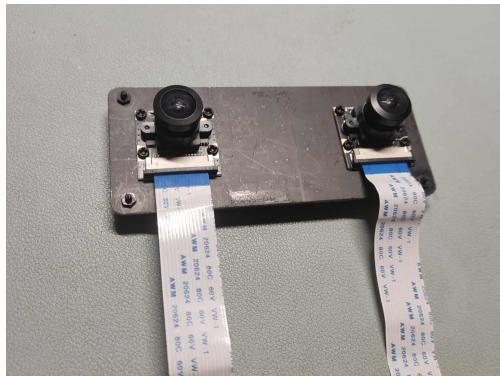


Figure 3.2: Dual RPi Camera Modules attached to the custom housing.

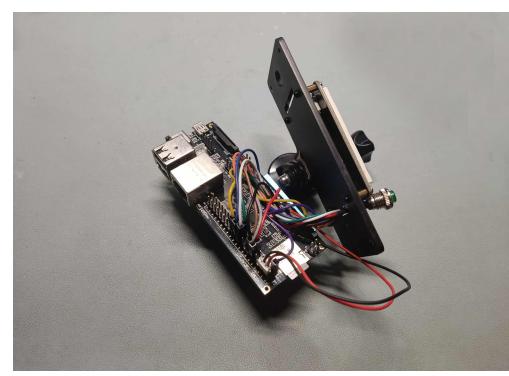


Figure 3.3: LCD Module connected to the StereoPi board.

431

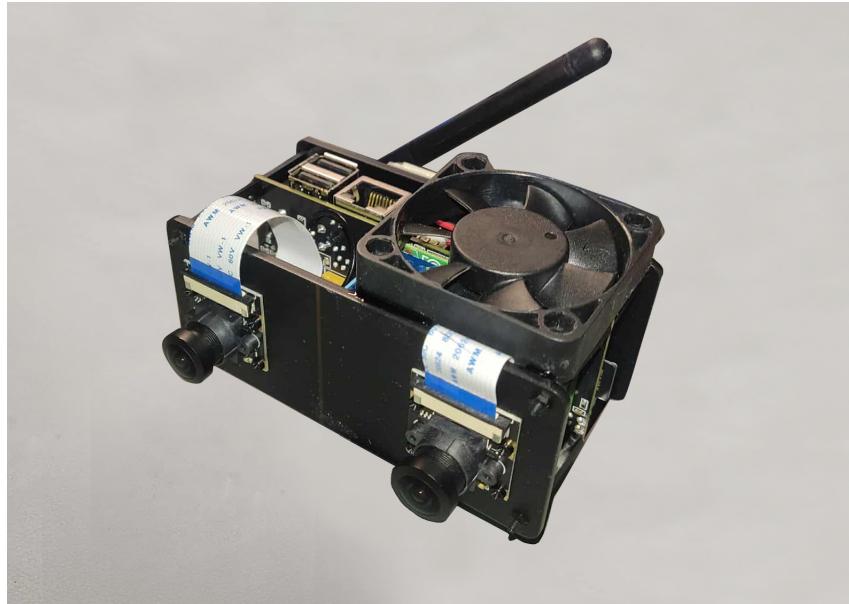


Figure 3.4: The finished prototype.

432 **3.1.3.3 Camera Calibration (Fisheye Distortion)**

433 The StereoPi V2 is first calibrated using a 9 by 6 checkerboard, with a checker  
434 size of 55mm, from different angles through calibration scripts that came with the  
435 package. This process ensured that the camera is working properly in capturing  
436 stereo imagery. This removed distortion from captured images allowing depth  
437 estimation with more accuracy.

438

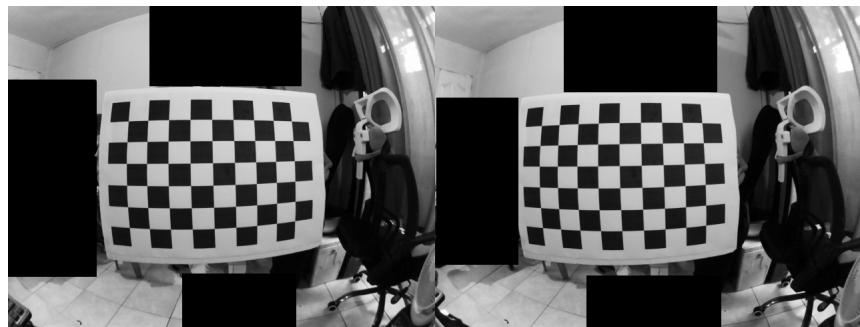


Figure 3.5: Calibration process with a checkerboard to correct fisheye lens distortion.

439 **3.1.3.4 Camera Calibration (Disparity Map Fine-tuning)**

440 The stereo image pairs captured by the system were first rectified to ensure proper  
441 alignment of corresponding features. Block matching parameters were then fine-  
442 tuned to produce clearer and more accurate disparity maps. It was observed  
443 that the effective operational range of the stereo camera system extends from  
444 approximately 30 to 80 cm. At distances closer than 30 cm, the disparity maps  
445 exhibited significant noise, while at distances beyond 80 cm, disparity information  
446 became sparse or blank.

447

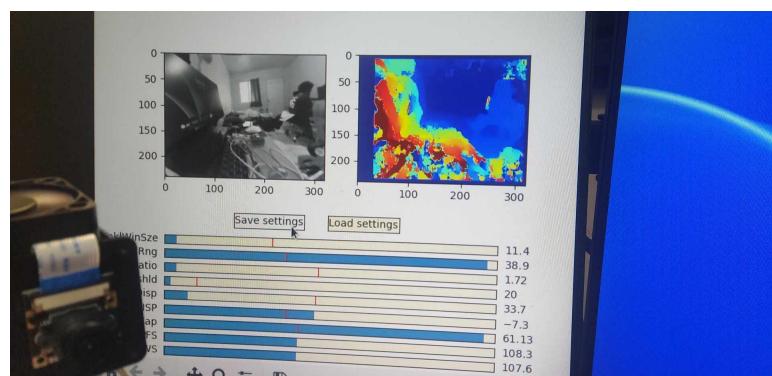


Figure 3.6: Parameter tuning process to achieve cleaner and more accurate disparity maps.

448 **3.1.3.5 Initial Testing**

449 Initial testing was conducted to verify the functionality and basic accuracy of the  
450 stereoscopic camera system in a controlled environment. Artificial potholes with  
451 known depths were created to simulate varying real-world scenarios. The system  
452 captured disparity maps, and estimated depths were computed using the standard  
453 stereo camera depth formula.

454

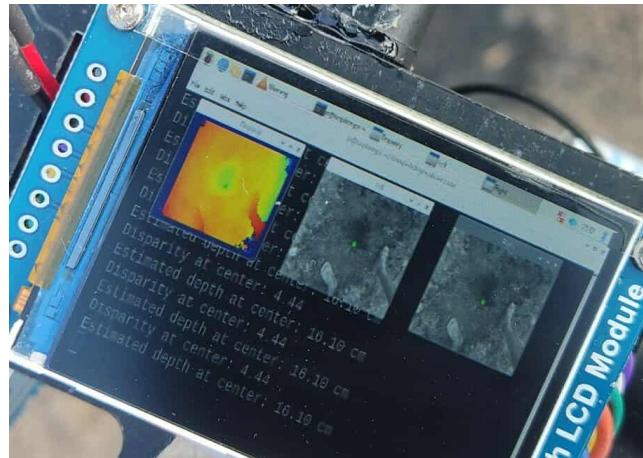


Figure 3.7: The system tested on a simulated pothole.

455 However, the results revealed a non-linear relationship between the computed  
456 disparity values and the actual distances. This discrepancy indicated that the  
457 traditional depth estimation method was insufficient for the current setup. To  
458 address this, the researchers collected multiple data points and correlating known  
459 distances to their respective disparity readings and fitted an inverse model to  
460 better represent the system's behavior (see Figure 3.8). This updated disparity-  
461 to-depth model was subsequently used in the final testing phase.

462 **3.1.3.6 Performance Metrics**

463 The accuracy of the pothole depth estimated by StereoPi V2 was analyzed using  
464 Linear Regression in order to model the difference between the disparity and  
465 distance. The lower the disparity indicates that the pothole is deeper.

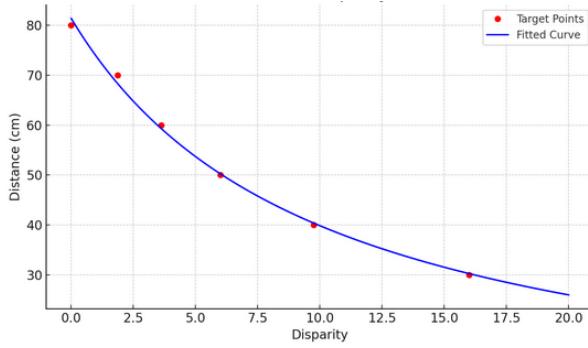


Figure 3.8: Inverse Model Fit to Disparity vs. Distance.

#### 466 3.1.3.7 Final Testing and Validation

467 The testing process began with a detailed testing plan that includes both simu-  
 468 lated and real-world testing scenarios. Initially, the system is tested in controlled  
 469 environments to ensure it can estimate pothole depth effectively. Following this,  
 470 real-world testing was conducted using the StereoPi kit on previously located  
 471 potholes, specifically at the University of the Philippines Visayas Miagao Cam-  
 472 pus. The system's performance was validated by comparing its predictions with  
 473 ground-truth data collected from manual inspections.

#### 474 3.1.3.8 Documentation

475 Throughout the research activities, thorough documentation was maintained.  
 476 This documentation captured all methods, results, challenges, and adjustments  
 477 made during the experimentation phases. It ensured the reproducibility of the  
 478 work and provided transparency for future research endeavors.

### 479 3.1.4 Challenges and Limitations

#### 480 3.1.4.1 Camera Limitations

481 During the data collection process, the researchers were faced with various issues  
 482 involving the StereoPi V2 kit. Issues like inaccuracies in the rectified image pair  
 483 and generated disparity map were very apparent in the early stages of data collec-  
 484 tion due to limited related studies and literature involving the camera. In addition,  
 485 the camera also yielded some inaccurate depth estimation and over reliance on

<sup>486</sup> controlled environments which prompted the researchers to further improve its  
<sup>487</sup> tuning and calibration.

## <sup>488</sup> 3.2 Calendar of Activities

<sup>489</sup> Table 1 shows a Gantt chart of the activities. Each bullet represents approximately  
<sup>490</sup> one week's worth of activity.

Table 3.1: Timetable of Activities for 2024

Activities (2024)	Aug	Sept	Oct	Nov	Dec
Pre-proposal Preparation	<b>W4</b>				
Literature Review	<b>W3</b>	<b>W1</b>			
Data Collection	<b>W2</b>	<b>W2</b>			
Algorithm Selection		<b>W2</b>			
System Design		<b>W1</b>	<b>W2</b>	<b>W2</b>	
Preliminary Testing				<b>W2</b>	<b>W1</b>
Documentation and SP Writing	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W2</b>

Table 3.2: Timetable of Activities for 2025

Activities (2025)	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun
Data Collection	<b>W4</b>					
System Design	<b>W3</b>	<b>W2</b>	<b>W2</b>			
Model testing	<b>W3</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>			
Results Analysis			<b>W2</b>	<b>W4</b>		
Conclusion Formulation				<b>W2</b>	<b>W3</b>	
Documentation and SP Writing	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W4</b>	<b>W2</b>

491 **Chapter 4**

492 **Preliminary Results/System  
493 Prototype**

494 This chapter presents the results on estimating the depth of potholes using the  
495 StereoPi system. It details the prototype construction, calibration of the system,  
496 and the application of regression analysis to improve depth estimation. It also  
497 contains the measurements taken during the testing phases, comparing the ground  
498 truth depths with the value estimated by the camera. Findings are presented  
499 systematically, supported by tables showing the collected data, images of the  
500 outputs, and discussion on the analysis of results.

501 **4.1 System Calibration and Model Refinement**

502 After the initial testing, the system was calibrated using a controlled setup, where  
503 artificial potholes with known depths were created. The stereo camera system  
504 captured disparity maps, from which depth was calculated using the standard  
505 stereo vision formula:

$$\text{Depth} = \frac{f \times B}{d}$$

506 where:

- 507 •  $f$  is the focal length in pixels,  
508 •  $B$  is the baseline distance between the two cameras,

- 509        •  $d$  is the disparity.

510        However, preliminary observations revealed that the relationship between measured disparity and true depth was nonlinear, particularly for small disparities corresponding to greater distances. As a result, a direct application of the stereo formula led to systematic errors, especially at the extremes of the depth range.

514        To address the nonlinear behavior, a curve fitting approach was introduced.  
515        Specifically, an inverse model was fitted to the collected data points, relating disparity and ground-truth distance measurements.

517        An inverse function of the form:

$$y = a + \frac{b}{x}$$

518        where:

- 519        •  $y$  is the estimated distance (in cm),  
520        •  $x$  is the measured disparity,  
521        •  $a$  and  $b$  are coefficients obtained through regression analysis.

## 522        4.2 Model Refinement Using Regression

523        The regression analysis produced the following model parameters:

- 524        •  $a = \dots$   
525        •  $b = \dots$

526        The model achieved the following performance on the test data:

Metric	Value
Mean Absolute Error (MAE)	X cm
Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)	X cm

Table 4.1: Performance Metrics for the Regression Model

527        The relatively low MAE and RMSE indicate that the fitted model signifi-  
528        cantly improved the accuracy of depth estimation compared to the original stereo  
529        formula.

### 530        **4.3 Error Analysis**

531        Despite the improvements, minor estimation errors remained. These errors were  
532        primarily attributed to:

- 533        • Low-light imaging conditions affecting disparity computation,
- 534        • Shallow potholes with depths less than 3 cm, where disparity resolution  
535        becomes a limiting factor,
- 536        • Perspective distortion when the stereo camera was not parallel to the ground  
537        plane.

### 538        **4.4 Testing Results**

539        Following calibration, actual potholes located around the University of the Philip-  
540        pines Visayas (UPV) campus were tested. The ground truth depths of the potholes  
541        were measured manually and compared with the depths estimated by the camera.  
542        Based on the results, the StereoPi camera was able to estimate the depths fairly  
543        close to the ground truth values. The smallest difference was seen in Pothole 5,  
544        where the estimated depth was only 0.24 cm away from the ground truth. The  
545        largest difference was found in Pothole 1, where the error was 3.45 cm. For the  
546        other potholes, the differences were 0.67 cm for Pothole 2, 2.07 cm for Pothole  
547        3, and 2.66 cm for Pothole 4. Most of the time, the camera's estimated depths  
548        were only off by about one to three centimeters. Table 4.2 shows the comparison  
549        between the manually measured ground truth depths and the depths estimated  
550        by the StereoPi camera for each simulated pothole.

Table 4.2: Ground Truth and StereoPi Depth Measurements

Pothole	Ground Truth 1 (cm)	Ground Truth 2 (cm)	Ground Truth Avg (cm)	Est Depth 1(cm)	Est Depth 2 (cm)	Est Depth Avg(cm)	Diff(cm)
1	14.6	14.4	14.5	11.16	10.94	11.05	3.45
2	12.0	12.1	12.05	12.36	10.4	11.38	0.67
3	6.4	6.5	6.45	4.76	4.0	4.38	2.07
4	9.8	9.3	9.55	6.16	7.62	6.89	2.66
5	13.9	14.3	14.1	13.04	14.68	13.86	0.24



Figure 4.1: Disparity Map

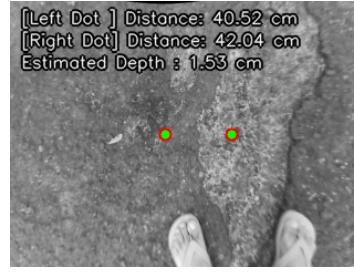


Figure 4.2: Left Stereo Image



Figure 4.3: Right Stereo Image

## 551 4.5 Discussion

552 The Linear Regression test on the collected data revealed a strong positive linear  
 553 relationship between the estimated and ground truth depths ( $R = 0.937$ ). The co-  
 554 efficient of determination ( $R^2 = 0.878$ ) also indicates that 87.8% of the differences  
 555 in the estimated depth are correctly predicted based on the ground truth data.  
 556 After calculating for the Mean Absolute Error, it was also found that estimated  
 557 pothole depths differ from the actual ground truth data by around 1.82 cm. In  
 558 addition, the Root Mean Square Error also revealed that the typical error size is  
 559 at 1.19 cm.

R	R <sup>2</sup>	Root Mean Square Error	Mean Absolute Error
0.937	0.878	1.19	1.82

Table 4.3: Model Fit Measures for Pothole Depth Estimation

<sup>560</sup> **Chapter 5**

<sup>561</sup> **Conclusion and  
562 Recommendations**

<sup>563</sup> **5.1 Conclusion**

<sup>564</sup> **5.2 Recommendations**

<sup>565</sup> After conducting and developing this special problem, the researchers have ob-  
<sup>566</sup> served that there are lapses and possible improvements to further better this  
<sup>567</sup> system.

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608 **Appendix A**

609 **Appendix Title**

<sup>610</sup> **Appendix B**

<sup>611</sup> **Resource Persons**

<sup>612</sup> **Prof. Jumar Cadondon**

<sup>613</sup> Assistant Professor

<sup>614</sup> Division of Physical Sciences and Mathematics

<sup>615</sup> University of the Philippines Visayas

<sup>616</sup> jgcadondon@up.edu.ph

<sup>617</sup> **Engr. Jane Chua**

<sup>618</sup> Engineer

<sup>619</sup> DPWH Region 6

<sup>620</sup> chua.jane@dpwh.gov.ph

<sup>621</sup>

<sup>622</sup> **Engr. Marilou Zamora**

<sup>623</sup> Chief

<sup>624</sup> Planning and Design

<sup>625</sup> DPWHRegion6

<sup>626</sup> zamora.marilou@dpwh.gov.ph

<sup>627</sup> **Engr. Benjamin Javellana**

<sup>628</sup> Assistant Director

<sup>629</sup> Maintenance

<sup>630</sup> DPWHRegion6

<sup>631</sup> javellana.benjamin@dpwh.gov.ph