

1 DEFECTRA: ROAD DEFECT SEVERITY ASSESSMENT
2 AND CLASSIFICATION

3 A Special Problem Proposal
4 Presented to
5 the Faculty of the Division of Physical Sciences and Mathematics
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8 Miag-ao, Iloilo

9 In Partial Fulfillment
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11 Bachelor of Science in Computer Science by

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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

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

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⁸⁰ **Chapter 1**

⁸¹ **Introduction**

⁸² **1.1 Overview**

⁸³ According to the National Road Length by Classification, Surface Type, and Con-
⁸⁴ dition of the Department of Public Works and Highways (DPWH), as of October
⁸⁵ 2022 approximately 98.97% of roads in the Philippines is paved which is either
⁸⁶ made of concrete or asphalt (DPWH, 2022). Since the DPWH is an institution
⁸⁷ under the government, it is paramount to maintain such roads in order to avoid
⁸⁸ accidents and congested traffic situations especially in heavily urbanized areas
⁸⁹ where there are a lot of vehicles.

⁹⁰ In an interview with the Road Board of DPWH Region 6 it was stated that
⁹¹ road condition assessments are mostly done manually with heavy reliance on en-
⁹² gineering judgment. In addition, manual assessment of roads is also time con-
⁹³ suming which leaves maintenance operations to wait for lengthy assessments (J.
⁹⁴ Chua, Personal Interview. 16 September 2024). In a study conducted by (Ramos,
⁹⁵ Dacanay, & Bronuela-Ambrocio, 2023), it was found that the Philippines' current
⁹⁶ method of manual pavement surveying is considered as a gap since it takes an
⁹⁷ average of 2-3 months to cover a 250 km road as opposed to a 1 day duration
⁹⁸ in the Australian Road Research Board for the same road length. Ramos et al.
⁹⁹ (2022) recommended that to significantly improve efficiency of surveying methods
¹⁰⁰ and data gathering processes, automated survey tools are to be employed. It was
¹⁰¹ also added that use of such automated, surveying tools can also guarantee the
¹⁰² safety of road surveyors (Ramos et al., 2023).

¹⁰³ If the process of assessment on the severity of road defects can be automated
¹⁰⁴ then the whole process of assessing the quality of roads can be hastened up which

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

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

121 **1.2 Problem Statement**

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

¹⁴² 1.3 Research Objectives

¹⁴³ 1.3.1 General Objective

¹⁴⁴ This special problem aims to develop a system that will accurately estimate the
¹⁴⁵ depth of potholes on road surfaces by using image analysis, depth measurement
¹⁴⁶ technologies, and computer vision techniques. The system will focus specifically on
¹⁴⁷ measuring the depth of potholes to assess their severity, enabling faster and more
¹⁴⁸ accurate road maintenance decisions, and there are no current practices in the
¹⁴⁹ Philippines involving depth information of potholes in assessing their severity. In
¹⁵⁰ accordance with the Department of Public Works and Highways Region 6's manual
¹⁵¹ for road maintenance, the study will classify potholes into different severity levels
¹⁵² such as low, medium, and high, which will be primarily based on their depth.
¹⁵³ In order to measure the system's accuracy, precision and recall will be used in
¹⁵⁴ order to determine the number of true positives and true positive rate and also
¹⁵⁵ the number of false positives and negatives detected by the system. In addition,
¹⁵⁶ in order to calculate the average precision and recall of the system the F-1 Score
¹⁵⁷ will also be used. Lastly, the Mean Absolute Error will be utilized in order to
¹⁵⁸ provide a straightforward measure of average error magnitude and Root Mean
¹⁵⁹ Square Error as a measure for performance since data is continuous.

¹⁶⁰ 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

¹⁶¹ Specifically, this special problem aims:

- ¹⁶² 1. To collect high-quality images of road surfaces that capture potholes includ-
¹⁶³ ing their depth in various lighting, camera distance and orientation.
- ¹⁶⁴ 2. To measure the accuracy of the system by comparing the depth measure-
¹⁶⁵ ments against ground truth data collected from actual road inspections and
¹⁶⁶ to utilize precision and recall, F1-score, root mean square error, and mean
¹⁶⁷ absolute error as metrics for evaluation.
- ¹⁶⁸ 3. To develop a prototype system that can detect and measure road potholes
¹⁶⁹ from image input, analyze their depth, and assess their severity that will be
¹⁷⁰ deployed through stereo camera mounted vehicles used for road surveying.

171 1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Research

172 This system will focus solely on detecting and assessing the severity of potholes
173 through image analysis and depth measurement technologies. The scope includes
174 the collection of pothole images using cameras and depth-sensing tools under
175 various lighting and weather conditions, ensuring the data captures real-world
176 variations.

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

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

188 Environmental factors such as lighting, road surface texture, and weather conditions
189 may impact the model's performance. The accuracy and reliability of the
190 model will depend on the quality and variety of the training dataset. Its ability
191 to generalize to unseen pothole images will need to be carefully validated.

192 1.5 Significance of the Research

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

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

200 *Concerned Government Agencies.* This system offers a valuable tool for road
201 safety and maintenance. Not only can this detect and classify anomalies, it can
202 also assess the defect's severity which allows them to prioritize repairs, optimal

203 project expenditures, and better overall road safety and quality.

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

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

²⁰⁹ **Chapter 2**

²¹⁰ **Review of Related Literature**

²¹¹ **2.1 Frameworks**

²¹² This section of the chapter presents related literature that is considered essential
²¹³ for the development of this special problem.

²¹⁴ **2.1.1 Deep Learning**

²¹⁵ Kelleher (2019) states that deep learning is inclined on making large-scale neural
²¹⁶ networks geared towards creating data-driven decisions. Furthermore, it was also
²¹⁷ argued that deep learning is oriented towards large-scale, complex data.

²¹⁸ **2.1.2 YOLOv5**

²¹⁹ According to Solawetz (2024), YOLOv5 is a model from a family of computer
²²⁰ vision models used for object detection. YOLOv5 is reported to perform compara-
²²¹ bly to state-of-the-art techniques. It is designed to extract features from raw
²²² input images, used primarily in training object detection models alongside various
²²³ data augmentation techniques.

2.1.3 Image and Video Processing

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

2.1.4 Stereo Vision

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

2.2 Related Studies

242 This section of the chapter presents related studies conducted by other researchers
243 wherein the methodology and technologies used may serve as basis in the devel-
244 opment 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

248 In the study of Bibi et al. (2021) it was noted that identification of active road
249 defects are critical in maintaining smooth and safe flow of traffic. Detection and
250 subsequent repair of such defects in roads are crucial in keeping vehicles using
251 such roads away from mechanical failures. The study also emphasized the growth

252 in use of autonomous vehicles in research data gathering which is what the re-
253 searchers utilized in data gathering procedures. With the presence of autonomous
254 vehicles, this allowed the researchers to use a combination of sensors and deep
255 neural networks in deploying artificial intelligence. The study aimed to allow au-
256 tonomous vehicles to avoid critical road defects that can possibly lead to dangerous
257 situations. Researchers used Resnet-18 and VGG-11 in automatic detection and
258 classification of road defects. Researchers concluded that the trained model was
259 able to perform better than other techniques for road defect detection (Bibi et al.,
260 2021). The study is able to provide the effectiveness of using deep learning models
261 in training artificial intelligence for road defect detection and classification. How-
262 ever, the study lacks findings regarding the severity of detected defects which is
263 crucial in automating manual procedures of road surveying in the Philippines.

264 **2.2.1.2 Road Anomaly Detection through Deep Learning Approaches**

265 The study of Luo, Lu, and Guo (2020) aimed to utilize deep learning models in
266 classifying road anomalies. The researchers used three deep learning approaches
267 namely Convolutional Neural Network, Deep Feedforward Network, and Recurrent
268 Neural Network from data collected through the sensors in the vehicle's suspension
269 system. In comparing the performance of the three deep learning approaches, the
270 researchers fixed some hyperparameters. Results revealed that the RNN model
271 was the most stable among the three and in the case of the CNN and DFN
272 models, the researchers suggested the use of wheel speed signals to ensure accuracy.
273 And lastly, the researchers concluded that the RNN model was best due to high
274 prediction performance with small set parameters (Luo et al., 2020).

275 **2.2.1.3 Assessing Severity of Road Cracks Using Deep Learning-Based 276 Segmentation and Detection**

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

288 higher accuracy rates. Furthermore, the researchers suggest incorporating depth
289 information in the models to further enhance results.

290 **2.2.1.4 Roadway pavement anomaly classification utilizing smartphones
291 and artificial intelligence**

292 The study of Kyriakou, Christodoulou, and Dimitriou (2016) presented what is
293 considered as a low-cost technology which was the use of Artificial Neural Net-
294 works in training a model for road anomaly detection from data gathered by
295 smartphone sensors. The researchers were able to collect case study data us-
296 ing two-dimensional indicators of the smartphone's roll and pitch values. In the
297 study's discussion, the data collected displayed some complexity due to accelera-
298 tion and vehicle speed which lead to detected anomalies being not as conclusive as
299 planned. The researchers also added that the plots are unable to show parameters
300 that could verify the data's correctness and accuracy. Despite the setbacks, the
301 researchers still fed the data into the Artificial Neural Network that was expected
302 to produce two outputs which were "no defect" and "defect." The method still
303 yielded above 90% accuracy but due to the limited number of possible outcomes
304 in the data processing the researchers still needed to test the methodology with
305 larger data sets and roads with higher volumes of anomalies.

306 **2.2.2 Machine Learning Studies**

307 **2.2.2.1 Smartphones as Sensors for Road Surface Monitoring**

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

322 orientation, smoothness of captured data, and the speed of the vehicle it is being
323 mounted on. Lastly, it was also concluded that the accuracy and performance of
324 using smartphone sensors is challenging to compare due to the limited data sets
325 and reported algorithms.

326 **2.2.2.2 Road Surface Quality Monitoring Using Machine Learning Al-**
327 **gorithms**

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

344 **2.2.3 Computer Vision Studies**

345 **2.2.3.1 Stereo Vision Based Pothole Detection System for Improved**
346 **Ride Quality**

347 In the study of Ramaiah and Kundu (2021) it was stated that stereo vision has
348 been earning attention due to its reliable obstacle detection and recognition. Fur-
349 thermore, the study also discussed that such technology would be useful in improv-
350 ing ride quality in automated vehicles by integrating it in a predictive suspension
351 control system. The proposed study was to develop a novel stereo vision based
352 pothole detection system which also calculates the depth accurately. However,
353 the study focused on improving ride quality by using the 3D information from
354 detected potholes in controlling the damping coefficient of the suspension system.
355 Overall, the pothole detection system was able to achieve 84% accuracy and is

³⁵⁶ able to detect potholes that are deeper than 5 cm. The researchers concluded
³⁵⁷ that such system can be utilized in commercial applications. However, it is also
³⁵⁸ worth noting that despite the system being able to detect potholes and measure
³⁵⁹ its depth, the overall severity of the pothole and road condition was not addressed.

360 2.3 Chapter Summary

- 361 The reviewed literature involved various techniques and approaches in road anomaly
 362 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

³⁶⁴ **Chapter 3**

³⁶⁵ **Methodology**

³⁶⁶ This chapter outlines the systematic approach that were taken to address the
³⁶⁷ problem of pothole depth estimation using StereoPi V2. The methodology is
³⁶⁸ divided into key phases: data collection, algorithm selection, design, testing and
³⁶⁹ experimentation, and challenges and limitations. Each phase will play a crucial
³⁷⁰ role in accurately classifying and assessing road defects. Each phase is essential
³⁷¹ for accurately estimating the depth of potholes using StereoPi V2.

³⁷² **3.1 Research Activities**

³⁷³ **3.1.1 Data Collection**

³⁷⁴ The researchers conducted initial inquiries to understand the problem domain and
³⁷⁵ existing road maintenance practices. This phase included consulting the engineers
³⁷⁶ under the Road Maintenance Department of the government agency Department
³⁷⁷ of Public Works and Highways (DPWH). An interview with Engr. Jane Chua pro-
³⁷⁸ vided a comprehensive overview of the DPWH's road maintenance manual, which
³⁷⁹ was crucial in aligning this project with existing standards. This collaboration
³⁸⁰ with DPWH provided insights into road pothole classification standards, ensuring
³⁸¹ that the collected data will align with industry standards. The DPWH manual
³⁸² primarily focuses on the volume of detected potholes within a road segment as
³⁸³ a measure of severity. However, since depth is not explicitly measured in their
³⁸⁴ current procedures, the study will supplement this by referencing international
³⁸⁵ standards such as the Long-Term Pavement Performance (LTPP) classification
³⁸⁶ 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.

⁴¹² **3.1.3.1 Materials and Equipment**

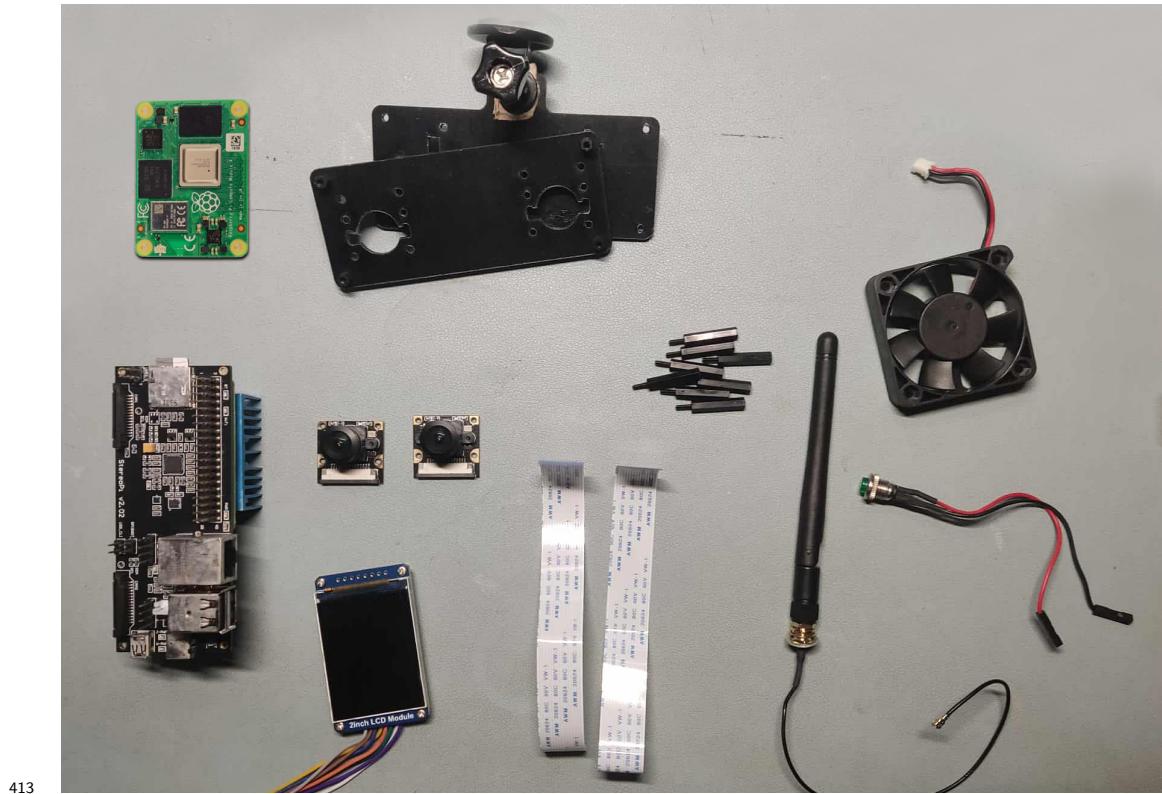


Figure 3.1: Components used in the prototype development.

⁴¹⁴ The prototype system was constructed using the following materials and com-
⁴¹⁵ ponents:

- ⁴¹⁶ • StereoPi V2 Board
- ⁴¹⁷ • Raspberry Pi Compute Module 4 (CM4)
- ⁴¹⁸ • Dual RaspberryPi Camera Modules with Fisheye Lens
- ⁴¹⁹ • 3D Printed Custom Housing
- ⁴²⁰ • 2-inch LCD Module
- ⁴²¹ • Micro SD Card
- ⁴²² • Antenna
- ⁴²³ • Momentary Push Button

424 **3.1.3.2 Prototype Building**

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

429

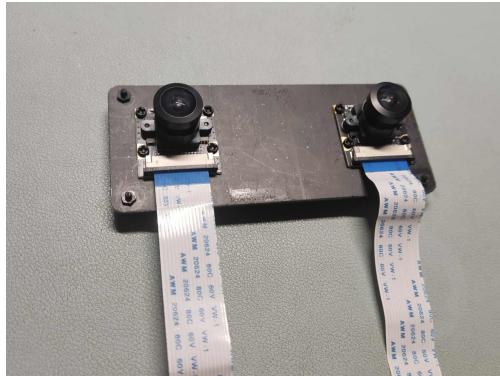


Figure 3.2: Dual RPi Camera Modules attached to the custom housing.

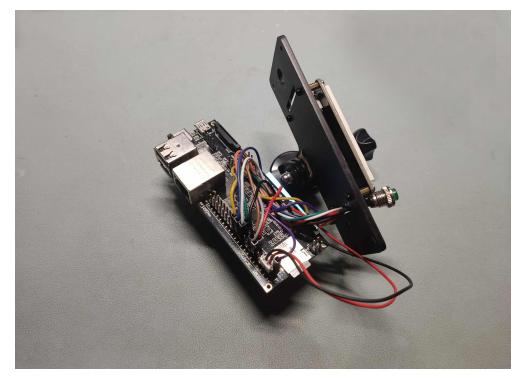


Figure 3.3: LCD Module connected to the StereoPi board.

430

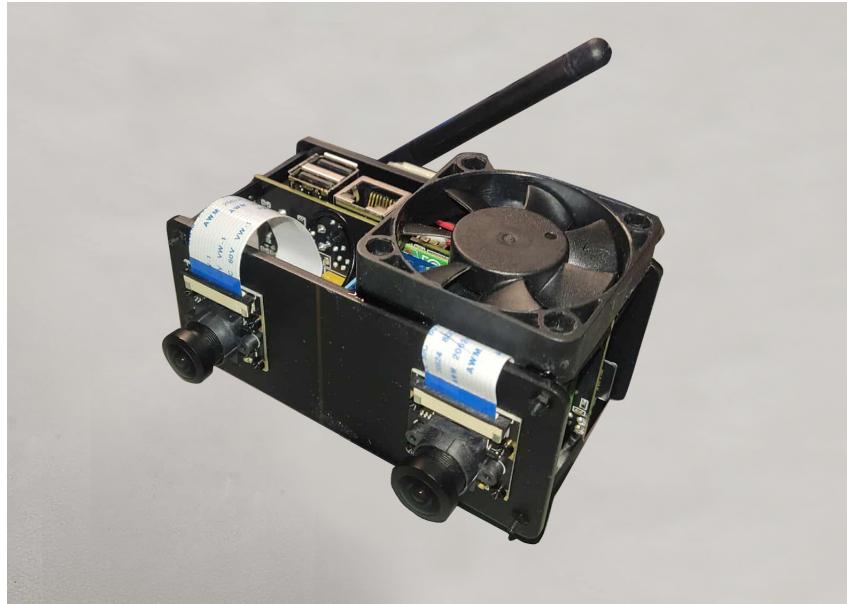


Figure 3.4: The finished prototype.

431 **3.1.3.3 Camera Calibration (Fisheye Distortion)**

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

437

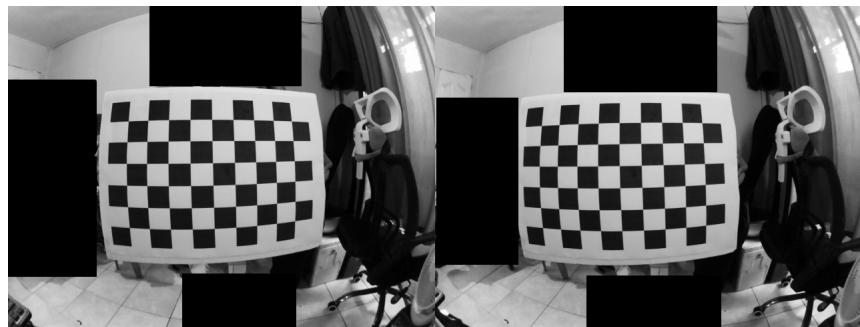


Figure 3.5: Calibration process with a checkerboard to correct fisheye lens distortion.

438 **3.1.3.4 Camera Calibration (Disparity Map Fine-tuning)**

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

446

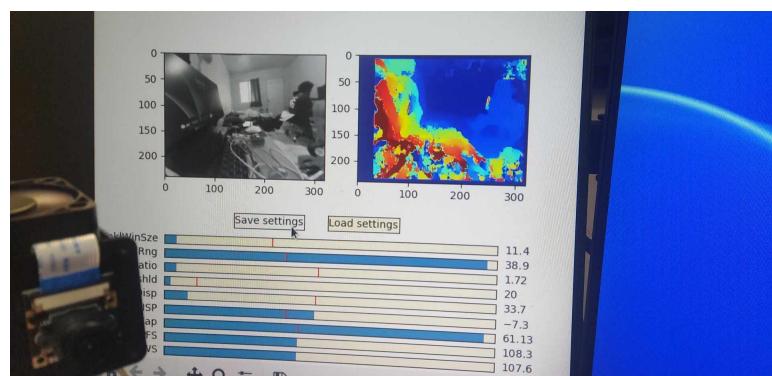


Figure 3.6: Parameter tuning process to achieve cleaner and more accurate disparity maps.

447 **3.1.3.5 Initial Testing**

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

453

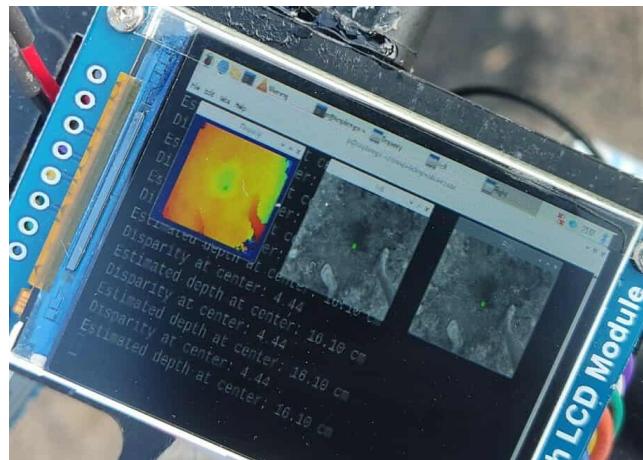


Figure 3.7: The system tested on a simulated pothole.

454 However, the results revealed a non-linear relationship between the computed
455 disparity values and the actual distances. This discrepancy indicated that the tra-
456 ditional depth estimation method was insufficient for our setup. To address this,
457 we collected multiple data points correlating known distances to their respective
458 disparity readings and fitted an inverse model to better represent the system's be-
459 havior (see Figure 3.1). This updated disparity-to-depth model was subsequently
460 used in the final testing phase.

461

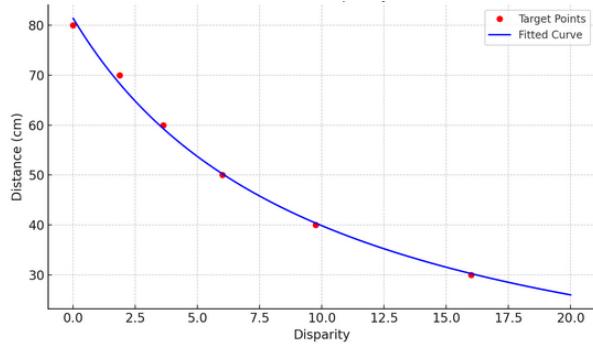


Figure 3.8: Inverse Model Fit to Disparity vs. Distance.

462 **3.1.3.6 Performance Metrics**

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

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 model 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 pot holes, 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
486 controlled environments which prompted the researchers to further improve its
487 tuning and calibration.

488 **3.2 Calendar of Activities**

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

Table 3.1: Timetable of Activities for 2024

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

Table 3.2: Timetable of Activities for 2025

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

⁴⁹¹ **Chapter 4**

⁴⁹² **Preliminary Results/System
Prototype**

⁴⁹⁴ This chapter presents the results on estimating the depth of potholes using the
⁴⁹⁵ StereoPi system. It contains the measurements taken during the initial testing
⁴⁹⁶ and final testing phases, comparing the the ground truth depths with the depths
⁴⁹⁷ estimated by the camera. This chapter also includes tables showing the collected
⁴⁹⁸ data, images of the outputs, and discussion on the analysis of results.

⁴⁹⁹ **4.1 Testing Results**

⁵⁰⁰ In the testing, actual potholes located around the University of the Philippines
⁵⁰¹ Visayas (UPV) campus were tested. The ground truth depths of the potholes
⁵⁰² were measured manually and compared with the depths estimated by the camera.
⁵⁰³ Based on the results, the StereoPi camera was able to estimate the depths fairly
⁵⁰⁴ close to the ground truth values. The smallest difference was seen in Pothole 5,
⁵⁰⁵ where the estimated depth was only 0.24 cm away from the ground truth. The
⁵⁰⁶ largest difference was found in Pothole 1, where the error was 3.45 cm. For the
⁵⁰⁷ other potholes, the differences were 0.67 cm for Pothole 2, 2.07 cm for Pothole
⁵⁰⁸ 3, and 2.66 cm for Pothole 4. Most of the time, the camera's estimated depths
⁵⁰⁹ were only off by about one to three centimeters. Table 4.1 shows the comparison
⁵¹⁰ between the manually measured ground truth depths and the depths estimated
⁵¹¹ by the StereoPi camera for each simulated pothole.

Table 4.1: 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 |

512 4.2 Final Testing Results

513 In the final testing, actual potholes located around the University of the Philip-
 514 pines Visayas (UPV) campus were tested. The ground truth depths of the potholes
 515 were measured manually and compared with the depths estimated by the camera.

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⁵⁶¹ **Appendix A**

⁵⁶² **Appendix Title**

⁵⁶³ **Appendix B**

⁵⁶⁴ **Resource Persons**

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