

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
6 College of Arts and Sciences
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9 In Partial Fulfillment
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11 Bachelor of Science in Computer Science by

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

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

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⁹⁴ **Chapter 1**

⁹⁵ **Introduction**

⁹⁶ **1.1 Overview**

⁹⁷ According to the National Road Length by Classification, Surface Type, and Con-
⁹⁸ dition of the Department of Public Works and Highways (DPWH), as of October
⁹⁹ 2022 approximately 98.97% of roads in the Philippines is paved which is either
¹⁰⁰ made of concrete or asphalt (DPWH, 2022). Since the DPWH is an institution
¹⁰¹ under the government, it is paramount to maintain such roads in order to avoid
¹⁰² accidents and congested traffic situations especially in heavily urbanized areas
¹⁰³ where there are a lot of vehicles.

¹⁰⁴ In an interview with the Road Board of DPWH Region 6 it was stated that
¹⁰⁵ road condition assessments are mostly done manually with heavy reliance on en-
¹⁰⁶ gineering judgment. In addition, manual assessment of roads is also time con-
¹⁰⁷ suming which leaves maintenance operations to wait for lengthy assessments (J.
¹⁰⁸ Chua, Personal Interview. 16 September 2024). In a study conducted by (Ramos,
¹⁰⁹ Dacanay, & Bronuela-Ambrocio, 2023), it was found that the Philippines' current
¹¹⁰ method of manual pavement surveying is considered as a gap since it takes an
¹¹¹ average of 2-3 months to cover a 250 km road as opposed to a 1 day duration
¹¹² in the Australian Road Research Board for the same road length. Ramos et al.
¹¹³ (2022) recommended that to significantly improve efficiency of surveying methods
¹¹⁴ and data gathering processes, automated survey tools are to be employed. It was
¹¹⁵ also added that use of such automated, surveying tools can also guarantee the
¹¹⁶ safety of road surveyors (Ramos et al., 2023).

¹¹⁷ If the process of assessment on the severity of road defects can be automated
¹¹⁸ then the whole process of assessing the quality of roads can be hastened up which

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

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

135 **1.2 Problem Statement**

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

¹⁵⁵ 1.3 Research Objectives

¹⁵⁶ 1.3.1 General Objective

¹⁵⁷ This special problem aims to develop a system that accurately estimates the depth
¹⁵⁸ of potholes on road surfaces by using image analysis, depth measurement tech-
¹⁵⁹ nologies, and computer vision techniques. The system will focus specifically on
¹⁶⁰ measuring the depth of potholes to assess their severity, enabling faster and more
¹⁶¹ accurate road maintenance decisions, and there are no current practices in the
¹⁶² Philippines involving depth information of potholes in assessing their severity. In
¹⁶³ accordance with the Department of Public Works and Highways Region 6's man-
¹⁶⁴ ual for road maintenance, the study will classify potholes into different severity
¹⁶⁵ levels such as low, medium, and high, which will be primarily based on their
¹⁶⁶ depth. In order to measure the system's accuracy, linear regression in order to
¹⁶⁷ represent the difference between the depth calculated from the disparity and the
¹⁶⁸ actual depth of the pothole from ground truth data.

¹⁶⁹ 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

¹⁷⁰ Specifically, this special problem aims:

- ¹⁷¹ 1. To collect high-quality images of road surfaces that capture potholes includ-
¹⁷² ing their depth in various lighting, camera distance and orientation.
- ¹⁷³ 2. To measure the accuracy of the system by comparing the depth measure-
¹⁷⁴ ments against ground truth data collected from actual road inspections and
¹⁷⁵ to utilize linear regression as a metric for evaluation.
- ¹⁷⁶ 3. To develop a prototype system that can detect and measure road potholes
¹⁷⁷ from image input, analyze their depth, and assess their severity.

¹⁷⁸ 1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Research

¹⁷⁹ This system focuses solely on detecting and assessing the severity of potholes
¹⁸⁰ through image analysis and depth measurement technologies. The scope includes
¹⁸¹ the collection of pothole images using cameras and depth-sensing tools under a
¹⁸² favorable weather condition.

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

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

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

199 **1.5 Significance of the Research**

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

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

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

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

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

²¹⁶ **Chapter 2**

²¹⁷ **Review of Related Literature**

²¹⁸ **2.1 Frameworks**

²¹⁹ This section of the chapter presents related literature that is considered essential
²²⁰ for the development of this special problem.

²²¹ **2.1.1 Depth Estimation**

²²² Depth estimation as defined by Sanz, Mezcua, and Pena (2012) as a set of processes
²²³ that aims to extract a representation of a certain scene's spatial composition.
²²⁴ Stereo vision is stated to be among the depth estimation strategies (Sanz et al.,
²²⁵ 2012).

²²⁶ **2.1.2 Image and Video Processing**

²²⁷ Kumar (2024) defines image processing as a process of turning an image into its
²²⁸ digital form and extracting data from it through certain functions and operations.
²²⁹ Usual processes are considered to treat images as 2D signals wherein different
²³⁰ processing methods utilize these signals. Like image processing, Resources (2020)
²³¹ defines video processing as being able to extract information and data from video
²³² footage through signal processing methods. However, in video processing due to
²³³ the diversity of video formats, compression and decompression methods are often
²³⁴ expected to be performed on videos before processing methods to either increase
²³⁵ or decrease bitrate.

²³⁶ 2.1.3 Stereo Vision

²³⁷ MathWorks (n.d.) defines stereo vision as a process of utilizing multiple 2D per-
²³⁸ spectives in order to extract information in 3D. In addition, most uses of stereo
²³⁹ vision involve estimating an objects distance from an observer or camera. The 3D
²⁴⁰ information is stated to be extracted with stereo pairs or pair of images through es-
²⁴¹ timation of relative depth of points in a scene which are then represented through
²⁴² a stereo map that is made through the matching of the pair's corresponding points.

²⁴³ 2.2 Related Studies

²⁴⁴ This section of the chapter presents related studies conducted by other researchers
²⁴⁵ wherein the methodology and technologies used may serve as basis in the devel-
²⁴⁶ opment of this special problem.

²⁴⁷ 2.2.1 Deep Learning Studies

²⁴⁸ 2.2.1.1 Automated Detection and Classification of Road Anomalies in ²⁴⁹ VANET Using Deep Learning

²⁵⁰ In the study of Bibi et al. (2021) it was noted that identification of active road
²⁵¹ defects are critical in maintaining smooth and safe flow of traffic. Detection and
²⁵² subsequent repair of such defects in roads are crucial in keeping vehicles using
²⁵³ such roads away from mechanical failures. The study also emphasized the growth
²⁵⁴ in use of autonomous vehicles in research data gathering which is what the re-
²⁵⁵ searchers utilized in data gathering procedures. With the presence of autonomous
²⁵⁶ vehicles, this allowed the researchers to use a combination of sensors and deep
²⁵⁷ neural networks in deploying artificial intelligence. The study aimed to allow au-
²⁵⁸ tonomous vehicles to avoid critical road defects that can possibly lead to dangerous
²⁵⁹ situations. Researchers used Resnet-18 and VGG-11 in automatic detection and
²⁶⁰ classification of road defects. Researchers concluded that the trained model was
²⁶¹ able to perform better than other techniques for road defect detection (Bibi et
²⁶² al., 2021). The study is able to provide the effectiveness of using deep learning
²⁶³ models in training artificial intelligence for road defect detection and classification.
²⁶⁴ However, the study lacks findings regarding the severity of detected defects and in-
²⁶⁵ corporation of pothole depth in their model which are both crucial in automating
²⁶⁶ manual procedures of road surveying in the Philippines.

267 **2.2.1.2 Road Anomaly Detection through Deep Learning Approaches**

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

280 **2.2.1.3 Assessing Severity of Road Cracks Using Deep Learning-Based
281 Segmentation and Detection**

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

295 **2.2.1.4 Roadway pavement anomaly classification utilizing smartphones
296 and artificial intelligence**

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

³⁰¹ ing two-dimensional indicators of the smartphone's roll and pitch values. In the
³⁰² study's discussion, the data collected displayed some complexity due to acceleration
³⁰³ and vehicle speed which lead to detected anomalies being not as conclusive as
³⁰⁴ planned. The researchers also added that the plots are unable to show parameters
³⁰⁵ that could verify the data's correctness and accuracy. Despite the setbacks, the
³⁰⁶ researchers still fed the data into the Artificial Neural Network that was expected
³⁰⁷ to produce two outputs which were "no defect" and "defect." The method still
³⁰⁸ yielded above 90% accuracy but due to the limited number of possible outcomes
³⁰⁹ in the data processing the researchers still needed to test the methodology with
³¹⁰ larger data sets and roads with higher volumes of anomalies.

³¹¹ **2.2.2 Machine Learning Studies**

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

³¹³ In their study, Sattar, Li, and Chapman (2018) noted the rise of sensing capabilities of smartphones which they utilized in monitoring road surface to detect and
³¹⁴ identify anomalies. The researchers considered different approaches in detecting
³¹⁵ road surface anomalies using smartphone sensors. One of which are threshold-based
³¹⁶ approaches which was determined to be quite difficult due to several factors
³¹⁷ that are affecting the process of determining the interval length of a window
³¹⁸ function in spectral analysis (Sattar et al., 2018). The researchers also utilized
³¹⁹ a machine learning approach adapted from another study. It was stated that k-means
³²⁰ was used in classifying sensor data and in training the SVM algorithm. Due
³²¹ to the requirement of training a supervised algorithm using a labeled sample data
³²² was required before classifying data from sensors, the approach was considered to
³²³ be impractical for real-time situations (Sattar et al., 2018). In addition, Sattar
³²⁴ et al. (2018) also noted various challenges when utilizing smartphones as sensors
³²⁵ for data gathering such as sensors being dependent on the device's placement and
³²⁶ orientation, smoothness of captured data, and the speed of the vehicle it is being
³²⁷ mounted on. Lastly, it was also concluded that the accuracy and performance of
³²⁸ using smartphone sensors is challenging to compare due to the limited data sets
³²⁹ and reported algorithms.

³³¹ **2.2.2.2 Road Surface Quality Monitoring Using Machine Learning Algorithms**

³³³ The study of Singh, Bansal, Kamal, and Kumar (2021) aimed to utilize machine
³³⁴ learning algorithms in classifying road defects as well as predict their locations.

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

349 **2.2.3 Computer Vision Studies**

350 **2.2.3.1 Stereo Vision Based Pothole Detection System for Improved 351 Ride Quality**

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

³⁶⁵ 2.3 Chapter Summary

³⁶⁶ 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

³⁶⁹ **Chapter 3**

³⁷⁰ **Methodology**

³⁷¹ This chapter outlines the systematic approach that were taken to address the
³⁷² problem of pothole depth estimation using StereoPi V2. The methodology is
³⁷³ divided into key phases: data collection, algorithm selection, design, testing and
³⁷⁴ experimentation, and challenges and limitations. Each phase will play a crucial
³⁷⁵ role in accurately classifying and assessing road defects. Each phase is essential
³⁷⁶ for accurately estimating the depth of potholes using StereoPi V2.

³⁷⁷ **3.1 Research Activities**

³⁷⁸ **3.1.1 Data Collection**

³⁷⁹ The researchers conducted initial inquiries to understand the problem domain and
³⁸⁰ existing road maintenance practices. This phase included consulting the engineers
³⁸¹ under the Road Maintenance Department of the government agency Department
³⁸² of Public Works and Highways (DPWH). An interview with Engr. Jane Chua pro-
³⁸³ vided a comprehensive overview of the DPWH's road maintenance manual, which
³⁸⁴ was crucial in aligning this project with existing standards. This collaboration
³⁸⁵ with DPWH provided insights into road pothole classification standards, ensuring
³⁸⁶ that the collected data will align with industry standards. The DPWH manual
³⁸⁷ primarily focuses on the volume of detected potholes within a road segment as
³⁸⁸ a measure of severity. However, since depth is not explicitly measured in their
³⁸⁹ current procedures, the study will supplement this by referencing international
³⁹⁰ standards such as the Long-Term Pavement Performance (LTPP) classification
³⁹¹ 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.

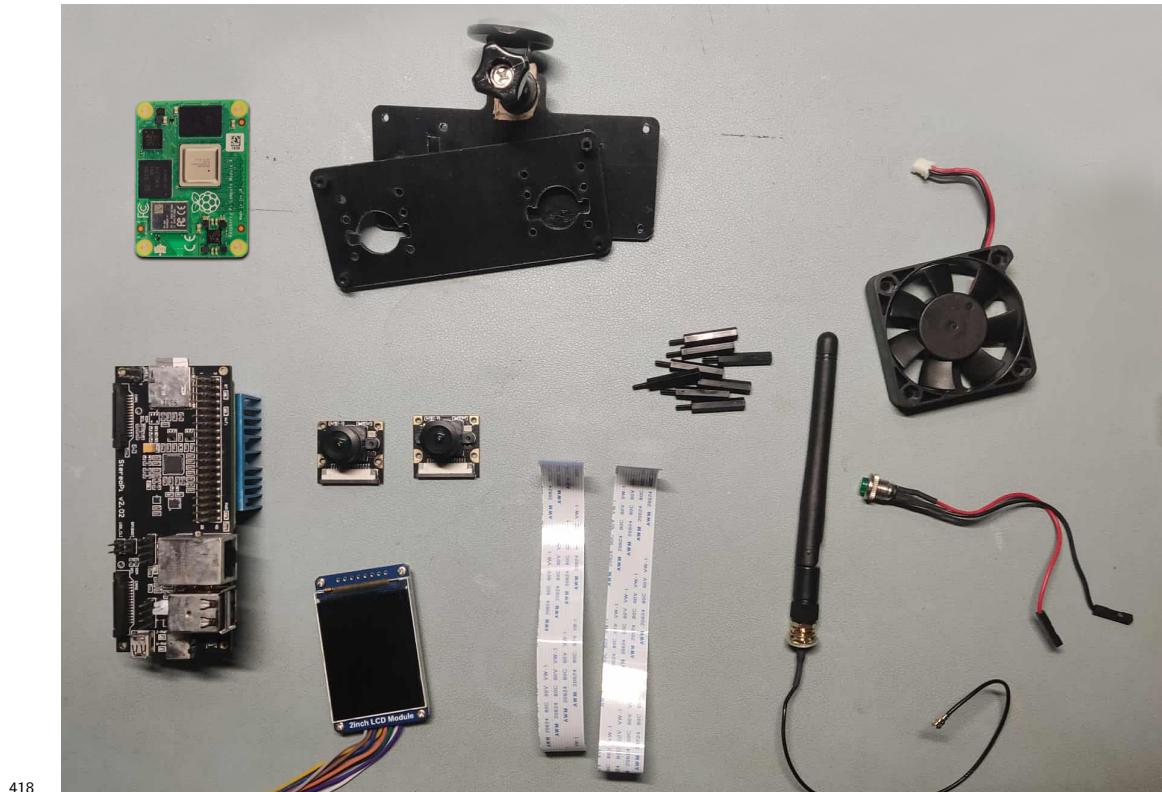
3.1.2 Algorithm Selection

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.

417 **3.1.3.1 Materials and Equipment**



418

Figure 3.1: Components used in the prototype development.

419 The prototype system was constructed using the following materials and com-
420 ponents:

- 421 • StereoPi V2 Board
- 422 • Raspberry Pi Compute Module 4 (CM4)
- 423 • Dual RaspberryPi Camera Modules with Fisheye Lens
- 424 • 3D Printed Custom Housing
- 425 • 2-inch LCD Module
- 426 • Micro SD Card
- 427 • Antenna
- 428 • Momentary Push Button

429 **3.1.3.2 Prototype Building**

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

434

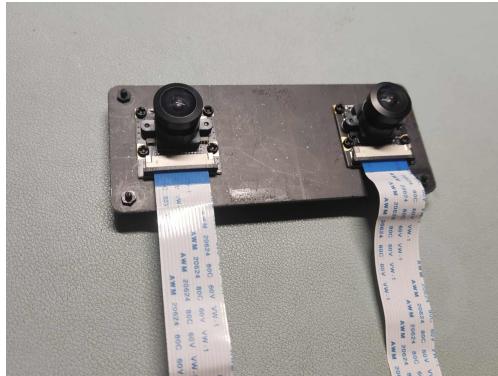


Figure 3.2: Dual RPi Camera Modules attached to the custom housing.

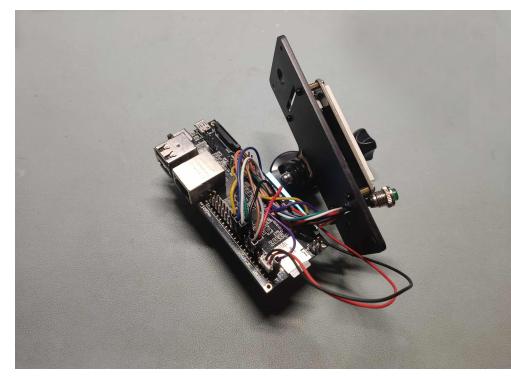


Figure 3.3: LCD Module connected to the StereoPi board.

435

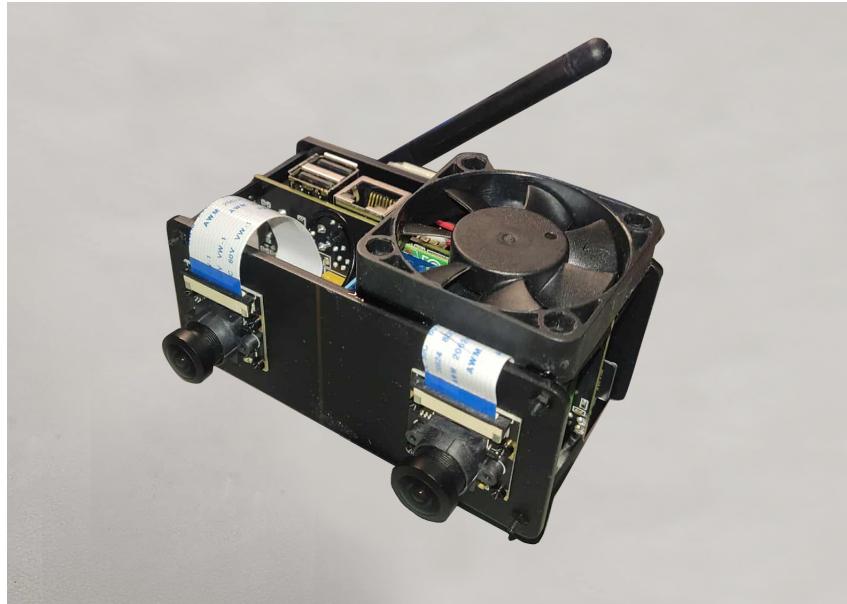


Figure 3.4: The finished prototype.

436 **3.1.3.3 Camera Calibration (Fisheye Distortion)**

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

442

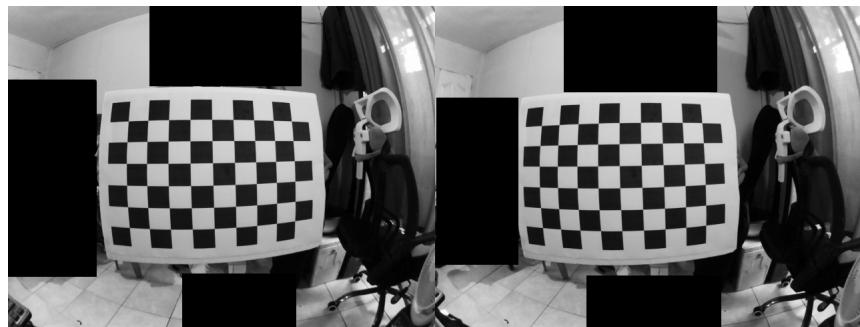


Figure 3.5: Calibration process with a checkerboard to correct fisheye lens distortion.

443 **3.1.3.4 Camera Calibration (Disparity Map Fine-tuning)**

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

451

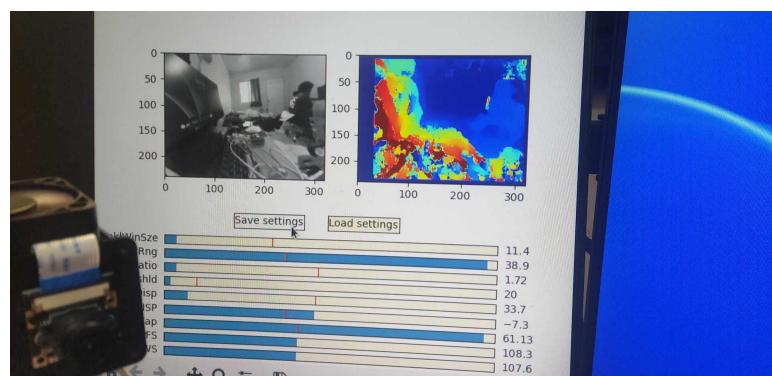


Figure 3.6: Parameter tuning process to achieve cleaner and more accurate disparity maps.

452 **3.1.3.5 Initial Testing**

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

458

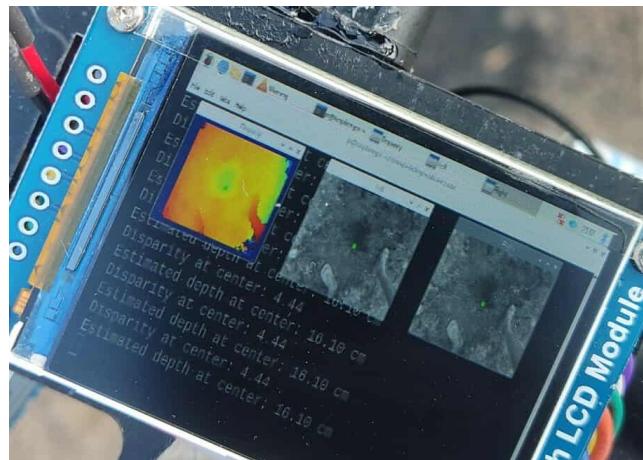


Figure 3.7: The system tested on a simulated pothole.

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

466 **3.1.3.6 Performance Metrics**

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

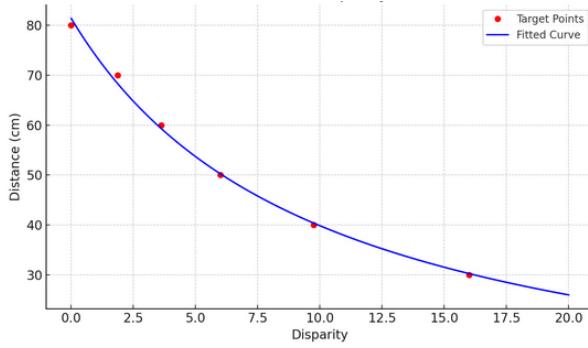


Figure 3.8: Inverse Model Fit to Disparity vs. Distance.

470 3.1.3.7 Final Testing and Validation

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

478 3.1.3.8 Documentation

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

483 3.1.4 Challenges and Limitations

484 3.1.4.1 Camera Limitations

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

⁴⁹⁰ controlled environments which prompted the researchers to further improve its
⁴⁹¹ tuning and calibration.

⁴⁹² 3.2 Calendar of Activities

⁴⁹³ Table 1 shows a Gantt chart of the activities. Each bullet represents approximately
⁴⁹⁴ 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

495 **Chapter 4**

496 **Preliminary Results/System
497 Prototype**

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

505 **4.1 System Calibration and Model Refinement**

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

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

510 where:

- 511 • f is the focal length in pixels,
512 • B is the baseline distance between the two cameras,

- 513 • d is the disparity.

514 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.

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

521 An inverse function of the form:

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

522 where:

- 523 • y is the estimated distance (in cm),
524 • x is the measured disparity,
525 • a and b are coefficients obtained through regression analysis.

526 4.2 Model Refinement Using Regression

527 The regression analysis produced the following model parameters:

- 528 • $a = \dots$
529 • $b = \dots$

530 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

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

534 **4.3 Error Analysis**

535 Despite the improvements, minor estimation errors remained. These errors were
536 primarily attributed to:

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

542 **4.4 Testing Results**

543 Following calibration, actual potholes located around the University of the Philip-
544 pines Visayas (UPV) campus were tested. The ground truth depths of the potholes
545 were measured manually and compared with the depths estimated by the camera.
546 Based on the results, the StereoPi camera was able to estimate the depths fairly
547 close to the ground truth values. The smallest difference was seen in Pothole 5,
548 where the estimated depth was only 0.24 cm away from the ground truth. The
549 largest difference was found in Pothole 1, where the error was 3.45 cm. For the
550 other potholes, the differences were 0.67 cm for Pothole 2, 2.07 cm for Pothole
551 3, and 2.66 cm for Pothole 4. Most of the time, the camera's estimated depths
552 were only off by about one to three centimeters. Table 4.2 shows the comparison
553 between the manually measured ground truth depths and the depths estimated
554 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

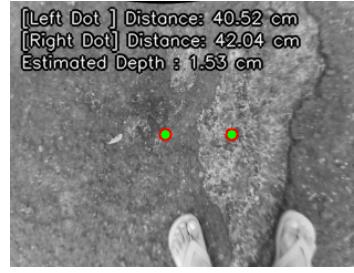


Figure 4.2: Left Stereo Image



Figure 4.3: Right Stereo Image

555 4.5 Discussion

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

R	R ²	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

⁵⁶⁴ **Chapter 5**

⁵⁶⁵ **Summary, Conclusions,
566 Discussion, and
567 Recommendations**

⁵⁶⁸ Chapter 5 provides conclusions based on the research findings from data collected
⁵⁶⁹ on the development of a pothole depth estimation system using stereo vision tech-
⁵⁷⁰ nology. It also presents a discussion and recommendations for future research.
⁵⁷¹ This chapter reviews the purpose of the study, research questions, related liter-
⁵⁷² ature, methodology, and findings. It then presents the conclusions, a discussion
⁵⁷³ of the results, recommendations for practice, suggestions for further research, and
⁵⁷⁴ the final conclusion of the study.

⁵⁷⁵ **5.1 Summary**

⁵⁷⁶ This special project addressed the critical issue of road maintenance by developing
⁵⁷⁷ a system capable of estimating the depth of potholes to help prioritize repairs.
⁵⁷⁸ The purpose of the project was to create an automated method that not only
⁵⁷⁹ detects potholes but also assesses their severity based on depth, responding to
⁵⁸⁰ the current manual and slow road inspection practices. The researchers aimed to
⁵⁸¹ collect high-quality images of potholes under varying conditions, to validate the
⁵⁸² system's depth estimation accuracy using ground truth measurements and linear
⁵⁸³ regression analysis, and to build a working prototype using stereo vision that can
⁵⁸⁴ detect, measure, and assess potholes.

⁵⁸⁵ To achieve these objectives, a hardware prototype was built using the StereoPi

586 V2 board and Raspberry Pi Compute Module 4, equipped with dual fisheye-lens
587 cameras. Camera calibration was performed using a 9x6 checkerboard pattern
588 with known square sizes to correct for fisheye lens distortion and ensure proper
589 alignment of the stereo pair. After calibration, disparity map generation was
590 fine-tuned by adjusting block matching parameters to produce clearer and more
591 reliable disparity maps. Initial testing was conducted using simulated potholes
592 with known depths to verify the functionality of the system and identify the non-
593 linear behavior present in stereo vision depth measurements. It was observed that
594 using the standard stereo depth formula led to inaccuracies, particularly at greater
595 distances.

596 The calibrated system and fitted regression model were validated by comparing
597 the estimated depths with the manually measured depths. The findings showed
598 that the system was able to estimate pothole depths within approximately ± 2
599 cm of actual measurements, achieving a Mean Absolute Error (MAE) of 1.82 cm
600 and a Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) of 1.19 cm. A strong positive linear
601 relationship was observed between the estimated and actual depths ($R = 0.937$,
602 $R^2 = 0.878$).

603 5.2 Conclusions

604 The researchers conclude the following based on the findings:

- 605 • The system effectively captures and analyzes depth information from stereo
606 images, providing a viable method for automated pothole severity assess-
607 ment.
- 608 • Incorporating depth measurements significantly improves pothole repair pri-
609 oritization compared to traditional visual-only inspections, allowing main-
610 tenance decisions to be based on objective, measurable data.
- 611 • The system achieved an acceptable regression model fit, with a strong posi-
612 tive correlation ($R = 0.937$) and a coefficient of determination ($R^2 = 0.878$),
613 confirming that the depth estimates closely align with the ground truth
614 measurements. The system obtained satisfactory error metrics, with a Mean
615 Absolute Error (MAE) of 1.82 cm and a Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)
616 of 1.19 cm, indicating reliable performance for both pothole detection and
617 depth estimation tasks.
- 618 • The proposed approach fills a critical gap in current road maintenance prac-
619 tices, especially within the Philippine context where depth-based severity

620 classification is not yet systematically implemented.

621 5.3 Discussion

622 The study found that stereo vision works effectively in helping estimate the depth
623 of road potholes. The system built using the StereoPi V2 camera was able to
624 measure pothole depths with results mostly within ± 2 cm of the actual ground
625 truth values. This matches the general observation in earlier studies (e.g., Ra-
626 maiah and Kundu, 2021), which showed that stereo vision can provide useful 3D
627 information for road obstacle detection. However, this study advances previous
628 work by focusing not just on detection, but on depth-based severity classification,
629 which was largely missing in earlier research.

630 The outputs of the system were generally positive, showing that with proper
631 calibration and tuning, consistent and reliable depth estimates can be produced.
632 Calibration using checkerboards and tuning block matching parameters were cru-
633 cial steps in achieving these results. Similar to the findings of Sanz et al. (2012),
634 proper stereo camera calibration was found to be critical to achieving accept-
635 able disparity maps. This reinforces the importance of calibration techniques,
636 especially in real-world outdoor conditions where environmental factors introduce
637 noise.

638 It was also observed that incorporating depth measurements into pothole de-
639 tection greatly improves how potholes are prioritized for repairs compared to
640 traditional visual-only inspections. This insight fills a notable gap in current
641 practices, especially in the Philippine context where depth measurements are not
642 typically part of road surveys (Ramos et al., 2023). Depth-based severity clas-
643 sification enables road maintenance teams to make more informed and objective
644 decisions on which potholes to prioritize for immediate repair, helping to optimize
645 resource allocation and improve public road safety.

646 The system achieved a strong positive regression model fit ($R = 0.937$, R^2
647 = 0.878) and satisfactory error measures (MAE = 1.82 cm, RMSE = 1.19 cm).
648 These results confirm that stereo vision, when combined with simple regression
649 modeling, can reliably estimate pothole depths. This finding is significant because
650 earlier machine learning-based road detection studies (such as Bibi et al., 2021)
651 focused mostly on classifying the existence of defects, not measuring their severity.

652 However, the study also highlighted limitations affecting system performance,
653 including sensitivity to camera calibration quality, lighting conditions, road sur-
654 face texture, and the camera's vertical positioning during image capture. Outdoor

655 testing revealed that low lighting and shallow potholes made it difficult to generate
656 clean disparity maps, sometimes causing minor estimation errors. These
657 observations are consistent with Sattar et al. (2018), who reported that mobile
658 road sensing systems often struggle in low-light or highly variable surface conditions.
659 Understanding these challenges is important because it points to practical
660 improvements, such as using better cameras, adding lighting support, or applying
661 more robust image enhancement methods in future versions of the system.

662 5.4 Recommendations for Practice

663 Based on the findings of this special project, the following recommendations are
664 proposed for future researchers, engineers, and road maintenance agencies:

665 *Use stereo vision systems for road surveys.* Road maintenance agencies should
666 consider using calibrated stereo vision systems to estimate pothole depth, allowing
667 for better prioritization of road repairs compared to visual inspections alone.

668 *Incorporate depth-based severity classification in maintenance procedures.* Authorities
669 should update road inspection protocols to include depth measurements, making
670 pothole severity assessment more objective and standardized.

671 5.5 Suggestions for further research

672 Based on the limitations encountered and the results obtained, the researchers have
673 observed that there are lapses and possible improvements to further better this
674 system.

675 *Better camera.* While the StereoPi V2 camera was effective for basic depth
676 estimation, its performance is limited by its resolution, sensitivity to lighting,
677 and depth range. Future researchers could consider using higher-quality stereo
678 cameras or depth sensors with better image resolution and low-light capabilities
679 to achieve more accurate and consistent disparity maps.

680 *Improve camera calibration and tuning.* While the StereoPi system produced
681 good depth estimates, the results still varied depending on the precision of the
682 camera calibration. Future researchers can explore better calibration techniques
683 and finer parameter adjustments to minimize errors, especially in challenging en-
684 vironments.

685 **5.6 Conclusion**

686 This special project has successfully developed a system that addresses the prob-
687 lem of pothole severity assessment using depth measurement. The research shows
688 that stereo vision, even using accessible and affordable technology, holds strong
689 potential for future development in road maintenance automation. By building
690 upon the foundation laid by this project, future systems can become even more
691 accurate, efficient, and practical for real-world deployment.

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⁷³² **Appendix A**

⁷³³ **Appendix Title**

⁷³⁴ **Appendix B**

⁷³⁵ **Resource Persons**

⁷³⁶ **Prof. Jumar Cadondon**

⁷³⁷ Assistant Professor

⁷³⁸ Division of Physical Sciences and Mathematics

⁷³⁹ University of the Philippines Visayas

⁷⁴⁰ jgcadondon@up.edu.ph

⁷⁴¹ **Engr. Jane Chua**

⁷⁴² Engineer

⁷⁴³ DPWH Region 6

⁷⁴⁴ chua.jane@dpwh.gov.ph

⁷⁴⁵

⁷⁴⁶ **Engr. Marilou Zamora**

⁷⁴⁷ Chief

⁷⁴⁸ Planning and Design

⁷⁴⁹ DPWHRegion6

⁷⁵⁰ zamora.marilou@dpwh.gov.ph

⁷⁵¹ **Engr. Benjamin Javellana**

⁷⁵² Assistant Director

⁷⁵³ Maintenance

⁷⁵⁴ DPWHRegion6

⁷⁵⁵ javellana.benjamin@dpwh.gov.ph