

1 DEFECTRA: ROAD DEFECT SEVERITY ASSESSMENT
2 AND CLASSIFICATION

3 A Special Problem Proposal
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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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⁸⁴ **Chapter 1**

⁸⁵ **Introduction**

⁸⁶ **1.1 Overview**

⁸⁷ According to the National Road Length by Classification, Surface Type, and Con-
⁸⁸ dition of the Department of Public Works and Highways (DPWH), as of October
⁸⁹ 2022 approximately 98.97% of roads in the Philippines is paved which is either
⁹⁰ made of concrete or asphalt (DPWH, 2022). Since the DPWH is an institution
⁹¹ under the government, it is paramount to maintain such roads in order to avoid
⁹² accidents and congested traffic situations especially in heavily urbanized areas
⁹³ where there are a lot of vehicles.

⁹⁴ In an interview with the Road Board of DPWH Region 6 it was stated that
⁹⁵ road condition assessments are mostly done manually with heavy reliance on en-
⁹⁶ gineering judgment. In addition, manual assessment of roads is also time con-
⁹⁷ suming which leaves maintenance operations to wait for lengthy assessments (J.
⁹⁸ Chua, Personal Interview. 16 September 2024). In a study conducted by (Ramos,
⁹⁹ Dacanay, & Bronuela-Ambrocio, 2023), it was found that the Philippines' current
¹⁰⁰ method of manual pavement surveying is considered as a gap since it takes an
¹⁰¹ average of 2-3 months to cover a 250 km road as opposed to a 1 day duration
¹⁰² in the Australian Road Research Board for the same road length. Ramos et al.
¹⁰³ (2022) recommended that to significantly improve efficiency of surveying methods
¹⁰⁴ and data gathering processes, automated survey tools are to be employed. It was
¹⁰⁵ also added that use of such automated, surveying tools can also guarantee the
¹⁰⁶ safety of road surveyors (Ramos et al., 2023).

¹⁰⁷ If the process of assessment on the severity of road defects can be automated
¹⁰⁸ then the whole process of assessing the quality of roads can be hastened up which

¹⁰⁹ can also enable maintenance operations to commence as soon as possible if nec-
¹¹⁰essary. If not automated, the delay of assessments will continue and roads that
¹¹¹are supposedly needing maintenance may not be properly maintained which can
¹¹²affect the general public that is utilizing public roads daily.

¹¹³ Existing studies involving road defects such as potholes mainly focus on the
¹¹⁴detection of potholes using deep learning models and almost not considering the
¹¹⁵severity of detected potholes or did not incorporate any depth information from
¹¹⁶potholes (Ha, Kim, & Kim, 2022; Kumar, 2024; Bibi et al., 2021). In addition,
¹¹⁷for studies that include severity assessment on potholes, the main goal of the
¹¹⁸study is not directed towards road maintenance automation but other factors such
¹¹⁹as improvement of ride quality for the vehicle. Another issue found in existing
¹²⁰solutions is the lack of incorporation to the context of Philippine roads. With
¹²¹these issues in mind, the study aims to utilize stereo vision from StereoPi V2
¹²²in order to obtain multi-perspective views of detected potholes to be used in
¹²³severity assessment by focusing on estimating the depth of individual potholes
¹²⁴for automated road condition monitoring.

¹²⁵ 1.2 Problem Statement

¹²⁶ Roads support almost every aspect of daily life, from providing a way to transport
¹²⁷goods and services to allowing people to stay connected with their communities.
¹²⁸ However, road defects such as cracks and potholes damage roads over time, and
¹²⁹they can increase accident risks and affect the overall transportation. The current
¹³⁰way of inspecting the roads for maintenance is often slow as it is done manually,
¹³¹which makes it harder to detect and fix defects early. The delay in addressing
¹³²these problems can lead to even worse road conditions (J. Chua, Personal Inter-
¹³³view. 16 September 2024). There are several research studies into automated
¹³⁴road defect classification that have advanced in recent years but most of them
¹³⁵focus on identifying the types of defects rather than assessing their severity or
¹³⁶characteristics like depth. Without reliable data on the depth of the defect, road
¹³⁷maintenance authorities may underestimate the severity of certain defects. To ad-
¹³⁸dress these challenges, advancements are needed across various areas. An effective
¹³⁹solution should not only detect and classify road defects but also measure their
¹⁴⁰severity to better prioritize repairs. Failing to address this problem will require
¹⁴¹more extensive repairs for damaged roads, which raises the cost and strains the
¹⁴²budget. Additionally, road maintenance would still be slow and cause disruptions
¹⁴³in daily activities. Using an automated system that accurately assess the severity
¹⁴⁴of road defects by incorporating depth are necessary to efficiently monitor road
¹⁴⁵quality.

¹⁴⁶ 1.3 Research Objectives

¹⁴⁷ 1.3.1 General Objective

¹⁴⁸ This special problem aims to develop a system that will accurately estimate the
¹⁴⁹ depth of potholes on road surfaces by using image analysis, depth measurement
¹⁵⁰ technologies, and computer vision techniques. The system will focus specifically on
¹⁵¹ measuring the depth of potholes to assess their severity, enabling faster and more
¹⁵² accurate road maintenance decisions, and there are no current practices in the
¹⁵³ Philippines involving depth information of potholes in assessing their severity. In
¹⁵⁴ accordance with the Department of Public Works and Highways Region 6's manual
¹⁵⁵ for road maintenance, the study will classify potholes into different severity levels
¹⁵⁶ such as low, medium, and high, which will be primarily based on their depth.
¹⁵⁷ In order to measure the system's accuracy, precision and recall will be used in
¹⁵⁸ order to determine the number of true positives and true positive rate and also
¹⁵⁹ the number of false positives and negatives detected by the system. In addition,
¹⁶⁰ in order to calculate the average precision and recall of the system the F-1 Score
¹⁶¹ will also be used. Lastly, the Mean Absolute Error will be utilized in order to
¹⁶² provide a straightforward measure of average error magnitude and Root Mean
¹⁶³ Square Error as a measure for performance since data is continuous.

¹⁶⁴ 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

¹⁶⁵ Specifically, this special problem aims:

- ¹⁶⁶ 1. To collect high-quality images of road surfaces that capture potholes includ-
¹⁶⁷ ing their depth in various lighting, camera distance and orientation.
- ¹⁶⁸ 2. To measure the accuracy of the system by comparing the depth measure-
¹⁶⁹ ments against ground truth data collected from actual road inspections and
¹⁷⁰ to utilize precision and recall, F1-score, root mean square error, and mean
¹⁷¹ absolute error as metrics for evaluation.
- ¹⁷² 3. To develop a prototype system that can detect and measure road potholes
¹⁷³ from image input, analyze their depth, and assess their severity that will be
¹⁷⁴ deployed through stereo camera mounted vehicles used for road surveying.

175 1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Research

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

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

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

192 Environmental factors such as lighting, road surface texture, and weather con-
193 ditions may impact the model's performance. The accuracy and reliability of the
194 model will depend on the quality and variety of the training dataset. Its ability
195 to generalize to unseen pothole images will need to be carefully validated.

196 1.5 Significance of the Research

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

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

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

²⁰⁷ project expenditures, and better overall road safety and quality.

²⁰⁸ *Field Engineers.* In the scorching heat, field engineers are no longer required
²⁰⁹ to be on foot unless it requires its engineering judgement when surveying a road
²¹⁰ segment. It can hasten the overall assessment process.

²¹¹ *Future Researchers.* The special problem can serve as a baseline and guide of
²¹² researchers with the aim to pursue special problems similar or related to this.

²¹³ **Chapter 2**

²¹⁴ **Review of Related Literature**

²¹⁵ **2.1 Frameworks**

²¹⁶ This section of the chapter presents related literature that is considered essential
²¹⁷ for the development of this special problem.

²¹⁸ **2.1.1 Deep Learning**

²¹⁹ Kelleher (2019) states that deep learning is inclined on making large-scale neural
²²⁰ networks geared towards creating data-driven decisions. Furthermore, it was also
²²¹ argued that deep learning is oriented towards large-scale, complex data.

²²² **2.1.2 YOLOv5**

²²³ According to Solawetz (2024), YOLOv5 is a model from a family of computer
²²⁴ vision models used for object detection. YOLOv5 is reported to perform compara-
²²⁵ bly to state-of-the-art techniques. It is designed to extract features from raw
²²⁶ input images, used primarily in training object detection models alongside various
²²⁷ data augmentation techniques.

2.1.3 Image and Video Processing

228 Kumar (2024) defines image processing as a process of turning an image into its
229 digital form and extracting data from it through certain functions and operations.
230 Usual processes are considered to treat images as 2D signals wherein different
231 processing methods utilize these signals. Like image processing, Resources (2020)
232 defines video processing as being able to extract information and data from video
233 footage through signal processing methods. However, in video processing due to
234 the diversity of video formats, compression and decompression methods are often
235 expected to be performed on videos before processing methods to either increase
236 or decrease bitrate.
237

2.1.4 Stereo Vision

238 MathWorks (n.d.) defines stereo vision as a process of utilizing multiple 2D per-
239 spectives in order to extract information in 3D. In addition, most uses of stereo
240 vision involve estimating an objects distance from an observer or camera. The 3D
241 information is stated to be extracted with stereo pairs or pair of images through es-
242 timation of relative depth of points in a scene which are then represented through
243 a stereo map that is made through the matching of the pair's corresponding points.
244

2.2 Related Studies

245 This section of the chapter presents related studies conducted by other researchers
246 wherein the methodology and technologies used may serve as basis in the devel-
247 opment of this special problem.
248

2.2.1 Deep Learning Studies

2.2.1.1 Automated Detection and Classification of Road Anomalies in 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

256 in use of autonomous vehicles in research data gathering which is what the re-
257 searchers utilized in data gathering procedures. With the presence of autonomous
258 vehicles, this allowed the researchers to use a combination of sensors and deep
259 neural networks in deploying artificial intelligence. The study aimed to allow au-
260 tonomous vehicles to avoid critical road defects that can possibly lead to dangerous
261 situations. Researchers used Resnet-18 and VGG-11 in automatic detection and
262 classification of road defects. Researchers concluded that the trained model was
263 able to perform better than other techniques for road defect detection (Bibi et al.,
264 2021). The study is able to provide the effectiveness of using deep learning models
265 in training artificial intelligence for road defect detection and classification. How-
266 ever, the study lacks findings regarding the severity of detected defects which is
267 crucial in automating manual procedures of road surveying in the Philippines.

268 **2.2.1.2 Road Anomaly Detection through Deep Learning Approaches**

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

279 **2.2.1.3 Assessing Severity of Road Cracks Using Deep Learning-Based 280 Segmentation and Detection**

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

²⁹² higher accuracy rates. Furthermore, the researchers suggest incorporating depth
²⁹³ information in the models to further enhance results.

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

²⁹⁶ The study of Kyriakou, Christodoulou, and Dimitriou (2016) presented what is
²⁹⁷ considered as a low-cost technology which was the use of Artificial Neural Net-
²⁹⁸ works in training a model for road anomaly detection from data gathered by
²⁹⁹ smartphone sensors. The researchers were able to collect case study data us-
³⁰⁰ ing two-dimensional indicators of the smartphone's roll and pitch values. In the
³⁰¹ study's discussion, the data collected displayed some complexity due to accelera-
³⁰² tion and vehicle speed which lead to detected anomalies being not as conclusive as
³⁰³ planned. The researchers also added that the plots are unable to show parameters
³⁰⁴ that could verify the data's correctness and accuracy. Despite the setbacks, the
³⁰⁵ researchers still fed the data into the Artificial Neural Network that was expected
³⁰⁶ to produce two outputs which were "no defect" and "defect." The method still
³⁰⁷ yielded above 90% accuracy but due to the limited number of possible outcomes
³⁰⁸ in the data processing the researchers still needed to test the methodology with
³⁰⁹ larger data sets and roads with higher volumes of anomalies.

³¹⁰ **2.2.2 Machine Learning Studies**

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

³¹² In their study, Sattar, Li, and Chapman (2018) noted the rise of sensing capabili-
³¹³ ties 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-
³¹⁶ based 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-
³²⁰ means 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.

330 **2.2.2.2 Road Surface Quality Monitoring Using Machine Learning Al-**
331 **gorithms**

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

348 **2.2.3 Computer Vision Studies**

349 **2.2.3.1 Stereo Vision Based Pothole Detection System for Improved**
350 **Ride Quality**

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

³⁶⁰ able to detect potholes that are deeper than 5 cm. The researchers concluded
³⁶¹ that such system can be utilized in commercial applications. However, it is also
³⁶² worth noting that despite the system being able to detect potholes and measure
³⁶³ its depth, the overall severity of the pothole and road condition was not addressed.

³⁶⁴ 2.3 Chapter Summary

- ³⁶⁵ 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

³⁶⁸ **Chapter 3**

³⁶⁹ **Methodology**

³⁷⁰ This chapter outlines the systematic approach that were taken to address the
³⁷¹ problem of pothole depth estimation using StereoPi V2. The methodology is
³⁷² divided into key phases: data collection, algorithm selection, design, testing and
³⁷³ experimentation, and challenges and limitations. Each phase will play a crucial
³⁷⁴ role in accurately classifying and assessing road defects. Each phase is essential
³⁷⁵ for accurately estimating the depth of potholes using StereoPi V2.

³⁷⁶ **3.1 Research Activities**

³⁷⁷ **3.1.1 Data Collection**

³⁷⁸ The researchers conducted initial inquiries to understand the problem domain and
³⁷⁹ existing road maintenance practices. This phase included consulting the engineers
³⁸⁰ under the Road Maintenance Department of the government agency Department
³⁸¹ of Public Works and Highways (DPWH). An interview with Engr. Jane Chua pro-
³⁸² vided a comprehensive overview of the DPWH's road maintenance manual, which
³⁸³ was crucial in aligning this project with existing standards. This collaboration
³⁸⁴ with DPWH provided insights into road pothole classification standards, ensuring
³⁸⁵ that the collected data will align with industry standards. The DPWH manual
³⁸⁶ primarily focuses on the volume of detected potholes within a road segment as
³⁸⁷ a measure of severity. However, since depth is not explicitly measured in their
³⁸⁸ current procedures, the study will supplement this by referencing international
³⁸⁹ standards such as the Long-Term Pavement Performance (LTPP) classification
³⁹⁰ 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.

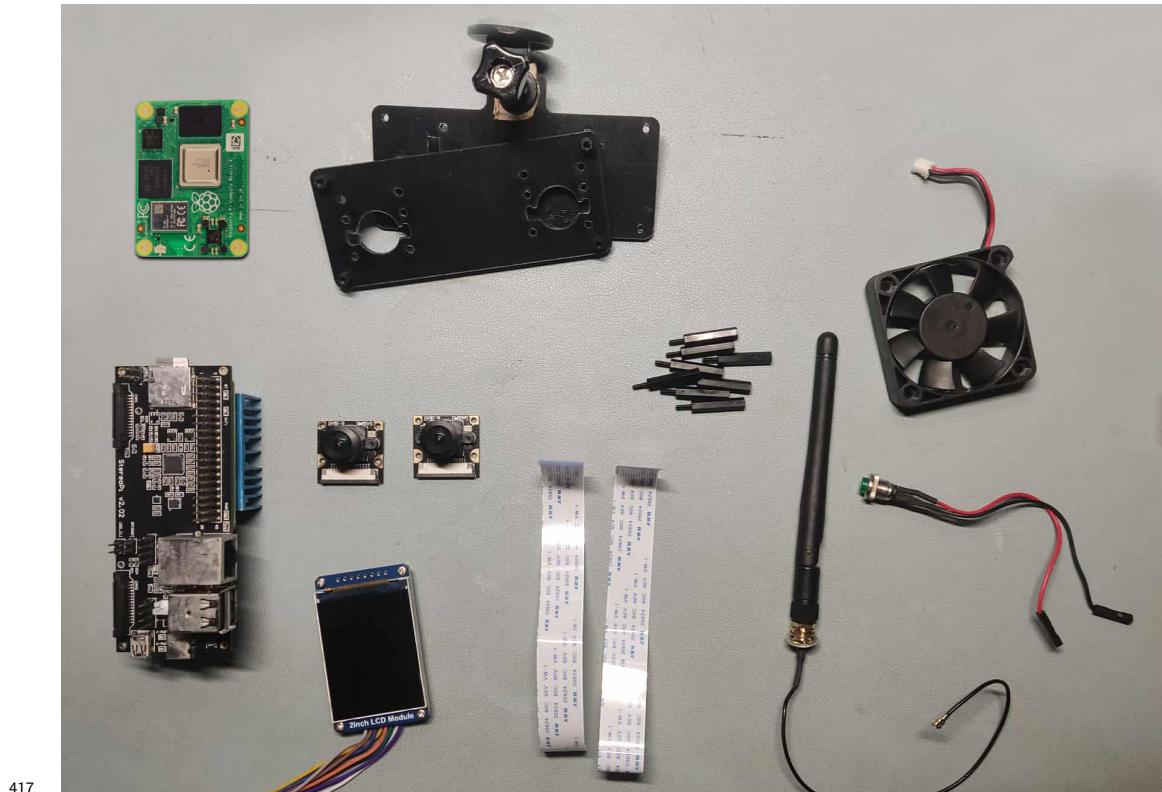
3.1.2 Algorithm Selection

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.

416 **3.1.3.1 Materials and Equipment**



417

Figure 3.1: Components used in the prototype development.

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

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

428 **3.1.3.2 Prototype Building**

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

433

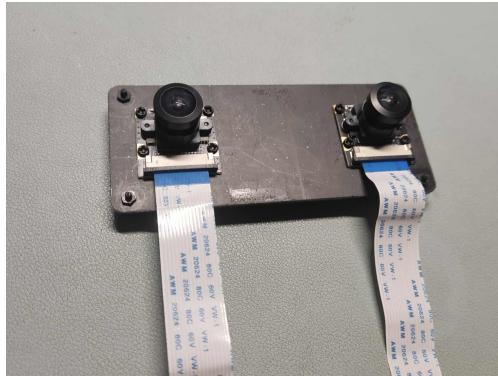


Figure 3.2: Dual RPi Camera Modules attached to the custom housing.

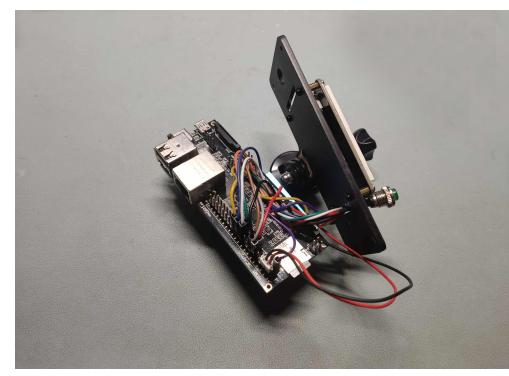


Figure 3.3: LCD Module connected to the StereoPi board.

434

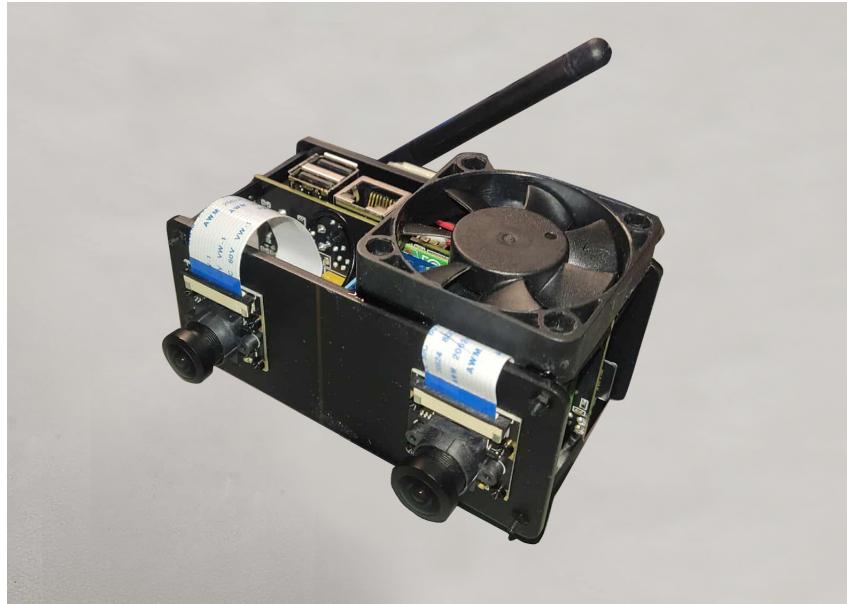


Figure 3.4: The finished prototype.

435 **3.1.3.3 Camera Calibration (Fisheye Distortion)**

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

441

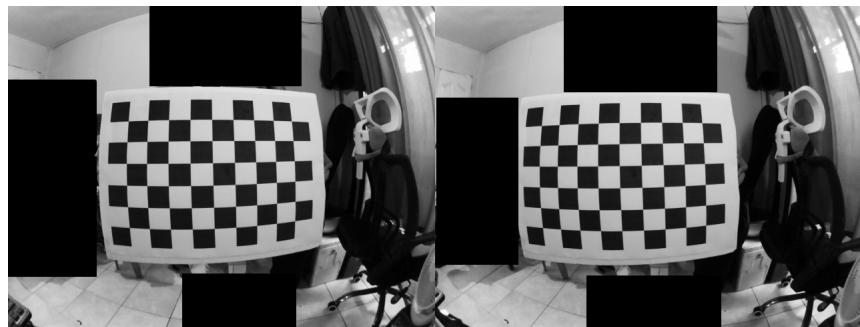


Figure 3.5: Calibration process with a checkerboard to correct fisheye lens distortion.

442 **3.1.3.4 Camera Calibration (Disparity Map Fine-tuning)**

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

450

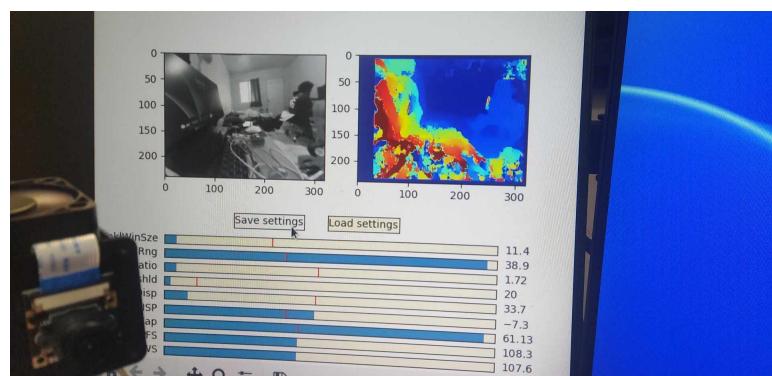


Figure 3.6: Parameter tuning process to achieve cleaner and more accurate disparity maps.

451 **3.1.3.5 Initial Testing**

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

457

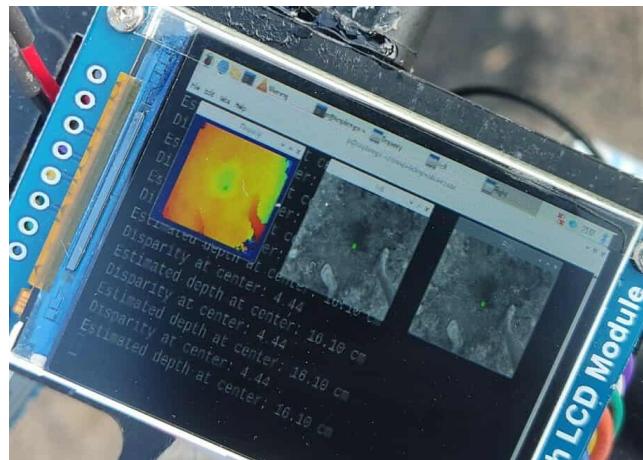


Figure 3.7: The system tested on a simulated pothole.

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

465 **3.1.3.6 Performance Metrics**

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

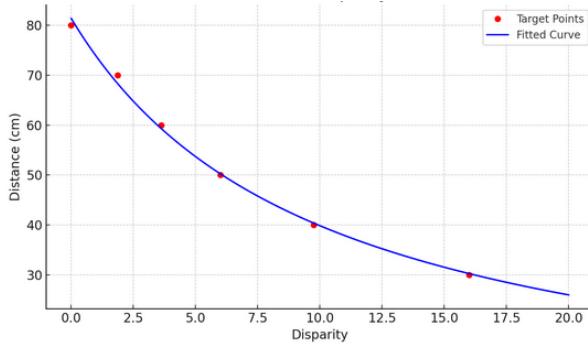


Figure 3.8: Inverse Model Fit to Disparity vs. Distance.

469 3.1.3.7 Final Testing and Validation

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

477 3.1.3.8 Documentation

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

482 3.1.4 Challenges and Limitations

483 3.1.4.1 Camera Limitations

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

⁴⁸⁹ controlled environments which prompted the researchers to further improve its
⁴⁹⁰ tuning and calibration.

⁴⁹¹ 3.2 Calendar of Activities

⁴⁹² Table 1 shows a Gantt chart of the activities. Each bullet represents approximately
⁴⁹³ 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

⁴⁹⁴ **Chapter 4**

⁴⁹⁵ **Preliminary Results/System
Prototype**

⁴⁹⁷ This chapter presents the results on estimating the depth of potholes using the
⁴⁹⁸ StereoPi system. It details the prototype construction, calibration of the system,
⁴⁹⁹ and the application of regression analysis to improve depth estimation. It also
⁵⁰⁰ contains the measurements taken during the testing phases, comparing the ground
⁵⁰¹ truth depths with the value estimated by the camera. Findings are presented
⁵⁰² systematically, supported by tables showing the collected data, images of the
⁵⁰³ outputs, and discussion on the analysis of results.

⁵⁰⁴ **4.1 System Calibration and Model Refinement**

⁵⁰⁵ After the initial testing, the system was calibrated using a controlled setup, where
⁵⁰⁶ artificial potholes with known depths were created. The stereo camera system
⁵⁰⁷ captured disparity maps, from which depth was calculated using the standard
⁵⁰⁸ stereo vision formula:

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

⁵⁰⁹ where:

- ⁵¹⁰ • f is the focal length in pixels,
⁵¹¹ • B is the baseline distance between the two cameras,

- 512 • d is the disparity.

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

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

520 An inverse function of the form:

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

521 where:

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

525 **4.2 Model Refinement Using Regression**

526 The regression analysis produced the following model parameters:

- 527 • $a = \dots$
528 • $b = \dots$

529 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

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

533 **4.3 Error Analysis**

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

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

541 **4.4 Testing Results**

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

554 4.5 Discussion

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600 **Appendix A**

601 **Appendix Title**

⁶⁰² **Appendix B**

⁶⁰³ **Resource Persons**

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