

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  
7                    University of the Philippines Visayas  
8                    Miag-ao, Iloilo

9                    In Partial Fulfillment  
10                  of the Requirements for the Degree of  
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

19                  April 28, 2025

## Abstract

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

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

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

# <sup>30</sup> **Contents**

<sup>31</sup> <b>1 Introduction</b>	<sup>1</sup>
<sup>32</sup> 1.1 Overview . . . . .	<sup>1</sup>
<sup>33</sup> 1.2 Problem Statement . . . . .	<sup>2</sup>
<sup>34</sup> 1.3 Research Objectives . . . . .	<sup>3</sup>
<sup>35</sup> 1.3.1 General Objective . . . . .	<sup>3</sup>
<sup>36</sup> 1.3.2 Specific Objectives . . . . .	<sup>3</sup>
<sup>37</sup> 1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Research . . . . .	<sup>3</sup>
<sup>38</sup> 1.5 Significance of the Research . . . . .	<sup>4</sup>
<sup>39</sup> <b>2 Review of Related Literature</b>	<sup>5</sup>
<sup>40</sup> 2.1 Frameworks . . . . .	<sup>5</sup>
<sup>41</sup> 2.1.1 Depth Estimation . . . . .	<sup>5</sup>
<sup>42</sup> 2.1.2 Image and Video Processing . . . . .	<sup>5</sup>
<sup>43</sup> 2.1.3 Stereo Vision . . . . .	<sup>6</sup>
<sup>44</sup> 2.2 Related Studies . . . . .	<sup>6</sup>
<sup>45</sup> 2.2.1 Deep Learning Studies . . . . .	<sup>6</sup>
<sup>46</sup> 2.2.2 Machine Learning Studies . . . . .	<sup>8</sup>
<sup>47</sup> 2.2.3 Computer Vision Studies . . . . .	<sup>9</sup>

48	2.3 Chapter Summary . . . . .	10
49	<b>3 Methodology</b>	<b>11</b>
50	3.1 Research Activities . . . . .	11
51	3.1.1 Data Collection . . . . .	11
52	3.1.2 Algorithm Selection . . . . .	12
53	3.1.3 Design, Testing, and Experimentation . . . . .	12
54	3.1.4 Challenges and Limitations . . . . .	17
55	3.2 Calendar of Activities . . . . .	18
56	<b>4 Preliminary Results/System Prototype</b>	<b>19</b>
57	4.1 System Calibration and Model Refinement . . . . .	19
58	4.2 Model Refinement Using Regression . . . . .	20
59	4.3 Error Analysis . . . . .	21
60	4.4 Testing Results . . . . .	21
61	4.5 Discussion . . . . .	22
62	<b>5 Conclusion and Recommendations</b>	<b>23</b>
63	5.1 Conclusion . . . . .	23
64	5.2 Recommendations . . . . .	23
65	<b>References</b>	<b>24</b>
66	<b>A Appendix Title</b>	<b>26</b>
67	<b>B Resource Persons</b>	<b>27</b>

# <sup>68</sup> List of Figures

<sup>69</sup>	3.1 Components used in the prototype development. . . . .	13
<sup>70</sup>	3.2 Dual RPi Camera Modules attached to the custom housing. . . . .	14
<sup>71</sup>	3.3 LCD Module connected to the StereoPi board. . . . .	14
<sup>72</sup>	3.4 The finished prototype. . . . .	14
<sup>73</sup>	3.5 Calibration process with a checkerboard to correct fisheye lens distortion. . . . .	15
<sup>74</sup>		
<sup>75</sup>	3.6 Parameter tuning process to achieve cleaner and more accurate disparity maps. . . . .	15
<sup>76</sup>		
<sup>77</sup>	3.7 The system tested on a simulated pothole. . . . .	16
<sup>78</sup>	3.8 Inverse Model Fit to Disparity vs. Distance. . . . .	17
<sup>79</sup>		
<sup>80</sup>	4.1 Disparity Map . . . . .	22
<sup>81</sup>	4.2 Left Stereo Image . . . . .	22
	4.3 Right Stereo Image . . . . .	22

## <sup>82</sup> List of Tables

<sup>83</sup>	2.1 Comparison of Related Studies on Road Anomaly Detection using Deep Learning Techniques and Stereo Vision . . . . .	10
<sup>84</sup>		
<sup>85</sup>	3.1 Timetable of Activities for 2024 . . . . .	18
<sup>86</sup>	3.2 Timetable of Activities for 2025 . . . . .	18
<sup>87</sup>		
<sup>88</sup>	4.1 Performance Metrics for the Regression Model . . . . .	20
	4.2 Ground Truth and StereoPi Depth Measurements . . . . .	22

<sup>89</sup> **Chapter 1**

<sup>90</sup> **Introduction**

<sup>91</sup> **1.1 Overview**

<sup>92</sup> According to the National Road Length by Classification, Surface Type, and Con-  
<sup>93</sup> dition of the Department of Public Works and Highways (DPWH), as of October  
<sup>94</sup> 2022 approximately 98.97% of roads in the Philippines is paved which is either  
<sup>95</sup> made of concrete or asphalt (DPWH, 2022). Since the DPWH is an institution  
<sup>96</sup> under the government, it is paramount to maintain such roads in order to avoid  
<sup>97</sup> accidents and congested traffic situations especially in heavily urbanized areas  
<sup>98</sup> where there are a lot of vehicles.

<sup>99</sup> In an interview with the Road Board of DPWH Region 6 it was stated that  
<sup>100</sup> road condition assessments are mostly done manually with heavy reliance on en-  
<sup>101</sup> gineering judgment. In addition, manual assessment of roads is also time con-  
<sup>102</sup> suming which leaves maintenance operations to wait for lengthy assessments (J.  
<sup>103</sup> Chua, Personal Interview. 16 September 2024). In a study conducted by (Ramos,  
<sup>104</sup> Dacanay, & Bronuela-Ambrocio, 2023), it was found that the Philippines' current  
<sup>105</sup> method of manual pavement surveying is considered as a gap since it takes an  
<sup>106</sup> average of 2-3 months to cover a 250 km road as opposed to a 1 day duration  
<sup>107</sup> in the Australian Road Research Board for the same road length. Ramos et al.  
<sup>108</sup> (2022) recommended that to significantly improve efficiency of surveying methods  
<sup>109</sup> and data gathering processes, automated survey tools are to be employed. It was  
<sup>110</sup> also added that use of such automated, surveying tools can also guarantee the  
<sup>111</sup> safety of road surveyors (Ramos et al., 2023).

<sup>112</sup> If the process of assessment on the severity of road defects can be automated  
<sup>113</sup> then the whole process of assessing the quality of roads can be hastened up which

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

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

## 130 1.2 Problem Statement

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

## <sup>150</sup> 1.3 Research Objectives

### <sup>151</sup> 1.3.1 General Objective

<sup>152</sup> This special problem aims to develop a system that accurately estimates the depth  
<sup>153</sup> of potholes on road surfaces by using image analysis, depth measurement tech-  
<sup>154</sup> nologies, and computer vision techniques. The system will focus specifically on  
<sup>155</sup> measuring the depth of potholes to assess their severity, enabling faster and more  
<sup>156</sup> accurate road maintenance decisions, and there are no current practices in the  
<sup>157</sup> Philippines involving depth information of potholes in assessing their severity. In  
<sup>158</sup> accordance with the Department of Public Works and Highways Region 6's man-  
<sup>159</sup> ual for road maintenance, the study will classify potholes into different severity  
<sup>160</sup> levels such as low, medium, and high, which will be primarily based on their  
<sup>161</sup> depth. In order to measure the system's accuracy, linear regression in order to  
<sup>162</sup> represent the difference between the depth calculated from the disparity and the  
<sup>163</sup> actual depth of the pothole from ground truth data.

### <sup>164</sup> 1.3.2 Specific Objectives

<sup>165</sup> Specifically, this special problem aims:

- <sup>166</sup> 1. To collect high-quality images of road surfaces that capture potholes includ-  
<sup>167</sup> ing their depth in various lighting, camera distance and orientation.
- <sup>168</sup> 2. To measure the accuracy of the system by comparing the depth measure-  
<sup>169</sup> ments against ground truth data collected from actual road inspections and  
<sup>170</sup> to utilize linear regression as a metric for evaluation.
- <sup>171</sup> 3. To develop a prototype system that can detect and measure road potholes  
<sup>172</sup> from image input, analyze their depth, and assess their severity.

## <sup>173</sup> 1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Research

<sup>174</sup> This system focuses solely on detecting and assessing the severity of potholes  
<sup>175</sup> through image analysis and depth measurement technologies. The scope includes  
<sup>176</sup> the collection of pothole images using cameras and depth-sensing tools under a  
<sup>177</sup> favorable weather condition.

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

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

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

## 194    1.5 Significance of the Research

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

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

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

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

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

<sup>211</sup> **Chapter 2**

<sup>212</sup> **Review of Related Literature**

<sup>213</sup> **2.1 Frameworks**

<sup>214</sup> This section of the chapter presents related literature that is considered essential  
<sup>215</sup> for the development of this special problem.

<sup>216</sup> **2.1.1 Depth Estimation**

<sup>217</sup> Depth estimation as defined by Sanz, Mezcua, and Pena (2012) as a set of processes  
<sup>218</sup> that aims to extract a representation of a certain scene's spatial composition.  
<sup>219</sup> Stereo vision is stated to be among the depth estimation strategies (Sanz et al.,  
<sup>220</sup> 2012).

<sup>221</sup> **2.1.2 Image and Video Processing**

<sup>222</sup> Kumar (2024) defines image processing as a process of turning an image into its  
<sup>223</sup> digital form and extracting data from it through certain functions and operations.  
<sup>224</sup> Usual processes are considered to treat images as 2D signals wherein different  
<sup>225</sup> processing methods utilize these signals. Like image processing, Resources (2020)  
<sup>226</sup> defines video processing as being able to extract information and data from video  
<sup>227</sup> footage through signal processing methods. However, in video processing due to  
<sup>228</sup> the diversity of video formats, compression and decompression methods are often  
<sup>229</sup> expected to be performed on videos before processing methods to either increase  
<sup>230</sup> or decrease bitrate.

### **2.1.3 Stereo Vision**

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

## **2.2 Related Studies**

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

### **2.2.1 Deep Learning Studies**

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

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

262    **2.2.1.2 Road Anomaly Detection through Deep Learning Approaches**

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

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 acceleration  
298 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 capabilities  
309 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

<sup>364</sup> **Chapter 3**

<sup>365</sup> **Methodology**

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

<sup>372</sup> **3.1 Research Activities**

<sup>373</sup> **3.1.1 Data Collection**

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

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

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

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

#### 3.1.2 Algorithm Selection

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

#### 3.1.3 Design, Testing, and Experimentation

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

<sup>412</sup> **3.1.3.1 Materials and Equipment**

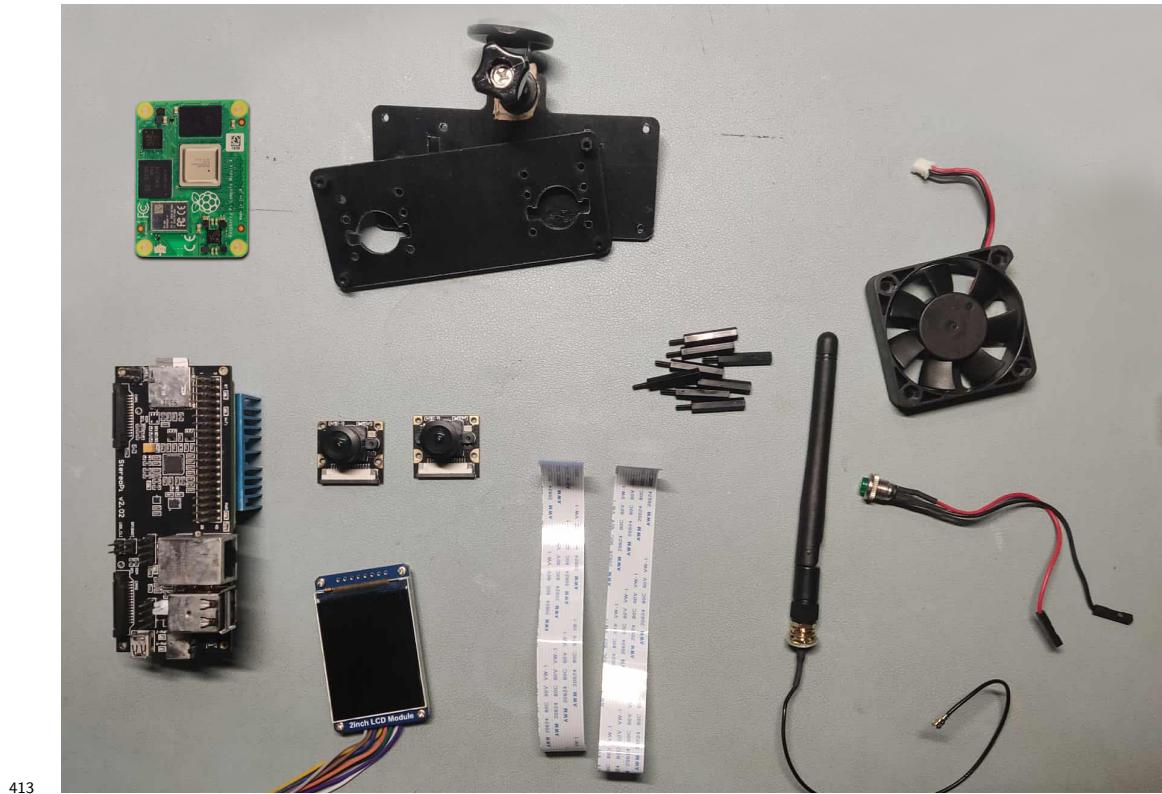


Figure 3.1: Components used in the prototype development.

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

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

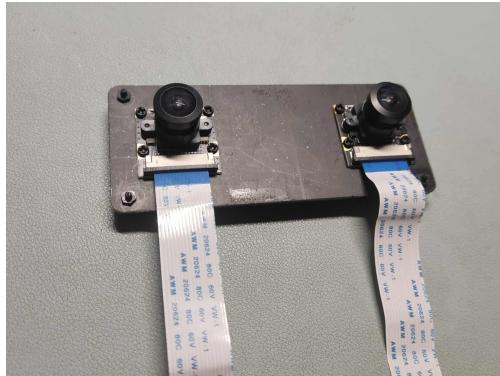


Figure 3.2: Dual RPi Camera Modules attached to the custom housing.

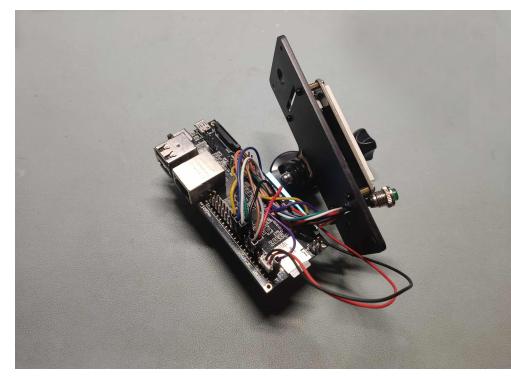


Figure 3.3: LCD Module connected to the StereoPi board.

430

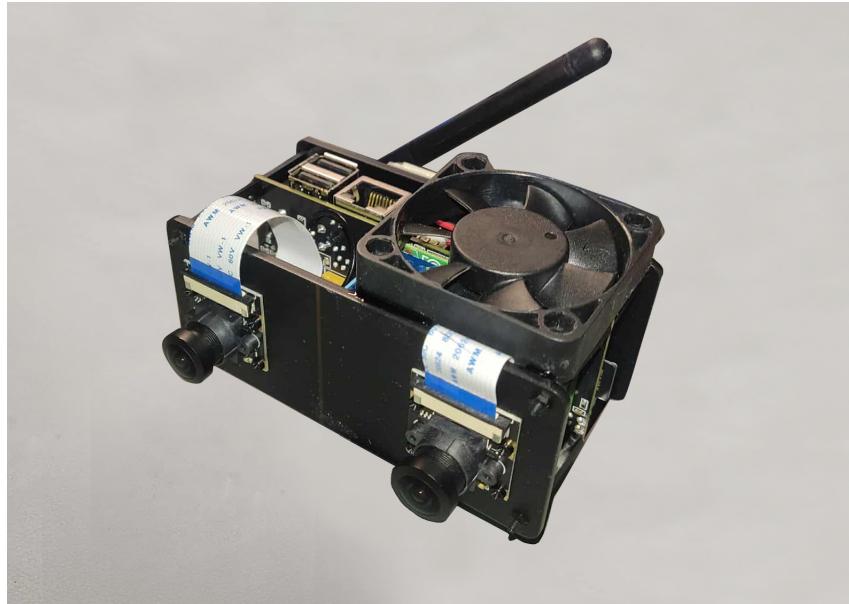


Figure 3.4: The finished prototype.

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

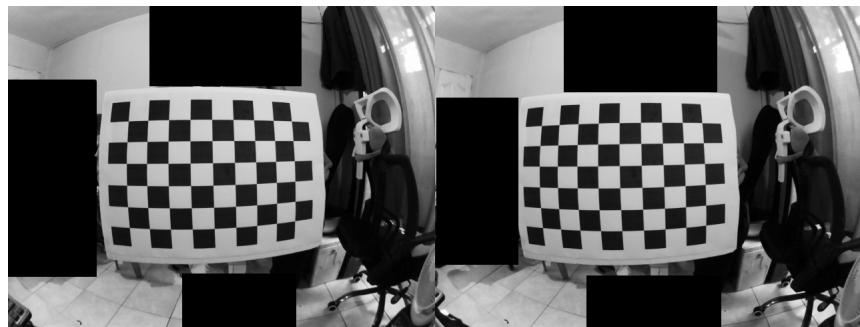


Figure 3.5: Calibration process with a checkerboard to correct fisheye lens distortion.

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

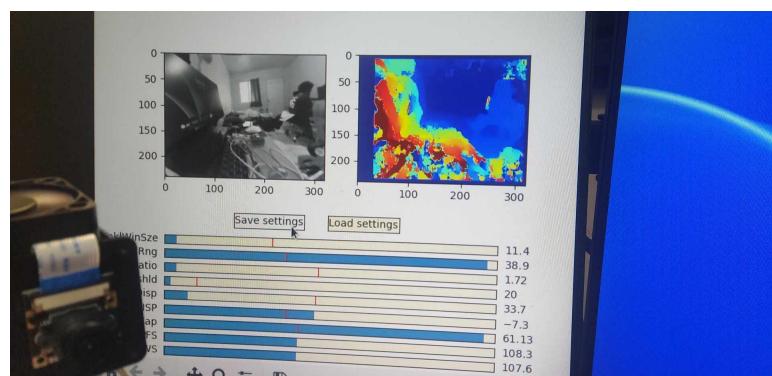


Figure 3.6: Parameter tuning process to achieve cleaner and more accurate disparity maps.

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

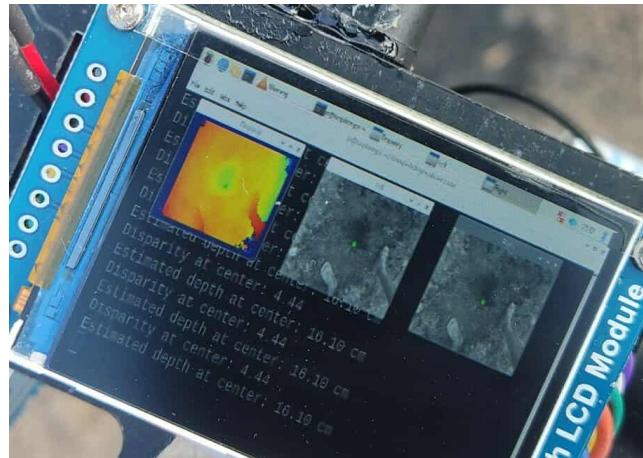


Figure 3.7: The system tested on a simulated pothole.

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

461 **3.1.3.6 Performance Metrics**

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

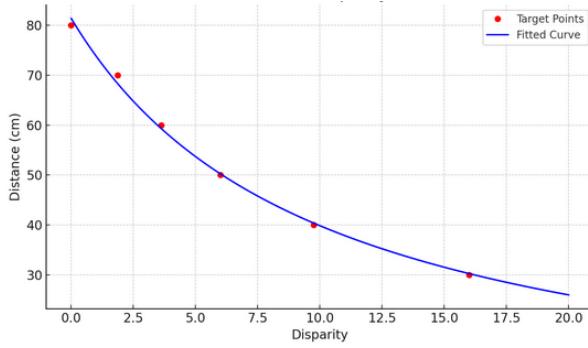


Figure 3.8: Inverse Model Fit to Disparity vs. Distance.

#### 465 3.1.3.7 Final Testing and Validation

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

#### 473 3.1.3.8 Documentation

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

### 478 3.1.4 Challenges and Limitations

#### 479 3.1.4.1 Camera Limitations

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

<sup>485</sup> controlled environments which prompted the researchers to further improve its  
<sup>486</sup> tuning and calibration.

## <sup>487</sup> 3.2 Calendar of Activities

<sup>488</sup> Table 1 shows a Gantt chart of the activities. Each bullet represents approximately  
<sup>489</sup> one week's worth of activity.

Table 3.1: Timetable of Activities for 2024

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

Table 3.2: Timetable of Activities for 2025

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

<sup>490</sup> **Chapter 4**

<sup>491</sup> **Preliminary Results/System  
Prototype**

<sup>493</sup> This chapter presents the results on estimating the depth of potholes using the  
<sup>494</sup> StereoPi system. It details the prototype construction, calibration of the system,  
<sup>495</sup> and the application of regression analysis to improve depth estimation. It also  
<sup>496</sup> contains the measurements taken during the testing phases, comparing the ground  
<sup>497</sup> truth depths with the value estimated by the camera. Findings are presented  
<sup>498</sup> systematically, supported by tables showing the collected data, images of the  
<sup>499</sup> outputs, and discussion on the analysis of results.

<sup>500</sup> **4.1 System Calibration and Model Refinement**

<sup>501</sup> After the initial testing, the system was calibrated using a controlled setup, where  
<sup>502</sup> artificial potholes with known depths were created. The stereo camera system  
<sup>503</sup> captured disparity maps, from which depth was calculated using the standard  
<sup>504</sup> stereo vision formula:

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

<sup>505</sup> where:

- <sup>506</sup> •  $f$  is the focal length in pixels,  
<sup>507</sup> •  $B$  is the baseline distance between the two cameras,

- 508     •  $d$  is the disparity.

509     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.

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

516     An inverse function of the form:

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

517     where:

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

## 521     4.2 Model Refinement Using Regression

522     The regression analysis produced the following model parameters:

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

525     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

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

### 529        **4.3 Error Analysis**

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

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

### 537        **4.4 Testing Results**

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

## 550 4.5 Discussion

<sup>551</sup> **Chapter 5**

<sup>552</sup> **Conclusion and  
553 Recommendations**

<sup>554</sup> **5.1 Conclusion**

<sup>555</sup> **5.2 Recommendations**

<sup>556</sup> After conducting and developing this special problem, the researchers have ob-  
<sup>557</sup> served that there are lapses and possible improvements to further better this  
<sup>558</sup> system.

559 

# References

- 560 Bibi, R., Saeed, Y., Zeb, A., Ghazal, T. M., Rahman, T., Said, R. A., ... Khan,  
561 M. A. (2021). Edge ai-based automated detection and classification of road  
562 anomalies in vanet using deep learning. *Computational Intelligence and*  
563 *Neuroscience*, 2021(1). doi: 10.1155/2021/6262194
- 564 Ha, J., Kim, D., & Kim, M. (2022). Assessing severity of road cracks using deep  
565 learning-based segmentation and detection. *The Journal of Supercomputing*,  
566 78(16), 17721–17735. doi: 10.1007/s11227-022-04560-x
- 567 Kumar, A. (2024, October). What is image processing: Overview, applications,  
568 benefits, and more. *AI and Machine Learning*. Retrieved from <https://www.simplilearn.com/image-processing-article> (Accessed: January  
569 1, 2025)
- 570 Kyriakou, C., Christodoulou, S. E., & Dimitriou, L. (2016, April). Roadway  
571 pavement anomaly classification utilizing smartphones and artificial intel-  
572 ligence. In *Proceedings of the ieee conference*. Retrieved from <https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/abstract/document/7495459>
- 573 Luo, D., Lu, J., & Guo, G. (2020, June). Road anomaly detec-  
574 tion through deep learning approaches. *IEEE Journals and Magazine*.  
575 (<https://ieeexplore.ieee.org/document/9123753/>)
- 576 Ramaiah, N. K. B., & Kundu, S. (2021). Stereo vision based pothole detection  
577 system for improved ride quality. *SAE International Journal of Advances*  
578 and Current Practices in Mobility, 3(5), 2603–2610. doi: 10.4271/2021-01  
579 -0085
- 580 Ramos, J. A., Dacanay, J. P., & Bronuela-Ambrocio, L. (2023). *A re-*  
581 *view of the current practices in the pavement surface monitoring in the*  
582 *philippines* (Doctoral dissertation, University of the Philippines Diliman).  
583 Retrieved from [https://ncts.upd.edu.ph/tssp/wp-content/uploads/2023/01/TSSP2022\\_09.pdf](https://ncts.upd.edu.ph/tssp/wp-content/uploads/2023/01/TSSP2022_09.pdf)
- 584 Resources, R. (2020). Video processing. *Riches Project EU*. Re-  
585 tried from <https://resources.riches-project.eu/glossary/video-processing/> (Accessed: January 1, 2025)
- 586 Sanz, P., Mezcua, B., & Pena, J. (2012). Depth estimation: An introduction.

- 591        *Current Advancements in Stereo Vision*. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/45904> doi: 10.5772/45904
- 592        Sattar, S., Li, S., & Chapman, M. (2018). Road surface monitoring using smartphone sensors: A review. *Sensors*, 18(11), 3845–3845. doi: 10.3390/s18113845
- 593        Singh, P., Bansal, A., Kamal, A. E., & Kumar, S. (2021). Road surface quality monitoring using machine learning algorithm. In *Smart innovation, systems and technologies* (pp. 423–432). doi: 10.1007/978-981-16-6482-3\_42
- 594
- 595
- 596
- 597
- 598

<sup>599</sup> **Appendix A**

<sup>600</sup> **Appendix Title**

<sup>601</sup> **Appendix B**

<sup>602</sup> **Resource Persons**

<sup>603</sup> **Prof. Jumar Cadondon**

<sup>604</sup> Assistant Professor

<sup>605</sup> Division of Physical Sciences and Mathematics

<sup>606</sup> University of the Philippines Visayas

<sup>607</sup> jgcadondon@up.edu.ph

<sup>608</sup> **Engr. Jane Chua**

<sup>609</sup> Engineer

<sup>610</sup> DPWH Region 6

<sup>611</sup> chua.jane@dpwh.gov.ph

<sup>612</sup>

<sup>613</sup> **Engr. Marilou Zamora**

<sup>614</sup> Chief

<sup>615</sup> Planning and Design

<sup>616</sup> DPWHRegion6

<sup>617</sup> zamora.marilou@dpwh.gov.ph

<sup>618</sup> **Engr. Benjamin Javellana**

<sup>619</sup> Assistant Director

<sup>620</sup> Maintenance

<sup>621</sup> DPWHRegion6

<sup>622</sup> javellana.benjamin@dpwh.gov.ph