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VMHPE: Human Pose Estimation for Virtual Maintenance Tasks

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ABSTRACT: Virtual maintenance, as an important means of industrial training and education, places strict requirements on the accuracy of participant pose perception and assessment of motion standardization. However, existing research mainly focuses on human pose estimation in general scenarios, lacking specialized solutions for maintenance scenarios. This paper proposes a virtual maintenance human pose estimation method based on multi-scale feature enhancement (VMHPE), which integrates adaptive input feature enhancement, multi-scale feature correction for improved expression of fine movements and complex poses, and multi-scale feature fusion to enhance keypoint localization accuracy. Meanwhile, this study constructs the first virtual maintenance-specific human keypoint dataset (VMHKP), which records standard action sequences of professional maintenance personnel in five typical maintenance tasks and provides a reliable benchmark for evaluating operator motion standardization. The dataset is publicly available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15525037>. Using high-precision keypoint prediction results, an action assessment system utilizing topological structure similarity was established. Experiments show that our method achieves significant performance improvements: average precision (AP) reaches 94.4%, an increase of 2.3 percentage points over baseline methods; average recall (AR) reaches 95.6%, an increase of 1.3 percentage points. This research establishes a scientific four-level evaluation standard based on comparative motion analysis and provides a reliable solution for standardizing industrial maintenance training.

KEYWORDS: Virtual maintenance; human pose estimation; multi-scale feature fusion

1 Introduction

Virtual maintenance is an innovative approach that utilizes Virtual Reality (VR) or Augmented Reality (AR) technologies to simulate real maintenance environments and processes. It enables users to perform equipment maintenance, fault diagnosis, and operational training in virtual environments without interacting with actual equipment, thereby reducing training costs and safety risks [1–3]. By providing immersive, interactive learning experiences, virtual maintenance technology significantly enhances maintenance personnel's skill levels and work efficiency [4].

As a significant application of VR and AR, virtual maintenance technology is becoming a research hotspot in industries such as industrial manufacturing, healthcare, and education [5]. This technology constructs virtual maintenance environments that enable real-time interaction and operation among multiple users, thereby significantly improving maintenance task efficiency and safety [6]. However, achieving high-quality virtual maintenance faces a key challenge: how to accurately perceive and precisely reproduce participants' movements [7]. In virtual maintenance, high-precision reproduction of human poses is crucial. Not only does it provide authentic interactive experiences, but more importantly, it can be used to correct



improper operational behaviors and guide participants to perform correct maintenance actions [8]. For example, in complex mechanical maintenance tasks, the system can detect and correct incorrect operating postures in real-time by comparing the poses of experts and learners, thereby avoiding potential safety hazards and improving maintenance quality [9]. Human keypoint detection is the first and most critical step in achieving high-precision pose reproduction. In the field of general human keypoint detection, numerous studies have achieved significant results. For instance, OpenPose proposed by Cao et al. [10] and HRNet by Sun et al. [11] have shown excellent performance in multi-person pose estimation. Although human pose estimation is currently a research hotspot, existing studies mostly focus on general scenarios, lacking specialized research for maintenance tasks [12]. Furthermore, the field also lacks relevant professional datasets, which to some extent limits the depth of research development.

To address these issues, this paper proposes a multi-scale feature enhancement-based human pose estimation method for virtual maintenance, VMHPE. This method significantly improves pose estimation performance in complex maintenance scenarios through the organic combination of multi-scale feature correction and fusion attention mechanisms. To support related research development, we have constructed and open-sourced the virtual maintenance-specific dataset VMHKEP, which covers five typical maintenance task scenarios and adopts the standard Common Objects in Context (COCO) keypoint annotation scheme, thus providing a reliable evaluation benchmark for research in this field. Through systematic experimental validation, our method demonstrates significant performance advantages in virtual maintenance scenarios, achieving notable improvements in key metrics compared to existing methods. This provides strong support for the further development of virtual maintenance technology.

2 Theoretical Background and Problem Analysis

2.1 Human Keypoint Datasets

Human pose estimation is the crucial first step in virtual maintenance, where the accuracy of operators' movements directly affects training effectiveness and operation quality. Accurate detection and correction of postures requires high-precision human keypoint detection technology supported by large-scale annotated datasets. In this field, researchers have developed several influential datasets including the representative COCO dataset [13], which covers various tasks such as object segmentation and human keypoint annotation. As research progressed, enhanced datasets emerged including COCO-WholeBody [14] with 133 keypoints, Halpe dataset [15,16] with improved keypoint quantity and annotation format, DensePose-Posetrack dataset [17] focusing on multi-person video sequences, DAVIS dataset [18] containing challenging poses, and EPIC-KITCHENS dataset [19] with egocentric perspectives.

However, these public datasets show apparent limitations in the virtual maintenance domain. First, virtual maintenance tasks typically involve specific operation poses and tool usage inadequately represented in general datasets. Second, maintenance tasks may require operators to adopt uncommon or complex poses, which have limited representation in existing datasets. Additionally, virtual maintenance environments may include special lighting conditions, occlusions, and backgrounds not fully considered in general datasets. Most critically, the attention requirements for specific keypoints in maintenance tasks differ significantly from the annotation focus of general datasets. Based on this analysis, constructing a dataset specifically for virtual maintenance scenarios becomes essential to provide samples closely aligned with actual application scenarios, cover key poses and actions in specific tasks, and ultimately improve the accuracy and training effectiveness of virtual maintenance systems. Such a specialized dataset would enable more precise detection of operators' actions and provide timely correction and guidance.

Beyond dataset support, algorithm design and optimization are equally crucial for improving human pose estimation performance in virtual maintenance. While deep learning has brought revolutionary progress to this field, existing algorithms still face unique challenges in specific domains like virtual

maintenance. The following section will analyze the development history and technical characteristics of existing algorithms, as well as their potential and limitations in virtual maintenance scenarios.

2.2 Human Keypoint Detection

The development of deep learning technology has revolutionized human pose estimation, with DeepPose [20] by Toshev and Szegedy pioneering the use of convolutional neural networks for direct regression of human joint positions. Subsequent research has evolved along two major technical approaches: bottom-up and top-down methods.

Bottom-up methods have shown significant progress with OpenPose [10] by Cao et al. achieving efficient multi-person pose estimation through multi-stage Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and Part Affinity Fields. This approach was further developed in HigherHRNet [21] by Cheng et al., which improved accuracy through multi-resolution feature fusion, and Jin et al.'s Whole-Body Human Pose Estimation [14] that expanded to simultaneous detection of body, face, and hand keypoints. Concurrently, top-down methods have achieved remarkable results, with HRNet [11] by Sun et al. maintaining high-resolution feature maps for precise pose estimation. This approach was enhanced in HRNetV2-W48 within MMPose for comprehensive detection of body, hand, and facial keypoints, while AlphaPose [22] incorporated object tracking capabilities along with efficient pose estimation. Recent innovations have further advanced keypoint detection accuracy and robustness. ViTPose [23] by Xu et al. leveraged Vision Transformer structures, FCPose [24] by Zeng et al. enhanced efficiency using fully convolutional networks, and Sun et al.'s SimCC model [25] improved computational efficiency through one-dimensional vector representation. For temporal stability, SmoothNet [26] by Zeng et al. improved coherence through temporal modeling. Specialized solutions have emerged for specific applications, such as MediaPipe Hands [27] and InterHand2.6M [28] for hand pose estimation, and the Real-Time Multi-Object (RTMO) model [29] by Lu et al. for multi-person pose estimation.

Despite these advancements, general-purpose algorithms face significant challenges in virtual maintenance scenarios. First, maintenance tasks often require unconventional poses rarely represented in training datasets. Second, virtual maintenance demands higher precision, as small errors can lead to operational mistakes. Third, real-time performance is essential for effective feedback in training systems. These domain-specific requirements necessitate specialized approaches that can better address the unique characteristics of maintenance operations [30–32].

Following this research trajectory, the CID (Contextual Instance Decoupling) [33] architecture has advanced general-purpose pose estimation by decoupling instance features from global context, yet it shows limitations in specialized domains like virtual maintenance that demand higher precision. Building upon these advances, this paper proposes the VMHPE model with three key contributions: 1) a multi-scale feature enhancement framework specifically designed for maintenance contexts to capture complex poses and fine movements; 2) two novel modules-MultiscaleFeatureRectifyModule and MultiscaleFusedAttention-that enhance model performance through adaptive feature correction and multi-perspective feature fusion; and 3) the first virtual maintenance-specific human keypoint dataset (VMHKP) as a standardized benchmark. The VMHPE model effectively addresses the unique challenges of virtual maintenance through targeted multi-scale processing strategies, demonstrating significant advantages in both accuracy and robustness for specialized maintenance operations.

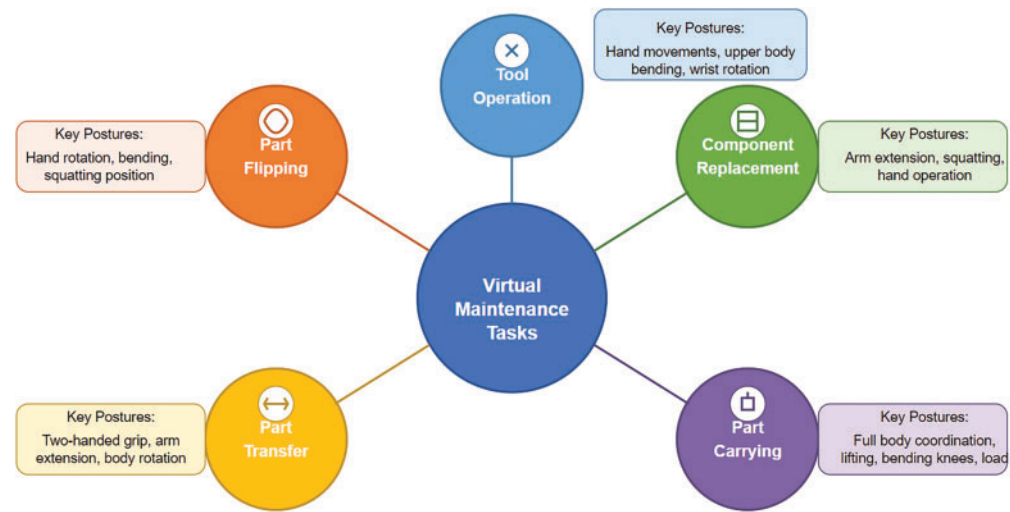
3 Data and Methods

3.1 Virtual Maintenance Specialized Dataset (VMHKP) Definition

3.1.1 Dataset Construction Process

To address limitations in existing datasets, we constructed the Virtual Maintenance Human Keypoint Dataset (VMHKP) through a systematic three-phase process: task design, data collection, and annotation.

The dataset includes 1100 RGB images from 11 technicians performing standardized maintenance procedures. These technicians have different body types (lean, medium, and heavy builds) and wear various work clothing (lightweight work attire, standard long-sleeve work uniforms, short-sleeve work uniforms, and work uniforms in different colors). This diversity design significantly enhances the representativeness of the dataset and effectively reduces potential body characteristic bias. Data collection employs a Microsoft Kinect Azure Developer Kit (DK) depth camera integrated with a 12-megapixel RGB camera, fixed at a position 2.5 meters away from the operation area to ensure complete capture of the technicians' full-body movement range. To ensure data quality and operational smoothness, an image acquisition strategy of collecting one frame every 10 frames is adopted, with 20 most representative images carefully selected from continuous maintenance operation video sequences, covering the preparation, execution, and completion phases of operations. The annotation process uses the COCO-Annotator tool, following the COCO dataset's 17 keypoint standard for 2D coordinate annotation. The annotation team consists of 3 researchers who received professional training in keypoint localization under the guidance of medical professionals. A dual verification mechanism is employed: after initial annotation, another annotator conducts independent review, and for keypoints with position differences exceeding 5 pixels, consensus is reached through discussion. During the annotation process, consistency checks are implemented by regularly sampling 10% of images for cross-annotator evaluation, ensuring the average error in keypoint localization is controlled within 3 pixels. After all annotations are completed, maintenance technicians with over 5 years of experience are invited to verify the standardization of action postures, ensuring that the annotated actions comply with actual maintenance operation standards. The final dataset passes integrity checks, providing high-quality standard data for model training and evaluation. capturing complete action sequences that embody professional characteristics such as wrist-elbow-shoulder coordination during tool operation and trunk-hip-knee support during component transport. These data provide a reliable foundation for establishing maintenance action evaluation standards. Based on industrial maintenance field investigation, we selected five representative maintenance tasks (Fig. 1). Each task was designed according to actual maintenance manuals to cover operational difficulty, tool usage, and body movement range across different scenarios, ensuring comprehensive coverage and a complete evaluation benchmark for algorithm research.



Note: Each task category involves specific motion patterns critical for standardized evaluation of maintenance operations.

Figure 1: Virtual maintenance task categories

Figs. 2 and 3 demonstrate typical operation scenarios across various maintenance tasks.

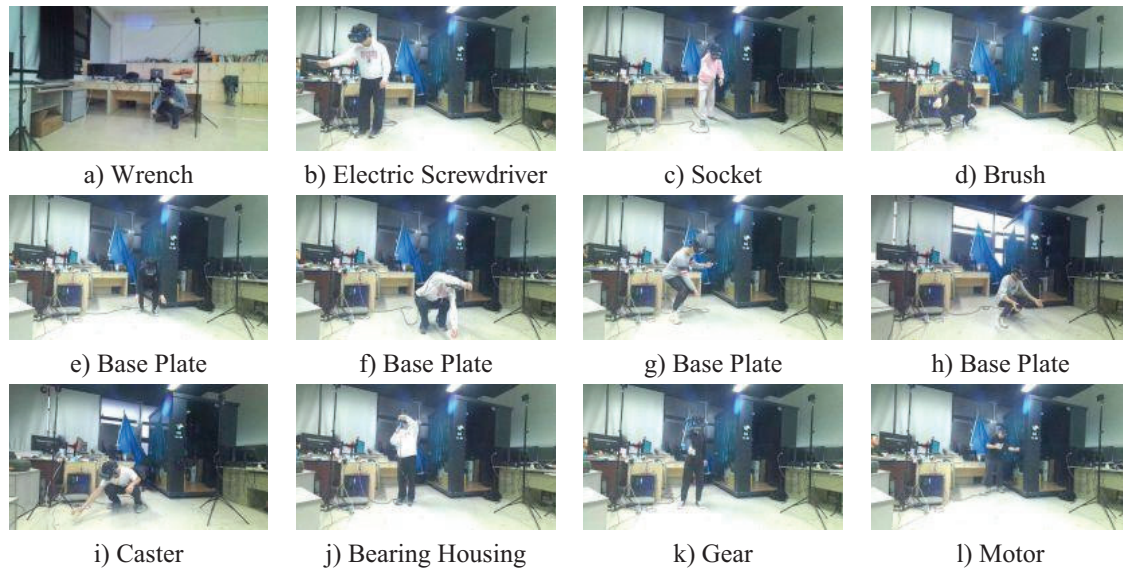


Figure 2: Task Action illustrations. (a–d) Tool Operation (TO), (e–h) Part Flipping (PF), (i–l) Component Replacement (CR)

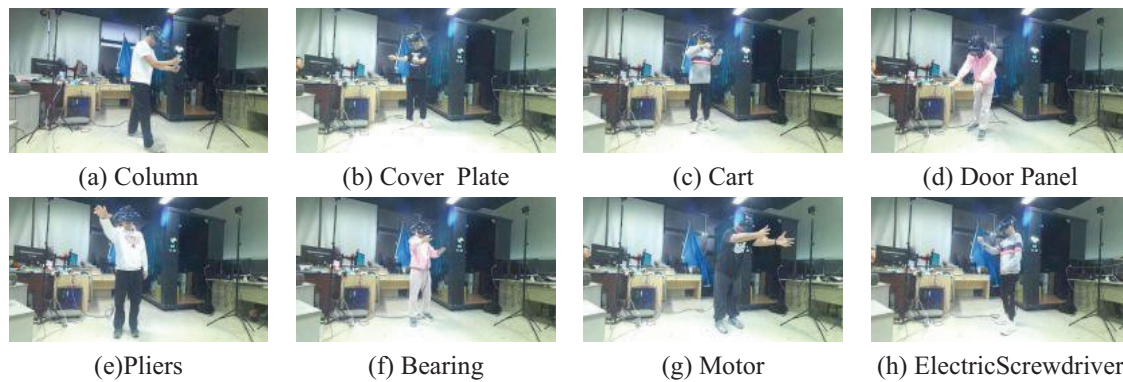


Figure 3: Task Action Illustrations (Part 2). (a–d) PC (Part Carrying), (e–h) Part Transfer (CT)

This systematic construction process ensures data quality and standardization while providing reliable training and evaluation data for the human pose estimation method proposed in [Section 3.2](#).

3.1.2 Dataset Characteristics and Advantages

The VMHKP dataset demonstrates unique advantages in three dimensions: data distribution, pose characteristics, and action continuity. Data are evenly distributed across five maintenance tasks, with 220 images per category. Each task includes rich operational scenario variations, such as the common tool application task covering operation poses for 8 maintenance tools including wrenches, electric screwdrivers, and sockets. To quantitatively analyze maintenance pose characteristics, we defined three key angle parameters ([Fig. 4](#)): wrist angle, elbow angle, and trunk forward lean angle. The wrist angle is defined as the angle formed by

the wrist-elbow-shoulder line, calculated separately for left and right wrists to describe the degree of arm bending. The elbow angle adopts a similar definition. Trunk forward lean angle is defined as the angle between the trunk midline and vertical direction, characterizing the degree of body forward lean.

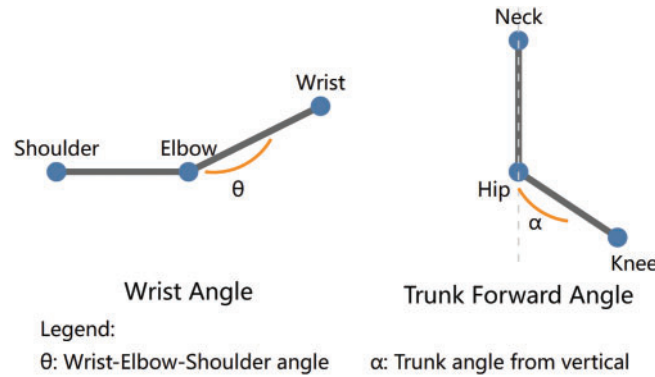


Figure 4: Schematic diagram of key angle calculation

Statistical analysis of these angles revealed significant differences in joint angle distributions across maintenance tasks (Table 1). Component transfer and transport tasks exhibited larger elbow angles ($88.3^\circ \pm 14.2^\circ$ and $102.3^\circ \pm 15.6^\circ$, respectively), reflecting large-range motion characteristics. Component flip and transport tasks showed larger trunk forward lean angles (both around 42.7°), demonstrating significant forward lean amplitudes. Tool operation tasks displayed relatively smaller wrist and elbow angles (approximately 85° and $75.2^\circ \pm 12.3^\circ$, respectively), indicating that fine operations primarily rely on small-amplitude wrist and elbow adjustments

Table 1: Joint angle distribution statistics

Action type	Wrist angle range ($^\circ$)	Elbow angle range ($^\circ$)	Trunk forward lean angle ($^\circ$)
Tool Operation	$82.4 \pm 15.3/85.6 \pm 14.8$	75.2 ± 12.3	28.5 ± 7.2
Component Flip	$88.5 \pm 16.2/86.3 \pm 15.7$	82.7 ± 13.5	42.7 ± 9.8
Component Replacement	$85.3 \pm 14.8/87.2 \pm 15.2$	78.5 ± 12.8	35.6 ± 8.4
Component Transfer	$92.4 \pm 17.5/94.8 \pm 16.9$	88.3 ± 14.2	25.8 ± 6.5
Component Handling	$95.8 \pm 18.2/98.2 \pm 17.8$	102.3 ± 15.6	42.7 ± 10.2

Another important VMHKP characteristic is action continuity. By analyzing keypoint displacement changes between adjacent frames, we quantified the continuity characteristics of maintenance actions (Table 2). Different tasks show distinct motion amplitude differences. Tool operation tasks have relatively smaller average inter-frame displacements (28.5 ± 9.2 pixels), while component transport and flip tasks show notably larger displacements (45.8 ± 14.2 and 42.3 ± 13.5 pixels, respectively). Each task type includes complete action phases, with frame ranges between 12–35 frames, meeting the requirements for continuous action analysis, with detailed continuity analysis results shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Continuity analysis of maintenance action sequences

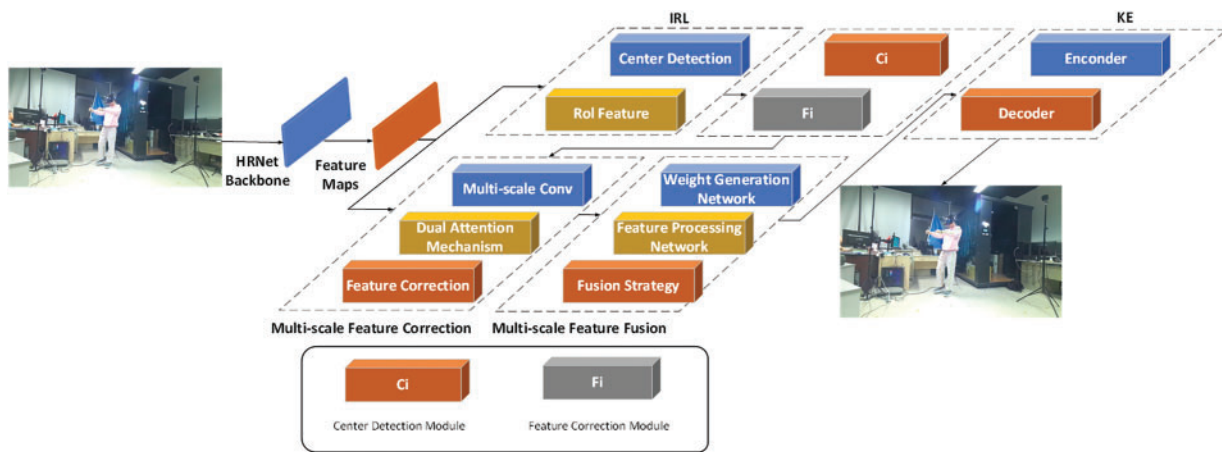
Action type	Average inter-frame displacement (Pixels)	Maximum inter-frame displacement (Pixels)	Action duration frames	Typical action sequence
Tool operation	28.5 ± 9.2	45.3	15–20	Select-Adjust-Operate-Retract
Component flip	42.3 ± 13.5	68.7	18–25	Bend-Grasp-Flip-Inspect
Component replacement	35.6 ± 11.2	52.8	20–30	Disassemble-Replace-Install
Component transfer	38.4 ± 12.1	58.9	12–18	Grasp-Transfer-Receive
Component transport	45.8 ± 14.2	75.6	25–35	Approach-Lift-Transport-Place

In summary, VMHKEP provides a comprehensive foundation for human pose estimation research in virtual maintenance scenarios through balanced task distribution, rich pose characteristics, and complete action sequences. These characteristics enhance model adaptability to maintenance scenarios and provide an important basis for subsequent algorithm optimization.

3.2 VMHPE Model Architecture

3.2.1 Overall Architecture Design

The VMHPE method is specifically designed to enhance pose estimation performance in virtual maintenance scenarios through multi-scale feature processing and adaptive attention mechanisms. Fig. 5 illustrates the comprehensive architecture of our proposed approach.

**Figure 5:** Overall architecture design

The framework consists of four integrated modules working in sequence: the backbone network extracts initial features from input images, the Individual Representation Learning (IRL) module generates discriminative individual features, the Multi-scale Feature Correction (MFC) module enhances feature robustness across different scales, and finally the Keypoint Estimation (KE) module produces precise

keypoint heatmaps. This sequential design progressively refines features from coarse to fine, enabling accurate pose estimation even under the challenging conditions typical in maintenance operations.

The MFC module performs adaptive correction on multi-scale feature maps F extracted by the backbone network under the guidance of individual representation. This module employs a Multi-scale Feature Correction Module (MFCM), enhancing feature robustness to pose variations and occlusions in both spatial and channel dimensions through adaptive scale weights and enhanced feature correction operations.

After obtaining individual feature correction results, VMHPE aggregates global features at different scales through the Multi-scale Feature Fusion Module (MFFM). This module combines cross-attention and channel embedding mechanisms, introducing multi-scale convolution to fuse local and global context information from multiple perspectives. The fused features, together with individual enhanced features, provide input for keypoint estimation.

Finally, the KE module adopts an encoder-decoder structure, comprehensively utilizing individual enhanced features and fused features to generate K keypoint heatmaps for each individual. During training, VMHPE jointly optimizes the entire framework in an end-to-end manner. The loss functions include heatmap loss, contrastive loss, and regularization terms. These are used to optimize keypoint localization accuracy, feature discrimination ability, and model generalization performance.

3.2.2 Basic Attention Module Design

This section first introduces two core attention modules in the VMHPE model: Channel Attention and Spatial Attention (Fig. 6). As basic units for feature enhancement, these two modules achieve adaptive enhancement of input features through different feature interaction methods. In the subsequent multi-scale feature processing, these two modules will be used for correction and fusion of features at different scales.

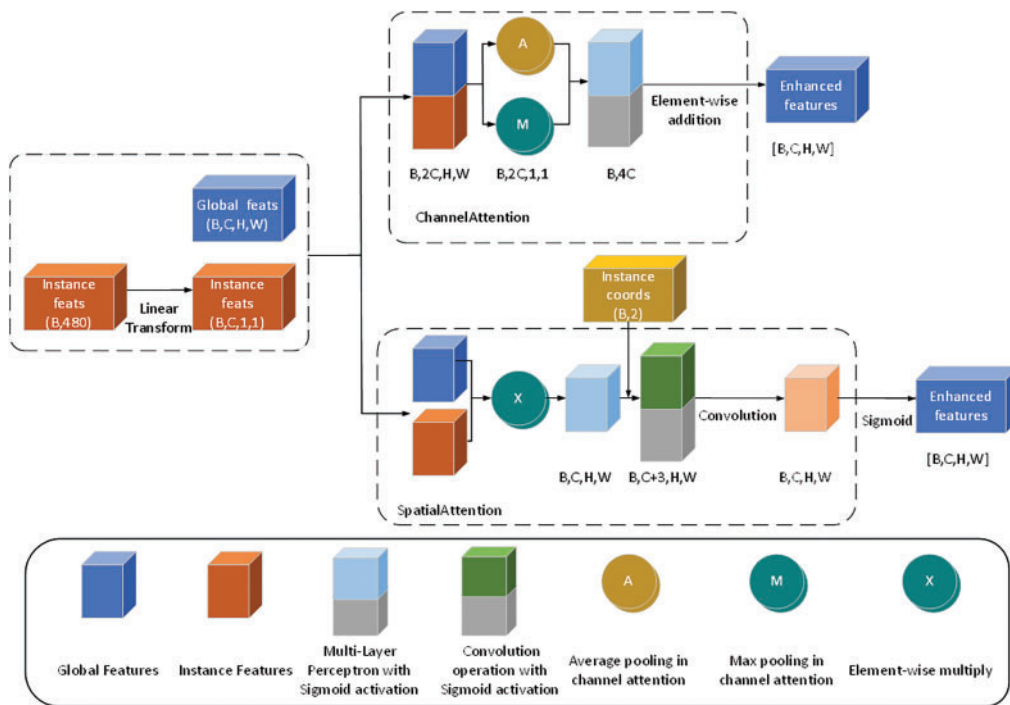


Figure 6: Basic attention module

The Channel Attention module aims to capture dependencies between feature channels and adaptively adjust the importance of each channel. This module takes global features $F_{\text{global}} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times C \times H \times W}$ and instance features $F_{\text{instance}} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times 480}$ as input. Initially, the instance features are mapped to the same channel dimension as the global features through a learnable linear transformation, as shown in Eq. (1):

$$F'_{\text{instance}} = W_{\text{atn}} \cdot F_{\text{instance}} \quad (1)$$

where W_{atn} represents the linear transformation matrix. The transformed features are then expanded to $F''_{\text{instance}} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times C \times 1 \times 1}$ and broadcast to match the spatial dimensions of the global features. Subsequently, the two features are concatenated along the channel dimension, as described in Eq. (2):

$$F_{\text{cat}} = \text{Concat}(F_{\text{global}}, F''_{\text{instance}}) \quad (2)$$

To extract channel correlations, the module applies both global average pooling and max pooling operations to F_{cat} , generating two global descriptors:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{avg}} &= \text{AvgPool}(F_{\text{cat}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times 2C} \\ F_{\text{max}} &= \text{MaxPool}(F_{\text{cat}}) \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times 2C} \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

These descriptors are further concatenated and processed through a multi-layer perceptron (MLP), as shown in Eq. (4):

$$F_{\text{attn}} = \sigma(\text{MLP}(\text{Concat}(F_{\text{avg}}, F_{\text{max}}))) \quad (4)$$

where the MLP consists of two fully connected layers with ReLU activation in between and Sigmoid activation σ at the end. The resulting attention weights are reshaped to $[2, B, C, 1, 1]$ and applied to the original features in a residual manner:

$$F_{\text{out}} = F_{\text{global}} \cdot (1 + W_c[0]) + F'_{\text{instance}} \cdot W_c[1] \quad (5)$$

The Spatial Attention module focuses on spatial dimension information of feature maps and, in addition to processing global and instance features, optionally accepts instance coordinate information $\text{coords} \in \mathbb{R}^{B \times 2}$. During feature interaction, the module computes element-wise multiplication between global features and transformed instance features:

$$F_{\text{feat}} = F_{\text{global}} \cdot F''_{\text{instance, expanded}} \quad (6)$$

When instance coordinates are provided, the module computes relative position encoding according to Eqs. (7) and (8):

$$R_{\text{coords}} = \text{coords.reshape}(-1, 1, 2) - \text{pixel_coords.reshape}(1, -1, 2) \quad (7)$$

$$R_{\text{coords}} = R_{\text{coords.permute}}(0, 2, 1).reshape(B, 2, H, W)/\text{scale_factor} \quad (8)$$

After concatenating the spatial attention map with relative position encoding, a series of convolution operations generate the final spatial attention weights:

$$W_s = \sigma(\text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(\text{ReLU}(\text{BN}(\text{Conv}_{3 \times 3}(\text{Concat}(F_{\text{sum}}, R_{\text{coords}})))))) \quad (9)$$

The final output is computed through a similar residual mechanism, as described in Eq. (10):

$$F_{out} = F_{global} \cdot (1 + W_s[:, :, :, :]) + \text{pad}(F_{input} \cdot W_s[:, :, :, :]) \quad (10)$$

where the pad operation ensures consistent output dimensions with the input. Through this design, the spatial attention module effectively captures spatial dependencies in the features.

3.2.3 Multi-Scale Feature Correction

The Multiscale Feature Correction Module (MFCM) is a feature enhancement component specifically designed for human pose estimation tasks in virtual maintenance scenarios (Fig. 7). Through adaptive multiscale processing and dual attention mechanisms, this module significantly enhances feature representation capabilities and adaptability to complex scenarios.

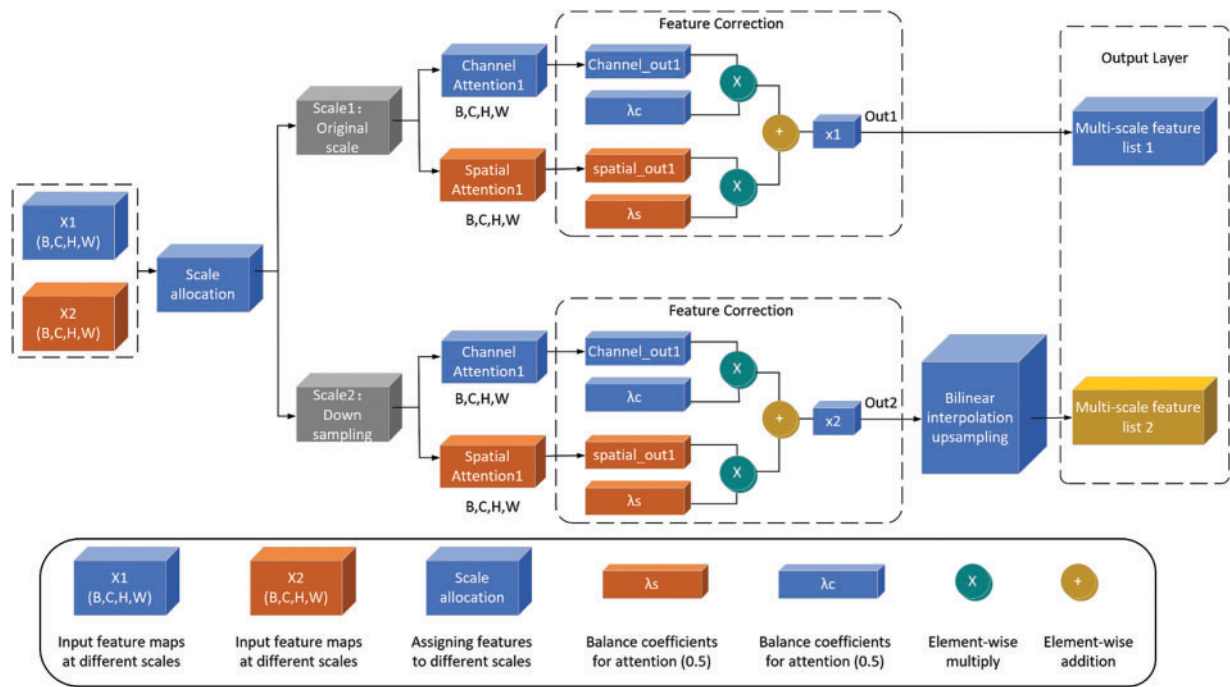


Figure 7: Multi-scale feature correction module

At the implementation level, MFCM first constructs a multiscale feature pyramid. The input global feature map F undergoes multiscale sampling, with sampling coefficients scales typically set to $[1, 2]$, corresponding to original scale and $1/2$ scale. The sampling process is implemented using bilinear interpolation, which can be expressed as:

$$F_s = \text{Interpolate}(F, \text{scale} = s), s \in \text{scales} \quad (11)$$

where *Interpolate* represents the bilinear interpolation function, and s is the scaling coefficient. This multiscale design enables the module to capture feature information at different scales simultaneously, laying the foundation for subsequent feature correction. The core of feature correction lies in the synergistic effect of channel attention and spatial attention. The channel attention module adopts a “squeeze-and-excitation”

mechanism, with its detailed implementation process. First, global average pooling is performed on the feature map:

$$z = \text{GAP}(F_s) = \frac{1}{H \times W} \sum_{i=1}^H \sum_{j=1}^W F_s(i, j) \quad (12)$$

Then channel attention weights are computed through two fully connected layers with nonlinear activations:

$$A_{\text{channel}} = \sigma(W_2 \delta(W_1 z)) \quad (13)$$

where $W_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{\frac{C}{r} \times C}$ and $W_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times \frac{C}{r}}$ are parameters of two fully connected layers, r is the reduction ratio (typically set to 16), δ is the ReLU activation function, and σ is the sigmoid activation function. This design learns inter-channel dependencies through two nonlinear transformations.

The spatial attention module focuses on the spatial information distribution of feature maps. It processes the feature map through parallel average pooling and max pooling branches:

$$M_{\text{avg}} = \text{AvgPool}(F_s), M_{\text{max}} = \text{MaxPool}(F_s) \quad (14)$$

These pooled features are concatenated and processed by a convolution layer to generate spatial attention weights:

$$A_{\text{spatial}} = \sigma(\text{Conv}_{7 \times 7}([M_{\text{avg}}; M_{\text{max}}])) \quad (15)$$

where $[\cdot]$ represents channel-wise concatenation, and $\text{Conv}_{7 \times 7}$ is a 7×7 convolution layer used to model spatial attention mapping. The larger kernel size enables capturing broader spatial context information. The feature correction process integrates channel attention and spatial attention outputs through adaptive weights:

$$F_s^{\text{corr}} = F_s + \lambda_c (F_s \odot A_{\text{channel}}) + \lambda_s (F_s \odot A_{\text{spatial}}) \quad (16)$$

where λ_c and λ_s are learnable balance factors, initially set to 0.5, and \odot represents element-wise multiplication. This design allows the model to automatically adjust the relative importance of the two attention mechanisms during training. To better integrate multiscale information, MFCM introduces an adaptive scale weight mechanism. First, feature aggregation is performed on the global feature F :

$$g = W_g \cdot \text{GAP}(F) \quad (17)$$

Then scale weights are generated through the softmax function:

$$w = \text{softmax}(g) \quad (18)$$

where W_g is a learnable weight matrix. The final multiscale fusion feature is obtained through weighted summation:

$$F_{\text{enhanced}} = \sum_{s \in \text{scales}} w_s \cdot \text{Upsample}(F_s^{\text{corr}}) \quad (19)$$

To maintain feature consistency, features at all scales are upsampled to the original resolution before fusion. This design ensures that the final enhanced features retain both fine-grained details from the original scale and contextual information from larger scales.

Given the specificity of virtual maintenance scenarios, we designed key hyperparameters based on theoretical and practical experience. The setting of the dimensionality reduction ratio r requires balancing feature representation capability and computational efficiency. The choice of $r = 16$ is based on theoretical analysis of channel attention mechanisms, which can maintain sufficient feature representation space while controlling computational complexity. The initial values of attention scaling factors λ_c and λ_s are set to 0.5 based on the theoretical requirements of multi-scale feature fusion, aiming to achieve effective balance of features at different scales. The temperature parameter $\tau = 0.07$ in contrastive learning follows the theoretical guidance of contrastive learning to ensure effective discrimination between positive and negative samples.

To improve the model's generalization capability and reduce overfitting risks, we designed multi-level data augmentation strategies: geometric transformation augmentation simulates different observation angles and operational postures through random rotation, scaling transformation, and horizontal flipping; photometric augmentation adapts to different lighting environments through color jittering, brightness and contrast adjustment; spatial perturbation includes random cropping and moderate perturbation of keypoint positions to enhance the model's adaptability to spatial variations. The design of these augmentation strategies fully considers the characteristics and challenges of virtual maintenance scenarios.

3.2.4 Multi-Scale Feature Fusion

The Multiscale Feature Fusion Module (MFFM) significantly enhances traditional feature fusion approaches through its innovative multi-level interaction and fusion strategies (Fig. 8). Unlike conventional methods, MFFM addresses the unique challenges of virtual maintenance scenarios, particularly the critical requirement for fine motion recognition. This targeted design enables more effective feature integration across different scales.

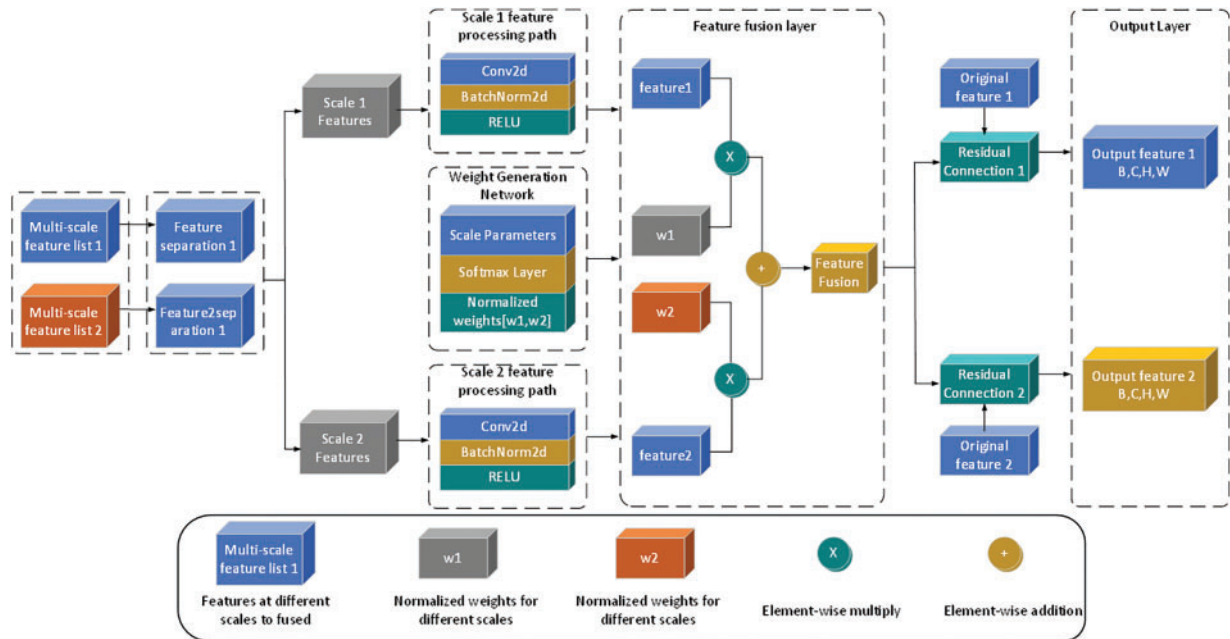


Figure 8: Multi-scale feature fusion module

The first key component of MFFM is the cross-attention mechanism. Unlike traditional self-attention, cross-attention enables information exchange between features at different scales. The implementation

begins with linear transformations of input features to generate queries, keys, and values:

$$Q_i = W_q F_i + b_q \quad K_i = W_k F_i + b_k \quad V_i = W_v F_i + b_v \quad (20)$$

where $i \in 1, 2$ represents different scales, W_q , W_k , W_v and b_q , b_k , b_v are learnable parameters. The cross-attention scores are then computed through scaled dot-product attention:

$$\begin{aligned} A_{12} &= \text{softmax} \left(\frac{Q_1 K_2^T}{\sqrt{d_k}} \right) \\ A_{21} &= \text{softmax} \left(\frac{Q_2 K_1^T}{\sqrt{d_k}} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (21)$$

where d_k is the feature dimension. These attention scores are used to weight and combine features across scales:

$$\begin{aligned} F_1^{\text{ca}} &= \text{LayerNorm}(F_1 + A_{12} V_2) \\ F_2^{\text{ca}} &= \text{LayerNorm}(F_2 + A_{21} V_1) \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

where LayerNorm denotes layer normalization, which stabilizes the feature distributions and accelerates training. The channel embedding module further enhances feature representation capability by processing spatial and channel information in parallel paths. First, the cross-attention outputs are concatenated and dimensionally reduced:

$$F_{\text{concat}} = \text{Concat}[F_1^{\text{ca}}, F_2^{\text{ca}}] \quad (23)$$

$$F_{\text{reduced}} = \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(F_{\text{concat}}) \quad (24)$$

The reduced features are then processed through spatial and channel branches:

$$\begin{aligned} F_{\text{spatial}} &= \text{DWConv}_k(F_{\text{reduced}}) \\ F_{\text{channel}} &= F_{\text{reduced}} \odot \sigma(\text{MLP}(\text{GAP}(F_{\text{reduced}}))) \end{aligned} \quad (25)$$

where DWConv_k represents depthwise separable convolution with kernel size k , and MLP denotes a multi-layer perceptron. The outputs from both branches are combined and processed through a 1×1 convolution:

$$F_{\text{ce}} = \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(F_{\text{spatial}} + F_{\text{channel}}) \quad (26)$$

The multiscale convolution module captures context information at multiple scales through parallel convolutions with different kernel sizes:

$$F_{\text{ms}} = \sum_{k \in K} w_k \cdot \text{Conv}_k(F_{\text{ce}}) \quad (27)$$

where $K = 3, 5, 7$ represents the set of convolution kernel sizes, and w_k are learnable weights for each scale. The final fusion feature combines multiscale convolution output with channel embedding features:

$$F_{\text{fused}} = F_{\text{ms}} + F_{\text{ce}} \quad (28)$$

The training process employs an end-to-end approach with a comprehensive loss function. The keypoint detection loss uses Mean Square Error (MSE) to measure the difference between predicted and ground truth heatmaps:

$$L_{\text{kpt}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^K |H_{i,j} - \hat{H}_{i,j}|_2^2 \quad (29)$$

where N is the number of samples, K is the number of keypoints, H and \hat{H} are predicted and ground truth heatmaps, respectively. To enhance feature discriminability, a contrastive loss is incorporated:

$$L_{\text{contra}} = -\log \frac{\exp(f_i \cdot f_i^+ / \tau)}{\sum_{j \neq i} \exp(f_i \cdot f_j / \tau)} \quad (30)$$

where f_i and f_i^+ are feature representations of the same individual from different viewpoints, and τ is the temperature parameter. The final loss function combines keypoint detection loss, contrastive loss, and L2 regularization:

$$L = L_{\text{kpt}} + \alpha L_{\text{contra}} + \beta |\theta|_2 \quad (31)$$

where α and β are weight coefficients that balance the contribution of each term. The L2 regularization term $|\theta|_2$ helps prevent overfitting by constraining the magnitude of model parameters.

This multi-level, multi-angle feature processing approach enables MFCM and MFFM to effectively handle various challenges in virtual maintenance scenarios, providing robust feature support for subsequent keypoint estimation. The comprehensive design of attention mechanisms, feature fusion strategies, and training objectives ensures effective learning of pose-relevant features while maintaining computational efficiency through the use of depthwise separable convolutions and residual connections.

3.3 Keypoint Estimation

Using individual enhanced features $\{F^i\}_{i=1}^N$ and the fused multi-scale global features X_{fused} , VMHPE ultimately generates K keypoint heatmaps for each individual through the Keypoint Estimation (KE) module. The KE module adopts a structure similar to HRNet, gradually extracting features through an encoder and then progressively restoring spatial resolution through a decoder to finally output keypoint heatmaps that match the original image dimensions.

Specifically, the encoder part of the KE module consists of several convolutional blocks, with each block containing two 3×3 convolutional layers and a downsampling layer. The encoder reduces the spatial dimensions of the input features by a factor of 8 while increasing the number of channels to 512. In the decoder part, the KE module employs a U-Net-like structure, concatenating shallow features from the encoder with decoder features through skip connections at each level, then restoring spatial resolution through upsampling and convolution operations. The decoder's output passes through a 1×1 convolutional layer to obtain the final K -channel keypoint heatmaps $H^i \in [0, 1]^{H \times W \times K}$:

$$H^i = \text{Conv}_{1 \times 1}(\text{Decoder}(\text{Encoder}(F^i, X_{\text{fused}}))) \quad (32)$$

where H and W represent the height and width of the input image, respectively. During training, VMHPE optimizes the entire framework in an end-to-end manner, with a loss function comprising heatmap loss L_{hm} , contrastive loss L_{cl} , and regularization term L_{reg} . The heatmap loss L_{hm} measures the difference between predicted and ground truth heatmaps, using a variant of Focal Loss; the contrastive loss L_{cl} optimizes feature

discriminability during individual representation learning; the regularization term L_{reg} includes parameter norm penalties and sparsity constraints to control model complexity and prevent overfitting.

The contrastive loss L_{cl} is defined as:

$$L_{\text{cl}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \log \frac{\exp(f^i \cdot f_i^+ / \tau)}{\exp(f^i \cdot f_i^+ / \tau) + \sum_{j \neq i} \exp(f^i \cdot f_j^- / \tau)} \quad (33)$$

where f^i represents the features of the i -th individual, f_i^+ represents the positive sample features obtained through data augmentation, f_j^- represents features from other individuals, and τ is the temperature coefficient. In our experiments, τ is set to 0.07, a value widely adopted in contrastive learning. The regularization term L_{reg} includes parameter norm penalties and sparsity constraints to control model complexity and prevent overfitting:

$$L_{\text{reg}} = \lambda_w \cdot \sum_{\theta} \|\theta\|_2^2 + \lambda_s \cdot \sum_A \|A\|_1 \quad (34)$$

where θ represents the learnable parameters of the model, A represents attention matrices, and λ_w and λ_s are balancing coefficients. The L_1 norm constraint encourages sparsity in attention matrices, making the model focus more on salient features.

The final loss function is a weighted sum of the three components:

$$L = L_{\text{hm}} + \lambda_c \cdot L_{\text{cl}} + L_{\text{reg}} \quad (35)$$

where λ_c is the weight coefficient for contrastive loss. Through cross-validation, we found that $\lambda_c = 0.1$ achieves the best performance. This indicates that while contrastive loss is important, it should not dominate the entire training process, as our ultimate goal is to generate accurate keypoint heatmaps rather than optimize feature space distribution. This multi-objective training strategy enables VMHPE to simultaneously optimize individual representation, feature correction, feature fusion, and keypoint estimation components, significantly improving model performance in pose estimation for virtual maintenance scenarios.

4 Experimental Comparison

4.1 Experimental Setup

This section first verified the accuracy of the VMHPE algorithm in human keypoint prediction, and then established a maintenance action assessment system based on high-precision prediction results. The experiments were implemented based on the PyTorch framework and conducted on a workstation equipped with an NVIDIA RTX 3090 GPU. The model used ImageNet pre-trained HRNet-W32 as the backbone network. To ensure evaluation reliability, input images were uniformly adjusted to 512 pixels on the short side while maintaining the original aspect ratio. Average Precision (AP) and Average Recall (AR) were used as basic metrics for evaluation.

4.2 Comparison with Existing Methods

We compared VMHPE with mainstream human pose estimation methods. Table 3 shows our method significantly outperforms existing approaches. Compared to RTMO-S, we achieved a 21.0 percentage point improvement in AP. Against YOLOXPose models, our method improved AP by 11.7–12.9 percentage points. Using the same HRNet-W32 backbone as Disentangled Keypoint Regression (DEKR) and CID, VMHPE improved AP by 2.3 percentage points and AR by 1.3–1.5 percentage points.

Table 3: Performance comparison of different methods on dataset

Model configuration	Backbone	AP (%)	AR (%)	Improvement
RTMO-S	CSPDarknet	73.4	78.0	−18.7% AP, −16.3% AR
YOLOXPose-S	CSPDarknet	82.7	86.2	−9.4% AP, −8.1% AR
YOLOXPose-L	CSPDarknet	81.5	84.6	−10.6% AP, −9.7% AR
DEKR	HRNet-W32	92.1	93.9	0% AP, −0.4% AR
CID	HRNet-W32	92.1	94.3	Baseline
VMHPE (ours)	HRNet-W32	94.4	95.8	+2.3% AP, +1.5% AR¹

Note: Bold entry indicates the proposed method in this study.

Considering the dual requirements of accuracy and real-time performance in virtual maintenance scenarios, we further evaluated the practicality of different methods. Based on accuracy and inference time metrics, existing methods are divided into four levels (as shown in Table 4).

Table 4: Classification standards for human pose estimation methods in virtual maintenance scenarios

Performance level	AP range (%)	Inference time (ms)	Application scenario characteristics
Professional	> 90	< 250	Suitable for high-precision maintenance training and assessment
Practical	80–90	< 100	Meets general maintenance training needs
Basic guidance	70–80	< 150	Suitable for simple maintenance action guidance
Needs optimization	< 70	> 150	Requires further improvement

Experimental results demonstrate that VMHPE achieves professional-level performance (AP = 94.4%, inference time 213.4 ms), meeting both accuracy and real-time requirements for virtual maintenance. As shown in Fig. 9, VMHPE successfully breaks through the performance bottleneck that appears when AP and AR exceed 90%, demonstrating highly balanced characteristics with an AP/AR ratio of 0.985. In contrast, YOLOXPose models offer faster inference (46.3–67.5 ms) but only reach practical-level accuracy (AP \approx 82%); RTMO-S performs at a basic level (AP = 73.4%) suitable only for simple guidance; and DEKR, despite high accuracy (AP = 92.1%), is limited by its longer inference time (336.1 ms). By maintaining inference efficiency comparable to the baseline CID (213.4 vs. 213.1 ms) while significantly improving accuracy (+2.3% AP, +1.5% AR), VMHPE uniquely balances precision and speed. This makes it particularly valuable for professional maintenance training systems, where its multi-scale feature processing strategy simultaneously ensures accurate action assessment, high recall rates, and responsive real-time interaction.

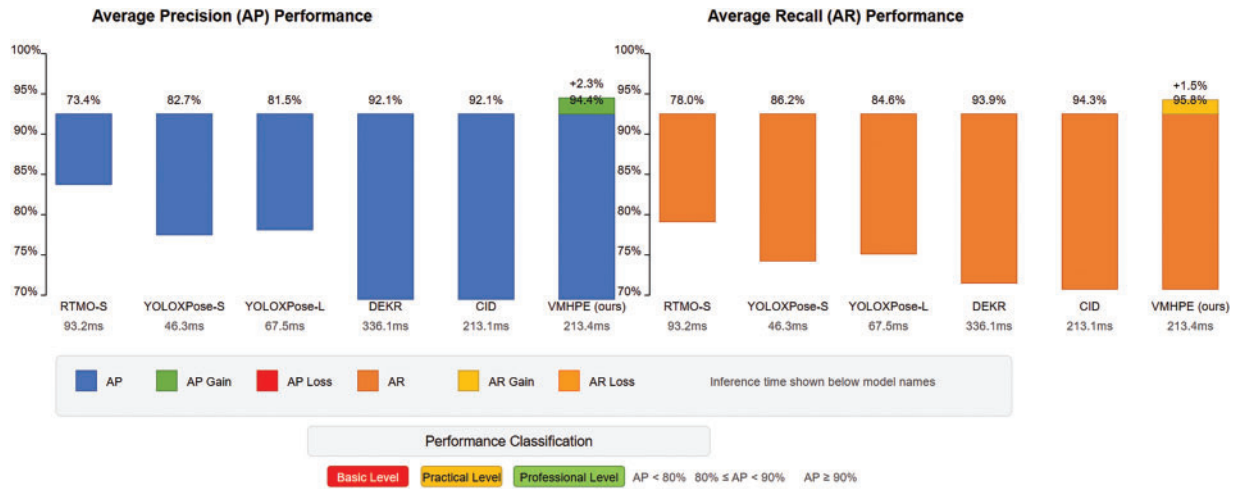


Figure 9: Performance distribution of human pose estimation methods

To gain an in-depth understanding of the improvement effects of VMHKD-HPE in maintenance scenarios, we conducted detailed analysis on the prediction accuracy of various key points. As shown in Table 5, our method demonstrates differentiated improvement effects on different types of key points.

Table 5: Comparative analysis of the percentage of correct keypoints (PCK) metrics for different keypoints

Type	Base (%)	Ours (%)	+ (%)	Analysis description
Wrist	85.6	94.8	+9.2	Manual operation precision is key for improvement display
Elbow	88.3	95.1	+6.8	Critical for control of tool operation posture in heavy lifting tasks
Shoulder	92.1	96.7	+4.6	Support body movement with improved precision
Hip	90.4	95.8	+5.4	Critical support points for transportation tasks
Knee	87.9	94.3	+6.4	Important points for operational improvement display
Ankle	89.2	93.8	+4.6	Foundation for postural balance and stability improvement
Head	95.7	97.8	+2.1	Already high precision with limited improvement space

From the data, it can be seen that VMHKD-HPE achieved the most significant improvements in wrist and elbow key points (9.2% and 6.8% improvement, respectively). This is highly consistent with the characteristics of maintenance tasks: tool operation and component installation primarily depend on precise control of hands and elbows, which is exactly the strength of our method. In comparison, the improvement for head and other relatively stable key points is smaller (only 2.1%). Further analysis of different maintenance task scenarios reveals that in precision tool operation scenarios, the prediction stability of wrist key points (return position change standard deviation) decreased from the baseline 15.3 (pixel units) to 8.7 (pixels); in heavy component transportation scenarios, the prediction accuracy of hip-knee-ankle support chain angles improved by 7.8%. This targeted improvement validates the advantages of multi-scale feature extraction mechanisms in fine-grained maintenance action details.

4.3 Ablation Experiments

4.3.1 Component Analysis

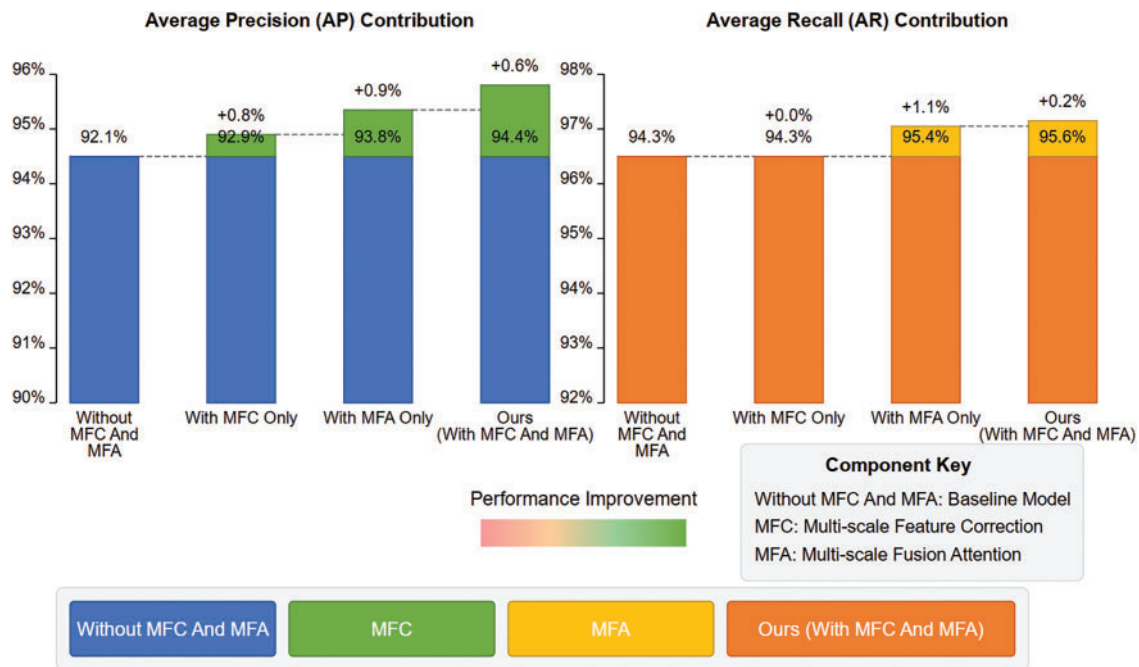
To verify VMHPE's core components, we performed progressive addition of modules to the CID baseline. As shown in Table 6, adding the multi-scale feature correction module (MFC) improves AP by 0.8% while maintaining AR. Further introducing the multi-scale fusion attention mechanism (MFA) improves AP and AR by 0.9% and 1.1%, respectively. The complete model (MFC+MFA) achieves a total improvement of 2.3% in AP and 1.3% in AR compared to baseline.

Table 6: Performance comparison of different component combinations

Model configuration	AP (%)	AR (%)	Improvement
Without MFC And MFA	92.1	94.3	Reference benchmark
With MFC Only	92.9	94.3	+0.8% AP
With MFA Only	93.8	95.4	+0.9%AP, +1.1%AR
Ours(With MFC And MFA)	94.4	95.6	+2.3%AP, +1.3%AR

Note: Bold entry represents the complete proposed model with all components.

Fig. 10 shows the performance change trend across components. Model improvement exhibits nonlinear characteristics, with MFA playing a crucial role in feature integration. AR increases significantly after adding fusion attention, from 94.3% to 95.4%, indicating enhanced detection capability across different scales. AP shows continuous improvement, reflecting the cumulative effect of components in enhancing localization accuracy.

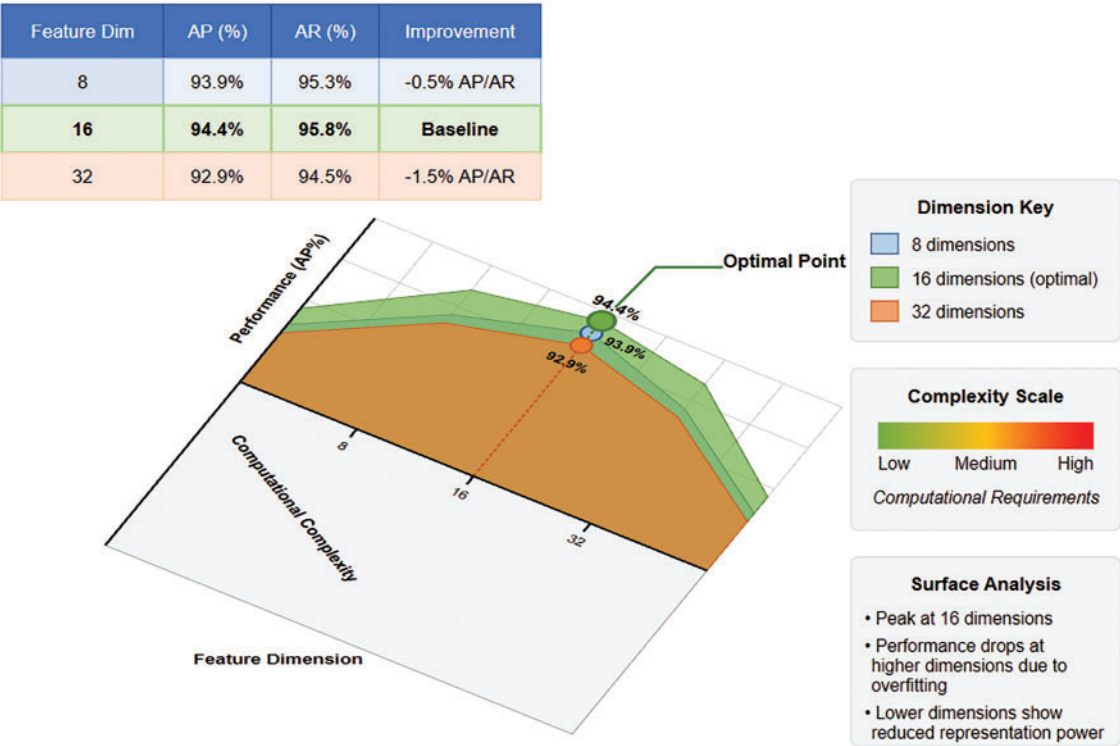


Note: This figure shows the incremental performance improvements contributed by each model component.

Figure 10: Performance comparison of different component combinations in VMHPE model

4.3.2 Embedding Dimension Analysis

As shown in Fig. 11, feature embedding dimensions significantly impact model performance. The model demonstrates good results with 8-dimensional features (AP = 93.9%, AR = 95.3%), reaches optimal performance at 16 dimensions (AP = 94.4%, AR = 95.8%), but shows performance degradation at 32 dimensions (AP = 92.9%, AR = 94.5%). This asymmetric performance curve indicates that excessive dimensions have a stronger negative impact than insufficient dimensions, likely due to overfitting in high-dimensional feature spaces. The 16-dimension configuration achieves an optimal balance between performance and computational efficiency.



Note: 3D visualization shows the relationship between feature dimension, performance metrics, and computational complexity.

Figure 11: 3D performance surface analysis of feature embedding dimensions

As shown in Fig. 12, there are significant differences in keypoint localization accuracy among different pose estimation methods in virtual maintenance scenarios. The VMHPE model significantly improves keypoint prediction accuracy through multi-scale feature processing mechanisms, especially in key maintenance areas such as hand operations and torso support. In comparison, RTMO-S and YOLOXPose series lack precision in capturing fine movements, while DEKR performs well but still has errors in complex postures. This advantage in accuracy lays a reliable foundation for subsequent maintenance action evaluation based on keypoints.

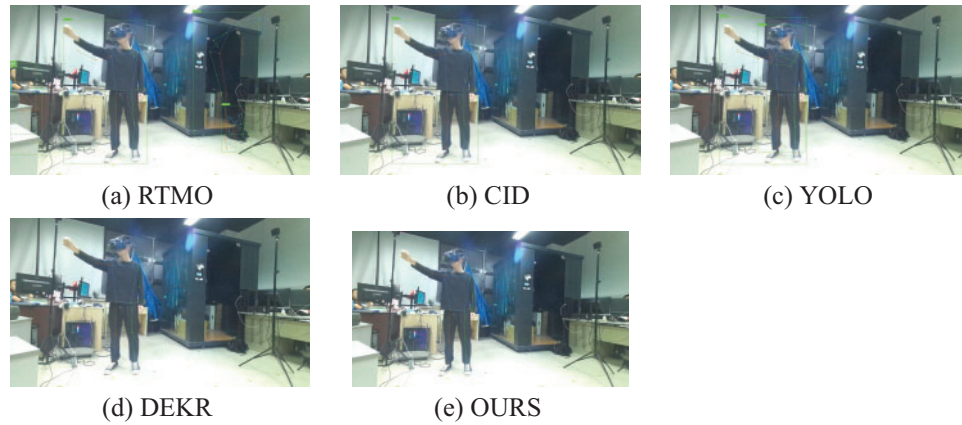


Figure 12: Comparison of pose estimation performance across different models (a–e) in Virtual maintenance scenarios

4.4 Maintenance Action Assessment

4.4.1 Assessment Standard Establishment

Based on high-precision keypoint prediction results, we calculated similarity between operators' actions and professional standards by comparing topological structure similarity between keypoint sequences. Professional personnel's standard actions exhibited clear pattern characteristics-with stable wrist-elbow-shoulder angles during tool operation and specific trunk-hip-knee support angles during transport-forming reliable benchmarks for evaluation. [Table 7](#) presents a quantitative comparison analysis of key angle chains between professional maintenance personnel and ordinary operators, highlighting the differences in posture precision across different action types.

Table 7: Key angle comparison analysis between professional maintenance personnel and ordinary operators

Action type	Key angle chain	Professional standard Range	Ordinary operation Average range	Similarity Score
Tool operation	Wrist-Elbow-Shoulder	75.2 ± 12.3	82.4 ± 15.3	88.5%
Component transport	Trunk-Hip-Knee	42.7 ± 9.8	55.8 ± 14.2	82.3%
Component transfer	Two-hand Coordination Symmetry	88.3 ± 14.2	95.8 ± 18.2	85.7%
Component replacement	Squatting Support Chain	78.5 ± 12.8	85.3 ± 14.8	84.2%
Component flip	Trunk Forward Lean Angle	42.7 ± 10.2	52.4 ± 13.5	83.6%

Through experimental validation, we established a four-level assessment standard as shown in [Table 8](#): $\geq 90\%$ (professional level), 80%–89% (proficient level), 70%–79% (qualified level), and $< 70\%$ (needs improvement), providing an objective, data-driven approach for standardizing maintenance training. [Table 8](#)

provides detailed descriptions of maintenance action evaluation standards based on skeletal topology similarity, including similarity ranges, evaluation standard descriptions, and key feature performance indicators for each level.

Table 8: Maintenance action evaluation standards based on skeletal topology similarity

Assessment level	Similarity range	Evaluation standard description	Key feature performance
Professional level	$\geq 90\%$	Actions highly conform to professional standards, good stability	Key angle chain fluctuation range $\leq 10^\circ$, continuous movements
Proficient level	80%–89%	Basically meets standard action requirements, details need optimization	Key angle chain fluctuation range $\leq 15^\circ$, natural transitions
Qualified level	70%–79%	Actions generally correct, standardization needs improvement	Key angle chain fluctuation range $\leq 20^\circ$, some instability exists
Needs improvement	$< 70\%$	Actions show obvious deviations, requires focused guidance	Key angle chain fluctuation range $> 20^\circ$, discontinuous movements

To ensure the scientific validity and practicality of the similarity assessment standards, we conducted rigorous statistical validation through expert evaluation experiments and field application verification. First, we invited 6 experienced maintenance trainers to provide professional ratings (1–10 scale) for 20 operators of different skill levels, and compared these ratings with the system-calculated similarity scores through comparative analysis. As shown in Fig. 13, expert ratings and system similarity demonstrate a high positive correlation (Pearson correlation coefficient $r = 0.89$, $p < 0.001$). Particularly around the 90% similarity threshold, expert rating consistency reached its highest level (Cohen's Kappa = 0.86), providing strong support for our professional level threshold setting.

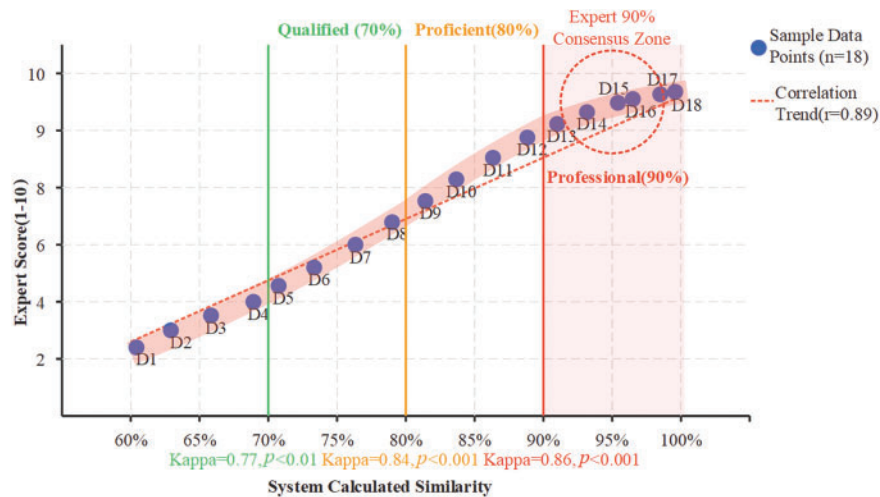


Figure 13: Correlation analysis between expert scores and system similarity

Second, we conducted detailed recording and analysis of the actual work performance of these 20 operators. As shown in Table 9, operators in different similarity intervals exhibited significant differences in work efficiency, operational accuracy, and skill levels.

Table 9: Correlation analysis between similarity ratings and actual work performance

Similarity range	Sample size	Maintenance efficiency (min/task)	Operation error rate (%)	Skill score (100-pt)	Supervisor consistency
$\geq 90\%$	5	12.4 ± 2.1	2.3 ± 0.8	94.5 ± 3.2	0.91
80%–89%	7	17.6 ± 3.2	5.7 ± 1.4	85.7 ± 4.5	0.84
70%–79%	5	25.3 ± 4.5	12.4 ± 2.8	76.2 ± 5.3	0.77
$< 70\%$	3	38.7 ± 6.3	23.2 ± 4.6	62.8 ± 7.1	0.82

The data shows that operators with similarity $\geq 90\%$ demonstrated significantly higher maintenance efficiency than other groups ($p < 0.01$), the lowest operational error rate ($2.3\% \pm 0.8\%$), and the highest consistency with supervisor evaluations (Kappa = 0.91). Through one-way analysis of variance, we verified that these differences have statistical significance ($F = 16.8$, $p < 0.001$), strongly supporting the setting of 90% as the professional level threshold.

It is noteworthy that we discovered an important phenomenon in our data analysis: the relationship between skill level and similarity exhibits distinct performance jumps at critical threshold points. Particularly at the 90% similarity point, the operational error rate significantly decreased from 5.7% to 2.3%, and similar ‘step effects’ were observed at 80% and 70% thresholds. This nonlinear relationship further confirms the rationality and practical value of our similarity threshold settings.

4.4.2 Application Value Analysis

VMHPE’s high-precision prediction performance provides important support for virtual maintenance training systems. The system can collect trainees’ operation videos in real-time and extract skeletal key-points through the algorithm. It then compares them with professional personnel’s standard actions to provide objective evaluation results. This evaluation method based on precise keypoint prediction achieves standardization and regularization of maintenance training, providing technical guarantee for improving training quality.

5 Discussion and Analysis

5.1 Core Mechanism Analysis

Based on Section 4’s experimental results, we analyze how VMHPE’s core mechanisms address virtual maintenance challenges. The multi-scale feature correction mechanism improves model AP from 92.1% to 92.9% through adaptive processing of features at different scales. This improvement stems from the feature correction unit’s adaptive capability, enhancing local detail features during fine operations while strengthening global structure information during large-scale movements, effectively addressing pose diversity and occlusion challenges. The multi-scale fusion attention mechanism further enhances feature expression and integration capabilities through spatial and channel dimension attention computation, improving AP and AR to 93.8% and 95.4%, respectively. Spatial attention effectively solves pose interference in multi-person scenarios, while channel attention enhances understanding of complex poses. This performance

improvement has significant implications for maintenance action assessment, as high-precision keypoint prediction ensures reliability when comparing with standard actions. In terms of real-time performance, VMHPE achieves a good balance between accuracy and speed, with minimal computational overhead (inference time increased by only 0.3 ms) while significantly improving performance (AP increased by 2.3%). This efficient architecture design makes the model particularly suitable for real-time applications like virtual maintenance.

5.2 Parameter Configuration Analysis

Regarding feature dimension selection, experiments find that 16-dimensional feature configuration (AP = 94.4%, AR = 95.8%) achieves optimal performance. This result indicates that under our proposed feature correction and fusion mechanisms, medium-scale feature space is sufficient to capture key information in virtual maintenance scenarios. Lower dimensions might lead to information loss, while higher dimensions introduce redundant information that affects feature discrimination capability. The 16-dimensional configuration achieves a good balance between performance and computational overhead, providing an important reference for system deployment. The complete VMHPE achieves significant performance improvements with AP and AR reaching 94.4% and 95.6% respectively through the organic combination of multi-scale feature correction and fusion attention mechanisms. This improvement validates our technical solution's rationality, particularly in complex maintenance scenarios, where these mechanisms provide strong support for accurate pose estimation.

5.3 Dataset Validation Analysis

The maintenance action assessment system established in this research has two key characteristics. First, the assessment benchmark derives from professional maintenance personnel's standard action data, ensuring evaluation standard authority. Second, high-precision skeletal keypoint prediction ensures the reliability of action similarity calculation.

Analysis of action characteristic differences between professional personnel and ordinary operators reveals that key angle chain distribution patterns effectively reflect operation skill levels. Professional personnel show significantly smaller angle fluctuations in hand key chains during fine operations compared to ordinary operators, providing a basis for establishing quantitative evaluation standards.

Different maintenance tasks have varying action precision requirements. Tool operation tasks emphasize hand movement precision, while component transport focuses on overall posture coordination. Our assessment system adapts to these differences by setting task-related weight coefficients, achieving flexible evaluation standard adaptation.

5.4 Integration with Pose Optimization Methods

The VMHPE method achieves accurate single-frame pose estimation in virtual maintenance scenarios, but constructing a complete training system requires addressing temporal consistency issues. Continuous operation sequences in virtual maintenance training demand natural smoothness of actions in the temporal dimension, yet existing pose estimators often suffer from jittering problems. SmoothNet models the natural smoothness characteristics of body motion by learning long-term temporal relationships of joints [33]. Integration with VMHPE can significantly improve temporal smoothness, which is of great significance for ensuring continuity and standardization in maintenance operation evaluation. From an application development perspective, the expansion of virtual maintenance systems toward three-dimensional evaluation is an inevitable trend. By combining the VMHKEP dataset constructed in this study with multi-scale feature fusion strategies, integrating 3D pose optimization methods such as Filter with Learned Kinematics (FLK) [34]

can provide spatial constraint capabilities for the system. This expansion not only leverages VMHPE's accuracy advantages in 2D pose estimation but also ensures the rationality of poses in three-dimensional space through biomechanical constraints, making it particularly suitable for safety evaluation requirements in complex maintenance environments. Based on the four-level motion standardization evaluation system proposed in this paper, integrating pose optimization methods can further enhance the reliability and practicality of evaluation. VMHPE's multi-scale feature correction mechanism provides accuracy assurance for basic detection, temporal smoothing algorithms ensure coherence of action sequences, and spatial constraint methods guarantee physiological reasonableness of poses. This multi-level integrated architecture not only improves technical indicators but, more importantly, establishes a complete technical chain from accurate detection to standardized evaluation for virtual maintenance training systems, making professional-level ($\geq 90\%$) action standardization evaluation more reliable and practical.

6 Conclusion and Future Work

This paper proposes the VMHPE method for human pose estimation in virtual maintenance scenarios, effectively addressing challenges of pose diversity and occlusions through multi-scale feature correction and fusion attention mechanisms. The VMHKEP dataset we constructed provides an important benchmark for this field. Experimental results confirm our method's superior performance in virtual maintenance contexts. Nevertheless, optimization opportunities remain, particularly in inference time for complex scenarios. As a 2D pose estimation approach, it has limitations in handling complex rotations and occlusions, while 3D pose information is crucial for accurate assessment in virtual maintenance. Future work will focus on dataset extension and technical innovation, including increasing maintenance scenario types, introducing 3D annotations, exploring 2D to 3D pose estimation methods, and researching multi-modal feature fusion strategies. Through continuous innovation, we aim to achieve high-quality, standardized, and intelligent development of virtual maintenance training.

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Availability of Data and Materials: The Virtual Maintenance Human Keypoint Dataset (VMHKEP) constructed in this study is publicly available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.15525037>. Additional experimental data and code will be made available upon reasonable request to the corresponding author.

Ethics Approval: Not applicable.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflicts of interest regarding the present study.

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