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A Real-time Pose Estimation Application for Tinikling

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A Capstone Project on Operational Technologies

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Presented to the Faculty of the

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Department of Electronics and Computer Engineering

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Gokongwei College of Engineering

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De La Salle University

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In Partial Fulfillment of the

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Operational Technologies

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by

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ABSTRACT

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Index Terms—Dance, Pose Estimation, Real-time, OpenPose .



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93 ABBREVIATIONS

| | | | |
|----|------|---------------------------------------|---|
| 94 | CV | Computer Vision | 2 |
| 95 | HOG | Histogram Of Oriented Gradients | 2 |
| 96 | CNN | Convolutional Neural Network | 2 |
| 97 | LSTM | Long Short-Term Memory..... | 3 |
| 98 | ASL | American Sign Language..... | 3 |



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NOTATION



GLOSSARY

| | | |
|-----|--------------------------|---|
| 100 | | |
| 101 | Tinikling | The traditional Filipino dance involving two bamboo sticks, where a dancer moves in and out of the rhythmically tapped sticks. |
| 102 | OpenCV | An open-source computer vision library widely used for real-time image capture and processing, including camera I/O, preprocessing, filtering, and contour extraction. |
| 103 | Ultraleap | A commercial infrared-based hand-tracking system that uses stereo cameras and near-infrared illumination to generate dense, low-latency 3D hand data. |
| 104 | Hand Gesture Recognition | The computational pipeline of detecting a hand, extracting features or landmarks, and classifying the resulting input into a specific gesture with low latency and high reliability. |
| 105 | MediaPipe | A framework for building multimodal applied machine learning pipelines, including computer vision models like hand gesture recognition. |
| 106 | Pose estimation | A computer vision technique used to detect human poses (such as hand or body positions) from images or videos, often used for gesture and movement analysis. |
| 107 | Dynamic Time Warping | A technique used to align time sequences by minimizing the distance between them, useful for applications like gesture recognition and speech processing. |
| 108 | Operational Technologies | Programmable systems or devices that interact with the physical environment (or manage devices that interact with the physical environment). These systems/devices detect or cause a direct change through the monitoring and/or control of devices, processes, and events. Examples include industrial control systems, building management systems, fire control systems, and physical access control mechanisms. |



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LISTINGS



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Chapter 1

111

INTRODUCTION



112 **1.1 Background of the Study**

113 Classical Computer Vision (CV) approaches used skin color segmentation, contour anal-
114 ysis, optical flow, and handcrafted descriptors (Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG),
115 motion history images) to detect and classify gestures. Despite being simple and inter-
116 pretable, those methods struggle with background variation and scale. The deep-learning
117 era replaced handcrafted features with Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) that learn
118 hierarchical visual features directly from image data, yielding much higher accuracy for
119 static hand pose and short-sequence recognition tasks. Many recent capstone and journal
120 implementations pair OpenCV (for capture/preprocessing) with CNN built and trained
121 in TensorFlow/PyTorch to recognize a fixed vocabulary of gestures in real time. These
122 hybrid pipelines are practical for capstone projects because OpenCV handles efficient frame
123 processing while CNNs provide generalization across users and backgrounds. Furthermore,
124 Operational Technologies plays a crucial role in deploying these systems in real-world
125 applications where physical devices and processes are monitored and controlled, such as
126 in industrial automation or building management systems, which benefit from enhanced
127 gesture recognition. (Oudah et al., 2020)

128 Instead of classifying raw images, several high-performance systems first extract skeletal
129 landmarks (e.g., MediaPipe's 21-point hand model) and feed those coordinates to a classifier
130 (small CNN, MLP, or temporal model like LSTM). Landmark-based pipelines reduce
131 sensitivity to background and scale and make models smaller and faster, which is ideal
132 for mobile or AR deployment. Markerless commercial devices such as the Leap Motion
133 Controller and Ultraleap cameras provide very accurate 3D joint data using IR illumination
134 and multi-camera setups; those give superior fidelity but add hardware cost and integration



135 work. For a capstone aiming at broad deployability, a practical approach is to prototype
136 with MediaPipe + OpenCV + CNN (or lightweight temporal model) and consider Ultraleap
137 integration later for high-precision installations. /citep{zhangmediapipe}

138 1.2 Prior Studies

139 MediaPipe Hands presents a two-stage on-device pipeline (Zhang et al., 2020)(palm detector
140 + hand-landmark regressor) that extracts 21 hand landmarks from a single RGB frame
141 and runs in real time on mobile GPUs; the architecture and open implementation are
142 widely used as a practical basis for gesture recognition because they offer compact, robust
143 landmark outputs that are easier to classify than raw images. This work is especially
144 relevant to mobile or cross-platform deployment without extra hardware.

145 Reviews and vendor docs show that Ultraleap's IR stereo cameras and LED illumination
146 give very precise 3D joint tracking and low latency (Ultraleap, 2025), making them popular
147 for VR/installation work; academic comparisons find Leap/Ultraleap and MediaPipe are
148 both capable, with trade-offs in precision versus hardware requirements. Ultraleap or similar
149 IR camera hardware is a practical choice for professional installation quality (amusement
150 park kiosk, VR attraction). American Sign Language (ASL) and other sign recognition
151 papers demonstrate that combining landmark features (from MediaPipe or depth sensors)
152 with temporal models (Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)/CNN temporal stacks) yields
153 state-of-the-art results for complex hand sequences (Verma et al., 2024). These studies
154 emphasize the importance of considering variable visibility conditions as spellcasting often
155 requires temporal tracing (drawing shapes), and not just static poses. This also provides
156 insight into dataset design and labeling strategies. Hand Gesture Recognition is advancing



157 as a key technology for human–machine interaction. This study reviews both non-vision
158 (e.g., sensor-based) and vision-based approaches, examining tools such as hidden Markov
159 models (Rahman et al., 2025), finite state machines, color modeling, naive Bayes, deep
160 networks, histogram features, and fuzzy clustering. Methods are categorized into detection,
161 tracking, and recognition phases, with comparisons across static and dynamic gestures.
162 The review highlights current technologies, their advantages and limitations, and identifies
163 directions for future research.

164 Hand gestures, as a form of nonverbal communication, are applied in fields such as
165 HCI, assistive communication, robotics, home automation, and healthcare (Oudah et al.,
166 2020). Research spans sensor-based and vision-based methods, with gestures categorized as
167 static, dynamic, or hybrid. This paper reviews literature on gesture recognition, comparing
168 techniques in terms of segmentation, classification, datasets, gesture types, camera use,
169 detection range, and performance. It provides a comprehensive overview of methods, their
170 merits and limitations, and potential applications.

171 1.3 Problem Statement

172 Immersive interactive systems in gaming, AR, amusement parks, and accessibility still
173 rely heavily on handheld controllers, touchscreens, or specialized hardware that break
174 immersion, add cost, or exclude users with differing motor abilities. Markerless, camera-
175 based hand-gesture recognition promises touchless, expressive input suitable for “magical”
176 metaphors (casting spells, tracing runes) that are intuitive and socially engaging. However,
177 real-world deployment is challenged by variable lighting, occlusion, noisy backgrounds, and
178 latency. These problems make accuracy and robustness the central obstacles for any spell-



179 casting CV system. Modern solutions that combine real-time hand-lmark extraction and
180 convolutional neural networksCNN have narrowed the gap, but careful design is required
181 to meet the high level competency goals for responsiveness, cross-platform deployment,
182 and accessibility. (Oudah et al., 2020)

183 **1. PS1:**

184 • The ideal scenario for our intended audience (students, educators, and dance
185 enthusiasts) is to have an intuitive and interactive learning tool that facilitates
186 the practice of Tinikling, the traditional Filipino dance. This tool should provide
187 on users' dance movements, enabling them to learn and improve their technique.
188 The desired state includes accessibility to the tool on various devices (e.g.,
189 desktop, mobile) with a user-friendly interface and a high level of accuracy in
190 tracking the dance steps. Additionally, it should support personalized feedback,
191 enabling users of all skill levels to progress and feel engaged in learning this
192 cultural heritage.

193 **2. PS2:**

194 • Currently, learning Tinikling requires access to physical dance classes or in-
195structors, which are often limited by geographical location, financial resources,
196 or time constraints. For individuals unable to attend such classes, the lack of af-
197fordable and effective learning tools becomes a significant barrier. Additionally,
198 existing dance-learning technologies are either costly, relying on specialized
199 hardware, or lack the immediacy of real-time feedback, making it difficult
200 for learners to practice and perfect their movements without direct instructor
guidance.



- 202 • The pain point is that students who want to practice Tinikling at home or in
203 remote areas are unable to receive real-time guidance or feedback, leading to
204 slower progress, incorrect technique, and a loss of motivation.

205 **3. PS3:**

- 206 • Without a tool that offers immediate feedback and a clear learning path, students
207 practicing Tinikling on their own are likely to struggle with incorrect move-
208 ments, which may lead to frustration. Over time, this lack of progress could
209 result in a lack of confidence, disengagement from the learning process, and
210 ultimately, the inability to learn the dance correctly. Furthermore, the absence
211 of accessible learning tools risks the loss of cultural knowledge and the fading
212 of the Tinikling tradition, especially among younger generations who may not
213 have easy access to traditional learning methods.

214 **1.4 Objectives and Deliverables**

215 **1.4.1 General Objective (GO)**

- 216 • GO: To design and implement a real-time Pose estimation-based tinikling learning
217 application that provides immediate feedback and scoring to users based on their
218 performance of tinikling dance routines;



219 **1.4.2 Specific Objectives (SOs)**

- 220 • SO1: To implement a real-time pipeline that captures camera frames, extracts ro-
221 bust hand features (landmarks or processed images), and classifies gestures into a
222 configurable spell vocabulary with low latency (30 fps target) and high accuracy;;
- 223 • SO2: To make the model robust to lighting, background clutter, and user variation
224 through and landmark-based representations ;
- 225 • SO3: To design the system to be deployable across desktop, mobile, and simple AR
226 setups using cross-platform libraries (OpenCV, MediaPipe, TensorFlow/TensorFlow
227 Lite) ;
- 228 • SO4: To make the interaction ergonomically accessible by supporting alternative
229 gestures and calibration for users with different ranges of motion ;
- 230 • SO5: On UX side, to make spells feel immediately meaningful (clear mapping
231 between motion and effect), provide instant feedback when a spell is recognized, and
232 allow easy extension of the spell set. ;

233 **1.4.3 Expected Deliverables**

234 **1.5 Significance of the Study**

235 This capstone project focuses on the development of a tinikling learning application through
236 the integration of pose estimation and human action recognition. The setup consists of
237 a webcam, laptop, and two bamboo sticks for the tinikling dance. Such a setup offers
238 affordability and accessibility benefits for users. Ultimately, it contributes to the field



TABLE 1.1 EXPECTED DELIVERABLES PER OBJECTIVE

| Objectives | Expected Deliverables |
|---|---|
| GO: To develop a real-time pose estimation-based Tinikling learning application | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> = • Prototype of Tinikling learning application. • Documentation and user manual. |
| SO1: To develop a real-time pose estimation pipeline that captures the movement of dancers through a webcam, detects skeletal keypoints, and analyzes poses for Tinikling steps with low latency and high accuracy. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Optimized skeletal keypoints detection for Tinikling steps. • Implementation of webcam-based pose estimation pipeline. • Performance evaluation results. |
| SO2: To make the pose estimation model robust to lighting, background clutter, and user variation through dataset collection, augmentation, and landmark-based representations. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Augmented dataset covering varied lighting, backgrounds, and user types. • Enhanced landmark-based model with robustness improvements. • Comparative performance evaluation report. |
| SO3: To design and integrate a scoring and feedback system that evaluates users' dance accuracy in a post-performance review by aligning user poses with reference choreographies. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Scoring and feedback algorithm. • Tinikling choreography database. • Post-performance scoring output with accuracy metrics. |
| SO4: To evaluate the system's performance and usability through controlled testing with dancers or students, measuring accuracy, latency, and user experience for future refinement and educational deployment. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conducted controlled testing with participants. • Collected performance and usability metrics. • Evaluation report with recommendations for improvement. |

239 of both pose estimation and human action recognition by demonstrating a successful
 240 integration of the two in a live setup.

241 1.5.1 Technical Benefit

242 1. Enables real-time pose estimation and post-performance feedback, improving accu-
 243 racy and efficiency throughout the learning process.



- 244 2. Low-cost software-based learning tool which uses a webcam and desktop computer
245 rather than expensive motion capture equipment.

246 **1.5.2 Social Impact**

247 Promotes cultural preservation by making Tinikling more accessible through interactive
248 applications.

249 Student engagement and participation in cultural education through gamifying the learning
250 experience.

251 Supports remote or in-classroom instruction through allowing instructors to integrate
252 technology with dance education.

253 **1.5.3 Environmental Welfare**

254 Utilizes existing and widely available hardware such as webcams and desktop new specialized
255 equipment, which ultimately lessens electronic waste.

256 Encourages digital preservation of cultural heritage, lessening reliance on physical materials
257 be it through either physical archives or infrastructure.

258 **1.6 Assumptions, Scope, and Delimitations**

259 **1.6.1 Assumptions**

- 260 1. Pose landmarks from consumer-grade RGB cameras or low-cost depth sensors
261 provide sufficient fidelity to represent tinikling movements for temporal alignment



- 262 and scoring.
- 263 2. Choreography can be divided into short, labeled segments that enable reliable match-
- 264 ing and targeted feedback.
- 265 3. Dynamic Time Warping or a constrained variant will handle tempo variation robustly
- 266 for temporal alignment.
- 267 4. A brief per-user calibration step will improve scoring consistency.

268 **1.6.2 Scope**

- 269 1. Cover automatic pose estimation, sequence alignment, and segment-level scoring for
- 270 tinikling.
- 271 2. Accept landmark or depth inputs and provide immediate on-device cues during
- 272 performance.
- 273 3. Produce a higher-precision final score after a more detailed pass.
- 274 4. Use self-sourced tinikling videos for model training when no public dataset exists.
- 275 5. Benchmark against general dance datasets where appropriate.
- 276 6. Report sensor-based metrics and simple user measures such as perceived accuracy
- 277 and engagement.

278 **1.6.3 Delimitations**

- 279 1. Will not perform detailed facial or hand mesh reconstruction.



- 280 2. Will not replace multi-camera motion capture for research-grade kinematics.
- 281 3. Will not guarantee reliable results under heavy occlusion, very low light, extreme
- 282 off-axis views, or when clothing blends with the background.
- 283 4. Will not attempt full generalization to all body shapes without additional data and
- 284 tuning.
- 285 5. Limits reflect known sensor and algorithm constraints and the aim to produce a
- 286 practical, lightweight prototype.

287 1.7 Description and Methodology of the Capstone 288 Project on Operational Technologies

- 289 1. Phase 1: Model Development serves a precursor for Phase 2 wherein the specifics
290 of the model, libraries, and environment to use are defined. In total, Phase 1 would
291 last 4 weeks spanning from week 4 to 7. The bulk of the research for the project
292 would be carried out during this phase. The dataset to be used for training would be
293 collected during this phase as well.
- 294 2. Phase 2: Model Training consists of training the model using the dataset collected
295 in the previous phase. This phase will largely consist of testing and improving the
296 resulting model. Tests would be conducted using the group members as dancers.
297 This phase also includes the optimization of the model for real-time detection simul-
298 taneously with the music. In total, this phase would last 4 weeks spanning from week
299 8 to 11.



300 3. Phase 3: UI/EX Development consists of the integration of the trained model with
 301 a user interface. Once integrated final testing and refinement of the final program
 302 would be carried out. The final output would be presented as well during this phase
 303 along with the finalization of the documentation. This phase would last for 3 weeks
 304 spanning from week 11 to 13

305 **1.8 Estimated Work Schedule and Budget**

306 **1.8.1 Milestones and Gantt Chart**

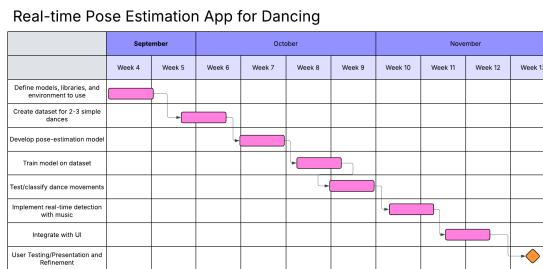


Fig. 1.1 Milestone Gantt Chart for Real-time Pose Estimation Dance Software

307 **1.8.2 Budget**

308 Given that the capstone project largely consists of software, apart from the use of a laptop
 309 for both programming, as well as actual implementation and usage of the dance program,
 310 the only expense to consider would be for that of a Webcam, which is already owned.



TABLE 1.2 OPERATIONAL FINANCIAL PLAN

| Item | Price |
|-----------------------|---------------|
| Webcam | P1,850 |
| Item | Price |
| 4pc. Tinikling Sticks | P110 |
| Total | P1,960 |

1.9 Overview of the Capstone Project on Operational Technologies

This capstone project focuses on developing a real-time pose estimation-based learning application for Tinikling, the Philippine national dance. It integrates computer vision and machine learning techniques in order to create an interactive learning platform that provides performance scoring to users. The project utilizes of webcams, MediaPipe-based skeletal landmark extraction to analyze users' movements relative to reference choreography. Unlike expensive motion capture systems, this setup uses low-cost and accessible hardware, making the system practical for classroom, cultural, and home use. The system emphasizes cultural preservation by modernizing Tinikling education through technology. It enables students to learn and practice the dance interactively, provides technical benefits such as real-time feedback without costly sensors, and supports social and environmental goals through cultural engagement and sustainable use of existing hardware.



324

Chapter 2

325

LITERATURE REVIEW



326 **2.1 Existing Work**

327 A study by Venkatrayappa et al. (2024) focused on surveying the various existing 3D
328 human body pose and shape estimation techniques, given its crucial nature in fields such
329 as augmented or virtual reality, healthcare and fitness technology, and virtual retail. The
330 solutions explored consisted of mainly three types of inputs, which were single images,
331 multi-view images, and videos. Various issues pertaining to dance, such as fast motion,
332 occlusion, and unusual poses were analyzed to see how each affected the performance
333 of each method. The specific models consisted of SMPL -A, SMPL -X, MANO, STAR,
334 FLAME, which are optimization-based models, as well as HMR, VIBE, SPIN, PARE,
335 EXPOSE, and PHALP, which are deep learning-based models. SMPL was found to be
336 beneficial in terms of realistic body representation, efficiency for real time applications, and
337 wide availability, however it has limitations in areas pertaining to facial and hand modeling,
338 as well as representation of ethnic diversity. SMPL -X proved to provide several advantages
339 such as facial expressions, hand gestures, and improved expressiveness. Its limitations,
340 however, consisted of simplified hand modeling and its limited pose variability. MANO
341 offers detailed hand gesture modeling and realistic hand deformations, but has limitations
342 due to its focus being exclusively on the modeling of hands, as well as computational
343 challenges. STAR leverages sparse coding and temporal modeling, which allowed for
344 a much more powerful framework for pose estimation., depicting state-of-the-art results
345 throughout various benchmarks and practical implementations in sports analysis, human-
346 computer interaction, and VR. FLAME was advantageous when it comes to computational
347 efficiency, which made it suitable for real-time applications of pose estimation. As for its
348 limitations, it primarily focuses on facial and lip modeling, which introduces complexity



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349 and potential computational challenges. MANO, HMR produces richer and more useful
350 mesh representation, which is parameterized by shape and 3D joint angles. The network
351 implicitly learns the angle limits of each joint. As such its use is discouraged for people
352 with unusual body shapes. Its re-projection loss is highly under-constrained and it needs
353 adversarial supervision in order to avoid unrealistic outputs. VIBE makes use of CNNs,
354 RNNs and GANs, as well as a self-attention layer in order to achieve state-of-the-art
355 results. A motion discriminator is used to help produce more realistic motion. Ultimately,
356 the model is a standard SMPL body model format with sequences of poses and shape
357 parameters. SPIN makes use of a self improving loop wherein better fits allow the network
358 to train in a much more efficient manner while better initial estimates from the network
359 aids the optimization routine in order to result in better fits. PARE consists of a guided
360 attention mechanism which exploits information on visibility of individual body parts all
361 the while leveraging information from neighboring body parts in order to predict parts
362 which are occluded. EXPOSE includes body, face, and hand estimation. It is able to
363 estimate expressive 3D humans in a much more accurate manner in comparison to existing
364 optimization methods at only a fraction of the computational costs. PHALP out performs
365 all of the aforementioned methods. Despite this, it still has its limitations as well such as its
366 reliance on a single camera, which may lead to issues such as occlusion and motion blur. It
367 may also not work well in low-light conditions or when a person's clothes is a similar color
368 to that of the background. Lastly, it also requires a significant amount of computational
369 resources, which may make it not suitable for real-time applications.

370 A study by Protopapadakis et al. (2018), analyzes the effectiveness of various classifica-
371 tion techniques in recognizing different dance types based on motion-capture skeleton data.
372 Classifiers explored consisted of k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN), Naïve Bayes, Discriminant



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373 Analysis, Classification Trees, Random Forests (TreeBagger), Support Vector Machines
374 (SVMs), and Ensemble Classifiers. Poses are identified through the use of body joints via
375 Kinect sensor. The data set used consisted of various dances such as Enteka, Kalamatianos,
376 Syrtos (Two-beat), Sytros (Three-beat). The kinect was used to capture skeletal joining
377 data, to which feature extraction techniques such as principal component analysis and frame
378 differencing were used in order to improve the classification accuracy. Ultimately, results
379 showed that k-nearest neighbors and random forests are the best-performing classifiers
380 among those that were explored. It was also proposed that the use of mulit-sensor or
381 multimodal data may serve as a potential solution for issues specific to pose recognition in
382 dance such as occlusion and complex movement patterns.

383 A study by ZZhao et al. (2025), looks into dance pose estimation and introduces
384 the model DanceFormer. DanceFormer is a transformer-based model for dance pose
385 estimation which makes use of the Vision Transformer, Time Series Transformer, and
386 an edge computation layer in order to achieve a deep fusion of multimodal features and
387 to overall increase its accuracy and real-time performance. The AIST and DanceTrack
388 datasets were used throughout the experimentation. Results showed that DanceFormer out
389 performs other models, with it achieving a pose estimation accuracy or MPJPE of 18.4mm
390 and 20.1mm, as well as a multi-object tracking accuracy or MOTA of 92.3% and 89.5%.
391 It is also suitable for real-time processing in even low-resource with an average latency
392 of 35.2ms. Ultimately, it serves as an efficient, precise and real time solution for rather
393 complex dance scenarios. It also has applications in a much more broad sense be it in dance
394 education or in real-time motion analysis.

395 A study by Lei et al. (2023) discusses dance movement recognition based on gesture. A
396 low accuracy traditional dance movement recognition algorithm based on human posture



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397 estimation was proposed. PAFs algorithm was used in order to recognize the spatial skeleton
398 nodes and connections of joints in the human body. The pose of the body is estimated based
399 on the movement of the spatial skeleton. Once the information on the detected posture
400 is preprocessed and its features are extracted, LTSM time series algorithm was used in
401 order to classify and recognize certain dance movements. Ultimately, results showed that
402 the proposed algorithm has the capacity to reliably identify dance movements based on
403 the skeleton nodes. It was able to achieve a recognition accuracy and recall rate upwards
404 of 85% for the different movement categories. As for its recognition accuracy of curtsey
405 movement, it achieved upwards of 95.2%.

406 Tölgessy et al. (2021) present a detailed evaluation of Kinect v1, Kinect v2, and Azure
407 Kinect skeleton tracking, analyzing joint-level error distributions and repeatability across
408 distances and orientations. Their results highlight degradation in accuracy under occlusion,
409 off-axis angles, and larger working distances, conditions typical of casual living-room dance
410 setups. The findings underline both the potential and the limits of Kinect-class sensors,
411 suggesting that practical applications often require either sensor fusion and smoothing to
412 handle jitter or a focus on more reliable joints for robust real-time scoring.

413 Lin (2015) investigate how interactive feedback design influences user motivation in
414 the context of Just Dance. Their study demonstrates that timely, clear cues significantly
415 improve engagement, perceived competence, and sustained participation, with direct effects
416 on physical activity outcomes. These findings show that feedback modalities and latency
417 are as critical as recognition accuracy in shaping the player experience, emphasizing
418 the importance of immediate, multimodal responses in dance or pose-based teaching
419 applications.

420 Yu and Xiong (2019) propose and validate a Dynamic Time Warping method for



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evaluating rehabilitation exercises tracked with Kinect. Their algorithm successfully aligns noisy, tempo-varying motion with reference trajectories, producing reliable correctness scores even with partial occlusion. Applied to dance or short choreographies, DTW offers a robust foundation for handling tempo shifts and timing variation, supporting sequence-based scoring that is more forgiving than strict frame-to-frame comparison.

Rallis et al. (2019) compare Kinect II with the high-precision Vicon system in the context of choreography retrieval and analysis, using trajectory similarity measures such as DTW. While Kinect data contain noise and smoothing artifacts, the study shows that trajectory-level patterns remain useful when algorithms are designed to tolerate sensor bias. Their results support the use of low-cost consumer sensors, including RGB landmark pipelines, in applications where robust temporal alignment and trajectory modeling can offset hardware limitations.

Human pose estimation (HPE) has become an important area of study due to its applications in action recognition, sports, and performing arts. Xu, Zou, and Lin (2022) introduced the Adaptive Hypergraph Neural Network (AD-HNN), which captures high-order semantic dependencies among joints to improve multi-person pose estimation, particularly in handling occlusion and pose variability. In dance analysis, Ju (2025) applied deep learning with ResNet-152 and HR-Net to enhance dance pose recognition, addressing class imbalance and improving classification accuracy through global-local feature fusion.

For cultural preservation, motion capture (MoCap) has been widely adopted. Rizhan et al. (2025) demonstrated the use of MoCap to develop authentic motion templates for Malay folk dances, ensuring accuracy and authenticity in preserving intangible cultural heritage. In addition, Büyükgökoğlan and Uğuz (2025) developed a performance evaluation system for Turkish folk dances using deep learning-based pose estimation (e.g., Mediapipe, YOLO, LSTM), enabling objective assessment compared to traditional jury scoring.



TABLE 2.1 SUMMARY OF REVIEWED DANCE POSE ESTIMATION AND RECOGNITION STUDIES

| Paper | Focus | Methodology | Results |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|---|
| <i>Venkatrayappa et al. (2024)</i> | Evaluates 3D human body pose & shape estimation methods for contemporary dance | Comparative survey of model families: SMPL(-A/X), MANO, STAR, FLAME (optimization-based) and HMR, VIBE, SPIN, PARE, EX-POSE, PHALP (learning-based); analysis by input modality (single-image, multi-view, video) | PHALP strong overall; SMPL-X improves expressiveness; STAR excels in temporal modeling; common limits are occlusion, lighting, and compute needs. |
| <i>Protopapadakis et al. (2018)</i> | Identifies dance types from motion-capture skeletal data | Kinect skeletal features with PCA + frame differencing; compared classifiers (k-NN, Naïve Bayes, LDA/DA, decision trees, Random Forest, SVM, ensembles) | k-NN and Random Forest performed best; multimodal data recommended to handle occlusion. |
| <i>Zhao et al. (2025)</i> | Real-time pose estimation for complex dances | Hybrid architecture: Vision Transformer + Time-Series Transformer trained on AIST and DanceTrack datasets | MPJPE: 18.4 mm / 20.1 mm; MOTA: 92.3% / 89.5%; latency 35.2 ms (real-time capable). |

Continued on next page



Table 2.1 (continued)

| Paper | Focus | Methodology | Results |
|-------------------------------|---|---|--|
| <i>Lei et al. (2023)</i> | Improves recognition accuracy for traditional dance movements | Keypoint detection via Part Affinity Fields (PAFs); temporal modeling with LSTM classifiers | >85% overall accuracy; 95.2% for curtsey movements. |
| <i>Zheng et al. (2023)</i> | Deep-learning approaches for pose design and recognition | Backbone fusion (ResNet-152 + HR-Net) with global-local feature fusion and class-imbalance handling strategies | Reported metrics: accuracy 0.9870; precision 0.9851; sensitivity 0.9873; F1 0.9861; Kappa 0.9841. |
| <i>Xu et al. (2022)</i> | Multi-person pose estimation from single images | Two-stage Adaptive Hypergraph Neural Network (keypoint localization + adaptive hypergraph) with SIC module; end-to-end training | Achieves state-of-the-art performance on MS-COCO, MPII, and CrowdPose benchmarks. |
| <i>Tölgessy et al. (2021)</i> | Quantifies joint-level accuracy and repeatability across Kinect sensors | Controlled robotic-manipulator and figurine measurements across positions; compared Kinect v1, v2, Azure Kinect (NFOV/WFOV) | Azure NFOV shows highest accuracy (0.8–1.9 mm SD); joint failures 15–30% under occlusion; performance declines at long ranges. |
| <i>Lin (2015)</i> | Effects of feedback and controller use in dance exergames | 2×2×2 factorial experimental design (feedback × controller × sex); 129 participants; 12-minute sessions | Mean HR 109 bpm; immediate/clear feedback increased engagement and perceived competence. |

Continued on next page



Table 2.1 (continued)

| Paper | Focus | Methodology | Results |
|------------------------------------|---|---|--|
| <i>Yu and Xiong (2019)</i> | DTW-based scoring for rehabilitation/exercise movements | Dynamic Time Warping on 8 bone vectors + body orientation; algorithm converting DTW distance to a 0–100% performance score | Scores correlated strongly with expert ratings ($r = 0.86$); robust to tempo variation and some occlusion. |
| <i>Rallis et al. (2019)</i> | Choreographic pattern analysis from heterogeneous capture systems | Trajectory-based DTW similarity for choreography; sensor comparison (VICON vs Kinect); experiments on smoothing and joint selection | Kinect is noisier but DTW reduces sensor bias; smoothing and selective joint use improve retrieval accuracy. |
| <i>Sun and Song (2025)</i> | Pose estimation in complex dance scenes | Enhanced HRNet backbone with improved feature extraction and robustness modules for cluttered scenes | Shows improved key-point accuracy and better robustness under occlusion/clutter. |
| <i>Büyükgökgan and Uğuz (2025)</i> | Deep-learning-based scoring for Turkish folk dance | Webcam capture; pose extraction via MediaPipe/YOLO; comparative models: DTW, TLCC, LSTM, Siamese networks | LSTM produced higher scores (68.43, MSE 56.11) vs DTW (60.64, MSE 139.32); system sensitive to camera angle. |

446

2.2 Lacking in the Approaches

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These studies show the potential of pose estimation and deep learning for advancing both modern dance movement design and traditional folk dance preservation. However, there is little to no research in the Philippines that applies pose estimation to folk

448

449



450 dances—particularly Tinikling—representing a significant gap and opportunity for future
451 exploration.

452 **2.3 Summary**

453 Research on human pose estimation (HPE) spans multiple applications including AR/VR,
454 healthcare, and dance. Optimization- and deep learning-based models (e.g., SMPL, SMPL-
455 X, HMR, VIBE, SPIN, PARE, EXPOSE, PHALP) have been studied for realistic 3D
456 body reconstruction (Venkatrayappa et al., 2024). Dance classification has been explored
457 using skeleton data and machine learning classifiers like k-NN and Random Forest (Pro-
458 topapadakis et al., 2018). Transformer-based models such as DanceFormer achieve high
459 accuracy and real-time performance in dance pose estimation (Zhao et al., 2025), while
460 PAF- and LSTM-based algorithms improve movement recognition (Lei et al., 2023). Kinect
461 studies reveal both potential and limits in low-cost motion capture (Tölgessy et al., 2021;
462 Rallis et al., 2019), while feedback and sequence-alignment approaches (Lin et al., 2015;
463 Yu Xiong, 2019) highlight the importance of interactivity and temporal robustness.

464 Recent work integrates advanced neural networks for pose estimation, such as adaptive
465 hypergraphs (Xu et al., 2022), deep feature fusion for dance poses (Ju, 2025), MoCap
466 for authentic folk dance templates (Rizhan et al., 2025), and deep learning systems for
467 evaluating Turkish folk dance (Büyükgökoğlan Uğuz, 2025).



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Chapter 3

469

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS



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Chapter 4

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DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS



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Chapter 5

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METHODOLOGY

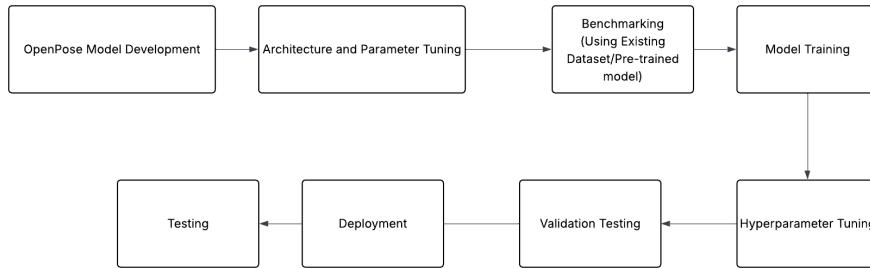


Fig. 5.1 Methodology Flowchart

5.1 Methodology

5.2 Design Considerations

5.2.1 Sensor choice, representation, and robustness

A study by Tölgessy, Dekan, and Chovanec (2021) demonstrated that Kinect-family depth sensors produce explicit 3D skeletons and give higher joint fidelity in controlled settings, but the accuracy falls with occlusion, off-axis views, and increased distance. Zhang et al. (2020) described MediaPipe, which yields compact 2D/3D landmark coordinates from ordinary RGB cameras and runs in real time on mobile devices. Therefore, designers often choose landmarks for rapid, lightweight prototypes and mobile deployment, and reserve depth or IR systems for installation-grade fidelity when hardware is available. To reduce real-world failure modes, practitioners apply photometric and background augmentation and synthetic occlusions during training, and they add a short calibration step so system metrics align with an individual user's range of motion.



468 5.2.2 Temporal alignment and scoring

469 Dance is a temporal activity and should be compared as a sequence rather than as isolated
470 frames. Yu and Xiong (2019) demonstrate that Dynamic Time Warping (DTW) can align
471 noisy, tempo-varying Kinect skeleton sequences and convert DTW distances into mean-
472 ingful performance scores. Rallis et al. (2019) apply DTW to choreographic trajectories
473 and show it can match patterns across high-precision (VICON) and low-cost (Kinect)
474 capture systems. Thus, a practical scoring pipeline first aligns sequences with DTW (or a
475 constrained variant) and then evaluates local spatial metrics such as joint-angle differences
476 or normalized trajectory distances to produce interpretable, per-segment correctness scores.

477 5.2.3 Real-time feedback, segmentation, and pedagogy

478 Lin (2015) finds that immediate, clear feedback in dance exergames improves engagement
479 and supports learning. Zhang et al. (2020) show that on-device landmark extraction can
480 run at real-time rates suitable for low-latency feedback. Combining these results suggests
481 a two-tier runtime design: use a fast, coarse matcher (enabled by on-device landmarks)
482 for instant cues, and run a slower, higher-precision alignment and scoring pass for final
483 grading. Breaking choreography into short labeled segments also simplifies alignment and
484 reduces error accumulation; Rallis et al. (2019) illustrate that segment- or trajectory-level
485 matching better supports choreographic retrieval and per-segment feedback.

486 5.2.4 Accessibility, personalization, and evaluation

487 Yu and Xiong (2019) convert DTW distances into calibrated percentage scores, which
488 supports per-user calibration and comparison against an individualized baseline. Tölgessy



489 et al. (2021) recommend measuring sensor-level metrics such as joint error and dropout rates
490 when choosing a capture modality. Therefore, system designs should include adjustable
491 sensitivity, alternate gesture mappings, and user profiles, and evaluation should combine
492 sensor metrics (joint error, dropout, latency) with human-centered measures (perceived
493 accuracy, engagement, and learning gain) to justify architecture and scoring choices.

494 **5.3 Theoretical Considerations**

495 **5.3.1 Human Pose Estimation**

496 Human pose estimation is the process of predicting the pose of human body parts. The
497 data are typically stemming from RBD images or videos. Given that certain motions are
498 motivated by human actions, detecting poses is a critical aspect of human action recognition
499 (Song et al., 2021). It has a wide range of applications such as human-computer interaction,
500 motion analysis, augmented reality, and virtual reality. The resulting output of human pose
501 estimation is a skeleton-like representation of the human body consisting of nodes and
502 limbs (Zheng et al, 2020)). There are 2 main types of human pose estimation, namely 2D
503 and 3D. 2D pose estimation consists of predicting the posture of each of the body's key
504 points in a 2D plane, considering the X and Y axis. As for 3D pose estimation, it considers
505 the Z axis, situating each point in a 3D space. It goes without saying that the 3D estimation
506 would be much more difficult in comparison to 2D estimation in process or complexity due
507 to underlying issues which may manifest such as noisy backgrounds, clothing, lighting,
508 undetected joints, or occlusion (Ben Gamra Akhloufi, 2021).



509 **5.3.2 Human Action Recognition**

510 Human action recognition, otherwise known as HAR, is the process of detecting human
511 actions in order to classify them through single sensor data, RGB image or video data, or
512 three-dimensional depth and inertial data (Sakar et al., 2022). In the field of computer vision,
513 one of the most challenging aspects of it is the automatic and precise identification of human
514 activity. Over the years, there has been a significant increase in feature learning-based
515 representations for human action recognition as a result of the widespread utilization of deep
516 learning-based features. There are various applications of Human action recognition. For
517 instance, automated surveillance systems make use of AI and machine learning algorithms
518 in order to identify human actions for the sake of safety and security. Such a task, however,
519 is made difficult due to various factors such as changing online environments, occlusion,
520 different viewpoints, execution pace and biometric change. Not only this, but the human
521 body also varies from person to person in factors such as size, appearances, and shapes.
522 However, advancements in Convolutional Neural Networks, otherwise known as CNNs,
523 resulted in significant progress for human action recognition through improvements on
524 classification, segmentation and object detection. This largely applies more on image-
525 related tasks rather than videos as neural network models struggle to capture temporal
526 information in videos due to a lack of substantial datasets (Morshed et al., 2022).

527 **5.4 Summary**

528 Provide the gist of this chapter such that it reflects the contents and the message.



529

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567

Chapter F MEMBER SKILLSET IDENTIFICATION

568

TABLE F.1 TEAM MEMBERS' PROGRAMMING SKILLS

| Member | Model Dev. | UI Design | Source Control (GitHub) | Problem Solving & Opt. | Python |
|--------|--------------|-----------|-------------------------|------------------------|--------------|
| Hans | Intermediate | Novice | Expert | Intermediate | Intermediate |
| Gerald | Intermediate | Basic | Novice | Intermediate | Intermediate |
| Nathan | Intermediate | Novice | Novice | Intermediate | Intermediate |



569

Chapter G

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WORK BREAKDOWN

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STRUCTURECAPSTONE PROJECT ON

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OPERATIONAL TECHNOLOGIES

G. Work Breakdown Structure Capstone Project on Operational Technologies



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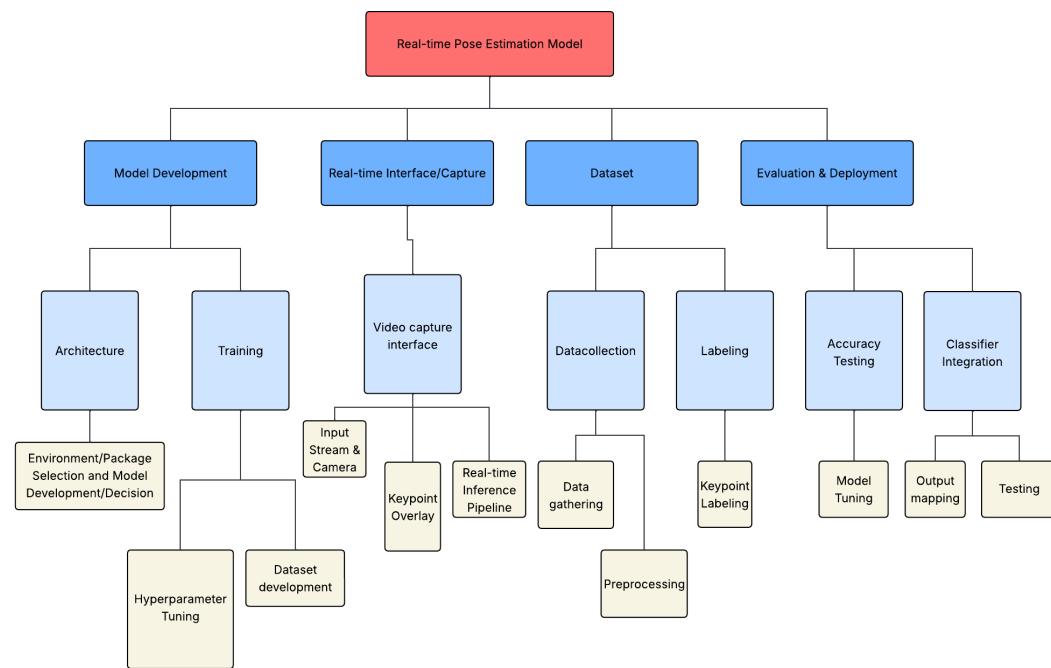


Fig. G.1 Work Breakdown Structure for Hans Capstone Project on Operational Technologies

G. Work Breakdown Structure Capstone Project on Operational Technologies



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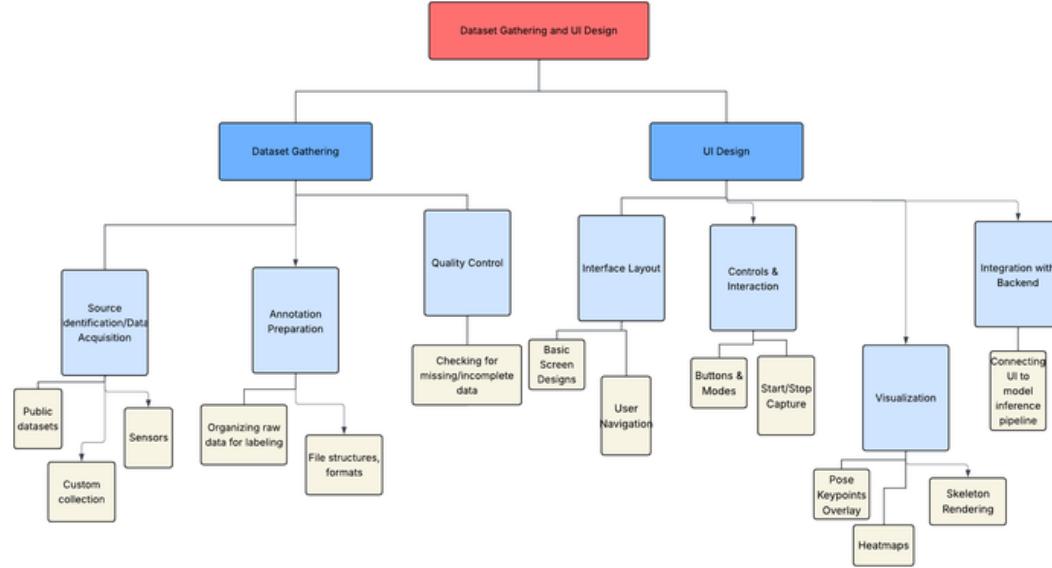


Fig. G.2 Work Breakdown Structure for Nathan Capstone Project on Operational Technologies

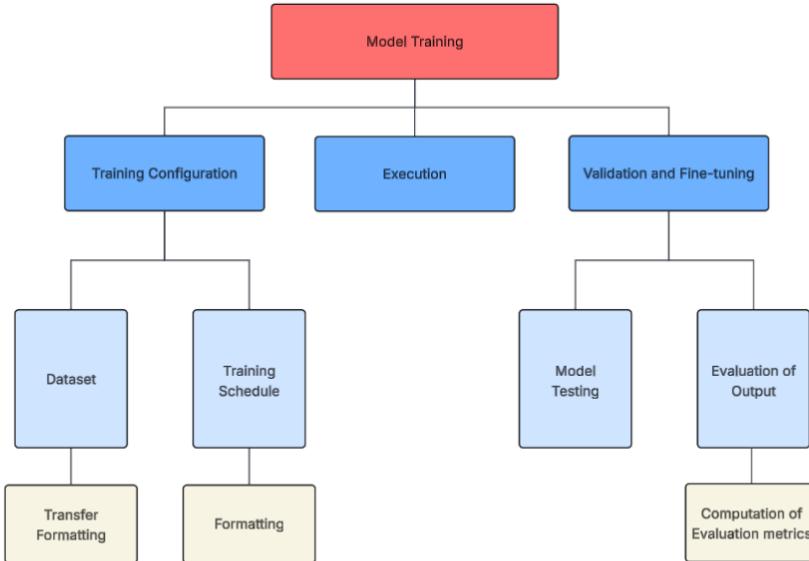


Fig. G.3 Work Breakdown Structure for Gerald Capstone Project on Operational Technologies