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1 Estimation of Intersegmental Load at L5-S1 during 2 Lifting/Lowering Tasks Using Force Plate Free 3 Markerless Motion Capture

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12 **Abstract**

13 Accurate estimation of joint load during a lifting/lowering task could provide a better
14 understanding of the pathogenesis and development of musculoskeletal disorders. In particular,
15 the values of the net force and moment at the L5-S1 joint could be an important criterion to
16 identify the unsafe lifting/lowering tasks. In this study, the joint load at L5-S1 was estimated
17 from the motion kinematics acquired using a multi-view markerless motion capture system
18 without force plate. The 3D human pose estimation was first obtained on each frame using
19 deep learning. The kinematic analysis was then performed to calculate the velocity and
20 acceleration information of each segment. Then, the net force and moment at the L5-S1 joint
21 were calculated using inverse dynamics with a top-down approach. This estimate was
22 compared to a reference with a bottom-up approach. It was computed using a marker-based
23 motion capture system combined with force plates and using personalized body segment
24 inertial parameters derived from a 3D model of the human body shape constructed for each
25 subject using biplanar radiographs. The average differences of the estimates for force and

26 moment among all subjects were 14.0 ± 6.9 N and 9.0 ± 2.3 Nm, respectively. Meanwhile, the
27 mean peak value differences of the estimates were 10.8 ± 8.9 N and 11.9 ± 9.5 Nm,
28 respectively. This study then proposed the most rigorous comparison of mechanical loading on
29 the lumbar spine using computer vision. Further work is needed to perform such an estimation
30 under realistic industrial conditions.

31 **Keywords:** Inverse dynamic, markerless, deep learning, human pose estimation, ergonomics

32 **1 Introduction**

33 Approximately 1.71 billion people worldwide suffer from musculoskeletal disorders
34 (MSDs) (Cieza et al. 2020). Low-back pain is one of the most common MSDs and the lower
35 back is particularly vulnerable to lifting (Mohd Nur et al. 2018). The causal link between
36 mechanical loads and low back pain (LBP) has been well established (Skals et al. 2021;
37 Ghezelbash et al. 2020; Griffith et al. 2012; McAtamney and Nigel Corlett 1993; Coenen et al.
38 2014), despite the fact that this relationship has faced some controversy due to several recent
39 conflicting findings (Swain et al. 2020).

40 Prevention of work-related MSDs in industry is carried out using ergonomic assessments
41 such as the Rapid Upper Limb Assessment (RULA) (McAtamney and Nigel Corlett 1993). The
42 RULA score is mainly based on joint angles assessed by ergonomists using observational
43 analysis. The risk indicators correspond to a wide range of joint angles, which can lead to
44 specificity problems. On the other hand, observational analysis can lead to reproducibility
45 problems. Quantitative biomechanical analysis using motion capture could then help to solve
46 the problems of current ergonomic analysis.

47 Marker-based motion capture, usually combined with force plates, can provide accurate

48 kinematic and kinetic analysis, but it is not well suited for ergonomic assessment in industrial
49 routine. In fact, it can cause several hindrances to the workers' activities, it requires human
50 resources and a lot of hardware. Therefore, force plate-free markerless motion capture can be
51 a relevant alternative in this context. Many researches are available for kinematic analysis using
52 markerless motion capture (Cronin 2021; Kanko et al. 2021; Vafadar et al. 2022) but the
53 researches for kinetic analysis are less abundant.

54 There are two main paradigms for calculating intersegmental loads, the top-down approach
55 and the bottom-up approach. The top-down model starts from the head, while the bottom-up
56 model starts from the feet. Unlike the bottom-up approach, the top-down approach does not
57 require a force platform to measure ground reaction forces, making it more suitable for
58 markerless motion capture systems. To validate the accuracy of the estimated joint load at L5-
59 S1 from a force platform-free markerless motion capture system, some studies have compared
60 the results between marker-based and markerless systems using the bottom-up approach
61 (Kanko et al. 2023; Song et al. 2023; Tang et al. 2024) but force plates may not be available in
62 industrial environments. On the other hand, (Mehrizi et al. 2019) used the top-down approach
63 for their evaluation. However, the accuracy of the reference values remains unclear because
64 the L5-S1 load calculated by the bottom-up approach is closer to the true value (Kingma et al.
65 1996).

66 The estimation of the body segment inertial parameters (BSIPs) is fundamental in this
67 kinetic analysis, and the classical method proposed by (de Leva 1996) is usually used to obtain
68 the inertial information of each segment, such as length, mass, the center of mass, and inertia
69 matrix, by using the information of the joint position, the subject's gender, and the total body

70 mass as inputs. However, this method does not take into account the individual anthropometric
71 measurements of the subject's body. Therefore, numerous studies (Dumas et al. 2006; Kollia
72 et al. 2012; Pillet et al. 2010; Robert et al. 2017; Venture et al. 2019) have been conducted to
73 compute the personalized BSIPs to improve the accuracy of intersegmental loads. In (Pillet et
74 al. 2010), the authors reported better accuracy in estimating the center of pressure using
75 personalized BSIPs rather than anthropometric tables, but they used a body shape modeling
76 method that lacked accuracy. Barycentremetry using biplanar radiographs allows for an
77 accurate estimation (Nérot et al. 2015; Sandoz et al. 2010) but it is not applicable in routine
78 work environment.

79 The aim of this paper was then to propose a force plate-free top-down approach, based on
80 the markerless system presented in (Vafadar et al. 2022; Vafadar et al. 2021), to estimate the
81 intersegmental load at L5-S1 during the lifting/lowering tasks using a multiview markerless
82 motion capture system. The proposed method was evaluated by comparison with a reference
83 method using a marker-based motion capture system coupled with a force plate and with
84 accurate subject-specific BSIP computed using barycentremetry.

85 **2 Materials and methods**

86 **2.1 Participants**

87 The experiment took place in 2021 and 2022 with volunteer asymptomatic participants.
88 Exclusion criteria for the subjects included pregnancy, a diagnosed spinal disorder, and
89 inability to read French. Twelve subjects (24.2 ± 2.3 years, 172.4 ± 10.1 cm, 65.9 ± 14.7 kg)
90 participated in the experiment. The experiment was approved by the ethics committee (CPP
91 06036, Ile de France VI). All subjects have signed an informed consent form. Before the

92 experiment, a medical examination was performed by an orthopedic surgeon to determine the
93 subject’s ability to perform the experiment. If able, a short and individualized warm-up period
94 was recommended by the physician.

95 **2.2 Data acquisition**

96 For details on data acquisition, refer to (Vafadar et al. 2022; Vafadar et al. 2021). For
97 clarity, the most important information is summarized below.

98 Two different systems were used to record motion: a reference marker-based system
99 (Vicon, UK) synchronized with a force platform and a markerless system with four digital
100 cameras (GoPro Hero 7 Black) (Vafadar et al. 2022; Vafadar et al. 2021; Jiang et al. 2022).

101 To simulate industrial lifting tasks, subjects were asked in a laboratory environment to lift
102 a cardboard box onto a table and then to lower it. Different movement types (lifting, lowering),
103 lifting heights (73 cm, 125 cm), and asymmetric angles (0° , 45° , 90° , to the left) were included
104 in the experiment. Each action was repeated twice, for a total of 24 ($2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 3$) trials, lasting
105 approximately 8 minutes. Of all the subjects, S01 carried a larger cardboard box (weight: ≈ 0 kg,
106 size: 60.0*40.0*40.0cm) while the others carried a smaller box (weight: 5kg, size:
107 42.0*32.0*36.0cm). The data corresponding to S01 was included in the test set (Jiang et al.
108 2024).

109 A total of 181,624 frames were acquired during the experiment. Among them, 540 frames
110 with missing markers and 804 frames with camera occlusion were excluded from the dataset.
111 Therefore, 180,820 frames were used for model training and testing. Each frame has four
112 camera views with corresponding camera intrinsic and extrinsic parameters. To protect the
113 privacy of the subjects, their faces were blurred in the image set (Jiang et al. 2022). A learnable

114 triangulation neural network (Iskakov et al. 2019) was trained/evaluated on the dataset for 3D
115 human pose estimation, where 6 subjects were randomly selected as the training set and the
116 rest were in the test set. In addition, biplanar X-rays (EOS Imaging, ATEC Spine, Carlsbad,
117 CA, USA) were collected and 3D reconstruction of the body shape were performed (Nérot et
118 al. 2015).

119 **2.3 Inverse dynamics**

120 Based on the human pose estimation with stereovision, inverse dynamics was used to
121 calculate the load on body joint L5-S1, exploring top-down and bottom-up paradigms.

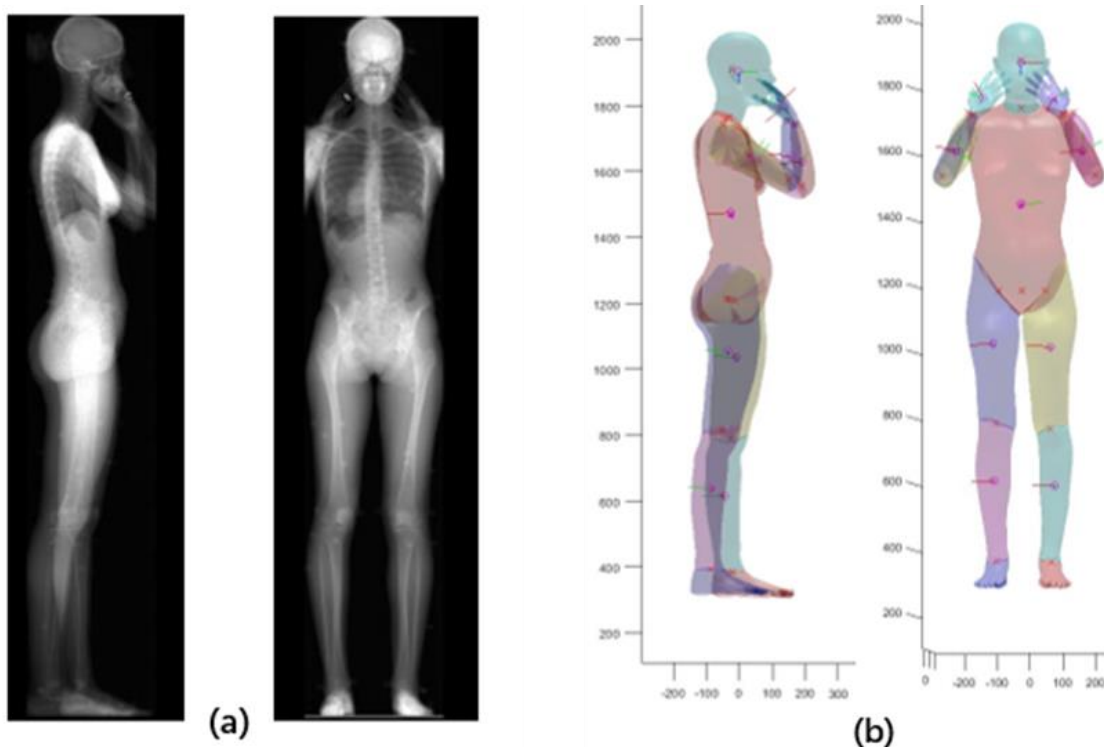
122 **2.3.1 Body segment's inertial parameters**

123 After the 16 joints from the multi-view stereo system, the human body model was
124 constructed as a linked chain consisting of 10 rigid body segments, with forearms, upper arms,
125 head, trunk, thighs and shanks. Two methods were used to calculate the body inertia parameters
126 (BSIPs), namely the proportional method and the geometric method.

127 In the proportional method, the inertial properties of each body segment were calculated
128 using the approach proposed by (de Leva 1996). The input to the method is the subject's gender
129 and body mass, which yields the position of the segment's center of mass, the segment's mass,
130 and the inertia tensor with respect to the central inertia principal axis.

131 In the geometric method, based on the biplanar radiographs collected in the experiment, a
132 personalized 3D digital model of the human body was created for each subject in this work
133 using the method described in (Nérot et al. 2015). The result is a 3D human body envelope
134 which can be used to calculate the BSIPs. It should be noted that the biplanar radiographs were

135 only used in the calculation of the reference value for comparison. The 3D digital model was
 136 segmented into different body segments, after which the mass, center of mass, and inertia of
 137 each segment were calculated based on the human body density data given by (Dempster 1955),
 138 with the thorax density updated according to (Amabile et al. 2016). A sample of biplanar
 139 radiographs and the corresponding 3D body shape are shown in Figure 1.



140
 141 **Fig. 1.** (a) Sample images of low-dose biplanar X-ray radiographs; (b) 3D human body shape based on radiography. Each segment is
 142 distinguished by a different color. The red circle on each segment represents the center of mass, and the axes represent its inertial
 143 principal axis, with the length indicating the relative magnitude of the rotational inertia about the corresponding axis. The red crosses
 144 denote the body key points, which are used for the localization of the center of mass position.

145 **2.3.2 Kinematic calculations**

146 Based on the joint positions obtained from the 3D human pose estimation, we performed
 147 the kinematic analysis to calculate the velocity and acceleration information of each segment.
 148 Specifically, the motion data were filtered using a fourth-order Butterworth low-pass filter with
 149 a cutoff frequency of 2.5 Hz. The center of mass acceleration was calculated using the second
 150 order differentiation of the center of mass position with respect to time. For the angular

151 acceleration, we first calculated the helical axis and angular velocity using the finite difference
152 of the rotation matrix, and then differentiated the angular velocity with respect to time to obtain
153 the angular acceleration.

154 **2.3.3 External Forces**

155 In addition to gravity, the force exerted on a human segment by an external object other
156 than the human segments is considered an external force. In the process of handling the
157 cardboard box, the main external forces were the ground reaction force on the subject's foot
158 which was measured by a force platform, and the force from the cardboard box on the hands.

159 The force exerted by the box on the hand was calculated from the mass and acceleration
160 of the box. The mass of the box itself was negligible and ignored in the following calculation.
161 During the experiment, a metal disk (mass = 5kg, radius = 10cm, height = 2cm) was placed
162 inside the box. The acceleration of the subject's wrists was calculated and used to approximate
163 the acceleration of the box. During the process of lifting, when the box was just starting to
164 move, the support force on the box from the ground/table was the weight of the box. When the
165 box was completely off the floor, the support force became 0. Although there was a transition
166 period between these two states, the change in support force was simplified to be completed
167 instantaneously at the moment the box began to move. The same simplification was made for
168 the phase of placing the boxes on the ground/table. The time labels at which the boxes started
169 to move or completely stopped were manually annotated and verified using the motion data of
170 the markers on the box.

171 **2.3.4 Inverse dynamics**

172 Based on the above calculations, the loads on the subject's joints at L5-S1, including the forces
173 as well as the moments, were calculated as follows:

$$F_{L5S1} = -F_r + \sum_{i=1}^k (-m_i g + m_i a_i) \quad (2-1)$$

$$M_{L5S1} = \Gamma_r - (r_r - r_{L5S1}) \times F_r + \sum_{i=1}^k [(r_i - r_{L5S1}) \times (-m_i g + m_i a_i)] + \sum_{i=1}^k \Gamma_i^I \quad (2-2)$$

174

$$\Gamma_i^I = R_i'(I_i' \alpha_i' + \omega_i' \times (I_i' \omega_i')) \quad (2-3)$$

175 where F_{L5S1} and M_{L5S1} denote the intersegmental forces/moments acting on the joint L5-S1.
176 F_r and r_r are the external force exerted on human segments and the vector to its point of
177 application. Γ_r is an external free moment. r_i and r_{L5S1} are the vectors to the center of mass
178 (COM) of segment i and L5-S1 joint, respectively. m_i and I_i' are the mass of the segment i
179 and the inertial tensors in the segment local coordinate system. a_i is the translational
180 acceleration of the COM in the global coordinate system. α_i' and ω_i' are the angular
181 acceleration and velocity of segment i . g is the gravitational acceleration. Γ_i^I is the inertial
182 contribution of segment i in the global coordinate system. R_i' is the rotation matrix that
183 transform the coordinates of the vector from the local coordinate system of segment i to global
184 coordinate system.

185 **2.3.5 Evaluation**

186 In this study, we used a bottom-up L5-S1 load estimation method to validate our top-down

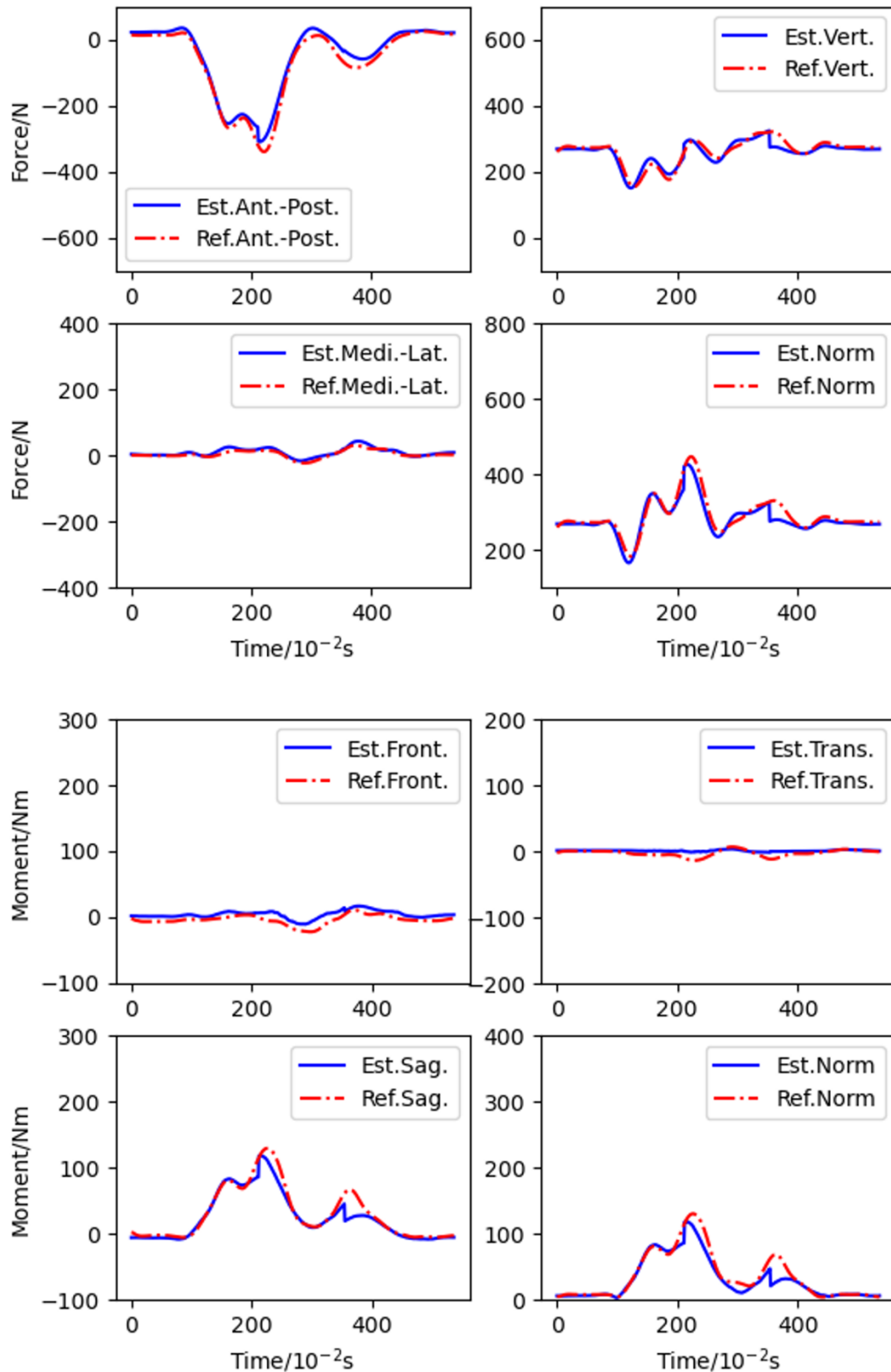
187 estimates. The bottom-up method was implemented to provide the reference values of L5-S1
188 load which were then compared with estimates from the top-down approach. The
189 computational procedure starts from the foot, up along the kinetic chain. The resultant of all
190 the forces on the lower section is calculated, and the equilibrium equations for the lower section
191 give the resultant of the generalized forces at L5-S1 (equal and opposite). The reaction forces
192 and the free moments from the ground on the subject's feet, measured by a force platform, were
193 used to initiate the calculation. To enhance the calculation accuracy of L5-S1 load reference,
194 the geometric models reconstructed from biplanar radiographic were employed for the BSIPs
195 calculation. In order to evaluate the accuracy of the markerless and platform-less L5-S1 load
196 estimates, we calculated the component differences between the estimates and the reference
197 along each direction, as well as the difference between their Euclidean norms (i.e., vector
198 modulus). Mean and standard deviation of the Root Mean Squared Differences (RMSD) and
199 peak-value differences for each trial were calculated for each subject. Global mean and
200 standard deviation on all subject were calculated as a global measure of the agreement between
201 the two methods. This evaluation was lead on the 6 subjects of our test set, resulting in 91,255
202 sampling values.

203 **3 Results**

204 The load estimates of L5-S1 with the reference values during the subject's lifting and
205 lowering trials, respectively, including the force and moment components in each orientation
206 and their Euclidean norms, were visualized for qualitative evaluation (See Figure 2 and 3).
207 Each of these results represents the loads on a given subject during a specific lifting or lowering
208 trial. It was observed that the estimated values of the loads were in good agreement with the

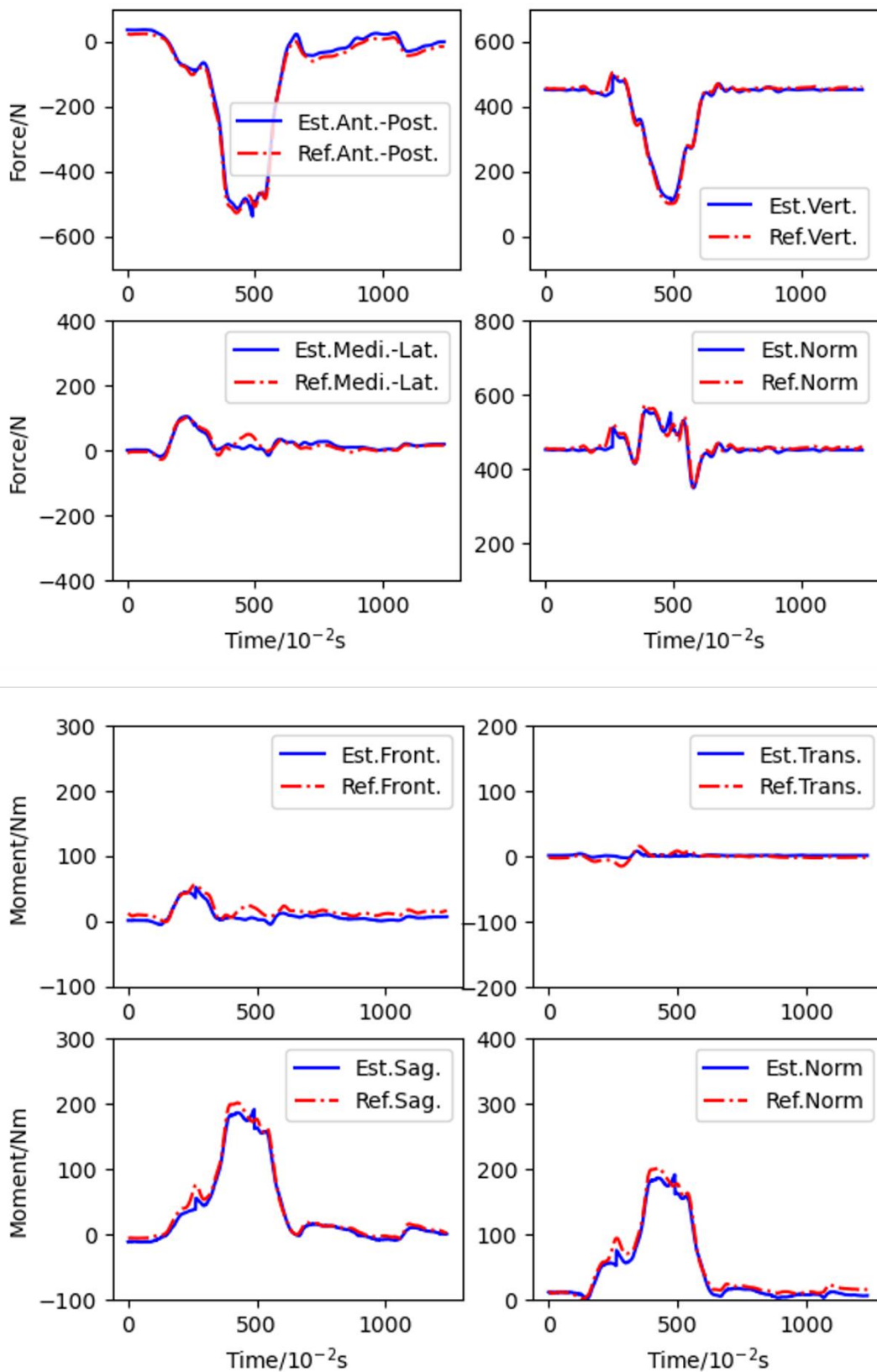
209 reference values. In addition, the components of the force in the vertical and anterior-posterior
210 directions were relatively large, while the components in the lateral direction are small. The
211 moment has a relatively large component in the sagittal plane and a moderate component in the
212 coronal plane, with a considerably smaller component in the transverse plane. At the beginning
213 or end of the handling action, the component of the force in the vertical direction was relatively
214 large, while the component of the force in the other directions was approximately zero and the
215 component of the moment in each direction was also nearly zero. Meanwhile, we noted that
216 there were two sharp variations in the load estimates. For smaller load components in some
217 planes, such as the moment in the transverse plane, the pattern of the load estimate may differ
218 from that of the reference value.

219 The average RMSD (\pm standard deviation) of the estimates for force and moment across
220 subjects were 14.0 ± 6.9 N and 9.0 ± 2.3 Nm, respectively (see Table 1). Smaller mean
221 differences were observed for moment estimates in the transverse plane than in the frontal and
222 sagittal planes. The mean RMSD per subject ranged between 7 N and 30 N for forces and
223 between 3 Nm and 12.5 Nm for moments.



224

225 Fig. 2. Example result of L5-S1 load versus time during a lifting task (subject ID: S02, task trial: #19). Est.=estimate, Ref.=reference,
 226 Ant.-Post=anteroposterior, Vert.=vertical, Medi.-Lat.= mediolateral , Front. =frontal plane, Trans.= transverse plane, Sag. = sagittal
 227 plane, Norm= Euclidean norm.



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Fig. 3. Example result of L5-S1 load versus time during a lowering task (subject ID: S04, task trial: #00). Est.=estimate, Ref.=reference, Ant.-Post=anteroposterior, Vert.=vertical, Medi.-Lat.= mediolateral, Front. = frontal plane, Trans.= transverse plane, Sag. = sagittal plane, Norm= Euclidean norm.

232 The mean peak value differences (\pm standard deviation) of the estimates for force and
 233 moment among all subjects were 10.8 ± 8.9 N and 11.9 ± 9.5 Nm, respectively (see Table 2).
 234 Larger differences were observed in the mediolateral component for force estimates and in the
 235 sagittal plane for moment estimates. S01 evidenced substantially higher peak value differences
 236 for the medio-lateral component of force estimates which is explained by large occlusions
 237 because of the larger box used for the experiment with this subject.

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239 **Table 1. RMSD of the difference between the reference and estimate of L5-S1 load for each subject across**
 240 **the trials. Ant.-Post=anteroposterior, Vert.=vertical, Medi.-Lat.= mediolateral , Front. = frontal plane,**
 241 **Trans.= transverse plane, Sag. = sagittal plane, Norm= Euclidean norm.**

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		Force (N)				Moment (Nm)			
subject	statistics	Ant- Post	Vert.	Medi.- Lat	Norm	Front.	Trans.	Sag.	Norm
S01	μ	17.5	17.6	19.2	12.8	10.3	3.3	10.2	8.1
	σ	5.6	3.8	10.2	3.3	2.2	0.6	1.9	1.3
S02	μ	9.4	10.5	13.9	9.7	10.9	6.3	8.4	9.1
	σ	1.3	1.5	2.9	1.9	1.5	2.0	1.1	1.1
S03	μ	16.3	12.8	16.4	13.0	8.1	5.3	11.7	10.3
	σ	1.8	1.4	5.1	1.7	2.0	2.1	1.5	1.2
S04	μ	16.0	9.2	12.1	9.4	7.9	4.9	12.4	11.8
	σ	1.1	1.5	4.0	1.6	1.4	1.5	2.5	2.0
S05	μ	12.8	24.8	12.8	27.9	8.2	3.3	7.6	6.6
	σ	1.8	0.8	1.6	0.6	0.8	0.9	1.4	1.5
S06	μ	7.2	9.6	13.1	10.9	6.4	3.3	7.1	7.4
	σ	1.0	1.6	3.2	1.4	1.6	1.5	1.1	1.0
All	μ	12.8	13.7	14.1	14.0	8.5	4.5	9.5	9.0
	σ	4.2	6.0	4.9	6.9	2.2	2.0	2.6	2.3

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251 **Table 2. Peak value difference between the reference and estimate of L5-S1 load for each subject across the**
 252 **trials. Ant.-Post=anteroposterior, Vert.=vertical, Medi.-Lat.= mediolateral , Front. = frontal plane, Trans.=**
 253 **transverse plane, Sag. = sagittal plane, Norm= Euclidean norm.**
 254

subject	statistics	Force				Moment			
		Ant-Post	Vert.	Medi.-Lat	Norm	Front.	Trans.	Sag.	Norm
S01	μ	6.3	5.6	27.6	5.2	12.6	3.3	15.2	14.8
	σ	2.3	2.8	24.4	2.7	5.6	1.5	4.8	5.2
S02	μ	2.8	3.8	10.1	3.0	10.0	7.9	13.0	13.2
	σ	2.8	3.4	6.4	3.6	7.0	5.9	6.1	6.8
S03	μ	14.9	9.3	10.2	15.1	4.7	7.3	13.9	14.1
	σ	11.9	8.0	6.6	11.3	5.1	2.8	10.0	10.0
S04	μ	11.1	6.0	12.4	10.1	5.3	6.3	23.4	23.6
	σ	6.2	4.5	9.8	5.3	3.7	3.5	6.6	6.3
S05	μ	15.0	21.3	14.7	19.6	10.0	5.5	3.3	3.8
	σ	7.4	5.8	8.1	6.3	4.4	3.3	2.8	3.0
S06	μ	8.8	4.7	7.7	9.0	3.5	6.9	2.8	3.3
	σ	7.0	3.2	6.2	7.3	2.1	6.0	2.1	2.1
All	μ	10.1	8.7	12.4	10.8	7.2	6.5	11.6	11.9
	σ	8.5	8.0	11.0	8.9	5.7	4.5	9.5	9.5

255

256 **4 Discussion**

257 The purpose of this study was to estimate and evaluate the intersegmental forces/moments
 258 at the L5-S1 joint calculated using a multiview forceplate-free markerless motion capture
 259 system. The reference value and the estimated value of the load used completely independent
 260 calculation strategies, with the considered body segments and the external forces being
 261 completely. The reference value was computed using inverse dynamics with a bottom-up
 262 approach and subject-specific BSIPs derived from a 3D model of the body shape obtained from
 263 biplanar radiographs. On the other hand, the estimated value was computed using inverse
 264 dynamics and a top-down approach. The mean differences in force and moment estimates
 265 across subjects were 14.0 ± 6.9 N and 9.0 ± 2.3 Nm, respectively, providing solid evidence for

266 the reliability of these estimates.

267 The reference values against which our estimates were compared cannot be considered as
268 actual ground truth, as they are not easily available in vivo. Bottom-up inverse dynamics, with
269 or without subject-specific BSIPs, is an imperfect modeling method. However, it is commonly
270 used in similar studies (Faber et al. 2016; Pillet et al. 2010) and provides feasible values.
271 Moreover, for simple movements such as those studied in this paper, it is also possible to
272 interpret the different phases of the movement on the force and moment curves.

273 Few studies have focused on intersegmental load estimation from markerless motion
274 capture and to the best of our knowledge, only two have focused on force plate-free estimation
275 (Mehrizi et al. 2019; Mehrizi et al. 2017). In these studies, the authors compared their estimate,
276 derived from a 2-camera markerless system, to a reference which has been computed thanks to
277 a marker-based system and top-down inverse dynamics. The average differences in force and
278 moment estimates across subjects were 4.9 ± 4.9 N and 9.0 ± 7.6 Nm respectively. Using the
279 same evaluation strategy for our system, we obtained average differences in estimates for force
280 and moment across subjects of 2.5 ± 0.9 N and 3.2 ± 1.4 Nm respectively. These better
281 performances can be explained by several factors. First, our system has 4 cameras instead of 2.
282 Second, we performed a thorough calibration of the stereovision system using approximately
283 40 calibration frames with a machined chessboard, ensuring an overall mean reprojection error
284 of 0.06 pixel. Third, the choice of the human pose estimation method can significantly affect
285 the results. In (Mehrizi et al. 2019), they used a 2D pose estimation method with the Hourglass
286 network (Newell et al. 2016) which achieved state-of-the-art performance at the time on a 2D
287 metric (PCKh@0.5) that only gives the percentage of “correctly” detected points. On the other

288 hand, we chose a 3D pose estimation method that reported an average position difference with
289 a marker-based system of 2 cm. After fine-tuning on a dedicated dataset, we obtained state-of-
290 the-art results with an average localization error of 1.3 cm (Jiang et al. 2022; Vafadar et al.
291 2021).

292 This study focused on the L5-S1 joint for several reasons. First, in our human pose
293 estimation method, an associated key point was detected at this level. Thus, this approach does
294 not require musculoskeletal modeling to estimate the other spinal joints. Second, this joint is
295 the most loaded joint during the lifting and lowering task. Third, this joint is the only one that
296 has been studied in similar work and therefore we can compare with their results. However, it
297 should be noted that the load at any other available joint can be estimated using our approach.
298 The final results of the load at L5-S1 were expressed in the local coordinate system of pelvis
299 (Jiang et al. 2022), and therefore the components of L5-S1 have anatomical sense. In addition,
300 the L5-S1 load obtained in this paper can be used to further calculate the pressure intensity of
301 the lumbar spine if the cross-sectional area of the lumbar spine is given.

302 However, the present study has several limitations. First, it focused on a population
303 consisting only of young healthy adults. As a result, the observed differences in BSIPs between
304 proportional and subject-specific methods are small. Second, it should also be mentioned that
305 the accuracy of the BSIPs calculation with the proportional 3D human model was still limited.
306 To address this issue, a possible solution is that perform digital 3D body model reconstruction
307 of workers based on RGB images, and then calculate BSIPs with the personalized body models.
308 Third, There is no consensus on acceptable differences for the L5-S1 calculation yet, so our
309 results were only compared with existing literature (Mehrizi et al. 2019; Mehrizi et al. 2017).

310 Finally, the collected dataset (laboratory environment and clothing of the volunteers) was not
311 realistic with the industrial environment and was limited to six subjects only. Moreover, some
312 a priori knowledge (weight of the box) and manual input (detection of the contact time with
313 the box) were necessary to perform the calculation. Further studies are then necessary to
314 validate extensively this approach in a realistic setting.

315 **5 Conclusion**

316 In this study, we used a multiview force plate-free markerless stereovision system together with
317 artificial intelligence technology to estimate the net force and moment at the lower back during
318 lifting and lowering movements. The top-down method was used for estimation with the RGB
319 images, while the bottom-up method was used with the data from the Vicon system and
320 employed as a reference. Promising results were observed for a population with young adults,
321 justifying further expected developments in markerless motion capture for biomechanical and
322 ergonomic studies.

323

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