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1	Towards proactive safety measures: Quantifying the upright standing
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19 Abstract

20 Fall accidents (FAs) constitute a substantial proportion of construction accidents. While the predominant prevention 21 strategy relies on passive approaches (e.g. guardrails), research on proactive measures is lacking, which may reduce 22 the incidence of FAs in high-risk construction trades. Literature suggests that rebar work is one of the foremost FA 23 prone construction trades. Since rebar workers spend hours in rebar tying postures with periodic postural transitions, 24 they hypothetically are at risk of post-task loss of balance. While recent research showed that a sitting-stool could 25 significantly alleviate physical discomfort during rebar tying, the current study aimed to investigate temporal 26 changes in standing balance (using a force plate) after simulated rebar tying in squatting, stooping and stool-sitting 27 while the respective postural load during rebar tying was quantified by electromyography and oximeters. Results 28 demonstrated that people in stool-sitting had significantly better post-task standing balance than those in squatting or 29 stooping, which might be attributed to their differential postural loadings. Overall, our findings underpin the 30 importance of using safety informatics to proactively analyze task-specific fall hazards, to monitor workers' balance, 31 and to implement proper prevention strategies for workers at risk of falls. 32 Keywords

33 Rebar tying; Occupational safety and health; Fall accidents; Loss of balance, Stool-sitting, Construction ergonomics

34 Introduction

35 Fall accidents (FAs) are one of the major barriers to achieve occupational safety in the construction industry 36 worldwide. During 2015, FAs were the major fatal injuries in the US construction industry (BLS 2016). Similarly, 37 they were the leading cause of fatal injuries in the New Zealand construction industry from 2006 to 2009 (DoL 38 2011). Chinese and Hong Kong construction industries share the same trend, where more than 50% of construction 39 site accidents involved FAs (Chan et al. 2008; Yung 2009). In addition to fatal FAs, non-fatal FAs have also raised a 40 great concern in the industry. It was estimated that non-fatal FAs in the US construction industry caused an average 41 of 10 days of sick leaves between the period of 1992 and 2000 (Bobick 2004). Likewise, the highest number of 42 compensation claims filed for non-fatal injuries in the Hong Kong construction industry from 2004 to 2008 were 43 associated with FAs (Li 2009). Given that FAs can delay/disrupt the construction schedule, decrease productivity, 44 increase economic burden and deprive the supply of skilled workers (Earnest and Branche 2016), there is a pressing 45 need to lower the risk of FAs in the construction industry.

46

47 Since more than three-fourth of total FAs are attributed to specialty trade contractors (Huang and Hinze 2003; Kang 48 et al. 2017), specific attentions should be given to individual trades to reduce FAs. Ironworkers (including both 49 structural steel and rebar workers(BLS 2015)) are known to have an increased risk of FAs (Huang and Hinze 2003; 50 Kang et al. 2017). For instance, the incidence rate of fatal falls in the US construction industry was the highest 51 among ironworkers between 2003 and 2008 (Dong and Wang 2011). An injury record also revealed that US rebar 52 workers had a significantly higher incidence of FAs than workers in other construction trades (Hunting et al. 1999). 53 In order to prevent FAs, it is paramount to identify causative behaviors/work practices in the industry that cause the 54 loss of balance (Antwi-Afari et al. 2017; Hsiao and Simeonov 2001). During rebar tying, workers may face multiple 55 personal (e.g. risky behavior), environmental (e.g. height of work, availability of personal protective equipment or 56 weather) and task-specific risk factors that may lead to FAs. While personal and environmental factors may vary 57 significantly among individuals or construction sites, the identification and modifications of task-specific risk 58 factors may mitigate the risk of falls in rebar workers. Task-specific risk factors include, but not limited to: (1) rebar 59 tying in awkward postures with periodic posture transitioning (DiDomenico et al. 2016; Jebelli et al. 2016); (2) working at height (e.g. tying rebar for retaining walls, deck of bridges or multistory buildings) (CPWR 2013); (3) 60 traversing uneven work surfaces (Hunting et al. 1999); and (4) work-related fatigue (Pline et al. 2006). 61

63 Prolonged awkward work postures may affect the standing balance of rebar workers. Observational studies have 64 reported that rebar workers spend up to 48% of their worktime in non-neutral (flexed, laterally bent and/or twisted) 65 trunk postures (Forde and Buchholz 2004). Of various awkward postures, squatting and stooping are the two most 66 prevalent postures for manual rebar tying (Umer et al. 2017b). Research has shown that prolonged 67 squatting/stooping postures can elicit back and leg fatigue (Umer et al. 2017b) that may compromise standing 68 stability and balance (DiDomenico et al. 2010). Theoretically, volitional postural transitions from non-neutral work 69 postures to standing can disturb the functioning of vestibular and/or somatosensory system (Gauchard et al. 2001), 70 which can be further disturbed by the presence of simultaneous work tasks or other environmental risk factors for 71 falls at construction sites (DiDomenico et al. 2016). Importantly, since some rebar workers need to work in an 72 environment with a small base of support (e.g. a scaffold) that prevents them from using stepping strategy for 73 maintaining standing balance (Robinovitch 2003), the impact of awkward rebar tying postures on the post-task 74 standing balance of these workers may be more profound (DiDomenico et al. 2011). 75 76 Although different rebar tying postures may have differential impacts on the post-task standing balance, the effects 77 or underlying mechanisms of various rebar tying postures on the ensuing standing postural controls remain 78 undetermined. Recent studies have shown that squatting, stooping, and stool-sitting rebar tying postures elicit 79 different back/leg muscle activity and lower limb circulation (Umer et al. 2017a; b). It is plausible that these 80 physical changes may be related to changes in post-task standing balance. Since an in-depth understanding of these 81 relations may help develop proper ergonomic interventions to minimize the risk of FAs in rebar workers, the

82 objectives of the current study were to compare the effects of various prolonged rebar tying postures (squatting,

83 stooping, and stool-sitting) on the ensuing standing stability metrics, as well as to determine the relations among

84 back and leg muscle activity, lower limb circulation during rebar tying, and the subsequent standing stability.

85

86 Literature Review

Risk factors for FAs can be classified into three domains: personal, task-related and environmental factors (Hsiao
and Simeonov 2001). To identify various risk factors for FAs, many approaches have been documented in the
literature. These include (1) site observations (Hallowell and Gambatese 2009), (2) construction site plan and

90 schedule based risk identification (Saurin et al. 2003), (3) investigation of case reports and accidents archival data 91 (Nadhim et al. 2016), (4) semi-structured interviews with the workers involved in FAs (Bentley et al. 2006), and (5) 92 use of virtual reality and 4D computer aided designs (Chantawit et al. 2005). Based on these risk identification 93 strategies, multiple ways are suggested to prevent FAs. These include, but are not limited to, (1) the installation of 94 safety nets, guardrails, personal fall arrest systems and fall protection plans (Hsiao and Simeonov 2001), (2) the use 95 of warning-line strategies and workers monitoring systems (Earnest and Branche 2016), (3) safety audits of 96 construction sites (Kaskutas et al. 2009), (4) scheduled adjustment for safety risk allocation (Yi and Langford 2006) 97 and (5) integration of Building Information Modelling (BIM) with safety checklists to identify potential risks (Zhang 98 et al. 2013).

99

100 Although many strategies have attempted to reduce the risk of FAs, FAs remain to be one of the largest contributors 101 of construction accidents (Nadhim et al. 2016). A possible reason for the difficulty in mitigating FAs may be related 102 to the current methods of risk identification (Hsiao and Simeonov 2001). A predominant mitigation approach relies 103 on reviewing the archival data and reports to identify the risk factors. However, this approach may not reveal the 104 actual causes of FAs because the results can be confounded by biases originated from reporters' background, 105 experiences, responsibilities and beliefs (Dekker et al. 2011), and/or the investigators' subjective interpretation of 106 injury reports (Nadhim et al. 2016). Consequently, the retrospective nature of this approach might not be always 107 successful in establishing true cause-effect relations (Dekker et al. 2011). Likewise, other common risk mitigation 108 strategies (e.g. site plan and observation based methods) might not always reduce fall risks because the ever-109 changing environment of construction sites and resources increase the difficulty in identifying and mitigating fall 110 hazards.

111

While task-related accident risks for construction activities comprise a large proportion of overall safety risk at a construction site, there is a paucity of research quantifying the task-specific risk factors (Hallowell and Gambatese 2009). Quantifying task-related risks for falls are an important step to reduce FAs, especially for rebar workers who have a higher rate of FAs (Dong and Wang 2011; Hunting et al. 1999). Since rebar tying requires workers to work in a sustained posture, such prolonged activity may increase the fall risk upon post-task upright standing (DiDomenico et al. 2016). Recently, Jebelli et al. (2016) quantified effects of postures (standing and squatting) and carrying

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118 weights on postural stability metrics. They found that standing while carrying the load or wearing an asymmetrically 119 loaded toolbelt could result in significantly better stability as compared to performing these tasks in a squatting 120 posture. However, their tasks were limited by the short duration (30 seconds only), absence of construction task 121 simulation, and no post-task balance measurement. DiDomenico et al. (2011) also attempted to quantify the effect of 122 different postures on standing balance. They revealed that the standing balance of individuals after 120 seconds of 123 stooping or squatting posture was better than that after 120 seconds of two-legged kneeling. However, their study 124 was limited by the short duration of maintaining the target posture without performing any simulated work tasks. 125 Importantly, DiDomenico et al. (2011) assessed the standing balance control based on the balance metrics in 1 126 second, which was deviated from the recommended minimum duration for such test (i.e. 20 seconds) (Paillard and 127 Noé 2015). Further, no study has investigated the physical responses during the performance of a simulated task in a 128 target posture, which may help explain the divergent postural responses among various postural conditions. 129 Methods 130 131 **Participants** 132 Thirteen male individuals with a mean age of 27.5 ± 4.4 years and a mean body mass index of 22.8 ± 1.5 kg/m² 133 participated in the experiment. To be eligible for the study, the participant should have a normal or corrected vision, 134 no known balance problems, and the absence of any musculoskeletal disorders in the past 12 months (DiDomenico 135 et al. 2011). 136 137 Procedure 138 The current experiment adopted a crossover study design in a single laboratory visit (Fig. 1). The experimental 139 procedures were explained to the participant and a written consent was sought prior to data collection. The 140 participant was then instructed to perform three sets of reference contractions (RCs) for bilateral lumbar, thigh and calf muscles while the respective surface electromyography (sEMG) signals were measured. The sEMG signals of 141 142 the target muscles during RCs were used to normalize the respective muscle sEMG during subsequent simulated 143 rebar tying tasks. The participant was then instructed to stand still barefooted on a force plate for 20 seconds with 144 feet apart at shoulders' width and hands resting aside while looking straight forward at a target (DiDomenico et al. 145 2011). Prior to the force plate data collection, the outline of the feet placement was traced on a piece of paper

adhered to the force plate so as to guide subsequent feet placements. Afterwards, the participant performed
simulated rebar tying in one of the three postures (squatting, stooping or stool-sitting, Fig. 1) in a randomized
manner. During the rebar tying, muscle sEMG activity and right toe circulation as measured by an oximeter were
being monitored. Immediately after the rebar tying, the participant was instructed to repeat the 20-second standing
test on the force plate. Participants were instructed to rest on a chair with backrest for 20 minutes before being
randomized into one of the remaining two rebar tying work postures. They repeated the same experimental
procedure until all three work postures were completed.



 Immediate upright standing on force plate

 Immediate upright standing on the plate standing on the

by-one performance of lunge test with the rear knee (non-lunging) just off the ground. For the calf muscles,

participants were instructed to perform an alternated single leg heel-rise test. During heel-rise test, participants coulduse index fingers to gently touch the wall to maintain balance.

165

166 b. Rebar Tying Simulation

167 The simulated rebar tying was performed using a pigtail tool and tie wires. The setup comprised a mesh of 5-by-5 168 plastic pipes of 1.2m length separated from each other by 0.2m center-to-center to replicate reinforcement steel 169 mesh. The experiment involved making ties at the first three rows of the replicated mesh. To assess each distinct 170 rebar tying posture, the participants were not allowed to rest or alter their work posture. However, natural

171 movements required for rebar tying were allowed.

172

Initially, each rebar tying posture was planned to last for 20 minutes. However, the two participants involved in pilot testing requested to shorten the duration because of severe lower leg discomfort. The reported lower leg discomfort increased more rapidly in stooping posture than squatting. Accordingly, the duration for rebar tying was shortened to 12.5 minutes for squatting and stool-sitting, and 5 minutes for stooping. The specific duration of 12.5 and 5 minutes were chosen because these values were multiples of 2.5, which was the chosen interval to solicit perceived discomfort scores in another study (Umer et al. 2017a). For stool-sitting, each participant was given an option to choose a stool with either 10cm or 15cm in height. All participants chose the one with 15cm in height.

180

181 Instrumentation

182 The pre- and post-task standing stability of the participant was evaluated using a portable multicomponent force 183 plate with four load cells (Kistler 9286AA, Kistler Instrument Corp., Winterthur, Switzerland). The data was 184 sampled at 1000Hz. Muscle activity during RCs and rebar tying simulation was measured by a wireless sEMG 185 system (TeleMyo, Noraxon USA, Arizona) at a sampling frequency of 1500Hz with a common mode rejection ratio 186 of 100dB. Bipolar disposable electrodes with a diameter of 15mm and inter-electrode distance of 20mm were placed 187 at five locations of muscles. The target locations of electrode placements for each muscle (Table 1) were chosen in 188 accordance with the recommendation of Surface ElectroMyoGraphy for the Non-Invasive Assessment of Muscles 189 (SENIAM 2005). Each muscle site was shaved, abraded with sandpaper and cleaned with alcohol swabs prior to the 190 electrode placement to keep skin impedance below $10k\Omega$. Lower limb circulation was measured in terms of the

- 191 oxygen saturation level (SpO₂) in the plantar digital artery of the right toe. Specifically, a sports grade perfusion
- 192 resistant pulse oximeter (MightySat Pulse Oximeter 9900, Masimo Corporation, Irvine, CA) was clipped on the
- right toe to collect data at 0.5Hz throughout the rebar tying simulation.
- 194

Bilateral muscle	Electrode placement
Erector spinae	L3 level of the lumbar spine (5cm laterally from midline)
Multifidus	Aligned with a line joining from the caudal tip posterior iliac spine to the L1-L2 joint (2cm laterally from the midline at the L5 level)
Rectus femoris	At 50% of the line distance formed by joining the anterior iliac spine and the superior part of a patella
Gastrocnemius lateralis	At one third of the line distance formed by a line joining the head of fibula to the heel
Gastrocnemius medialis	At the most prominent bulge of the muscle

195 Table 1. Target location for sEMG electrode placement

196

197 Dependent Variables

198 Standing Stability Metrics

199 Balance stability of a person can be defined as an individual's ability to restore or maintain upright posture (Maki et 200 al. 1990). It is usually quantified by the magnitude of postural sway that refers to the displacement of an individual's 201 center of mass (Schiffman et al. 2006). Center of pressure (COP) is the vertical projection of an individual's center 202 of mass and is one of the most widely used indices to measure postural sway using the force plate data (Prieto et al. 203 1996). The current study used two types of COP metrics to examine the pre- and post-task standing stability of the 204 participant: (1) global metrics, and (2) time-to-stabilize (TTS). Global metrics characterize the magnitude of COP 205 traces in the time and frequency domains. A large magnitude of any of these variables indicates a poor 206 postural/balance stability (Paillard and Noé 2015). Whereas TTS refers to the duration required by an individual to 207 recover from postural instability (Johnson et al. 2003). As such, a larger TTS indicates an increased risk of FAs 208 (DiDomenico et al. 2016). 209 210 Three global metrics were chosen in this study to investigate the pre- and post-task standing stability. These metrics 211 included COP mean velocity (in anterior-posterior (AP) and medio-lateral (ML) direction separately), total path

length and 90% eclipse area. All of them are believed to be highly correlated to changes in COP (Prieto et al. 1996).

213 These metrics were calculated to identify the most appropriate parameter for future posture-induced standing

214 instability studies. Prior to calculation of COP metrics, the raw force plate data was filtered using a second-order

215 Butterworth filter with a cut-off frequency of 3 Hz. The global COP sway metrics for 20-second pre- and post-task

216 upright stance were calculated as follow:

217
$$Mean \, Velocity_{AP} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N-1} |AP[n+1] - AP[n]|}{t} \quad (1)$$

218
$$Mean \, Velocity_{ML} = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{N-1} |ML[n+1] - ML[n]|}{t} \quad (2)$$

219 Total path length =
$$\sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \left[(AP[n+1] - AP[n])^2 + (ML[n+1] - ML[n])^2 \right]^{1/2}$$
 (3)

220 90% eclipse area =
$$\pi \chi_2^2 \sqrt{\lambda_1 \lambda_2}$$
 (4)

AP[n] and ML[n] are COP coordinates in AP and ML directions, respectively. n refers to nth value and N is the last 221 222 value in the respective force plate dataset. t is the time duration for COP data collection. χ^2_2 is the chi-square 223 cumulative distribution function with two degrees of freedom at 90% probability and $\lambda_1 \lambda_2$ are eigen values of sample 224 variance-covariance matrix (Schubert and Kirchner 2014). Although pre-task standing stability was computed for 225 each rebar tying posture, separate one-way repeated measures analyses of variance (ANOVA) revealed no 226 significant temporal difference in any pre-task COP global metrics across all postures. This indicated that the 20-227 minute rest period between two rebar tying simulation tasks was sufficient to allow recovery from post-task standing 228 instability, if any. Therefore, three pre-task stability values for each global parameter were averaged for subsequent 229 comparisons with the respective post-task COP global parameter.

230

Post-task TTS (calculated separately for AP and ML directions) was estimated by calculating the time taken by COP
to return to stable velocity. Stable velocity was defined as COP velocity lying within 3 times of standard deviations
of the pre-task velocity within an epoch of 25 milliseconds identified using a moving window of 1ms. A customized
MATLAB program (Version 2015a, MatchWorks, Inc., Natick, MA, USA) was used for all COP data processing.

236 Physical Measures

237 Respective muscle activity in the three rebar tying postures was compared using average muscle activations (50% 238 amplitude probability function, APDF) (Umer et al. 2017b). The raw sEMG data was bandpass-filtered between 20 239 and 500Hz, notch filtered for the electrical noise of 50Hz, and smoothened using a 50ms root mean square (RMS) 240 moving window. sEMG data was then normalized to the maximum sEMG signals during RCs (identified using 241 1000ms moving window and step size of 50ms) to enable within-subject comparison of various rebar tying postures 242 (using 50% APDF) and represented as a percentage of RC maximum sEMG. Noraxon MyoResearch MR3.8 243 (Noraxon USA Inc., USA) software was used for sEMG data processing. Although sEMG data was collected 244 bilaterally from target muscles, multiple paired t-tests with false detection rate (FDR, (Benjamini and Hochberg 245 1995)) correction revealed no significant difference between left and right side muscle activity for all rebar tying 246 postures. Accordingly, left and right-side muscle activity data was averaged for further statistical analysis. Lower 247 limb circulation data was expressed as average SpO₂ values (50% APDF) during each rebar tying posture. 248 249 **Statistical Analysis** 250 Separate one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were used to compare various averaged pre- and post-task COP 251 global metrics, and TTS for the three postures. Rebar tying postures were chosen as between-group variable whereas 252 various COP global metrics and TTS were the within-group variables. Paired t-tests with FDR correction were used 253 for post-hoc pairwise comparisons. Similarly, separate one-way repeated measures ANOVAs and post-hoc paired t-254 tests (with FDR correction) were used to compare average muscle activity of different muscles and lower limb 255 circulation across the three postures. All statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS (Version 19.0, IBM 256 Corporation, Armonk, NY) software with significance level set at 0.05. Additionally, in order to examine the 257 variability in standing stability metrics of individual participants, the between-participant differences in various 258 baseline (pre-task) and standing balance stability metrics following different postures were visually inspected. 259 260 Results

261 Standing Stability Metrics

262 Repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference among the pre- and post-task postural sway values for

all global metrics (p<0.01), except the 90% eclipse area (p = 0.09) (Fig. 2). Post-hoc tests indicated that COP

velocity in the AP direction and the total path length found significant differences in post-task postural controls

265 among all rebar tying postures. Specifically, the squatting posture caused the worst post-task standing stability (as 266 indicated by COP velocity in the AP direction and the total path length) while stool-sitting had no significant 267 adverse effect on standing stability. However, COP velocity in ML direction could not discriminate any difference 268 in post-rebar tying postural balance deficits between squatting and stooping postures (Fig. 2b). The COP 90% 269 eclipse area also indicated a greater imbalance for post-squatting and post-stooping standing task than post-stool 270 sitting but no significant difference was observed, which could be attributed to a large variance of data and a 271 relatively small sample size. Overall, all global metrics indicated that pre-task upright standing had the least absolute 272 postural sway, followed by post stool-sitting, post-stooping and post-squatting rebar tying.



273

274

Fig.2. Pre- and post-task differences in upright standing stability

 $\label{eq:275} \hbox{Note: $\#$ indicates significant results for one-way repeated measures ANOVA (analysis of variance); $*$ indicates $p < 1.5$ ind$

276 0.05 for post-hoc paired t-tests (with FDR (false detection rate) correction); COP= center of pressure; AP= anterior-

277 posterior direction; ML= mediolateral direction; bars indicate standard deviation

278

279 Although COP velocity in the AP direction and the total path length displayed similar statistical differences among

various rebar tying postures (Fig. 2a and 2c), only the post-hoc test results of COP total path length are reported here

- to avoid unnecessary repetition of similar findings. Specifically, post-squatting COP total path length was
- significantly greater than pre-task, post-stooping and post-stool sitting postural sway values [mean differences were

283 12.8 mm (95% CI= 6.7 to 19.0 mm), 5.2 mm (95% CI= 0.9 to 9.5 mm) and 11.1 mm (95% CI= 5.6 to 16.6 mm),

- respectively]. While post-stooping standing demonstrated significantly larger COP total path length than the
- respective pre-task and post stool-sitting values [mean difference = 7.6 mm (95% CI= 3.4 to 11.9 mm) and 5.9 mm
- 286 (95% CI= 2.7 to 9.2 mm) respectively], the difference between pre-task and post stool-sitting postural sway was
- 287 non-significant, regardless of the COP sway parameter used.
- 288
- 289 Similar to global metrics, TTS also varied distinctly among the three postures (Fig. 3). The stool-sitting rebar tying
- task induced the smallest TTS on standing (2.5 and 2.6 seconds for AP and ML directions, respectively), followed
- by stooping (4.2 and 4.0 seconds) and squatting postures (5.0 and 3.7 seconds). One-way repeated measures
- ANOVA revealed a significant between-posture difference in TTS in the AP direction (p = 0.04). However, post-hoc
- 293 pairwise comparison tests (with FDR correction) could not differentiate among various post-task TTS values,

294 Specifically, TTS (AP direction) for post stool-sitting was 2.5 seconds shorter than post-squatting (p = 0.09) and 1.8

seconds shorter than post-stooping rebar tying (p = 0.07). The non-significant results might be attributed to a large

variance in TTS values and a relatively small sample size (Fig. 3).



297 298



299 Note: # indicates significant results for one-way repeated measures ANOVA (analysis of variance); TTS= time to

300 stabilize; AP= anterior-posterior direction; ML= medio-lateral direction; bars indicate standard deviation

301

Individual pre- and post-task postural sway (in terms of COP total path length) are shown in Fig. 4. Participants
showed a large variation in pre-task total path length, ranging from 8.6 mm (participant 2) to 23.5 mm (participant
9). Post-task increase in baseline (pre-task) total path length for different rebar tying postures did not reveal a clear
trend across participants. Some of the participants experienced a relatively smaller increase in post-task total path
length, whereas the other depicted a much larger increase. Specifically, five participants (participant number: 4,6,8,9)

and 10) exhibited a maximum post-rebar tying increase in COP total path length by 70% of averaged pre-task
postural sway. Three participants (participant number: 1,5 and 11) showed a maximum post-task increase in total
path length by 70% to 100% of the pre-task total path length, and four participants (participant number: 2,7,12 and
13) demonstrated a maximum increase of 100% to 150% in baseline COP total path length. Participant number 3
even exhibited a 300% increase in post-rebar tying COP total path length as compared to its baseline.



312

313

Fig.4. Post-task increase in total path length across the participants

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315 Physical Measures

316 Normalized sEMG of the lower back and major lower limb muscles during rebar tying are shown in Fig. 5.

317 Generally, the average muscle activity during the stooping posture was the largest regardless of muscle observed.

318 One-way repeated measures ANOVA revealed a significant difference in sEMG activity among various postures for

all muscles. Post-hoc tests revealed that sEMG of multifidus, gastrocnemius lateralis and gastrocnemius medialis

during stooping were significantly larger than the respective values during squatting and/or stool-sitting (Fig. 5),

321 while the sEMG activity of rectus femoris during stooping posture was significantly larger than that of stool-sitting

322 posture.



324

Fig.5. Average muscle activity (50% APDF) during rebar tying

325 Note: # indicates significant results for one-way repeated measures ANOVA (analysis of variance); * indicates p <

326 0.05 for post-hoc paired t-tests (with FDR (false detection rate) correction); RC= reference contraction; bars indicate

327 standard deviation

328

329 One-way repeated measures ANOVA also showed that the average lower limb circulation (50% APDF of SpO₂

values) significantly differed across the three postures (p = 0.001) (Fig. 6). Specifically, the stooping and stool-

sitting postures had significantly better blood circulation than squatting with the mean differences of 8.9% (95% CI=

332 3.6 to 14.1%) and 11.3% (95% CI= 4.3 to 18.2 %), respectively.



333

334

Fig.6. Lower limb circulation variation among rebar tying postures

335 Note: # indicates significant results for one-way repeated measures ANOVA (analysis of variance); * indicates p <

336 0.05 for post-hoc paired t-tests (with FDR (false detection rate) correction)

338 Discussion

From the management perspective, it has been suggested that what cannot be measured, cannot be managed (Cioffi 2006). In other words, the quantification of risk factors for FAs is essential for minimizing relevant occupational safety hazards. This study is the first one to quantify the standing balance ability following various prolonged rebar tying postures and to evaluate the effect of an ergonomic stool on reducing standing instability. The results highlighted that work postures could significantly affect post-task postural stability and a simple ergonomic intervention could minimize such adverse effects.

345

346 *Effects of work postures on standing balance*

347 The post-rebar tying stability metrics indicated that traditional work postures (squatting and stooping) induced 348 significant increases in several COP global metrics, while the use of a sitting-stool significantly minimized the post-349 task postural sway (Fig. 2). Since an increased postural sway following a work task may indicate an elevated risk of 350 falling (Pline et al. 2006), our findings substantiate the use of a simple ergonomic intervention during rebar tying to 351 minimize the balance disturbance in rebar workers. Rebar tying is a labor-intensive construction trade, which largely 352 depends on the manual execution of work tasks. These tasks may expose rebar workers to multiple risk factors of 353 FAs (such as carrying heavy rebars or walking on the rebar mesh). Fortunately, rebar workers can modify their 354 methods to perform their work so that better post-task standing postural control can be achieved. In fact, the 355 modification of such human-factor or adoption of ergonomic based mitigation strategies have been suggested to be 356 profoundly efficacious in reducing FAs in the construction industry (Robinovitch 2003).

357

The TTS results highlight the importance of standing balance recovery time after getting up from prolonged work postures (Fig. 3). Since multiple environmental factors (such as adverse environmental conditions, working on slopes and heights) at construction sites may increase the risk of FAs (Earnest and Branche 2016) by affecting TTS after finishing a work task, construction managers/foremen should be aware of these factors and provide rebar workers with ample recovery time prior to their involvement in another risky tasks (such as transporting heavy rebars). Importantly, this awareness should be imparted to frontline workers through education and training, which are known to be an effective and proactive forefront measure against FAs (Nadhim et al. 2016).

17

366 The great variability in pre- and post-tasks standing balance of participants (Fig. 4) implies variable risks of FAs for 367 individuals. Since increased postural sway is an indicator of elevated risk of ankle sprains in the teenagers (Trojian 368 and McKeag 2006) and falls in the older population (Piirtola and Era 2006), this might suggest that workers with 369 larger baseline sway may be at a greater risk of FAs. Nevertheless, the pre-task postural sway may not necessarily 370 predict the post-task sway. For example, Participant number 3, 5 and 10 demonstrated similar pre-task COP total 371 path lengths (13.1 to 16.1mm) but their individual responses to rebar tying postures were very diverse. For instance, 372 Participant number 10 showed a maximum increase of 24% in COP total path length after the stooping task, while 373 Participant number 5 had a 96% increase in baseline COP total path length following the same task. Interestingly, 374 the post-stooping COP total path length of Participant number 3 was 219% higher after post-stooping. These results 375 signify the importance of examining individual outcomes alongside conducting group analysis for this type of 376 balance studies. Collectively, despite the individual differences, it is generally agreed that a person with a larger 377 post-task increase in postural sway is more likely to fall (Lin et al. 2009).

378

379 Physical changes compromise standing balance

380 Physical measures, as used in this study help better explain the distinct effects of various postures in affecting target 381 muscles and blood circulation. In particular, a stooping posture was associated with significantly higher muscle 382 activity in bilateral lower back, thigh and calf muscles as compared to squatting and stool-sitting postures (Fig. 5). 383 As such, sustained work-task postures with large muscle activity could easily cause muscular discomfort, fatigue 384 and post-transition loss of balance (Pline et al. 2006). Importantly, despite relative low activity of lumbar muscles 385 during stooping (average activity $\approx 2\%$ of RC sEMG), such low lumbar muscle activity can still cause 386 neuromuscular fatigue. Mcgill et al. (2000) suggested that work tasks entailing exertion of lower back muscles as 387 low as 2% of maximum voluntary contraction can elicit fatigue after sustained for a long duration, which in turn 388 may induce postural instability during standing (Lin et al. 2009). Moreover, transitioning from a sustained stooping 389 work posture (involving tilting and non-neutral head postures) to a standing posture may compromise the ability of 390 the vestibular system to anticipate the orientation of gravity (Paloski et al. 2006), making a rebar worker more 391 vulnerable to FAs.

392

Contrary to stooping, squatting rebar tying posture involves significantly less muscle activations in the lumbar and
calf muscles (Fig. 5) and does not require full trunk flexion as required in stooping. However, opting for a squatting
posture during rebar tying can significantly compromise the blood circulation in the lower extremities (Fig. 6).
Reduced blood circulation in the muscles is linked to poor muscle endurance and an increased rate of muscle fatigue
(Hepple 2002). Besides, decreased blood circulation in the legs can adversely affect joint proprioception that
decreased standing balance (DiDomenico et al. 2010). In short, prolonged squatting may leave rebar workers more
susceptible to FAs.

400

On the contrary, working in stool-sitting posture has multiple physical advantages over traditional rebar tying
postures. It involves significantly less muscle activity for both trunk and leg muscles as compared to stooping (Fig.
5) and better lower limb circulation as compared to squatting (Fig. 6). These physical responses might explain the
non-significant changes in the post-task postural sway (Fig. 2) and minimum TTS (Fig. 3) as compared to other
rebar tying postures.

406

407 Implications

408 Safety against construction FAs demands a comprehensive set of strategies. Current onsite fall protection measures 409 rely on the use of passive protection systems. In many instances, these measures are either nonpragmatic or 410 unavailable (Hsiao and Simeonov 2001; Kang et al. 2017), leaving construction workers vulnerable to FAs. To 411 better prevent FAs, conventional protection methods should be supplemented with some proactive measures such as 412 Prevention through Design (PtD). The PtD concept involves identification of safety hazards during the design phase 413 of construction activities and taking proactive measures to counter/avoid safety hazards (Dewlaney and Hallowell 414 2012). Aside from early diagnosis of various safety hazards, PtD should also include management of anticipated fall 415 risk factors (task, environment and person related) such as prolonged awkward work postures during rebar tying. 416 Essentially, as this study persuasively shows that the PtD concept can be used to improve the design of construction 417 activities and ultimately reduce the number of accidents. 418

419 Limitations and Future Works

420 Although the current study has deepened the knowledge pertaining to potential loss of balance among rebar workers, 421 there are some limitations that should be addressed in future studies. First, participants involved in the current 422 experiment were inexperienced rebar workers. Accordingly, future research is warranted to compare the findings in 423 experienced rebar workers. Second, this experiment only tested a single duration of rebar tying postures. Future 424 studies should evaluate the impacts of different time durations of work postures on the resulting standing balance of 425 rebar workers. Collectively, the results from these studies may help design proper work-rest schedule to avoid 426 substantial fatigue and/or loss of balance, which may lead to FAs (Pline et al. 2006). Third, the current study only 427 explored the effects of various rebar tying postures on static balance. Future studies should explore how dynamic 428 balance is affected by prolonged working postures.

429

430 Fourth, while exploratory studies are essential to identify individual risk factors for FAs, the importance of their 431 interactions cannot be downplayed. Multiple risk factors could present simultaneously at a typical construction site. 432 In fact, FAs are barely the consequence of a single risk factor (Dekker et al. 2011). Hence, future studies should 433 explore FAs from a holistic approach by investigating multiple risk factors simultaneously (i.e. task, environment 434 and personal factors). Lastly, while many FAs on construction sites have been attributed to loss of balance (Hsiao 435 and Simeonov 2001), no quantitative tool has been developed to quantify the baseline and post-task/post-work shift 436 postural stability of construction workers onsite. Although force plates which have been widely used in laboratory-437 based studies to evaluate standing balance, it is not feasible to use force plates at construction sites given their 438 substantial weight and other requirements (such as allied electronic/power equipment, leveled and firm surfaces for 439 measurements). As such, new tools should be developed to measure onsite postural stability of the construction 440 workers in different times of the day and under different circumstances. This may enable early identification of 441 workers with poorer postural control, and the prescription of tailor-make postural control exercises or balance 442 training measures for these workers.

443

444 Conclusions

445 The current study highlighted that conducting rebar tying in conventional work postures (squatting and stooping)
446 significantly impaired static standing balance, which might be attributed to prolonged recruitment of back and leg
447 muscles in the stooping and reduced blood circulation to legs in the squatting posture. Compared to stooping or

448	squatting, the adoption of an ergonomic intervention (stool-sitting) significantly improves lower limb circulation,		
449	reduces back and leg muscle activities during rebar tying, and improves post-rebar tying standing balance. Since		
450	different individuals have different balance recovery time after sustained work postures, future research should		
451	investigate optimal resting time before taking part in other risky tasks to avoid the risk of FAs. Importantly, given		
452	high interpersonal variability in both pre- and post-task standing stability, future works should focus on the		
453	development of individualized balance monitoring systems to proactively identify workers with poor pre- and post-		
454	task standing balance so as to provide tailor-make preventive measures. Meanwhile, simple validated functional		
455	balance tests (e.g. Start Excursion Balance Test) can be used to identify workers with balance deficits. Regular		
456	balance training exercises and biofeedback based devices can be adopted to improve rebar workers' balance ability.		
457	Collectively, the current study applied prevention through design concept to identify and mitigate task-specific fall		
458	risks of rebar workers and has demonstrated the usefulness of safety informatics in improving our understanding o		
459	various aspects of balance monitoring for proactive measures against FAs.		
460			
461	Data Availability Statement		
462	Data generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author by request.		
463			
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