

Anwer S, Li H, Antwi-Afari MF, Umer W, Wong AYL. Evaluation of physiological metrics as a real-time measurement of physical fatigue in construction workers: State-of-the-Art Reviews. Journal of Construction Engineering and Management (Accepted)

1 **Evaluation of physiological metrics as a real-time measurement of physical**
2 **fatigue in construction workers: State-of-the-Art Reviews**

3 Shahnawaz Anwer, PhD Candidate*; Professor Heng Li, PhD; Dr. Maxwell Fordjour
4 Antwi-Afari, PhD; Dr. Waleed Umer, PhD; Dr. Arnold Yu Lok Wong, PhD,

5

6 1. PhD Candidate, Department of Building and Real Estate, Faculty of Construction
7 and Environment, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon,
8 Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, Room No. ZN1002, Email:

9 anwerphysio@gmail.com, Shahnawaz.anwer@connect.polyu.hk

10 2. Chair Professor, Department of Building and Real Estate, Faculty of Construction
11 and Environment, Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hung Hom, Kowloon,
12 Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, Room No. ZS734, Email:

13 heng.li@polyu.edu.hk

14 3. Lecturer, Department of Civil Engineering, College of Engineering and Physical
15 Sciences, Aston University, Birmingham, B4 7ET, United Kingdom, Email:

16 m.antwifari@aston.ac.uk

17 4. Assistant Professor, Department of Construction Engineering & Management,
18 King Fahd University of Petroleum & Minerals, Saudi Arabia; Email:

19 Waleed.umer@kfupm.edu.sa

20 5. Assistant Professor, Department of Rehabilitation Sciences, The Hong Kong
21 Polytechnic University, Hong Kong; Room No. ST512, Email:

22 arnold.wong@polyu.edu.hk

23

24 *Corresponding author

25 Shahnawaz Anwer, MPT

26 PhD Candidate

27 ZN1002, Smart Construction Laboratory

28 Department of Building and Real Estate

29 Faculty of Construction and Environment

30 The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

31 Hung Hom, Kowloon, Hong Kong

32 Email: anwerphysio@gmail.com; shahnawaz.anwer@connect.polyu.hk

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34 **Abstract**

35 Physical fatigue is a major health and safety related problem among construction
36 workers. Many previous studies relied on interviews and/or questionnaire to assess
37 physical fatigue in construction workers. However, these traditional methods are not
38 only time consuming but also limited by recall bias. To overcome these limitations,
39 many researchers have used physiological metrics (e.g., heart rate, heart rate variability,
40 skin temperature, electromyographic activity, and jerk metrics) to measure real-time
41 physical fatigue. While physiological metrics have shown promising results for real-
42 time assessments of physical fatigue, no state-of-the-art review has been conducted to
43 summarize various physiological metrics in measuring physical fatigue among
44 construction workers. Therefore, the current state-of-the art review aimed to summarize
45 existing evidence regarding the use of physiological metrics to measure physical fatigue
46 of construction workers in real-time. This review used systematic searches to identify
47 relevant studies and critically appraised the application of physiological metrics in
48 measuring physical fatigue of construction workers. First, it summarized the application
49 of various physiological metrics for real-time measurement of physical fatigue in
50 construction workers. Second, various wearable sensing technologies for measuring
51 physiological metrics were identified. Third, this review discussed the potential
52 challenges for applying physiological metrics to measure physical fatigue. Finally,
53 future research directions to advance the development and adoption of various
54 physiological metrics to monitor and mitigate physical fatigue in construction workers
55 were discussed.

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57 **Introduction**

58 Fatigue can be defined as “a reduction in physical and/or mental capability as the result
59 of physical, mental, or emotional exertion which may impair nearly all physical abilities
60 including: strength; speed; reaction time; coordination; decision making; or balance”
61 (International Maritime Organization, 2001). While some authors suggested that fatigue
62 is unidimensional in nature (Michielsen et al., 2004), others described it as a
63 combination of physical and mental fatigue (Grandjean, 1979). Physical fatigue
64 occurred after prolonged physical workloads can reduce an individual’s capacity to
65 perform physical work efficiently (Gawron et al., 2001). Similarly, mental fatigue
66 occurs after prolonged mental workloads and may lead to reduced behavioral and
67 cognitive performance (Boksem et al., 2005; Boksem and Tops, 2008). While mental
68 fatigue is known to be associated with impaired physical performance (Marcora et al.,
69 2009), the intensity of physical activity has differential effects on mental fatigue.
70 Specifically, light physical activities may improve cognitive function, whereas heavy
71 physical activities may impair cognitive performance (Davey, 1973); this indicates a
72 complex relationship between physical and mental fatigue. Additionally, mental fatigue
73 is more relevant to industries that require workers to be mentally active and alert, such
74 as long-distance driving (Tan et al., 2013), airport luggage screening (Basner and
75 Rubinstein, 2011), or nurses working long shifts (Geiger-Brown et al., 2012). However,

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76 since most construction workers (such as manual laborers) may not require a high level
77 of mental alertness (Aryal et al., 2017), the current review focused on the discussion of
78 various potential real-time monitoring of physical fatigue in construction workers.

79 Physical fatigue is widely prevalent among construction workers given their job
80 nature, which often involves outdoor work in a harsh environment, manual labor, and
81 physical intensive repetitive tasks. Adverse effects of physical fatigue on health and
82 safety of construction workers have been well documented in the literature (Swaen et
83 al., 2003; Wu et al., 2017; Umer et al., 2018a). For example, prolonged physical fatigue
84 may lower immunity and causes chronic fatigue syndrome (Afari and Buchwald, 2003;
85 Evengard et al., 2008). Similarly, statistics indicated that 33% of all work-related
86 musculoskeletal injuries and disorders in the US construction industry were attributed
87 to fatigue and overexertion (BLS, 2016). Studies in the oil and gas construction industry
88 (Chan, 2011), as well as the building construction industry (Wong et al., 2004; Adane
89 et al., 2013) have also found physical fatigue as a major cause of work-related accidents.
90 As such, it is of paramount importance to detect the presence of physical fatigue in
91 construction workers in the field so that timely interventions (e.g., breaks) can be
92 introduced (Umer et al., 2017a).

93 Early detection and real-time monitoring of physical fatigue play vital roles in the

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94 construction industry, especially when the industry is facing severe labor challenges in
95 many parts of the world such as high labor wages, manpower shortages, and an ageing
96 workforce (Yu et al., 2019). A previous review has reported that approximately 44%
97 and 12% of the workforce in the Hong Kong construction industry were older than 50
98 and 60 years, respectively (Ng and Chan, 2015). Older construction workers are more
99 prone to develop physical fatigue than their younger counterparts due to the ageing-
100 related reduction in muscle strength and physical work capacity (Faulkner et al., 2007;
101 Kenny et al., 2008; Umer et al., 2018b). Additionally, many developed countries/cities
102 such as the United Kingdom, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Australia are facing
103 manpower shortages in the construction industry because of ageing workers and the
104 reluctance of younger people in joining the construction workforce (Ducanes and
105 Abella, 2008; Sing et al., 2012). For example, the Construction Industry Council of
106 Hong Kong has predicted a significant shortfall of skilled construction workers during
107 2017 to 2021 (Construction industry council, 2016). To overcome these distressing
108 challenges in the construction industry, it is essential to effectively monitor and manage
109 physical fatigue in construction workers to ensure a more sustainable and productive
110 workforce for the industry in the future.

111 There are many ways to measure physical fatigue in construction workers. They

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112 can be classified into subjective measurements and objective measurements. These
113 methods have pros and cons.

114 ***Traditional Subjective Physical Fatigue Assessments***

115 In early 90s, various subjective questionnaires were developed to quantify physical
116 fatigue in the general population (Lee et al., 1991; Chalder et al., 1993). Later, many
117 constructions-related studies have developed various subjective questionnaires to
118 measure workload or physical fatigue in construction workers (Chan et al., 2012; Fang
119 et al., 2015; Mitropoulos and Memarian, 2013; Yi et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2015).

120 However, since no standardized physical fatigue assessment scale has been developed,
121 different studies used different scales to assess physical fatigue (Zhang et al., 2015),
122 preventing comparisons of findings across studies. Although the cost of using
123 subjective questionnaires is low, it is inconvenient/infeasible to administer
124 questionnaires on construction sites. This method is also subject to recall bias.
125 Importantly, these questionnaires cannot assess real-time physical fatigue with minimal
126 interference to ongoing construction activities.

127 ***Real-Time Approaches to Assess Physical Fatigue***

128 To overcome these limitations, some researchers have attempted to use various
129 physiological metrics such as heart rate (HR), heart rate variability (HRV), skin

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130 temperature, electromyography (EMG), and jerk metrics to monitor real-time fatigue
131 during construction-related activities (Abdelhamid and Everett, 2002; Cifrek et al.,
132 2009; Chan et al., 2012; Gatti et al., 2014; Wong et al., 2014; Yi et al., 2016; Aryal et
133 al., 2017; Umer et al., 2017b; Ueno et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018, 2019; Anwer et al.,
134 2020). For example, Yi et al. (2016) developed an automatic assessment and early
135 fatigue warning system for construction workers based on: (a) Wet Bulb Globe
136 Temperature measurements on construction sites; (b) work duration and activities; (c)
137 personal and demographic characteristics of workers (i.e., age, weight, height, smoking,
138 and alcohol drinking habit); and (d) real-time HR monitoring. They used an artificial
139 neural network (ANN) approach to identify heat strain/fatigue in construction workers.
140 Similarly, Aryal et al. (2017) developed a fatigue model using a machine learning
141 approach to detect and monitor physical fatigue in construction workers based on skin
142 temperature and HR. Since HR and skin temperature are considered as important
143 physiological metrics to assess physical strain during physical exercise (Cuddy et al.,
144 2013), multiple studies have used these metrics to monitor physical fatigue during
145 physically demanding construction activities (Abdelhamid and Everett, 2002; Chan et
146 al., 2012; Gatti et al., 2014; Ueno et al., 2018; Wong et al., 2014; Anwer et al., 2020).

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147 Other physiological metrics, such as EMG activity of muscle and jerk (the time
148 derivative of acceleration) during tasks, have also been used to assess workers' fatigue.
149 Continuous monitoring of muscle EMG activity (a proxy to measure muscle activity)
150 can reveal local muscle fatigue during work (Cifrek et al., 2009; Umer et al., 2017b).
151 Surface EMG has been used in prior laboratory studies to detect real-time muscle
152 fatigue (Karlsson et al., 2000; Felici et al., 2001; Clancy et al., 2002; Antwi-Afari et al.,
153 2017, 2018). Likewise, Zhang et al. (2018) used inertial measurement unit (IMU)
154 sensors to measure jerk to indirectly detect physical fatigue during a repetitive
155 bricklaying task. Since physical fatigue adversely affects movement control and
156 movement quality, workers with fatigue demonstrate increased jerk values (Zhang et
157 al., 2019).

158 Although the assessment of these physiological metrics may help detect real-time
159 physical fatigue in construction workers (Wang et al., 2015; Awolusi et al., 2018; Ahn
160 et al., 2019), no state-of-the-art review has summarized various physiological metrics
161 in measuring physical fatigue in these workers. Therefore, the current state-of-the-art
162 review aimed to: (1) summarize various physiological metrics that have the potential to
163 measure real-time physical fatigue in construction workers; (2) summarize
164 commercially available wearable sensing technologies for measuring relevant

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165 physiological metrics; (3) discuss potential challenges for using physiological metrics
166 to measure physical fatigue in real-time; and (4) provide future research directions to
167 advance the development and use of various physiological metrics to better monitor
168 and mitigate physical fatigue among construction workers.

169 **Research Methods**

170 The research method section is divided into three subsections namely: literature
171 search, selection criteria, and data extraction.

172 **Literature Search**

173 This review used a systematic approach to search relevant articles, and critically
174 appraised the applications and features of different wearable sensing technologies, as
175 well as summarized challenges of using physiological metrics to measure physical
176 fatigue in construction workers. Five electronic databases (i.e., PubMed, Medline,
177 CINAHL, EMBASE, and Web of Science) were searched from their inception to July
178 25, 2020. The first four databases contain many fatigue or ergonomic-related
179 publications, while the Web of Science is a multidisciplinary database that contains
180 construction-related journals (Gusenbauer and Haddaway, 2020). For instance, the web
181 of science covers more than 34,000 journals and over 155 million of records. Only
182 English language publications were retrieved. The major keywords (including fatigue,

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183 physiological measures, heart rate, heart rate variability, skin temperature,
184 electromyographic activity, jerk metric, and construction workers) as well as their
185 related derivatives were used for the search. **Table 1** details the search strategies used
186 in this review.

187 **Selection Criteria**

188 Relevant articles were included for review based on the criteria: (1) population:
189 construction workers; (2) outcome variables: physiological measures (e.g., heart rate,
190 heart rate variability, skin temperature, EMG activity, and jerk metrics) and physical
191 fatigue; and (3) types of study: observational and experimental studies. Studies were
192 excluded if outcomes related to physical fatigue or physiological measures were not
193 reported. Additionally, case reports, newsletters, theses, commentaries, conference
194 proceedings, and grey literature were excluded.

195 **Data Extraction**

196 Two reviewers (SA and MA) completed the screening of titles and abstracts according
197 to the selection criteria. Relevant full-text articles were then retrieved and reviewed
198 by the two independent reviewers. Any disputes between the two reviewers were then
199 resolved by a third reviewer (AW). Relevant data were extracted from the included
200 studies: authors/year, country, population, study design, sample size, type of

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201 physiological measures, physical fatigue protocol, instrumentation used, results, and
202 conclusions.

203 **Results**

204 The results section is divided into two subsections namely: (1) characteristics of the
205 included studies; and (2) analysis of physiological metrics to measure real-time physical
206 fatigue in construction workers. The first subsection delineates the characteristics of the
207 included studies. The second subsection details the analysis of physiological metrics
208 under four sub-subsections (e.g., cardio-vascular metrics, thermoregulatory metrics,
209 EMG metrics, and jerk metrics).

210 **Characteristics of the included studies**

211 Of the 324 identified studies, 160 duplicates were removed (**Fig 1**). Twenty-three
212 studies involving 1,015 participants were included in this review. The characteristics of
213 the included studies (including the location where each study was conducted, types of
214 studies (e.g., laboratories or field studies), participants' demographics, types of
215 physiological metrics (e.g., HR, HRV, skin temperature, EMG, Jerk metric), and types
216 of subjective and objectives tools used for validation) are shown in **Table 2**. Specifically,
217 the included studies were conducted in nine regions, including Canada, China, Czech
218 Republic, Hong Kong, India, Latvia, Taiwan, United Arab Emirates, and the USA.

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219 Thirteen field studies and ten laboratory studies (task simulation) were included. The
220 mean age of participants ranged from 26.4 to 45 years. Two included studies only
221 reported the age ranges of their participants (between 20 and 24 years old) (McDonald
222 et al., 2016; Calvin et al., 2016). Most of the included studies used HR metric (19
223 studies), five study used skin temperature, four studies used EMG metric, and only one
224 study used jerk metric to measure physical fatigue (Figure 2). Physical fatigue was
225 verified by the subjective feedback of the participants. In particular, seven and three
226 included studies used the rating of perceived exertion (RPE) scale (Borg 6-20 scale)
227 (Roja et al., 2006; Li et al., 2009; McDonald et al., 2016; Aryal et al., 2017; Yin et al.,
228 2019; Umer et al., 2020; Anwer et al., 2020) and Borg CR-10 scale (Chan et al., 2012;
229 Wong et al., 2014; Calvin et al., 2016) to report self-perceived physical fatigue,
230 respectively. Seven included studies used researcher-designed, self-reported
231 questionnaires to quantify physical fatigue (Abdelhamid and Everett, 1999, 2002; Hsu
232 et al., 2008; Chang et al., 2009; Mehta et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2017; Tsai, 2017), while
233 six included studies simply asked the participants for the presence of fatigue (Anton et
234 al., 2005; Bates and Schneider, 2008; Maiti, 2008; Das, 2014; Jankovský et al., 2018;
235 Zhang et al., 2019).

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236 Heart rate, HRV, skin temperature, surface EMG, and jerk metrics were used as a
237 proxy to objectively measure physical fatigue (**Fig 2**). Ten included studies used various
238 chest band model devices to monitor HR (Abdelhamid and Everett, 1999, 2002; Anton
239 et al., 2005; Roja et al., 2006; Bates and Schneider, 2008; Maiti, 2008; Chang et al.,
240 2009; Li et al., 2009; Chan et al., 2012; Wong et al., 2014). One study manually
241 calculated HR using radial or carotid pulses (Das, 2014), while seven studies used
242 different wearable devices to measure HR (Hsu et al., 2008; Aryal et al., 2017; Mehta
243 et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2017; Jankovský et al., 2018; Yin et al., 2019; Umer et al., 2020;
244 Anwer et al., 2020). Two studies used photo plethysmography-based wearable sensors
245 to measure heart rate variability (Lee et al., 2017; Tsai, 2017). To measure the skin
246 temperature, infrared temperature sensors (Chan et al., 2012; Aryal et al., 2017),
247 wearable sensors (Mehta et al., 2017; Umer et al., 2020), and tympanic thermometers
248 were commonly used (Bates and Schneider, 2008). Similarly, different models of
249 surface EMG devices were used to measure the root mean square amplitude and median
250 frequency of EMG signals in the included studies to assess muscle fatigue during
251 construction tasks (Anton et al., 2005; McDonald et al., 2016; Calvin et al., 2016; Yin
252 et al., 2019). Additionally, wearable IMU-based motion capture systems were used to
253 measure the jerk metric in one study (Zhang et al., 2019).

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254 **Analysis of physiological metrics to measure real-time physical fatigue in**

255 **construction workers**

256 *Cardio-vascular metrics*

257 Heart rate is the most commonly used physiological measure to monitor physical

258 exertion in construction workers (Abdelhamid and Everett 2002; Chan et al. 2012; Gatti

259 et al. 2014; Wong et al. 2014; Ueno et al. 2018; Anwer et al., 2020). Cardiovascular

260 responses to physical exertion depend on multiple factors, including the intensity,

261 duration, and frequency of physical exertion, as well as the working environment

262 (Burton et al., 2004). During physical exertion, the cardiovascular load increases as

263 muscle contraction increases. The heart needs to pump more blood around the body

264 (Burton et al., 2004). The increased demand of blood flow to muscles requires an

265 increased cardiac output. Since the heart cannot increase its stroke volume

266 instantaneously, only heartbeat can be increased to improve blood transportation.

267 Therefore, average HR is a good indicator of physical stress and workload (Wickens et

268 al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2017). In fact, 19 out of 23 included studies in the current review

269 used HR as a proxy to measure physiological demands during construction tasks.

270 Lifting and lowering from floor-to-floor resulted in a higher HR as compared to other

271 heights of lifting and lowering (Li et al., 2009). Likewise, Li et al. (2009) reported a

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272 higher HR for a lifting task performed twice a minute as compared to once a minute.
273 Alferdaws and Ramadan (2020) also found that the HR during high frequency lifting
274 was significantly higher than that during low frequency lifts. In fact, previous studies
275 have shown a positive relationship between HR and lifting frequency (Hafez and Ayoub,
276 1991; Chen et al., 1992; Al-Ashaik et al., 2015; Ghaleb et al., 2019). The work-related
277 increases in HR would decrease as the workload decreases (Jankovský et al., 2018).
278 More recently, Anwer et al. (2020) reported a significantly higher HR after a simulated
279 fatigue task as compared to baseline HR scores. Additionally, they reported a strong
280 correlation between HR and the corresponding subjective fatigue scores as measured
281 by the Borg scale (Anwer et al., 2020). Since HR has been found to be positively related
282 to subjective fatigue score among high-elevation construction workers (Chang et al.,
283 2009), HR can be used as a surrogate to measure physical fatigue.

284 While aforementioned studies attempted to directly correlate HR with physical
285 fatigue, some studies tried to categorize HR values at different fatigue levels. Astrand
286 and Rodahl (1986) classified the severity of physical workload based on HR responses
287 (e.g., light work, HR – up to 90 beats/min; moderate work, HR – 90 to 110 beats/min;
288 heavy work, HR – 110 to 130 beats/min; very heavy work, HR – 130 to 150 beats/min;
289 extremely heavy work, HR – 150 to 170 beats/min). Similarly, Adi and Ratnawinanda

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290 (2017) classified fatigue levels according to the percentage cardiovascular load (defined
291 as $CVL (\%) = (HR_{work} - HR_{rest}) / (HR_{max} - HR_{rest}) \times 100$) and gave recommendation to
292 workers based on their CVL values. Notably, they classified workers with CVL values
293 less than 30% as no fatigue, while workers with CVL values between 30 and 60%, were
294 recommended to have rest-breaks. For workers with CVL values between 60 and 80%
295 and between 80 and 100%, they are supposed to have a short period of work, and special
296 treatment, respectively. For those with CVL values greater than 100%, they should
297 completely stop working.

298 Recently, research showed that combining HR with other physiological measures
299 could improve the prediction of fatigue. For example, Umer et al. (2020) predicted 95%
300 of physical fatigue levels using a combination of HR, thermoregulatory, and respiratory
301 metrics in university students during a simulated construction task. However, the
302 accuracy dropped to 57% if only HR data was used to predict fatigue. Similarly, Aryal
303 et al. (2017) reported a 72% prediction accuracy in estimating physical fatigue using
304 combined findings of HR and skin temperature; however, the accuracy dropped to 59%
305 if only HR data was used. These results highlight the benefit of using combined metrics
306 to predict physical fatigue in individuals.

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307 Despite the usefulness of HR for fatigue monitoring, multiple factors (e.g.,
308 physical demands, stress and anxiety) can increase HR (Abdelhamid and Everett, 2002;
309 Chan et al., 2012; Gatti et al., 2014). HR can also be influenced by changes in body
310 posture (e.g., sitting to standing) and muscle contraction forces (Astrand and Rodahl,
311 1986). Therefore, these factors should be considered when HR is intended to be used
312 for fatigue monitoring.

313 In addition to HR, HRV is a metric of beat-to-beat variation of HR and is found to
314 be a strong marker of cardiac health (Acharya et al. 2004). The measurement of HRV
315 may be an important metric to measure physical fatigue (Achten and Jeukendrup, 2003;
316 Makivic et al., 2013) because a diminished high frequency component of HRV value
317 may indicate heavy physical loads or fatigue in construction workers (Tsai, 2017). A
318 study reported a significant association between workplace stress (physical and mental)
319 and reduced HRV in sedentary and public sector workers (Tonello et al., 2014).
320 Previous construction research has also suggested to monitor both HR and HRV to
321 estimate physical strain in roofers (Lee, 2018; Lee et al., 2017). Nevertheless, previous
322 studies have not directly analyzed the impacts of physical fatigue on HRV parameters.
323 Therefore, future studies should clarify this relationship to determine whether HRV can
324 be used to improve the monitoring of fatigue development during construction activities.

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325 *Thermoregulatory metrics*

326 Thermoregulatory measures have also been found to be strongly related to fatigue
327 development during cycling (González-Alonso et al., 1999) and construction tasks
328 (Aryal et al., 2017). Infrared temperature sensors are commonly used to monitor skin
329 temperature and related thermoregulatory changes during fatigue development. Skin
330 temperature is affected by underlying muscular activity, cutaneous blood flow, and
331 sweating patterns at a certain body parts (i.e., cheek, ear, forehead, and temple)
332 (Formenti et al., 2017). During physical exercise, the core body temperature increases,
333 and the body attempts to maintain the core body temperature within a normal
334 physiological limit through thermoregulation. In particular, the skin plays its role by
335 assisting heat transfer from the core body to the atmosphere (Kenney and Johnson,
336 1992). Five included studies in the current review used skin temperature as a proxy to
337 assess physical fatigue at workplaces among construction workers in different trades
338 including rebar workers, oil and gas industry workers, and manual material handling
339 workers (Chan et al., 2012; Mehta et al., 2017; Aryal et al., 2017; Umer et al., 2020;
340 Anwer et al., 2020). Anwer et al. (2020) reported a significantly increased local skin
341 temperature after 30 minutes of simulated construction task. Similarly, Aryal et al.
342 (2012) reported an increased skin temperature during construction activities. Chan et al.

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343 (2012) reported a rapid increase in the participants' aural temperature in the first 35
344 minutes of rebar work followed by subsequent slight drop in the core temperature
345 before rising again. These studies show that analyzing the pattern of thermoregulatory
346 changes in perspiration and/or temperature of specific body parts (i.e., cheek, ear,
347 forehead, and temple) have the potential to detect fatigue development.

348 *EMG metrics*

349 Physical fatigue of a local muscle can be detected by analyzing changes in the median
350 frequency or root mean square amplitude of surface EMG signals (Enoka and
351 Duchateau, 2008; Powell and Copping, 2016). Surface EMG has been extensively used
352 to detect muscle fatigue given its noninvasiveness and easy application (Cifrek et al.,
353 2009). By putting two bipolar surface electrodes on a target muscle, the corresponding
354 EMG signals can be measured to estimate the muscle activity. A review highlights that
355 many surface EMG indices (e.g., root mean square of EMG signals, median, and mean
356 power frequencies) can be used to assess muscle fatigue (Cifrek et al., 2009).
357 Specifically, the root mean square amplitude of surface EMG signals in fatigued
358 muscles is significantly higher than that of non-fatigued muscles because fatigue
359 muscles need to activate more muscle fibers to sustain the required force (Dimitrov et
360 al. 2008). Conversely, during muscle contraction, the median frequency and mean

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361 power frequency of EMG signals in fatigued muscles are significantly lower than that
362 of non-fatigued muscles (Dingwell et al., 2011; Tenan et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2015).

363 Previous research has suggested that continuous monitoring of muscle fatigue is
364 feasible by measuring surface EMG activities of the target muscle during various tasks
365 (Cifrek et al., 2009). Four included studies in the current review assessed muscle fatigue
366 using surface EMG metrics (e.g., median frequency and root mean square amplitude)
367 during repetitive tasks among construction workers (e.g., mason) and asymptomatic
368 university students (Anton et al., 2005; McDonald et al., 2016; Calvin et al., 2016; Yin
369 et al., 2019). McDonald et al. (2016) examined the surface EMG activity of shoulder
370 muscles during a simulated upper limb repetitive task. They found statistically
371 significant decreases in median frequency and increased root mean square amplitude of
372 EMG activity immediately following task-related muscle fatigue. Another study
373 revealed significant increase in the average EMG amplitude of fatigued back muscles
374 after a repetitive lifting task (Yin et al., 2019). Similarly, Calvin et al. (2016) detected
375 signs of muscle fatigue (i.e., increased EMG amplitude and decreased median
376 frequency of EMG signals) in the affected shoulder muscles following simulated
377 repetitive work performed at a workstation. The role of EMG in measuring muscle
378 fatigue was further substantiated by Anton et al. (2005). They reported surface EMG

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379 amplitudes of various muscles (i.e., lumbar erector spinae, upper trapezius, and forearm
380 flexors and extensors) in bricklayers during the task of laying lightweight concrete
381 blocks (less fatiguing task) was significantly smaller than that during laying standard
382 weight blocks.

383 *Jerk metric*

384 Recent advancement in the wearable sensing technology has provided an opportunity
385 for assessing field-based real-time fatigue (Zhang et al., 2019). Specifically, a typical
386 wearable IMU-based motion capture system, which integrates magnetometers,
387 accelerometers, and gyroscopes to detect velocity, acceleration, and body orientation,
388 is a noninvasive, wireless, and cost-effective technology for measuring body motion
389 during construction tasks (Miller et al., 2004; Yan et al., 2017; Antwi-Afari et al., 2018;
390 Umer et al., 2018b; Yu et al. 2019). Such technology samples kinematic data at a high
391 frequency, enabling the assessments of jerk metrics (the time derivative of acceleration)
392 of the target body parts. Since fatigue may lead to poor motion control and movement
393 quality, increased jerk values during work may hypothetically indicate physical fatigue
394 (Zhang et al., 2019). Jerk metric has been used in clinical research to measure motor
395 control (Zhang et al., 2019). In particular, jerk has been used to: (a) differentiate
396 pathological and non-pathological movements (Hogan and Sternad, 2009;

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397 Balasubramanian et al., 2015); (b) assess motor learning and recovery
398 (Balasubramanian et al., 2011); (c) identify impaired motions (Lapinski, 2013); and (d)
399 assess performance output (Nelson, 1983; Seifert et al., 2014).

400 Multiple studies have evaluated the feasibility of using the jerk metric to detect and
401 monitor fatigue among healthy adults. Van Dieen et al. (1996) used an optoelectronic
402 system to evaluate the effect of repetitive lifting on joint coordination, loading, and jerk.
403 They revealed that only jerk metric in the lower back and lower extremity joints
404 significantly increased following repetitive lifting. This indicates that jerk metric is
405 sensitive to detect changes in post-fatigue movement patterns, which alters the
406 acceleration, torque and position of body parts. Zhang et al. (2013) used IMUs and
407 machine learning approach to classify normal and post-fatigue walking after a squat
408 exercise. They found that increased acceleration and jerk metric values of lower limbs
409 were associated with the characteristics of post-fatigue gait. Additionally, Maman et al.
410 (2017) used low-noise analogue accelerometers and generalized regression models to
411 detect physical fatigue during simulated manufacturing tasks. They found that features
412 associated with jerk and acceleration at the wrists and hips were better predictors of
413 physical fatigue than features associated with HR. However, only one experimental
414 study has evaluated the feasibility of using jerk metric to monitor physical fatigue

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415 among masonry workers (Zhang et al., 2019). The jerk metrics of 11 body parts (i.e.,
416 upper arms, forearms, hands, pelvis, thighs, and legs) were measured by wearable IMU
417 sensors. The results showed that the values of jerk metric at the beginning of the task
418 were significantly smaller than the corresponding metrics during a repetitive
419 bricklaying task, indicating physical fatigue (Zhang et al., 2019). Although these results
420 support the idea that the jerk metric can be a potential physiological parameter to
421 measure physical fatigue, further studies that quantify the relationship between jerk
422 metric and physical fatigue are warranted.

423 **Discussion**

424 The discussion section is divided into two subsections namely: wearable sensing
425 technologies for monitoring physiological metrics, and challenges for the application
426 of physiological metrics to assess real-time physical fatigue in construction workers.
427 The first subsection discusses features of different wearable sensing technologies for
428 monitoring physiological metrics. The second subsection includes four sub-subsections:
429 (1) limited validity of physiological metrics for physical fatigue assessments; (2) noise
430 and signal artifacts affecting wearable sensing technology in field measurements; (3)
431 unclear information regarding the cutoff value of each physiological metric for severe

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432 physical fatigue; and (4) user acceptance, social and privacy issues in deploying
433 wearable sensing technology.

434 **Wearable sensing technologies for monitoring physiological metrics**

435 A wide range of wearable sensing technologies are available to monitor real-time
436 physiological metrics. However, to obtain a widespread user acceptance in the
437 construction industry, these wearable technologies should be minimally intrusive and
438 fulfil several specific criteria (Dinges and Mallis, 1998). First, the technology should
439 be valid to measure what it is supposed to measure. Second, the technology should
440 provide reliable measurements over time. Third, the technology should have high
441 sensitivity and adequate specificity to detect a true positive case (e.g., physical fatigue)
442 and a true negative case (e.g., no fatigue). Finally, the technology should have the
443 generalization properties so that it can reliably measure the same outcome (e.g.,
444 physical fatigue) in the target population.

445 While some included studies in the current review did not specify a particular
446 construction trade (Abdelhamid and Everett, 2002; Aryal et al., 2017; Hsu et al., 2008;
447 Maiti, 2008; Li et al., 2009), other included studies examined HR in different types of
448 construction workers such as craft workers (Abdelhamid and Everett, 1999), masonry
449 workers (Anton et al., 2005; Das, 2014), road maintenance workers (Roja et al., 2006),

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450 carpenters (Bates and Schneider, 2008), manual laborers, high elevation construction
451 workers (Chang et al., 2009), rebar workers (Chan et al., 2012; Wong et al., 2014),
452 roofers (Lee et al., 2017), and cabin field machine operators (Jankovsky et al., 2018).
453 Some studies also examined HR in healthy individuals during simulated construction
454 tasks such as repetitive works and manual material handling task (Anwer et al., 2020;
455 Umer et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2019).

456 Mobile heart rate monitors are commonly used to monitor HR and HRV during
457 rest or physical activity. These monitors demonstrate very high validity in measuring
458 HR ($r = 0.95$ to 0.98) (Goodie et al. 2000; Terbizan et al. 2002) and HRV ($r = 0.75$ to
459 0.99) (Nunan et al. 2008; Giles et al. 2016; Tsitoglou et al. 2018; Hernando et al. 2018)
460 in healthy individuals. These monitors can assess the functioning of cardiovascular and
461 autonomic systems during and after physical activity. They can be used to monitor real-
462 time physical fatigue and the recovery from fatigue in workers who are involved in
463 physically demanding jobs in the construction industry. There are two types of HR
464 monitors, namely chest straps and optical HR monitors (measuring
465 photoplethysmography (PPG)). Both types of HR monitors are low-cost, commercially
466 available devices to measure real-time HR and HRV during free-living activities. Chest
467 straps include a long elastic band containing a small electrode pad that presses against

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468 the skin and a transmitter. The strap is worn around the chest with the electrodes picking
469 up the electrical signals from the heart, which are then transmitted to a transmitter
470 attached in the strap that contains a microprocessor to record and analyze the heart rate.
471 The processed data is then transmitted to a smartphone, a fitness watch, or a computer
472 for real time display or offline analysis. However, this type of device may impede
473 physical activity and is prone to slipping off. Therefore, PPG devices have been
474 developed as an alternative to monitor HR by using light to measure blood flow. A
475 typical PPG device contains a photo detector and several light-emitting diodes of
476 different wavelengths (e.g., red, infrared, and green). The photodetector captures the
477 light refracted off blood flowing through a body part (e.g., wrist, forehead, or ears) to
478 estimate the HR (Allen, 2007). PPG devices are designed to non-invasively collect the
479 volumetric changes of blood flow using low sampling rates (e.g., 64 – 125 Hz) (Ahn et
480 al., 2019). A previous study compared the HRs measured by a PPG device and an
481 electrocardiography (ECG) system in different construction workers including
482 electrician, as well as masonry and dry wall workers (Hwang et al., 2016). They found
483 high validity of using a PPG device to measure HR ($r = 0.85$ to 0.98). Another study
484 also reported high validity of a PPG device (as compared to ECG-based device) in
485 measuring HRV in healthy individuals ($r = 0.83$ to 0.95) (Arberet et al., 2013). Since

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486 PPG devices only use a single sensor and the location of sensor placement is very
487 convenient (e.g., wrist), they are suitable for HR monitoring. Various physiological
488 metrics (e.g., HR, HRV, skin temperature) can also be extracted from PPG signals to
489 assess physical fatigue in construction workers. However, since PPG sensors do not
490 measure cardiac activity directly, there is a delay in measuring cardiac activity using
491 PPG (Lu et al., 2009). Furthermore, PPG signals can be significantly affected by
492 multiple factors such as biological factors (blood content), sensing factors (sensor
493 geometry) and cardiovascular factors (e.g., arterial blood volume) (Lemay et al., 2014),
494 as well as motion artifacts (Mashhadi et al., 2015). Therefore, headband- or ear-type
495 PPG devices may be used to replace wristband-type PPG devices to monitor HR during
496 tasks that involve a lot of wrist movement. Researchers have also used noise-
497 cancellation algorithms based on HR data obtained from daily activities (e.g., running)
498 in a well-controlled laboratory to improve the accuracy of PPG-based HR monitoring
499 (Parak et al., 2014; Tamura et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015). Additionally, many PPG
500 devices have built-in data pre-processing algorithms to improve the accuracy of HR
501 monitoring during various intensive physical activities (Tamura et al., 2014). However,
502 further studies are warranted to examine the validity of using these methods to

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503 continuously monitor cardiovascular functioning in construction workers whose tasks
504 may involve excessive motion artifacts and high physical demands.

505 Additionally, some assessment tools (e.g., Zephyr BioharnessTM and Equivital
506 EQ02 LifeMonitor) use several wearable sensors together to assess biomechanical (e.g.,
507 acceleration) and physiological (e.g., skin temperature, HR, HRV, and breathing rate)
508 data during work tasks. However, only a few studies have evaluated the reliability and
509 validity of using these technologies in construction workers. The Zephyr BioharnessTM
510 is the most popular wearable sensor originally designed to optimize the performance of
511 professional athletes by continuously monitoring several physiological data to track
512 functional movements and workload (Pantelopoulos and Bourbakis, 2009; Li et al.,
513 2016). BioharnessTM is moderately reliable in measuring skin temperature (ICC = 0.61)
514 (Johnstone et al. 2012b). Some studies reported excellent reliability of using this device
515 to measure HR (ICC = 0.92 to 0.98) (Kim et al. 2013; Dolezal et al. 2014; Rawstorn et
516 al. 2015; Nazari et al. 2017) and breathing rate (ICC = 0.90) (Hailstone and Kilding,
517 2011). Conversely, Johnstone et al. (2012a) found good to excellent validity of using
518 BioharnessTM to measure HR but the breathing rate data showed more variability during
519 a walk-jog-run test protocol in healthy individuals. Similarly, the test-retest reliability
520 of the device showed excellent reliability for HR monitoring (intraclass correlation

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521 coefficient, ICC = 0.91), whereas the breathing rate data showed fair reliability (ICC =
522 0.46). The low reliability of Bioharness™ in measuring breathing rate may be attributed
523 to the higher variability in the breathing rate during high velocity activities (Johnstone
524 et al. 2012a). Lee et al. (2017) used Bioharness™ to measure HR and HRV in roofers
525 and found that HR and HRV data collected from roofers in a single day was not
526 sufficient to monitor the physical demands of these workers. They recommended using
527 the average HR in two days and average HRV in four days to better reflect the typical
528 workload of these workers at works. Collectively, Bioharness™ may have the potential
529 to monitor the real-time physiological status of construction workers but further
530 validation is needed before using it to modify workers' work intensity or to avoid
531 physical fatigue and fatigue related workplace accidents.

532 Likewise, the Equivital (EQ02) is marketed as a safe, wearable vest embedded
533 with textile-based electrodes to monitor real-time cardiorespiratory (e.g., HR, HRV,
534 breathing rate) and thermoregulatory (e.g., skin temperature) parameters. A previous
535 study compared the reliability and validity of using the EQ02 to measure HR, breathing
536 rate, and skin temperature during physical activities of different intensities (e.g., rest,
537 low- and moderate intensities) in healthy individuals with reference to respective
538 standard measurement devices (Liu et al. 2013). The EQ02 demonstrated excellent

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539 reliability and validity in measuring HR (ICC = 0.99; $r = 0.98$), breathing rate (ICC =
540 0.96; $r = 0.97$), and skin temperature (ICC = 0.97; $r = 0.96$). Compared to the
541 measurements of standard devices, the EQ02 only showed small mean differences in
542 the HR (1.2 beats/minute), breathing rate (0.2 rate/minute), and skin temperature (0.59
543 °C) during all tasks. Similarly, the EQ02 found very small mean differences in two
544 repeatedly measured HRs (-0.8 beats/minute), breathing rates (-0.2 rate/minute), and
545 skin temperatures (0.25 °C), indicating good test-retest reliability of the device.
546 Additionally, Akintola et al. (2016) compared the EQ02 with a Holter device for
547 continuous monitoring of HR and HRV in healthy individuals at home. They
548 demonstrated that the HR and HRV data measured by the EQ02 were highly correlated
549 with those measured by the Holter device ($r = 0.99$ and 0.78, respectively) when the
550 component of motion artifacts was small (20% or lower artifacts). The relative mean
551 absolute difference in HR between the EQ02 and the Holter device was small (1.5%)
552 when the motion artifacts was <20%. Interestingly, they found least active people
553 (based on the step counts taken during the study period) showed significantly lower
554 motion artifacts percentage (73.3% of the data had <20% artifacts) as compared to
555 moderately and highly active individuals (66.2% of the data had <20% artifacts). Since
556 the accuracy and precision of the EQ02 is highly affected by movement artifacts, the

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557 EQ02 may be inappropriate for monitoring workers' physiological status during
558 construction activities because they involve a lot of body movements.

559 Surface EMG is an easy, convenient, and reliable technology to assess local
560 muscle fatigue (Dedering et al., 2000; Koumantakis et al., 2001; Ali et al., 2001; Arnall
561 et al., 2002; Farina et al., 2003). The test-retest reliability of surface EMG in measuring
562 muscle fatigue ranged from 0.51 to 0.97 (intraclass correlation coefficients) (Dedering
563 et al. 2000; Koumantakis et al. 2001; Ali et al., 2001; Arnall et al. 2002). EMG sensors
564 comprise bipolar surface electrodes attached to specific muscle masses to capture the
565 myoelectrical activity of target muscles. The EMG signals often produce two
566 standardized EMG metrics namely time-domain metrics (e.g., mean absolute value,
567 compression normalization, root-mean-square normalization) (Anton et al., 2001; Trask
568 et al., 2007, 2010) and frequency domain metrics (e.g., mean frequency, median
569 frequency, and power spectrum density) (Jebelli and Lee, 2019). Previous studies have
570 attached EMG sensors to workers' different body parts (neck, shoulders, forearm, back)
571 during masonry tasks (Anton et al., 2005), lifting activities (Anton et al., 2005;
572 Nimbarte et al., 2010), or overhead activities (Anton et al., 2001; Jia et al., 2011) to
573 measure muscle fatigue. Although surface EMG measurements appear to suit the non-
574 invasive monitoring of muscle fatigue during construction tasks, surface electrodes

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575 should be attached to the target muscle, which may interfere with construction workers'
576 work. Furthermore, EMG signals can be easily compromised by the quality of skin
577 preparation, sweating, ambient temperature, and movement artifacts. Therefore, its
578 application in the field is limited and needs further research/refinement.

579 An IMU-based motion capture system is a noninvasive, wireless, and effective
580 technology designed to measure body motion and jerk during movement. This system
581 comprises 17 IMU sensors, each includes a three-axis magnetometer, three-axis
582 accelerometer, and three-axis gyroscopes to detect velocity, acceleration, and body
583 orientation. They can provide a high-frequency sampling rate to assess a jerk metric.
584 Akin to surface EMG measurements, motion sensors need to be attached or put onto
585 the target body parts to measure body kinematics. However, commercially available
586 sensors are quite expensive, and the wearing of such sensors may interfere with
587 construction workers' performance. Therefore, lighter and more affordable sensors are
588 needed to assess jerk metrics and physical fatigue in the field. Additionally, the
589 reliability and validity of IMU for jerk measurement have not been reported. Future
590 studies should examine the reliability and validity of the jerk metrics in assessing
591 physical fatigue during certain construction tasks.

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592 **Challenges for the applications of physiological metrics for real-time physical**

593 **fatigue assessment during construction tasks**

594 Although various physiological metrics (such as HR, HRV, skin temperature, EMG, and
595 jerk metrics) may be used to estimate physical fatigue during construction tasks, there
596 are some challenges in using wearable sensing technologies to monitor physiological
597 metrics for the real-time physical fatigue assessments.

598 *Limited validity of physiological metrics for physical fatigue assessments*

599 While preliminary results of applying physiological metrics to assess physical fatigue
600 are promising, only limited studies have directly examined the relationship between
601 changes in physiological metrics and physical fatigue in construction workers. To the
602 best of our knowledge, no study has evaluated the use of physiological sensors in
603 assessing fatigue in a large sample of construction workers over a prolonged period
604 (e.g., a few days or weeks). Furthermore, no study has validated the use of physiological
605 metrics against the gold standard physical fatigue assessment (i.e., blood lactate level).
606 That said, a few studies have suggested that the combined physiological metrics can
607 predict fatigue level with a higher accuracy as compared to a single metric. Additionally,
608 certain physiological metrics (e.g., HR, HRV, skin temperature) have the face validity
609 to evaluate generalized physical fatigue, while others (e.g., EMG and jerk metrics) are

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610 more suitable to assess localized muscle fatigue.

611 *Noise and signal artifacts affecting wearable sensing technology in field*

612 *measurements*

613 While physiological metrics are better than the traditional questionnaire approach to

614 monitor physical fatigue without impeding workers' ongoing activities, it is challenging

615 to apply wearable sensing technologies to monitor physiological metrics at construction

616 sites. The accuracy and function of the wearable sensing technology in monitoring

617 physiological metrics can be influenced by multiple factors (Jebelli et al., 2018a; Ahn

618 et al., 2019). Any undesirable signals or signals that obstruct the target signals are

619 known as signal artifacts (De Luca et al., 2010). There are two types of physiological

620 signal artifacts: intrinsic and extrinsic, and both may interfere with the target signals

621 (Ahn et al., 2019). While intrinsic signal artifacts are originated from the body, such as

622 respiration, pulse, skin, motion, muscles, and ocular artifacts, extrinsic signal artifacts

623 are usually generated from external sources such as environmental noise and workers'

624 movements (Ahn et al., 2019), motion artifacts, device power-line interference,

625 electrode movement artifacts, and sensor deployment and placement (Jebelli et al.,

626 2018a). Unlike collecting physiological metrics in a well-controlled laboratory setting

627 with minimal environmental noise, data collection of these metrics at construction sites

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628 needs to face frequent workers' movements and the ever-changing construction
629 environment. Therefore, wearable sensing technology in construction sites should be
630 refined to improve the data collection of physiological metrics for physical fatigue
631 assessments.

632 Since both extrinsic and intrinsic signal artifacts may conceal desirable signals, it
633 is recommended to remove or reduce those signal artifacts before signal processing
634 (Ahn et al., 2019). Many filtering methods have been developed to minimize these
635 signal artifacts (Iriarte et al., 2003; Manoilov, 2006; Ram et al., 2012; Daly et al., 2013).
636 For instance, previous research used a wavelength shrinkage method to minimize the
637 mixed noise recorded from the wearable sensing device (Kang et al., 2017). Similarly,
638 Gibbs and Asada (2005) developed an active noise cancellation method to minimize
639 signal artifacts originated from body movement during data collection using a wearable
640 PPG sensing technology. However, these techniques may be inadequate to apply in
641 construction sites due to the significantly higher signal artifacts in the field.

642 Accordingly, signal processing methods are suggested to eliminate both extrinsic
643 and intrinsic signal artifacts recorded from wearable sensors in construction sites
644 (Jebelli et al., 2018b). Jebelli et al. (2018b) used filtering methods (including band-pass
645 filter, low-pass filter, and notch filter) to reduce the signal artifacts obtained from

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646 external sources (e.g., body movement, electrode movement artifacts, etc.). They also
647 used an independent component analysis method to identify and minimize internal
648 signal artifacts (e.g., vertical eye movement, eye blinking, and muscular movement)
649 during recording with PPG wristband-type sensing technology. Although the results of
650 these methods are promising, future studies should evaluate the quality and type of
651 signals obtained from wearable sensing technology under various conditions at the
652 construction sites so as to understand various forms or sources of artifacts, and to
653 remove and minimize these noises from the captured signals (Ahn et al., 2019).

654 ***Lack of information regarding the cutoff value of each physiological metric for***
655 ***severe physical fatigue***

656 Another major challenge of applying physiological metrics to assess physical fatigue
657 during construction tasks is the lack of information regarding the cutoff value of each
658 physiological metric for severe physical fatigue. While it is thought that people
659 experience physical fatigue for a prolonged period may cause specific physical
660 symptoms and increases the risk of musculoskeletal disorders and work-related injuries,
661 little is known regarding the cutoff values for various physiological signals to indicate
662 extreme fatigue. This is one of the most important challenges when analyzing the
663 outcomes of physiological metrics obtained from the wearable sensing technology

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664 because each individual has specific fatigue response when doing different tasks in
665 different environments. Therefore, it is important to determine the task-specific cutoff
666 value for each physiological metric value in individual, above which would indicate
667 severe unsafe fatigue.

668 *User acceptance, social and privacy issues in deploying wearable sensing*
669 *technology*

670 User acceptance in wearing these sensors in terms of comfort level, privacy issues,
671 expected effort for don and doff, usefulness, and willingness to use have become
672 important considerations when applying and deploying wearable sensing technologies
673 at construction sites. A previous study indicated that only about 10% of construction
674 workers were using wearable sensing technology, although more than 90% of workers
675 used smartphones (Zack, 2016). Various models of technology acceptance, such as the
676 use of technology and unified theory of acceptance (Venkatesh et al., 2003), and the
677 technology acceptance model (Davis et al., 1989) have been proposed and examined in
678 different fields. Based on these models, various practical models such as web-based
679 training (Park et al., 2012), project management information system (Lee and Yu, 2012),
680 building information modeling (Son et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013), and mobile
681 computing (Son et al., 2012) have been developed by construction researchers to assess

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682 factors affecting the acceptance of technology by users. Future studies should adapt
683 these models to evaluate the best approach to improve the acceptance of using wearable
684 sensors to measure physical fatigue in construction workers.

685 Another pragmatic issue that can affect the uptake of wearable technology for
686 fatigue monitoring in the construction field is data security. In order to protect the
687 health-related information collected from wearable sensors, all communication
688 between sensors and servers should be encrypted to prevent the loss of user's privacy
689 and data (Jovanov et al., 2005). Since wearable sensing technologies are susceptible to
690 data breaching and security risk, robust security measures should be in place to protect
691 against cyberattacks that can destroy or steal personal data (Awolusi et al., 2018). In
692 short, the wearable sensing technology should be minimally invasive, and equipped
693 with the highest possible security and safety for construction industrial use (Cheng et
694 al., 2011).

695 **Future research directions**

696 While the included studies have shown that different physiological metrics (i.e., HR,
697 HRV, skin temperature, EMG activity, and jerk metrics) have the potential to objectively
698 detect physical fatigue during construction tasks, further research is warranted to
699 improve the application and development of wearable sensing technology to measure

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700 physiological metrics for real-time physical fatigue monitoring in construction workers.

701 The following sections discuss various potential future research directions.

702 ***Reliability and validity of wearable sensing technologies for collecting physiological***
703 ***metrics in construction workers***

704 Previous studies only investigated the reliability and validity of using wearable sensing

705 technologies to monitor physiological metrics for physical fatigue assessments in a

706 small number of participants in laboratories. They failed to validate the fatigue findings

707 obtained from wearable sensing technologies with the gold standard method (blood

708 lactate concentration). Future field research should compare physical fatigue results as

709 measured by wearable sensing technology with the corresponding blood lactate

710 concentration. Additionally, further research is warranted to quantify the associations

711 between changes in these physiological metrics and corresponding changes in fatigue

712 levels during various construction tasks. Since many of these physiological parameters

713 can be affected by multiple factors (e.g., surrounding temperature, weight, age), future

714 research should derive relevant fatigue prediction models for each parameter after

715 considering different potential confounding variables. Specifically, different cutoff

716 values for each physiological metric should be determined to help distinguish different

717 physical fatigue levels. For example, the maximum acceptable value of each

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718 physiological metric should be determined in order to ensure workers work safely
719 without fatigue for each construction activity. Given inter-individual variations in
720 physiological responses to tasks, people may show different physiological metric values
721 for the same level of perceived exertion. For example, Umer et al. (2020) found that for
722 a perceived exertion level of 14 out of 20 (measured by Borg RPE 20-scale),
723 participants' heart rates ranged from 87 to 132 beats per minute. The authors
724 hypothesized that biochemical markers for fatigue (e.g., blood lactate levels) might be
725 very closely related to the threshold values of certain psychometric metrics although
726 this hypothesis should be tested in future research.

727 *Integration of two or more wearable sensing technologies*

728 The applications of wearable sensing technologies in real construction environments
729 are often affected by noise and signal artifacts. While many filtering methods have been
730 proposed to minimize these signal artifacts, combining information from two or more
731 technologies would negate the impacts of signal noise, and improve the accuracy of
732 fatigue measurements. Fusion of sensors has already been practiced in medical research
733 to eliminate motion-related signal artifacts in physiological data recorded by wearable
734 sensing technology (Ahn et al., 2019). Specifically, IMUs sensors were used to measure
735 physical movements to negate movement-related signal artifacts in physiological

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736 sensor data. A previous study used IMU data to adjust for signal artifacts originated
737 from gait-related body movements in EEG analyses (Kline et al. 2015). The same
738 principle can be applied to wearable sensor technologies to eliminate movement
739 artifacts collected from physiological sensors. Future studies can determine the signal-
740 to-artifacts/noise ratio as well as artifacts/noise spectrums in different physiological
741 metrics during various construction tasks so as to refine the estimation of task-specific
742 physical fatigue.

743 ***Development of personalized wearable warning-based technologies for mitigating***
744 ***workers' physical fatigue***

745 Previous studies have suggested that the application of warning-based sensing
746 technologies can minimize the risk of fatal and nonfatal occupational accidents at
747 construction sites (Heng et al., 2016; Yi et al., 2016). Yi et al. (2016) designed a mobile
748 communication warning-based system using environmental sensors to warn workers at
749 risk of heat stress during hot and humid environments. Similar future studies should
750 develop a personalized wearable warning-based technology to monitor real-time
751 fatigue levels using automatically collected physiological metrics. This technology may
752 also be used by construction site managers to monitor workers who are at risk of
753 excessive physical fatigue or recovering from physical fatigue at work.

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754 *Evaluation of user acceptance and privacy issues of using wearable sensing*

755 *technologies for collecting physiological metrics*

756 User acceptance and privacy issues affect the adoption of wearable sensing technology
757 for monitoring physical fatigue-related physiological metrics. Recently, Choi et al.
758 (2017) reported that privacy issues, usefulness, and social impact are the commonest
759 factors affecting construction workers' acceptance of smart vest and wristband based
760 wearable sensing technologies. Although this study provided some theoretical
761 frameworks regarding the acceptance of wearable sensing technology in the
762 construction industry, the relationship between various features of wearable sensing
763 technology (e.g., design and function), context of use (e.g., monitoring) and impacts on
764 user acceptance remains unknown. Future studies should evaluate the best method to
765 promote usage of wearable sensing technology for fatigue monitoring in construction
766 workers. Specific scales (e.g., a visual analogue scale) can be developed to assess user
767 acceptance of using the wearable sensing technologies based on their comfort level,
768 social and privacy issues, perceived efforts for don and doff, and perceived usefulness.

769 **Conclusions**

770 The current review summarized the state-of-the-art of physiological metrics for the real-
771 time measurement of construction workers' physical fatigue. This review used
772 systematic search methods to solicit relevant data, and to critically appraise the

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773 application of physiological metrics in measuring physical fatigue in construction
774 workers. Several physiological metrics have the potential for real-time measurement of
775 physical fatigue in construction workers. While the HR metric is the most commonly
776 used physiological metric to measure fatigue during construction works, other
777 physiological metrics (skin temperature, EMG, HRV, and jerk metrics) can also
778 evaluate fatigue. The current review highlights that using multiple physiological
779 metrics are more accurate than using a single metric in monitoring physical fatigue
780 during construction tasks. Various wearable sensing technologies have been developed
781 to measure these physiological metrics, but many technical challenges (e.g., limited
782 validity, noise and signal artifacts, lack of cutoff value for fatigue, user acceptance, and
783 social and privacy issues) remain to be overcome before these physiological metrics
784 can be adopted to assess real-time physical fatigue. As such, it is important to compare
785 the fatigue findings measured by wearable sensing technologies with that by the gold
786 standard blood test to refine the fatigue prediction. Since multiple intrinsic and extrinsic
787 artifacts may lower the accuracy of wearable sensing technologies in assessing real-
788 time fatigue, it is paramount to improve the data processing approach in order to
789 minimize errors. Future studies should also quantify the signal-to-artifacts/noise ratio,
790 as well as artifacts/noise spectrums in different physiological metrics during various
791 construction tasks so as to refine the estimation of task-specific physical fatigue.
792 Collectively, a better real-time detection of construction workers' physical fatigue can
793 help design appropriate personalized work-rest schedules, or proper work task
794 adaptations to mitigate their health hazards and optimize their productivity and work
795 quality.

796

797 **Acknowledgements**

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798 The authors are thankful for the financial support of the following two grants from
799 Research Grants Council of Hong Kong. 1) “Proactive monitoring of work-related
800 MSD risk factors and fall risks of construction workers using wearable insoles”
801 (PolyU 152099/18E); and 2) In search of a suitable tool for proactive physical fatigue
802 assessment: an invasive to noninvasive approach. (PolyU 15204719/18E).

803

804 **Declaration of interest:** None

805

806 **Data Availability:** All data, models, and codes generated or used during the study
807 appear in the submitted article.

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808 Figure Legend

809 Fig 1. Study selection process and results of the literature search

810 Fig 2. Number of citations for each physiological measure (HR, Heart rate; HRV,

811 Heart rate variability; ST, Skin temperature; EMG, Electromyography)

812

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Table 1: Search strategy

Keywords (25-07-2020)	Web of Science	PubMed	Medline	CINAHL Complete	EMBASE
Fatigue OR Exertion OR Tiredness OR physical effort OR muscle fatigue OR Physical fatigue	275,734	173800	167,660	49,576	586,726
Heart rate OR heart rate variability OR thermoregulation OR skin temperature OR electrocardiogram OR respiration frequency OR breathing frequency OR core body temperature OR electromyography OR muscle activity OR Jerk OR physiological measures	399,341	707351	449,290	75,300	1,293,271
Construction workers OR Construction industry OR Construction trade OR Construction sector OR Industrial Construction OR Construction	647,715	133672	136,655	39,324	143,199
Combined	72	60	56	22	114
Total after duplication removed			164		

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Table 2: Characteristics and findings of included studies

Authors	Country	Study design	Sample size	Participants	Physical tasks	Physiological metrics (Objective fatigue measures)	Subjective fatigue assessment	Instrumentation used	Results	Conclusions
Abdelhamid and Everett, 1999	USA	Cross-sectional study Laboratory study (task simulation)	N = 8 Age: Mean 30.7 ±5.39 years	Construction craft workers	Concrete slab placing and finishing work	HR (bpm)	Questionnaire	POLAR Vantage XL heart rate monitor (Polar Electro Oy, Kempele, Finland)	An increase in HR was followed by an increase in VO ₂ during works. Similarly, a decrease in HR was followed by decrease in VO ₂ during rest period.	Most of the workers experienced physical fatigue during tasks as reflected by increased HR.
Abdelhamid and Everett, 2002	USA	Cross-sectional study Field study	N = 100 Age: Average	Construction workers (12 trades)	Multiple construction tasks	HR (bpm)	Questionnaire	POLAR Vantage XL heart rate monitor (Polar Electro Oy, Kempele,	Mean HR values indicated that about 45% of construction workers were	20 to 40% of craft workers routinely worked at a level exceed the thresholds of

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			36.7 years					Finland)	performing heavy to extremely heavy work. Peak HR values indicated that about 63% of construction workers were performing heavy to extremely heavy work.	physiological loads for manual work as measured by HR. These workers were vulnerable for physical fatigue.
Anton et al., 2005	USA	Cross- sectional study Laborator y study (task simulation)	N = 21 Age: Mean 33.5 ±10.4 years	Apprentice- level, Masonry workers Mean age = 33.5 Years	Construc tion of concrete block walls	HR (bpm) Surface EMG (Root mean square amplitude)	None	Polar S720i heart rate monitors Surface EMG (EMG-67, Therapeutics Unlimited, Iowa City, IA, USA)	The mean maximum HR was 117 (SD 11.5) bpm for light-weight concrete blocks and 119 (SD 12.3) bpm for standard-weight blocks (p =	Laying of light- weight concrete blocks caused lower EMG amplitudes compared to standard-weight blocks. However, there were no significant

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									0.58). A significant difference in the changes of EMG activity was noted while laying of light-weight concrete blocks and standard-weight blocks (p = 0.01).	differences in HR noted between laying the two types of blocks.
Roja et al., 2006	Latvia	Cross-sectional study Field study	N = 20 Age: Mean 35 ± 4 years	Road maintenance workers	sand layer construction cycle chipping layer construction cycle asphalt layer	HR (bpm)	Borg scale (6 – 20)	Polar S810 Heart Rate Monitor (Polar Electro Inc., Woodbury, NY, USA)	Fatigue in workers as indicated by increased HR during road construction and repairing works.	This study concluded that a complex ergonomic analysis comprising of HR monitoring is adequate to evaluate work fatigue during

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					construct ion cycle					these construction tasks.
Bates and Schneider, 2008	UAE	Longitudi nal observatio nal study Field study	N = 22 Age: not report ed	Carpenters steel fixers general laborers	construct ion of a large concrete water feature	HR (bpm) Aural temperatur e (degree centigrade)	None	Polar S720i heart rate monitors Tympanic thermometers	Changes in HR was statistically non-significant during 3 days of construction works. Aural temperature of the workers was remained unchanged during 3 days of construction works.	Since construction tasks did not cause any adverse physiological effects, workers did not have fatigue to show significant changes in HR or body temperature.
Hsu et al., 2008	Taiwan	Longitudi nal observatio nal study Field	N = 80 Age: Mean 39.3 ±	Constructio n workers	Construc tion of high-rise building	HR (bpm)	Research Committee on Industrial Fatigue scale	Wrist blood pressure meter (Terumo, Model ES-P2000, Japan)	Worker's HR increased by 9 to 14% after construction work.	High-rise building construction work is physically demanding. Workers are prone to develop fatigue

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		study	12.02 years							as indicated by increased HR during construction tasks.
Maiti, 2008	India	Observational study Field study	N = 20 Age: 28 – 32 years	Construction workers	Multiple manual tasks	HR (bpm)	None	Pacer heart rate monitor (Polar Sport Tester TM, Polar Electro Oy, Finland)	Average working HR of workers were 124.1 bpm. The working HR was significantly correlated with the resting time.	Higher workload as measured by HR in building construction industry may cause unsafe working condition for construction workers.
Chang et al., 2009	Taiwan	Cross-sectional study Field study	N = 302 Age: Mean 38.2 ± 8.9 years	High-elevation construction workers	Construction of high-rise building	HR (bpm)	Questionnaire	Polar Vantage NV Heart rate monitor (Sark Production, MA)	The baseline HR of the workers were not associated with the occupations and the average HR in each occupation	The extent of fatigue varies among different occupations of construction workers as indicated by HR.

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									ranged between 73 and 77 bpm. The average changes in HR was 112.4 bpm for all workers.	
Li et al., 2009	Taiwan	Experimental study Laboratory study	N = 8 Age: Mean 25.3 ± 4.3 years	Construction workers	Box handling task	HR (bpm)	Borg scale (6 – 20)	POLAR Vantage XL heart rate monitor (Polar Electro Oy, Kempele, Finland)	The average HR was higher during tasks performed at the frequency of twice per minute than that of once per minute (111.3 vs 97.0 bpm). HR (r=0.49) was associated with physical fatigue as measured by RPE.	Both frequency and height variables of construction tasks significantly impact worker's physiological response on whole body fatigue as indicated by increased HR during box handling task.
Chan et al.,	Hong	Experimental	N =	Rebar	fixing	HR (bpm)	Borg CR10	POLAR Vantage	The resting HR	Fatigue was

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2012	Kong	tal study Field study	19 Age: Mean 45 ± 8.3 years	workers and bending steel reinforce ment bars	Temperatu re (degree centigrade)	Scale	XL heart rate monitor (Polar Electro Oy, Kempele, Finland) Infrared tympanic electronic thermometer (Genius TM2, COVIDIEN, USA)	was decreased slightly at the beginning and remained stable. The HR increased gradually at the time of rebar work. The average HR of the participants increased by 40 bpm. Core temperature was rapidly increased at the beginning of 35 minutes of rebar works. After 35 minutes of rebar, core temperature of most	accompanied by increased HR during rebar work. Additionally, rapid increase of core temperature was seen at the beginning of fatigue and then temperature was reduced and maintained at a stable condition.
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									participants was decreased and remained stable.	
Das, 2014	India	Cross-sectional study Field study	N = 220 Age: Mean 33.5 ±6.2 years	Construction workers	brick field works	HR (bpm)	None	Manual	The participants HR rose to > 100 bpm. The average HR of brick field workers was 148.6 bpm after the construction tasks.	Brick field workers had severe physiological stress as indicated by increased HR.
Wong et al., 2014	Hong Kong	Experimental study Field study	N = 39 Age: Mean 42.2 ±10.9 years	Rebar workers	Bar bending and bar fixing task	HR (bpm)	Borg CR10 Scale	POLAR heart rate monitor (Polar Electro Oy, Kempele, Finland)	Bar fixing task induced significantly higher HR (113.6 vs. 102.3 bpm), than bar bending task.	HR metric can be used to assess physical fatigue during rebar working.
McDonald et al., 2016	Canada	Cross-sectional study	N = 12 Age:	University students	Simulated repetitive	Surface EMG (Root	Borg scale (6 – 20)	Surface EMG (Trigno, Delsys Inc., Natick, MA,	Surface EMG signals revealed decrease median	Participants showed sign of muscle fatigue as

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			20–24 years		work	mean square amplitude and median frequency)		USA)	frequency and increase root mean square amplitude following repetitive work.	indicated by decrease median frequency and increase root mean square amplitude signal of surface EMG during work.
Calvin et al., 2016	Canada	Cross- sectional study Laborator y study (task simulation)	N = 12 Age: 20–24 years	University students	Simulate d repetitive work	Surface EMG (Root mean square amplitude and median frequency)	Borg CR-10 scale	Surface EMG (Trigno, Delsys Inc., Natick, MA, USA)	Signs of muscle fatigue (i.e. increased EMG amplitude, decreased EMG frequency) in anterior deltoid muscle following simulated repetitive work (pulling, pushing, and drilling works)	Although the results of this study identified muscle fatigue due to repetitive works, participants were able to complete post-fatigue tasks by adaptation of muscle recruitment.

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									were noted in the affected muscles.	
Aryal et al., 2017	USA	Experimental study	N = 12 Age: Mean 43.8 ±15.2 years	Construction workers	Simulated material handling task	HR (bpm) Skin temperature (degree centigrade)	Borg's RPE scale (6 – 20)	Wrist band (Garmin vivofit) Non-contact infrared temperature sensors (MLX90614)	An increase in the HR during simulated material handling task, and reduced HR during rest time. Skin temperature increased during physical activity.	Physical fatigue can be identified by assessing physiological measures including HR and skin temperature.
Lee et al., 2017	USA	Reliability study	N = 6 Age: Mean 33.5 ±7.12 years	Construction workers	Roofing activities	HR (bpm) HRV (milliseconds) Energy expenditure (kcal/min)	Questionnaire	Zephyr Bioharness™ sensors (Medtronic, Dublin, Ireland) ActiGraph GT9X unit (ActiGraph, LLC., Pensacola,	Significant differences in HR, HRV, and energy expenditure were noted during construction	Participants showed significantly increased HR, HRV, and energy expenditure during 5 days of roofing works.

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								Florida)	activities.	
Mehta et al., 2017	USA	Observational study Field study	N = 10 Age: Mean 31.3 ± 6.1 years	Oil and gas extraction (OGE) industry workers	offshore shiftwork	HR (bpm) Skin temperature (degree centigrade)	The Swedish Occupation Fatigue Inventory (SOFI)	EQ02 LifeMonitor, Equivital™, Cambridge, UK	Average HR increased for all workers and remained high at the end of works.	Physiological measures highlighted the negative effects of shiftwork on HR responses. However, lack of correlation was noted between subjective fatigue perceptions and physiological responses.
Tsai, 2017	Taiwan	Experimental study Field study	N = 20 Age: 25 -32 years	Construction workers	Multiple construction tasks	HRV (milliseconds)	Perceived fatigue	Photo Plethysmography-based wearable device (Garmin, 2016)	Physiological status monitoring of workers using HRV identified more fatigue risk than manual inspection.	Assessment of HRV is a useful approach to evaluate real-time fatigue during construction tasks.

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Jankovský et al., 2018	Czech Republic	Observational study Field study	N = 5 Age: Mean 42.8 ±8.8 years	Cabin field machines operators	Operating field machine	HR (bpm)	None	Biofeedback 2000 expert device	The average working HR of the machine operators was 91 bpm, and their resting HR was 66 bpm. The average HR of the operators was 90 bpm at the beginning of the shift, while it was 86 bpm in the middle of the shift, and it was 100 bpm at the end of the shift.	The elevated HR during operating field machine depends on various factors including type of machine, part of shift (middle), and height and weight of operators.
Yin et al., 2019	China	Experimental study Laboratory study	N = 12 Age:	Healthy individuals	repetitive lifting task	HR (bpm) Surface EMG (Root	Borg's RPE 6–20 scale	Digital heart rate monitor (PC-80D, China) Surface EMG	The average post-testing HR was higher than that of pre-	Increased HR and EMG amplitude of erector spinae muscle suggests

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			Mean 26.4 ± 5.1 years			mean square amplitude and median frequency)		(ME6000-8, Bittium Inc., Kuopio, Finland)	testing HR. Post-testing EMG amplitude of erector spinae muscle was higher than the pre-testing value.	physical fatigue during repetitive lifting task.
Zhang et al., 2019	Canada	Experimen tal pilot study Laborator y study	N = 32 Age: Mean 26.7 ± 3.1 years	Masonry workers	Bricklayi ng task	Jerk metric (g/sec - time- derivative of the acceleratio n magnitude)	None	A wearable IMU- based motion capture suit, Noitom Perception Neuron	Differences of jerk metric could be used to differentiate fatigue and non- fatigue states.	Jerk is an indicator of physical fatigue during a bricklaying task.
Anwer et al., 2020	Hong Kong	Experimen tal study Laborator y study	N = 25 Age: 31.8	Healthy individuals	Simulate d manual material handling	HR (bpm) Skin temperatur e (degree	Borg's RPE 6–20 scale	EQ02 LifeMonitor, Equivital™, Cambridge, UK	Mean HR was increased from 70.2 BPM at baseline to	The results of this study suggest the use of HR and skin temperature

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± 1.8
years

task
centigrade
)

120.2 BPM after
30 minutes of
simulated
fatigue task.
to assess physical
fatigue during a
simulated
construction task.
Local skin
temperature was
increased from
31.5°C at
baseline to 34.9
°C after 30
minutes of
simulated
fatigue task.
There were
significant
correlations
found between
HR or skin
temperature and
the
corresponding
Borg scores at
the end of

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									simulated fatigue task.	
Umer et al., 2020	Hong Kong	Experimen tal study Laborator y study	N = 10 Age: Mean 27.5 ±2.76 years	Healthy individuals	Simulate d manual material handling task	HR (bpm) Skin temperatur e (degree centigrade)	Borg's RPE scale (6 – 20)	EQ02 LifeMonitor, Equivital™, Cambridge, UK	Combined HR and skin temperature metrics can predict fatigue levels with a higher accuracy (95%). However, the accuracy dropped to 57% for individual metric for fatigue prediction.	This study concluded the advantage of using multiple physiological metrics to measure physical fatigue in construction workers.

HR: Heart rate; bpm: beat-per-minute; HRV: Heart rate variability; SD; Standard deviation; EMG: Electromyography; RPE: Rating of perceived exertion; N: Number

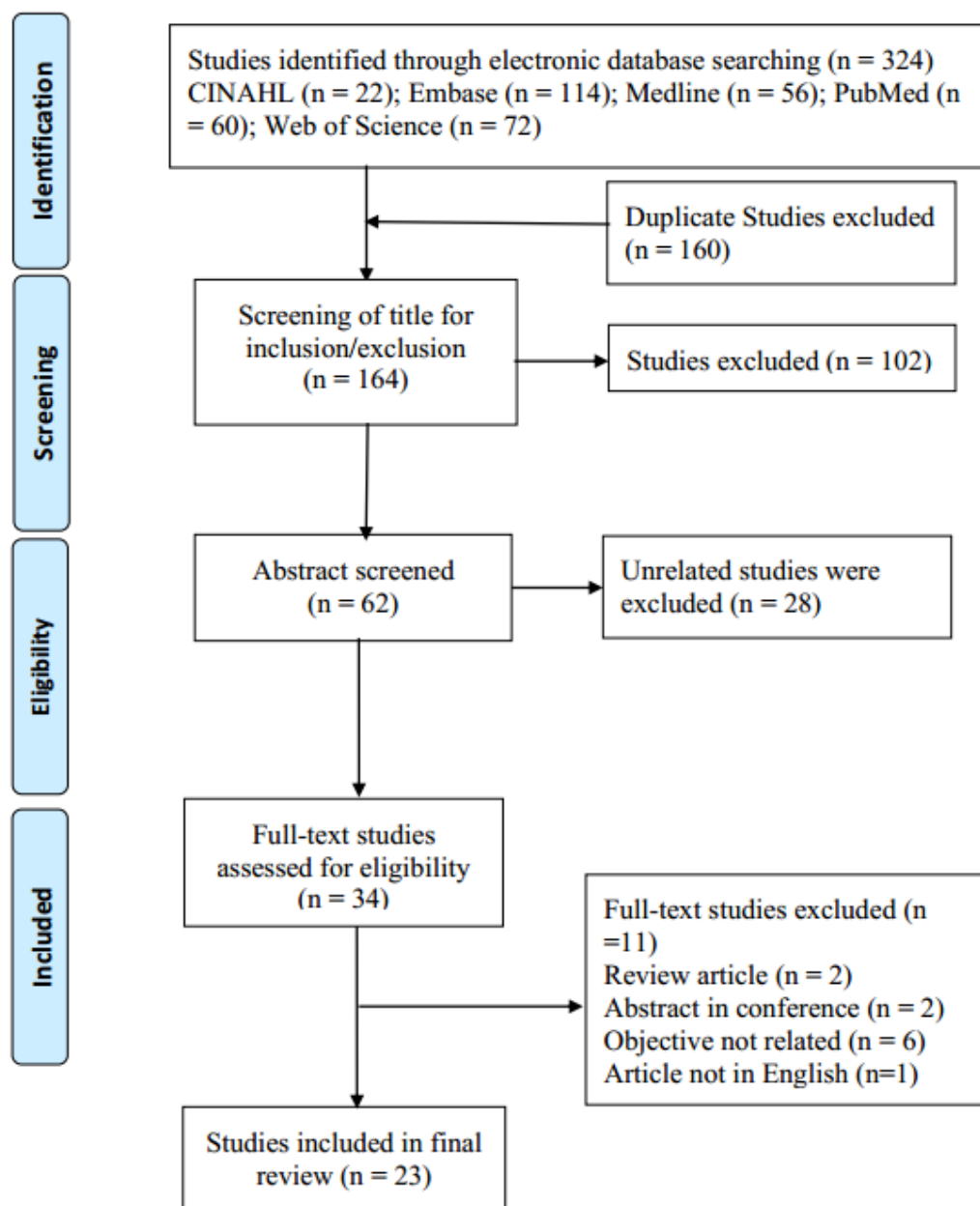


Fig. 1. Study selection process and results of the literature search.

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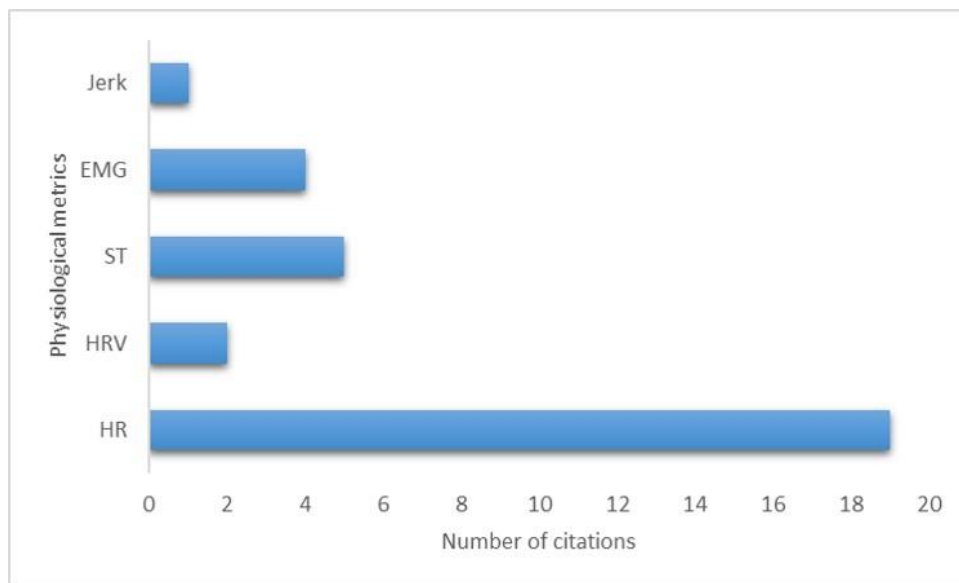


Fig. 2. Number of citations for each physiological measure (HR = heart rate, HRV = heart-rate variability, ST= skin temperature, and EMG = electromyography)