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5 **Eye-Tracking Experimental Study to Investigating the Influence Factors of** 6 **Construction Safety Hazard Recognition**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Construction site accidents could be reduced if hazards leading to accidents are correctly
10 and promptly detected by employees. The proactive safety measures such as safety
11 perceptions and safety detection capability of employees play an important role in improving
12 the safety performance. This study was initiated by three research questions related to: (1) the
13 measurement indicators of employees’ cognitive load in recognizing safety hazards; (2) site
14 condition factors (e.g., brightness) that could affect subjects’ cognitive load; and (3) the
15 quantification of the effects of these site factors on cognitive load. An eye-tracking
16 experimental approach was adopted by recruiting a total of 55 students from construction
17 management or other civil engineering disciplines to visually search hazards in 20 given site
18 scenes. These site scenes were defined by a combination of three different categories, namely
19 distinctiveness of hazards, site brightness, and tidiness. Quantitative measurements of
20 experimental participants’ visual search patterns were obtained from data captured by the

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21 eye-tracking apparatus. Based on metrics related to experimental participants' fixation, visual
22 search track, and attention map, these measurements were computed to evaluate participants'
23 cognitive load in detecting hazards. Descriptive statistical comparisons were performed to
24 analyze these metrics under pre-defined categories of site conditions, i.e., distinctness versus
25 obscurity/blur, brightness versus darkness, and tidiness versus mess. The findings revealed
26 that: distinct site conditions reduced participants' time in saccades to search hazards but did
27 not improve the accuracy rate of first fixation; messy sites with dis-organized items increased
28 participants' cognitive load in detecting hazards in terms of all five measurement items (i.e.,
29 accuracy rate of first fixation, fixation count, intersection coefficient, fixation duration, and
30 fixation count in the attention center); the effect of increased brightness on-site was a
31 double-edged sword which needed further studies on the optimal balance of brightness level
32 and allocation. Recommendations based on the findings were provided to enhance safety
33 education in terms of site hazard distinctiveness, brightness, and housekeeping best practice.
34 This study extended a few prior studies in adopting the eye-tracking technology for safety
35 monitoring by evaluating the impacts of site conditions on participants' cognitive load which
36 was linked to their hazard detection performance. The current study provided insights for
37 evaluating construction employees' hazard detection capabilities to enhance safety education.
38 Future work was proposed in evaluating employees' safety hazard detection pattern under
39 dynamic construction scenarios.

40 **Keywords:** eye-tracking; construction safety; safety education; hazard detection; cognitive
41 load

42 **Introduction**

43 Human errors are the main causal factor that contributes to up to 80% of all accidents
44 across industries (Garrett and Teizer, 2009). In the construction industry, one of the major
45 human factors affecting employees' safety performance is the failure to perceive critical

46 factors in a given environment in order to make correct predictions or decisions (Endsley,
47 1995). Construction is recognized as one of the most risky industries with high injuries or
48 accidents (Sunindijo and Zou, 2012). Safety education is critical to promote safe and healthy
49 construction work environments (Pedro et al., 2016). A better understanding of human
50 factors' effects in construction safety performance could enhance existing safety education,
51 and further improve site safety performance. Failure to detect hazards, or attention failure is
52 one of the major causes of construction accidents (Li et al., 2019). Prevention of construction
53 employees' attention failure plays an important role to enhance site safety. Existing
54 measurements of construction employees' hazard detection performance or other safety
55 accountability using the questionnaire survey approach (e.g., Han et al., 2019b) could be
56 prone to subjectivity. So far, limited investigation has been conducted using a more objective
57 approach to test employees' hazard detection performance, as well as relevant influence
58 factors, e.g., the site condition, and the mental fatigue of site employees (Li et al., 2019), etc.
59 The mental fatigue is correlated to employees' cognitive load, which should not exceed the
60 working memory (Paas et al., 2003) for learners (e.g., construction employees) to effectively
61 capture and process site information.

62 The emerging digital or computer vision technologies (e.g., virtual reality) have
63 displayed their positive impacts on safety training or monitoring (Skibniewski, 2014; Seo et
64 al., 2015). One of the visualization technologies that have been adopted in evaluating
65 employees' safety hazard detection is eye-tracking. A limited number of existing studies (e.g.,
66 Jeelani et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019) captured the eye-tracking data from experimental
67 participants' visual search track, and analyzed the effects of personal traits (e.g., mental state)
68 on employees' hazard detection performance. As utilizing eye-tracking technology for safety
69 education or cognitive training is still in the early stage, various factors that affect employees'
70 safety detection performance remain unexplored, such as different site conditions (e.g.,

71 lighting condition, site tidiness, etc). As indicated by Toole (2007), observing and
72 understanding site conditions that pose hazards to workers is one main criterion for civil
73 engineers to address construction safety issues in their design and engineering management.

74 Construction employees recognizes potential site hazards through their visual search.
75 Site under varied conditions (e.g., bright or dark condition) could trigger different attention
76 resources for employees to detect potential hazards. Investigation on search pattern and
77 attention resource allocation of employees under different site conditions is important for
78 providing the best practice guides on construction site housekeeping, meanwhile, improving
79 the work efficiency of employees by reducing their cognitive loads in identifying safety
80 hazards. Cognitive load herein refers to employees' mental effort required to allocate their
81 attention resources to search and identify site hazards. Sweller (1998) stated that human
82 beings' working memory, the part of the mind that processes what people are currently
83 performing, can only deal with a limited amount of information at one time. It is theoretically
84 implied that the more mental efforts that construction employees have to deal with site
85 hazards, the less working memory they would have to handle other site activities related to
86 site productivity.

87 Mental integration requires cognitive resources (i.e., human-beings' cognitive efforts) to
88 find the solution to a given problem (Sweller, 1994), such as to detect safety hazards under a
89 certain construction site scene. Based on the cognitive load theory described by Sweller
90 (1994), this study adopts an eye-tracking experimental approach to test and evaluate the
91 impacts of several pre-defined site conditions on subjects' safety detection performance,
92 which is directly related to subjects' cognitive load. Research questions were initiated as: (1)
93 how to measure subjects' safety recognition performance? (2) what site condition factors (e.g.,
94 brightness) would affect the safety recognition performance? and (3) what are the effects of
95 these pre-defined site factors on the recognition performance? Correspondingly, the

96 objectives of the study include: (1) devising a comprehensive set of evaluation indicators to
97 extend existing metrics of cognitive load in searching construction safety hazards; (2)
98 evaluating the impacts of different site scene features (e.g., bright versus dark conditions) on
99 subjects' cognitive load; and (3) providing guides on improving existing construction safety
100 performance through enhanced site conditions. Students from construction management (CM)
101 and other civil engineering (CE) disciplines were recruited for the eye-tracking experimental
102 tests to detect a total of 20 site scenes representing a combination of different site categories
103 (i.e., ease of detection, brightness, and tidiness). This research serves as one of the initial
104 studies to investigate the impacts of site conditions on subjects' cognitive load, which is
105 measured by a variety of metrics related to the information of first fixation, visual search
106 track, and the attention map. The findings from the current study lead to recommendations in
107 enhancing site conditions for better construction safety climate and crew safety performance.
108 The eye-tracking method can be implemented in future's site safety education to evaluate
109 subjects' visual search pattern.

110 **Literature review**

111 *Proactive safety performance*

112 Existing measurements of safety performance can be divided into proactive and reactive
113 indicators (Cooper and Phillips, 2004; Choudhry et al., 2007). The reactive measurements
114 included occurrence rates of accidents/incidents (Chen and Jin, 2012). The proactive
115 measurements include safety culture and safety climate (Chen and Jin, 2013). Safety culture
116 reflects the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, and values that are shared among employees
117 related to safety (Cox and Cox, 1991). Safety climate targets employees' perceptions of the
118 role of safety in the workplace and their attitudes towards safety (Cox and Flin, 1998).
119 Workplace safety perceptions, as studied by Goh and Chua (2010), Hallowell and Gambatese
120 (2010), and Gangolells, et al. (2013), include site hazard identification and risk measurement

121 to prevent occurrences of accidents/incidents. Safety perceptions form part of safety climate,
122 which further constitutes safety culture (Marquardt et al., 2012).

123 *Measurements of safety perceptions of site hazards*

124 Employees' perceptions of safety hazards are part of safety climate (Han et al., 2019c).
125 Existing studies of safety climate related indicators have been largely based on the subjective
126 measurement approach, such as questionnaire survey (Liao et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017) to
127 capture construction employees' self-reflection or perception. Potential drawbacks of the
128 questionnaire survey approach include questions being misunderstood, and being unsuitable
129 for investigation of complex research questions (Evaluated toolkit, 2006). The subjectivity
130 nature of the questionnaire survey approach should be considered in generating research
131 findings (Bertrand and Mullainathan, 2001). The technological evolvement has created more
132 alternative measurement methods to gauge employees' perceptions of site hazards or other
133 site issues in the construction industry. As one of the technological advancements, the
134 eye-tracking technology, with test devices to monitor and record human beings' eye
135 movement when facing a virtual or real site scenario, has been implemented in the
136 construction management or education-related activities (e.g., Bhoir et al., 2015; Hasanzadeh
137 et al., 2016).

138 *Eye tracking technology as the research platform for construction safety*

139 Virtual or computer vision technologies (Seo et al., 2015; Zuluaga and Albert, 2018; Shi
140 et al., 2019) are gaining the momentum to support construction safety research. Eye-tracking
141 devices or apparatus have been adopted in several recent studies (Dzeng et al., 2016; Jeelani
142 et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019) to evaluate employees' safety hazard detection or recognition
143 performance. Eye-tracking provides an objective measurement of stimuli when subjects
144 receive attention during visual search activities (Jeelani et al., 2018). In these studies, safety
145 detection or recognition performance was found with significant correlations to other

146 variables, such as construction employees' experience level (Dzeng et al., 2016), and their
147 mental state (Li et al., 2019). In these studies (Bhoir et al., 2015; Hasanzadeh et al., 2016;
148 Jeelani et al., 2017b), either university students or construction site employees in a relatively
149 small sample (i.e., 10 to 20 participants) was recruited to conduct eye-tracking experimental
150 tests. The small sample size was identified as one limitation from the existing studies (Jeelani
151 et al., 2018).

152 **Methodology**

153 Safety hazard detection on construction sites is subject to interventions under a dynamic
154 working environment. This detection process is not easy to capture or measure. As using the
155 eye-tracking technology for the evaluation of construction safety hazard detection or
156 recognition is still in the infancy stage, this study utilizes a variety of photos taken from real
157 jobsites. The research steps in this study are illustrated in Fig.1.

158 <Insert Fig.1 here>

159 It is seen from Fig.1 that this study started from site visits and photo-takings of different
160 site scenes. Afterwards, these photos were screened and categorized into different features
161 (i.e., distinctness versus obscurity/blur, brightness versus darkness, and tidiness versus mess).
162 A total of 20 finalized photos were adopted for the eye-tracking experimental study in the
163 laboratory of Jiangsu University. The research team then analyzed the experimental data
164 capturing participants' eye movement according to pre-defined metrics, which measured their
165 cognitive load to identify site hazards in each photo. Finally, recommendations were
166 proposed based on how different site conditions could affect participants' safety hazard
167 recognition.

168 *Site visits, photo-taking, and photo screening*

169 As the start of the research according to Fig.1, a large amount of site photos were taken
170 from the same type of camera by the research team. The camera was pre-set to maintain the

171 original condition (e.g., brightness) of sites. All site photos taken from site visits were strictly
172 prohibited from any automatic or human editing (e.g., adjustment of brightness). It was
173 ensured that all photos maintained the original site conditions without any adjustments (e.g.,
174 color, brightness, etc.). These photos taken from jobsites were then categorized with different
175 features defined in Table 1.

176 <Insert Table 1 here>

177 The three different site condition factors related to distinctness, brightness, and tidiness
178 were defined according to researchers' earlier work (e.g., Han et al., 2019a; 2019b) and
179 existing literature beyond the construction industry. Han et al., (2019a) found that the
180 distinctness of a safety hazard affected construction employees' perceptions towards the
181 hazard. Choi et al. (2014) stated that the physical environment, including how the physical
182 items are laid out or organized on-site, would affect participants' cognitive load. Other
183 physical site conditions, such as lighting condition, and the location of the target, would also
184 impact the cognitive load (Amadiou et al., 2009). Choi et al. (2018) further confirmed that the
185 physical environment, including lighting condition and site layout, would contribute to the
186 cognitive load of subjects. Unevenly distributed lighting, low lighting condition, disorganized
187 site, and less distinct objects would increase subjects' cognitive load (Choi et al., 2018).

188 This study served as the initial work of adopting eye-tracking techniques to evaluate the
189 effects of site features on subjects' hazard recognition capability. Site scenes adopted for
190 follow-up experimental studies would contain one of the two opposite features (e.g., bright
191 versus dark condition). Each scene's feature could be easily identified by employees or
192 experimental participants. There have been limited quantitative measurements of site scenes
193 (e.g., tidiness or distinctness) under the context of construction jobsites for safety hazard
194 recognition. As the initial stage of studying employees' hazard recognition performance, a
195 more descriptive measurements of site scenes meet the current research needs.

196 The three different site factors, although seemingly interconnected, are actually separated
197 from each other with different emphases on the feature of the site condition or the site
198 hazards. Specifically, ease of detection describes the distinctness of a safety hazard. For
199 example, a worker without wearing hardhat on-site can be easily detected. This is considered
200 a distinct scene. In comparison, a nail laid on the floor is not easily detected, and is hence
201 considered blurry. Brightness differs from ease of detection in that it focuses on the lighting
202 condition of the environment rather than the hazard itself. Instead, ease of detection is
203 affected by the participants' safety knowledge and the hazard feature (Han et al., 2019c). A
204 blurry scene or hazard may still not be easily detected even under bright conditions. Tidiness
205 refers to how well that site miscellaneous items are organized. For example, a site is
206 generally tidy right before pouring concrete to the floor. But the floor is more likely to be
207 messed at the interior finish stage. Site employees may need to spend more attention
208 resources on the disorganized miscellaneous items.

209 Initially 558 site photos were collected from construction sites in China, covering these
210 typical safety hazards such as fall, caught-in-between, struck-by, and electrocution defined by
211 OSHA (2011). The research team in this study ran a first-round screening of these photos by
212 removing those with low quality or not containing hazardous zones. A total of 297 photos
213 were kept following the first-round screening. The second round screening by the research
214 team aimed to determine the final photos for experimental tests using the eye-tracking
215 apparatus. Finally, totally 20 site photos representing different combinations of scene features
216 defined in Table 1 were selected for the later eye-tracking experiment. Fig.2 displays these 20
217 photos. According to Fig.2, there were more than one photo representing the same
218 combination of scene features (e.g., blurry, dark, tidy). That was because researchers aimed
219 to display different construction scenarios, e.g., material storage, site vehicles moving,
220 scaffolding work, indoor electrical and plumbing work, and construction of structural

221 members, etc.

222 <Insert Fig.2 here>

223 Before these 20 photos were displayed in the monitoring screen of the eye-tracking
224 apparatus shown in Fig.3, they were reviewed by an expert panel to confirm the quality and
225 the categories of scene features. The expert panel consisted of three faculty members with
226 more than five years' academic or industry experience in construction safety management,
227 two site safety officers, and three workers with more than 25 years' site experience.
228 Following the definitions described in Table 1, all members in the expert panel agreed with
229 the combination of site features for each of the 20 photos shown in Fig.2. For example, photo
230 (16) was defined as being distinct, bright, and messy. The hazardous areas in each scene were
231 also agreed by the research team and all the panel members.

232 It is seen in Fig.2 that among all possible eight combinations of site scene features, the
233 combinations of "blurry, dark, and messy" and "distinct, dark, and messy" were not included
234 in the finalized 20 photos. Although these two missing combinations were available from the
235 initial 558 site photos collected, the focus of the study was not to have site scenes with all the
236 eight different combinations. Instead, this research aimed to conduct the paired comparison
237 within each site scene category (e.g., brightness versus darkness) on the given category's
238 effect on subjects' cognitive load. Researchers emphasized more on how the scenes
239 represented typical site scenarios, and omitting the two combinations did not affect the
240 analysis of a given site category's effect on safety hazard recognition.

241 *Measurements of participants' eye movement in hazard detection*

242 The eye movement related metrics were found with correlations to human beings'
243 psychological state and cognitive load (Djamasbi et al., 2010). Fixations and saccades are two
244 typical types of eye movements when human beings view the stimuli (Jeelani et al., 2018). A
245 fixation is a time interval or period when the eyes are not moving and the gaze is targeting a

246 single point in a given visual scene; in contrast, a saccade shows rapid movements between
247 fixations and the eyes are moving from one point of interest to the next (Jeelani et al., 2018).
248 The visual information for cognitive analysis of a given scene can be acquired from fixations
249 (Yarbus, 1967). Instead, no valuable information is obtained during saccades (Jeelani et al.,
250 2018). The visual search track of an individual completing the visual search in a given site
251 scene consists of fixations connected with saccades. Several measurements and metrics in
252 evaluating individuals' visual search pattern associated with cognitive load have been
253 adopted in existing studies (e.g., Bhoir et al., 2015; Dzung et al., 2016; Jeelani et al., 2017a)
254 conducting eye-tracking experiments, such as fixation duration, fixation count (i.e., number
255 of fixations), and correct detection rate of hazards. More definitions of these metrics of
256 cognitive loads measured by eye movement related indicators can be found in Rayner (1998),
257 Djamasbi et al. (2010), and Tsai et al. (2012). In this study, the main measurements and
258 metrics of the experimental participants' viewing pattern are defined in Table 2.

259 <Insert Table 2 here>

260 AOI (i.e., Area of Interest) in eye-tracking experiments refer to visual environments of
261 interest (Jacob and Karn, 2003). In the visual search of construction site hazards, AOI has
262 been defined by several recent studies (e.g, Bhoir et al., 2015; Jeelani et al., 2018) as the
263 annotated hazardous zone(s). The center of focus or the attention center is defined by the
264 annotated zone with the highest fixation count. It is considered that a participant has correctly
265 identified the hazard if the center of focus merges the AOI. The hazardous zones (i.e., AOIs)
266 were defined for each of the 20 selected site photos through the early-stage expert panel
267 discussion. The correct location, size, and the number of hazardous zones in each site scene
268 were agreed by the expert panel members.

269 In this current study, descriptive statistics was adopted instead of inferential statistics
270 based on both theoretical and empirical reasons. Theoretically, descriptive statistics is

271 suitable for the circumstance that focuses on a certain population but not for generalization to
272 a wider population (Taylor, 2019). In this study, the CM student population at Jiangsu
273 University was selected as experimental participants. The current population could not be
274 generalized to the larger population of construction employees in China based on the findings
275 from Han et al. (2019a, 2019b) that site employees' hazard recognition and perception would
276 be affected by employees' personal traits (e.g., experience). Empirically, these metrics
277 described in Table 2 are by nature more descriptive or qualitative. The researchers believe
278 descriptive statistics would fit better for presenting the data analysis following the
279 eye-tracking experimental tests.

280 *Eye-tracking experimental apparatus*

281 The Tobii T60 XL eye-tracker supplied by Tobii Pro (2019) was integrated into a
282 high-resolution 24'' wide screen monitor as seen in Fig.3 for large stimuli display. The
283 eye-tracker adopted in this study had maximum gaze angles at 42 degrees with built-in
284 camera, embedded eye-tracking server, and connectors (e.g., VGA, power, user camera, and
285 audio). It allowed the researchers to accurately and unobtrusively measure human beings'
286 gaze over any points or areas of an image displayed in the screen, for example, a person's
287 fixation time focusing on a point of interest. This eye-tracker could be applied in a variety of
288 areas including psychological studies, visual perception research, and eye-based computer
289 interaction. Detailed features and functionality can be found from the supplier (i.e., Tobii Pro,
290 2019).

291 <Insert Fig.3 here>

292 According to the instruction manual provided by the eye-tracker supplier (Tobii Pro,
293 2019), a fixation is defined as when eye pupils are staying by gazing at a fixed point for not
294 less than 0.1 second. The first fixation point is determined automatically by the Tobii T60 XL
295 eye-tracker when the participant's pupils are not moving for over 0.1 second. The eye-tracker

296 also records other experimental data, such as the fixation count (Tobii Pro, 2019).

297 *Experimental participants*

298 Students from the CM or other CE programs were recruited as eye-tracking experimental
299 participants to use the eye-tracking apparatus displayed in Fig.3. The reasons for initially
300 selecting students as participants instead of workers from the local construction industry were
301 based on the facts that the objectives of this study were to explore the impacts of site
302 conditions (i.e., blurry versus distinct, bright versus dark, and tidy versus messed) on
303 subjects' hazard recognition performance. These site conditions were set as independent
304 variables for the later statistical analysis. Instead, personal traits (e.g., experience) should be
305 under control rather than being another independent variable. Workers' or other professional
306 employees' safety perception or hazard recognition performance could be affected by their
307 personal traits (e.g., prior experience, and age, etc.) according to some earlier findings (e.g.,
308 Hasanzadeh et al., 2016; Han et al., 2019a). Therefore, students recruited for the hazard
309 recognition experiment from the similar background would be more appropriate. Student
310 participants in this study were in the similar age range. They had all taken similar courses in
311 construction engineering and management. They also had similar prior construction
312 experience (i.e., little practical experience). Recruiting students as eye-tracking experimental
313 participants can be found in some earlier studies (e.g., Bhoir et al., 2015; Hasanzadeh et al.,
314 2016). It is not uncommon that universities or other learning institutions, with funding for
315 research studies and data collection, recruit students in the laboratory study (Liu and
316 Gambatese, 2018). Recruiting students for the eye-tracking experimental study could also
317 address the concern of Pedro et al. (2016) that current pedagogical methods and tools at the
318 tertiary level have not sufficiently engaged students or provided practical experience to
319 support the acquisition of safety knowledge. Students selected for the eye-tracking
320 experiment were all without eye prescriptions or weaknesses (e.g., colorless blindness,

321 glaucoma, and amblyopia, etc.). Each participant, before starting the experiment, would be
322 double-checked to confirm that he or she did not have any eye prescription, weakness, or
323 other eye-related problems that would prevent them from participating.

324 *Experimental procedure*

325 Before the formal experimental study, a pilot study was conducted by recruiting ten
326 students from the CE or CM undergraduate and graduate programs at Jiangsu University.
327 Each of them was guided by the research team members to undergo the consistent procedure
328 consisting of: (1) introduction of the experimental study; (2) completing the personal consent
329 form; (3) setup and trial of eye-tracking devices; (3) the participant searching hazard(s) in
330 each photo displayed in the monitor screen shown in Fig.3; (4) automatic generation of
331 eye-tracking data (e.g., fixation duration); and (5) follow-up short interview of the participant.
332 Before signing the consent form, participants' were made aware that no personal information
333 would be recorded or saved. Upon the completion of detecting all hazards in the 20 given
334 scenes, each participant was interviewed to describe their hazard perceptions, such as what
335 hazards they had identified. The pilot study with ten participants aimed to ensure that: (1) all
336 eye-tracking devices were easy to use without difficulties; (2) the time interval for
337 participants to complete the whole experimental process was reasonable and under plan (e.g.,
338 it was found that generally each participant was able to complete visual searching in all the
339 20 scenes within 15 minutes); (3) participants were not allowed to return to prior scenes
340 which they had completed. As part of the experimental procedure, upon the end of the
341 introduction, each individual participant was guided with descriptions of "In the follow-up
342 tests, you will be viewing real construction site photos. Each photo contains one or more
343 safety hazards that may cause accidents. Assuming that you are a construction worker on that
344 site, your task is to search and identify the hazards in each site scene." Using the pre-defined
345 eye-tracking metrics shown in Table 2, the pilot study with the ten participants searching

346 hazards in each of the 20 site scenes also validated the size, location, and number of
347 hazardous zones which were agreed in the earlier-stage expert panel discussion.

348 **Results**

349 Excluding the ten student participants in the pilot study, another 55 students from CE or
350 CM subjects were recruited for the formal experimental study. Compared to the population
351 size of 25 participants in Dzeng et al. (2016) and 47 participants in Xu et al. (2019) for
352 eye-tracking experimental data analysis, 55 participants involved in this study were
353 considered a reasonable population size. The eye-tracking data collected from these 55
354 students were analyzed based on the three main types of visualization maps, namely fixation
355 map, visual track map, and attention map. Using the three different maps, eye-tracking
356 metrics were acquired to study how the participants' cognitive load was affected by site
357 conditions defined in Table 1. Applying the metrics defined in Table 2, participants'
358 cognitive load level under different site conditions were compared.

359 *Display of visual search metrics from eye-tracking experimental data*

360 The first fixation point of all participants were merged for each scene as displayed in
361 Fig.4. The percentage of participants who had their first fixation falling into the hazardous
362 zone was calculated to measure the accuracy detection rate in each scene. The average
363 detection rate of scenes from each feature defined in Table 1 (e.g., distinct) with hazards
364 being correctly identified by the first fixation is displayed in Fig.5.

365 <Insert Fig.4 here>

366 <Insert Fig.5 here>

367 As seen in Fig.5, the differences were 3.1%, 2.1%, and 5.6% respectively for scenes
368 categorized by ease of detection, brightness, and tidiness. It is seen that the largest difference
369 comes from the category of tidiness, inferring that tidy site scenes could have their hazards
370 more easily detected by participants.

371 The visual search track was unique for each participant. Combining all participants'

372 tracks would make the track analysis complicated and difficult. Instead, the research team
373 was able to identify typical search track where the majority of participants had spent their
374 attention resources. The typical search track of participants in each scene is displayed in Fig.6.
375 The two metrics (i.e., fixation count and intersection coefficient) are calculated. The
376 comparisons of each metric under different scene categories are presented in Fig.7 and Fig.9
377 respectively. Fig.8 illustrates how the intersection coefficient is calculated by weighting all
378 55 participants' visual tracks.

379 <Insert Fig.6 here>

380 <Insert Fig.7 here>

381 The average fixation count is based on the mean value of all scenes falling into the same
382 category (e.g., blurry). There is a marginal difference of average fixation count between
383 distinct and blurry scenes. The largest difference comes from the category of brightness,
384 where the bright scene has 9.3 more fixation points on average compared to the dark scenes.
385 More fixation points are found in messed scenes compared to tidy scenes. It is indicated that
386 bright scenes may not always reduce the cognitive load. Instead, there may be an optimized
387 brightness level to minimize site subjects' cognitive load.

388 Fig.8 uses one scene as the example to demonstrate the computation steps of intersection
389 coefficient by weighting all participants' search tracks. Basically, for each scene, there would
390 be a typical track where the majority of participants would follow to detect hazardous zones.
391 The remaining participants may have their different search tracks. The weighted method
392 based on the number of participants either in the typical track or other tracks was adopted to
393 calculate the overall intersection number (i.e., intersection coefficient) as shown in Fig.9.

394 <Insert Fig.8 here>

395 <Insert Fig.9 here>

396 It is found in Fig.9 that the largest difference comes from the category of ease of
397 detection, with the value under blurry scenarios nearly three times of the value under distinct

398 scenes. A marginal difference is found between bright and dark scenes. Messed scenes are
399 found with a higher average intersection coefficient value than tidy scenes.

400 The attention maps for the 20 scenes are displayed in Fig.10. The total fixation duration
401 for each participant under each scene was acquired automatically using the eye-tracking
402 apparatus shown in Fig. 3. Under each scene in Fig.10, the total fixation duration on average
403 for the 55 participants is also displayed. All participants' fixations were merged to identify
404 the attention center visualized in darkest colors shown in Fig.10. The comparisons of the two
405 main metrics (i.e., fixation duration and fixation count defined in Table 1) are summarized in
406 Fig. 11 and Fig.12 respectively.

407 <Insert Fig.10 here>

408 <Insert Fig.11 here>

409 Little difference of average fixation duration is found between distinct and blurry scenes.
410 The largest difference is found in the category of brightness, with the bright scenes causing
411 more fixation time than dark scenes.

412 <Insert Fig.12 here>

413 The number of fixation points in the attention center visualized by dark red color in
414 Fig.10 is summarized for each scene feature as seen in Fig.12. The largest difference comes
415 from the category of ease of detection. Distinct scenes are generally found with higher
416 fixation count than blurry scenes. Linked to Fig.11 where the fixation duration between the
417 two scene features are almost the same, it is indicated that distinct scenes could let
418 participants focus more on the hazard or AOI, and reduce the waste of attention resource on
419 other non-relevant areas within the scene. More fixations targeting AOI or the hazardous
420 zones, as indicated by Jeelani et al. (2018), could mean that the given hazard has higher
421 chance of being detected by participants.

422 *The effects of scene features in participants' visual search metrics*

423 The effects of the three different types of measurements (i.e., first fixation, visual search

424 track, and attention map) obtained from the eye-tracking experimental tests are displayed in
425 Figs.13-15. A total of five metrics are compared between each pair of scene features,
426 including the accuracy rate by first fixation, fixation count, intersection coefficient, fixation
427 duration, and the fixation count in the attention center.

428 <Insert Fig.13 here>

429 Although the accurate detection of hazard(s) by the first fixation under blurry scenes is
430 slightly higher than that in distinct scenes, the difference is not large (i.e., 82.7% over 79.6%).
431 Similar marginal differences can be found in fixation count and the fixation duration between
432 distinct and blurry scenes. The higher intersection coefficient under blurry scenes indicates
433 that participants had to spend more time in saccades to search targets (i.e., hazards). The ratio
434 of fixation count in the attention center to the total fixation count also indicates that distinct
435 scenes generally enable participants to concentrate more on AOI or hazards, with less time
436 wasted in other non-hazardous zones or saccades. Overall, it is suggested that blurry scenes
437 would trigger participants' higher cognitive loads in searching hazards due to the more
438 complex search track measured by intersection coefficient. In comparison, hazards in distinct
439 scenes, although may not be with a higher accuracy rate of being detected by the first fixation,
440 would reduce participants' attention resource on saccades and increase the efficiency of
441 spending the attention resource on AOIs.

442 <Insert Fig.14 here>

443 Fig.14. Comparisons of eye-tracking measurements between bright and dark scenes

444 Compared to dark scenes, bright scenes increase participants' fixation counts and total
445 fixation durations, meaning that participants have to spend more attention resources. On the
446 other hand, the higher brightness also decreases the intersection coefficient and fixation count
447 in the attention center zone. It is further inferred that there are both advantages and
448 disadvantages of working in a brighter scene. Increasing the brightness may not increase the
449 chance for the hazards to be detected by the first fixation. Instead, more fixations may be

450 needed due to the increased search area in the given scene, causing more attention resources
451 to be spent on searching. According to the metrics of total fixation count, a lower portion is
452 allocated to gazes in the attention center under bright scenes. The comparisons shown in
453 Fig.14 imply that there could be an optimized brightness level to minimize site employees'
454 cognitive load in detecting hazards. Increasing the brightness does not necessarily result in
455 better hazard detection performance for employees. How to decide the optimized lighting
456 level under a certain construction scenario needs further research.

457 <Insert Fig.15 here>

458 Fig.15. Comparisons of eye-tracking measurements between tidy and messed scenes

459 All the five metrics displayed in Fig.15 consistently show that messed scenes increase
460 the cognitive load of participants. Poor housekeeping or disorganizing items on-site does not
461 only cause higher cognitive load for site employees, but may also lead to more potential
462 safety accidents. In contrast, a well-organized site with proper layout of materials, equipment,
463 and other resources can reduce the intervention of non-relevant items and decrease
464 employees' attention resources to search and detect hazards.

465 **Discussions**

466 This research serves as one of the first studies to investigate the effects of different
467 construction site scenes on employees' safety cognitive load. The findings of the effects from
468 different construction site conditions were generally consistent with the descriptions of how
469 cognitive loads could be affected by the physical environment (e.g., Choi et al., 2014). The
470 implications of this current study can be summarized in the following three aspects related to
471 the distinctiveness of hazard(s), the proper utilization of lighting facilities, and site
472 housekeeping.

473 *The distinctiveness of the hazard*

474 Existing literature (Corbetta and Shulman,2002; Carrasco, 2011; Anderson et al., 2018)
475 have defined two typical visual attention models, namely top-down and bottom-up attention.

476 The former type refers to voluntary allocation of attention to certain features, objects or
477 regions (Pinto et al., 2013), such as the hazard zone in this study. The top-down approach can
478 implement human beings' longer-term cognitive strategies (Connor et al., 2004), e.g., safety
479 hazard detection or recognition. The bottom-up approach is more stimulus-driven rather than
480 goal-oriented (Pinto et al., 2013). Salient stimuli can attract human beings' attention, even
481 though they do not have the intention to attend to the stimuli (Schreij et al., 2008). The
482 top-down attention is affected by the subjects' experience, knowledge, and capability. For
483 example, the search patterns to safety hazards is strongly related to construction workers'
484 experience (Dzeng et al., 2016). When the subjects have similar knowledge or skill
485 background, the bottom-up approach could display higher impacts on subjects' attention
486 resource allocation and cognitive load. In this study, more distinct objects (i.e., hazard zones)
487 could more easily catch subjects' attention and lead to lower attention resources spent. A
488 recommendation can be provided for site safety management that safety warning signs with
489 different colors should be set to indicate the location and the level of danger of hazards.

490 *Adopting proper lighting condition to minimize site employees' cognitive load*

491 Rods and cones are the two main types of photoreceptors in human retina (RIT CIS,
492 2019). Rods are responsible for vision at low light levels but can not detect the colors; cones
493 are active in brighter conditions and are capable of color visions (RIT CIS, 2019). Human
494 beings are unable to detect colors in the darkness. Generally, dark environment will cause
495 subjects' decrease or even loss of detecting the objects. A higher cognitive load will be
496 required to detect the objects under a darker environment. In this study, it is found that the
497 dark scenes slightly decrease the detection rate of the hazard and increase the intersection
498 coefficient. However, it is also noticed that increasing the brightness would make subjects
499 exposed to more objects and increase the fixations on more non-relevant objects that become
500 visible due to the increased lighting. As a result, subjects end up spending more attention

501 resources gazing these extra objects. The current study could only imply that the site
502 brightness is a double-edged sword that may cause both positive and negative effects in
503 subjects' cognitive load. For night construction work or construction in a dark environment, it
504 is recommended that contractors should properly allocate the lighting resources to distribute
505 the lighting mainly in the working zone. It would be helpful to add some safety signs that are
506 easily detected to complement the lighting condition.

507 *Housekeeping and proper site layout*

508 The tidiness of jobsites has been found with highly consistent effects in subjects' safety
509 hazard detection. Tidy and well-organized sites could also reduce subjects' cognitive load
510 through reduced efforts spent on other non-relevant objects or saccades. According to Chun
511 (2003), subjects have to spend more attention resources to recognize the more complicated
512 site layout or irregularly organized spatial conditions. Instead, a clearly organized site would
513 make items laid in a more regular and simple manner, and reduce the cognitive load of
514 subjects. Therefore, it is recommended that construction sites should be properly planned
515 with a clear layout. Materials, equipment, and other construction resources should be placed
516 in a regular and disciplined manner in order to make them more easily found by employees.
517 Housekeeping is not only critical to productivity but also to safety performance, the latter of
518 which is linked to employees' cognitive load.

519 **Conclusions**

520 This study investigated the effects of site conditions on subjects' hazard detection
521 performance which was directly linked to human beings' cognitive load. A total of 20 site
522 scenes were selected to represent a combination of scene features (i.e., distinctness versus
523 obscurity/blur, brightness versus darkness, and tidiness versus mess). The cognitive load,
524 which was highly connected to human beings' attention resource allocation, was measured
525 according to participants' fixation, visual search track, and attention map in the eye-tracking

526 experiments. There were different measurements and metrics of participants' cognitive load,
527 such as fixation count and intersection coefficient. The eye-tracking experimental studies
528 revealed that: (1) more distinct hazards or hazard zones on construction sites tended to be
529 more easily noticed by subjects, hence reducing subjects' cognitive loads. Therefore,
530 increasing the distinctiveness of site hazards would generally improve the hazard detection
531 performance. (2) site brightness has both positive and negative effects on subjects' safety
532 recognition performance. The mechanism of how the lighting condition impacts hazard
533 detection performance is more complicated and needs more research; and (3) a tidy site with
534 clear layout would reduce subjects' cognitive loads, leading to better safety recognition
535 performance. This study provided a quantitative and empirical approach addressing three
536 main research questions by contributing to: (1) establishing a comprehensive list of
537 measurement indicator for subjects' cognitive load in detecting construction hazards; (2)
538 defining the three separated site factors (i.e., distinctness, brightness, and tidiness) which
539 could affect subjects' safety hazard recognition; and (3) examining the effects of the three
540 defined site factors on hazard recognition. Overall, the study contributed to the body of
541 knowledge in safety management by extending qualitative descriptions and theories of
542 cognitive load to the context of construction safety hazard detection. It would lead to more
543 future work in reduction and prevention of safety accidents linked to construction employees'
544 cognitive load.

545 Following the prescriptive data analysis by comparing participants' eye movement
546 metrics, recommendations were provided towards the enhancement of site safety features,
547 specifically: (1) using safety signs with different colors to increase the distinctiveness of
548 hazards; (2) proper allocation of lighting resources to working zones especially for night
549 construction or dark environment; and (3) proper housekeeping to keep sites tidy and
550 well-organized in order to decrease employees' cognitive load. These implications could be

551 adopted to enhance safety education to construction employees, as the cognitive load is
552 directly linked to employees' capability to detect site hazards and further influences their
553 safety performance.

554 The current study serves as the early-stage research of using digital technologies to
555 evaluate construction employees' cognitive load spent on detecting site hazards. It is limited
556 to static photos by excluding other interventions. In reality, construction sites are dynamic
557 with complex intervening factors such as noise and working with other peers. It is still
558 difficult to capture the real-world cognitive load of construction employees in perceiving
559 hazards. As the follow-up work, researchers will continue utilizing immersing technologies
560 (e.g., Building Information Modeling linked to Virtual Reality) to simulate the dynamic site
561 scenarios. As a step forward from the current study, the eye-tracking data from the virtually
562 simulated scenarios would be captured for analysis under a dynamic environment. Another
563 limitation of the current study is that only student participants with similar educational and
564 practical experience were recruited for the eye-tracking experimental tests. This work
565 excluded the effects of personal traits (e.g., working trade, safety knowledge, and prior
566 scenario of accidents, etc.) on subjects' hazard recognition capability by solely focusing on
567 site conditions. As part of the future research agenda, construction employees would also be
568 recruited to run these virtual eye-tracking experiments.

569 **Data Availability Statement**

570 Data generated or analyzed during the study are available from the corresponding author
571 by request.

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720 prototyping." *Safety. Sci.*, 108, 238-247.

721 Table 1. Site scene selection and descriptions of each scene

Scene category	Scene feature	Definition
Ease of detection	Distinct	Scenes where hazards are obvious and easy to detect
	Blurry	Scenes where hazard are not easily detected and may require some longer time for employees to detect
Brightness	Bright	Scenes with adequate lighting and little need for additional lighting devices
	Dark	Scenes with insufficient lighting, and need additional lighting device (e.g., artificial lighting) to assist construction work
Tidiness	Tidy	Scenes where working zones are clearly defined with good housekeeping and with items well organized.
	Messed	Scenes without clearly planned working zones, with materials or equipment disorganized.

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Table 2. Definitions of measurement and metrics of experimental participants' viewing pattern

Eye movement measurement	Description	Metrics	Definition	Rationale in the context of cognitive loading
Location of first fixation	The first fixation point	The percentage of participants that could correctly identify the hazard at the first fixation	The ratio of all participants who correctly placed their first fixation in the hazardous zone (i.e., areas of interest or AOIs)	This measurement defines the distinctness a hazard or a search target. A higher percentage of participants with their first fixation falling into the hazardous zone would mean that the hazard can be detected correctly with a higher accuracy rate. It also means that the hazard is more distinct for participants to notice, indicating that participants spend less attention resource with a lower cognitive load.
Visual search track	The visual search track consists of multiple scan paths when a participant is looking for site hazards through fixations and saccades	Fixation count	Number of fixations in the whole search track	This measurement defines the detection complexity in a certain site scene. More fixations and a higher intersection coefficient in the scene mean that hazards are more complex or with a higher degree of variety. Therefore, the difficulty increases for participants to correctly detect the hazards. They would have to spend more attention resource with a higher cognitive load.
		Intersection coefficient in the search track	The level of intersection measured by different scan paths crossing each other during the search process	
Attention map visualized by the cognitive resource allocation in a given site scene	Experimental participants' attention resource allocation visualized by different colors to show the center of focus	Fixation duration	The summed duration of all fixations in viewing a given scene	This measurement defines the cognitive load to recognize site hazards. The attention map, which is automatically generated upon the end of the eye-tracking experiment, is visualized by different colors representing the allocation of attention resources. The darkest color zone represents where participants have spent most attention resources. Other zones in the given site scene with less attention resources spent are marked by lighter colors. The total fixation duration and fixation count in the attention center zone measure the attention resource needed to correctly detect hazards in a given scene. Higher fixation duration and fixation count in the attention center indicate a more complex scenario for participants, who have to spend more attention resources with a higher cognitive load.
		Fixation count in the attention center zone	The number of fixation (i.e., fixation count) in the center zone where participants have spent most attention resource	

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