SEX-SPECIFIC ELECTROMYOGRAPHIC, PERFORMANCE, AND SYMPTOMATIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SITTING AND CYCLING COMPUTER WORKSTATIONS

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ABSTRACT

Previous studies have suggested that increased daily physical activity can reduce risk factors associated with the development of work-related musculoskeletal disorders (WMSDs). Active computer workstations have been proposed to reduce inactivity within the workplace and avoid WMSDs; however, the extent of our understanding of whether males and females may equally benefit from them is limited by a lack of mechanistic studies. Twenty-six computer users (n = 14 females) underwent two 60-minute typing tasks, either sitting on a sit-stand stool or cycling at their own pace within a pre-established target heart rate (25% of heart rate reserve). Muscle activation amplitude, eye, and musculoskeletal discomfort, as well as performance outcomes, were analyzed for main and interaction effects of Sex, Time, and Condition. Males' performance was negatively affected by cycling, with fewer words per minute, whereas females' performance was the same in both conditions. Cycling led to a smaller increase in neck/shoulder discomfort with time, especially in c. Moreover, with time, neck/shoulder muscle activation increased during sitting but conversely, decreased with time during cycling, especially in females. Lastly, low back muscle activity was higher and varied more with time during cycling, especially in females, even though there was no difference in seat discomfort between sitting and cycling. The results suggest that there exist sex-specific responses to cycling workstations during 60-minute computer work tasks, and that cycling workstations, although a promising alternative, should not necessarily be recommended to all males and all females.

RÉSUMÉ

Des publications scientifiques récentes ont suggéré qu'une activité physique quotidienne accrue peut réduire les facteurs de risque associés au développement de troubles musculosquelettiques liés au travail (TMS). Des postes de travail informatiques actifs ont été proposés pour réduire l'inactivité sur le lieu de travail et éviter les TMS. Cependant, notre compréhension à savoir si les hommes et les femmes pourraient également en bénéficier est limitée par le manque d'études mécanistiques sur ce sujet. Vingt-six utilisateurs d'ordinateurs (n = 14 femmes) ont été soumis à deux tâches de frappes de 60 minutes, soit assis sur un tabouret assis-debout, soit en pédalant à leur propre rythme à l'intérieur des limites préétablies de valeurs de fréquence cardiaque (25% de la réserve de fréquence cardiaque). L'amplitude de l'activation musculaire, l'inconfort oculaire et musculo-squelettique, ainsi que les résultats de performance, ont été analysés pour les effets principaux et l'interaction du sexe, du temps et de la condition. La performance des hommes a été affectée négativement par le pédalage, avec moins de mots par minute, tandis que celle des femmes était la même dans les deux conditions. Le pédalage a entraîné une augmentation moins importante de l'inconfort de la nuque et des épaules avec le temps, en particulier chez les femmes. De plus, avec le temps, l'activation des muscles du cou et des épaules a augmenté pendant la position assise, mais inversement, elle a diminué avec le temps pendant le pédalage, en particulier chez les femmes. Enfin, l'activité des muscles lombaires était plus élevée et variait davantage avec le temps pendant le pédalage, en particulier chez les femmes, même s'il n'y avait pas de différence dans l'inconfort du siège entre la position assise et le pédalage. Les résultats suggèrent qu'il existe des réponses sexospécifiques aux postes de travail à vélo lors de tâches informatiques de 60 minutes et que bien que les postes de travail à vélo constituent une alternative prometteuse, ils ne devraient pas nécessairement être recommandés à tous les hommes et toutes les femmes.

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CONTRIBUTION OF AUTHORS

Malak Selim, the candidate, oversaw the research project, setup, recruitment, data collection, analysis, writing, and any other steps necessary to complete the research study and submit the thesis as per McGill University requirements.

Julie N. Cote, Ph.D., Professor, Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education, McGill University, the candidate's supervisor, oversaw research design and writing, and was actively involved in every step and decision made regarding the research study and completion of thesis submission.

Erika Renda, Ph.D. student, assisted with the research design, data collection, and analysis.

Samuel Lamanuzzi, MSc., assisted with the research design and data collection.

Andrew (SangHoon) Yoon, Ph.D. student, assisted with the research design and analysis.

INTRODUCTION

Work-related musculoskeletal disorders (WMSDs) are diverse and painful conditions 3 affecting the bones, joints, muscles, and connective tissues and are caused by, or at least 4 associated with, factors related to the work environment. WMSDs can result in acute and/or 5 chronic pain, leading to impaired work performance as well as the loss of function and 6 7 productivity (Government of Canada, 2022). These disorders are among the most disabling and 8 costly conditions in North America (Yelin et al., 2016). The underlying mechanism of WMSDs 9 are not well understood; however, awkward and/or sustained postures and prolonged sitting are 10 potential contributing factors. These factors are commonly observed in predominantly seated work environments (i.e., offices, and schools) and are hypothesized to influence the onset, 11 development, and severity of WMSDs. In addition to WMSDs, prolonged seated computer usage 12 has been linked to symptoms of the visual system like blurry and itchy eyes, as well as other 13 symptoms summarized as Computer Vision Syndrome (CVS), which is known to be more 14 prevalent in women, although the specific mechanisms that link WMSDs to CVS are poorly 15 16 understood (Ranasinghe et al., 2016). Previous studies have shown that females are more susceptible to developing WMSDs 17

Previous studies have snown that remains are more susceptible to developing wMSDs
(Côté, 2012;Hooftman et al., 2009). Although the exact etiology is unknown, differences
between men's and women's WMSDs are thought to be due to sex (biological)-based, and/or
gender (psychological and sociological)-based differences (Côté, 2012; Fedorowich et al., 2013;
Scott & Marshall, 2014).

Active Office Workstations (AOWs), such as cycling workstations, have been proposed to help prevent WMSDs. Cycling workstations are a promising alternative as they address many of the musculoskeletal issues associated with seated workstations by activating larger muscle

25	groups, decreasing sedentarism, and promoting blood flow (Baker et al., 2019; Frodsham et al.,
26	2020). Furthermore, the majority of studies on AOWs have shown higher muscle activation
27	amplitudes, especially in females when compared to males (Baker et al., 2019; Dupont et al.,
28	2019; Frodsham et al., 2020; Yoon et al., 2019). Previous studies utilized cycle ergometers as
29	opposed to ergonomically designed cycling workstations that utilize a system of under-desk floor
30	pedals; further, muscle activity and visual outcomes have never been reported in this setup. We
31	hypothesize that the cycling workstation when compared to the seated workstation, would elicit
32	significantly higher electromyographic activity in all muscles of the upper limbs. No difference
33	in typing performance was expected; however, we anticipated lower reported levels of physical
34	discomfort and increased visual discomfort with time in the under-desk cycling condition
35	compared to the sitting condition. Finally, we expected the above-described differences to vary
36	between the sexes.
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LITERATURE REVIEW

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47 History of Computer Usage and the Rise of Sedentarism

48 The 1980s witnessed significant changes in computer technology, including the adoption 49 of graphical user interfaces and networking technologies (Ambinder, 2005). These changes led to 50 the widespread integration of computers in various domains of daily life, such as work, school, 51 and business (Ambinder, 2005). By 1989, a considerable number of Canadian workers were using computers, and personal computer ownership had become more affordable, powerful, and 52 compact (Fisher & Sim, 2007; Evans, 2016). The introduction of personal computers, local area 53 networks, and the Internet revolutionized access to information, making computers an essential 54 55 part of modern life (Evans, 2016).

Computer usage has become prolific, with a Canadian Community Health Survey
conducted in 2012 revealing that 11.0% of Canadian adults spent over 20-24 hours per week
using a computer (Anderson et al., 2016; Huffman & Szafron, 2017). Moreover, post-pandemic,
computer usage has further increased, and it is now recognized as a high-risk sedentary activity
(Family, 2020). This excessive computer usage has been associated with chronic sedentarism,
which is linked to adverse health effects (Family, 2020; Park et al., 2020).

The adverse health effects of chronic sedentary behavior have been well-documented, including cardiovascular diseases, type II diabetes, depression, premature death, obesity, and certain forms of cancer (Garber et al., 2011). In addition, numerous studies have demonstrated a dose-response relationship between sitting time and health problems. Just two hours of constant sitting can lead to a 5% increase in the risk of obesity and a 7% increase in the risk of diabetes (Hu et al., 2003). Katzmarzyk et al. (2014) analyzed the 1981 Canadian fitness survey results and concluded that physically active individuals who engaged in prolonged sedentary behavior had a

1.4 times higher chance of death 12 years later compared to those who reported minimal sitting 69 time. Furthermore, sedentary behavior, defined as any activity with lower energy expenditure 70 71 than walking, has been identified as a stronger determinant of health than physical activity alone (Marshall & Ramirez, 2011; Tremblay et al., 2017). Finally, some studies have suggested that it 72 73 might be insufficient to merely supplement physical activity outside of work; and that to gain 74 sufficient levels of physical activity, it could also be incorporated within the work environment (Garber et al., 2011; Genin et al., 2018; van der Ploeg et al., 2012). 75 Excessive computer usage and prolonged sedentary behavior are associated with the 76 77 development of musculoskeletal symptoms and disorders, including neck pain, back pain, 78 shoulder pain, carpal tunnel syndrome, as well as eye discomfort such as dry eyes, red eyes, and 79 blurred vision (Parihar et al., 2016). Developing effective ergonomic interventions is necessary to mitigate these contributing factors and promote better health and well-being. 80 Musculoskeletal Disorders and Work-related Musculoskeletal Disorders 81 Musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs) are various painful disorders of the muscles, tendons, 82 83 and nerves (CDC, 2020). Almost all MSDs are chronic and are the most common cause of long-84 term pain and disability (Government of Canada, 2019). The etiology of MSDs is not well 85 known but has been related to a myriad of factors, such as repetitive movements, fatigue, 86 muscular overuse, awkward and/or sustained postures, and prolonged sitting and standing (Pronk 87 et al., 2012). MSDs result from cumulative exposure, and the causal factors are often not 88 proximal to the injury, making it difficult to pinpoint the driving cause of each individual's condition (Oakman et al., 2016). MSDs affect 11 million Canadians annually, and due to the 89

aging population, this number is expected to increase to 15 million in 2031 (Canada, 2010;
Government of Canada, 2019).

92 Work-related musculoskeletal disorders (WMSDs) are conditions in which the work environment or the performance of work significantly contributes to the development or severity 93 of the condition (CDC, 2020). WMSDs account for one-third of all workers' compensation costs, 94 as well as for almost 400,000 injuries per year (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). WMSDs 95 96 are a major cause of morbidity among workers and influence work performance and productivity 97 (Daneshmandi et al., 2017). Overall, WMSDs significantly impact workers and the workforce. 98 Evidence-based occupational interventions are needed in order to support the workers optimally and address persisting issues within the typical work environments. 99

100 Visual symptoms and Computer Vision Syndrome

Computer vision syndrome (CVS) is a group of disorders of the eye and vision caused by
 activities that stress near vision and is oftentimes experienced in relation to computer usage
 (Rosenfield, 2011). The main symptoms reported are visual discomfort, eye strain, irritation,
 burning sensation, redness, blurred vision, and double vision (Bergqvist & Knave, 1994). The
 symptoms experienced tend to be acute; however, a minority of workers experience a recurrence
 or continuity of symptoms that worsen over time (Bergqvist & Knave, 1994; Loh & Redd, 2008).
 CVS may also have a significant economic impact through its negative influence on

performance and increases the prevalence of workplace absenteeism (Rosenfield, 2011). The
symptoms of CVS increase the number of errors made during a computer task and the need for
more frequent breaks (Rosenfield, 2011). Further, CVS has the potential to exacerbate MSDs and
their symptoms (Blehm et al., 2005; Loh & Redd, 2008), although the mechanisms linking visual

and musculoskeletal symptoms are poorly described. Overall, little is known about the specificfeatures of computer work that influence the development and severity of visual discomfort.

114 Computer Work-Related Musculoskeletal Disorders

Prolonged usage of visual display terminals (VDTs), such as computers, has been linked with various MSDs (Pandey et al., 2020). Initial research on VDT was conducted in the 1980s, and since then the workforce has experienced an exponential increase in VDT usage. Early studies found that VDT users experience more discomfort than non-VDT users; it was further found that the frequency of their discomfort increased with the degree of VDT usage (Bendix et al 1985; Smith et al. 1981).

Sustained bouts of sedentary activity during computer work increase the individual's risk 121 122 of upper-extremities MSDs (Tittiranonda et al., 1999). Disorders of the upper extremities are the leading cause of pain in many workplaces, particularly in offices (Blain, 1995; Katz et al., 2000). 123 124 Several studies have demonstrated an association between computer usage and WMSDs, with the prevalence of computer related WMSDs being 55–69% for the neck, 31–54% for the lower 125 back, and 15-52% for upper extremities (Janwantanakul et al., 2008; Klussmann et al., 126 127 2008;Sillanpää et al., 2003; Woods, 2005). Lower back, neck, and shoulders WMSDs are reportedly the most commonly developed among computer users (Janwantanakul et al., 2008; 128 Klussmann et al., 2008; Sillanpää et al., 2003; Woods, 2005). A study by Blatter and Bongers 129 130 (2002), analyzed the results of a nationwide survey of 11,308 office workers to determine the relationship between computer use duration and the development of musculoskeletal disorders of 131 132 the neck and upper limbs, and found that about four hours of computer use per day contributed to 133 musculoskeletal disorders of the neck or upper limb in women, and six hours or more of 134 computer use caused these symptoms in men, suggesting sex-specificity for this disorder.

The underlying mechanisms of MSD development in relation to VDT usage are not well 135 understood. Poor ergonomic computer setup is thought to be an important contributing factor to 136 137 both musculoskeletal and visual problems (Borhany et al., 2018). Other contributing factors include the duration of computer use and the quantity of work (Borhany et al., 2018). It has been 138 hypothesized that computer-related injuries result from cumulative trauma disorders or repetitive 139 140 strain injuries (Ellahi et al., 2011). With regard to hand and wrist disorders, it was concluded in a review by Punnett and Bergqvist (1997), that the use of a keyboard was a direct causative agent. 141 142 The same review also observed that neck/shoulder disorders were also associated with prolonged keyboard usage but less consistently than hand and wrist disorders (Punnett & Bergqvist, 1997). 143 Additionally, prolonged sitting in awkward postures, commonly observed in VDT users, 144 increases the risk of developing computer WMSDs. Awkward postures increase tension on the 145 ligaments and muscles in the lumbar region (Carter & Banister, 1994), thereby promoting 146 147 isometric work and inactivity. This increase exacerbates the condition, and can in short and long-148 term health effects as well as reduced blood circulation that may affect alertness, performance, 149 and contribute to fatigue buildup (Carter & Banister, 1994). Prolonged stationary seated work 150 could also contribute to injury of the back/spine by increasing compressive and-or shear force on 151 the intervertebral discs of the spine (Andersson, 1987; Punnett & Bergqvist, 1997; Sauter et al., 1991). A study by Baker et al. (2018), explored the short-term musculoskeletal and cognitive 152 153 effects of prolonged sitting during office computer work. It was found that there were acute 154 negative effects of 2 hours of prolonged sitting as well as clinically meaningful increases in 155 discomfort in the low back. Furthermore, deterioration in cognitive function, specifically creative

156 problem-solving, was also observed. Overall, Baker concluded that prolonged periods of seated

work, commonly found in computer workers, may have negative consequences onmusculoskeletal discomfort and cognitive function.

To conclude, the most commonly reported risk factors associated with computer use are prolonged awkward postures, computer work duration, workload, and desk ergonomics (Ellahi et al., 2011). Over time, it is believed that these factors contribute and ultimately culminate in injury and that the static nature of seated work encourages MSDs by preventing movement. Dynamic workstations could be beneficial in facilitating movement and could thereby promote healthy blood circulation, prevent overload of the same muscle fibers, and reduce overall sedentarism.

166 Alternatives to the Seated Workstation

To mitigate the negative effects associated to static sitting in office work, alternatives have 167 168 been suggested, including the standing desk (Davis & Kotowski, 2015). Overall, the standing posture has advantages over the sitting posture, including increased upper body muscle 169 activation variability, as well as the reduction of whole-back discomfort and trunk muscle 170 171 activation, which could potentially help prevent MSDs (Karakolis et al., 2016; Park et al., 2020). 172 A study by Fedorowich et al. (2018), explored the effects of standing computer work tasks on upper limb muscular and vascular characteristics of healthy young adult males and females. 173 174 Authors found that upper limb discomfort occurred 27 minutes later in the standing condition 175 compared to the seated one. Furthermore, participants demonstrated a higher performance (faster typing speed, and faster adjusted for errors typing speed), lower and more variable 176 177 electromyographical amplitude, and lower indices of between-muscle connectivity, but an absence of change in blood flow. The lack of blood flow changes likely contributed to the 178 179 observed increase in discomfort over time. Overall, these results suggest that there are benefits of

standing computer work; however, there may also be some undesirable effects caused by its
static characteristics that may contribute to WMSDs in the long run. Indeed, standing computer
work has also been shown to be associated with some negative effects, such as increased muscle
activation and blood pooling in the thigh and leg muscles when compared to seated computer
work (Fedorowich & Côté, 2018; Gao, 2017). Therefore, it is not clear if shifting from static
sitting to static standing can sufficiently alleviate the health risks associated with workplace
sedentarism (Callaghan et al., 2015).

187 Sit-stand workstations, implemented either with height-adjustable desks or using a hybrid, sit-stand stool, has also been proposed as a way to address negative issues related to both static 188 sitting and standing. Several studies have shown that alternating between seated and standing 189 postures with the help of a sit-stand desk may reduce sedentary activity and whole back 190 discomfort (Callaghan et al., 2015; Pronk et al., 2012). However, in a study by Park and 191 192 Srinivasan (2021) it was found that the alternating sit-stand pattern, in comparison to seated and 193 standing conditions, was associated with decreased back muscle activity and increased trunk stiffness. It has also been reported that the sit-standing posture results in similar back and upper 194 limb outcomes to the standing posture for some types of low-load manual work (Antle et al., 195 196 2015). Overall, the alternating sit-stand workstation may be beneficial in mitigating low back pain, but it is not known if it can sufficiently reduce sedentarism and mitigate factors 197 198 contributing to WMSDs within other regions of the body. 199 Therefore, more dynamic workstations may be preferable (Baker et al., 2019). Active Office 200 Workstations (AOW) enable people to incorporate physical activity into sedentary tasks and may 201 help reduce workplace inactivity (Frodsham et al., 2020). Such workstations include walking 202 workstations, stepping workstations, elliptical, and cycling or under-desk pedaling workstations.

203 In a review by Torbeyns et al., (2014) it was found that AOWs had significant positive influences on health aspects such as energy expenditure, and overall health. However, studies 204 have reported that walking and cycling workstations had either no effect or a detrimental effect 205 on typing computer performance (Funk et al., 2012; Ohlinger et al., 2011; Straker & Mekhora, 206 2000). A study by Funk (2012) investigating the effect of treadmill/walking workstations, where 207 208 participants walked at 1.6 km/hr while typing, found that performance was 18.2% worse under 209 the walking condition than the seated condition. In another study by Koren et al. (2016) 210 investigating the effects of cycling workstations on productivity (time and error) as well as a 211 similar study by Torbeyns et al. (2017) exploring desk cycling and performance, reported that cycling had little to no detriment in typing performance. While another study by Yoon et al. 212 (2019) studying the effects of typing while cycling with a MonarkTM ergometer, showed 213 214 improvement in typing performance at higher pedaling intensities, over time. Finally, a review 215 by Oja et al. (2011) concluded that there was limited evidence to suggest that cycling 216 workstations might decrease some aspects of performance; however, this could be due to a lack of familiarity with the workstations. 217

218 Nevertheless, cycling workstations still appear to be a promising alternative due to their more 219 dynamic nature. According to a review paper by Dupont et al. (2019) cycling workstations result 220 in greater cardiometabolic gains and maintain acceptable levels of productivity. Cycling 221 workstations also provide more postural stability than walking ones, which may further help 222 stabilize the upper limbs and visual platform, as opposed to the standing and walking computer 223 work postures. Overall, there is limited and conflicting research regarding AOWs, especially 224 cycling workstations on health and computer work. The studies that are available report 225 conflicting results, especially regarding computer work performance (Frodsham et al., 2020; Ojo

et al., 2018; Yoon et al., 2019). Indeed, more studies are needed on cycling workstations beforeconclusions can be drawn.

228 Sex/gender differences in mechanisms of computer work-related MSDs.

Biological sex differences (i.e., hormonal, anthropometric, etc.) as well as gender 229 differences (i.e., behavioral, societal, etc.) could play a major role in the exposure to WMSD risk 230 231 factors (Côté, 2012). The epidemiological differences in the incidence of WMSDs may be 232 related to a myriad of biological sex-based factors such as hormonal, anthropometric, functional 233 (e.g., strength), physiological (e.g., body composition), and fatigue adaptation mechanisms 234 (Côté, 2012). These epidemiological differences may also be influenced by gender-based factors, such as gender differences in computer work assignments, and postural transition (Cairns & 235 Gazerani, 2009; Côté, 2012; Yaginuma et al., 1990). Additionally, the sex/gender (s/g) difference 236 237 in the incidence of WMSDs also appears to influence the region of the body that is affected, with women reporting more neck-shoulder symptoms, and men being more exposed to low back 238 239 injuries (Côté, 2012; Hooftman et al., 2009). Furthermore, in a review by Cairns and Gazerani (2009), it was reported that there were significant sex differences in the occurrence of 240 musculoskeletal pain. Women often report more severe, frequent, anatomically diffuse, and 241 242 longer-lasting pain than men when suffering from the same pain condition (Cairns & Gazerani, 2009). Overall, nearly all epidemiological studies exploring s/g differences report a higher 243 244 prevalence of MSD symptoms in women, particularly in MSDs of the upper limb (Côté, 2012; 245 Larsson et al., 2007). However, more research exploring s/g differences in relation to the 246 susceptibility and development of WMSDs and their symptoms is needed. 247 Several studies have compared the behavior of men and women in jobs focused on traditional 248 computer work, but fewer have investigated how males and females respond to alternative

computer workstations. Studies exploring sex differences in muscle activity during computer 249 work have reported little to no difference in the muscular activity patterns of the upper trapezius 250 251 (Blangsted et al., 2003; Nordander et al., 2000). However, they have found that females tend to exhibit a lower EMG gap time and higher static levels compared to males (Blangsted et al., 2003; 252 Nordander et al., 2000). These finding are supported by a study by Le & Marras, (2016), where 253 254 30 young adults (20 male and 10 female) were instructed to perform a standardized typing task 255 while using a: seated, standing, and perched workstation. This study found that females were 256 more committed to sedentary behaviors and had fewer postural transitions when using any type 257 of workstation (Le & Marras, 2016a). Overall, there is a general lack of studies exploring sex differences in muscle activity when using cycling computer workstations. Highlighting this is a 258 259 study by Yoon et al. (2021), where 22 participants (12 males and 10 females) were recruited. 260 Each group performed a typing task while cycling on a Monark cycle ergometer at low (25% HRR) or moderate (40% HRR) intensity on a separate day. This study found that there were sex 261 262 differences in neuromuscular responses to cycling computer workstations. Specifically, these differences were time-based sex-specific responses in the cervical erector spinae, anterior 263 deltoid, and middle trapezius. It was also found that pedaling intensity only affected the females' 264 265 neck, shoulder, and forearm muscles (Yoon et al., 2021). Females demonstrated a decrease in the activation variability of the upper trapezius during the 25% HRR session. This is significant as 266 267 low variability has been shown to be associated with high fatigability, particularly in females, 268 and an elevated risk for MSDs (Fedorowich et al., 2018; Madeleine et al., 2011). This study 269 shows that muscle activity in response to cycling workstations differs significantly between the 270 sexes. However, this study did not use a cycling device fabricated specifically for computer work

and did not include a seated condition to which the addition of cycling could be compared on awithin-subject basis.

273 Summary and Knowledge Gaps

274 In summary, previous studies have shown that traditional seated workstations promote the development of WMSDs by encouraging major risk factors for WMSDs, such as prolonged 275 276 static sitting, awkward postures, inactivity, etc. To our knowledge, no studies are available that 277 compare the traditional seated workstation to the cycling workstation. Furthermore, no other 278 study has been found that has identified the sex-specific impacts of cycling workstation on upper 279 body and visual discomfort outcomes during computer work. It is also not well known how 280 cycling workstations influence upper body muscle activity as well as productivity and performance. 281

282 **Objectives and Hypotheses**

The objectives of this study were to compare electromyographic (neck, upper limb, lower back muscles), typing performance, and discomfort of the: upper body, neck shoulder, visual, and seat comfort associated with 60 minutes of computer work between under-desk-cycling and sitting, and how these differ between males and females.

We hypothesized that cycling workstations when compared to the seated workstation, would significantly increase muscle activity amplitude in all muscles of the upper limbs. No change in typing performance was expected; however, we anticipated lower reported levels of physical discomfort with time in the under-desk cycling condition compared to the sitting condition. Finally, we expected the above-described differences to vary between the sexes.

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294	RESEARCH ARTICLE
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299	Sex-specific Electromyographic, Performance, and Symptomatic Differences between Sitting
300	and Cycling Computer Workstations
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314 Abstract

Previous studies have shown some benefits of active workstations to reduce symptoms and 315 316 improve overall health of computer workers. Cycling workstations are a promising workplace 317 intervention, as they allow for greater energy expenditure, muscle activation, and increased 318 blood flow. Cycling intensity has been shown to display sex-specific effects on upper muscle 319 activity and typing performance in a computer typing task. However, whole-body effects of using commercial bike-and-type are poorly understood. Twenty-six computer users (n = 14320 321 females) underwent two 60-minute typing tasks, either sitting on a sit-stand stool or cycling 322 within a target heart rate of 25% of heart rate reserve. Surface electrodes were placed to collect 323 from the upper limb and low back muscles. Typing speed, as well as visual, upper limb and seat 324 discomfort were collected every 10-minutes. Results show that males' performance was negatively affected by cycling, with fewer words per minute, whereas females' performance was 325 326 the same in both conditions (Sex \times Time \times Condition interaction effect, p = 0.029). Cycling led 327 to a smaller increase in neck/shoulder discomfort with time, especially in females (Sex \times Condition \times Time interaction effect, p = 0.006). Moreover, with time, neck/shoulder muscle 328 329 activation increased during sitting but conversely, decreased with time during cycling, especially 330 in females. Lastly, low back muscle activity was higher and varied more with time during cycling, especially in females (Sex \times Condition \times Time interaction effect, p=0.046). Although 331 332 there was no difference in seat discomfort between sitting and cycling. The results suggest that there exist sex-specific responses to cycling workstations during 60-minute computer work tasks, 333 334 and that cycling workstations, although a promising alternative, should not necessarily be recommended to all males and all females. 335

Keywords: Electromyography, Musculoskeletal Discomfort, Cycling Workstation

1. Introduction

338	Workplace-related sedentarism, specifically prolonged static sitting, has been associated with
339	higher incidences of cardiovascular disease, obesity, all-cause mortality, and the development of
340	musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs) (Hu et al., 2003; Patel et al., 2010). Work-related MSDs
341	(WMSDs) are disorders of the muscles, tendons, and ligaments caused by factors within the
342	work environment (Government of Canada, 2022). Risk factors for WMSDs include poor
343	posture, excessive static sitting, insufficient blood flow, lack of motor variability, repetitive
344	movements, and sustained muscle contractions (Mörl & Bradl, 2013; Ranasinghe et al., 2016;
345	Tittiranonda et al., 1999). Prolonged static seated computer work has been linked to both neck
346	and upper limb WMSDs as well as increased low back discomfort and upper trapezius muscle
347	activity (Fedorowich & Côté, 2018; Heinrich, 2004), which are well-known risk factors for
348	developing MSDs at the back and neck/shoulders (Grondin et al., 2013).
349	Prolonged use of visual display terminals (VDTs), such as computers, has also been
350	associated with Computer Vision Syndrome (CVS). CVS encompasses a group of eye and vision
351	disorders caused by activities that strain near vision, particularly during computer usage
352	(Rosenfield, 2011). Symptoms of CVS include eye discomfort, eye strain, irritation, burning
353	sensation, redness, blurred vision, and double vision (Bergqvist & Knave, 1994). Symptoms of
354	CVS tend to be acute, although some individuals experience recurring and worsening symptoms
355	over time (Bergqvist & Knave, 1994; Loh & Redd, 2008). CVS symptoms can impair
356	performance by increasing errors during computer tasks and necessitate more frequent breaks
357	(Rosenfield, 2011). Moreover, CVS symptoms have the potential to exacerbate MSDs, although
358	the mechanistic link between CVS and MSDs during computer work is poorly understood.

359	The existing literature consistently indicates that females have a higher susceptibility to
360	developing both WMSDs and CVS (Juul-Kristensen, 2005; Treaster & Burr, 2004). The exact
361	reasons for this disparity are not fully understood, but potential contributing factors can be
362	related to either or both sex and gender, including variations in hormones, anthropometric and
363	structural characteristics, sensorimotor strategies, and fatigue adaptation methods (Emery &
364	Côté, 2012; Fedorowich et al., 2013; Srinivasan et al., 2016). The currently sub-optimal
365	understanding of the mechanisms that underlie sex/gender differences in computer work-related
366	symptoms makes it difficult to determine the extent to which adaptations to the traditional static
367	seated computer work setup should be adapted to sex/gender.
368	Various alternative office work postures, such as standing, and sit-stand desks (Davis &
369	Kotowski, 2015), have been proposed to mitigate the elevated occurrence of upper-body MSDs
370	associated with extended periods of seated computer work. Although some benefits of these
371	alternative workstations have been documented (Bastien et al., 2018; Frodsham et al., 2020), it is
372	unclear whether they sufficiently alleviate the health risks associated with sedentarism
373	(Callaghan et al., 2015). Consequently, more active office workstations (AOW), such as walking
374	and cycling workstations, may be preferable (Baker et al., 2019). Cycling workstations are a
375	promising alternative as they activate larger muscle groups, promote blood flow, and help
376	prevent discomfort in the upper and lower limbs while providing a more stable seated support
377	than during walking (Baker et al., 2019). Previous studies on both walking and cycling
378	workstations have suggested some benefits (Fedorowich et al. 2018; Yoon et al., 2019).
379	However, there is limited research particularly regarding cycling workstations: for instance, there
380	have been no previous studies using commercial under-desk pedaling devices, and none has

compared the visual symptoms or electromyographic (EMG) differences between sitting andcycling desk work.

The objectives of this study were to compare neck, upper limb, and lower back electromyography, performance, and discomfort across time and between males and females accomplishing a computer work task. We hypothesized that cycling workstations would result in earlier onset of visual discomfort. We expected no change in typing performance but anticipated decreased discomfort over time in the under-desk cycling condition compared to the sitting condition. Finally, we anticipated that the described differences would vary between the sexes.

389 2. Methods

390 **2.1 Participants**

391 To test our primary outcome, Upper Trapezius root mean square (RMS), it was determined that a sample size of 14 participants was required (G*Power software, Repeated Measures 392 393 ANOVA within-between interaction: power = 0.80, alpha = 0.05, effect size = 0.56, number of groups = 2 [males and females], number of measurements = 24 [2 conditions with 12-time 394 points], sphericity: 0.05). We used a power of 0.80 since it has been shown to be the ideal power 395 of a study (Hintze, 2008). The effect size of 0.56 was used for the calculation; it was calculated 396 using results for the main outcome of Upper Trapezius RMS from our previous study 397 (Lamanuzzi et al., 2023), which assessed the sex-specific effects of alternating computer work 398 postures in young adults. Four extra participants were recruited to account for the 20% dropout 399 rate, and an additional eight were also recruited to increase the reliability of the results for the 400 401 additional outcomes. Therefore, 26 young healthy adults (12 males, 14 females; age: male= age: 22.8 ± 2.3 female= age: 22.6 ± 2.1 ; height: male= height: 174.00 ± 6.33 cm female= 160.42 ± 1000 402

403	4.01cm; weight: male= 68.6 ± 12.6 kg weight: female= 65.3 ± 17.5 kg; 19 right hand dominant, 6
404	left hand dominant, 1 ambidextrous) were recruited as a convenience sample from a university
405	population (see Appendix A). Participants were included in the study if they met the following
406	criteria: (1) were cleared by the Physical Activity Readiness Questionnaire for Everyone 2020
407	(CSEP Expert Advisory Committee, 2002), (2) were frequent computer users (≥ 6 hours/day or \geq
408	40 hours/week) and (3) willingly provided informed written consent to participate in the study
409	(see Appendix B). Participants were excluded from the study if they (1) had a medically
410	diagnosed musculoskeletal or neurological pathology, (2) consumed alcohol or engaged in
411	exercise \leq 24 hr before the laboratory visit, (3) consumed caffeine \leq 12 hours before the
412	laboratory visit, (4) were unable to read or type in English for \geq 60 minutes, (5) suffered from
413	chronic headaches diagnosed by a doctor or requiring medical attention in the last 3 months, or
414	(6) had a disorder of the upper or lower body in the last year. The study was approved by the
415	McGill Research Ethics Board Office (Reference Number: 22-06-060).

416 **2.2 Experimental Protocol**

Participants sat on a MuvmanTM sit-stand stool or Ergonomyx[©] Under Desk Bike while 417 using a sit-stand table (Ergonomyx Technologies Canada 381 Inc., Victoria, Canada). The table 418 419 was adjusted based on Canadian ergonomic guidelines and individualized based on anthropometric measures (Canadian Centre for Occupational Health and Safety, 2016; 420 421 Occupational Health Clinics for Ontario Workers, 2008). Specifically, the desk height was set to provide an angle of 90° at the elbow joints when the hands were placed flat on the table (Winkel 422 423 & Bendix, 1986). A laptop with a 15-inch monitor was placed on a laptop stand and connected to 424 a standard wired keyboard. The monitor was placed at an arm's length distance from the participant, with the top of the monitor being adjusted to be approximately 5cm below the 425

426 participant's eye level. The keyboard and monitor were centered in line with the nose and belly 427 buttons, and the keyboard was placed as close to the edge of the table as possible, to prevent the 428 participant from supporting their forearms with the table. The participant was asked to relax their 429 shoulders, keep their elbows close to their body, and to sit with their head and neck balanced and 430 in line with their torso, and maintain this upper body posture during the entire recording 431 protocol.

The participant completed two separate 60-minute computer tasks in a randomized presentation order on the same day. The task involved reading and typing solely using a keyboard, in either the seated or cycling posture. There was no mousing tasking involved in the set up. Fourteen participants started with the biking condition, while 12 started with the cycling condition.

Before beginning each condition, the participant engaged in a 10-minute familiarization 437 task (5 minutes of cycling while typing, 5 minutes of sitting while typing) followed by a 5-438 439 minute break. The experimental task consisted of the participant performing six 10-minute trials of computer work where electromyography (EMG) of several muscles were recorded during the 440 final 30s of each 10-minute trial. A 90-second break was provided at the end of each 10-minute 441 442 trial, where performance (words per minute [WPM]), and WPM adjusted for the number of mistakes made during the bout i.e. adjusted words per minute [AWPM]) was measured by the 443 444 Mavis Beacon Teaches Typing software (Crichton, 2001; Fedorowich & Côté, 2018), and the 445 discomfort ratings of neck-shoulder, upper body, seat, and visual discomfort were collected using a 0-10 visual analog scale (VAS) from 0 = "no discomfort" (0mm) to 10 = "Discomfort as 446 447 bad as it could possibly be" (100mm). When discomfort ratings were asked, the participant was 448 instructed to pause the task (excluding pedaling, for the cycling condition) and they were then

presented with four VAS scales, on different pieces of paper, to determine: neck-shoulder
discomfort, upper body discomfort, visual discomfort, and seat discomfort. The participant was
instructed to mark with a vertical line their current discomfort rating for the above-mentioned
measures on during the 90-second break between each trial.

The participant was told at the beginning of each condition and trial to "type as accurately and as fast as possible" to ensure maximal computer performance. The participant was given 20 minutes to recover after the first bout of 60 minutes of computer work to reduce the possibility of residual fatigue affecting the data of the condition assigned in second (Le et al., 2016).

457 2.3 Muvman[™] Sit-stand Stool

The Muvman[™] sit-stand stool (Muvman[®], aeris-Impulsmobel GmbH &Co.KG, Haar bei 458 München, Germany) was utilized in this study to provide a static sitting condition as comparable 459 as possible to that of the under-desk bike, while also still closely resembling sitting surfaces used 460 in the office (Antle et al., 2015; Chester et al., 2002; Yang & Côté, 2021). Compared to the 461 462 standard seated workstation, the Muvman[™] sit-stand stool has a movable joint at the base, to allow some motion of the hips, trunk and upper body. The stool was selected to minimize the 463 influence of seat discomfort on the other outcomes. To standardize the implementation of the sit-464 465 stool, it was briefly introduced to the participant. The participant was informed that the stool did allow some motion. The participant's stool height was adjusted to the midpoint of their greater 466 467 trochanter and lateral epicondyles (Yang & Côté, 2021). The participant was then asked to find 468 their most comfortable position on the sit-stand stool with their feet flat on the floor. Once they 469 found their most comfortable position, they were not allowed to move their feet anymore 470 (Appendix C).

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472 **2.4 Ergonomyx**[©] Under Desk Bike

A standard positioning protocol described by Lopes et al. (2014) was used in 473 combination with the Ergonomyx[®] Under Desk Bike. Feet were positioned such that the second 474 metatarsal was over the pedal spindle. The participant was asked to adjust the bike to themself. 475 The participant's ankle was in a neutral position (foot and tibia perpendicular) in the sagittal 476 477 plane. The knee angle at maximum flexion and extension were also manually measured and 478 recorded using a goniometer (Appendix D). During the task, the participant was instructed to 479 bike at the same time as they were executing the computer task, and to stay within their target 480 heart rate (see below). Resistance was monitored and adjusted throughout the bike-and-type condition to maintain the heart rate during the target zone (25% of Heart Rate Reserve, HRR). 481

482 **2.5 Instrumentation-Heart rate Monitor**

The heart rate monitor was placed upon arrival, and the Resting Heart Rate (RHR) was 483 measured. Female participants were instructed to wear a sports bra, while male participants were 484 485 asked to be shirtless. A digital heart rate monitor (Polar T61-coded) was aligned with the xiphoid process to monitor pedaling intensity (moderate 25% HRR; Yoon et al. 2019). The participant 486 laid down on a massage table in a supine position with their eyes closed without falling asleep 487 488 for five and a half minutes. The highest and lowest values were recorded during the last 30 s and were averaged to obtain the RHR. To calculate the appropriate %HRR (i.e., the target HR, 489 490 TargetHR), the Karvonen formula (TargetHR = $[MaxHR - RHR] \times \%$ intensity + RHR) was 491 used, with an estimation for Maximum HR (MaxHR)= 220-age.

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493

2.6 Experimental Task, Discomfort and Computer Performance

496	Twelve predetermined texts from the Grimm's Fairy Tales collection were randomly
497	selected as the texts for the typing task in the Mavis Beacon Software (Kim et al., 2014; Yoon et
498	al., 2021). The randomly selected texts had similar Flesch-Kincaid grade levels to the texts
499	mentioned in a study by Kim et al. (2014) that investigated typing performance on a virtual and
500	conventional keyboard. The texts chosen had a Flesch-Kincaid grade level of 5.1–5.7, indicating
501	that the texts could be easily understood by the average 12-year-old.
502	
503	3.0 Muscle activity
504	Surface EMG Electrodes (Delsys [©] Trigno [™] , USA) were placed on seven neck and
505	shoulder muscles: upper trapezius, middle trapezius, lower trapezius, anterior deltoid and lumbar
506	erector spinae (bilaterally) with alignment of the electrode parallel to the muscle fibers. The
507	muscle sites were shaved and abraded with alcohol before placing the electrodes to prevent hair
508	or dead skin cells from interfering with the conductivity. Muscle activity was continuously
509	recorded using an A/D converter and a multichannel data acquisition software to sample the
510	EMG data at 2000 Hz.
511	Electrodes were placed as described in Table 1 (Hermens et al., 2000).
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513	

Table 1. EMG electrode position for each muse
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Muscle		
Upper trapezius	Electrode placed halfway between the acromion and C7 vertebrae	
Middle trapezius	Electrodes placed, horizontally, halfway between the medial border of the scapula and the spine, at the level of T3 vertebrae.	
Lower trapezius	Electrode placed, at an angle, 2/3 of the way from the trigonum spinae to the T8 vertebrae	
Lumbar erector spinae	Electrode placed two finger widths from the spine at the midpoint between T12 and S1, along lumbar spine over transverse process	
Anterior deltoid	Electrode placed two-finger width distal and anterior to the acromion.	

522 **3.1 Submaximal Voluntary Isometric Contractions (sMVICs)**

- 523 sMVICs were recorded after placing the electrodes and before performing the
- 524 experimental tasks, from all the following muscles: middle trapezius, lower trapezius, lumbar
- 525 erector spinae, anterior deltoid and upper trapezius. sMVICs were performed against gravity in
- the postures and with held positions as described in Table 2.
- 527 **Table 2.** sMVICs position and action for each muscle

Muscle	sMVICs position	sMVICs held position	
Middle trapezius	Prone lying, shoulder horizontally abducted and externally rotated (palm facing the floor)	Shoulder horizontal abduction held at 90°	
Lower trapezius Prone lying, shoulder horizontally abducted with external rotation, and with the arm raised overhead in line with the lower trapezius muscle fibre		Shoulder flexion held at 180° (i.e., parallel to the floor)	
Lumbar erector spinae	Prone lying, upper body off the physio table, lower body secured	Lumbar extension held at 0°	
Anterior deltoid	Seated with their legs flexed at 90	Shoulder flexion held at 90° with the wrist in neutral position	
Upper trapezius	degrees	Shoulder abduction held at 90°, with palm facing down	

528

sMVICs were recorded only once, before the first of the two sessions (since both sessions were

scheduled on the same day, and electrodes were kept on the participants in between both

sessions). For sMVICs, two ramp-up, hold, ramp-down, five-second trials were performed for

each muscle. Guidance and feedback were provided to ensure the participant reached the target

posture. One minute of rest was given between each sMVICs trial. The mean of the two trials

534 was used to define the sMVICs for data analysis.

537 4.0 Data Analysis

538	The collected EMG data was band-pass filtered (Butterworth 2nd order, 10-450 Hz), full-
539	wave rectified, and normalized. All EMG data was then visually screened for heartbeat
540	contamination, and spikes. All heartbeats and spikes were removed.
541	RMS values that were best reflective of the sMVICs trials were visually selected and
542	used to normalize the EMG data collected during the typing trials. The average RMS value of
543	each 30 second typing trial per muscle was calculated and represented the EMG RMS for each
544	muscle and for each condition.
545	4.1 Statistical Analysis
546	The mean and standard deviation for age, weight, and height for males and females were
547	determined and compared using Independent-Samples T-Test. A p-value of < 0.05 was indicative
548	of significant sex differences for variables of equal variance.
549	Generalized estimating equations (GEE) were used to assess effects on EMG,
550	performance, and discomfort measures. Sex (Males, Females) was modeled as a between-subject
551	factor, while Condition (seated vs. cycling) and Time (6 x 10 min trials) were modeled as within-
552	subject factors. The GEE approach was applied as it is able to obtain a higher power with a smaller
553	sample size in comparison to the repeated measures analyses of variance (RM-ANOVA), it also
554	employs less restrictive assumptions than RM-ANOVA and helps to estimate the overall average
555	effects per group (Ma et al., 2012; Naseri et al., 2016). If statistically significant effects were
556	observed using pairwise comparisons (Wald X ²), sequential Bonferroni corrections were
557	performed. The significance level was $p < 0.05$. Statistics were conducted in SPSS (SPSS
558	Statistics v24, IBM Corp., US).

560 **3. Results**

- 561 Participant characteristics are presented in Table 1. Males were significantly (p<0.001)
- taller than females. They did not differ significantly in terms of weight and age.
- Table 1. Mean and standard deviation (SD) of male and female participants.
 Independent-Samples T-Tests were performed with equal variances for age, height, and weight.
 A p-value of < 0.05 indicates a significant sex difference.

Characteristic	Males	Females	p-value	
Age (years)	23.00 (2.26)	22.64(2.06)	=0.68	
Height (m)	174.59(6.37)	160.42(4.01)	<0.001	
Weight (kg)	69.30(12.22)	65.27(17.52)	=0.51	

566

567 **3.1 Computer Performance**

568	For computer performan	ce (Words per minute,	, WPM), a significant	interaction effect of

569 Sex × Condition ($X^2 = 4.89$, p = 0.029) was found. A significantly lower performance was

- observed in males in the cycling condition compared to the seated condition (Fig.1). Female
- 571 computer performance was similar in both conditions (Fig.1).





Figure 1. Computer performance measures (words per minute) as a function of condition and time. There was a significant interaction effect of Sex \times Condition for computer performance (p =0.029). Error bars indicate standard error.

572 A significant interaction effect of Sex \times Time (X² = 54.69, p=0.027) was also

determined. Males' performance decreased from 20 minutes to 40 minutes, from 48 words/min

to 45 words/min (Fig.2). Females' performance also decreased from 30 minutes to 50 minutes,

from 46 words/min to 44 words/min (Fig.2).



Figure 2. Computer performance measures (words per minute) as a function of condition, time, and sex. There was a significant interaction effect of Sex \times Time for computer performance (p =0.027). Error bars indicate standard error.

577	A significant main effect of Time was also determined (p<0.001) for WPM. Computer
578	performance remained relatively consistent; however, there was a significant drop at the very end
579	in comparison to the beginning, from 46 words/min to 45 words/min. There were no other main
580	or interaction effects on WPM.
581	A significant interaction effect of Sex × Condition ($X^2 = 12.08$, p=0.003) was determined
582	for adjusted computer performance (AWPM). Males' computer performance, adjusted for their
583	typing mistakes, was lower in the cycling condition compared to the seated, whereas there was




Figure 3. Adjusted computer performance measures (adjusted words per minute) as a function of condition and sex. There was a significant interaction effect of Sex \times Condition for computer performance (p =0.003). Error bars indicate standard error.

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A main effect of Condition (p=0.003) was also determined on AWPM. A higher adjusted computer performance was observed during the seated condition in comparison to the cycling condition. Finally, a significant main effect of Time ($X^2 = 10.84$, p=0.031) was also found for adjusted computer performance. Adjusted computer performance decreased during the first 40 minutes, from 42 words/min to 41 words/min and continued to decrease for another 10 minutes(Fig.4). There were no other interactions or main effects on AWPM.



Figure 4. Adjusted typing performance measures (adjusted words per minute). There was a significant main effect of Time for adjusted typing computer performance (p = 0.031). Error bars indicate standard error.

605 **3.2 Discomfort**

Regarding visual discomfort, a significant main effect of Time ($X^2 = 37.19$, p < 0.001) was found. Visual discomfort appeared to increase steadily over time, with a plateau during the last 10 minutes (Fig. 5).

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Figure 5. Visual discomfort (measured on a 0-100 mm visual analog scale) was reported during the computer task. Baseline measures were taken before the trial began (baseline=0 minutes). A significant main effect of Time (p < 0.001) was found. Error bars indicate standard error.

A significant main effect of Condition ($X^2 = 4.13$, p=0.047) was also found on visual

611 discomfort. Compared to the seated condition, the cycling condition demonstrated significantly

612 lower levels of visual discomfort. There were no other main or interaction effects on visual

⁶¹³ discomfort (Fig. 6).



Figure 6. Visual discomfort (measured on a 0-100 mm visual analog scale) was reported
 during the computer task. Baseline measures were taken before the trial began (baseline=0
 minutes). A significant main effect of Condition (p= 0.047) was found. Error bars indicate
 standard error.

For neck/shoulder discomfort, a significant interaction effect of Sex \times Condition \times Time 619 $(X^2 = 18.29, p = 0.006)$ was determined. Throughout time, the cycling condition demonstrated 620 the lowest levels of neck/shoulder discomfort, and less of an increase with time, for both sexes, 621 compared to the seated condition. Females also demonstrated lower levels of neck/shoulder 622 discomfort than males in both conditions; however, this sex difference varied over time (Fig. 7). 623 These findings were also reflected with significant Time x Condition ($X^2 = 25.30$, p < 0.001), 624 and Time x Sex ($X^2 = 22.85$, p < 0.001) interaction effects, as well as a main Time effect ($X^2 =$ 625 103.49, p < 0.001). There were no other interactions or main effects on neck/shoulder discomfort 626 (Fig.7). 627



Figure 7. Neck/shoulder discomfort (measured on a 0-100 mm visual analog scale) was reported during the computer task. Baseline measures were taken before the trial began (baseline=0 minutes). A significant interaction effect of Sex × Condition × Time for neck/shoulder discomfort (p =0.006) was found. Error bars indicate standard error.

- For upper body discomfort, only a significant effect of Time ($X^2 = 72.98$, p < 0.001) was
- 630 found. Upper body discomfort increased steadily from approximately 14 to 44mm, from
- 631 beginning to end (Fig.8).



Figure 8. Upper Body discomfort (measured on a 0-100 mm visual analog scale) was reported during the computer task. Baseline measures were taken before the trial began (baseline=0 minutes). A significant effect of Time for upper body discomfort (p < 0.001) was found. Error bars indicate standard error.

Similarly, for seat discomfort, only a significant effect of Time ($X^2 = 182.84$, p < 0.001)





634

635Figure 9. Seat discomfort (measured on a 0-100 mm visual analog scale) was reported636during the computer task. Baseline measures were taken before the trial began (baseline=0637minutes). A significant effect of Time for seat discomfort (p < 0.001) was found. Error bars638indicate standard error.

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640 **3.3 Muscle Activation Amplitude (RMS)**

641 Significant and non-significant p-values are presented in Table 2, for the activity

amplitude of the six muscles tested. A significant interaction effect of Sex \times Condition \times Time

643 was determined for the upper trapezius ($X^2 = 25.39$, p<0.001), the left lumbar erector spinae (X^2

=14.78, p=0.011), and right lumbar erector spinae muscles ($X^2 = 11.30$, p=0.046).

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Table 2. Test of model effects (main and interaction), Wald Chi-Square, and p-values for
 muscle activation amplitude of six tested muscles using generalized estimated equations. A p value of < 0.05 indicates a significant effect.

Muscle	Test of Model Effects	Wald Chi-Squared	p-value
Upper Trapezius	Sex \times Condition \times Time	25.39	<0.001
	Sex \times Condition	2.04	0.15
	$Sex \times Time$	17.40	0.004
	Condition × Time	29.12	<0.001
	Sex	0.038	0.85
	Condition	0.49	0.48
	Time	147.44	0.014
Middle Trapezius	Sex \times Condition \times Time	2.29	0.81
	$Sex \times Condition$	0.43	0.51
	$Sex \times Time$	5.88	0.32
	Condition × Time	10.46	0.063
	Sex	5.06	0.025
	Condition	1.81	0.18
	Time	12.70	0.026
Lower Trapezius	Sex \times Condition \times Time	5.27	0.38
	$\mathbf{Sex} \times \mathbf{Condition}$	3.63	0.057
	$Sex \times Time$	11.73	0.039
	Condition × Time	3.31	0.65
	Sex	0.42	0.52
	Condition	1.54	0.22
	Time	4.13	0.53
Anterior Deltoid	Sex \times Condition \times Time	3.12	0.68
	$Sex \times Condition$	0.62	0.43
	$Sex \times Time$	7.49	0.19
	Condition × Time	60.07	<0.001
	Sex	1.97	0.16
	Condition	10.43	<0.001
	Time	4.86	0.43
Lumbar Erector Spinae Left	Sex \times Condition \times Time	14.78	0.011
	$Sex \times Condition$	2.48	0.12
	$Sex \times Time$	9.19	0.1
	Condition × Time	10.88	0.05
	Sex	6.87	0.009
	Condition	162.79	<0.001
	Time	7.31	0.19
Lumbar Erector Spinae Right	Sex \times Condition \times Time	11.30	0.046
	Sex \times Condition	0.38	0.54
	$Sex \times Time$	7.82	0.17
	Condition \times Time	5.49	0.36
	Sex	0.49	0.48
	Condition	47.51	<0.001
	Time	14.74	0.012

Regarding the upper trapezius muscle, activation amplitude mainly rose with time in the seated condition but displayed the opposite trend in the cycling condition (Fig.10). Moreover, females' activation was higher than males' in the cycling condition, but the opposite was found in the seated condition.



Figure 10. Muscle activation amplitude of the upper trapezius (group average values, error bars indicate a standard error) recorded during the last 30s of each 10-minute typing task. A significant interaction effect of Sex × Condition × Time for upper trapezius activation amplitude (p < 0.001) was found.

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As for the left lumbar erector spinae (Fig. 11), the three-way interaction effect reflects higher activation amplitude during cycling, with increasingly higher amplitude with time in males. Conversely, for the right lumbar erector spinae (Fig. 12), females showed higher activation amplitude in the cycling condition compared to males.



Figure 11. Muscle activation amplitude of the lumbar erector spinae left (group average values, error bars indicate a standard error) recorded during the last 30s of each 10-minute typing task. A significant interaction effect of Sex \times Condition \times Time for lumbar erector spinae left activation amplitude (p =0.011) was found.



Figure 12. Muscle activation amplitude of the lumbar erector spinae right (group average values, error bars indicate a standard error) recorded during the last 30s of each 10-minute typing task. A significant interaction effect of Sex × Condition × Time for lumbar erector spinae right activation amplitude (p = 0.046) was found.

A significant interaction effect of Condition × Time was determined for the anterior deltoid ($X^2 = 26.88$, p < 0.001). After 10 minutes, muscle activation amplitude of the anterior deltoid decreased and continued to decrease in the seated condition and started to decrease later in the cycling condition (Fig.13). There were no other significant interaction effects, but there was a main Condition effect, on this muscle, with higher activity during cycling.



Figure 13. Muscle activation amplitude of the anterior deltoid (group average values, error bars indicate a standard error) recorded during the last 30s of each 10-minute typing task. A significant interaction effect of Condition \times Time for anterior deltoid activation amplitude (p < 0.001) was found.

A significant interaction effect of Sex × Time was also determined for the lower trapezius

 $(X^2 = 21.16, p = 0.039)$. Lower trapezius muscle activation amplitude after 30 minutes showed an

679 increasing trend in both males and females until the end of the condition (Fig. 14), and overall,

there was a trend towards an increase with time in females only. There were no other significant

681 main or interaction effects for this muscle.



Figure 14. Muscle activation amplitude of the lower trapezius (group average values, error bars indicate a standard error) recorded during the last 30s of each 10-minute typing task. A significant interaction effect of Sex × Time for lower trapezius activation amplitude (p = 0.039) was found.

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A significant main effect of Time was determined for the middle trapezius ($X^2 = 6.87$, p= 0.026). Middle trapezius muscle activation amplitude displayed a slight decrease with time (Fig. 15). There was also a main Sex effect on this muscle, with higher activity amplitude in females ($X^2=3.24$, p= 0.072) (Fig. 16).



Figure 15. Muscle activation amplitude of the middle trapezius (group average values, error bars indicate a standard error) recorded during the last 30s of each 10-minute typing task. A significant main effect of Time for middle trapezius activation amplitude (p = 0.026) was found.



Figure 16. Muscle activation amplitude of the middle trapezius (group average values, error bars indicate a standard error) recorded during the last 30s of each 10-minute typing task. A significant main effect of Sex for middle trapezius activation amplitude (p = 0.072) was found

693 **4. Discussion**

The current study examined the sex-specific electromyographic, performance, and 694 695 symptomatic differences between experimental seated and cycling computer workstations. The 696 hypotheses of this study were that the cycling workstation when compared to the seated workstation, would elicit significantly higher electromyographic activity in all muscles of the 697 698 upper limbs. No difference in typing performance was expected; however, we anticipated lower reported levels of physical discomfort with time in the under-desk cycling condition compared to 699 700 the sitting condition. Finally, we expected the above-described differences to vary between the 701 sexes. The main findings of this study were: 1) Males' performance was negatively affected by cycling, with fewer words per minute, whereas females' performance was the same in both 702 703 conditions; 2) Cycling led to a smaller increase in neck/shoulder discomfort with time, especially in females; 3) With time, neck/shoulder muscle activation increased during sitting but 704 705 conversely, decreased with time during cycling; 4) Low back muscle activity was higher and 706 varied more with time during cycling, even though there was no difference in seat discomfort between the seated and cycling conditions. 707

708 **4.1. Computer performance**

Regarding computer performance measures (words per minute, WPM, and adjusted
words per minute, AWPM), male typing performance was poorer in the cycling condition
compared to the seated condition, for both WPM and AWPM. However, female computer
performance was similar in both conditions. We elected to analyze both AWPM and WPM in
case a comparison across conditions and sexes yielded different results for each variable.
Additionally, both variables have been studied in previous literature (Fedorowich & Côté, 2018;
Yoon et al., 2019). The negative impact of cycling on male performance aligns with existing

716 literature, which commonly reports small decrements in typing performance when using an active workstation (Funk et al., 2012; John et al., 2009; Straker et al., 2009). The decrease in 717 718 performance may be attributed to attentional constraints caused by dividing attention between typing and cycling. On the other hand, the female performance results are consistent with a 719 720 recent study where females showed less change in performance over time at higher pedaling 721 intensities (Yoon et al., 2019). The sex difference in typing performance in the cycling condition 722 may also be due to sex differences in the physical constraint of having to maintain typing 723 performance while moving the legs, which are typically heavier in males. In a study by Mansour 724 et al. (2021) it was found that age-matched females weighed 15.7% less, and exhibited a significantly higher percentage of fat mass $(17.2 \pm 1.8\%)$ compared to males. According to this 725 726 study, variances in body composition, particularly body fat, accounted for 30 to 70% of the 727 observed differences between male and females' lower limb performances and power outcomes 728 measured during jump tests (Mansour et al., 2021). Thus, the same pedaling rate in males and 729 females could create more postural imbalance in males, which could affect more strongly the control of their neck and upper limb as well as their vision, which could combine to negatively 730 affect their typing performance. On a more general level, dual tasking has previously been shown 731 732 to represent more of a challenge in males. In a study by Stoet and colleagues (2013) it was found that males and females exhibit differences in their ability to perform dual tasks such as tasks that 733 734 combined requirements of verbal processing, and language comprehension. Overall, our results 735 demonstrate sex differences in typing performance when implementing cycling workstations. 736 These differences may reflect varying levels of compensation for additional task complexity, and 737 they could also be attributed to differences in the interpretation of the same instructions.

738

739 **4.2. Discomfort**

740 The findings of the current study indicate that visual discomfort increased over time in 741 both conditions. However, visual discomfort was lower in the cycling condition compared to the 742 seated condition and was not influenced by sex. As for upper body and seat discomfort, only an 743 effect of time was observed, with both discomfort levels steadily increasing throughout the 744 study. Additionally, the cycling condition exhibited the lowest levels of neck/shoulder discomfort for both sexes compared to the seated condition. However, there were sex differences 745 in neck/shoulder discomfort that varied over time, with females reporting lower discomfort 746 levels than males in both conditions. 747

748 Neck/shoulder discomfort is a common complaint among office workers and may be 749 caused by metabolic disturbances resulting from prolonged static muscle activity during sitting (Larsson et al., 2007). Females typically report higher levels of neck/shoulder discomfort, which 750 751 could be attributed to biological sex differences in muscle fiber type characteristics. Indeed, even 752 though females are known to have more type 1, fatigue-resistant muscle fibers especially in the neck/shoulder region, previous studies have also shown a predominance of the most vulnerable 753 754 type 1 (Cinderella) fibers in women who develop repetitive strain injuries. These fibers exhibit poor capillarization and impaired local microcirculation in the trapezius muscles (Côté, 2012; 755 Kupa et al., 1995; Nordander et al., 2000; Simoneau & Bouchard, 1989). In the long run, during 756 757 prolonged bouts of sustained neck postures and repetitive upper limb efforts, female neck/shoulder muscles may thus increasingly rely on anaerobic metabolism, leading to the 758 759 peripheral buildup of metabolites that cause pain and discomfort, and they especially may benefit 760 from alternative ways to engage their neck/shoulder muscles than static seated computer work.

761 The potential benefits of cycling computer workstations on upper limb muscles can be explained in the following way. The higher physical activity associated with the cycling 762 763 workstation may enhance blood flow to the upper limbs, improving muscle oxygenation and reducing reliance on anaerobic metabolism. This decrease in metabolic buildup could slow the 764 development of symptoms of pain and discomfort. Furthermore, the lower reported 765 766 neck/shoulder discomfort associated with the cycling workstation could also be attributed to 767 increased postural variability that is likely to occur with the movements of the legs during 768 cycling (Babski et al., 2016; Sangachin et al., 2016). Postural variability helps distribute the load 769 and stress on the neck and shoulder muscles and joints more evenly, reducing strain and promoting better load distribution (Cid et al., 2020; Fedorowich & Côté, 2018; Yang et al., 770 2019) 771

772 Moreover, the lower levels of neck/shoulder discomfort during cycling may have influenced the development of visual discomfort, which may explain why visual discomfort was 773 774 lower during cycling. Although these symptoms are often studied separately, there is evidence of physiological relationships and mutual influence between neck/shoulder muscular and visual 775 776 systems (Blehm et al., 2005; Robertson et al., 2013; Woods, 2005). Indeed, some intervention 777 studies have shown that implementing appropriate visual ergonomics can reduce both eye and 778 musculoskeletal discomfort (Hemphälä & Eklund, 2012). Thus, it is important to consider both 779 visual and neck/shoulder symptoms when implementing active workstations in the workplace. 780 In summary, our findings suggest that integrating physical activity into computer-based

especially among females. Our findings further highlight the need to consider sex-specificity,

tasks can decrease symptoms of discomfort and lower the likelihood of developing WMSDs,

781

and the potential mutual relationship between visual and neck/shoulder discomfort whenimplementing workplace interventions.

785 **4.3. Muscle Activation Amplitude (RMS)**

In line with our hypothesis, there were some significant effects of the cycling condition 786 on muscle activity amplitude, including some that varied according to time and sex, although the 787 majority of these cycling effects were of generally small magnitude. We found that the muscle 788 789 activation amplitude of the Upper Trapezius increased over time in sitting, but conversely, 790 decreased over time in the cycling condition. This increase with time in sitting may be a 791 consequence of individuals adopting an increasingly less neutral shoulder posture with prolonged 792 sitting (Lin et al., 2017) in which the legs are maintained statically in a position anterior to the 793 trunk, creating a constant spine flexion moment. In comparison, the repeated forward and backward movement of the legs during cycling may promote a better balance of sagittal plane 794 795 moments, which may result in reduced load on the posterior spine muscles, including the Upper 796 Trapezius. Regardless of the specific mechanisms, a time-based decrease in activity amplitude of the Upper Trapezius is likely beneficial as a way to prevent the development of Trapezius 797 798 myalgia. However, our results also suggest that males seem to benefit more from a reduction in Upper Trapezius activity amplitude with cycling than females, who show a slightly higher Upper 799 Trapezius activity amplitude when cycling as compared to males. Thus, our results do not help 800 801 support cycling as an intervention to reduce the risk of Trapezius myalgia in females, the sex most at risk of developing this type of injury (Cid et al., 2020; Cui et al., 2020; Ekman et al., 802 803 2000; Côté, 2012; Fedorowich et al., 2013).

804 Generally speaking, the Anterior Deltoid and Lumbar Erector Spinae muscles were the 805 only ones that displayed a higher activation amplitude during cycling as compared to sitting,

regardless of sex. Regarding the Anterior Deltoid, it is unlikely that a 2% higher activation 806 during an 8% effort amplitude (Fig. 12) is clinically meaningful. As for the Lumbar Erector 807 808 spinae, as expected, its activity amplitude was clearly higher, as well as more variable across the 60-minute task, when cycling. Although this may seem to represent a negative impact of cycling, 809 there is no evidence that higher Lumbar muscle activation amplitude, especially at such low 810 811 levels as measured during the computer task, represents any increase in risk of low back pain during computer work. In fact, stiffness of passive tissues is a better-known mechanism for 812 813 prolonged sitting-related low back pain, and several interventions to reduce low back pain have 814 rather tried to further engage the activation of the trunk musculature to prevent symptoms related to prolonged sitting, such as through the use of sit-stand stools (Antle et al., 2015; Alameri et al., 815 2019; Yang et al., 2019; Yang & Côté, 2021). Combined with our findings of no negative impact 816 of cycling on seat comfort, added to the likely benefit of cycling to increase blood circulation 817 818 and muscle regeneration, our Lumbar Erector Spinae results do not likely reflect a negative 819 impact of cycling while typing on the low back.

Finally, our results also show some effects of sex and time that were independent of the 820 cycling condition. The Lower Trapezius showed a constant activation level in males but a slight 821 822 time-based increase in females. These findings align with the findings of Yoon et al. (2021), who reported higher activation amplitudes in the Middle and Lower trapezius, as well as the Lumbar 823 824 Erector Spinae among cycling females compared to males. In addition, these findings support 825 several previous studies showing that females tend to operate at muscle activation intensities that 826 are closer to their maximum during occupational tasks. This elevated level of intensity, maintained over extended periods of work, could potentially explain why females are more 827 susceptible to developing injuries of the upper (Nordander et al., 2008; Wahlström et al., 2000). 828

829 Interventions in addition to, or instead of, cycling, are necessary in order to address the higher
830 vulnerability of females to computer work-related musculoskeletal disorders.

831 **4.4. Limitations**

It is important to interpret the results of the current study while considering the sample 832 population, which consisted of young and healthy adults who were mainly University students. 833 Future studies should aim to include older and more diverse populations to enhance 834 generalizability. Additionally, the typing program as well as the MuvmanTM sit-stand stool that 835 836 was used may not fully reflect real office work as well as true office conditions. However, the computer typing program used has been utilized in other laboratory-based studies. Furthermore, 837 the Muvman[™] sit-stand stool did allow for a 4-degrees of tilt in all directions, was higher than a 838 839 regular chair and did not include a backrest. Both experimental conditions were performed on the same day, but residual fatigue was minimized by allowing for a 20-minute recovery period 840 841 between conditions (Le & Marras, 2016a). To further reflect ecological validity, measurements should be taken in more ecological conditions, including taking measurements over a longer 842 period of time to assess the longer-term potential effects of the cycling condition. Lastly, our 843 844 sample size was smaller than hoped and could explain the few findings of sex specificity in our results. At the same time, it is also possible that there exists a truly high inter-individual 845 difference in activation patterns, especially in females. Future studies of sex-specific effects of 846 847 alternative computer workstations should test a higher sample size in order to address this issue with higher statistical power. 848

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5. Conclusion

852	Findings from the current study suggest sex-specific responses to cycling workstations
853	during 60-minute computer work tasks. The cycling computer workstation should be
854	recommended based on the computer worker's signs and symptoms; importantly, the observed
855	sex differences reinforce the notion that the same recommendations should not necessarily be
856	made for all males and all females. Future studies should measure other exposure measurements
857	and test the upper and lower body simultaneously in diverse populations to verify the benefits of
858	cycling computer workstations.
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CONCLUSION

Although several studies have examined discomfort and EMG outcomes during cycling 872 873 computer work, there is a lack of research regarding the sex-specific effects of cycling 874 workstations on upper body discomfort and visual outcomes during computer work when 875 compared to a seated control. This thesis aimed to fill this gap in knowledge. The results indicate 876 that cycling workstations may have a positive impact on mitigating visual discomfort. However, 877 our findings also revealed that cycling negatively affected males' performance, resulting in a 878 lower number of words per minute. In contrast, females' performance was unaffected by cycling 879 compared to the seated condition (WPM and AWPM). Furthermore, cycling conditions led to 880 smaller increases in neck/shoulder discomfort over time, particularly among females. We observed several interaction effects on EMG RMS during the cycling condition, with a less 881 pronounced increase compared to the seated condition, except for the neck/shoulder muscles. 882 883 Interestingly, low back muscle activity was higher and exhibited more variability over time 884 during cycling, especially in females, despite no difference in seat discomfort between the seated and cycling conditions. Conversely, EMG outcomes for neck/shoulder muscle activation 885 increased during sitting but decreased with time during cycling, particularly in females. Our 886 887 findings suggest that females, especially, could benefit from utilizing active computer workstations, from a whole-body perspective. Moreover, to mitigate the risk factors associated 888 889 with WMSDs, such as eye discomfort, neck/shoulder discomfort, and muscle activation 890 amplitude in females over time, it is advisable to avoid prolonged periods of seated computer work. 891

However, it is crucial to acknowledge the limitations of our study, including: 1)participants were sampled from a young and healthy sample population, 2) conducting both

894	sessions on the same day with a 20-minute recovery period between tasks, 3) the typing task not
895	fully reflecting actual computer work. Future studies should address these limitations by
896	analyzing data from a more diverse population and incorporating representative tasks for
897	computer work, thus further examining the benefits of cycling workstations. By addressing these
898	limitations, we can help prevent and reduce the potential development of WMSDs in the
899	workplace for both male and female computer users.
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1306	APPENDICES				
1307	Appendix A				
1308	Version Date: 16 - 08 - 2022 REB File #: 22-06-060				
1309					
1310 1311 1312	Are you interested in getting involved in research related to Kinesiology and biomechanics? Do you want to contribute to the science of computer work ergonomics?				
1313 1314	If so, then this is your chance to take part in a study that could help prevent muscle injuries in chronic computer users, just like yourself!				
1315					
1316	WE NEED YOU!				
1317	Criteria:				
1318 1319 1320 1321	 You should be between 18 and 30 years of age and in general good health, with no known musculoskeletal or neurological conditions of the upper or lower body in the past year You do not suffer from chronic headaches or dry eyes 				
1322	Objectives:				
1323 1324 1325 1326	 To determine the influence of under-desk cycling computer workstations on typing performance, posture, symptoms of discomfort, and visual fatigue. To evaluate if under-desk cycling affects male and female young adult computer users differently. 				
1327	Duration:				
1328 1329	• 1 session 4-5 hours Location:				
1330 1331	• Currie Gym, McGill University, 475 Pine Avenue West, Montreal, QC.				
1332	For more information, please contact:				
1333 1334 1335	 Malak Selim (<u>malak.selim@mail.mcgill.ca</u>) Supervisor: Dr. Julie Côté (<u>julie.cote2@mcgill.ca</u>) 				
1336 1337					

1338	Appendix B			
1340 1341	Version Date: 16 - 08 - 2022	REB File #: 22-06-060		
1342 1343	Participant Informed Consent form			
1344	Researcher			
1345 1346 1347 1348	Malak Selim, M.Sc. Candidate, Department of Kinesiology and Physical Education, McGil University, (514) 398-4455 ext. 0583 or 0783			
1349 1350	Supervisor			
1351 1352 1353	Julie Côté, Ph.D., Associate Professor, Department of Kine McGill University, (514) 398-4184 ext. 0539, (450) 688-955	esiology and Physical Education, 0, ext. 4813		
1354 1355 1256	Title of project			
1357 1358 1359	Sex-specific Electromyographic, Kinematic, Performance between Sitting and Cycling Computer Workstations	e, and Symptomatic Differences		
1360 1361	Sponsor			
1361 1362 1363 1364 1365 1366	Equipment and supplies for this project are funded by Canadian Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council (NSERC, RGPIN-2022-04757) and Canada Foundation fo Innovation (CFI #36715) research grants. The student in charge of this project is funded by Canada Graduate Scholarship – Master's level (CGS-M) by the NSERC.			
1367	Preamble/Introduction			
1369 1370 1371 1372	You are invited to participate in a study exploring the sex-spec on physical, physiological, and biomechanical outcomes of adults. Before participating in this study, please consider the f	cific effects of under desk cycling luring computer work in young following information.		
1374 1375 1375	Within this consent form, the aims of this study, the product drawbacks, as well as the necessary persons to contact will b	ocedures, advantages, risks, and e divulged.		
1376 1377 1378	Please feel free to ask any questions or disclose any informative researchers and other members of the staff assigned to the sta	ation you believe will benefit the udy or for your own clarity.		
1379 1380 1381	Project description, objectives, and planned dissemination	n		
1382 1383	The objective of this study is to compare differences in the he limb muscle activity, typing performance, and discomfort ch	ad posture and movements, upper naracteristics between under desk		

- cycling workstations and seated workstations as well as to uncover the sex-specific effects ofunder desk cycling during computer work in the above-mentioned outcomes.
- 1386

The long-term objective of this project is to further the understanding of the effects of underdesk-cycling on computer users. This research will ultimately serve to improve sex- specific evidence-based ergonomic interventions of computer users. Results from this project will be disseminated in the forms of a M.Sc. Thesis, conference presentations, and peer-reviewed manuscripts.

1392

1393 Nature and duration of your participation

- 1394 The study will take place at McGill University, Currie Gymnasium (Room 326) in Montreal.
- 1395 You are asked to participate in one experimental session that will last around 4-5 hours.
- The session will consist of three phases: <u>Phase 1</u>: familiarization/preparation (30-40 minutes),
 <u>Phase 2- computer typing task under two conditions (randomized)</u>: Condition 1- seated typing
 procedure (60 minutes), and Condition (2) under desk typing procedure (60 minutes), <u>Phase 3</u>:
 recovery (10 minutes).
- During <u>Phase 1</u>, The study will be explained to you, and you may clarify any questions/concerns.
 You will also be asked to fill out the Par-Q fitness questionnaire that evaluates your current
 overall fitness level, in order to determine if you can safely participate in this study.
- We will then measure and calculate the following: resting heart rate, heart rate reserve, height, weight, baseline neck-shoulder discomfort, upper body discomfort, and visual discomfort. You will then be instrumented with non-invasive muscle electrodes, kinematic markers, and a digital heart rate monitor. Following, you will be asked to perform a series of low-intensity tasks with the neck, shoulder, and trunk muscles.
- Lastly, you will be asked to practice cycling while typing for 5 minutes, followed by 5 minutesof seated typing work, followed by a 5-minute recovery.
- During <u>Phase 2</u>, You will be asked to complete a typing task under two conditions: a seated typing condition and an under-desk cycling condition. The order of these conditions will be randomized. Each protocol is approximately 70 minutes long. You will be asked to mark your perceived level of neck-shoulder discomfort, upper body discomfort, and eye fatigue on a visual analog scale every 10 minutes. There will be 20-minute rest period between the end of the first condition and the start of the second condition.
- 1416 During <u>Phase 3</u>, You will relax and recover from the typing procedure. You will be asked about 1417 your perceived level of the neck-should discomfort, upper body discomfort, and eye fatigue. 1418 You may walk around or sit to relieve any tension or discomfort you may feel
- 1418 You may walk around or sit to relieve any tension or discomfort you may feel.
- 1419

1420 Voluntary participation

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You are under no obligation to participate. You may withdraw at any time. You have the right to decline to answer any questions. If you choose to withdraw, all documents of your participation will be destroyed. You may also withdraw after participation until such time as your data remains identifiable. Once data has been published, it can't be withdrawn. We can only remove it from further analysis and publication.

1426 **Potential benefits associated with your participation.**

1427 There are no benefits from participating in this study. However, you will contribute to the 1428 advancement of knowledge on human movement and musculoskeletal injury.

1429

1430 **Potential risks associated with your participation.**

- 1431 None of the techniques used are invasive. Your participation in this project does not put you at1432 any medical risk.
- 1433

1434 **Personal inconvenience**

Some small regions (6, 3 x 3 cm each) of the skin over your neck, shoulder, and back muscles will be shaven before placing the electrodes. This may cause some redness and very light- mild irritation. Further, although it is hypo-allergenic, the adhesive tape used to fix the electrodes on your skin may also occasionally produce some slight skin irritation. Should this happen, a calming lotion will be applied to your skin to relieve skin irritation. Also, you may experience some fatigue towards the end of the typing protocol, which may cause some soreness, stiffness, and/or pain in your upper body.

1442

1443 Monetary compensation

1444 There is no monetary compensation for participating in this study.

1445 **Confidentiality**

All collected data will be securely stored in password-protected files on a password-protected computer. Your identifiable information will be kept separate in a locked filing cabinet in the Supervisor's office or lab. Only authorized individuals who are involved in the project will have access to this information. Your identification will be protected even if the results of this research project are presented or published. After a five-year period, identifiable data will be destroyed. The de-identifiable data will be kept for a total of seven years following publication, according to University Policy.

1453 The researchers may wish to photograph you during the study with a digital camera. All 1454 photographs are de-identified and may be used in presentations and publications. 1455 Consenting to camera photography is optional for this study.

1456

- *Yes:* <u>No:</u> You consent to camera photography. Images will not contain any of your
 facial features.
- 1459

Funding agencies and publishers often ask researchers to make their data accessible upon completion of their study. Making research data available to others allows qualified researchers to reproduce scientific findings and stimulates exploration of existing data sets. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, any shared data would be stripped of any information that could potentially identify a participant

1465

- 1466
 Yes: _____ No: _____ You consent for your de-identified data to be used for future, unspecified

 1467
 uses.
- 1468

1469 **Questions concerning the study**

You can ask questions at any time. The researchers present during the testing should answeryour questions in a satisfactory manner.

1472 **Contact persons**

1473 If you need to ask questions about the project, signal an adverse effect and/or an incident,
1474 you may contact Julie Côté, Ph.D., or Malak Selim, M.Sc., at the numbers indicated on the 1st
1475 page.

1476 If you have any questions or concerns regarding your rights or welfare as a participant in 1477 this research study, you can contact the McGill Ethics Officer at 514-398-6831 or email 1478 lynda.mcneil@mcgill.ca.

1479 1480

Please sign below if you have read the above information and consent to participate in this
study. Agreeing to participate in this study does not waive any of your rights or release the
researchers from their responsibilities. A copy of this consent form will be given to you and
the researcher will keep a copy.

1485

 1486
 Participant's Name: (please print) ______

1487	Participant's Signature:	 Date:

Appendix C







Appendix D